

**CHALIMBANA UNIVERSITY**

**DIRECTORATE OF DISTANCE EDUCATION**

**LBL 2303: BANTU LANGUAGES TEACHING METHODS**

**FIRST EDITION - 2019**

**AUTHOR: LEONARD MUNSAKA**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  |  |

**Copyright**

© 2019 Chalimbana University

All rights reserved.

No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrievable system, or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying or recording or otherwise without prior written permission of the copyright owner, Chalimbana University.

Chalimbana University

School of Humanities and Social Sciences

Department of Social Sciences

Private Bag E 1

Chongwe

Zambia

Acknowledgements

Chalimbana University wishes to thank Leonard Munsaka and Edith Sikota-Habwanda for their contribution in the production of this module.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  |  |

**TABLE OF CONTENTS**

[Copyright ii](#_Toc70512298)

[MODULE OVERVIEW x](#_Toc70512299)

[Introduction x](#_Toc70512300)

[Rationale xi](#_Toc70512301)

[Aim xi](#_Toc70512302)

[Course Outcomes xi](#_Toc70512303)

[Summary xi](#_Toc70512304)

[Study Skills xii](#_Toc70512305)

[Time Frame xiii](#_Toc70512306)

[Need Help? xiii](#_Toc70512307)

[Required Resources xiii](#_Toc70512308)

[Assessment xiv](#_Toc70512309)

[References xiv](#_Toc70512310)

[UNIT 1 1](#_Toc70512311)

[THE STATUS OF AFRICAN LANGUAGES 1](#_Toc70512312)

[1.0 Introduction 1](#_Toc70512313)

[Learning Outcomes 1](#_Toc70512314)

[1.1 Endoglossic and exoglossic language policies 1](#_Toc70512315)

[1.2 Attitudes of colonial powers towards African languages 2](#_Toc70512316)

[1.2.1 The French and Portuguese Territories 2](#_Toc70512317)

[1.2.2 British, Germany and Belgium Territories 2](#_Toc70512318)

[Activity 1.1 3](#_Toc70512319)

[Summary 3](#_Toc70512320)

[UNIT 2 4](#_Toc70512321)

[LANGUAGE SITUATION IN ZAMBIA 4](#_Toc70512322)

[2.0 Introduction 4](#_Toc70512323)

[Learning Outcomes 4](#_Toc70512324)

[2.1 The British Colonial Language Policy 4](#_Toc70512325)

[2.2 Pre- and Post-Independence Policies in Zambia 5](#_Toc70512326)

[2.3 French and Portuguese Territories 6](#_Toc70512327)

[2.4 The British, Germany and Belgium Territories 6](#_Toc70512328)

[2.5 Zambian Language Policies 6](#_Toc70512329)

[2.6 Post independence language policies 8](#_Toc70512330)

[2.7 Orthographic reforms 11](#_Toc70512331)

[2.7.1 Writing system, Orthography and script 11](#_Toc70512332)

[2.7.2 Qualities of a Good Orthography 13](#_Toc70512333)

[2.7.3 History of the development of Zambian language Orthography. 13](#_Toc70512334)

[2.7.3 Orthographic Reforms 15](#_Toc70512335)

[2.8 The factor of language in Zambia (1990). 16](#_Toc70512336)

[Activity 2.1 18](#_Toc70512337)

[Summary 18](#_Toc70512338)

[UNIT 3 19](#_Toc70512339)

[CONCEPTS RELATING TO LANGUAGE 19](#_Toc70512340)

[3.0 Introduction 19](#_Toc70512341)

[Learning Outcomes 19](#_Toc70512342)

[3.1 Dialect and idiolect 20](#_Toc70512343)

[3.2 Official language 20](#_Toc70512344)

[3.3 National language 20](#_Toc70512345)

[3.4 Lingua Franca 21](#_Toc70512346)

[3.5 Familiar language 21](#_Toc70512347)

[Activity 3.1 21](#_Toc70512348)

[Summary 22](#_Toc70512349)

[UNIT 4 22](#_Toc70512350)

[LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODOLOGY 22](#_Toc70512351)

[4.0 Introduction 22](#_Toc70512352)

[Learning Outcomes 22](#_Toc70512353)

[4.1 Approach 22](#_Toc70512354)

[4.2 Method 23](#_Toc70512355)

[4.3 Technique 23](#_Toc70512356)

[4.4 Eclecticism 23](#_Toc70512357)

[Activity 4.1 24](#_Toc70512358)

[Summary 24](#_Toc70512359)

[UNIT 5 25](#_Toc70512360)

[THEORIES AND METHODS OF LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING 25](#_Toc70512361)

[5.0 Introduction 25](#_Toc70512362)

[Learning Outcomes 25](#_Toc70512363)

[5.1The background of the teaching approaches and methods 25](#_Toc70512364)

[5.2Grammar-Translation Method (The classical method) 26](#_Toc70512365)

[5.3 Direct Method 29](#_Toc70512366)

[5.4 The Audio - lingual Method 31](#_Toc70512367)

[Behavioural Psychologists. 31](#_Toc70512368)

[5.5 Influences on the Audio-Lingual Method from Skinnerian Behaviour. 32](#_Toc70512369)

[The Weakness of Audio-Lingualism. 32](#_Toc70512370)

[5.6 Situational Method 38](#_Toc70512371)

[Principles and Teaching Strategies of the Situation Approach 38](#_Toc70512372)

[5.7 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) 41](#_Toc70512373)

[5.8The Cognitive-Code theory 45](#_Toc70512374)

[The Theoretical Basis of Cognitive Code Approach 47](#_Toc70512375)

[Principles and Techniques of the Cognitive-Code Approach 48](#_Toc70512376)

[Summary 51](#_Toc70512377)

[UNIT 6 52](#_Toc70512378)

[TEACHING ORAL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE 52](#_Toc70512379)

[6.0 Introduction 52](#_Toc70512380)

[Learning Outcomes 52](#_Toc70512381)

[6.1 Skills – Getting and Skills – Using Stage 53](#_Toc70512382)

[6.2 Teaching Speaking Skills 53](#_Toc70512383)

[6.3 Teaching Listening Skills 53](#_Toc70512384)

[Summary 55](#_Toc70512385)

[UNIT 7 56](#_Toc70512386)

[TEACHING READING 56](#_Toc70512387)

[7.0 Introduction 56](#_Toc70512388)

[Learning Outcomes 56](#_Toc70512389)

[7.1 Purpose of reading 57](#_Toc70512390)

[7.2 Types of reading 57](#_Toc70512391)

[7.3 Teaching materials 58](#_Toc70512392)

[7.4 What to consideration when selecting a reading passage for comprehension 58](#_Toc70512393)

[7.5 Types of Questions 59](#_Toc70512394)

[8.6 Intensive Reading 60](#_Toc70512395)

[8.7-Efficient reading (Comprehension) 62](#_Toc70512396)

[8.7.1 Procedure for teaching efficient reading (General guidelines) 62](#_Toc70512397)

[8.7.1.1 Skimming 62](#_Toc70512398)

[8.7.1.2 Scanning 62](#_Toc70512399)

[8.7.2 Detailed reading 63](#_Toc70512400)

[8.7.3 Revision reading 63](#_Toc70512401)

[8.8 Stages in reading a text 63](#_Toc70512402)

[8.9 Extensive reading (Class reader, Class library, School library) 64](#_Toc70512403)

[UNIT 9 68](#_Toc70512404)

[TEACHING WRITING SKILLS 68](#_Toc70512405)

[9.0 Introduction 68](#_Toc70512406)

[Learning Outcomes 68](#_Toc70512407)

[9.1The Basic Structure of a Composition 68](#_Toc70512408)

[9.2 Planning the composition 69](#_Toc70512409)

[9.2.1 Writing the first paragraph 70](#_Toc70512410)

[9.2.2 Writing the problem / conflict 70](#_Toc70512411)

[9.3 Skills and exercises for composition writing 72](#_Toc70512412)

[Activity 9.1 73](#_Toc70512413)

[UNIT 10 73](#_Toc70512414)

[TEACHING SUMMARY SKILLS 73](#_Toc70512415)

[10.0 Introduction 73](#_Toc70512416)

[Learning Outcomes 73](#_Toc70512417)

[10.1 Summaries in everyday life 74](#_Toc70512418)

[10.2 Skills involved in summary 74](#_Toc70512419)

[10.3 Some important summary skills 75](#_Toc70512420)

[10.4 Forms of summary 75](#_Toc70512421)

[10.5 The teaching of summary in the primary school 76](#_Toc70512422)

[Activity 10.1 76](#_Toc70512423)

[Summary 77](#_Toc70512424)

[UNIT 11 78](#_Toc70512425)

[TEACHING OF LITERATURE IN ZAMBIAN LANGUAGE 78](#_Toc70512426)

[11.0 Introduction 78](#_Toc70512427)

[Learning Outcomes 78](#_Toc70512428)

[11.1 Reasons for teaching literature to secondary school pupils. 79](#_Toc70512429)

[11.2 Approaches in the teaching of literature 80](#_Toc70512430)

[11.2.1 Single Text Approach 80](#_Toc70512431)

[11.2.2 Thematic Approach 80](#_Toc70512432)

[11.3 How and what to teach in a local Language literature lesson 81](#_Toc70512433)

[11.3.1 Understanding and retention of surface content 81](#_Toc70512434)

[11.3.2 Appreciation of the plot 82](#_Toc70512435)

[11.3.4 Awareness of themes of the story 84](#_Toc70512436)

[11.3.5 Awareness of writing techniques 85](#_Toc70512437)

[Activity 11.1 86](#_Toc70512438)

[Summary 86](#_Toc70512439)

[UNIT 12 87](#_Toc70512440)

[ERROR ANALYSIS AND MARKING 87](#_Toc70512441)

[12.0 Introduction 87](#_Toc70512442)

[Learning Outcomes 87](#_Toc70512443)

[12.1 Defining error analysis 87](#_Toc70512444)

[12.2 Distinction between Mistakes and Errors 88](#_Toc70512445)

[12.3 The significance of learners’ errors 88](#_Toc70512446)

[12.4 Identifying learners’ mistakes and errors 88](#_Toc70512447)

[12.5 Symbols used when marking learners’ work 89](#_Toc70512448)

[Activity 12.1 93](#_Toc70512449)

[Summary 93](#_Toc70512450)

[UNIT 13 94](#_Toc70512451)

[DOCUMENTATION AND PLANNING FOR LESSONS 94](#_Toc70512452)

[13.0 Introduction 94](#_Toc70512453)

[Learning Outcomes 94](#_Toc70512454)

[13.1 Syllabus Design 95](#_Toc70512455)

[13.1.1 The importance of the syllabus 95](#_Toc70512456)

[13.1.2 Types of syllabuses 95](#_Toc70512457)

[13.1.3 Selection of a syllabus 98](#_Toc70512458)

[13.1.4 Using the syllabus 98](#_Toc70512459)

[13.2 Schemes of Work 98](#_Toc70512460)

[13.3 Importance of schemes of work 99](#_Toc70512461)

[13.4 Lesson planning. 100](#_Toc70512462)

[13.5 The significance of the introduction in a lesson 101](#_Toc70512463)

[13.5.2 The main stages of the lesson plan 101](#_Toc70512464)

[13.5 Records of work 102](#_Toc70512465)

[13.5.1 Importance of Records of Work 103](#_Toc70512466)

[Activity 13.1 104](#_Toc70512467)

[Summary 104](#_Toc70512468)

[UNIT 14 105](#_Toc70512469)

[ASSESSMENT 105](#_Toc70512470)

[14.0 Introduction 105](#_Toc70512471)

[Learning Outcomes 105](#_Toc70512472)

[14.1 Reasons for testing 106](#_Toc70512473)

[14.2 Relationships between learning, teaching and testing 106](#_Toc70512474)

[14.3 Types of assessment 106](#_Toc70512475)

[14.4 Assessing language skills at secondary school level 107](#_Toc70512476)

[14.5 Assessing language skills 109](#_Toc70512477)

[14.5.1 Involving learners in the assessment process 110](#_Toc70512478)

[14.5.2 Assessing oral work 111](#_Toc70512479)

[14.5.3 Characteristics of good questioning 111](#_Toc70512480)

[14.5.4 Formulating test items in a Zambian language lesson 114](#_Toc70512481)

[General guidelines for writing all types of items. 114](#_Toc70512482)

[14.5.5 Characteristics of a Good Language Test 114](#_Toc70512483)

[D. Discrimination: 118](#_Toc70512484)

[Activity 14.1 118](#_Toc70512485)

[UNIT 15 119](#_Toc70512486)

[MONITORING 119](#_Toc70512487)

[15.0 Introduction 119](#_Toc70512488)

[Learning Outcomes 119](#_Toc70512489)

[15.1 Monitoring 119](#_Toc70512490)

[15.2 The importance of monitoring teaching and learning in schools 120](#_Toc70512491)

[1. Accountability 120](#_Toc70512492)

[2. Performance 120](#_Toc70512493)

[3. Planning 120](#_Toc70512494)

[15.3 Types of Monitoring 121](#_Toc70512495)

[15.3.1 Peer observation 121](#_Toc70512496)

[15.3.1.1 Advantages of peer observation to teachers 122](#_Toc70512497)

[15.3.1.2 Advantages of peer observation to institutions 123](#_Toc70512498)

[15.3.2 School authorities’ observations 123](#_Toc70512499)

[15.3.2.1 School Head Teacher/ Deputy Head Teacher 123](#_Toc70512500)

[15.3.2.2 Head of Departments (HOD) 124](#_Toc70512501)

[15.3.3 District authorities (Standards officers) 125](#_Toc70512502)

[15.3.4 Provincial monitors (Subject specialists) 126](#_Toc70512503)

[15.4 Monitoring, Assessment, Recording, Reporting and Accountability 127](#_Toc70512504)

[Activity 15.1 127](#_Toc70512505)

[PRESCRIBED READINGS 128](#_Toc70512506)

[RECOMMENDED READINGS 128](#_Toc70512507)

##

## MODULE OVERVIEW

## Introduction

Welcome to LBL 2303: Bantu Languages Teaching Methods. The course is basically exposing you to the Bantu Languages teaching methods that you would need for your teaching in secondary school. You may be aware that some schools in Zambia still use teachers who have not trained in Zambian languages to teach even at senior section just because they are speakers of Zambian Language taught in that school. This has led to many of such teachers to choose from the curriculum what to teach and leave out content which they do not understand untaught. We hope you will appreciate the methods and the content found in various units of this module as you prepare to become an effective Bantu Language teacher.

## Rationale

This module is about Bantu Languages Teaching methods. Many times, a good number of teachers find it a challenge teaching Zambian languages adequately owing to lack of teaching methodologies. This makes it very difficult for teachers teaching Zambian languages in our schools. The module spells out some of the major challenges and suggests methods and strategies that you will discover as you interact with the course material. The module will help you use the methods and strategies modified to individual style in your teaching.

## Aim

The major aim of this module is to avail you to different teaching methods necessary for effective teaching of Zambian languages.

## Course Outcomes

By the end of this course, you are expected to;

* explain the attitude of colonial powers towards African languages.
* state the language situation in Zambia and the status of these languages.
* discuss the concepts relating to these languages.
* explain different language teaching methodologies.
* discuss theories and methods of language teaching and learning.
* explain how to teach literature in Zambian languages.
* explain the importance of psycholinguistics to language learning teaching
* discuss different documentation and planning for lessons.
* explain the different types of assessment.
* discuss the different types of monitoring done in schools.

## Summary

This module deals with methods of teaching Bantu Languages, focusing on Zambian languages. Unit 1 introduces you to the status of African languages. It looks at the language policies adopted by the African states at independence; whether endoglossic or exoglossic. It discusses also the attitudes of colonial powers to African languages, including the attitude by Africans in British colonies.

Unit 2 is on the language situation in Zambia. Under this, the background of teaching and learning Zambian languages which took three distinct phases has been given. The Zambian language policies of the pre-colonial, colonial and post-independence have been discussed. This unit further deals with the orthographic reforms in Zambia, stipulating the contribution done by the missionaries, the British government and the Zambian government.

In the third unit, concepts relating to language have been discussed. These include language, dialect, idiolect, official language, national language, lingua franca, familiar language, and monolingualism, bilingualism and multlingualism.

The fourth unit deals with methodological terms. These are approach, method, technique and eclecticism. In Unit 5, various theories and methods of teaching and learning have been discussed. These include the Grammar-translation method, direct method, audio-lingual, and situational methods, and cognitive code and communicative language approach.

Unit 6 covers oral communicative skills, focusing on skills-getting and skills-using stages while Units 7, 8 and 9 deal with teaching reading skills, writing skills and summary skills respectively. Unit 10 covers the teaching of literature in Zambian languages.

Unit 11 deals with error analysis and marking. It has distinguished between errors and mistakes. It also gives clues on how to identify learners’errors and mistakes. Unit 12 is on psycholinguistics, basically dealing with how children learn language and the strategies that can be employed. Unit 13 is on documentation and planning for teaching whereas Units 14 and 15 deal with assessment and monitoring respectively.

Study Skills

As an adult learner your approach to learning will be different to that from your school days: you will choose what you want to study, you will have professional and/or personal motivation for doing so and you will most likely be fitting your study activities around other professional or domestic responsibilities.

Essentially you will be taking control of your learning environment. As a consequence, you will need to consider performance issues related to time management, goal setting, stress management, etc. Perhaps you will also need to reacquaint yourself in areas such as essay planning, coping with exams and using the web as a learning resource.

Your most significant considerations will be *time* and *space* i.e. the time you dedicate to your learning and the environment in which you engage in that learning.

We recommend that you take time now, before starting your self-studyto familiarise yourself with these issues. There are a number of excellent resources on the web. A few suggested links are:

<http://www.how-to-study.com/>

The “How to study” web site is dedicated to study skills resources. You will find links to study preparation (a list of nine essentials for a good study place), taking notes, strategies for reading text books, using reference sources, test anxiety.

<http://www.ucc.vt.edu/stdysk/stdyhlp.html>

This is the web site of the Virginia Tech, Division of Student Affairs. You will find links to time scheduling (including a “where does time go?” link), a study skill checklist, basic concentration techniques, control of the study environment, note taking, how to read essays for analysis, memory skills (“remembering”).

<http://www.howtostudy.org/resources.php>

Another “How to study” web site with useful links to time management, efficient reading, questioning/listening/observing skills, getting the most out of doing (“hands-on” learning), memory building, tips for staying motivated, developing a learning plan.

The above links are our suggestions to start you on your way. At the time of writing these web links were active. If you want to look for more go to [www.google.com](http://www.google.com) and type “self-study basics”, “self-study tips”, “self-study skills” or similar.

Time Frame

One year comprising three residential schooling; two (2) weeks of contact sessions per residential school. You need three (3) hours for formal study per week and you are expected not to spend less than ten (10) hours per week for self-study.

Need Help?

Contact: Leonard Munsaka/ Edith Sikota-Habwanda/ Hilary Hamaundu

Email: munsakaleonard54@gmail.com/edithhabwanda@yahoo.comchabotah2012@gmail.com

Office: Tutorial Block 1, Room 6

Required Resources

Apart from this module, as you may be interested in learning more on this subject, we have provided you with a list of recommended readings; these are books, articles and websites.

**Assessment**

**Continuous Assessment 50%**

One assignment 20%

One seminar presentation 10%

One test 20%

**Final examination 50%**

**Final mark 100%**

References

Finnegan,R.(2012).*Oral Literature in Africa*. Cambridge: Open Book Publishers.

Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T.S. (2001). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*.

Cambridge: Cambridge University.

#

# UNIT 1

# THE STATUS OF AFRICAN LANGUAGES

## 1.0 Introduction

Let us begin by looking at the status of African languages during and after colonial rule. We will discuss the African language policies and the attitudes of the colonial masters towards African languages especially Zambian languages and how the Africans were made to believe regarding their languages. You will also look at the influence of the colonial masters on language policy in Zambia and how the British organised the education system whose impact is still being felt today.

## Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you are expected to;

* explain the attitude of the British and the French towards African languages in colonial Zambia.
* give an account of the language policy that was being used by colonial masters.
* explain how Africans were made view their languages as far as the colonial masters were concerned.

## Endoglossic and exoglossic language policies

At independence, most African countries had a challenge on which language should be given national status. The states chose between endoglossic and exoglossic language policy. The states that had one indigenous language went for an endoglossic language policy while those that were multilingual opted for an exoglossic one. Now what do you understand by the terms ‘endoglossic’ and ‘exoglossic’? Which African countries do you think chose an endoglossic languages policy and which ones opted for the other?

## Attitudes of colonial powers towards African languages

Colonialism had an impact on the African continent on the language policy. Colonial language policies of Africa concerning the official or national language has led to the creation of groupings of countries such as Anglo-phone, Franco-phone, and Portuguese speaking countries). The relationship of colonisers was that of ‘master-servant’. The master felt their language and culture superior and so took advantage of that to colonise the countries. They used the ‘divide and rule’ system. Europeans rewarded those who sided and accepted that the language and culture of blacks were inferior, thus took advantage and introduced their own policies.

## 1.2.1 The French and Portuguese Territories

The French and the Portuguese discouraged African languages. Only French and Portuguese were the only languages that were used in education. The French referred their language as the “Language of civilization”. They assimilated the Africans as French or Portuguese. In Angola, Mozambique they called them as “asimilado or assimilada” to refer to women.

The African who proved themselves as French academically were sponsored to go and study in France. One had to accept that African languages were backward and that French and Portuguese were superior. The French indoctrinated the people in the school system.

The Portuguese were ruthless because they went out in villages compelling black people to have Portuguese names and had them speak Portuguese. Blacks were not allowed to speak their languages even in their homes. Africans were made to believe that they had no history but all myths.

At independence indigenous language had no written materials e.g. text books. The revolt for the countries was cultural renaissance rather than political revolution.

## 1.2.2 British, Germany and Belgium Territories

The British used indirect rule by way of using chiefs to work on their subjects. They believed in separate development. For instance there was a Minister for African Education and a Minister for European education. The British saw no need to acculturate people and for Africans to learn English and the English culture. They feared that if Africans leant their language and culture will become knowledgeable and become difficult to govern for they will know their weaknesses. They wanted to maintain the myth that they were superior to Africans.

Belgians colonised Congo DR. but introduced French and English. The Germany in Tanzania did not introduce German language but introduced Swahili instead, (LSE 372 Lecture notes).

## Activity 1.1

1. What do you understand by the terms ‘endoglossic’ and ‘exoglossic’?

2. What language policy do you think was adopted by Zambia?

## Summary

The unit has looked at the status of African languages at independence, focusing on the language policy they adopted. It has also discussed the attitudes of the colonial masters on African languages. While the French and Portuguese discouraged the use of African languages, the British and Belgians promoted the indigenous languages. This helped develop these languages even before independence.

# UNIT 2

# LANGUAGE SITUATION IN ZAMBIA

#

## 2.0 Introduction

This unit deals with language situation in Zambia. It introduces you to language policy from pre-colonial to date. It includes African language policies in British, French and Portuguese territories. Language in education and the standards of language in any society of a country is an important phenomenon which should be studied by all language scholars. In order to understand the situation and status of African languages in general and the Zambian languages in particular, it is worthy for you to begin from the language policy of the pre- independence era.

## Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you are expected to;

* explain the pre-colonial language policy towards African languages in general.
* explain why English language was a preferred language of instruction at independence in 1964.
* mention specific Zambian languages policies during pre-colonial, colonial, and post-colonial periods in Zambia.
* discuss the major changes that characterised the Zambian Languages Orthography.

## 2.1 The British Colonial Language Policy

What historical connection does Britain have with some African counties? The British colonial language policy was described as one of the benevolent tolerance. The colonial government allowed the teaching of African languages as media of instruction at lower primary level and English was only taught as subject.

A lot of research was done in African languages leading to the printing of grammar books and dictionaries in local languages.

Culturally, there was complete segregation – the whites and their system of education on one hand and the Africans on their own. Are you able to describe the two education systems that existed then?

## 2.2 Pre- and Post-Independence Policies in Zambia

The imposition of European languages in Africa: English, Spanish, French, Portuguese was a result of conquest of many kingdoms in Africa and the subsequent subjugation of its people by European powers. The relationship that developed between the Africans and Europeans was one of master and servant. This had also implications in the way European languages were viewed in relation to the African ones. The Europeans considered themselves superior not only technologically but also culturally to Africans. Languages in Africa were frowned upon and Africans themselves saw advantages economically and socially of learning European languages to benefit from their masters. Hence European languages assumed superiority in the minds of the African. Some of these European powers deliberately reinforced the negative attitudes to African languages through unfavorable language policies. At independence, many African countries could not shed colonial policies but instead supported the continued use of colonial languages by making them ‘national official’ languages. The official language policies of colonial governments were characterized as follows:

European languages were forced on the Africans in varying degrees by different colonial powers.

## 2.3 French and Portuguese Territories

In these territories African languages were discouraged. Only Portuguese and French could be used in Education. For example, in 1959 the Metropolitan Ordinance of Vilers-Cotteret outlawed the use of any other language other than French for official purposes in French territories. Portuguese and French territories sought to assimilate Africans, that is, to make them culturally Portuguese or French. In Angola, Mozambique and Portuguese Guinea, for one to have advantage of an assimilado/ assimilada, one had to be able to read and write Portuguese. Africans were made to believe their languages and cultures were backward, and that French and Portuguese were the languages of civilization.

## 2.4 The British, Germany and Belgium Territories

In these territories, there was an active encouragement in the use of African languages and no real effort at assimilating Africans. The British used the system of indirect rule in most of the territories. They used, for example, chiefs to carry out their colonial policies colonial policies over their subjects. It has sometimes been argued that the decision not to promote the teaching of European languages was a deliberate plan to keep Africans ignorant because teaching them would have exposed them to literature in those languages. They would have become knowledgeable and difficult to govern. While the British and the Belgians later allowed the teaching of English and French respectively, Germans, for example, in Tanzania promoted the use of local languages like Swahili. They did not want German to be taught, (Awoniyi, 1982).

## 2.5 Zambian Language Policies

For most of the colonial period in Zambia, when most of the primary schools were run by the missionary societies, the practice was to use a mother tongue in the first two grades of primary school and then an African Lingua Franca in the middle grades before shifting to English in upper grades. The occupation and rule of Zambia first by the British South African company in 1890and later direct rule by the British colonial office in 1924did not change this three-language policy.

The policy was upheld and supported by the Phelps Stokes Commission from the United States, in 1924, in its reportofthestudy of the African education of East, Central, and Southern Africa. It made some recommendations on the way education institutions should be run. Among these, were some made specifically to do with language teaching (Ohannessian and Kashoki, 1978: 278-279).

It emphasized the importance of teaching African languages as ways of preserving the African cultural heritage, ideas, ideals, and self-identity as Africans. Thus it saw language as a right. It recommended that African languages be taught in lower grades of primary school starting with a mother tongue and then moving to and then moving into an African Lingua Franca in middle grades in the area.

It also stressed the importance of teaching English because it would offer many opportunities and advantages to Africans English language was seen as a means of acquiring information and uniting Africa with the great civilizations of the world. English was to be taught in upper grades of primary school.

Following these recommendations , in 1927, the Advisory Board of Native Education of Northern Rhodesia, made a decision to use four local languages as medium of instruction in the first four years of primary school and these were Silozi in Barotseland (Western Province), Chitonga in North Western Rhodesia(Southern Province), Icibemba in North Eastern Rhodesia (Northern Province) west of the Luangwa River and Nyanja in North Eastern Rhodesia (Eastern Province) east of the Luangwa River (Ohannessian and Kashoki, 1978:287).

In 1930 it was decided that where ever there were teachers qualified to teach in English , it should be used as a medium of instruction after pupils had acquired initial literacy in local languages (Kashoki (1978: 288-289). The decision was made in view of the fact that there was no lingua franca in the country and English could be used as such. There was no departure from the practice of the missionaries in that a mother tongue was used in the first two years of primary school and then a dominant regional lingua franca (e.g. Silozi, Chitonga, Nyanja, and Icibemba) was taught up to the fourth year where this was different from the mother tongue. English was used as medium of instruction from the fifth year and trough out secondary school level and university level.

However, there were increased calls for the introduction of English much earlier in primary schools. African parents felt that Europeans were deliberately trying to hold back the development of their children by teaching them African languages which appeared to have no economic or even social advantages as compared to English. Therefore, in 1956, English was being taught as a subject in the second year of primary school in some African no-fee paying schools. By 1962, it had found its way into the first grade. Just before independence, the demand for English especially by the settler community became more insistent, and as a result, UNESCO was requested to study the educational system to make recommendations. In the report that came out of this study by a team of Australian Educationists, it was recommended that English be introduced as a medium of instruction from the first grade of primary school, (Kelly, 1995). This recommendation was supported by another report by a British language officer, Hardman in 1965. The argument was that the earlier pupils started the language the better would be their spoken and written language. It was difficult to see how the first of these (spoken language) was to be achieved when the teachers were non-native. English was also said to have more literature and would provide access to greater store of knowledge and information. This would lead to a general improvement in the education of children and help them to learn with ease other subjects in upper grades and secondary school, which would be taught in English (Kelly, 1965). It was further argued that children would transfer literacy skills to local languages once they had acquired literacy in English.

## 2.6 Post independence language policies

A year after independence, in 1965, the new nationalist government decided to follow the Radford recommendation to go for the English from the start policy and, in the following year, 1966, this was enshrined in the education act. Kelly (1995) believes political considerations may have played a major part in the decision by the new government to introduce English as a medium of instruction.

In all, the British colonial government encouraged the teaching of African languages, laying a foundation of the post – independence period. As has already been discussed in the earlier unit the language policy changed immediately after independence. English language was preferred to be the medium of instruction at independence. Why do you think this was so?

The following are some of the reasons:

1. It was necessary to very quickly educate a lot of Zambians in order to enhance technological development in the country.
2. The transfer of teachers and pupils to different regions posed a lot of problems.
3. Zambia being a multilingual society needed a neutral language for unity purposes.
4. It was necessary to give the pupils an equal linguistic opportunity where L1 and L2 clashed.
5. It was felt that beginning to learn English at an early stage would lay a solid foundation for the learning of concepts.
6. It was believed that a child learns new languages faster when he/she is still young.

English was chosen because it was a neutral language in a multilingual and multiethnic society like Zambia. It was hoped, in this way, ethnic rivalries would be minimized since English did not belong to any tribe in the country. Thus, it was hoped it would foster national unity.

The number of official regional Zambian languages was augmented to cater for some tribes in North-Western province which not been fairly represented by the four languages used in schools during the colonial time. Now there were seven Zambian languages with that status: Silozi, Nyanja, Icibemba, Chitonga, Kikaonde, Luvale, and Lunda. These are used in the media, local courts and as subjects in schools.

It is worthy mentioning that Zambia has an estimated 72 ethnic groups who speak according to (Nkosha, 2006: 1), between20-25 mutually unintelligiblelanguages. The seven official regional languages therefore do not represent all the possible languages.

Although the seven official languages were to continue as school subjects, in many urban schools they were sometimes not taught or were given scant attention. One of the reasons for this neglect was the fact that a pupil did not need topassin a Zambian language in the national examinations at grade seven to be selected to secondary school. This tended to weaken the status of Zambian languages. Many graduates of the primary school system in the seventies and early eighties therefore, had very poorliteracyskills in Zambian languages because they were either poorly taught or taught themselves by transferring literacy skills from English to Zambian languages which was not easy.

By the end of the eighties, however, it was clear that literacy levels had fallen and were continuing to do so in the country. Many school leavers at the end of the primary school were unable to read and write in both Zambian and English languages. Study after study of literacy levels confirmed what people had noticed. In 1992 and 1994, Eddie Williams (1998), for example, conducted a study funded by the Overseas Development Agency (ODA)of the reading proficiency in English and two local languages Chichewa and Nyanja, in Malawi and Zambia, respectively. This study was designed to find out whether pupils in Zambia had an edge over their Malawian counterparts in English proficiency as a result of starting with English as a medium of instruction from grade one compared to Malawians who start in grade 5 and use Chichewa from grades one to four. He tested pupils at grade 3, 4 and 6 in rural schools (three for each)and urban schools (two for each country) in the 1992 study and grade 5 in the 1994)study.

The results revealed that reading proficiency was not only very poor among Zambian pupils but also showed no clear advantage for them over their Malawian counterparts in English. In fact Malawians had higher mean scores at all grades although these results were not statistically significant. The Malawian pupils at all levels outperformed the Zambians in local language proficiency.

The low literacy levels were further confirmed in the 1995 survey of basic literacy skills by the South African Consortium for monitoring Educational Quality (SACMECQ) carried out in participating southern African countries in which Zambia was part of. This was based on the syllabi for each country and the tests were based on items covered in the language components in grad six. It found that only 25.8 % of grade six pupils, in Zambia could read at a minimum leveland 2.3% at the desired level (Nkamba and Kanyika, 2000:72). In 1995, the government was alarmed by these findings, set up the Zambia English reading Committee which later became the Zambia National Reading when its terms of reference were expanded to include Zambian languages. It was charged with the f responsibilities of:

1. Raising the awareness of the reading problem
2. Seeking solutions as a matter of agency
3. Identifying collaborative partners who would assist in implementing these solutions (Kelly, 1998:10)

The committee recommended that children should achieve basic literacy by the end of grade one in a local language. And basic literacy in English by the end of grades two. It also recommended improved teaching of literacy in all the other grades (Kelly, 1998: 10). These recommendations were incorporated in the education policy document,*Educating Our Future (*Ministry of Education henceforth, MOE, 1996). According to this document, the language of instruction at all levels of education still remains English but initially literacy will be taught in a local Zambian language for each region of the country. This will be done because:

The fact that initial reading skills are taught in and through a language unfamiliar to the majority of the children is believed to be a major contributory factor to the backwardness in reading shown by many Zambian children (MOE, 1996:39). Learning initial literacy would be easier and faster in a local language and transfer to English would be facilitated. “Successful first language learning is, in fact, believed to be essential for the successful literacy in a second language (Ibid)”. It would also raise the status of local languages .English, according to this policy, would continue as a language of instruction because introducing any other language would present insoluble implementation problems.

## 2.7 Orthographic reforms

This falls under corpus planning. Working on the code, how it will be written, how clear it will be. This is done by linguists. Orthographic reforms aims at ensuring that spoken languages are correctly represented in written form.

## 2.7.1 Writing system, Orthography and script

a) Writing system refers to the ways in which man has strived present language in visual ways through signs and symbols on paper, wood, stones etc. The signs and symbols aim at representing the sounds in language, e.g. velar nasal ‘ŋ, ng’or n (with a bar).

1. Pictography

They scanned drew pictures of people killing animals. This gave clue to historians of the life the san led. Pictographs not economical, so many pictures are difficult to interpret abstract ideas, not efficient.

1. Logography: Use of signs and symbols to stand for words. Logos (Greek) means word and graph means writing. This writing system requires thousands of symbols to stand for words in a language. So not economical, it would be also impossible to learn due to limitations of human memory. So no purely logographic system in the world.
2. Phonographic writing: The Sumerians and Egyptians discovered phonographic principles (the idea that a symbol can be made to represent a particular word but also other words with same sounds.Phonography means writing of sounds. The Chinese system is partly phonographic and partly logographic. Symbols or Chinese characters represents words and similar sounds, various languages use the same symbols and all can read it in their various languages. However, it is not easy to learn the characters for it takes time. Purely logographic system is impossible. I am sure you have seen Chinese characters on some of their structures and brochures.
3. Syllabic writing

A writing which is more efficient representing syllables, egba, ca, te :cv one can write a thousands of words just using a few syllables representing syllables but combining them in various ways.

1. Alphabetical writing

The Greeks moved a step further by using a single symbol(letters) to represent single phoneme. \b\ represented letter b. Romans used simi9lar system.

Missionaries used the alphabetical writing system so Zambian languages have the alphabetical writing system.

ii) Script refers to signs or symbols used in representing a writing system. E.g.Chinese character. The Russians use Cyrillic script different from Roman script. The English and Russian follow the alphabetic writing system. Arabs, Indians, etc. have their own. Amharic has its own script. The script represents a writing system.

iii) Orthography.

Writers refer to this as spelling, rules of language or, the correct or standard spelling. English and Zambian language use alphabetical system of writing but have different spelling system /orthographies. Alphabetical principle - one letter represents one sound. In English this does not apply - for some letters can represent more than one sound. egin life and laugh, the phoneme /f/ is represented in two different ways , in ‘laugh’ there is diagraph ( two letters) whereas in ‘life’ /f/ is represented in one letter.

In Zambian language however no such phenomenon. There is consistency in having one letter or grapheme in presenting one sound. Zambian languages thus have transparent orthographies because you can see the relationship between letters and sounds. English orthography is opaquebecause it has 26 letters representing 42 phonemes. It is, therefore, easy to teach reading and writing in Zambian languages.

Orthography can be based in an accepted usage or can be prescribed by an official body. It is a matter of convention. In Zambia,the Ministry of Education has prescribed how the /ʒ/ should be written. Compare with the way the same sound (phoneme) is written in English.

## 2.7.2 Qualities of a Good Orthography

1. It should represent the language accurately the way it is spoken. All phonemes therefore must be carefully identified, then represented in a one to one correspondence. Thus begin to identify sounds of a language. Jewish fathers did well with education of Tonga.
2. It should be easy to read by both native and non – native speakers who learn the language.
3. It should make it possible to write and read at a fast speed.
4. It must be economical in time and space.

Bantu languages are agglutinative (having so many pieces of morphemes to come up with grammatical information.) eg. ndakabajana, ‘I found them’.

English is an isolative language (presents morphemes separately)

## 2.7.3 History of the development of Zambian language Orthography.

We identify three (3) phases in the development of the Zambian Languages Orthography; the Christian Missionary, the colonial government and post-independence.

1) **Christian missionaries** played an important role. They came from different denominations. They developed the Orthography of Zambian languages. The primary purpose was to promote the word of God. So theyreduced the local languages to written form. They began with grammar books, word lists and dictionaries. Missionaries were trained in anthropology, sociology and linguistics .They learnt local languages and cultures of people. Quality of orthography depended on the expertise or lack of it to those missionaries. Related dialects also were written differently depending on the missionaries that first settled there. These had different orientations. Their efforts, however, helped start literacy works in these languages.

2) The role of the **colonial government** brought new dimensions. The British colonialists took after the African languages policy to develop it rationally. Realized there were very low levels but wanted literate workers: shop keepers, clerks etc. Nyanja and Bemba were then introduced as school certificate exam subject.

They also wanted to find a way of controlling the Africans on determining on what they should read so as to remain servants. Introduced newspapers and Africans to spread their propaganda Bemba and English 12 pages long.

1937 – paper grew to 20 pages and had separate editors in Nyanja, Bemba, Tonga and English.

1948 – combine these two into one edition.

Other papers after independence:

liseli (lozi), intanda(Tonga), lukanga (Bemba), and ngoma (lunda, Kaonde, luvale) increased local languages from 4-7 languages that were introduced earlier developed in late 40s plus 50 literacy works developed.

3) **Post – independence period to date**.

More encouragement in sustaining publications in local languages. English medium (1966) CDC began as English medium center was established to spearhead the production of English material for primary course. By the end of the year Zambian language department was opened. Instrumental in history teaching methods and spearheading the production of text books, teaching and learning materials .Went to demos.

In 1970s materials in Zambian language where produced. In 1986 all primary grades to grade seven (7) had been covered. In 1987 British and Swedish governments sponsored production and revision of text books – grade seven(7). In 1990s writing of text books for junior secondary classes began in all Zambian languages covering all the language component writing, summary, comprehension and structure.

There are a lot of inadequacies in the books. Materials in senior schools are not yet published.

Tonga and Lozi examined in 1975 certificate. Lunda, Kaonde,Luvale in 1997.

Recently the reintroduction of Zambian language as media of instruction for teaching grade 1 and vehicle for teaching initial literacynow applies to both government and private schools. Only international schools have continued to use English.

## 2.7.3 Orthographic Reforms

Missionaries who reduced the languages had each a background that had different orientations due to the writing system that influenced eg, Makina– English

Macquina \_ Portuguese

There were thus a lot of mistakes. Very little was considered about the sound system presented. The sounds they heard could not correctly detect the sound they heard so wrote them differently e.g

Mungi – Mongu

Sinanga – Senanga

Mumpolokoso– Mporokoso

Mwiniluna – Mwinilunga

They found the sound system strange. The missionaries also did not have linguistic orientations. eg white fathers who reduced Bemba – no linguistics. ukupapa‘to be surprised’ ,ukupapa‘to carry a baby on the back’. Such problems are failing to distinguish sounds, use of circumflex in writing etc. Lack of uniformity, inconsistency among the writers initiated the reforms of orthography.

One other issue of the Zambian languages writing system is thatthere were a lot of inconsistencies in the orthographies.Since the Zambian languages had not existed in writing for a long time there was room for harmonization. This leads us to categories of disjunctive and conjunctive writing system.

Orthographies fall into two categories;**disjunctive and conjunctive writing system.**A conjunctive writing system yields only one orthographic word. Words permit the agglutinative process to apply. Hence several morphemes are attached to form a word. In a conjunctive writing, morphological processes do also apply.I hope you are well vest with these morphological processes. A disjunctive orthography is isolating. Words are presented separately.

<http://www.njas.helsinki.fi/pdf-files/vol15num4/bosh7.pdf>(Downloaded on 23.01.19).

Choice of an orthography considers clarity, exactness (having a one-one correspondence) and simplicity (easy for everyone to read or write).Ensure the language is spelled the way it is written. At word boundaries, look at speech and how it can be segmented. A word should be semantically work as a word.

Most Bantu languages are naturally conjunctive, they keep to bound forms. Look at the Tonga example below:

Tonga: *Balalima*cannot be *Ba la lima*.‘They help him.’

They do not separate grammatical morphemes but keep many grammatical morphemes bound to many word forms. In African languages, conjunctive writing is recommended.

1. It facilitates reading and writing.
2. It governs all the grammatical treatment of the language.
3. It’s the right method.

These who wrote African languages disjunctively (separating the grammatical morphemes) were forcing Bantu languages into other grammars, e.gEnglish where ‘he’ stands on its own. They assumes as articles exist in Zambian language. Disjunction writing was introduced by the Paris Mission Society (PMS) in Western Province. These arguments made it possible for the Zambian government to look into the ways that in same language people use same writing.

Standardizing Orthographies in Zambian Languages

Standardization is creating an orthography that would be adhered to by everybody as it would lay down a foundation of:

1. Spelling
2. Word formation
3. Word division
4. Grammatical construction and general method of writing.
5. Word combination.

Standardization looks at one language. Harmonization looks at the spelling system to be used for various languages with different spelling systems. Standardization of Zambian languages was spearheaded by the MOE which formed the seven (7) committees of each of the languages.

## 2.8 The factor of language in Zambia (1990).

The committee’s intension was not to harmonize. Each language group was to look at rules to be followed, examine spoken language and come up with phonemes that would represent spoken languages. These were submitted to MOE.

Reasons for standardizing were to:

1. develop an orthography that would enhance the fulfillment of a particular language function in society.
2. correct the inconsistencies in the spelling system in local languages.
3. aid communication by making common solutions of representing spelling.

The committees had common areas of argument in the orthographies of Zambian languages.

The use of short and long vowels;five short vowels and five long vowels.

Common areas of argument in the new orthographies of Zambian languages .short and long vowels.

short vowels: a. e. i. o. u.

long vowels: aa. ee. ii. oo. uu.

It was also established that long vowels had particular functions. There were circumstances governing it.

Long vowels were used to mark semantic difference between words. e.g.

Bemba: Ukushika ‘to be deep’

 Ukushiika ‘to bury’

Tonga: Kubola ‘to rot’

Kuboolato come’

Lozi: Mata ‘run’

Maata ‘strength’

Also in tense;

Tonga: Baunka ‘they have gone’

Baaunka ‘they went’

Also to mark vowel coalescence or fusion;

Bemba: ici +ibi = iciibi ‘door’

Kaonde: ma + ino = meeno ‘teeth’

Lozi: si + anda = saandan ‘estate’

Tonga: mu + ombe= moombe ‘calf’.

All the seven Zambian languages had a distinct tone that would differentiate words but there was fear that the use of these diacritics would make reading more difficult.

For consonants, efforts were made to identify all phonemes in each language and present them as they are spoken without reference to other languages like English. In the process some new symbols were recommended to represent same sounds, e.g. the voiced velar nasal; n (Lozi) and ŋ (Tonga/Bemba), ng’ (Nyanja).

Word division; agreement to use the conjunctive orthography apart from Lozi that used distinctive orthography. All prefixes, infixes and suffixes were to be joined as one word.

1. Nominal forms: all stems and prefixes to be considered as constituting one word.
2. Adverbs, interjection and exclamations were to be considered separately.

MOE (1977) and Kashoki(1990)

Graphemes/ letters should represent the sounds that exist in the language,e.g. voiced bilabial fricative. Bemba /b/, Nyanja /w/.

## Activity 2.1

1. Explain the pre- and post-independence colonial policies in Zambia.

2. Discuss the development of Zambian languages orthography.

3. What was the attitude of the colonial masters towards Zambian languages?

## Summary

This unit has discussed the contribution made by missionaries, colonial government and post-independence period. The post-independence contribution has seen a great milestone in the writing of Zambian languages in schools as well as a guide to writers in the local languages.

## UNIT 3

## CONCEPTS RELATING TO LANGUAGE

## 3.0 Introduction

Language is a term which can refer to an individual language such as English and Bemba which is usually made up of mutually dialects and a language might have a standard written variety. Different languages are not usually mutually intelligible although as in many linguistic topics this is a matter of degree. Spanish and Portuguese are mutually intelligible to some extent; Sesotho, Silozi and Setswana –which are all southern Sotho varieties – are mutually intelligible but they are still considered to be independent languages. A speaker of Sesotho can understand Silozi and Setswana quite easily and carry on a conversation with someone speaking the other two languages. This suggests that for a variety to be called a “language” there must be social – cultural reasons rather than merely purely linguistic ones.

The term can also refer to language in general, that is, the system of rules that govern verbal behavior and allow communication to occur. This system of rules can be perceived as an abstract set of regulations governing the verbal behavior of a speech communication (langue), or it can be thought of as the largely unconscious mental knowledge governing the behavior of an individual speaker (competence).

## Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you are expected to;

* explain concepts relating to language.
* explain the link between idiolect and a lect.

## 3.1Dialect and idiolect

People do not speak a language, say Cinyanja in exactly the same way. The way they speak maydepend, for instance, on where they learnt the language or on their personal background. Eachlanguage is made of language varieties. A regional variety of a language is called a regional dialect. When a language variety is used by a specific social class, the language variety is known as a social dialect or sociolect. A sociolect is a variety of language used only by members of a particular group. The term dialectic also used to refer to a language as it is spoken in a given time in its historical development (temporal dialect). And the way an individual speaks a language speaks a language is his idiolect. Therefore, there are as many idiolects as there are speakers. In other words each speaker has his own idiolect. Any variety of language is a lect.

In the case of Zambia, there are numerous varieties of Zambianlanguagesvariations that characterisethelanguage of a particular group. These are collectively called a dialect. A dialect is a variety of language normally associated with speakers in a certain region or province.

## 3.2Official language

This is the language chosen and prescribed by the government for use in specified situations e.g. education, broadcasting, administration, judiciary, and parliamentary debatesand so on. These languages are gazzetted under and by the government policy. In Zambia, the first one is English. It is viewed to be the most important and prestigious because of the role bestowed upon it by the government and society at large. It is used as the main medium of instruction in the learning institutions. Its operations are at the national and international official communication levels.

## 3.3National language

A national language is a language of wider communication used at national level. Zambia has no national language and yet uses language as an official language. However, there are some countries in Africa which have indigenous African languages as national languages of their former colonial mastersas official languagese.g.

Botswana – Tswana - National language

Burundi - Kirundi – National language

 French – Official language

Tanzania - Swahili – National language

Kenya/ Uganda - English as official language

## 3.4 Lingua Franca

This is a language used as medium of communication for people who speak different first languages. It is spoken by people whose mother tongue it is, but learnt on a larger scale even by no-n native speakers. It a means of wider communication beyond the boundaries where it is expected to be used. It is generally agreed that that there is no national lingual Franca in Zambia. English is a lingua franca among the educated Zambians but not the majority of the Zambians

## 3.5Familiar language

Familiar languageis a language that is commonly spoken or heard in an area.

**Monolingual**is a person speaking only one language.

**Bilingualism** is a person who speaks two languages only.

**Multi-lingual country**isa country where so many languages are spoken or person speaking so many languages. Multilingual people are referred to as polyglots.

## Activity3.1

1 .Show the difference between a dialect and an idiolect

2. Define the following terms:

a. Official language

b. National language

c. Lingual Franca

d. Familiar language

e. Language teaching methodology

## Summary

In this unit, we have discussed concepts relating to language by looking at dialect and idiolect, official language, national language, lingua franca, and familiar language. These concepts are very important in the teaching of Bantu languages.

# UNIT 4

# LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODOLOGY

## 4.0 Introduction

This unit discusses the terms used in language teaching in liaison with various approaches and methods which you may or may not be familiar with. The terms will help you in the planning and in executing your lessons. Language Teaching Methodology is a system of practices and procedures that you as a teacher should use when teaching.

## Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you are expected to;

* explain the termsused in methodology.
* demonstrate understanding of the term eclecticism.

## 4.1Approach

An approach is a theory. It is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. Which language approaches did you study in your pre-service training? Which one do you utilize most? Well, the Cognitive Code Approach and Communicative Language Teaching Approach are some of the theories that govern the teaching and learning of language. What assumptions are advanced by these two approaches? You should be aware that an approach is axiomatic (That is, it is clear. It does not need to be proved). It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught.

## 4.2 Method

A method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part or which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic, a method is procedural. Within one approach, there can be many methods. Can you think of the various methods that you have used in your language lessons? Under what approach do they fall?

## 4.3 Technique

A technique is a particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective. A technique is implementational – that which actually takes place in a classroom. Techniques carry out a method that is consistent with an approach. Techniques must be consistent with a method, and therefore in harmony with an approach as well (Anthony 1963: 63-7; Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

To understand these concepts very well, take one approach, say the Cognitive Code Approach. Ask yourself what methods would be used under this approach. For learners to cognitively process information for themselves, you can engage them in a meaningful situation, thus using the Situational Method. The actual activities that would help you achieve the set outcomes are your techniques. In this case, you may use role-play, discussion or problem-solving.

## 4.4Eclecticism

The term eclecticism is not new to you. Eclecticism is a method that involves procedures and techniques drawn from various methods. It is useful in practical situations in the classroom. It is based on a specific theory or discipline but there are some assumptions underlying it:

Each one of the well-known methods has its own features. There is no one method which is comprehensive enough to meet the requirements of effective teaching and learning. All methods have strength and some weaknesses. Experienced teachers are very sensitive to the limitations of each method, so they reject the weak points of each approach and retain only those aspects that are applicable in the particular situation in which they find themselves.

The frequent shifts of methodology have made teachers feel that it is better to have a combination of elements from all of them. The methods may supplement one another especially where there is no one method which can fulfill all language goals and programmed objectives. A major principle of eclecticism is that the teaching process should serve the pupils, not a particular method. Hence teachers should choose the techniques or procedures that best fit the pupils’ needs and the teaching – learning situation.

## Activity 4.1

1. What is the difference between an approach, method, and a technique?
2. Give a precise definition of ‘eclecticism’.

## Summary

This unit has discussed language teaching methodology by focusing on the definitions of anapproach, a method, a technique and the concept of eclecticism. One thing you should bear in mind is that an approach can have so many methods and a method can utilise so many techniques.

UNIT 5

THEORIES AND METHODS OF LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

## 5.0 Introduction

This unit discusses basic methods and theories of language teaching and language learning which will provide a base from which you can then specialize in a number of teaching methodologies. It will help undergraduate teachers like you teach Zambian languages in professional and academic contexts. It will also help those with anon- language degree to work on some of the fundamentals of Zambian languages such as grammar, and vocabulary.

## Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you are expected to;

* demonstrate understanding of the theories and methods of language teaching and learning in Zambian languages.
* mention different approaches methods used in teaching and learning in Zambian languages.
* explain how each approach or method is applied when teaching Zambian Languages.
* explain the principles and activities for each approach or method.
* show the strengths and weaknesses of some approaches and methods used teaching Zambian languages.

## 5.1The background of the teaching approaches and methods

In language teaching, there are constant changes and developments of teaching methods and approaches. This can be attributed to the different focuses on different types of language skills either written or oral, to the realisation that a given method or approach carries certain limitations which render it unable to meet the needs of the learners for real communication or to the development of the need for communication especially after the second world war. Each new method or approach is built on the limitations of the preceding one. Below are the most common language teaching methods and approaches and their weaknesses

## 5.2Grammar-Translation Method (The classical method)

Do you have an idea of the Grammar-translation method? How does it impact on the teaching of Zambian languages in Zambian schools?

The grammar-translation method originated from the practice of teaching Latin. In the early 1500s, Latin was the most widely-studied foreign language due to its prominence in government, academia, and business. However, during the course of the century the use of Latin dwindled, and it was gradually replaced by English, French, and Italian. After the decline of Latin, the purpose of learning it in schools changed. Whereas previously students had learned Latin for the purpose of communication, it came to be learned as a purely academic subject.

The grammar translation method is a [method of teaching foreign languages](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Method_of_teaching_foreign_languages) derived from the classical (sometimes called traditional) method of teaching [Greek](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Greek_language) and [Latin](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Latin). In grammar-translation class, you should teach learners[grammatical rules](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Grammatical_rule) and then apply these rules by [translating](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Translating) sentences between the target language and the native language. You may allow advanced learners to translate whole texts [word-for-word](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Word-for-word). The method has two main goals: to enable learners to read and [translate](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Translate) literature written in the target language, and to further learners’ general intellectual development.

There are two main goals to grammar-translation classes. One is to develop learners’ reading ability to a level where they can read literature in the target language. The other is to develop learners’ general mental discipline. The users of foreign language wanted simply to note things of their interest in the literature of foreign languages. Therefore, this method focused on reading and writing and has developed techniques which facilitate more or less the learning of reading and writing only. As a result, speaking and listening are overlooked.

Grammar-translation classes are usually conducted in the learners’ [native language](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Native_language). Grammar rules are learned [deductively](http://en.wiktionary.org/wiki/deductively); students learn grammar rules [by rote](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Learn_by_rote), and then practice the rules by doing grammar drills and translating sentences to and from the target language. More attention is paid to the form of the sentences being translated than to their content. When students reach more advanced levels of achievement, they may translate entire texts from the target language.

In this method, classes you will teach learners’ in their mother tongue, with little active use of the target language. Vocabulary is taught in the form of isolated word lists. Elaborate explanations of grammar are always provided. Grammar instruction provides the rules for putting words together; instruction focuses on the form and inflection of words. Little attention is paid to the content of texts. Drills are exercises in translating disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue, and vice versa. Little or no attention is given to pronunciation.

There is usually no listening or speaking practice, and very little attention is placed on pronunciation or any [communicative aspects](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Communicative_language_teaching) of the language. The skill exercised is reading, and then only in the context of translation.

**Merits**

Much of the vocabulary was taught through bilingual word lists, dictionary study and memorization. This depended much on the text selected. Sentences were regarded as the basic unit of teaching and language practice i.e. after, ask the learner to make sentences. Accuracy in language was emphasized and this could be attained through translation. Grammar was taught deductively i.e. grammatical rules were given to the learners and practiced through translation exercises.

**Demerits**

It was not based on any theory. It paid little or no attention to spoken language instead of letting them discover the rules on their own. It does not promote inductive learning. Memorisation of grammatical rules encouraged rote learning. Vocabulary was taught out of context.

We can as well look at the techniques used in Grammar Translation.

1. Use bilingual word lists, one column in familiar language and the other in English. The teacher will translate the meaning.
2. Learners can tell stories in local and later translate in English.
3. Translate passages and sentences from target language to another.
4. Use translation method for emphasis and explanation of concepts for learners’ understanding.

**Weaknesses**

* Only concentrated on rules and not use.
* Items were taught in isolation
* No authentic texts were used;/impersonal/ non-textualised
* No real life situations
* Learners failed to develop oral communicative competence
* Pronunciation was not stressed and activities involving learners were no important.
* The main emphasis was on reading and writing at the expense of listening and speaking.
* There was rote learningthroughmemorisation
* Method was boring to the learners and quite tedious
* There was no theory of language learning to justify the method.

Strengths

* Did not require specialization on the part of the teacher
* Easy to construct grammatical and translation exercisesand tests by the teacher.
* Easy to mark and score the exercises.
* Learners’understoodthe structure of that particular language.
* Some students developed some proficiency in the language they were learning.
* The method has persisted in our schools even today.
* Many countries in the world are using this method.

Useful in mother tongue to teach deductivelyfor learners to know their language through:

* Derivation of nouns from verbs
* Translation exercises
* Training of translators and interpreters
* Use of mother tongue made learners understand concepts.

## 5.3Direct Method

The direct method of teaching, which is sometimes called the natural method, and is often used in teaching foreign languages, refrains from using the learners' [native language](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/First_language) and uses only the [target language](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Second_language). It was established in Germany and France around 1900 and contrasts with the [Grammar translation method](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Grammar_translation_method) and other traditional approaches. The method was developed initially as a reaction to the grammar-translation approach in an attempt to integrate more use of the target language in instruction. The lessons begin with a dialogue using a modern conversational style in the target language. Material is first presented orally with actions or pictures. The mother tongue is never used. There is no translation. The preferred type of exercise is a series of questions in the target language based on the questions that are answered in the target language. Grammar is taught inductively - rules are generalized from the practice and experience with the target language. Verbs are used first and systematically conjugated (stating the different forms a verb has according to tense, mood, person and number) much later after some oral mastery of the target language. Advanced learners read literature for comprehension and pleasure.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|

|  |
| --- |
|  |

 |

Literary texts are not analyzed grammatically. The culture associated with the target language is also taught inductively (A process of inducing a feeling, an idea or state). Culture is considered an important aspect of learning the language.

Here are some of the techniques you can use in teaching language using the direct method;

1. In the lower grades (1- 4) you can teach or explain concepts in the target language, in this case a familiar language being used in your designated area.
2. You can use task based activities either in local or foreign language without translation.
3. Give learners oral activities to practice different structures, dictation and reading aloud.
4. Conversational practice- learners are given an opportunity to ask questions to the teacher or other learners in the target language.
5. Paragraph writing where learners are asked to write a paragraph using their own words.
6. Question and answer exercise
7. Learner self - correction
8. Fill – the – blanks exercise

Some characteristics of this method are:

* Lessons are in the target language
* There is a focus on everyday vocabulary
* Visual aids are used to teach vocabulary
* Particular attention is placed on the accuracy of pronunciation and grammar
* A systematic approach is developed for comprehension and oral expression

**Principles involved**

* Classroom instruction is conducted exclusively in the target language. Teacher should demonstrate, not explain or translate
* Only everyday vocabulary and sentences are taught. Basic vocabulary is given first.
* Grammar is taught inductively. There may never be an explicit grammar given. Do not give rules. Make learners figure out the rules.
* New teaching points are introduced orally
* Correct pronunciation and grammar are emphasized
* Both speech and listening comprehension are taught
* Vocabulary is taught through known words, demonstration, authentic objects (Realia), pictures, and miming
* Learners should learn to think in the target language as soon as possible, since vocabulary is acquired more naturally if learners use it in full sentences, rather than memorizing word lists.

**Exercises**

1. Learners are given a series of sentences with words missing
2. They fill in the blanks with new vocabulary itemsonly from the target language

Dictation

1. Teacher reads the passage three times
2. The first time the teacher reads at a normal speed, while learners only listen
3. The second time, teacher reads it phase by phase to allow the students write down what they have heard
4. The last time the teacher again reads it at a normal and checks the learners’ work

Paragraph writing

1. Teacher asks learners to write a paragraph in their own words
2. Learns do this from memory
3. They can use the reading passage in the lesson as a model.

## 5.4The Audio - lingual Method

The method began in the U.SA during the Second World War. It was developed by structural linguists and behavioral psychologists. Around 1950, the method became known as the Oral Approach. Others referred to it as the Aural-Oral Approach; others ‘Structural Approach’ while some groups called it ‘The New Key’ and the ‘Functional Skills Strategy’. The method was backed by structural linguists and behavioural psychologists. How did each of these make their contribution?

**Structural Linguists.**

These emphasize on:

* transcribing spoken utterances into a language phonetically,
* working out the phonemic, morphological and syntactical system underlying the grammar of the language,
* Teaching language as it is spoken by the native speakers.

**Behavioural Psychologists**

The leading exponent was B.F. Skinner. He looked at learning as conditioning and that learning is based on stimulus – stimulus – response – Reinforcement mechanism.

This is based on the principles of behaviour psychology. It adapted many of the principles and procedures of the Direct Method, in part as a reaction to the lack of speaking skills of the Reading Approach. New material is presented in the form of a dialogue. Based on the principle that language learning is habit formation, the method fosters (nurturing a child in language learning) dependence on mimicry, memorization of set phrases and over-learning. Structures are sequenced and taught one at a time. Structural patterns are taught using repetitive drills. Little or no grammatical explanations are provided. Grammar is taught inductively. Skills are sequenced: Listening, speaking, reading and writing are developed in order. Vocabulary is strictly limited and learned in context. Teaching points are determined by contrastive analysis between L1 and L2. There is abundant use of language laboratories, tapes and visual aids. There is an extended pre-reading period at the beginning of the course. Great importance is given to precise native-like pronunciation. Use of the mother tongue by the teacher is permitted, but discouraged among and by the learners. Successful responses are reinforced. Great care is taken to prevent learner errors. There is a tendency to focus on manipulation of the target language and to disregard content and meaning.

## 5.5BehaviouristInfluences on the Audio-Lingual Method

For behaviourists, language is behaviour and is thus learnt as other behaviour through stimulus-response- reinforcement.As in laboratory animals, and as with all behavioral learning, principles of association, analogy, reward, punishment, generalization, etc. also apply in language learning.

As above, language entails imitation, memorization, repetition and practice.Language learning proceeds by mastery of simple skills before difficult ones; known things before unknown ones.

Such learning tasks are ordered in minimal sequence and learnt cumulatively. The mind is a tabularasa (blank slate).

**The Weakness of Audio-Lingualism.**

There is more emphasis on the linguistic form of language at the expense of the functional form of language. Repetitive drills are boring and encourage rote learning. An argument was put forward by Noam Chomsky, who belonged to the scholars known as Mentalists. The mentalists believed that language is not initiated behaviour and that a person has the innate ability to learn a language as long as one is provided with rich linguistic environment. The method failed to develop language competence in learners. The method had an idea of wanting learners to attain high standards of spoken language, over-looking the deduction of the written part.

Let us now look at some of the techniques that can be employed in Audiolingual Approach when teaching language. Let us look at the following techniques:

1. use substitutional tables to teach tenses or for learners to practice structures taught such as agreement of subject and verb as exemplified with Nyanja below.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Mnyamata | tabwera |
| Agogondianzao | wapiti kusukulu |
| Atsikanaoonse | akudyamalalenji |
| Ng’ombezibili | ndiwabwino |
| Ulemu | zasowa |

1. We can also use oral drills to ensure correct pronunciations in vocabulary and spellings,eg. Bemba: ukulanda => [ukulá:nda]
2. When teaching speech work, you can use minimal pairs, such as ukulela ‘to nurse’/ ukulila ‘to cry’.
3. repetition drills for correct grammatical responses such as chain drills, pair drills etc.
4. use of dialogue practice in pairs, miming, reciting rhymes.
5. a role play can involve two or more learners, and can have as much structures and control as you want to give pupils an opportunity to practice the vocabulary.

Discuss with your colleagues either at your school or on this course on how you have been dealing with some of these. If you have not used these techniques, explain how you would use them in a Grade 8 class.

**Principles of audio-lingual method**

Some of the principles of audio-lingual method are given below:

* Emphasis on everyday spoken conversation with particular attention to natural pronunciation
* Language seen as process of habit formation. Perceived as a process of mechanical habit formation. Good habit by correct responses that become habitual – No errors or mistakes.
* Structural patterns in dialogue about everyday situations are imitatedin drills with the learners’ become automatic (also see substitution tables)
* Drills are first done in choral speech, then individually. There is emphasis on practice techniques such as mimicry, memorization and pattern drills
* There is little discussion of grammatical rules. So grammar is taught inductively.
* Language work is first heard and then practiced orally before being seen and used in written form. This is called separation or sequencing of drills of listening, speaking reading and writing.
* Use of language labs to provide more opportunityfor learners to practice speaking and listening
* Establishing a linguistic and psychological theory as a basis for teaching methods.

Contrastive Analysis

The teacher tries to compare the structure of the target language with that of the learners. Use of mother tongue by the teacher is permitted.

**Role of the teacher**

What is your role as teacher in the audiolingual lesson? In the Audio-lingual method,you have an active role as you are the sole authorityto control and direct the whole learning program. You need to monitor and correct the learners’ performance. You are responsible for providing the learners with a good model for imitation. You should try to keep the learners attentive by varying drills and tasks, and choosing relevant situations to practice structures.

**Role of the learner**

In Audio-lingual method your learners play a relatively passive role as they donot have any control over the content or the method of learning. The learners are mere spectators of the teacher’s model. Their sole objective is to follow the teacher’s direction and respond as precisely and as promptly as possible.

**Techniques and exercises of Audio-lingual Method**

Backward Build – Up (expansion) Drill

* The drill is used when a long line of a dialogue is giving learners trouble.
* This breaks down the line into several parts. Learners repeat a part of the sentence, usually at the lastphraseof the line. Then following your cue, learners expand what they are repeating part by part until they are able repeat the entire line.
* You should begin with the part at the end of the sentence and move backwards from there. This also directs more learnerattention to the end of the sentence, where new information typically occurs.

Repetition Drill

* Learners are asked to repeat your model as accurately and as quickly as possible.
* This drill is often used to teach the lines of the dialogue.

Chain Drill

A chain drill gets its name from the chain of conversation that forms around the room as SS, one-by-one, ask and answer questions of each other. You, the teacher, begin with the chain by greeting a particular S, or asking him a question. That learner responds, and then turns to the S sitting next to him. The first S greets or asks a question of the second S and the chain continues. A chain drill allows some controlled communication. A chain drill also gives you an opportunity to check each learner’s speech.

Single – Slot Substitution Drill

* Teacher says a line, usually from the dialogue. Next, the teacher says a word or a phrase – called the cue. Learners repeat the line the teacher has given them, substituting the cue into the line in its proper place. The major purpose of this drill is to give this Learners practice in finding and filling in the slots of a sentence.

Multiple – slot substitution drill

* This drill is similar to the single – slot substitution drill. The difference is that T gives cue phrases, one at a time that fit into different slots in the dialog line. SS must recognize what part of speech each cue is, where it fits into the sentence, and make any other changes, such as subject verb agreement. They can say the line, fitting the cue phrase into the line where it belongs.

Use of Minimal Pairs

* Teacher works with pairs of words which differ in only one sound; for example, pala ‘scratch’/pela ‘grind’. Learnersare first asked to perceive the difference between the two words and later to be able to say the two words. Teacher selects the sounds to work on after she has done a constructive analysis, a comparison between the learners’ native language and the language they are studying.

Complete the Dialogue

1. Selected words are erased from a dialog students have learned.
2. Learners complete the dialogue by filling in the blanks with the missing words.
3. Transformation drill: From students to question, active and passive, negative to positive.
4. Question and answer drill: Students should answer the teacher question quickly.
5. Use Minimal pairs: as already exemplified above.
6. Completes the dialogue: Students complete by filling in the blank
7. Grammar game: games described in the chapter should be used.

**Theory of Language**

Influenced by descriptive linguistics, American structuralists, headed by Leonard Bloomfield, adopted a new technique for studying languages. Concentrating on the spoken from language, they gathered examples of daily conversations and analyzed them into the building blocks of language, i.e. sounds, words, and sentences, (Richards and Rogers, 1986). They argued that learning a language is in fact learning these separate elements and how they are combined with each other. The theory of learning underlying the Audio-lingual Method is behaviorism, including the following:

1. Speech is more basic to language than the written form
2. Language structure and form are more significant than meaning
3. Elements in a language are produced in a rule-governed (structural) way
4. Language samples could be exhaustively described at any structural level of description
5. Languages are different, since every language has its own unique system.
6. Language is structural like a pyramid, that is linguistic level is a system within a system.

**Theory of learning**

Learning is a process of forming habits; the teacher controls the learning environment and learners are empty vessels into which the teacher pours knowledge. It is important to prevent learners from making errors; errors lead to bad habits, and should be immediately corrected by the teacher. The learning of the FL should be the same as the acquisition of native language; we do not need to memorize rules in order to use our native language; the rules necessary for target language use will be figured out or learned through induction. Positive reinforcement helps the students to develop correct habits.

The theory of learning underlying the Audio-lingual Method is behaviorism, including the following principles:

1. Human beings learn the language in the same way as other habits are learned through the process of training and conditioning.
2. As language learning is a process of habit formation, repetition leads to stronger habit formation and greater learning.
3. The learning of a foreign language should be the same as the acquisition of the native language
4. The habits of a native language will interfere with target language learning
5. Language cannot be separated from culture and culture represents the everyday behavior of the people who use the target language.
6. Language learning is the outcome of stimulus (what is taught) – response (learners reaction to what is being taught) – reinforcement (approval or disapproval of the teachers) chain.
7. Positive reinforcement helps learners to develop correct habits
8. Mistakes should be avoided as they help form bad habits
9. Analogy is a better foundation for knowledge learning than analysis.

## 5.6 Situational Method

The Situational method was developed in Britain where structuralism was emphasized. Speech is recognized as the basis of language learning and structure is placed at the heart of speaking ability. Language is taught by association with some physical characteristics of the classroom; use of gestures etc. used to illustrate and giving meaning to lexical (grammatical) items and structure items.

## 5.6.1Principles and Teaching Strategies of the Situation Approach

The method focuses on accuracy by situational drills and practice. The language skills are introduced in this order: Listening, speaking, reading and writing by use of inductive approach to teaching grammar. Rule explanation only comes in where necessary otherwise meaning is not contextually taught. Situational exercises are used e.g. demonstrations, dialogue, passages in pictures and the use of auditory instruments – i.e. from idiophones. You do not describe, you make sound and learners describe the meaning.

**Demerits of the Situational Approach**

It puts emphasis on mastery of structures not communicative proficiency. It is only concerned with teaching of structure. Presentation of structural items in situations promotes pseudo – not real situations as some are very artificial / awkward / fake – not realistic communication.

Here we go again, let us look at the techniques we can use in the Situational Approach.

1. Role play- in a context of situation, e.g. a doctor, a nurse and a patient when introducing vocabulary.
2. Drama – teacher creates a situation for learners to act in a scene hence achieving intended goals (sentence constructions, tenses, vocabulary).
3. Composition writing- teacher ask learners to write an essay of their choice depicting a scene.
4. Dialogue -learners can be engaged in talk to practice speech work.
5. Question and answer techniques can also be applied.
6. Drills in the context of situation to practice oral speech work for fluency.

**Principal Features/Characteristics**

The following are the principle characteristics of the Situational Method:

1. Language teaching begins with the spoken language. Material taught orally before presented in written form.
2. Target language is language of classroom. Instructions, explanations, examples had to be done in the target language as in the Direct Method.
3. Emphasis on teaching the practical command of the four skills of language. Sequencing teaching and teaching the skills through structures.
4. Reading and writing are introduced once a sufficient lexical and grammatical basis is established.
5. Accuracy in both pronunciation and grammar is regarded crucial and errors not permitted
6. Vocabulary selection procedures are emphasized to ensure that an essential general service vocabulary is used.
7. Items of grammar are graded following the principle that simple items should be taught before complicated ones.
8. Like direct method, it adopts an inductive approach to teaching of grammar. New language points are introduced and practiced situationally in three types:

(i) Linguistic situations – items taught are introduced through dialogue, written texts etc. For instance abstract nouns, you should prepare a passage or dialogue in which those items are used.

(ii) Visual items – use visual aids such as pictures, objects, actions/performances presented through demonstrations

(iii) Auditory situation – using certain sounds that are made and pupils asked to both identify and associate them with lexical meaning e.g. sound of ululation, clapping, falling object etc.

**Teacher’s Role**

1. In the presentation stage, the teacher serves as a model (Setting up a Situation).
2. Then he becomes like a skillful conductor.

**Learner’s Role**

1. In the initial stages, the learner is required to;
	1. listen and repeat what the teacher says
	2. respond to the questions and commands

**Techniques and activities**

Situational Language Teaching syllabus is designed upon a word list and structural activities. Grammar teaching involves a situational presentation of new sentence patterns and drills to practice these patterns. The teacher moves from controlled to freer practice of structures and from oral use of sentence patterns to their automatic use in speech, reading, and writing.

According to Situational Language Teaching, a lesson starts with stress and intonation practice followed by a revision and a presentation of new materials (mainly structures or vocabulary). The teacher then proceeds to oral practice and drilling of the elements presented. Finally, the lesson ends with reading activity or written exercises.

**Weaknesses**

In the 1970sthe view of language learning and teaching in situational method people questioned to whether that was correct. There were assumptions.

1. There is no guarantee that the principle of presenting a lexical/ structural item in a particular situation will adequately and automatically have learners to use the language outside the classroom. Situations are unpredictable e.g. a quarrel over a price of an item at a shopping Centre or market
2. An attempt can be made to situationalise grammatical and lexical items but words and sentences are still taught as isolated items.
3. The approach did not adequately address the functional and communicative competence. Put emphasis on mere mastering of structures instead of the communicative proficiency
4. Method was only concerned with teaching of structure
5. Method promoted pseudo communication, false, fake, unreal, awkward, and artificial.

## 5.7Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

This method started in Britain in the late 1960s. Noam Chomsky influenced the development of this approach. The approach covered the theories of language competence and language performance. In the mid1970s, the scope of CLT expanded under the influence of British and American Linguists. The idea was to move away from Grammatical Theories to practical ones in performance. This was mainly to promote effective and appropriate communication. Communicative competence and is the ability not only to apply the grammatical rules of the language in order to form grammatical sentences but also to know when and where to use these and also to who (appropriately and effectively to convey meaning). Communicative Competence includes:

1. Knowledge of the grammar and vocabulary of the language.
2. Knowledge of rules of speaking e.g. beginning and end of utterances, topic in speech address forms different people in different situations.
3. Knowing how to use and respond to different types of speech acts such as apology, requests thanks, and invitation.
4. Knowing how to use language appropriately. Know that the utterance is grammatical and suitable for the particular situation. e.g. Give me a glass of water!, May I have a glass of water please.

**The Emphases of C.L.T are as follows:**

1. The communicative principle – use of activities involving real communication to promote learning.
2. Task principle – states that language should be used to carry out certain meaningful tasks.
3. Meaningful principle – states that language which is meaningful to learners supports the learning process.

Here there is no use of mechanical exercises like substitution tables where there is no meaningful use of language. The language used must be authentic – the kind of language learners know and situations should be appropriate to the environment. Skill development principles – the aim should be to equip learners with communication skills. This in turn will enhance communicative competence. It uses concepts such as speech community, speech event and rules of speaking as variables of verbal interaction, selected speech situations, events, topics etc, and create materials on their bases.

Some of the principles, techniques and exercise of Communicative Approachthat you can use are as follows:

1. Use of role play, drama and dialogues to teach communicative activities.
2. Use of visuals and audiles eliciting use of function.
3. Group-work and out-door activities to simulate real life situation.

**Influence from Linguistics**

The approach have influence from the following:

1. The ethnography of speaking and its proposal of speaking and communicative competence.
2. The sociolinguistic theories which consider language as reflection of social relations, social control and perceptions.
3. That branch of anthropology which looks at language as a reflex of culture.

**Demerits of C.L.T.**

Let us now look at the disadvantages of the CLT.

1. The method concentrates on function not form.
2. Free communication makes some talkative pupils dominate discussions.
3. Cooperative activities rather than individualistic may be unfamiliar to the learners.
4. Items to be taught are also presented as a list of notions and functions. Presents language as an inventory of units e.g. contrast, comparison, requests, that is notional concepts of presenting functions, but are still treated as isolates. Furthermore, since the notional syllabus deals with the components of discourse instead of discourse itself, it does not satisfactorily account for communicative competence.
5. There is divergent interpretation of Communicative language teaching. There is no single text or authority on communicative language teaching nor any single model that is universally accepted as authoritative. Each has different views about communicative language teaching. For others it is an integrating form with functions and concepts while others interpret it as putting learners in groups.
6. Adoption of Communicative language teaching is questioned where learners must continue to use structural syllabus
7. Change from the tradition strategies of teaching form communicative language teaching can cause learner confusion and resentment. E.g. no grammatical rules, classroom arrangement, non-immediate correction of mistakes.
8. Since there is a lot of emphasis on functional dimensions of language, some teachers concentrate more on functions rather than form
9. Teachers’ rigidity in correcting errors may lead to poor learning of grammar or structure will end up ignoring errors and mistakes.

**Theory of language teaching**

Communicative language teaching starts from language as communication. The goal of language teaching is to develop communicative competence. This view of language puts emphasis on functional account of language use. When learning L2you are actually acquiring the linguistic means to perform different kinds of functions of language. In short at the level of language theory (what language is perceived to be). Communicative language teaching has a rich eclectic theoretical base with the following characteristics:

1. Language is a system for the expression of meaning.
2. Primary function of language is for interaction and communication.
3. The structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses.
4. The primary uses of language are not merely its grammatical and structural features but categories of functionaland communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse.

**Theory of learning**

While there is a lot of literature about communicative dimensions of language, little has been written about learning theory in communicative language teaching. However, elements of underlying learning theory can be discerned in some communicative practices.

**Principles and characteristics**

You can look at the following principles and characteristics:

1. The communicative principle – Activities that involve real to promote learning
2. The task principle – Activities for which language is used for carrying out meaningfultasks to promote learning
3. The meaningful principle – Language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process. Learning activities should be selected according to how well they engage the learnersinmeaningful and authentic language use rather than merely mechanical practices of language use.

**Pedagogy**

The following are the methodological practices:

1. Presentation of the dialogue
2. Oral practice of it
3. Questions and answers based on the dialogue
4. Questions and answers related to the learners’ personal experiences
5. Study of communicative expression or structure in the dialogue
6. Learner discovery ofgeneralizationor rules underlying the functional expression or structure
7. Oral recognition, interpretative activities
8. Oral production activities
9. Copying the dialogue
10. Sampling of the written homework assignment
11. Evaluation of learning

**Teacher’s role**

1. Facilitator – Teacher may need to perform in a variety of specific roles separately or simultaneously.
2. General Observer - As a general overseer of his learners, he must aim to co-ordinate the activities so that they form a coherent progress in leading towards greater communicative ability. As an observer the teacher will not interfere after initiating the proceedings of an activity.
3. Classroom Manager - As a classroom manager s/he is responsible fro grouping activities into lessons at ensuring that are satisfactorily organized at the practical level. In many activities, the teacher may perform a familiar role of language instructor. e.g. Presenting new language vocabulary or expression.
4. Co – communicator - As a co-communicator with learners, teacher needs to participate. S/he can stimulate and present new language without taking away the learners’ initiative.
5. Consultant – As a consultant or advisor if there is an independent activity

In communicative language teaching, the teacher does not correct errors and mistakesobserved immediately but just takes note of them. Errors and mistakes are tolerated but not ignored.

**Learner Roles**

1. The learner is a negotiator between himself/herself, the learning process, interaction with the group’sactivitiesand classroom procedures.
2. The learner contributes as much as possible gains in the classroom learning in an interdependent way.

**Some Exercises**

1. Role play
2. Game quizzes
3. Pair work
4. Home work exercises
5. Interviews
6. Learning by teaching

(Richards and Rodgers (1986).

As an innovative teacher, you can devise a variety of exercises to spice up your lessons.

## 5.8The Cognitive-Code Theory

Cognitive-code learning refers to a theory of second language teaching and learning rooted in cognitivist psychology and structural applied linguistics developed in the 1960s. The theory emphasizes the central role of cognition in the conscious and explicit learning of the rules of a language as a code. The cognitive-code approach to learning a second language sees it as a study of language as a complex system with the goal of gaining conscious control of the grammatical, lexical (vocabulary), and auditory patterns. Cognitive Code Learning theory is accepted as a merger of Chomsky’s transformational grammar (Carroll, 1965). Carroll’s Gestalt Psychology states that learning should be holistic. It should be a combination of mental and social factors. Learning a language should be a process of acquiring conscious control of thephonological, grammatical, and lexical patterns of second language learning largely through study and analysisof these patterns as a body of knowledge.

Cognitive-code learning is a theory of L1 and L2 studies and research. It briefly replaced behaviourism in the 1960s.At this time Chomsky’s theory of generative grammar, which claimed language is rule governed and creative, strongly emphasised rule-governed nature of language and language acquisition. This trend gave rise to cognitive code learning theory in which language learners are encouraged to work grammar rules deductively for themselves. The CognitiveCode Approach can be considered the modern version of the grammar translation method.The purpose of Cognitive Code Learning Theory are as under:

1. To foster competence
2. To emphasise the central role of cognition in the conscious learning of rules of the language.
3. To show emphasis on meaningful practice.

**Noam Chomsky: Language as Knowledge**

N. Chomsky maintains that the most important characteristics of language is creativity. He says the speakers of a language are able to create and understand sentences which they have never heard before from anybody.

Chomsky further says that if language learning can be described purely in terms of performance and not competence, as Skinner maintains, how is it possible for any listener to understand an underlying or hidden meaning (deep structure) of purely innocent string of verbal elements? Ambiguity, for instance, is a situation from a variety of meanings, derived from a single structure. Examine the following structure:

Pupils think more about their girlfriends than their teachers.

 1st meaning: pupils give more attention to their girlfriend than to their teachers.

2nd meaning: both the pupils and the teachers have girlfriends but the attention the former (pupil) give to their girlfriends exceeds that of the latter (teacher).

 Chomsky justifies the creativity of language by the way children learn language. He says that the knowledge of language is innate i.e. inborn. This language shares certain linguistic universals. He collectively calls these universals the “Language Acquisition Device” (L. A. D.) LAD consists of a hypothesis making device which helps them to form theories about the information they hear.

 Chomsky agrees that environment (experience) plays a significant role in shaping and developing this device into a language on earth but emphasises that this device is only available in human beings since no species of animal so far has been able to acquire (human) language.

This theory of learning based on the mind as an active processor leads us to the cognitive approach.

This approach was a reaction to the audio-lingual method which considered the mind as a tabula rasa. Among other things, it was motivated by the fact that the audio lingual method did not produce a bilingual effect. It was a modification of grammar translation method. The leading exponent of this method was Noam Chomsky. In contrast with Audio-lingual method, a behavioural psychologist, the cognitive code approach recognised that a child’s mind played a vital role in language learning.

The Theoretical Basis of Cognitive Code Approach**.**

Cognitive Psychology**.**

Believe that the mind is not a tabularasa – an empty slate, but plays a role in language learning. The mind is central to perception, storage and acquisition of knowledge-linguistic ability and is not habit formation. An individual determines his/her choices, cognition and growth (mentally). Children learn by discovering and meaningful activities, not by listening and memorization.

**Linguistic Basis**

A child has an innate ability capacity to learn a language and the environment plays a little role – this is referred to as the Learning Acquisition Device (L.A.D). Language is a system /a set of rules, so acquiring language means internalizing a set of rules i.e. the sound and meaning in a particular way. Using internalization rules of grammar, a child can generate an infinite number of sentences. The LAD consists of a hypothesis making device which helps the learners to form theories and evaluation procedures. Language is an abstract system generated by rules. There is competence and performance in our knowledge of a language. Language has a deep (underlying) and a surface structure. Language is varied and creative; speakers of a language constantly create new sentences. All human infants are born with an innate capacity to learn languages.

**Influence on Cognitive-Code Approach from Psychologists.**

The mind is not a tabula rasa but is an active organ involved in processing and acquiring new information. The mind is central in perception, and strong in the acquisition of knowledge. An individual determines her/his choices, cognition and growth, and is not shaped by environment.Under this approach, children learn more by discovery in a meaningful activity than by reception and rote-leaning.

## Principles and Techniques of the Cognitive-Code Approach

Teaching should proceed by giving rules and explanations:

1. There is deductive explanations of grammatical rules is preferred.
2. Mistakes and errors are part of the learning process.
3. Pronunciation is re-emphasized.
4. There is need to build on what pupils already know.
5. Give pupils chance to create sentences using rules in meaningful situations.
6. Devise meaningful, problem-solving exercises and not drills.
7. Children must participate actively in the learning process, not learning passively.
8. There is movement from competence to performance - No rote-learning.
9. There is use of both spoken and written language. Use of L1 and L2 is encouraged where need arises.
10. Teaching vocabulary is emphasised, especially expansion of passive vocabulary for reading purposes.
11. There is use of deduction, induction and discovery learning procedures.

**Demerits of the Cognitive Code Approach.**

The child is endowed with the capacity to acquire language – a teacher can relax thinking that the child already has LAD. Contextualization is often realized at the sentence level- one does not think of paragraphs. When rule explanation is overdone, it becomes counterproductive as it simply confuses the learners.

As for Cognitive Code you can use the following items;

1. Use activities for filling blanks.
2. Gap- fill spelling; learners write spelling using the list of difficult words they have been given.
3. Essay writing- learners can be asked to write different types of compositions, such as reports, articles, letter writing, argumentative, narrative, descriptive and imaginative writing.
4. Dictation -learners can be asked to fill in the blanks, write paragraphs while the teacher is dictating.
5. Case studies can help comprehension by engaging learners in a problem-solving activity.
6. Case studies can generate discussion around a particular topic and give learners practice in working out ways of dealing with real life problems.
7. Choose a problem for your class that you want pupils to think about.
8. Jigsaw puzzles for words or jigsaw reading to help pupils comprehend texts and develop good reading skills by exploring the way sentences fit together, looking for the main idea, guessing difficult words from context, predicting what is going to come next, and raising awareness of the logic flow of a paragraph or story.
9. Debate – you need to prepare a controversial statement and tell pupils that they are going to talk about it and must think of things to say to show that they agree or disagree with the statement.

**Theory of language**

The theory of language embedded in the Cognitive Code Approach emphasizes a cognitive psychology. In other words, it involves mental processes, and it gives more importance to the learners’ understanding of the structures of the foreign language

**Theory of learning**

The theory of learning of the Cognitive Code Approachis about generative grammar and deep structure which consists of applied linguistics i.e. Pragmatics, Semantics, Syntax, Morphology, Phonology, and Phonetics.

**Pedagogy**

The pedagogical approach emphasizes the role of learningin behavior, but unlike behaviourism. NoamChomsky,believed that language developmentdepends on an innatemechanism that he calleda “language acquisition device” which proposes grammatical rules. Grammar should be taught firstin a deductive or inductive way.

Deductively, rules can taught first than exercise practice.Inductively, rules can either be stated after practice or left as implicit for learners to process their own.

**Teacher’s role**

All learning is to be meaningful and the teacher should do the following:

1. Build on what the learners already know
2. Help learners relate new material themselves, their life experiences, and their previous knowledge.
3. Avoids rote learning
4. Use of graphic and procedures to clarify relationships.

**Learner’s roles**

1. The learneracquires greater responsibilityfor their own learning
2. Learners learn from their own errors
3. They learn new knowledge with previous knowledge.

**Activity 5.1**

1. Mention some of the approaches and methods used in teaching language that you know.
2. Explain the principles and teaching strategies of the Situational Approach.
3. What do you understand by the terms deductive and inductive in language teaching and learning?
4. Discuss the strengths and weaknesses of Audio-Lingual method.
5. Among the approaches and methods discussed in this unit, which one is the most effective? Justify.

## Summary

In this unit, we have discussed theories language teaching and learning such as Grammar Translation method (GT), Direct method,Audio – lingual method (AL), Situational approach, Communicative language teaching (CLT), and the Cognitive Code Theory (CCT). We have also discussed the pros and cons of each method and approaches; and the roles of teachers and learners. One method can be termed good for a particular topic, lesson and grade. An innovative and creative teacher, therefore, should be eclectic.

# UNIT 6

# TEACHING ORAL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

## 6.0 Introduction

This unit discusses aspects of oral communicative competence such as skills getting and skills usage, teaching speaking skills, listening skills, and strategies for teaching oral communicative skills. But first, what is your understanding of oral communicative competence? Well, oral communicative competencies the ability to use language correctly and appropriatelyin the context where it is used to accomplish communicative goals.

## Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you are expected to;

* explain different strategies used to teach oral communicative competence.
* define oral communicative competence.
* explain how to teach listening and speaking.

Oral communicative competence enables speakers of a language to interact effectively with each other. Oral communicative competence includes a wide semantic field since the oral expression is a way of expression forthe thought and it provides feedback and develops by means of the linguistic function (Vygotsky, 1992; Piaget, 1983, 1983; Pinker, 2003). English communicative competence is based on the use of the language as a tool of communication, both oral and written, of representation, of interpretation and of reality comprehension.

## 6.1 Skills – Getting and Skills – Using Stage

These are skills that learners acquire by way of being taught by the teachers at junior secondary school level. These are the same skills that they are going to use when they enter senior school level.

## 6.2 Teaching Speaking Skills

Speaking is a process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non – verbal symbols in a variety of contexts (Chane, 1998:13).

The strategies of teaching speaking skills are:

1. Group work to encourage learner participation.
2. Dialog to create an environment in which the learners have to speak using language.
3. Using pictures in teaching oral language.
4. Classroom drama; acting out a story with words and ‘lets pretend’ activities (role play).
5. Story – telling, if we used, can prove very helpful in teaching learners speaking skills.
6. Songs and Rhymes can be useful teaching aids and they are fun for the learners to use. They also reinforce rhythm, stress, structures and vocabulary.
7. Games, children enjoy games in class – they will not become bored and they might not realize they are doing an exercise. Games such as information gap, opinion gap and reasoning gap.
8. Reaching a consensus where learners have to agree with each other after a certain amount of discussion. The task is not complete until they agree.

## 6.3 Teaching Listening Skills

Listening is an active interactional process in which a listener receives speech sounds and tries to attach meaning to the words. The listener attempts to understand the intended message of the oral text so that he/she can respond effectively to oral communication.

Listening together with speaking, reading and writing is one of the four (4) skills in language learning. As a means of communication, listening plays an important role in people’s lives. We have to listen to many utterances in our everyday life. Conversations will take place only when we understand what our interlocutor says.

**Strategies for teaching listening skills**

a) Stories

Really, stories are a rich source of listening practice. In order to develop listening skills, there are a number of different strategies that you can use in the context of listening to a story. For instance:

Getting the general picture:

The teacher’s intention is for learners to get the general idea of what the story was about.

Predicting:

The teacher should encourage learners to predict events in a story and then to check whether what they have heard matches your expectations.

b) Physical response:

Instructions:

This can either be done from instructions recorded on take or instructions from you the teacher or perhaps more interestingly, between the learners themselves in the classroom. Some of the well – known activities involving instructions are:

i) Putting pictures in order.

This is a very good while – listening activity. Present your learners’withy a number ofpictures. When re-arranged, the pictures form a logical story. The learners’ task is to listen to you narrating the story and the re-arrange the pictures in a logical order by merely putting letters A, B, C etc. against the Arabic numerals 1,2,3 etc.

ii) Dictation

This can either be dictation of paragraph, transferring information, picture dictation etc. Discuss how you have been carrying out dictation lessons in your class. Bring this to a tutorial class.

**Stages in a listening lesson:**

1. Pre – listening, first stage of a lesson, teacher prepares the pupils for what they have to listen effectively.
2. While – listening stage – the active listening part of lesson, some activities require learners to respond while listening.
3. Post – listening stage – this stage, the teacher allows learners to do activities based on what they have listened to, they may answer questions, analyse the story or give views on what they have just been listening to.

## Summary

In this unit we have discussed what is meant by oral communicative competence, skills getting and usage. We have further discussed strategies for teaching both listening and speaking, and the stages in the listening lesson. You have been given sample strategies for teaching listening skills but you can devise a number of similar activities or vary these to provide variety.

# UNIT 7

# TEACHING READING

## 7.0 Introduction

In this unit you are going to discuss what reading is, the purpose and importance of reading, types of reading, reading procedure, detailed reading, and the difference between a class reader and class library.

## Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you are expected to;

* explain the purpose of reading.
* explain in detail the types of reading.
* explain the reading procedure.
* mention the stages in the reading text.
* distinguish between a class reader and class library.

Reading means getting meaning from certain combinations of letters. Teach the child what each letter stands for and he/she can readwords which are written by putting down letters from left to right, (Wayman, 1980).

Widdowson in his book ‘Exploration in Applied Linguistics’ says that “reading is not seen as a separate activity which can be investigated and taught in disassociation from other aspects of language behaviour but as a realisation of a general interpretive process which underlies our communicative activity.”

## 7.1 Purpose of reading

Reading is taught to help pupils to;

1. understand different kinds of reading materials which they are likely to meet both inside and outside school.
2. obtain information.
3. increase one’s knowledge of various subject areas.
4. read efficiently at a speed appropriate to the text and purpose of reading.
5. understand the use of language by seeing how others use language skillfully.
6. derive enjoyment and satisfaction.
7. read critically and make discriminating judgements.

## 7.2 Types of reading

Several types of reading may occur in a language classroom. One way, in which these may be categorized, as suggested by Brown (1989) can be outlined as follows: oral, silent, intensive, linguistic, content, extensive, skimming, scanning, and global reading.

However, in this unit you will only discuss Intensive reading, Extensive reading, skimming, scanning, and efficient reading.

**Efficient Reading** – This is a correct and a proper reading relevant to the text and purposeof reading. In this type of reading you teach silent reading habits. Children are trained to eliminate bad or faulty reading habits.

**Intensive Reading** – This is reading for comprehension. The teacher’s aim is to help pupils towards full understanding of a particular piece of writing. Also to helppupils to learn from a particular piece of writing. The teacher’s aim is to teach and not to test. There must be a larger amount of oral work aimed at developing reading skills of the pupils in teaching of comprehension.

**Extensive Reading**–Extensive reading is reading as much as possible, for your own pleasure. It is associated with supplementary reading. It is also a type of reading done outside the classroom.

**Skimmin**g – Ability to cover material hurriedly to obtain a general ideaof the content. Pupils should be given a time limit. Give them clues for finding a general ideaeg. Subheadingor key sentences (Edward Fray: Teaching fast reading).

**Scanning** – Ability to locate specifically required information from a text.

There are habits that can slow down the frequency of reading. These include:

1. Reading single words rather than groups of meaningful groups of meaningful words
2. Making too many regressions
3. Following the line of print with a finger
4. Train pupils to avoid moving the head along the line of print
5. Vocalization (mouthing) should be avoided
6. Sub vocalization (Speaking inwardly)
7. Poor body posture
8. Reading in surroundings where there is too much noise or too little light should be discouraged.

Can you explain each of the above?

## 7.3 Teaching materials

You might be aware that there are very few Zambian languages reading materials. What do you use for teaching reading where there are no such materials? Some teachers use story books, newspapers, or composed texts.

## 7.4 What to consideration when selecting a reading passage for comprehension

1. Linguistic level of passage
2. Should have vocabulary items useful to the pupils
3. Structures must be with the level of the pupils’ competence
4. Styles of comprehension must vary, from narrative, descriptive, argumentative, dialogues, poem etc. Use a passage that pupils have never seen before.
5. Two factors apply to the length of the passage:
6. Grade level; the higher the level, lengthy the passage.
7. Linguistic level of difficulty. The more linguistically complex the text, the shorter it must be.

## Types of Questions

What type of comprehension questions do you give your learners? How varied within a lesson are they? You may consider the following types:

1. Free response (non- objective) questions. Pupils produce their own sentences.
2. Multiple choice (objective)questions
3. True and false questions
4. Sentences for completion
5. Putting statements in order
6. Yes or no questions

You must balance between literal (surface meaning) and inference (Deep meaningand interpretative. Learners need to deduce meaning.

**Teaching Procedure**

1. Pre – read the questions
2. Reading of the questions by pupils silently and note difficulty vocabulary.
3. Teacher assesses pupils general understanding of the passage by asking general surface questions
4. Teacher explain difficult words and expressions in context
5. Teacher reads the passage with the class. Pupils too can read the passage silently.
6. Testing: Pupils are asked questions and write the answers
7. Marking: Teacher goes round marking
8. Teacher and pupils discuss answers giving reasons with reference to the passage

The first distinction that can be made is whether the reading is oral or silent. This module will not deal with oral reading but only silent reading. Within the category of silent reading, one encounters intensive and extensive reading. **Intensive reading** is used to teach or practice specific reading strategies or skills. The text is treated as an end in itself. **Extensive reading** on the other hand, involves reading of large quantities of material, directly and fluently. It is treated as a means to an end. It may include reading, simply for pleasure or reading technical, scientific or professional material. This later type of text, more academic, may involve two specific types of reading, **scanning** for key details or **skimming** for the essential meaning. A relatively quick and efficient read text, either on its own or after scanning or skimming, will give a **global** or general meaning.

## 7.6Intensive Reading

What is intensive reading?

1. Brown (1989) explains that intensive reading "calls attention to grammatical forms, discourse markers, and other surface structure details for the purpose of understanding literal meaning, implications, rhetorical relationships, and the like. He draws an analogy to intensive reading as a "zoom lens" strategy.
2. Long and Richards (1987) say it is a “detailed in-class analysis, led by the teacher, of vocabulary and grammar points, in a short passage."
3. Intensive Readingmay involve pupils reading selections by the same author or several texts about the same topic. When this occurs, content and grammatical structures repeat themselves and pupils get many opportunities to understand the meanings of the text. The success of Intensive Reading on improving reading comprehension is based on the premise that the more familiar the reader is with the text, either due to the subject matter or having read other works by the same author, the more comprehension is promoted.

The following are the characteristics of intensive reading:

1. The text is usually classroom based.
2. Reader is intensely involved in looking inside the text.
3. Pupils focus on linguistic or semantic details of a reading.
4. Pupils focus on surface structure details such as grammar and discourse markers.
5. Pupils identify key vocabulary.
6. Pupils may draw pictures to aid them (such as in problem solving)
7. Texts are read carefully and thoroughly, again and again
8. Aim is to build more language knowledge rather than simply practice the skill of reading
9. Seen more commonly than extensive reading in classrooms

**Materials:**

1. usually very short texts - not more than 500 words in length
2. chosen for level of the learner, by the teacher
3. chosen to provide the types of "reading and skills that the teacher wants to cover in the course

Skills developed:

1. rapid reading practice
2. Interpreting text. by using:
* word attack skills
* text attack skills,
* non-text information

**Advantages**

1. It provides a base to study structure, vocabulary and idioms.
2. It provides a base for pupils to develop a greater control of language
3. It provides for a cheek on the degree of comprehension for individual pupils

**Disadvantages**

1. There is little actual practice of reading because of the small amount of text
2. In a class with multi-reading abilities, pupils may not be able to read at their own level because everyone in the class is reading the same material.
3. The text may or may not interest the reader because it was chosen by the teacher.
4. There is little chance to learn language patterns due to the small amount of text.
5. Because exercises and assessment usually follow intensive reading, pupils may come to associate reading with testing and not pleasure.

## 7.7Efficient reading (Comprehension)

Are you able to read Zambian Language sentences very fast?How do you think our eyes and brain recognize words and sentences?Do you read word by word or sentence by sentence?What is efficient reading?

Efficient reading is about reading in a way that allows you to understand the writer's message without spending too much time in the process. It's also about reading with a clear purpose in mind so that you only read material that is relevant.Reading efficiency is getting the most out of what you read. How do you get through the process?

## 7.7.1Procedure for teaching efficient reading (General guidelines)

### 7.7.1.1 Skimming

Sometimes you need to get the general idea or gist of a text. Reading every word is not the way to do this. Few text books were written with your specific course or assignment in mind, so you need to adapt the material to your particular purposes, given the course and the task at hand.

Skimming is the sort of reading which would be appropriate if your tutor asked you to read several books and articles for the next tutorial. She would not expect you to be able to recite it word for word, but she would want you to be able to discuss the issues raised. Skimming allows you to locate and comprehend main ideas quickly, ignoring the specific details.

You might try reading quickly through the table of contents, the preface or the abstract, and then select relevant sections from the chapter headings. A useful general strategy is to read the first and last paragraphs and perhaps the first and last sentence of each of the other paragraphs. Donot forget to check any diagrams and figures as they are information-dense. You should get about 50% of the meaning from this process and you are then in a good position to see if you need to employ scanning or detailed reading.

### 7.7.1.2 Scanning

We have indicated that you skim-read material to get the general picture. To discover precise information you will need to practise the technique of scanning. You may need to find out specific details of a topic for an assignment or a task that your lecturer has set. There is little point in skimming a whole book for this purpose. After all, you wouldn't carefully read the whole movie guide if you wanted to see a particular film!

You should identify a few key terms or expressions which will alert you to the fact that your subject is being addressed. You can then run your eyes down the page looking for these expressions - in chapter headings or sub-headings, or in the text itself. You would scan for details such as a name, number, formula, date or country/city.

### 7.7.2Detailed reading

Some subject areas such as Law and Literature, for example, require a very detailed understanding from the student. In these cases, reading every word can be appropriate. This kind of reading is always more time consuming, but can be combined with skimming and scanning for greater efficiency. If it is a photocopy or your own book, take full advantage by underlining or highlighting and using the margins for your own comments or questions.

### 7.7.3 Revision reading

This involves reading rapidly through material with which you are already familiar, in order to confirm knowledge and understanding. Consider summarizing main points onto small note books.

### 7.8Stages in reading a text

In order to read more effectively, it is vital to become a self-conscious reader. You need to understand what you are doing when you use different reading techniques for different purposes and texts, and to practice these particular reading skills. You must always read for a clearly defined purpose and adapt your reading strategies to that purpose.

It is important to break down the reading process into the following stages: before reading, during reading and after reading.

**Before reading** survey the text so that you can get an overview of the book, article or section.

First, get an overview of the text:

1. understand the title
2. examine the organization of the information in the table of contents
3. read headings and subheadings
4. look at graphs, diagrams, tables
5. read any questions or summaries at the end of the chapter
6. read the introduction and conclusion
7. read the first and last sentence in each paragraph

Now you are ready to read in detail the section/s relevant to your purpose.

**As you read** closely follow the development of the ideas in the text:

1. Avoid the temptation to read every word
2. Read actively - write in the margins, highlight phrases, write summaries, take note of major and minor points
3. Read critically - ask yourself questions; for example: Is the argument logical? Is it biased? Is there enough evidence to support the author's conclusions? Is the information dated?

**After you read** think over what you have read. Make a **brief** summary of the main ideas and concepts in the text.

## 7.9Extensive reading (Class reader, Class library, School library)

Have you ever involved your leaners in extensive reading? What activities have they been doing? How effective have they been? Extensive reading involves learners reading a lot of texts for enjoyment and to develop general reading skills. It is associated with supplementary readers/reading.

**Class reader**

A class reader is a book that the learners read and analyse together in the class and as homework over an extended period of time. It may be graded and have authentic language.

For instance, the classwould be reading a collection of short stories with different titles. The teacher chooses what the learners reads as a whole class. These titles are common to all learners and the reading is usually carried out in the class. Learners do a range of activities on the stories read at home in class.Can you think of the activities that you can engage the learners after these reading sessions? In the classroom, whilst a range of relevant and motivating pre- and post-reading activities are important, a key factor for success in getting learners to read is selecting the right reader. A good starting point is to find out what the learners read in their own language.

**Class room libraries**

Although the library should be the focal centre of learning in school, it needs to reach out to classroom also. This is where a good interaction between the librarian and teacher needs to be generated. Classroom libraries consisting of select fiction books, non-fiction, and reference materials should find a place in every classroom under the direct control and supervision of the class teacher and a pupillibrarian of the class. These class libraries can be used by students who finish their class work more quickly than others or as loan service for the class to supplement the books they read from the main library, or when a teacher is absent and no other substitution programme can be arranged for. The collection of these class libraries can be interchanged section-wise and new ones added each year so that the class gets a wide variety of reading material available to them at any time. Dictionaries, atlases, globes and maps should form part of the classroom libraries.

**School library**

What is a library?

A library is a room or building where books, pamphlets, magazines, newspapers, cassettes and videos are kept together.These items are known as the library’s stock. In the stock all kinds of information can be found.A library may be large or small. A school needs a library because libraries support the school’s work of literacy and education.

**Advantages of running a school library**

A school library is useful in literacy work from the earliest stage because it encourages good reading habits to be formed when children are young. All teachers should aim to stimulate children’s curiosity about books and to encourage learners to start loving the written word. One of the best ways of doing this is to set up a school library with a wide variety of information and fiction books. The vocabulary range of these books should suit all skill levels, so that even reluctant learners will be able to read what they want, when they want, for their studies.

A library should also have stock that is fun to read. When students discover that soccer yearbooks, novels and magazines are also in the library they may start to spend some of their leisure time reading. The more students read, thefaster their language will improve. This will help them in their studies and when they leave school.

The school library supports the learners’ studies. Every library collection will have information that can improve students’understanding of the subjects they learn at school, and increase their knowledge of the world. A school library may alsohave books by local writers that will encourage students’ interest and pride in the local area.

As well as providing access to information, a school library allows students to develop the skills of searching forinformation on their own. This will help to develop a problem-solving and active approach to learning. Pupilswhoregularly look up information in books will improve both their grade level work and their reading skills.

Libraries are also very useful for teachers. All staff, whether mathematics, woodwork, home economics, science or geographycan improve their pupils; teaching by using stock from the library. Libraries are a source of information for every teacher, not just for English teachers. This is especially so if the school library has stock which can;

1. give students knowledge (both general knowledge and specific information from set textbooks).
2. provide explanations, e.g. about how coal is made or for particular sports rules.
3. satisfy pupils’ curiosity and interest in life.
4. offer art, craft, music, dance and cultural information.

## Activity 7.1

**1**. What is the purpose of reading?

2. Explain the stages in the reading text.

3. Mention the types of reading and show what is meant by each type.

4. Correctly explain the reading procedure.

5. Mention the challenges in constructing a school library.

## Summary

Here, you have discussed reading. You are now aware of the purpose of reading, the types for the various purposes and the procedure for teaching these types. While intensive reading is used for study, efficient reading is used for comprehension and extensive reading for enjoyment. You will need to engage learners in all these types so that they be acquitted to real life reading and develop a good reading culture.

#

# UNIT 8

# TEACHING WRITING SKILLS

## 8.0Introduction

Teaching of composition in mother tongue is so vital since English is becoming a global language whereby more and more people are willing to learn it. Therefore, learners should be taught writing composition skills in their local languages. Once learners are grounded with phonics, they are able to write anything that they can talk about in their local language. This means that they can write stories of any length. The teaching of composition in mother tongue in the primary school is one aspect that the teachers have not given much attention. If the teaching is done, the teachers do not realize they are teaching composition. If they do, the procedures chosen may not be appropriate to the teaching of this language component. There is little guidance on how to do so. This unit will help you teach the basics on how to write a composition and the important things to take note of.

## Learning Outcomes

As you work through this unit, you are expectedto;

* demonstrate knowledge the basic structure of a composition;
* explain the stages you would use in teaching composition in a mother tongue.
* explain some of the skills that can enhance creative writing.

## 8.1The Basic Structure of a Composition

Composition in the primary school is categorized as a narrative. This means that your learners are basically narrating a sequence of events from a plot he comes up with. You should think of it as story-telling. Learners have done oral story-telling from the first grade and now you may want them to begin to put in writing what they say.

For every composition, there is a basic structure offour parts: introduction, conflict / complication, resolution, conclusion.

Hereis what is expected of each segment of the composition:

1. Introduction – Introduce the setting. Set the tone. Generate interest. Lead in to the next paragraph.
2. Conflict / Complication – This is the crux of the story. Your characters must be trying to overcome a conflict or a problem related to the theme of the story.
3. Resolution – Here is where the problem or conflict is resolved.
4. Conclusion – The ending of the story. Provide closure.

## 8.2 Planning the composition

Your learners must first plan for his composition. This is a crucial step that many learners always leave out. Ask your learners to write down whatever ideas come into his mind while he brainstorms for the topic.

Your learners should get to scribble out their ideas:

1. Who are the characters?
2. What is the main problem here?
3. How does the story end?
4. Is the narration logical?

Then get them to organize the points according to the basic essay outline: Introduction, Conflict/Problem, Resolution, and Conclusion.

Failing to plan for a composition can lead to these problems:

1. sudden change in plot – loopholes in the story
2. confusion of pronouns (he, she, they…) This happens when learners decide to write from a third person perspective and then switch to a first person midway through the composition, (Or vice versa).
3. writing a pointless introduction (describing weather or alarm clocks or school bells ringing…)
4. inability to resolve the problem or conclude the story

So, make sure your learners pick up the habit of planning as early as in the fourth grade. This will change the inadequacies that are displayed by many learners up to tertiary level.

## 8.2.1 Writing the first paragraph

Many learners struggle with the first paragraph. Hence, they end up memorising introductions from model compositions to make up for their lack of ideas.

That may help them get over the mental struggle in the short run, but it totally defeats the purpose of creative writing. Your learners’ creative mind might remain under-developed if all they do for ‘education’ is to simply memorise and reproduce information. In the first paragraph the writer should:

1. capture the reader’s attention;
2. generate interest and;
3. be relevant to the story.

## 8.2.2 Writing the problem / conflict

All stories consist of a central problem or conflict which the characters are trying to resolve. This is the most important part of the story. Your learners should spending most of their time on this stage. Get them to throw in additional complications to the problem or conflict. In other words – make the problem worse.

Also, you might want to get your learners to describe in detail at this segment. Many learners simply run through the most important parts of their story in one or two sentences. This may be true about some of the teachers. That’s terrible! Reflect on how you have been presenting your essays.

The problem or conflict segment should be 1 -2 paragraphs long. Help the learners to develop their expansive skills. Your learners should try to describe and narrate the events clearly here. They have to be well detailed. Encourage them to describe using their five senses (sight, smell, taste, hearing and touch).Make sure the description aims at accomplishing a clear purpose. Words should not be used to fill up blank space just for the sake of it.

They must be able to build the suspense and make the reader feel excited, or worried, or nervous in the climax of the story. They can vary sentence structures and use emotive words to put the readers on the edge. They must make the problem or conflict seem so bad that the reader loses all hope for a proper resolution.

Have you ever watched a movie where the situation in which the hero is in, is so terrible that you lose all hope for your hero? Yes, the conflict or problem must bring out that feeling of hopelessness in the reader. Then that is a story. If it does not (that is, if it is all exciting), then it is comedy.

**8.2.3 Writing the resolution**

Writing this portion is fairly simple. All your learners need to do is to resolve the problem or conflict in a logical way. If possible, try to allow the main character to help resolve the conflict.

Also, consider solving the problem in other ways, rather than just turning to the police or complaining to the teacher.

Could the problem or conflict be solved by a stroke of luck? Could the community get involved to solve the problem together? Could the characters work out a compromise? The key here is to be creative but logical at the same time.

**8.2.4 Writing the conclusion**

By this time, the learner is likely to be rushing to finish the composition. Most of my new learners mess up this part of their composition rather badly. They would simply write one or two sentences, stating how they have ‘learnt a lesson’.

There’s more to conclusions than simply just learning a lesson. Most of you would just look at the moral lesson.

A conclusion is used to;

1. tie up the loose ends in the story.
2. reflect on the events or the incident.
3. make plans for the future.

How will your character’s life be different from now onward?

Get your learners to spend a bit more time in the conclusion segment. Ensure that the story has a proper closure.

Once you have got your learners to do this for each composition you give them, they will develop each writing with skill.

## 8.3Skills and exercises for composition writing

There are various skills that can be used;

1. completing compositions
2. writing a paragraph
3. writing from tables
4. writing from substitution tables
5. sequencing of picture strips
6. sequencing jumbled words or sentences
7. writing about pictures
8. writing from conversation posters
9. gap-filling sentences
10. writing parallel sentences
11. Identifying correct sentences, etc.

You can determine which skills to develop at any grade level. Remember that composition can start at word building level to a passage. Young learners will deal with simpler tasks.

|  |
| --- |
| Activity 8.11. Using the basic structure of a composition, write a narrative of not less than 450 words.
2. Devise a lesson plan in which you will be teaching learners to write a composition on what they do every holiday.
3. Discuss other effective strategies in composition teaching that you have used in your class and share these with your colleagues.
4. Explain the basic structure of a composition.
 |

# UNIT 9

# TEACHING SUMMARY SKILLS

## 9.0 Introduction

What do you understand by the term ‘summary’? Do you think you have taught summary to your learners? Have you taught it appropriately?Summary in the primary school is basically taught through comprehension but we are going to discuss this skill here, independent of the teaching of comprehension skills. The skill of summarising is very useful in our daily lives and we are always using this skill, although most of us have not realized that we are doing a summary of some sort. As a teacher, it is important to emphasize to your learners the skill of summarizing and you should make aware of the summary skills.

## Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you are expected to;

* identify instances that we use summaries in day-to-day life.
* categories summaries;
* state the skills involved in summary;
* discuss some of the important summary skills;
* follow the procedure in teaching summary in the primary school.

Imagine the head teacher addressed the teacher for an hour. Would you manage to tell your colleague who was absent in that meeting all the details of what she/ ha said? Probably you would only tell them the main or important issues addressed. Summary, therefore is a brief account of speech or written work (e.g., a book). You should, at any level, aim at training the learners to extract what is relevant or significant from a given passage or speech and to express the extracted points clearly and concisely. This will further equip the learners to gain skills in dealing satisfactorily with the summary situations they are likely to meet in real life.

## 9.1 Summaries in everyday life

In our day to day living, we find ourselves engaging in summary. The summary activities may be spoken or written.

Spoken summaries: This is the shortening of spoken information. If you attended a church service for instance, the preacher will have discussed a lot which you would not be able to narrate it all to a person who did not attend that sermon. Another example of a spoken summary is the answer you would give if someone asked you of what a novel that you have just finished reading is all about.

In all these cases, you would be providing the main information, stated very briefly. You would not give all the details. For instance, if the preacher has been speaking for an hour to the congregation, you would spend less than ten minutes to report what he said.

Written summaries: We also use written summaries in everyday life. These have various sources but the work is presented in written form. There are various examples of written summaries:

1. Advertisements: these do not use ordinary language because the aim is to communicate an idea using few words.
2. Study skills such as note-taking and note-making: These use few words as the summary may require.
3. SMSs: Nowadays the short message service (sms) has taken place of telegrams that were sent long ago before the advent of the cellular phone.

## 9.2 Skills involved in summary

Summary work is a combination of comprehension and composition. You cannot summarise a passage that you do not comprehend. The learner first reads a passage and understands it before he summaries it. Further, you need to be concise, be clear, organise material so that it is easily seen, understood, remembered and referred to, and the expression of material in note form or continuous writing are composition skills which the learners should acquire. You need to teach specific skills and relate them to life situations. Avoid making the summary lessons artificial and inadequate.

## 9.3 Some important summary skills

What summary skills have you taught to the grades that you have ever taught at primary level? How meaningful had the summary tasks? Have the learners been enjoying the lessons? Here are some of the summary skills you may consider for the learners in the primary school:

1. Selection of main points;
2. Identification of significant
3. Minimizing redundancies (i.e, avoiding unnecessary repetition and extra information about something which is already clear).
4. Identifying examples, introductions and conclusions;
5. making a distinction between facts and opinions;
6. connecting related points;
7. Awareness of time sequence;
8. conciseness (i.e. expressing what is significant in the briefest way);
9. Clarity (expressing meaning overtly and clearly);
10. Tabulation (i.e, Organisation of material so that it is easily seen, understood, remembered and referred to).
11. Note-taking and note-making
12. writing prose summaries.

## 9.4 Forms of summary

There are different forms of summary and these would determine how you would summarise information. Which of the following have you ever done in your lessons:

1. Oral-Oral: The material is orally presented and the summary is orally given.
2. Written-Written:You read a written passage and answer in writing.
3. Written-Oral:You read a written passage and discuss orally.
4. Oral-Written: You listen to a talk, or speech and write down main points.

## 9.5 The teaching of summary in the primary school

The teaching of summary in primary school should emphasize selection of specific information from the texts and writing it properly. Although summary skills are dealt with in comprehension and composition lessons we are going to give the general procedure for summary aspects;

1. Introduction – discuss with the learners the benefits of summarizing and relate to everyday life.
2. Simple summary skills – teach learners simple but important summary skills
3. Deal with tabulation skills – make learners be aware of the significance of arranging materials or points in such a way that they are easily seen, understood, remembered and referred to.
4. Identify important words
5. Teach the following summaries:
* title summaries
* sentence summaries
* note summaries

|  |
| --- |
| Activity 9.11. Discuss what is involved in the teaching of:
2. title summaries
3. sentence summaries
4. note summaries
5. Devise a summary lesson in which learners would present in tabular form, information extracted from a passage.
 |

## Summary

Can you summarize what has been discussed about teaching of summary skills in a mother tongue? Yes. What you have said provides the summary of this unit. Have you thought of summaries in everyday life, skills involved in summarizing, and the procedure for teaching summary in the primary school? This is all that has been discussed under this unit. We hope you have realized that when you deal with comprehension and composition lessons, you usually involve learners in summary skills.

# UNIT 10

# TEACHING OF LITERATURE IN ZAMBIAN LANGUAGE

## 10.0 Introduction

Why do you think we teach literature in schools? Well, this unit discusses the teaching of literature in Zambian language by looking at reasons why literature is taught in schools, approaches in the teaching of literature, how and what to teach in a literature lesson, and what to teach in a literature lesson.

## Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you areexpected to;

* give reasons why we teach literature in Zambian languages.
* mention approaches used in teaching literature.
* explain how and what to teach in a literature lesson.

In many countries where English is treated as a second language, literature is considered to be a ‘luxury’ subject who plays no essential role in the meeting of personnel requirements. It tends to be taken by only a few learners and to receive very little time and attention. In order to become truly educated and to maximize his/her value to his/her society a learner needs not only to acquire skills and knowledge but also to develop qualities of character and intellect. If literature is well taught, it can help pupils to become broad-minded, perceptive and capable of constructive criticism.

You may have noticed some of the reasons why literature should play an important part in the education of learners. Some of them are as follows:

1. It provides vicarious experience of other culture, philosophies and attitudes and therefore helps the pupils to become more informed and tolerant of the world outside their own environment.
2. It allows the pupils to compare their own society with that of other peoples and can encourage them to become more aware of both the virtues and limitations of their own inherited attitudes and values.
3. It can provide insights into the nature and potential of man and can make the pupils more aware of their true selves as a result of comparisons with characters they have read about.
4. It can stimulate constructive thought about important issues and ideas.
5. It can improve the learners’ passive knowledge of the language.
6. It can help the learners to become aware of the possibilities lf language and of the implication of various styles and ways of using words.
7. It can help the learners to discriminate both their reading and in their assessment of real life situations.
8. It can encourage the development of creative writing in the country.

## 10.1Reasons for teaching literature to secondary school pupils.

1. To instill and inculcate the reading habit among pupils.
2. To enrich pupils’ vocabulary and language content.
3. To enhance pupils’ thinking skills.
4. To promote cultural understanding in the Zambian context.
5. To improve Zambian language proficiency of pupils.
6. To provide lively, enjoyable and high-interest readings.
7. Development of Literary Appreciation and a Refined Reading taste.
8. Development and/or enhancement of the imagination and creativity.
9. Development of critical thinking.
10. Development of students' character and emotional maturity.
11. Development and/or extension of literary competence.
12. It provides a rich content for new vocabulary and language structures. It helps with writing skills too.
13. It gives readers practice in forming different kinds of sentences, using different structures, and working with different ways of connecting ideas.
14. Reading literature also promotes oral work.

## 10.2Approaches in the teaching of literature

What approaches do you use in the teaching of literature to your grade 10 learners? How best does it apply? Is there any other approach which can be used in the senior classes? You can read on these two basic approaches to the teaching of literature and see which one best suits your learners based on the type of examination offered.

## 10.2.1 Single Text Approach

This is a task based approach that focuses on what constitutes a story. That is, identifying the characters, which character does what and where the action takes place. This approach is mainly used by grade twelve (12) learners who may be asked to read a text and later asked to write two or more paragraphs on the character/s that they have read in the text. They may also be asked to write paragraphs that explain the story itself. Finally, the teaching in this approach is based on the text itself and not themes.

## 10.2.2 Thematic Approach

This approach is based on studying themes, obtaining in a given situation or the central ideas that you want to communicate to the people or the audience. Learners read the text and together identify different themes found in the story. For instance, themes elicited in the books that were written before and after independence. Themes that were written before independence focused on colonial issues; the British dominion over the Africans and the awakening of African political consciousness towards political freedom from colonialism. Themes that were written after independence focused on governance issues on a newly created state, language policies in education, judiciary, government offices and so on. Using this approach, you need to compare the themes of the texts read.

## 10.3 How and what to teach in a local Languageliterature lesson

When you teach a literature class, you and your learners have to do some reading. There are many**stories** in your local languageto choose from.However, you cannot predict what stories your learners are going to love but you know what you love and that’s a good start, read some of them to see how you feel about them. Encourage them to read a wide range of novels, plays and poems even when they are not in the syllabus.

Commonly, teachers use literature for the development of the four skills of language as well as for providing knowledge of the world. You can use the Language Model where learnerslearn to use language and vocabulary.Personal Growth Model where learners learn to engage with the text to enjoy reading pleasure can also be used. Here are some of the techniques to use:

## 10.3.1 Understanding and retention of surface content

Learners shouldbe able to understand and retain surface content. They should be able to retell the story and answer surface questions based on the text.

This can be achieved through: -

1. ***Silent reading by learners***

When you offer sustained silent reading time, children reap the following benefits:

1. Enhanced reading enjoyment.
2. Increased comprehension.
3. Vocabulary building.
4. Improved writing skills.
5. ***Reading aloud of significant sections by the teacher***

When you have sections of interest, those sections that are important to the understanding of the content of the story, read such sections to the class. Read with expression so as to capture the attention of your learners. This way, the content will be retained by the learners.

1. ***Listening to relevant tape-recordings, records and radio programmes***.

Learners love variety. You can record relevant parts of the story to be listened in class. This would also provide variety in the learning techniques. They can instead of reading, listen to a strange voice.

1. WH – questioning by the teacher (especially on what happened when and where) can help learners to understand and retain significant content.
2. Chapter summaries of the story.
3. Chain stories, i.e. a learner starts to tell a section of the story and then without warning she/he is stopped and another learner is invited to take over.

## 10.3.2 Appreciation of the plot

The following can be useful in encouraging learners to think about why the author has chosen to tell her/his story in a particular sequence and manner:

1. The teacher asks ‘why’ questions
2. Groups or pairs discuss ‘why’ questions
3. A learner pretends to be the author and is asked questions by the teacher and other learnersabout why he/she told the story in a particular sequence and manner
4. The teacher pretends to be the author and is asked questions about her/his plot.

## 10.3.3 Appreciation of character

You should help learners know the characters in the novel, to differentiate between their real and their apparent personalities, to relate them to people in their own experience, to appreciate the author’s attitudes towards them and the role they play in the story.They should also formulate their own attitudes towards the characters and anything they might represent. How then can you guide learners into character appreciation?

Consider the following procedures:

1. Learners draw the characters as they visualize them, then compare drawings and explain why they have represented them in a particular way. This may seem not suitable for your grade but it cements the ideas advanced by various learners as they justify their work.
2. Pupils describe the characters by completing a framework provided by the teacher or by writing their own paragraphs after discussion.
3. Groups discuss specific questions relating to particular characters.
4. Groups of learners dramatise scenes from the book after thorough preparation.
5. Certain learners play the roles of characters from the book and are questioned by the learners about their actions, words and motives.
6. The learners are divided into groups; each learner in each group plays a character and the ‘characters’ then discuss an important issue in the book / story.
7. A trial is held in which a character is accused of a particular immoral action or motive. One pupil prosecutes him/her, defends him/her, ‘characters’ are called as witnesses and a panel of judges (learners) take their position and finally give a verdict.
8. A debate is held about a particular action or motive of a character.
9. A balloon debate is held.
10. The teacher prepares the learners for creative writing exercise in which they put characters from the book into situations of their own.
11. Hot-seating by pupils or teacher.

Do you have an idea on what hot-seating is? A character is questioned by the group about his or her background, behaviour and motivation. The method may also be used for developing a role in the drama lesson or rehearsals, or analysing a play post-performance. If it is the book read, Even done without preparation, it is an excellent way of fleshing out a character. Characters may be hot-seated individually, in pairs or small groups. The technique is additionally useful for developing questioning skills with the rest of the group.

**How do you do hot seating?**The traditional approach is for the pupil playing the role of the character to sit on a chair in front of the group (preferably arranged in a semi-circle). It is helpful if the teacher takes on the role of facilitator to guide the questioning in constructive directions.To help learners begin,you can try hot-seating them in pairs (e.g. a pair of street kids) or in groups (e.g. environmental protesters, refugees). Later, they can hot-sit individually.

Here is an example of the Hot Seat teaching strategy being used in groups. All of the learners have read the same book for this activity.

1. To begin, create groups based on the learners who were assigned the same character. Once learners are in their groups, challenge them to brainstorm character traits, as well as think of potential questions they may get asked when in the hot seat.
2. Next, have each group come up with one question as well as a backup question (in case someone else asks the same thing) they would like to ask the other characters in the novel.
3. Whenlearners have their questions prepared, the groups change and a new group is formed, where learners will now have to sit in a group with a learner representing each character from the novel. So if the novel has five characters in the book, then there will be one learner in each group that represents each character.
4. Once in the new group each learner takes turns being in the ‘hot-seat’ and portrays their character from the book. The learners in the hot seat answer questions from their peers.

As an extension activity, learners can reflect on this strategy by writing briefly in their books. They can talk about what they think, what went well and what they would have changed while in the hot-seat.

The hot-seat teaching strategy is an effective, interactive method to use in the classroom. Learners will not gain communication skills, but they will also learn how to ask thoughtful questions and give high-quality answers.

### Awareness of themes of the story

You can bring awareness of themes of the story the learners have read. This can be achieved by:

1. Guided analysis. Analyse the themes with the learners. Establish what unifies the text. How does it link to what happens in society?
2. Group discussions of a specific question relevant to a theme of the book given to them by the teacher.
3. Discovery and listing of themes by groups of pairs
4. Debating issues relevant to specific aspects of a theme.
5. Responding to controversial statements about themes of the book either in group discussion or in individual essays.
6. A learner or the teacher playing the author and replying to questions about why he/she wrote the book and what he intended to say or question in it.
7. Pupils completing note frameworks on the themes given to them by the teacher.

## 10.3.5 Awareness of writing techniques

The following are examples of techniques worth considering:

(a) Literary techniques such as:

1. a sympathetic character as a mouthpiece
2. characters as representatives of types, attitudes or –SMS
3. satire
4. direct comment
5. deliberate exaggeration
6. realism
7. fantasy
8. deliberate illogicality

(b) Stylistic techniques

1. symbolism
2. irony
3. Implied meaning.

These need to be introduced through direct teaching and then examples can be found and commented on by pairs or groups of pairs.

Appreciation of the relevance of the book to the learners’ own life and problems of their society.

As a teacher you can help the pupils to such an appreciation by engaging them in the following:

1. group discussion
2. debates
3. creative writing.
4. oral questioning

|  |
| --- |
| Activity 10.11. Give reasons why we teach literature in primary schools.2. Mention the approaches used in teaching literature.3. Explain the process of hot seating in literature teaching.4. Explain how learners can appreciate a character in the story.5. Explain how learners can become aware of themes in the story.SummaryIn this unit, we have discussed the teaching of literature in Zambian languages. We have stated the reasons for teaching literature and indeed literature in Zambian languages. Approaches such as the single text approach and thematic approach are suitable, although the single text is recommended for the Zambian languages literature. We have also discussed strategies that you can use in the teaching of literature. |

# UNIT 11

# ERROR ANALYSIS AND MARKING

## 11.0 Introduction

This unit introduces you to the concept of error analysis and marking by looking the definition of error analysis and marking, the difference between mistakes and errors, the significance of learners’ errors in language teaching and learning, and symbols used in marking learners’ errors.

## Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you are expected to;

* define error analysis.
* explain the significance of error analysis in language teaching and learning.
* identify learners’ errors their importance
* demonstrate understanding of symbols used in marking learners work.
* distinguish between an error and a mistake.

## 11.1 Defining error analysis

Error analysis is a branch of applied linguistic which is concerned with the compilation, study and analysis of errors made by language learners. Error analysis can as well be defined as a linguisticanalysisthat focuses on the errors learners make by comparing between the errors made in the target language and the target language itself.

## 11.2Distinction between Mistakes and Errors

Can you write the definitions for ‘error’ and ‘mistake’? What if the difference between the two? Compare your answer with the explanation below:

The distinction between an error and a mistake is that an error cannot be corrected, while a mistake can be self-corrected if the deviation is pointed out to the speaker. A mistake is made by the learner because he does not apply the rule that he actually knows, in other words, a mistake is a non-systematic deviation from the norms of the language. Since Zambian languages use a transparent orthography, most of the learners with a good language foundation would not have problems with spelling. If they deviate from the norm, they would be able to correct themselves. However, you may have learners whose mother tongue is different from the language you teach.

## 11.3The significance of learners’ errors

Error analysis helps teachers to:

1. Assess the remedial work necessary for the learners.
2. Help learners avoid the most common errors.
3. They tell the teacherif he undertakes a significantanalysis, how fartowards the goal the learnerhas progresse, and consquently, what remains for him to learn.
4. Lastly, errors are indispensible to the learner himself/herself because it is a way of testing his/her hypothesis about the nature if language s/he is learning.

## 11.4Identifying learners’ mistakes and errors

Identification of errors and mistakes depends on whether the error is overt or covert. An overt error is easy to identify because there is a clear deviation in form, as when a learner says;

Nyanja: “Nabwera”, when one is going away.

Tonga: Ndamana‘Iam finished’, instead of ndamanizya ‘I have finished’.

A covert error occurs in utterances that are superficially well formed but which do not mean that the learner intended them to mean. For instance, the utterance from (Corder, 1981):

“It was stopped” is apparently ungrammatical until it becomes clear that ‘It” refers to “the wind”.

Describingerrors is done bycategorisingthem grammatically. Trying to identify general ways in which the learner’s utterances differ from the target language. Learners may commit omission errors, addition, disordering and misinformation.

## 11.5Symbols used when marking learners’ work

For marking to operate effectively as feedback, the language, conventions and symbols used by the tutor must be clear, concise and capable of being acted on by the student. Much time and effort can be saved if a set of symbols is used: the tutor does not need to write in the correct word, form or phrase each time (though it can sometimes be helpful to provide a more suitable or more idiomatic version of a phrase), and the tutor can see at a glance whether a student’s errors tend to fall into particular categories. For learners, the symbols serve as a prompt to think through for themselves the process of checking their work for gender, agreement, tense, and so on, instead of passively seeing the correct forms without doing anything to process them mentally.

In order to avoid the use of symbols becoming an unthinking chore for tutor and student alike, it is worth taking a few minutes to explain the symbols to a class, and how the students are expected to make use of them. Once explained, these symbols should be used consistently. Here are some symbols that can be used between the lines or in the margins of written work. This list is neither exhaustive nor definitive; tutors may have their own preferences for alternative symbols.

Symbols in the margin or between the lines showing the nature of the error:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| SG | should be singular (number of noun and/or form of dependent nominal) |
| PL | should be plural (number of noun and/or form of adjective) |
| AG | make verb ending agree with subject or make adjective ending agree with noun; can be used in conjunction with one of the symbols above |
| SP | error of spelling, including verb forms, and accents |
| V (or VOC) | error of vocabulary |
| T | error of tense |
| G | error of grammar, e.g. wrong relative pronoun, wrong verb ending |
| WO | error in word order |
| R (or REG) | error of register, e.g. informal construction in formal piece of work |
| ME | error of meaning other than VOC; meaning not clear |
| ( ) | omit bracketed words; can be used in combination with other symbols, such as letters or lines |
| ^ | words missing; this symbol can be used in combination with other symbols, or suggested words can be written above text |
| ? | (After a symbol), not clear what the learner intended the word/phrase to mean |

Symbols in the text indicating the seriousness of the error:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| \_\_\_\_\_\_\_ | a clear error: Learner’s version is wrong, unacceptable |
| \_\_\_ \_\_\_ | (Twounderlining, linked by a loop). The error involves all the underlined words |
| (\_\_\_\_) | omit underlined words |
| / | (Slash through word). Repetition of similar error made previously |
| \_ \_ \_ \_ | a lesser error, e.g. not exact meaning; inappropriate register |
| ~~~~~ | (Wavy line under a group of words). Awkward style: the phrase needs to be reformulated |
| ......... | acceptable, but not the most appropriate word or phrase |
| / / | (Slashes before and after group of words; suggested wording written above). Preferred/more appropriate wording; can be combined with dotted or wavy underlining, as above |

Symbols in the margin:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| X | factual error, i.e. not a linguistic error |
|  | (tick in the text). Good choice of word or phrase; good use of language |
|  | (tick in the margin). Good/relevant point or sub-point well made |
| \* | refers to comment at end of page/piece. This may be referring to the whole page or work |
| ⸾ | (vertical wavy line).The passage is not relevant, or not appropriate to the question set |
| | | (Vertical line). Passage to which a marginal comment refers |

|  |
| --- |
| Activity 11.11. Give the precise definition of error analysis.2. Give an explanation why identifying learners’ is important.3. What is the difference between an error and a mistake? |

## Summary

In this unit, we have distinguished errors and mistakes. While learners can correct their mistakes, they cannot do so with errors. The learners’errors are very important to the teacher because you can form teaching points from such. Therefore, you should be able to identify these errors and be able to help learners realise the errors and get rid of them. Make sure your learners understand the symbols used when marking their work.

# UNIT 12

# DOCUMENTATION AND PLANNING FOR LESSONS

## 12.0 Introduction

This unit introduces you to the documents used in the teaching and learning process by the teacher by looking at the definition of professional documents such as the syllabus and its importance, types of syllabuses, schemes of work, lesson panning and records of work.

## Learning Outcomes

At the end of thisunit, you are expected to;

* discuss the syllabus .
* write a scheme of work in any Bantu language.
* write a lesson plan.
* write a record of work.
* state the importance of the syllabus, schemes of work, lesson plan and record of work.

In the teaching sector, professional documents are the documents which are used by the teacher in the preparation, implementation and evaluation of teaching/learning process. They include schemes of work, lesson plans, and records of work and progress records. They are meant to make teaching and learning more effective. We will discuss each of these below.

## 12.1 Syllabus Design

We know that you do use the syllabus during your planning for teaching. What is the importance of the syllabus?What types of syllabuses do you know? Which one do you use for Zambian languages?

According to Munby (1984), syllabus design is seen as "a matter of specifying the content that needs to be taught and then organising it into a teaching syllabus of appropriate learning units." Maley (1984) sums it up when he says that syllabus design encompasses the whole process of designing a languageprogramme.

## 12.1.1 The importance of the syllabus

Without the syllabus, you cannot begin planning for teaching. It all begins with the content to be covered for that course of study.

## 12.1.2 Types of syllabuses

What type of syllabus have you indicated is used for Zambian languages? You may have indicated one or more of the syllabuses discussed below. Go through these and see if your answer would be still the same.

**The Structural Syllabus.**

The structural or grammatical syllabus is doubtless the most familiar of syllabus types. A structural syllabus, also known as a grammatical syllabus, is a product-oriented syllabus based on grammatical structures graded according to complexity. It is one of the most traditional methods used in course design and typically formed the basis of the grammar translation and audiolingual methods. Is such a syllabus used in the present curriculum?

**The Notional/Functional Syllabus.**

A notional-functional syllabus is an approach where the organisation of the material is determined with notions or ideas that learners expect to be able to express through the target language and the functions acts learners expect to be able to accomplish.

**Situational Syllabus**

A situational syllabus is one in which the content of language teaching is a collection of real or imaginary situations in which language occurs or is used. A situation usually involves several participants who are engaged in some activity in a specific setting. Think of activities that you have ever used

**Skill-Based Syllabus**

This syllabus is based on the development of the language skills (listening, reading, writing and speaking) using the target language. Examples of skills in using the target language may include reading for the main idea, writing good paragraphs, and listening for the main idea.<https://www.google.co.zm/search?source=hp&ei>

**Task-Based Syllabus**.

A task-based syllabus is based on task-based learning, an approach where learners carry out tasks such as solving a *problem* or planning an activity. The language learnt comes out of the linguistic demands of the activity. A task-based syllabus is structured around a series of these tasks.

**The Content-Based Syllabus.**

The focus of a lesson under Content-based syllabus is on the topic or subject matter. During the lesson learners are focused on learning about something. This could be anything that interests them from a serious science subject to their favourite topical news story or film. They learn about this subject using the language they are trying to learn, rather than their native language, as a tool for developing knowledge and so they develop their linguistic ability in the target language. This is thought to be a more natural way of developing language ability and one that corresponds more to the way we originally learn our first language.

There are many ways to approach creating a Content-based lesson. Let us look into the following:

1. Preparation
	1. Choose a subject of interest to students.
	2. Find three or four suitable sources that deal with different aspects of the subject. These could be websites, reference books, audio or video of lectures or even real people.
2. During the lesson
	1. Divide the class into small groups and assign each group a small research task and a source of information to use to help them fulfil the task.
	2. Then once they have done their research they form new groups with students that used other information sources and share and compare their information.
	3. There should then be some product as the end result of this sharing of information which could take the form of a group report or presentation of some kind.

 **What are the advantages of content-based instruction?**

1. It can make learning a language more interesting and motivating. Learners can use the language to fulfil a real purpose, which can make learners both more independent and confident.
2. Learners can also develop a much wider knowledge of the world through CBI which can feed back into improving and supporting their general educational needs.
3. CBI is very popular among language teachers who to guide learners into purposeful academic content as it helps learners to develop valuable study skills such as note taking, summarising and extracting key information from texts.
4. Taking information from different sources, re-evaluating and restructuring that information can help learners to develop very valuable thinking skills that can then be transferred to other subjects.
5. The inclusion of a group work element within the framework given above can also help learners to develop their collaborative skills, which can have great social value.

**What are the advantages** of **content**-**based instruction**?

It can make learning a language more interesting and motivating. Learners can use the language to fulfil a real purpose, which can make learners both more independent and confident.

The goal of CBI is to prepare learners to acquire the languages while using the context of any subject matter so that learnerslearn the language by using it within the specific context. Rather than learning a language out of context, it is learned within the context of a specific academic subject.

## 12.1.3 Selection of a syllabus

The type of syllabus to be used depend on the kind of design. Some syllabuses would adopt two or more of the designs.Analyse the Secondary Zambian Languages Syllabuses and determine which types the junior and senior syllabuses they are.

## 12.1.4 Using the syllabus

Let us now look at designing and using the syllabus. What do you think are the necessary steps and things required in syllabus design? Deal with this diligently and have a presentation during tutorial.

Many language teachers fail to use the syllabus even when they have done their courses in renowned institutions. What do you think is the problem? Are you one of such teachers? From experience, students fail to use the syllabus because they do not find the specific language lessons allocated on the timetable. There is no structure, comprehension, literature, and composition on the timetable while in the syllabus, each of these components are presented separately. How then should you adequately cover each of the components against few periods that some schools allocate for Zambian languages? As a teacher of a Zambian language, your schemes should be integrative.

## 12.2 Schemes of Work

What do you understand by ‘Schemes of work’? A scheme of work is a detailed breakdown of the syllabus in terms of lessons, weeks, terms and year for the purpose of orderly and systematic teaching. The scheme of work is derived from the Syllabus. The scheme of work details how the content for each class is to be covered on a weekly, termly and yearly basis. In most Zambian schools, a scheme covers a term. The syllabus does not divide the components into school terms, you have to pick and balance the content of each of the components in the term.

A scheme of work has the following components:

1. Week: This is the week of term in which particular topic content is to be taught.
2. Lesson: Specific Lesson in the week in which a particular topic/sub-topic is to be taught.
3. Topic/sub-topic: These are specific areas identified for study in the Life Skills Education syllabus. A sub topic is a sub division of topic for ease of study.
4. Learning Outcomes: This refers to what the teacher can tap out of the learners during the learning process. Learning outcomes must be **SMART**, that is;

S – Specific M – Measurable A – Attainable R – Realistic T – Time bound

## 12.3 Importance of schemes of work

Why should you prepare the schemes of work? What benefits have you found in the schemes of work in your teaching career? How different are schemes of work from the syllabus? How do the two relate to each other? Well, a scheme of work is important;

1. forithelps to scrutinise the syllabus and pick what is suitable for the learners in your class.
2. to adapt the syllabus to suit the needs and aspirations of the learners.
3. to re-arrange topics in such a way that they are appropriate to the class.
4. as it guides you to include topics that might have been left outbut you consider them to be important or lay a better foundationfor your classbackground information.
5. for it helps you divide the syllabus into appropriate academic years and then decide which topics to be dealt with in a term or each week of the term.
6. for it makes lesson planning easier as it divides syllabus topics into small measurable units.
7. The Zambian languages syllabus is prepared for all the indigenous languages taught. So, there is need to specify the particular requirements in that language.

## 12.4 Lesson planning.

For how long have you been teaching the subjects you teach? How many lessons do you write in a week? Is this number based on your experience or inexperience? A lesson plan is an outline of a particular lesson for a particular period.

**Importance of the lesson plan**

You should be able to state the importance of the lesson plan. Here are some of the points on the importance of the lesson plan:

1. It helps the teacher to know exactly what he expects every pupil to doing and he (Teacher) will be doing – activities for the pupil and the teacher.
2. It helps the teacher to know what kind of behavior he expects from the class and how that relates to the aims and objectives.
3. It helps the teacher to gain self-confidence in the presentation of the lesson, and to present the lesson systematically.
4. In case the class teacher is absent, it is easy to ask another teacher to teach the class.

**Points to consider when planning lessons**

What do you consider when planning a lesson? Please, consider the following:

1. Information on content or skill should be reflected in the objectives
2. Information on what the teacher will be doing to make learning possible – Teacher Activities
3. Information on what pupils will be doing in response to the teacher’s instructions – children’s’ Activities.
4. Techniques and strategies of using materials should be indicated.
5. Appropriate teaching and learning aids.

## 12.5 The significance of the introduction in a lesson

We all know that every lesson should have a brief, vibrant introduction which is related to the lesson to be taught. The following is the significance of the introduction:

1. It is used to stimulate interest and capture the attention of the pupils.
2. It gives chance to move from known to unknown. Previously acquired knowledge can be used to stimulate the learning of new work.
3. It is used to arouse interest and curiosity by focusing their attention to what the teacher is about to teach.
4. It is used to prepare the class for ‘new’ knowledge to be dealt with in the development stage of the lesson.

**Examples of Introductory Activities**

Make sure that the pupils:

1. Ask question on the previous lesson.
2. Ask questions relevant to the topic.
3. Show them an object or any visual aid and ask them questions.
4. Create any mechanical and relevant situation and ask questions.

## 12.5.2The main stages of the lesson plan

i)**Introduction**

This is where you need to capture the attention of the learners, motivating them into the lesson. You may find out what they know so that you facilitate what they do not know in a smooth way.

ii) **Development**

This is the stage where the work is presented. Details of teacher or pupil activities must be reflected. These activities must be methodically presented. Written exercises should be precededby adequate, appropriate and intensive oral practices. Equip the learners with all skills needed for that lesson.

iii) **Practice**

An exercise or any activity is important for it will help you give an appropriate evaluation. You will be able to know if the set outcomes have been achieved.

**iv) Conclusion**

Conclude the lesson with a practical application of what has been learnt. It can be in form of:

1. Brief quiz.
2. Brief explanation on important points.
3. Brief questions and answers session in groups.

**v) Follow up Activities**

Give pupils homework. Ensure that pupils have understood the instructions on the exercise.

vi) **Post Lesson Evaluation**

Here, you ask yourself some of these questions:

* Was the lesson appropriate in the contents and level of children’s ability?
* Was the timing adequate?
* Were pupils participating lively or did I bore them?
* Is there a way for improvement?
* Have I achieved the outcomes?
* Were the methods used appropriate?
* Is it necessary to repeat the lesson or should I offer remedial work?

Ultimately, a lesson plan enables both the student/teacher and the supervisor/standard education officer to assess whether the lesson has achieved its intended learning outcomes.

## 12.5Records of work

It is a document where all details of the work covered/taught by the teacher is entered on a daily basis.

The entries are made by the individual teacher after every lesson. A record of work ensures:

1. accountability and transparency of work covered by the teacher.
2. the continuity of teaching of a particular class.
3. that a new teacher traces where to start teaching a class.
4. the evaluation of schemes of work after a period of time for example four years.
5. uniformity in content/coverage in case of several streams.
6. accurate teacher’s comments – a teacher has a moral obligation to ensure that the information recorded in this column is accurate. All observations made in the post lesson evaluation stage of the lesson should be indicated.
7. Head of Department’s comments – HODs evaluate what you taught and your reflections as a specialist. Based on what is indicated, s/he will be able to give you professional advice/ recommendations and guidance.
8. Head Teacher’s comments – Head teacher sees to it that teaching and learning is taking place. That each teacher is performing his/ herdutiesprofessionally and diligently. He approves or disapproves what the teacher is doing with his/her pupils and gives advice and guidance to the teachers.

## 12.5.1Importance of Records of Work

Do you keep a record of work that you have taught your classes? If you do, give reasons for doing so. If not, why? Look at some of the points to why it is important for every teacher to keep a record of work:

1. It helps to keep an accurate record of what has been taught to a class
2. To know what problems pupils are facing in learning a particular topic/s for better future planning.
3. In case of transfer, illness or even death, it helps the next teacher to know what the class s/he has taken over has done or (and) not done.
4. It promotes transparencein teaching and learning.
5. It makes it easier for administrators to cross-check or confirm what the teacher is doing.
6. It helps teachers get feedbackon their performance from the comments made by the HOD or Head teacher.
7. Information in records of work provides teachers with opportunities to improve their teaching.

A record of work should have the following components:

1. Time frame: It should indicate the day, date, week and lesson.The week and the lesson can be specified, for example week 9 Lesson 1.
2. Work covered: it takes the form of sub-topics derived from specific objectives ()
3. Remarks section: This is a statement language acting the success and failures of the lesson and recommendations/way forward
4. Name/Sign/Initials: This s is the identity of the teacher who taught the lesson. It helps in accountability and transparency.

## Activity 12.1

**1.**Give brief explanations of the following professional documents:

1. Syllabus
2. Scheme of work
3. Weekly forecast
4. Lesson plan
5. Record of work

2. Design a Grade 10 lesson plan using Cognitive Code Approach.

## Summary

Planning lessons is a very cardinal aspect in teaching. One cannot start teaching from without. You have seen in this unit that what you teach roots from the syllabus. It must be transformed into smaller relevant content for the learners. A syllabus is a broader document and the lesson plan deals with actual things that, you the teacher wishes to accomplish. After teaching, it is very important to have a record of what you have taught. In both the lesson plan and the records of work, be sincere to evaluate the lesson.

# UNIT 13

# ASSESSMENT

## 13.0 Introduction

In your daily readings, have you ever come across the term assessment in education? With your colleagues discuss what assessment is in education.Basically, assessment in education is the systematic collection of data to monitor the success of a program or course in achieving intended learning outcomes for learners. During instruction, assessment can be used to determine what learners are learning so you can adjust your teaching.

## Learning Outcomes

At the end of this lecture, you are expected to:

* state the purpose of assessment.
* discuss types of assessments
* discuss characteristics of good questioning.
* prepare a valid test items in a Zambian language.
* list down the steps to take when correcting pupils

## 13.1 Reasons for testing

Basic questions you should ask yourself before setting a test include among others:

What to test. How to do it.Whether to test at all. Why the assessment is being made. What it should contain. The consequences for teaching, learning and administration.The quality of the proposed test material.

The characteristics of a good test are: Validity – it should measure what is intended to measure and nothing else. Reliability - (unless valid it cannot be reliable): if administered a second time a reliable test would res in the same order of merit when neither learning nor teaching has intervened. Discrimination: Decide first whether the primary purpose is to discriminate between testees. School exams are generally designed to discriminate as widely as possible among the testees.

Backwash: Effects of the test on learning & teaching. Does it have a good influence on the learning sand teaching that takes place before the test?

## 13.2 Relationships between learning, teaching and testing

Content validity, Purposes for assessment: Aims of teacher/ learner. Content specification list: ensures that test covers all areas to be assessed in suitable proportion.

Balanced sample (nature of items included). Backwash / Wash back: Influence on learning and teaching before the test. Teaching through testing.

## 13.3Types of assessment

**Achievement / Attainment tests:** usually more formal, designed to show mastery of a particular syllabus (e.g. end-of-year tests, school-leaving exams, public tests) though similar (re-syllabus) to progress tests. Rarely constructed by classroom teacher for a particular class.Designed primarily to measure individual progress rather than as a means of motivating or reinforcing language.

**Progress Tests**: Most classroom tests take this form. Assess progress pupils make in mastering material taught in the classroom. Often given to motivate pupils. They also enable pupils to assess the degree of success of teaching and learning and to identify areas of weakness and difficulty. Progress tests can also be diagnostic to some degree.

**Diagnostic Tests**: can include Progress, Achievement and Proficiency tests, enabling teachers to identify specific weaknesses/difficulties so that an appropriate remedial program can be planned.

Diagnostic Tests are primarily designed to assess pupils' knowledge & skills in particular areas before a course of study is begun. Reference back to class-work, Motivation, Remedial work.

**Placement Tests**: sort new pupils into teaching groups so that they are approx. the same level as others when they start. Present standing. General ability rather than specific points of learning.Variety of tests necessary.Reference forward to future learning. Results of Placement Tests are needed quickly. Administrative load.

**Proficiency Tests**: Measure pupil’s achievements in relation to a specific task which they are later required to perform (e.g. follow a university course in the English medium, do a particular job). Reference forward to particular application of language acquired: future performance rather than past achievement. They rarely take into account the syllabus at pupils have followed. Definition of operational needs, Practical situations, authentic strategies for coping.Commonstandard e.g. diving test regardless of previous learning. Application of common standard whether the syllabus is known or unknown.

**Aptitude Tests**: measure pupil’s probable performance. Reference forward but can be distinguished from proficiency tests Aptitude tests assess. Proficiency in language for language use (e.g. will ‘S’ experience difficulty in identifying sounds or the grammatical structure of a new language?) while Proficiency tests measure adequacy of control in L2 for studying other things through the medium of that language.

## 13.4Assessing language skills at secondary school level

Assessment strategies and monitoring need to support students as they become increasingly independent users of the target language. For Grenfell and Harris, this means an emphasis on ‘learning to learn’ and approaching language learning from a different direction that focuses on the learner – their particular competence profile, learning styles and stage of developmental. Consequently, monitoring and assessment this requires consideration of ‘knowledge about language as well as knowledge of language’, and the inclusion of tasks and activities that develop both (Grenfell and Harris, 1999, p. 50).Any assessment should be both valid and reliable. Validity asks whether grades generated by the kind of statutory testing described earlier represent a student’s achievement in the whole of the subject. Can a series of timed, written tests at the end of a key stage assess all those things teachers think are important for students to learn about?

An over-reliance on test results may lead teachers to make generalizations and judgments about a pupil’s capability in all aspects of a subject, based on the formal testing of a subset. For example, a National Curriculum level tells us nothing about a learner’s problem-solving ability or creativity, nor about their ability to work in groups or engage in extended tasks. Perhaps all that can be said is that the tests simply tell the teacher about the capabilities of learners to answer questions at a particular time and of a particular type (and in the conditions and circumstances of the test) – no more and no less.

Reliability asks whether learner performance changes (or not) depending on the particular questions that are set. Ideally, assessments should give every learner optimal opportunity to demonstrate what they know. In practice, however, tests have been found to be biased against pupils from particular backgrounds, socio-economic classes, ethnic groups or gender (Pullin, 1993). Equity issues are particularly important when assessment results are used to label pupils or deny them access to courses or careers in the future.

In considering what should be assessed, Atkinson and Lazarus (2002) identify two broad categories: fluency and accuracy.

Fluency consists of the following:

1. Achieving a task
2. Conveying a message
3. Making meaning
4. Being creative
5. Effective communication.

Accuracy includes:

1. Pronunciation
2. Accent
3. Grammar
4. Spelling.

Assessment can be summative (assessment of learning) or formative (assessment for learning). Effective assessment is planned and integrated into everyday lessons so that you are aware of what the learners have learned during a lesson, after a lesson, after a sequence of lessons and at the end of a course or academic year. Formative assessment can be carried out by the teacher or by the pupils themselves through self- or peer assessment.

The purpose of assessmentof learning is to find out what pupils know, understand and can do, which may then be used for formal certification, to report progress to parents, and to judge teacher and school effectiveness.

Assessment for learning also finds out what pupils know, understand and can do, but includes the pupil in the process, and enables the teacher to plan how to help the pupils make progress and develop their understanding and skills.

## 13.5Assessing language skills

In the classroom, where a lesson will often consist of several small steps that each build on the one before, it is important that the teacher constantly assesses the learners’ progress at the end of each step, as well as at the end of each lesson, to ensure that the learners are ready to move to the next level of activity. This is particularly important when new language is introduced into the lesson. The learners need to become familiar with that language before moving on to practising its use in different ways before being ready to perform and/or manipulate that language independently.

The next activity will enable you to consider what needs to be assessed in MFL teaching and learning, and how that assessment can be managed and made effective.

## 13.5.1Involving learners in the assessment process

It is not only the teacher who can carry out assessment; learners can also assess their own learning. Involving learners in assessment this has the potential to empower them and lead to a greater commitment to learning and progress. Learners are more likely to understand the learning goals and assessment criteria if they are discussed and devised with them rather than imposed on them. Learners will also become more engaged in their learning, and will build their confidence in discussing work with peers in a reflective, collaborative process, which in turn will develop their metacognition skills.

This means encouraging learners to review their work critically and constructively, and involving them in identifying the learning goals that they will work towards(Black and William, 1998). Involving learners in their language learning assessment supports their progress as they need to develop an understanding of what constitutes ‘success’.

You may have seen occasions where a teacher has involved the learners in the assessment process by:

1. Sharing learning goals and assessment criteria with the learners
2. Helping learners know and recognize the standards they are aiming for
3. Involving learners in self-assessment
4. Providing feedback that helps learnersrecognize their next steps and how to take them
5. Reviewing and reflecting on assessment data with learners.

Encouraging learners to reflect on their own work and that of their peers is an important language learning strategy, because it builds higher-order thinking skills. In addition, being able to monitor your own progress against learning outcomes (i.e. to self-assess) is important in becoming an independent learner. Discovering for yourself how to move forward (i.e. to use self-assessment formatively) develops self-regulation and self-efficacy. An improved ability to self-assess is an outcome of engaging with criteria and giving feedback, which is required in peer assessment.

Peer assessment is an important tool in helping learners to move towards using the target language independently as they develop the ability to self-assess effectively and use metacognitive skills to regulate their own learning. Metacognition is a process requiring knowledge about both cognition and how to control, monitor and regulate cognitive processes (Anderson and Krathwohl, 2001).

As learners learn to become more self-regulatory and therefore independent in facilitating their own target language learning, they are able to monitor, direct and regulate their own actions towards their learning goals.

## 13.5.2 Assessing oral work

Assessing oral work can present teachers with a particular challenge. There are many reasons why this is so, such as:

1. the size of classes can make it difficult for teachers to hear all learners regularly use spoken language independently
2. a lot of the speaking work done in class may be ‘practice’ rather than the independent production of language
3. spoken work is ephemeral, and it is difficult to record the outcomes of speaking activities during lessons, especially if the teacher leads the activity and cannot record learners at the same time
4. at the higher levels of performance, few people other than the teacher can provide the stimulus that learners need to extend the scope of the language they produce.

## 13.5.3Characteristics of good questioning

Teachers ask hundreds of questions in the classroom, and so do learners. But why? What is it about questions that make them so important in an instructional setting? What exactly is the purpose of questions?

A good question can ignite creativity and also educate learners.

While developing good questions may seem like a pretty straightforward task, it is not as simple as it looks. A good question needs to have a personality of its own which is made of specific characteristics. Here are some of the most essential characteristics of a good question.

**A. Relevance**

A good question is relevant. It focuses on recall of only the material covered in your lesson and aligns well with the overall learning objectives.

If you ask ‘What are the branches of soil science?’ for an introductory lesson that focused on only the type of soil, then it doesn’t really qualify as a relevant question. A better and more relevant question in this context would be ‘What are the characteristics of each type of soil?’.

**B. Clarity**

[A good question](https://www.raptivity.com/) is framed in a clear, easily understandable language, without any vagueness. Learners should understand what is wanted from the question even when they don’t know the answer to it.

The question ‘What are your rights?’ might be perceived as confusing and vague since it doesn’t specifically state which rights are sought. On the other hand, if you ask ‘What basic rights are covered under the Universal Declaration of Human Rights?’, the same question becomes clear and specific.

**C. Conciseness**

A good question is usually crisp and concise. It omits any unnecessary information that requires learners to spend time understanding it correctly. The idea is not to trick learners but assess their knowledge.

Consider this question for example: ‘Since distemper in canines affects several body systems like the gastrointestinal tracts, respiratory tracts, spinal cord, and the brain, how should canines be treated for it?’ This question gives a lot of information than what is required. It could simply be rephrased as ‘How to treat distemper in canines?’

**D. Purposefulness**

A question without a definite purpose has no value. The purpose helps evaluate the question against some set benchmarks. A good question can seek both innate and specific knowledge.

A question stating ‘What is the capital of France?’ requires the student to just exercise their memory to answer it. And if that is the purpose you have set, the question is totally justified. But if the purpose is to evaluate and enhance the student’s ability to reason, the same question might need to be stated as ‘How Paris is well located to be the capital of France?’.

**E. Guiding but NOT Leading**

A good question guides the learners towards understanding the concept in the picture. But at the same time, it doesn’t lead them to specific answers.

For example, ‘Since infant formula is a safe substitute for breastmilk, should its use be normalized?' is an extremely biased question that assumes formula to be safe for infants and leads users to state a ‘yes’ for an answer. Instead, this question could simply be rephrased as ‘Do you think the use of infant formula needs to be normalized?’

**F. Stimulates Thinking**

[A good question](https://www.raptivity.com/) requires learners to think through and recall the concepts taught. It doesn’t patronize them by asking the obvious.

‘Can you survive without water?’ is the perfect example of a question that doesn’t stimulate any thinking because questions are universally accepted fact. ‘How long does it take to die from lack of water?’ might be a better question in this regard.

**G. Single-Dimensional**

Remember, one question is one question. And hence, a good question focuses on one dimension at a time. If there are multiple ideas to evaluate, it is better to split them into multiple questions.

‘When did World War II begin and why was it fought?’ is a multi-dimensional question that requires learners to examine two things at a time. It is recommended to divide it into two distinct questions to facilitate easier and better recall: ‘When did World War II begin?’ and ‘Why was World War II fought?’

That’s all about good questions, their power, and their characteristics.

## 13.5.4Formulating test items in a Zambian language lesson

**‘Good Test Items’** means those test items which are described mainly as valid and reliable. What do you understand by the terms ‘valid’and ‘reliable’? It is important that you develop a skill in formulating good language items for your learners. This sub-section will help you do so.

**General guidelines for writing all types of items**.

These guidelines should be considered when writing all types of items:

1. Write items to measure what learners know, not what you know, or what they do not know.
2. Avoid humorous items. Classroom testing is very important and humorous items may cause learners to either not take the exam seriously or become confused or anxious.
3. Each item should be as short and verbally uncomplicated as possible. Give as much context as necessary to answer the question, but do not include superfluous information. Be careful not to test reading ability to be able to answer the test item.
4. Keep each item independent from other items. Don’t give the answer away to another item.
5. Try to test a different point in each question.
6. Avoid items based on personal opinions unless the opinion is qualified by evidence or a reference to the source of the opinion (e.g., According to the author of this passage…).

## 13.5.5[Characteristics of a Good Language Test](https://elttguide.com/top-5-characteristics-of-a-good-language-test/)

A good language test should have a positive effect on learning and teaching. Such a test should aim at specifying areas of difficulties experienced by the class or the individual learners so that additional practice and corrective exercises can be given.

A good language test should also measure learners’ performance without setting “traps” for them. It should be developed well to provide an opportunity for learners to show their ability to perform certain language tasks.

On the other side, the test should enable the teachers to find out which parts of the language program cause difficulty for the class. In this way, the teachers can evaluate the effectiveness of the syllabus as well as the methods and materials they are using.

Although language testing is a fundamental part of learning and teaching in school today, it is at any level a highly complex process because it must be based on theory as well as practice.

A written language test is a classic example of formal assessment where learners should be aware of being tested for a reason. There are some various characteristics that should be taken into account when constructing and using a language test. These qualities should be addressed with high consideration in order for a language test to have the positive effect.

This article sheds some light on the top five characteristics of a good language test. In order to describe it as *good*, a language test should be:

**A. Reliable:**

Reliability is consistency, dependence and trust. This means that the results of a reliable test should be dependable. They should be consistent (remain stable, should not be different when the test is used in different days).  A test that is called reliable yield similar results with similar group of learners took the same test under identical conditions.

Thus reliability has three aspects:  reliability of the test itself, reliability of the way in which it has been marked, and reliability of the way in which it has been administered.

The three aspects of reliability are named: equivalence, stability and internal consistency (homogeneity).

The first aspect, equivalence, refers to the amount of agreement between two or more tests that are administered at nearly the same point in time.

Equivalence is measured through administering two parallel forms of the same test to the same group. This administration of the parallel forms occurs at the same time or following some time delay.

The second aspect of reliability, stability, is said to occur when similar scores are obtained with repeated testing with the same group of respondents. In other words, the scores are consistent from one time to the next. Stability is assessed through administering the same test to the same individuals under the same conditions after some period of time.

The third and last aspect of reliability is internal consistency (or homogeneity). Internal consistency concerns the extent to which items on the test are measuring the same thing.

**Factors affecting test reliability**

1. The length of the test. Longer tests produce more reliable results than very brief quizzes. In general, the more items on a test, the more reliable it is considered to be.
2. The administration of the test which include the classroom setting (lighting, seating arrangements, acoustics, lack of intrusive noise etc.) and how the teacher manages the test administration.
3. Affective status of learners. Test anxiety can affect learners’ test results.

**B. Validity:**

The term validity refers to whether or not the test measures what it claims to measure. On a test with high validity the items will be closely linked to the test’s intended focus. Unless a test is valid it serves no useful function.

One of the most important types of validity for teachers is content validity which means that the test assesses the course content and the outcomes using formats familiar to the learners.

Content validity is the extent to which the selection of tasks in a test is representative of the larger set of tasks of which the test is assumed to be a sample. A test needs to be a representative sample of the teaching contents as defined and covered in the curriculum.

Like reliability there are also some factors which affect the validity of test scores.

**Factors that affect validity oftest scores:**

1. Unclear directions to learners to respond the test.
2. Difficulty of the reading vocabulary and sentence structure.
3. Too easy or too difficult test items.
4. Ambiguous statements in the test items.
5. Inappropriate test items for measuring a particular outcome.
6. Inadequate time provided to take the test.
7. Length of the test is too short.
8. Test items not arranged in order of difficulty.

**Factors in test administration and scoring:**

1. Unfair aid to individual learners, who ask for help,
2. Cheating by learners during testing.
3. Unreliable scoring of essay type answers.
4. Insufficient time to complete the test.
5. Adverse physical and psychological condition at the time of testing.

**Factors related to learners:**

1. Test anxiety of the learners.
2. Physical and Psychological state of the student,

**C. Practical:**

Practical test is the test that is developed and administered within the available time and with available resources. Based on this definition, practicality can be measured by the availability of the resources required to develop and conduct the test.

Practicality refers to the economy of time, effort and money in testing. Practical test should be easy to design, easy to administer, easy to mark and easy to interpret its results.

Traditionally, test practicality has referred to whether we have the resources to deliver the test that we design.

**A test is practical when it:**

1. is not too expensive,
2. stays with appropriate time constraints,
3. is relatively easy to administer, and
4. has a scoring/evaluation procedure that is specific and time efficient.

# ****D.**** Discrimination:

All assessment is based on comparison, either between one student and another, or between learners as they are now and as they were earlier. An important feature of a good test is its capacity to discriminate among the performance of different learners or the same student in different points in time. The extent of the need to discrimination varies according to the purpose of the test.

**E. Authenticity:**

Authenticity means that the language response that learners give in the test is appropriate to the language of communication.  The test items should be related to the usage of the target language.

Other definitions of authenticity are rather similar. The Dictionary of language testing, for instance, states that “a language test is said to be authentic when it mirrors as exactly as possible the content and skills under test”.  It defines authenticity as “the degree to which test materials and test conditions succeed in replicating those in the target situation”.

Authentic tests are an attempt to duplicate as closely as possible the circumstances of real-life situations. A growing commitment to a proficiency-based view of language learning and teaching makes authenticity in language assessment necessary.

# ****Activity13.1****

**1.Mention the factors that affect test reliability.**

**2. Explain the characteristics of a good test.**

**3. Mention the different types of test you can admit to your class.**

**4. Explain the guidelines that you should follow when writing all types of tests.**

# UNIT 14

# MONITORING

## 14.0 Introduction

This unit introduces you to different monitoring systems used in schools at different levels of teaching and learning by looking at the role of head teachers, standards officers and subject specialists.

## Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you are expected to;

* explain the importance of monitoring in schools.
* mention the different types of monitoring.
* explain the roles ofhead teachers, standards officers and subject specialists in the monitoring process.

## 14.1 Monitoring

Reflect on how monitoring has been done at your school. How effective has it been? Monitoring is seeing if you are doing what you said you would do and done in a systematic approach to overseeing planning, learning, and teaching.This is part of the evaluation that ensures that information is gathered so that judgments can be made and questions answered accordingly.Evaluating, on the other hand, is the measurement of success. This is done after there is a comparison between outcomes, aims, and objectives. This eventually leads to a summative assessment of current practices within the school, then informs on the future planning for both learning and teaching. School monitors and evaluation help in providing a consolidated source of information showing the progress of the school.

## 14.2 The importance of monitoring teaching and learning in schools

### 1. Accountability

Through monitoring and evaluation in schools, good leadership is put into practice and accountability which leads to school improvement. Effective monitoring and evaluation can best be achieved through record keeping and proper reporting systems, to help find out whether the school resources are being spent according to plan or not. This also helps in figuring out whether the teaching method in the school is delivering to the desired educational results.Any school management team will have better means to learning and improve from past experiences, improve planning, and better allocation of resources if they put the best monitoring and evaluation practices. Through this, the school can be accountable to the stakeholders.

### 2. Performance

Monitoring and [evaluation systems](http://leansystemssociety.org/how-to-design-effective-evaluation-systems-for-schools/) have enhanced the performance of both the teachers and the learners. Through the use of technology, the school management, and the teachers can access data that can be used to give guides on how to improve the performance of the learners. The teachers can do an assessment and the behavior of the student to identify the areas where the student is failing. It is by that; teachers can align their teaching skills accordingly to improve student performance.

### 3. Planning

How do teachers and monitors plan for the monitoring exercise? Who monitors the teaching and learning at your school?

## 14.3Types of Monitoring

All academic institutions have to demonstrate their commitment to providing effective teaching. It is important to engage in various kinds of monitoring as may befit the organization.

In this section we shall look at the basic principles underlying peer observation and its value to institutions and to individual teachers, and other types of observation such as those done by school authorities as well as district and provincial authorities.

### 14.3.1 Peer observation

Peer observation is the observation of teachers by teachers, usually, though not always, on a reciprocalbasis. Peer observation has an important part to play in this process.

Pairings may be mentor /novice or experienced teacher/experienced teacher. In the first case the focus will be more clearly on helping the novice to develop their teaching skills both by observing and being observed by an experienced colleague. In the second case, the objective is to provide opportunities for experienced teachers to reflect on their teaching in a calm and private environment.

**Quality control or professional development?**

**Quality control**

How is quality ascertained at your school in the subject you teach? Is there a quality assurance team in the school or within the department? Have you ever invited your fellow teacher to observe your teaching?

Peer observation may be used by an institution as part of its quality assurance procedures.In this model, teachers are asked to assess and report formally on the performance of their colleagues according to criteria set out by the institution. Observation reports form part of the ongoing evaluation of the teacher's performance and may influence decisions on promotion or tenure.

There are clear advantages to this type of peer observation. An experienced and competent teacher may be perceived by the institution as the best person to appraise his or her peers. Such a teacher is familiar with the subject, the materials and the methods and may be able to offer practical help to a fellow teacher, at the same time demonstrating good practice for the fellow teacher to observe and incorporate into his or her own teaching.

However, there are major problems with this model. What do you think these are? Well!A good teacher is not necessarily a good appraiser. Unless there are very clear guidelines for the observations, supported by appropriate training for all involved, observers may record subjective and unsubstantiated judgements on their peers. These judgements may unfairly influence the institution against the teacher. This can leadtodeteriorationinpeerrelationships.

Despite these drawbacks, some institutions use peer observation as part of their quality assurance procedures.

**Professional Development**

One other model favoured by some academic institutions focuses on the professional development of the observing and observed teachers, while at the same time ensuring that the institution remains uninvolved and uninformed about the outcome of the observation and the issues discussed.The institution provides a framework for the observation, takes care of the administrative arrangements and ensures that the observations take place as agreed.

The framework and objectives will vary according to whether the observations involve a begginer working with an experienced teacher, or whether two experienced teachers are paired.

### 14.3.1.1 Advantages of peer observation to teachers

Peer observation gives teachers an opportunity to learn from each other in a non-threatening environment. Where there is no judgmental outcome and an atmosphere of trust between the participants, it is to be hoped that teachers will share ideas and suggestions openly and constructively to their mutual professional benefit. This, therefore, should be done as a culture in the schools where you are.

### 14.3.1.2 Advantages of peer observation to institutions

Institutions need to ensure that their learners are being taught effectively and equally important, consistently. Peer observation is a powerful tool for disseminating good practice throughout an experienced staff. It is also an important way of helping less experienced teachers both to improve their teaching skills and to absorb the shared values of the institution.

### 14.3.2School authorities’ observations

**14.3.2.1 School Head Teacher/ Deputy Head Teacher**

The purpose of school authorities is to manage, administer and supervise all academic and some non-academic programmes of the school. The Head teacher supervisesheads of departments to ensure they plan and implement termly programmes and supervise and hold accountable the teachers in their departments for effective delivery of lessons and other programmes.

Here are some of the key responsibilities;

1. Supervise Heads of Departments to ensure they plan and implement termly programmes and supervise and hold accountable the teachers in their departments for effective delivery of lessons and other programmes.
2. Ensure that the HODs meet the expectations of their role and hold them accountable for their department’s performance.
3. Be responsible in collaboration with HODs for the allocation of subject teachers to various grades in cognizance with qualifications and experiences.
4. Ensure that credible charts and other teaching aids are prepared by all teachers at the beginning of every term.
5. And ensure that charts are properly labelled and placed in classrooms and that the charts conform to the schemes of work prepared for the term.
6. Ensure that teaching loads of teachers are balanced and advise the Head Teacher in cases of under or overstaffing in each department for appropriate action.
7. Ensure that teaching records, i.e. schemes of work, records of work, forecasts, class lists/ mark sheets etc. are neatly kept, entered and checked at scheduled times.
8. Set up a committee of HODs to prepare the timetable before the start of the academic year in accordance with approved curriculum and syllabus and authorise changes from time to time as appropriate or required.
9. Develop and maintain a Home Work Policy and ensure that all teachers implement it accordingly.
10. Observe the classroom teaching of every teacher at least once a term using the agreed format and submit such observation reports to the Head Teacher.
11. Prepare an appraisal report on each teacher at the end of the academic year and submit such report to the Head Teacher (Appraisals are not a confidential report).
12. Inspect class registers regularly and ensure that grade teachers maintain high standards.
13. Manage all aspects relating to ECZ examinations and other requirements related to the successful entry of and running of the examinations are met.
14. Lead, oversee and monitor the work of the exam committee including the development and execution of the examination timetable.
15. Ensure that scheduled and unscheduled tests and examinations are given, marked and entered in appropriate documents e.g. mark sheets report cards/ booklets.
16. Be overall ‘Director of Programmes’ equipping and ensuring that all activities in the school, including sports, clubs, visits, recreations, excursions, field trips etc. are effectively planned, executed and supervised, appointing Patrons/ Matrons for all clubs and activities
17. Produce records and rotas for all programmes and activities undertaken at the school and ensure copies are posted on notice boards in the staff room and Head Teachers’ Office.

### 14.3.2.2Head of Departments (HOD)

Head of Department (Subject / Group of Subjects)

Heads of Department are expected to work together with the school administration in offering leadershipso as to ensure high standards of teaching and learning practices and processes whilebeing guided by education officers.The duties and responsibilities of a Head of Department (Subject/Group of Subjects) shallinclude the following:

1. Performing the duties of teacher and HeadDepartment for a particular subject or group of subjects.
2. Actively assisting the Head of School in ensuring the good professionalpractice, standards, and quality of teaching and learning of the subject/s throughproper dialogue with the class teachers and, under the direction of the respective standards officer.The Standards Officer promotes a healthy process of reciprocal informalobservation of class teaching practices.
3. Advising and contributing to curriculum development at school and systemlevel under the direction and guidance of the respective Standards Officer;
4. Coordinating the teaching and learning of the subject/s for which one isresponsible.
5. Setting examination papers, coordinating marking schemes and moderatingexaminations and assessment processes at one’s school as well as in otherschools.
6. Ensuring timely and adequate provision of textbooks, materials, and equipment required for the effective teaching of the subject across schools.
7. Ensuring that the maintenance and upkeep of equipment related to the subjectat school is regularly carried out.
8. Preparing specifications and budgets for the requirements of the subject-specific teaching tools and equipment.
9. Mentoring other teachers in the subject/level of their specialty.
10. Holding and leading regular departmental meetings and ensuring the keepingof minutes for future reference.
11. Initiate collaborative research at departmental level in the quest to improve the teaching of the respective subject(s) in the department.
12. Encouraging participation in departmental projects and other projects in accordancewith the targets agreed with the senior management team.

### 14.3.3District authorities (Standards officers)

Standards officers are responsible for ensuring that education in schools is of high quality. This includes special education schools that are for learners with exceptional needs. The department of standards uses an inspection tool for collecting data about schools, teachers and learners in order to ensure that schools adhere to laid down conditions.

### 14.3.4Provincial monitors (Subject specialists)

Subject teachers will demonstrate that they:

(a) Plan their teaching to achieve progression in learners’ learning through

(b) Identifying clear teaching objectives and content, appropriate to the subject matter and the student being taught, and specifying how thesewill be taught and assessed

(c) Setting tasks for whole class, individual and group work, including homework, which challenges learners and ensures high levels of interest

(d) Setting appropriate and demanding expectations for learners’ learning, motivation and presentation of work

(e) Setting clear targets for learners’ learning, building on prior attainment, and ensuring that learners are aware of the substance and purpose of what they are asked to do

(f) Identifyinglearners who:

1. have special educational needs or disabilities, including specific learning difficulties
2. are very able
3. are not yet fluent in English provide clear structures for lessons, and for sequences of lessons, in the short, medium and longer term, which maintain pace, motivation and challenge forlearners;
4. make effective use of assessment information on learners’ attainment and progress in their teaching and in planning future lessons and sequences of lessons;
5. plan opportunities to contribute to learners’ personal, spiritual, moral, social andcultural development;
6. where applicable, ensure coverage of the relevant examination syllabuses andNational Curriculum programmes of study;
7. ensure effective teaching of whole classes and of groups and individuals within the whole class setting, so that teaching objectives are met, and best use is made of available teaching time;
8. in line with school and departmental policy, set high expectations for learnersbehaviour through well focused teaching and productive relationships;
9. use a variety of teaching methods which sustain the momentum of pupils’ work and keep all learners engaged select and make good use of textbooks, ICT and other learning resources which enable teaching objectives to be met; are familiar with the Code of Practice on the identification and assessment of special educational needs, and implement the school departmental policy.

## 14.4 Monitoring, Assessment, Recording, Reporting and Accountability

Subject teachers provide a contribution to oral and written assessments, reports and references relating to individual learners and groups. Specifically, they will demonstrate that theyassess how well learning objectives have been achieved and use this assessment to improve specific aspects of learning; understand and know how to implement the assessment requirements; recognize the level at which a student is achieving, and assess learners’ against national, school and department criteria and policies; are familiar with the school’s assessment and reporting requirements and know how to prepare and present informative reports to parents.

## Activity 14.1

1. What is motivation?

2. Mention the different types of monitoring.

3. Explain the importance of monitoring in schools?

4. Explain the duties of both the Head teacher and Deputy Head teacher in the school.

**Summary**

You should have realized that monitoring is a professional activity which should not raise the anxiety of the people being observed. The monitor should be as friendly as possible so that both the teacher and the learners progress with the learning process in their usual way. The purpose of the monitoring exercise is to check, appraise and advise where necessary. Be open to peer observations and be ready for school, district and provincial monitors.

## REFERENCES

Atchison, J. (1990) *Language and Mind Psychology*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Awoniyi, T.A. (1982). *The Teaching of African Languages*. London: Hodder and Stoughton

Black, P., & William, D. (1998). *Assessment and Classroom Learning. Assessment in Educational Principles, Policy, 5 (1), 7 – 14.*

Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Carol, J. B. (1965). *The Contribution of Pyschological Theological and Educational Researchto the teaching of Foreign Languages. The modern Language Journal, 49 (5), 273 – 281.Kelly, J. M. (1995). Language Policy in Zambia. Paper Presented at the Zambia National Reading Forum*. Zambia, Lusaka.

Chane, J.P. (1998). *Teaching Methods*. U.S.A: McGraw – Hill Inc.

Coder, S.P. (1983)*. Error AnalysisandInterlanguage*. Oxford: OxfordUniversity press.

Crystal, D. (1989) *TheEncyclopaedia of Language*. New York: CUP.

Ellis, E. and R .Tomlison. (1980). *Teaching Secondary English*. Harlow: Longman

Finnegan, R. (2012) *Oral Literature in Africa*. Cambridge: Open Book Publishers.

Greenbaum, S. (1991) *An Introduction to English grammar*. Harlow: Longman

Grenfell, M., & Harris, V. (1999). *Modern Languages and Learning Strategies: In Theory and Practice*. London: Routeledge.

Halliday, M.K.A (1975) *The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching*. London: Longman.

Heaton, J.B.(1975) *Writing English Language Tests*. London: Longman.

Hefferman, J.A. etal. (1982) *Writing: A College Handbook*. New York: Norton & Coy.

Hicks, R &Woods.P.(1984) *English for Teachers*. Harlow: Longman.

<http://www.njas.helsinki.fi/pdf-files/vol15num4/bosh7.pdf>

<https://www.google.co.zm/search?source=hp&ei>

Hubbard, P. Etal. (1983) *A Training Course for TEFL*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Kashoki, M. E. (1990) *The Factor of Language in Zambia*. Lusaka: KKF.

Kashoki, M. E. (1998). *The Adult Literacy Programme. In: Sirapi Ohannesian and Mubanga E. kashoki (eds). Language in Zambia.* London: International African Institute.

Kelly, M.J.(1998). *Education in an Economy Undergoing Structural Adjustment. The case of Zambia. Paper submitted to the 10TH World Congress of the world Council of comparative Education Societies,* Capetown, 12 – 17 July 1998.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000)*Techniques and Principles of Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Long, H.M. & Richards, J.C. (1987). *Methodology in TESSOL, A Book of readings*. NewYork, NY: Newsburg House.

Maley, A.(1984). *Can Traditional and Communicative Approaches be Reconciled.* Houston: TX. TESSOL.

MOE. (1977) *Zambian Languages Orthography*. Lusaka: ZEPH.

Munby, H. (1984). *Analysing Teaching for intellectual Independence. In Munby, G. Orpwood, and T. Russell (eds), Seeing Curriculum in a new Light: Essays in Science education (pp.11 – 33).* Lanham, M.D: America, University Press.

Nuan, D. (1988) *The Learner-Centered Curriculum: A Study in Second Language Teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ogunniyi, M.B. (1984) *Educational Management and Evaluation*. Hong Kong: Longman.

Nkosha, D.C. & Simfukwe, M.G.(2006). *The Training of Primary School Teachers of Indigenous African Languagesin Southern AfricaWith Special reference to Zambia.Paper Presented at the Conferenceon Training of Primary School Teachersof Indigenous African Languagesin Southern Africaheld in Mangoshi, Malawi from 13TH - 17TH August 2006.*

*Nkamba, M., & Kanyika, J. (1998). The Quality of Primary education ; Some policy Suggestions based on the survey of Schools, Zambia*. ‘SACMECQ’ Policy Research; report, no, 5; UNESCO INTERNATIONAL Institute for educational planning.

Ohannesian and Kashoki, M. E. (1978) *Language in Zambia*. Routledge.

Pinker, S., & Ullman, M.T. (2003). *‘Beyond One Model P er Phenomenon’. Trends in Cognitive Sciences.* vol. 6 no. 11, pp .45 – 463.

Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T.S. (1986).*Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*.

Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T.S. (2001). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*.

Skehan, Peter (1998) *A Cognitive Approach to Language Learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Stern, H. H. (1983). *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University.

Vygotsky, L.S. (1992). *Thought and Language, ed, and Trans.* E. Hanfmann and G. Vakar: Cambridge, M.A: M.I. T. Press.

Widdowlson, L., & Henry, G. (1980). *Explorations in Applied Linguistics.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.