

**CHALIMBANA UNIVERSITY**

**DIRECTORATE OF DISTANCE EDUCATION**

**LBL 4203: ADVANCED METHODS IN BANTU LANGUAGES**

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**Background**

This course deals with the teaching of major components of language in any of the seven approved regional Zambian languages used in zones. There are various procedures that can be employed in the teaching of these language aspects but the course provides guidelines that would help innovative teachers to assess the effectiveness and efficiency of the methods and procedures that would work well for their learners. Students whose mother tongue is not a Zambian language can familiarise themselves with any of the Zambian languages for teaching practice purposes.

**Rationale**

This course will help you learn how to teach grammar, comprehension, summary, translation and composition. It will also equip them with the knowledge of the orthography of Zambian languages which will be the basis for acceptable spelling in writing.

**Aim**

To equip students with the knowledge and skills required to teach the major components of language in line with the curriculum.

**Learning Outcomes**

At the end of this course, students will be expected to:

* Trace the development of the teaching of Zambian languages
* Discuss orthographic reforms for Zambian languages
* Discuss the theories and models of learning language
* Analyze the importance of mother tongue grammar in language teaching
* Explain the procedures for teaching major components of language.
* Explain the departmental organization

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## UNIT ONE

## THE DEVELOPMENT OF ZAMBIAN LANGUAGES EDUCATION

* History of the development of the teaching and learning of Zambian languages

## Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, students should be able to:

* Explain the British language policy towards Zambian 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 characterized the Zambian language Orthography.

## 1.0 Introduction

This unit is a recap of what you learnt in LBL2303 and it introduces you to language policy by the British towards African languages, why English was a preferred language of instruction at independence in 1964, the language policies of pre-colonial, colonial, and post-colonial periods and lastly, major changes that characterized the Zambian languages Orthography.

The language situation and the standards of language in any country is an important phenomenon worthy to study by all language scholars. In order to understand the situation and status of the Zambian languages, it suffices to begin from the language policy of the pre- independence era.

## 1.1 Language policy before the arrival of the missionaries

Before the arrival of Christian missionaries and subsequently the colonial masters, languages in Zambia were not written. All the norms, traditions, customs and culture were stored and transmitted to the later generations orally. This was until the arrival of the Christian missionaries who introduced literacy and numeracy. Their sole purpose was to spread the word of god, and they wanted Africans who could help the to interpret the bible and teach others.

## 1.2 The British colonial language policy:

* Can be 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 subject.
* A lot of research was done as 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 and the Africans on their own.

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?

## 1.3 reasons for adopting English as a medium of instruction

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

## 1.4 Pre-and Post Independence Policies in Zambia and other selected African Countries.

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 African and European was one of master and servant. This had also implications in the way European languages were viewed viz-a-viz African ones. The European considered himself 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 unfavourable 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.

## 1.4.1 French and Portuguese Territories

In these territories African languages were discouraged. Only Portuguese and French could be used in Education. For example, in 1959the 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 Angla, Mozambique, and Portuguese Guineafor one to have advantage of an assillado, 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.

## 1.4.2The 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 deliberate ploy 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 latter 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.

## 1.4.3 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 report of the study 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: namely 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(Ibd: 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, Citonga, 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 clamor for English especially by the settler community became more insistent, and as a result, UNESCO was requested to study the educational system and to make recommendations. In the report that came out of this study by a team of Australian Educationists headed by Dr. W.C. Radford, 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.

**1.5 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. 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, Citonga, 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 kashoki(1998 in Nkhosha, 2006: 1), between20-25 mutually unintelligible languages. 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 to pass in 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 poor literacy skills 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 level and 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:

* Raising the awareness of the reading problem
* Seeking solutions as a matter of agency
* 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 new education policy of the country, *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.

## 

## UNIT TWO

## Orthographic reforms

## 1.0 Introduction

Orthography has undergone numeracy changes as experts keep on researching in order to come up with best ways of putting the spoken language into writing. This unit therefore, introduces you to the changes that took place in term of writing system.

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.

## 2.1 Writing system, Orthography and script.

i) Writing system refers to the ways in which man has strived present language in visual ways through signs + symbols on paper, wood, stones etc. The signs + symbols aim at representing the sounds in language e.g. velar nasal n, ng

a) Long ago ­pictography was used.

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.

b) Logography: Use of signs + 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.

Two millennia ago the Sumerians + Egyptians discovered phonographic principles (the idea that a symbol can be made to represent a particular word but also other words with same sounds.

c) Phonographic means writing of sounds. The Chinese system is partly phonographic and partly logographic. Symbols or Chinese characters represents words + 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 \_ takes time. Purely logographic system is impossible.

d) 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.

e) 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 Z\language 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 + 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\to the correct or standard spelling. English + 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. eg in 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 + sounds. English orthography is opaque because it has 26 letters representing 42 phonemes. Therefore easy to teach Zambian language reading + writing.

Orthography can be based in accepted usage/ can be prescribed by an official body. It is a matter of convention. In Zambia MOE has prescribed how the Z of should be written.

## 2.2 Qualities of a Good Orthography

* 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.
* Should be easy to read by both native+ non – native speakers who learn the language.
* Should make it possible to write + read at a fast speed.
* Must be economical in time + space.

African 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)

## UNIT THREE

## History of the Development of Zambian language Orthography.

## 3.0 Introduction

Christian missionaries have unprecedentedly contributed to the development of Zambian languages. They facilitated the writing and reading of Zambian languages. This unit therefore, deals with the history and development of Zambian languages under the three phases.

Three (3) phases:

1.) Christian missionaries played an important role. They came from different denominations. Developed the Orthography of Zambian language. Primary purpose was to promote the word of God. So reduced the local languages to written form. Began with grammar books, word lists + dictionaries. Missionaries where trained in anthropology, sociology + 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 where written difficultly 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 (1948) 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 + Africans to spread their propaganda Bemba + 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 centre 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 in G.1 as ZNBTL and vehicle for teaching literacy (initial literacy) this applies to government schools only.

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

Macquina \_ Portuguese

* Disjunctive and conjunctive writing system.

## 3.1 Choice of an orthography

* Clarity, exactness (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 semantically work as a word.

The Bantu linguistic, Doke observed that they were naturally conjunctive, they keep to bound forms.

* They are helping him

Balamugwasya .....cannot be – Ba la mu gwasya.

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

* Facilitates reading and writing.
* It governs all the grammatical treatment of the language.
* It’s the right method.

These who wrote African languages disjunctively (separating the grammatical morphemes) were forcing Bantu languages into other grammars, e.g English 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.

## 3.2 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 used for various languages with different spelling systems. Organization (CASAs) to spearhead harmonization. Standardization of Zambian languages was spearheaded by the MOE which formed the seven (7) committees of each of the languages.

## 3.3 Reasons for standardizing Languages

* To develop an orthography that would enhance the fulfillment of a particular language function in society.
* To correct the inconsistencies in the spelling system in local languages.
* 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’

Kuboola ;to 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 (7) 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 Tonga \Bemba, and (Nyanja).

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

* Nominal forms; all stems and prefixes to be considered as constituting one word.
* Adverbs; interjection and exclamations were to be considered as separately.

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

* 1. **TEACHER TRAINING AND MATERIAL PRODUCTION IN ZAMBIAN LANGUAGES**

This section explains the attitudes of people towards Zambian languages. It further deals with the production of materials in Zambian languages. The focus is to ascertain whether people have intrest in the production of Zambian language materials.

**Teacher training and material production**

The attitude of Kabwe trainees towards Zambian languages being included in the curriculum at the level for which they themselves were being trained to teach. They were therefore asked directly whether Zambian languages should be taught in secondary schools. It may be of interest to give the mother tongues of students in relation to their attitudes towards whether Zambian languages should be taught in secondary schools. The subject of specialization and the language background of students could be expected to have some relevance to willingness to teach Zambian languages. No courses were offered at Kabwe either in Zambian languages or in their teaching. English was taken by more first year and second year students than any other subject. The English syllabus at the College had parts devoted to the language itself, to literature, to the teaching of English, and made provision for some research projects.

Most of the teachers of Zambian languages have not developed interest in the production of Zambian languages materials. This has resulted into the wide shortages of books in Zambian languages. This has been a challenge in the country for many years. However, this challenge has been eradicated by the production of books by a Zambian company called MK.

* 1. **PROBLEMS ASSOCIATED WITH TEACHING SPECIFIC ZAMBIAN LANGUAGES**

There are a number of problems faced in the teaching of Zambian languages. Lack of teaching and learning materials has been a challenge for many years. Very few people have interest in the production of materials. Many people also have negative attitudes towards Zambian languages. Others hold those who are studying or who have studied Zambian languages in low esteem. This discourages teacher from doing Zambian languages, and this has caused shortages of teachers of Zambian languages in schools

The other problem is that there always some discrepancies between spoken and written language in some languages. Influence of dialects spoken by many learners; interfere with the actual local languages being taught in specific areas.

## UNIT FOUR

## LANGUAGE AND DIALECT

## 4.0 Introduction

What’s the difference between a language and a dialect? Is there some kind of technical distinction, the way there is between a quasar and a pulsar, or between a rabbit and a hare? Faced with the question, linguists like to repeat the grand old observation of the linguist that “a language is a dialect with an army and a navy.” Well, this unit tries to answer these questions, with more illustrations on dialects.

## 4.1 Language and dialect

The difference between language and dialect is deeper than a snappy aphorism suggests. The very fact that “language” and “dialect” persist as separate concepts implies that linguists can make tidy distinctions for speech varieties worldwide. But in fact, there is no objective difference between the two: Any attempt you make to impose that kind of order on reality falls apart in the face of real evidence.

And yet it’s hard not to try. An English-speaker might be tempted to think, for example, that a language is basically a collection of dialects, where speakers of different dialects within the same language can all understand each other, more or less. Cockney, South African, New Yorkese, Black, Yorkshire all of these are mutually intelligible variations on a theme. Surely, then, these are “dialects” of some one thing that can be called a “language”? English as a whole, meanwhile, looks like a “language” that stands by itself; there’s a clear boundary between it and its closest relative, Frisian, spoken in Northern Europe, which is unintelligible to an English-speaker.

As such, English tempts one with a tidy dialect-language distinction based on “intelligibility”: If you can understand it without training, it’s a dialect of your own language; if you can’t, it’s a different language.But because of quirks of its history, English happens to lack very close relatives, and the intelligibility standard doesn’t apply consistently beyond it. Worldwide, some mutually understandable ways of speaking, which one might think of as “dialects” of one language, are actually treated as separate languages. At the same time, some mutually incomprehensible tongues an outsider might view as separate “languages” are thought of locally as dialects.

Speakers of Swedish, Danish, and Norwegian conversing with each other, each in their own native tongues, as a cozy little trio over drinks. A Dane who moves to Sweden does not take Swedish lessons; she adjusts to a variation upon, and not an alternate to, her native speech. The speakers of these varieties of Scandinavian consider them distinct languages because they are spoken in distinct nations, and so be it. However, there is nothing about Swedish, Danish, and Norwegian in themselves that classifies them as “languages;” especially on the page, they resemble each other closely enough to look more like dialects of one “language.”

Meanwhile, one generally hears Mandarin, Cantonese, and Taiwanese described as “dialects” of something called Chinese. But the only single “Chinese” language that exists is on paper, in that all of its varieties have the same writing system, where each word has its own symbol that (more or less) stays the same from one Chinese “dialect” to another. Mandarin and Cantonese, for example, are more different than Spanish and Italian. “I,” “you,” and “he” in Mandarin are *wǒ*, *nǐ,* and *tā*, but in Cantonese they are, respectively, *ngóh*, *léih*, and *kéuih*. Dialects? A Mandarin-speaker can no more “adjust” to Cantonese than a Swede could “adjust” to German.

There are cases of the Scandinavian and the Chinese kind worldwide. A Moroccan’s colloquial “Arabic” is as different from the colloquial “Arabic” of Jordan as Czech is from Polish. In order to understand each other, a Moroccan and a Jordanian would have to communicate in Modern Standard Arabic, a version preserved roughly as it was when the Koran was written. The cultural unity of Arab nations makes the Moroccan and the Jordanian consider themselves to be speaking “kinds of Arabic,” whereas speakers of Czech and Polish think of themselves as speaking different languages. But then, while I’m on Czech, there is no such language as “Czechoslovakian”—at least in name. A Czech and a Slovak can usually converse. However, they consider themselves to speak different “languages” because of historical and cultural factors.

It turns out that it’s also impossible to determine precisely where one “language” leaves off and another begins.

An example is certain languages um, dialects? in Ethiopia. According to data from Sharon Rose of the University of California, San Diego, speakers of Soddo say, for “he thatched a roof,” *kəddənəm*. (The upside-down *e* is pronounced a lot like the *oo* in foot.) Not far away, people speaking Muher say it starting with *kh* instead of *k*: *khəddənəm*. A further ways distant, people who speak what they call Ezha say it with an *r* in the place of the *n*: *khəddərəm*. In Gyeto, the same word is *khətərə*. Then in Endegen they start with an *h* instead of a *kh*: *həttərə*. Now, where we started and where we finished look like what one might call different languages: Soddo’s *kəddənəm* and Endegen’s *həttərə* seem about as distinct as French’s *dimanche* and Italian’s *domenica* for Sunday. But in between Soddo and Endegen are several other stages—I only gave a few of them—that each differ from the previous one by just a little change, such that the speakers can converse. If those stages are “dialects,” what are they “dialects” of? Both Soddo and Endegen over on the ends?

All of them are simply dialects—even though the ones on the ends are not mutually intelligible and don’t feel like the same “language” to their speakers. Speech worked this way from village to village across Western Europe until recently, when unwritten, rural dialects started steadily disappearing. People now know this area as home to a few “languages” like Portuguese, Spanish, French, and Italian, but on the ground there once was basically a smudge of countless Romance “dialects” shading gradually into one another from Portugal to Italy. In each nation, the serendipities of history chose one “dialect” as a standard and enshrined it on the page, but in real life, the situation was much like in Ethiopia. There are hints of this history today; in Catalan in Spain, “key” is *clau*; to the north, in Occitan, it’s *clau* as well; but then a little further north, in obscure rural varieties called Franco-Provençal, it’s *clâ*; in the Romansh of the Swiss mountains it’s *clav*; in the northern Italian variety Piedmontese it’s *ciav* (pronounced “chahv,”); and then in what’s known as standard Italian it’s *chiave* (pronounced “KYAH-vay”).

The idea of distinguishing “languages” from “dialects” is of no logical use here. As often as not, it’s more that speech is a little different from place to place, such that a person can get along speaking when in the town a few valleys over; one starts having trouble the further away he gets; and after a traveling a certain distance can no longer understand a thing anyone is saying.

The only thing that can save an attempt to impose a formal definition on the terms “language” and “dialect” now is perhaps to be found in popular usage, which suggests that languages are written and standardized and have a literature, while dialects are oral, without codified rules, and have no literature. Now, a typical objection to using literature as the dividing line is that there is oral literature the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey* likely originated as memorized poems. But even allowing that memories can only retain so much, and that perhaps it is legitimate to distinguish what Greek bards knew from, say, Russian’s written literature, there’s another problem.

Namely, it’s the implication that there is something lesser about a “dialect.” Is a dialect, on some level, unsophisticated, as if it doesn’t have a literature because it is unsuited to extended thought and abstraction? I recall an exquisite exchange I once caught between a man Nathan Lane could easily play, wearing an ascot and a long scarf and rather plummy of expression, and a man Sacha Baron Cohen would be cast as, straight-backed, earnest, and a little wary. Nathan asked Sacha what he spoke. Sacha said “Uzbek.” Nathan asked breezily, “Is that a dialect?” Sacha, almost snapping, replied, “No, it is a beautiful language.”

Despite Sacha’s defensiveness, it’s not the case that what one is taught to think of as “dialects” are somehow more lowly or simple. As often as not, obscure, unwritten “dialects” are much more grammatically complicated than familiar “languages.” The Foreign Service Institute ranks what it calls languages in terms of their difficulty for English-speakers; the hardest to learn to speak include Finnish, Georgian, Hungarian, Mongolian, Thai, and Vietnamese. However, just about any Native American, Australian Aboriginal, or indigenous African tongue would easily rank among these in terms of difficulty, and actually, many obscure tongues around the world make any language on the FSI list look like a toy. For example, in Archi, spoken in the Caucasus mountains, a verb can occur in 1,502,839 different forms that’s over a thousand times more forms than the number of people who even speak it (about 1,200).

A language, then, is indeed a dialect with an army and a navy; or, more to the point, a language is a dialect that got put up in the shop window. Yes, people can sit down in a room and decide upon a standardized version of a dialect so that large numbers of people can communicate with maximal efficiency no more *clau*, *clav*, and *ciav*. But standardization doesn’t make something “better” donning a Catholic school uniform isn’t “better” than wearing different clothes to school every day.

The written dialect will have its words collected in dictionaries. The Oxford English Dictionary does have more words than Archi and Endegen do; the existence of print has allowed English-speakers to curate many of their words instead of letting them come and go with time. But words are only part of what makes human speech: You have to know how to put them together, and knowing how to handle Archi’s words (or Endegen’s) requires its own level of sophistication.

So, what’s the difference between a language and a dialect? In popular usage, a language is written in addition to being spoken, while a dialect is just spoken. But in the scientific sense, the world is buzzing with a cacophony of qualitatively equal “dialects,” often shading into one another like colors (and often mixing, too), all demonstrating how magnificently complicated human speech can be. If either the terms “language” or “dialect” have any objective use, the best anyone can do is to say that there is no such thing as a “language”: Dialects are all there is. “Is it a dialect?” asks Nathan. Properly, Sacha could have answered, “Yes, a beautiful one.” And Nathan should have understood that he was speaking a “dialect” too.

* 1. **Dialect, idiolect and sociolect**
* People do not speak a language, say Chinyanja in exactly the same way. The way they speak may depend, for instance, on where they learnt the language or on their personal background. Each language 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 Zambian languages variations that characterize the language 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.

## UNIT FIVE

## THEORIES AND MODELS OF LANGUAGE IN EDUCATION POLICY

## Theories & Models of Language Acquisition ;

## 5.0 Introduction

Many scholars have tried to explain how language is acquired or learnt. This has led to the development of a number of theories and models to try and explain the processes of language learning and acquisition. It is the focus of the unit to present these theories and models of language with interest on language teaching and learning in schools.

Language learning is a complex process which has led many Language Behavior: Psycholinguistics investigates the mental mechanisms underlying language processing. How to perceive words and store them in the mind, how to understand a sentence, how to learn to read, how language and writing systems influence mental organizations. LANGUAGE COMPREHENSION (how we perceive and understand speech and written language) LANGUAGE PRODUCTION (how we construct an utterance from idea to completed sentence) LANGUAGE ACQUISITION (how human beings learn language). It is the process by which humans acquire the capacity to perceive, produce and use words to understand and communicate. Language development is a complex and unique human quality but yet children seem to acquire language at a very rapid rate with most children's speech being relatively grammatical by age three (Crain & Lillo-Martin, 1999) Grammar, Language Acquisition . Children acquire language in stages and the STAGES usually consist of: Cooing- 6 months- use phonemes from every language, Babbling- 9 months- selectively use phonemes from their native language. One Word Utterances- 12 months- start using single words. Telegraphic Speech- 2 years- multi-word utterances that lack in function Normal Speech- 5 years- almost normal developed speech Language acquisition is a complex and unique human quality for which there is still no theory that is able to completely explain how language is attained.

Historical Theories & Models of Language Acquisition. B.F Skinner (1957) applied a functional analysis approach to analyze language behaviour in terms of their natural occurrence in response to environmental circumstances and the effects they have on human. Skinner believed that language could be treated like any other kind of cognitive behaviour. According to the behaviourist theory, language learning is a process of habit formation that involves a period of trial and error where the child tries and fails to use correct language until it succeeds Behaviourist Theory

Noam Chomsky's is an innateness or nativist theory proposes that children have an inborn or innate faculty for language acquisition that is biologically determined. Chomsky believed that all human languages share common principles, such as all languages have verbs and nouns, and it was the child's task to establish how the specific language she or he hears expresses these underlying principles Innateness Theory

Jean Piaget was a Swiss psychologist that was famous for his four stages of cognitive development for children, which included the development of language. Children do not think like adults and so before they can begin to develop language they must first actively construct their own understanding of the world through their interactions with their environment. Piaget's cognitive theory states that, children's language reflects the development of their logical thinking and reasoning skills in stages. Cognitive Theory There are FOUR stages of Piaget's cognitive development theory: Sensory-Motor Period- (birth to 2 years) Children are born with "action schemas" to "assimilate" information about the world such as sucking or grasping. During the sensory- motor period, children's language is "egocentric" and they talk either for themselves or for the pleasure of associating anyone who happens to be there with the activity of the moment Pre-Operational Period- (2 years to 7) Children's language makes rapid progress and the development of their "mental schema" lets them quickly "accommodate" new words and situations. Children's language becomes "symbolic" allowing them to talk beyond the "here and now" and to talk about things such as the past, future and feelings. Egocentrism- Involves "animism" which refers to young children's tendency to consider everything, including inanimate objects, as being alive. Language is considered egocentric because they see things from their own perspective. Operational Period- (7 to 11 years) and (11 years to adulthood) Piaget divides this period into two parts: the period of concrete operations and the period of formal operations. at this point the children's language becomes "socialized" and includes things such as questions, answers, commands and criticisms.

# 5.1MODELS OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

1. The Competition Model: The competition model is a psycholinguistic model which was first introduced to account for language processing, yet over time, the model was generalized to deal with the areas of first and second language acquisition. As a functionalist model, the ‘competition model’ suggests that language forms are at the service of communicative functions. It also draws on connectionism, and thus emphasizes the importance of frequency and the information value of linguistic input. Furthermore, it is based on the hypothesis that human beings do not need to have any innate brain module for language learning. However, it does not reject the innate and psychological mechanisms underlying language acquisition. The Competition Model has been developed into a unified theory of first and second language acquisition (Kroll and DeGroot,2005) and the domain of it has expanded to find explanations for a number of psycholinguistic processes involved in language acquisition, including arenas, cues , storage, chunking, codes and resonance. The Competition Model accounts for first language acquisition as well as the learning of second languages. The studies implemented within the framework of the Competition Model, have found empirical support for the predictions of a connectionist perspective, underscoring the role of transfer and interference in second language learning. The Competition Model refers to “a model of the way in which syntactic processing is influenced by the nature of the language in question”(Field,2004:68).The hypothesis is that speakers of different languages depend on different syntactic cues to form meaning . MacWhinney And Bates (1981) and Field(2004) described the competition model as an explanation for language acquisition that takes into account not only language form but also language meaning and language use. It also accounts for both first and second language acquisition. The Competition Model:
2. Vygotsky's social interaction theory incorporates nurture arguments in that children can be influenced by their environment as well as the language input children receive from their care-givers. The interaction theory proposes that language exists for the purpose of communication and can only be learned in the context of interaction with adults and older children. It stresses the importance of the environment and culture in which the language is being learned during early childhood development because this social interaction is what first provides the child with the means of making sense of their own behavior and how they think about the surrounding world. Social Interactionist Theory:

According to Williamson (2008), children can eventually use their own internal speech to direct their own behavior in much the same way that their parents' speech once directed their behavior. This tailored articulation used by care-givers to young children to maximize phonemic contrasts and pronunciation of correct forms is known as child-directed speech (CDS). Vygotsky also developed the concepts of private speech which is when children must speak to themselves in a self guiding and directing way- initially out loud and later internally and the zone of proximal development which refers to the tasks a child is unable to complete alone but is able to complete with the assistance of an adult. Social Interactionist Theory:

1. Modern Theories and Models of Language Acquisition Usage-Based Theory. The usage-based theory of language suggests that children initially build up their language through very concrete constructions based around individual words or frames on the basis of the speech they hear and use. According to Tomasello (2003) the developer of the theory, that children learn language from their language experiences and a language structure emerges from language use. The usage-based theory takes constructions, which are direct form meaning pairings, to be the basic units of granular and believe that children learn constructions by first mastering specific instances before going on to generalize and use the constructions productively with other lexical items Tomasello (2003) also emphasizes the effects of frequency of use on cognitive representations, as patterns that are repeated for communicative reasons seem to become automated and conventionalized.

Young children learn their mother tongue rapidly and effortlessly, following similar developmental paths regardless of culture. How infants accomplish this task

1. The Native Language Magnet Model; it explains how infants at birth can hear all the phonetic distinctions used in the world's languages. According to Kuhl and colleagues (2005), to acquire a language, infants have to discover which phonetic distinctions will be utilized in the language of their culture and do so by discriminating among virtually all the phonetic units of the world's languages. During the first year of life, prior to the acquisition of word meaning, infants begin to perceive speech by forming perceptual maps of the speech they hear in their environment. Kuhl's (2005) research focused on the mechanism underlying the development transition from an infants' universal phonetic capacity to native phonetic discrimination. Native Language Magnet (NLM) Model.

NLM specified THREE phases in development Phase 1- infants are capable of differentiating all the sounds of human speech and abilities are derived from their general auditory processing mechanisms rather than from a speech-specific mechanism Phase 2- infants' sensitivity to the distributional properties of linguistic input produces phonetic representations. Experience accumulates and the representations most often activated begin to function as perceptual magnets for other members of the category Phase 3- The perception termed perceptual magnet effect produces facilitation in native and a reduction in foreign language phonetic abilities Recently Kuhl's research has initiated the revision of the NLM and expanded the model to include native language neural commitment, which explains effects of language experience on the brain. NLM Model

1. Garrett’s model also proposes serial processing of speech production, from semantic to phonological Garrett proposes THREE levels of representation: \*the Message Level, where the intended message is generated, \*the Sentence Level, where the sentence is formed, and \* the Articulatory Level, where motor commands instruct speech organs to produce the appropriate audible output. This model consists of FOUR levels of processing 1) Message Level, where the main idea to be conveyed is generated (Fig. 2) The Functional Level is subdivided into two stages. The first, the Lexical Selection stage, is where the conceptual representation is turned into a lexical representation, as words are selected to express the intended meaning of the desired message. The lexical representation is often termed the Lemma, which refers to the syntactical, but not phonological, properties of the word 3) The Function Assignment stage is where the syntactical role of each word is assigned. At the third level of the model, the Positional level, the order and inflection of each morphological slot is determined. 4) Finally, in the Phonological encoding level, sound units and intonation contours are assembled to form lexemes, the embodiment of a word's morphological and phonological properties.
2. The Bock and Levelt Model ; In this non-modular model, information can flow in any direction and thus the conceptualization level can receive feedback from the sentence and the articulatory level and vice versa. In these models, input to any level can therefore be convergent information from several different levels and in this way the levels of these models are considered to have interacting activity. Within a phrase, words that are retrieved initially constrain subsequent lexical selection of speech production. Parallel-Processing Models
3. Dell’s model referred to as the Connectionist Model of speech production. Dell’s model claims, unlike the serial models of speech production, that speech is produced by a number of connected nodes representing distinct units of speech (i.e. phonemes, morphemes, syllables, concepts, etc.
   1. **OTHER MODELS OF LANGUAGE**
   * **Additive and subtractive models**

* For Lambert, 'additive bilingualism' refers to a situation in which 'the addition of a second language and culture are unlikely to replace or displace the first language and culture (in Baker 1993:57). It is the 'process of developing bilingual and bicultural skills' in children who, 'with no fear of ethnic/linguistic erosion, can add one or more foreign languages to their accumulating skills, and profit immensely from the experience, cognitively, socially and even economically' (1983:99-100). Liddicoat sums this up succinctly: 'Additive bilingualism develops when both languages and the culture associated with them bring complementary positive elements to the child's overall development' (1991 :6). Conversely,
* For Lambert, subtractive bilingualism is characterized by the loss or erosion of a home or first language and culture (1980, in Baker 1993:57). In the North American and European contexts, this typically happens when a minority language learner 'enters a school where a high prestige, socially powerful, dominant language like English is introduced as the exclusive language of instruction', resulting in 'a steam-roller effect of the powerful dominant language [that] can make foreign home languages and cultures seem homely in contrast, ghosts in the closet to be eradicated and suppressed' (Lambert 1983:100). In other words, '[s]ubtractive bilingualism develops when the two languages are competing rather than complementary' (Liddicoat Lambert's definition arose in the light of the success of French-immersion programmes for English-speaking (language *majority)* children from 'literate' homes in the Francophone Canadian province of Quebec from the mid-1960s onwards. Success related to individuals' bilingual proficiency, security of cultural identity, and positive language attitudes (Tosi 1990:104). These positive outcomes ('additive bilingualism') contrasted sharply with the failure of target-language (i.e. English) immersion programmes for language *minority* children in Sweden and the USA ('subtractive bilingualism'). However, as subsequent studies have shown (Ramirez 1991; Thomas & Collier 1997), bilingual programmes for language minority children in which the home (primary) language features strongly have a far higher success rate. For in such 'high degree of success contexts the linguistic goal has been bilingualism, and the societal goal has been a positive one' (Skutnabb-Kangas 1988:27). The psychological theory of Jim Cummins provided one answer as to why immersion programmes succeeded for majority language children but not for minority language children. Tosi sums it up usefully: Cummins' threshold hypothesis (1979) addressed directly the question of interdependence between L 1 and L2 in bilingual education and attempted to provide an academically consistent explanation of its contradictory findings. He hypothesised that there may be a threshold level of linguistic proficiency bilingual children must attain in their Ll before they can benefit from the home-school language switch and from instruction in L2. (1990: 1 06)

## ADDITIVE' AND 'SUBTRACTIVE MODELS OF EDUCATION

* 'Subtractive bilingualism' has become synonymous with poor academic performance, low self-esteem, and social marginalisation associated with deficit approaches and language policies that officially replace learners' primary (or home) languages with a target language of higher status after only a few years of schooling. In practice this means that 'African' children have to make transition suddenly into English-medium classes, with debilitating consequences (see Macdonald 1990). 'Additive bilingualism', on the other hand, has become a shorthand expression for a language-in-education approach designed to foster advanced bilingual proficiency, cognitive development, and general social empowerment preferably through the use of two languages, one of which has to be the primary or home language of the majority of learners.
* 'Additive bilingualism' refers according to http://perlinguam.journals.ac.za to as *the gaining of linguistic competence in individuals* (process and outcome): 'By additive bilingualism is meant the gaining of competence in a second language while the first language is maintained' (Luckett 1993) *a form of programme or model:* ''An additive bilingual model is simply one which adds languages to a child's repertoire, instead of subtracting them. In an additive model, therefore, children's home languages are fully acknowledged and utilised throughout education.' (Musker 1993, in Eltic 1997) an *educational principle, paradigm or approach:* ' ... additive bilingualism as the core principle of a future policy for language in education.' (Constable & Musker 1993)
* While it is true that bilingual education programmes for speakers of dominated languages (in which the home language is developed as the primary linguistic resource) achieve the best results, it is conceivable that even dual-medium or two-way immersion programmes could fail in under-resourced or overcrowded circumstances (and hence be termed 'subtractive'). If at all, the descriptor 'additive' should be used with caution.

## 5.4 Subtractive bilingualism': uses and problems

* 'Subtractive' in the context of bilingual/multilingual education research has come to be used in a similarly wide range of ways. Current uses of 'subtractive bilingualism' clearly indicate that the authors/documents are unanimous in their rejection of certain types of approaches and language policies. Subtractive bilingualism is a state of linguistic or cognitive *(under)development* in individuals. It also refers to the *context* or *situation* in which such (under)development occurs, including language distribution models. And it refers to a particular paradigm or mindset that is usefully termed 'deficit'. Effectively, 'subtractive bilingual programmes' are equated with ex-DET schooling, which is characterised by transitional programmes that switch from learners' main language to the target language (English) after the early years and are generally associated with catastrophic exam results - in short, they are disabling (Heugh 1995). Yet like its 'additive' twin, 'subtractive bilingualism' appears to conflate learner outcomes with programme types and a particular mode of thinking. On closer inspection there appear to be three further problems with the construct.
* Without exception, the surveyed documents understand the minimum requirement for educational success to be LI development as the basis for further acquisition of languages and general cogntive and affective growth.20

http://perlinguam.journals.ac.za *'Subtractive bilingualism' does not add up.* Current definitions treat 'language' as a monolithic, global cognitive proficiency, instead of as a set of oral and literacy practices

within social contexts, over determined by relations of power. The question is: what exactly is being lost or subtracted? If a home language of low status is not used as LOL T at school after the first four years, does it necessarily follow that the learner will lose the ability to use her main language in other contexts? Surely Wiley is right in pointing out that '[m]ost normal human beings have command of their native languages, regardless of whether they are literate or not' (1996:158). Hence on 'mathematical' grounds alone, 'subtractive' does not add up. *It reverses cause and effect.* A second problem is that 'subtractive bilingualism' (unintentionally) reverses cause and effect. 'But when **subtractive bilingualism** occurs, a second language is learned at the expense of the first language, which it gradually replaces.

* This occurs when the social conditions devalue the child's first language and its associated culture. This **form** of bilingualism may impede cognitive and social development' (Luckett 1993:47). Along with other similar versions, Luckett's definition implies that a situation or context is defined as 'subtractive' *because* learners perform poorly in tests and exams. But this is a back-to-front way of defining context. What the definition means is that the effects are 'subtractive', not the context. This use of contexts or situations (when subtractive bilingualism 'occurs') is misleading as it unwittingly 'blames the victim': programmes and models and situations and contexts are named after learners' alleged lack of proficiency in the language of power - a lack that is no fault of the learners'. It is a case of reversing cause and effect. *It is politically insensitive.* To attribute cognitive and linguistic outcomes in learners to bilingual programmes is problematic, as it carries the risk of stigmatising certain groups of learners. All educators in South Africa will know what Luckett and others are referring to -the real risk of failure of an entire generation of students whose main languages have been replaced as LOL Ts after the early years of schooling, and whose proficiency in English is too poor for them to succeed academically.
* The political problem of the term 'subtractive bilingualism' is that it risks stigmatising black (particularly African) students, thus influencing educators into assuming that nothing good could come out of schooling. It is the ascription of the cognitive and linguistic *outcomes* (in learners) to bilingual *programmes* that is problematic curriculum. 'This definition insists on the use of two languages as media of instruction' with the aim of '[fostering] the child's abilities in both languages' (Liddicoat 1991: 14,15).
* It may be the case, however, that African language-speaking children enrolled in schools where English is the only language used by teachers and most learners, and whose parents insist on interacting in English with their children in the (misguided) belief that it speeds up acquisition of the dominant language, have lost some of their ability to use the home or main language for the reason that it is not reinforced sufficiently in other domains. In such cases the overall language environment or context would indeed be 'subtractive' of children's ability to use the home language/s. Even then, the school in itself would not be the only institution or social domain responsible for this language loss, http://perlinguam.journals.ac.za
* In Africa, bilingual education has generally come to mean use of two languages. Under apartheid in South Africa, the term was limited to the dual-medium Afrikaans/English schooling (Malherbe 1977), and excluded the African languages (DoE 1995). Luckett argues strongly in favour of a strict definition of bilingual education [which] insists that both languages are used as media of instruction at some point in the curriculum; i.e. language learning experience is provided both through learning the languages as a subject and through learning other subjects in the target language. If we are serious about the goals of language equality and full bilingualism, then this definition of bilingual education should be adopted ... for the majority of South African pupils, the successful learning of a second language will best be achieved if it is taught both as a subject and as the medium of instruction.(1993:47-8)
* In similar vein, the CEPD document (1993) describes an 'additive bilingual/multilingual approach to language in education' as follows: 'Both (all) languages are perceived and used as languages of learning throughout the learner's school career.' The first draft of the DoE's language policy for schools in South Africa states quite explicitly that '[a] key feature of a multilingual policy is that it promotes the use of two or more languages throughout schooling' (1995:25-6). Thus 'bilingual education' implies the use of two languages. This brings us to the meanings and uses of 'additive multilingualism' in recent reports and policy documents.

## 5.5 MULTILINGUAL EDUCATION AND 'ADDITIVE MULTILINGUALISM'

* Clearly, the term 'additive multilingualism' has not fallen from the sky; it consciously builds on its predecessor, 'additive bilingualism' and has often been used in conjunction with it, e.g. 'an additive bilingual/multilingual approach' (CEPD 1993), and 'additive bi- or multilingualism' (Alexander 1996). The historical significance of 'additive multilingualism' is that it consciously and deliberately alludes to the official recognition of multilingualism as a feature of a society, enacted by the declaration of seven official regional languages in

the Constitution. In particular, 'multilingualism' celebrates over 25 indigenous languages (and by implication their speakers or users) as national resources. In South Africa, the use of the term signals the discursive break with the oppression of apartheid-colonial bilingualism, which recognised only English and Afrikaans as official languages, i.e. you were 'bilingual' only if you spoke those two. Multilingualism enshrines the principle of equality between the seven languages.

* 'Additive multilingualism' is designed to operationalise the principle in the educational sphere. Yet in current policy documents there is a degree of vacillation in terminology which hints at some of the contextual constraints under which the policy-making process has had to operate.
* As Du Toit et al. (1997:6) point out, 'additive multilingualism' in the Language Policy for Schools is used interchangeably with 'an additive approach to bilingualism' which is (rnis)quoted as 'an additive approach to multilingualism' in the *Curriculum*. Fortunately, the Language Policy document has a principled position in this regard: 22 http://perlinguam.journals.ac.za .Whichever route [towards multilingual education] is followed, the underlying principle is to maintain home language(s) while providing access to and the effective acquisition of additional language(s).
* This principle is operationalised through a language policy that takes into account a school's admissions policy, languages of learning and teaching, languages as subjects, and various norms and standards. Most significant is the learner's right (in practice the parent/guardian) to choice with regard to LOLT. and the injunction that 'Schools shall provide for more than one language of teaching where the need arises' (DoE 1997b:23). The 'need arises' where sufficient numbers of learners request a particular LOLT, subject to reasonable practicality. As Greenstein points out, the 'dense legal formulation of the document' (1997) is the result of a concession to conservative Afrikaners who have resisted the introduction of English as a second LOLT (and the enrolment of black learners) in Potgietersrus and elsewhere. As a result of this political compromise, it seems the matter will be resolved by extending the definition of additive multilingual

education to include situations where single-medium schools offer high-quality subject teaching in the relevant additional languages. (Alexander 1996:7)

* This minimalist interpretation of 'additive multilingualism' to effectively mean 'mother tongue education' has resulted in a degree of uncertainty in current policy documents. Du Toit et al., for instance, take issue with 'the apparent lip-service given to an additive bilingual/multilingual model of language-in-education' (1997:5) in Curriculum 2005. The authors are concerned that the reference to *language of learning* (in the singular) and the absence of any affirmation of 'the cognitive role of the primary language' appear to signal the government's lack of commitment to overcoming 'the deficit model of the past' (6). Quite clearly, the authors are implying that since 'bilingual education' is generally taken to mean the

use of two languages of learning and teaching at some point in the instructional process, 'multilingual education' implies the use of at least two, and possibly three or more LOLTs. It is quite likely that in addition to the political constraints mentioned above, budgetary constraints on employing and training more (bi- and trilingual) teachers and producing appropriate resources for education for multilingualism have played a role in accepting single medium schools within the definition of 'additive multilingual education'. The net effect of these constraints is that 'multilingual education' and 'additive multilingualism' have come to mean a lot less than their names suggest.

**UNIT SIX**

1. **LANGUAGE IN EDUCATION**

**Introduction**

* This chapter introduces you to language in education. Here in Zambian as alluded to in the preceding chapters, we are using a policy known as exoglosic where a foreign language is used as official language. English is used as medium of instruction in schools while seven regional languages are taught as subjects. However at early grades of primary school, familiar local languages are used as medium of instructions up to grade four and English as a subject.

**6.1 A CHALLENGE FOR AFRICAN LANGUAGES**

* Changing our terms or using old ones with new meanings will not in itself change language-in-education policies. Other measures are needed to give effect to the new language policy in ways that are enabling of *all* learners in Africa particularly speakers of African languages, the survivors of colonialism 'bilingualism'.
* A proposal for making an African language a compulsory subject comes from Granville et al. (1997), and is a direct challenge to the new language policy which has come out strongly against prescription with regard to both language as medium of instructions and language as a subject (LaS). Granville et al. propose 'a strong language-as-subject route to a multilingual policy' (1997:14) in terms of which students must learn at least one African language as subject throughout the years of compulsory schooling' [ibid.). The authors allude to the fact that what sparked the Soweto revolt in 1976 was the enforced extension of Afrikaans as a LOLT, not its status as a language subject. They note the 'sensitivities that the LANGTAG (Language Plan Task Group) document was obviously protecting' in stopping short of making an African language compulsory, but make a crucial distinction: there is a huge difference between a dominant language (such as Afrikaans) being imposed upon a marginalised community, and a marginalised language, such as an African language, being imposed on a dominant community. We cannot make a Neville Alexander, personal communication.24 http://perlinguam.journals.ac.za simple comparison between the two scenarios without considering i) the power and resource differences between the communities and the languages being compared in ii) the overriding benefits ofthe 'imposition' that we propose (Joseph & Ramani, 1996: p10)(1997:17) Benefits would include, at the very least, an adequate level of bilingual competence (ibid: 11) for learners previously denied the chance to learn an African language. The authors' reasoning shows an acute sense of the power/status issues in language-in-education in substantiating their proposal:
* African languages which once suffered underdevelopment through Afrikaans and English domination, should not suffer a second round of underdevelopment on the noble but mistaken sensitivities over perpetuating our legacy of 'imposition'. In Africa, the additional languages must be African languages, but with freedom to choose among any Of the African languages. (ibid: 17). This would have major implications for the training and placement of teachers, for curriculum development, and for learning materials. At the same time, it is a more realistic short-term scenario than the extension of the use of African language as language of learning and teaching throughout schooling, which the authors see as a long-term goal. 'Going for an African language as LOL T policy as though it were practicable now, could prove to be a recipe for its failure, and for the (unintended) continuation of dominance of English as LOL T' (ibid: 18).

There is general consensus that a key to the promotion of multilingualism in schools is the systematic elaboration, standardisation and use of the African languages in education and society. If we agree with Granville et al (1997) that the use of African languages throughout schooling is not feasible overnight (although a desirable longer term scenario), a case can nevertheless be made for extending the African languages as LOLTs in a staggered or phased way that runs parallel to the extension of Curriculum 2005, possibly in a number of pilot or demonstration schools across the provinces. A developmental concept is appropriate here: with each successive Grade that is 'OBE(Y)-ed', dual-medium or parallel medium programmes could be implemented. This would of course require the training of teachers, the production of teaching and learning material in the African languages (or in two languages)5 and language awareness campaigns on different levels (LANGTAG) to conscientise parents and teachers about the need for such an initiative. Various models of bilingual education could be trialled, depending on contextual factors; and innovative concepts such as Gough's suggestion of 'formative' and 'supportive mediums' (1996) deserve to be explored. For all the messiness of its indecently-hasty implementation, Curriculum 2005 thus offers the chance to dovetail with the new Language Policy for schools in ways consistent with the argumentation in this article. http://perlinguam.journals.ac.za If we are serious about education for multilingualism, the phased introduction and finalization of the new curriculum over the next seven years should go hand in hand with a systematic exploration of bilingual education. The point is that current policies should work together in order to operationalise the concepts that we would want (our children) to live by. Reasons for choosing the current language-in-education policy Justification, advantages and disadvantages.The weaknesses of the bilingual policy in Zambia

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| |  | | --- | | **6.2 Bilingual Education Models** | |

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| |  | | --- | | A classic definition of bilingual education provided by Anderson and Boyer: Bilingual education is instruction in two languages and the use of those two languages as mediums of instruction for any part, or all, of the school curriculum. (1970, p.12). First, bilingual education programs can be defined as either subtractive or additive. Additive bilingual program fosters longer-term student bilingualism and bilaterally by adding another language to the student’s existing language repertoire. Subtractive bilingual program shift students to monolingualism in the dominant language, replacing one language with another. According to Freeman (1988, p.3) bilingual models are defined in terms of ‘their language-planning goals and ideological orientations towards linguistic and cultural diversity in society.’ There are a few types of bilingual models:  **Transitional bilingual model** is labelled as two languages, children’s native languages and the dominant language, are used in classroom instruction only until the children can make the transition to receiving all instruction in the dominant language. The goal of this model is to rapidly transition to the mainstream classroom by using the dominant language of the school system (in the U.S.: English language learners (ELL)’s) native language as a bridge to acquiring English literacy--see [U.S. Bilingual Education](http://www.languageeducationpolicy.org/languageeducationaspolicy/usbilingualmodel.html)). The aim is not the maintenance of the native language; to the degree they do, they aim to develop bilaterally, but only to the degree of bi-literacy needed to make a transition to literacy in dominant language.  **Maintenance bilingual model** aims at maintaining the minority language of the student. This model strengthens the student’s sense of cultural and linguistic diversity. The language of instruction will be either predominantly in L1 or both L1 and L2.  **Early exit model** offers initial instruction in the primary language which is usually limited to initial reading instruction and used to support students for clarification. Subtractive bilingualism occurs in this model, as it does not permit complete development of the primary language.  **Late-exit model** offers minimum of forty percent of their instructional time in the primary language in language arts, reading and core subject areas. In  **bilingual immersion models,** dual language instruction is used that promotes bi-literacy by immersing second language learners into content instruction in two languages. Typically a minimum of fifty percent of curriculum is devoted to each of the two languages.  **Two-way dual language model** is different from bilingual immersion model. Classes have mixed enrolment of native speakers and second language learners. Both learners are aiming for bilingualism and bi-literacy. It allows for fully developing literacy in both languages. Variations among models occur, as the program is adjusted to suit the context of particular school. | | |  | | --- | |  | |

**UNIT SEVEN**

1. **TEACHING THE GRAMMAR OF A MOTHER TONGUE**

**Introduction**

Mother tongue is described as a language an individual acquired first and speaks it better than any other language learnt. This unit therefore, explains how the grammar of mother tongue is taught

Grammar is a key concept in general linguistic theory, but a more thorough discussion of how the concept of grammar has been, and can be, understood is beyond the scope of this article. Writers on the subject usually make different distinctions between theoretical, (traditional) descriptive/reference and (traditional) pedagogical grammars (Aarts 2006; Kachru 2010; Leech 1994; Odlin 1994; Tonkyn 1994). In general, pedagogical grammars (Chalker 1994; Corder 1988; Taylor 2008) seem to be about “usefulness rather than the theory of adequacy or simplicity postulated for pure grammars” (Spolsky 1978: 5).

In other words, grammars function as aids to learning instead of being an object for knowledge per se (Corder 1988; Kachru 2010; Rutherford 1987, 1988 for more on grammars written for other practical purposes, see Leitner & Graustein 1989)3. The role of the descriptive linguist is to describe and analyse structures and rules without any consideration of didactic or pedagogical matters (see Achard 2004; Kachru 2010; Nikula 2003; Rutherford 1987; Wilkins 1974). Furthermore, theoretical grammars often aim to prove or support a certain theoretical view on language and/or grammar or a descriptive ideal, whereas pedagogical grammars can afford to be more eclectic and utilise insights from different types of grammatical description according to the practical goals of learning and on the basis of practical experience (Corder 1988; Rutherford 1988; Taylor 2008).

**7.1 THE NECESSITY OF TEACHING GRAMMAR OF A MOTHER TONGUE**

* Without grammar one can’t know a language. On the other hand also mother tongue speakers make grammatical errors”.
* Grammar is, in other words, a vital part of communicative competence, but mother tongue speech can also lack grammar. How an ‘error’ should be interpreted is uncertain but may be based on prescriptive principles. The views on grammar in language teaching and learning depend, of course, on many things, such as personal experiences and specific preferences of language learning.
* As mentioned, some of the students express unconditional support for grammar in language learning and teaching:“An important part of teaching, perhaps there could be more of it”.“The basis of high-quality language learning”.“The role of grammar in language learning is very important”.
* Those who valued grammar high in language studies often completed the answers with practically framed explanations:“Mastering grammar helps one to know language comprehensively, for example understanding, speaking, writing”.“It is important in language teaching and learning because otherwise one cannot use language in an understandable way”.
* “Knowing grammar makes talking and writing more fluent”. One may notice that these answers do not make a distinction between speech and writing. The majority of the answers mention learning, which was also mentioned in the question. A few answers only talked about teaching, which means that it is uncertain how grammar was valued as a learning tool:“A central role in language teaching”.
* One cannot learn language only through grammar-based teaching (the use of communicative methods)”.The answer seems to echo the idea that grammar would have a smaller role in ‘communicative methods’.
* From a linguistic point of view a ‘communicative’ approach does not imply a lesser role for grammar (Widdowson 1988)
* A negative attitude towards grammar might, nevertheless, see a point in practicing it (see Jean & Simard 2011). Teaching and learning do not have to be fun all the time, but the goal should be to present or use grammar in a way that seems relevant for learners and in ways which are connected to communicative and interactional needs.
* One can, of course, agree with this statement. The formulation seems to express the view that formal grammar teaching is not needed in language teaching, which is, depending on circumstances and resources, a fact. Taken together, then, grammar is given a fairly important role in language learning and teaching. Many respondents see grammar as an essential part of communication. Others experience grammar as potentially important but somehow as a separate entity. If this separateness is seen as a problem, one approach would be to relate the learning of grammatical constructions even more closely to communicative needs and situations.
* Enables a sensible use of the words of a language, including word order, use of tense”. Sensible could possibly be read to mean understandable, thus equaling a practical and functional view.
* In the following formulations, the meaning of the word technical can also be interpreted in different ways “Technically correct writing/speech”. [Grammar] means the “technical” part of language and a basic tool kit and rules”.
* Pekka Saaristo 3051983), the last two formulations seem to reflect the idea of grammar as a description of suitable technical know-how about language use. Technically correct, on the other hand, also implies a normative component. Memorising is also mentioned in a few answers along with specific grammatical aspects:“Mnemonics and word order in sentences”
* .“Grammar is like a small jigsaw puzzle which one, little by little, learns (to remember) to assemble in a better way”. In the following case the answer seems to express both a normative and descriptive view at the same time:“Grammar is “rules” about how language should be used, or, actually, it tells how mother tongue speakers use language”. The formulation is not contradictory, though, since formally codified prescriptive rules are ultimately derived from community-based language use.
* “Grammar is the heart of language, its role is important” On the basis of the answers presented in this article, Finnish university students seem to view grammar, if not as “the heart of language”, then at least as a fairly important aspect of language learning and teaching. Similar results have been reported in, for example, Schulz’s (2001) discussion of Colombian and American students. The views are in all likelihood also an expression of the fact that grammar has been such a self-evident part of language teaching. The impression is, nevertheless, that the majority still genuinely feels that grammar offers genuine benefits for language learning and language use. To gain a better understanding of the thoughts and feelings behind these attitudes, still, it seems that grammar needs a bit of demythologising and should be approached as just another semiotic resource for communication.
* If it is indeed the case that, as Littlewood (2004: 513) argues, there is “overwhelming evidence [...] that explicit focus on formal aspects of language is helpful and produces lasting improvement of performance”, teachers must offer grammatical knowledge in a way which makes sense to as many learners as possible and to avoid presenting grammar as a separate abstraction with weak connections to pragmatic and interactional needs

(see Ellis 1994 for relations between individual learners and types of suitable instruction; see Turula 2011 for learning styles and personality traits in relation to types of instruction). This practice can, of course, be carried out in many different ways (Borg & Burns 2008; Rutherford 1987; Spada & Lightbown 2008).An open-minded and continuing dialogue between teachers and learners is recommended, but at the same time, teachers’ professional integrity must be preserved

* 1. **PROCEDURE FOR TEACHING GRAMMAR**
* Grammar gains its prominence in language teaching, particularly in English as a foreign language (EFL) and English as a second language (ESL), inasmuch as without a good knowledge of grammar, learners’ language development will be severely constrained. Practically, in the teaching of grammar, learners are taught rules of language commonly known as sentence patterns. According to Ur (1999), in the case of the learners, grammatical rules enable them to know and apply how such sentence patterns should be put together. The teaching of grammar should also ultimately centre attention on the way grammatical items or sentence patterns are correctly used. In other words, teaching grammar should encompass language structure or sentence patterns, meaning and use.
* Further, grammar is thought to furnish the basis for a set of language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. In listening and speaking, grammar plays a crucial part in grasping and expressing spoken language (e.g. expressions) since learning the grammar of a language is considered necessary to acquire the capability of producing grammatically acceptable utterances in the language (Corder, 1988; Widodo, 2004).
* In reading, grammar enables learners to comprehend sentence interrelationship in a paragraph, a passage and a text. In the context of writing, grammar allows the learners to put their ideas into intelligible sentences so that they can successfully communicate in a written form. Lastly, in the case of vocabulary, grammar provides a pathway to learners how some lexical items should be combined into a good sentence so that meaningful and communicative statements or expressions can be formed. In other words, Doff (2000) says that by learning grammar students can express meanings in the form of phrases, clauses and sentences. Long and Richards (1987) add that it cannot be ignored that grammar plays a central role in the four language skills and vocabulary to establish communicative tasks.

In the context of EFL, teaching grammar has traditionally been dominated by a grammar-translation method where the use of mother tongue is clearly important to elicit the meaning of target language by translating the target language into native languages. For example, according to Larsen-Freeman (2000) and Richards and Rodgers (2002), in such a method learners are required to learn about grammar rules and vocabulary of the target language. In the case of grammar, it is deductively taught; that is, learners are provided the grammar rules and examples, are told to memorize them, and then are asked to apply the rules to other examples.

* Many teachers think that teaching grammar separately is not favorable to learner since learners only learn the way language is constructed, and very often when they are given grammatical rules, the learners work well on such cases. However, when they write or speak, the learners make grammatical mistakes or even unnecessary ones. Helping learners apply grammatical rules into communicative tasks (for example, writing and speaking) is very challenging. Therefore, teachers, especially in the context of EFL, could benefit from learning some alternative teaching approaches for teaching grammar so that they can integrate grammar or structure into other language skills in such a way that the goal of learning language is ultimately achieved.

Therefore, in this paper, I would like to propose a five-step procedure for teaching grammar that I have developed. This procedure incorporates the notions of practice and consciousness-raising, explicit and implicit knowledge, and deductive and inductive approaches for teaching grammar. These concepts will be reviewed before the description of the teaching procedure.

**PRACTICE AND CONSCIOUSNESS-RAISING**

For most teachers of English, the priority of teaching grammar is to assist learners to internalize the structures/rules of language, taught in such a way that they can be us for communication both written and spoken (Ellis, 2002). For this reason, the two terms practice and consciousness-raising are important to define in this paper since they play an important play in successful grammar teaching, especially in the case of EFL.

**Practice**

* To begin with, it is claimed that practice is one of the keys to learning incorporate into a methodology with the following features:

1. a specific grammatical feature is isolated for focused attention;

2. the learners are required to produce sentences or statements comprising the targeted feature;

3. the learners will be provided with opportunities for repetition of the targeted feature;

4. there is expectation that the learners will perform the grammatical featurecorrectly; and

5. the learners receive feedback (immediate or delayed) on whether their performance of the grammatical structure is correct or incorrect (Ellis, 2002;Richards, 2002).

* It is generally accepted that practice can facilitate accuracy and fluency. In this regard, accuracy focuses on correct use of language (for example, rules of language).

This can be achieved through controlled and semi-controlled activities or practice of grammar, for example. In fluency, after learners master the rules of language, they are required to apply the rules of language in the form of spoken or written language. A number of linguists recommend that at this stage errors or mistakes be tolerated since making mistakes or errors is not disgraceful, but natural and common practice. During fluency-oriented activities, a teacher is required to help learners to self-notice or self correct.

It is important to keep in mind that both accuracy and fluency are

interdependent.

* **Consciousness-raising**
* Ellis (2002) defines consciousness-raising as an attempt to equip learners with an understanding of a specific grammatical feature, to develop declarative (describing a rule of grammar and applying it in pattern practice drills) rather than procedural (applying a rule of grammar in communication) knowledge of it. Richards, Plat, and Plat (1992) define consciousness-raising as follows:
* It is an approach to the teaching of grammar in which instruction in grammar (through drills, grammar explanation, and other form-focused activities) is viewed as a way of raising learner’s awareness of grammatical features of the language. This is thought to indirectly facilitate second language acquisition. A consciousness-raising approach is contrasted with traditional approaches to the teaching of grammar in which the goal is to instill correct grammatical patterns and habits directly (p. 78).
* The main characteristics of consciousness-raising activities proposed by Ellis (2002) involve:

1. there should be an effort to isolate a specific linguistic feature for focused attention;

2. the learners are provided with data which illustrate the targeted feature and an explicit rule description or explanation;

3. the learners are expected to utilize intellectual effort to understand the targeted feature;

4. misunderstanding or incomplete understanding of the grammatical structure by the learners leads to clarification in the form of further data and description or explanation; and

5. learners are required (though not crucial) to articulate the rule describing the grammatical feature. In short, in consciousness-raising, learners are required to notice a certain feature of language (that is, sentence patterns), but there is no requirement to produce or communicate the certain sentence patterns taught.

* To summarize, practice is directed at the acquisition of implicit knowledge of grammatical structure. That is the sort of tacit knowledge required for applying the structure effortlessly for communication. Consciousness-raising is geared for the formation of explicit knowledge: the kind of intellectual knowledge which we are able to gather about any subject (Ellis, 2002).
* **EXPLICIT AND IMPLICIT KNOWLEDGE**
* In the case of teaching grammar to EFL learners, a teacher may feel frustrated when learners are taught grammatical items separately. Students may become good at grammar; however, when told to write and speak, they often make grammatical mistakes. This case is very challenging to solve.
* When facing this problem, particularly with adult learners, it is useful to be aware that there are two kinds of knowledge necessary to gain proficiency in a second language.These are known as explicit (conscious learning) and implicit (subconscious acquisition) knowledge (Klein, 1986).
* **Explicit knowledge**
* According to Ellis (2004), in a practical definition, explicit knowledge deals with language and the uses to which language can be put. This knowledge facilitates the intake and development of implicit language, and it is useful to monitor language output. Explicit knowledge is generally accessible through controlled processing. In short, it is conscious knowledge of grammatical rules learned through formal classroom instruction. In this respect, a person with explicit knowledge knows about language and the ability to articulate those facts in some way (Brown, 2000). For instance, Achmad knows every rule about present tense, but he frequently makes mistakes in speaking and writing. However, such knowledge is easy for him while having time to think of the rule and apply it (that is, in the context of a grammar exercise or a writing assignment). Thus, on the basis of Achmad’s case, explicit knowledge is learnable; for example, when grammatical items are given to learners, they learn the items first in a controlled learning process. Explicit knowledge is also obtained through the practice of error correction, which is thought to help learners come to the correct mental representation of a rule. This works if there is enough time to operate it; the speaker is concerned with the correctness of her/his speech/written production; and s/he knows the correct rules (Krashen, 1987).
* **Implicit knowledge**
* Implicit knowledge is automatic and easily accessed and provides a great contribution to building communicative skills. Implicit knowledge is unconscious, internalized knowledge of language that is easily accessed during spontaneous language tasks, written or spoken (Brown, 2000). Implicit knowledge is gained in the natural language learning process. It means that a person applies a certain grammatical rule in the same way as a child who acquires her/his first language (for example, mother tongue). According to Brown (2000), the child implicitly learns aspects of language (for example, phonological, syntactical, semantic, pragmatic rules for language), but does not have access to an explanation of those rules explicitly. As an example, Jack speaks and writes English with good use of present tense, although he has no idea about the grammatical rule behind it. To sum up, implicit knowledge is gained through a sub-conscious learning process. This is illustrated by the fact that native speakers of a certain language do not always “know” (consciously) the rules of their language (Krashen, 1987).
* In comparing the two terms: explicit and implicit knowledge, Noonan (2004) proposes a challenging question: “May explicit grammar knowledge become implicit knowledge in the context of EFL learners?” In response to this, there are two answers.
* First, in Krashen’s view, explicit knowledge can never be implicit knowinasmuch as the two are located in dissimilar parts of the brain. In contrast, the interface position claims that explicit knowledge can have some impact on implicit knowledge. This position has two views. The first maintains that explicit knowledge becomes internalized through practice or frequent exposure to target language similar to the acquisition of other skills. The second goes along with the Krashen’s view.

**7.4 TWO CORE APPROACHES IN GRAMMAR PRESENTATION**

* Broadly speaking, in teaching grammar, there are two approaches that can be applied: deductive and inductive. In this section, I would like to briefly highlight the two, and then I link both approaches to the theory of second language acquisition (SLA).
* **Deductive approach**
* A deductive approach is derived from the notion that deductive reasoning works from the general to the specific. In this case, rules, principles, concepts, or theories are presented first, and then their applications are treated. In conclusion, when we use deduction, we reason from general to specific principles.
* Dealing with the teaching of grammar, the deductive approach can also be called rule driven learning. In such an approach, a grammar rule is explicitly presented to students and followed by practice applying the rule. This approach has been the bread and butter of language teaching around the world and still enjoys a monopoly in many course books and self-study grammar books (Fortune, 1992). The deductive approach maintains that a teacher teaches grammar by presenting grammatical rules, and then examples of sentences are presented. Once learners understand rules, they are told to apply the rules given to various examples of sentences. Giving the grammatical rules means no more than directing learners’ attention to the problem discussed. Eisenstein (1987) suggests that with the deductive approach, learners be in control during practice and have less fear of drawing an incorrect conclusion related to how the target language is functioning. To sum up, the deductive approach commences with the presentation of a rule taught and then is followed by examples in which the rule is applied. In this regard, learners are expected to engage with it through the study and manipulation of examples.

In the case of the application of the deductive approach, therefore, Michael Swan (cited in Thornbury, 1999, p. 32) outlines some guidelines for when the rule is presented. Among them are:

1. the rules should be true;

2. the rules should show clearly what limits are on the use of a given form ;

3. the rules need to be clear;

4. the rules ought to be simple;

5. the rules needs to make use of concepts already familiar to the learners; and

6. the rules ought to be relevant.

* Most importantly, when the rules are presented in the deductive approach, the presentation should be illustrated with examples, be short, involve students’ comprehension and allow learners to have a chance to personalize the rule.
* Nonetheless, the deductive approach has its own advantages and disadvantages as shown below;

Advantages and disadvantages of the deductive approach to teaching grammar

1.The deductive approach goes straightforwardly to the point and can,

therefore, be time-saving.

2. A number of rule aspects (for example, form) can be more simply and

clearly explained than elicited from examples

3. A number of direct practice/application examples are immediately given.

4. The deductive approach respects the intelligence and maturity of many

adult learners in particular and acknowledges the role of cognitive

processes in language acquisition.

Advantages

5. It confirms many learners’ expectations about classroom learning

particularly for those who have an analytical style.

1. Beginning the lesson with a grammar presentation may be off-putting for

some learners, especially younger ones.

2. Younger learners may not able to understand the concepts or encounter

grammar terminology given.

3. Grammar explanation encourages a teacher-fronted, transmission-style

classroom, so it will hinder learner involvement and interaction

immediately.

4. The explanation is seldom as memorable as other forms of presentation

(for example, demonstration).

Disadvantages

5. The deductive approach encourages the belief that learning a language is

simply a case of knowing the rule.

* **Inductive approach**
* An inductive approach comes from inductive reasoning stating that a reasoning progression proceeds from particulars (that is, observations, measurements, or data) to generalities (for example, rules, laws, concepts or theories) (Felder & Henriques,1995). In short, when we use induction, we observe a number of specific instances and from them infer a general principle or concept.
* In the case of pedagogical grammar, most experts argue that the inductive approach can also be called rule-discovery learning. It suggests that a teacher teach grammar starting with presenting some examples of sentences. In this sense, learners understand grammatical rules from the examples. The presentation of grammatical rules can be spoken or written. Eisenstein (cited in Long & Richards, 1987) maintains that the inductive approach tries to utilize the very strong reward value of bringing order, clarity and meaning to experiences. This approach involves learners’ participating actively in their own instruction. In addition, the approach encourages a learner to develop her/his own mental set of strategies for dealing with tasks. In other words, this approach attempts to highlight grammatical rules implicitly in which the learners are encouraged to conclude the rules given by the teacher.

Similar to the deductive approach, the inductive approach offers advantages and disadvantages

Advantages and disadvantages of the inductive approach to teaching

grammar

1. Learners are trained to be familiar with the rule discovery; this could

enhance learning autonomy and self-reliance.

2. Learners’ greater degree of cognitive depth is “exploited”.

3. The learners are more active in the learning process, rather than being

simply passive recipients. In this activity, they will be motivated.

4. The approach involves learners’ pattern-recognition and problemsolving

abilities in which particular learners are interested in this

challenge.

Advantages

5. If the problem-solving activity is done collaboratively, learners get an

opportunity for extra language practice.

1. The approach is time and energy-consuming as it leads learners to have

the appropriate concept of the rule.

2. The concepts given implicitly may lead the learners to have the wrong

concepts of the rule taught.

3. The approach can place emphasis on teachers in planning a lesson.

4. It encourages the teacher to design data or materials taught carefully

and systematically.

Disadvantages

5. The approach may frustrate the learners with their personal learning

style, or their past learning experience (or both) would prefer simply to be

told the rule.

* **Relating deductive and inductive approaches to SLA theory**
* Deductive and inductive approaches relate to learning and acquisition in SLA theory.
* Firstly, the deductive approach is related to the conscious learning process in which this approach tries to place a great emphasis on error correction and the presentation of explicit rules (Krashen, 2002). Such an approach is applied for the reason that it is an efficient and elegant way to organize and present the rule that is already understood. The deductive approach is often used with adult learners. Through the deductive approach, a teacher tries to teach the rule explicitly to the learners so that they are ready to cope with exercises given. The explicit rule presentation can enhance the learners’ confidence in doing certain tasks. To be successful in applying the approach, the teacher needs to provide numerous exercises.
* Secondly, the inductive approach relates to subconscious learning processes similar to the concept of language acquisition. According to this approach, learners learn the system of language (for example, grammar or sentence rules) in the same way as children acquire their first or second language. In this regard, meaningful interaction in the target language (that is, natural communication) is more important than the form of the language. For this reason, error correction and explicit teaching of the rule are de-emphasized. Most importantly, utterances are easily understood. In other words, when the inductive approach is applied, the learners learn the rule unconsciously.
* Adapted from Krashen’s acquisition/learning hypothesis (1987, 2002), I draw some conclusions in respect of the two approaches – deductive and inductive

Relationship of deductive and inductive approaches to Krashen’s (1987,2002) theory

* **Deductive Inductive**
* Learn the rule in the context of formal instruction
* Learn the rule as a child acquires her/his first or second language. Know about the rule “Pick up” the rule
* Learn the rule consciously Learn the rule subconsciously, Learn the rule explicitly Learn the rule implicitly Of the two approaches above, which is best? This question relates to a long-standing debate among language teachers in the context of EFL/ESL, since the two have their own significances for particular learner progress. For example, a study of various language learners shows that some learners achieve better in deductive language classes; on the other hand, others perform better in more inductive classes. This difference in cognitive styles may be associated with different neurological mechanisms in learners (Eisenstein, 1987).

Whether grammatical rules are taught inductively or deductively relies upon certain structures, since some are more amenable to a deductive approach, while others can be learned very well by an inductive approach. To sum up, both deductive and inductive presentations can successfully be applied depending on the cognitive style of the learner and the language structure presented (Eisenstein, 1987; Brown, 2000).

Nevertheless, whether a teacher employs a deductive or inductive approach, s/he should consider the notion that language learning, particularly in the context of EFL (for example, grammar) is a largely conscious process that involves formal exposure to rules of syntax and semantics followed by specific applications of the rule, with corrective and encouraging feedback reinforcing correct usage and discouraging incorrect usage.

**PROPOSED PROCEDURE FOR TEACHING GRAMMAR**

In this section, I would like to share a procedure consisting of five steps for teaching grammar, particularly in the context of EFL. This procedure is based upon teaching experience at secondary school, college, and university level, and makes reference to various theoretical frameworks outlined above (that is, deductive and inductive approaches). I expect this procedure could provide an alternative framework for teaching grammar, especially in teaching tenses and modals. In describing my procedure, I will provide model teaching materials based on teaching the present perfect tense as an example to shed light on the each of the five steps.

Before describing the five steps, first let me outline four concerns which led to the development of this procedure:

1. The proposed procedure was derived from the notion that in teaching grammar, in the context of EFL in particular, teachers conventionally start explaining the rule without commencing to encourage learners to be involved in communicative tasks both written and spoken. In other words, the teachers generally explain the rules along with the examples. Even though such a way is economical and straightforward, I believe this activity hinders the learners from communicating the rules actively. For example, if the teacher would like to present continuous tense, s/he may directly explain the verb form of the tense along with examples. When this approach is used, I think that the learners will feel that the rules are separated from the communicative tasks (that is, speaking and writing). They may think that making mistakes in speaking or writing is tolerable as long as the messages or utterances are easily understood. This perception could hinder the learners from learning grammar intensively and applying the rule in the communicative tasks.

2. Further, on the basis of my teaching experience and peer classroom

observations at public colleges and schools, I have seen that teachers have relied heavily upon self-study grammar and grammar course books. In other words, the teachers followed activities presented in books. They seemed to think that such books could meet students’ needs and expectations about learning the system of language (that is, grammar). My view is that teachers themselves should re-design and develop the materials from books, since self study grammar and grammar course books have some strengths and weaknesses. By doing this, teachers are required to assess the strengths and weaknesses of the materials themselves and to design innovative and continually evaluated materials. In this way, the teachers can creatively select the materials so that the rules can be taught without separating the rules from the context of communicative purposes.

3. I am also concerned with the fact that most English teachers, for example in Indonesia, treat grammar separately and teach it as part of local and national examination preparation, particularly at secondary schools. They give some grammar lessons to the students since this component is tested in the local or even final national examinations. For this reason, the teachers teach the rule intensively along with passive exercises (such as choosing correct answers in the multiple questions). Consequently, students are used to doing multiple choice-based grammar exercises; when they are faced with complicated grammatical items, the students feel frustrated. I think such an activity is monotonous and boring for them.

4. Furthermore, when teaching writing and having an interview with the students in English, I have witnessed the fact that the students often wittingly or unwittingly make mistakes about the use of tenses. For example, when talking about their experience, they use present tense, or when expressing continuous activity, the students use simple present tense. The students feel confused about applying the rules when writing and speaking, although they have been learning English since secondary school. In addition, they feel that grammar (that is tense and modality) is very complicated or hard to apply.

* Besides my four concerns above, the proposed procedure has been developed using the concepts of SLA theory, particularly related to acquisition and learning, practice and consciousness-raising, and deductive and inductive approaches as previously discussed.
* In the first instance, in the context of the acquisition and learning, grammar (that is, the rules) needs to be taught implicitly and explicitly. This means, to begin with, that teachers encourage the learners to discover the rules by themselves without teacher’s help to tell them the rule directly. After the learners go through discovering it, the teachers may consolidate the rule to avoid student’s wrong conclusion about it.
* Second, in the case of practice and consciousness-raising, practice is a medium for exploiting a learner’s understanding about the rule and of assisting him or her to apply it. From this concept, I have designed various activities so that learners have plenty of chances to work on the rule in the form of exercises. Practice is not enough to equip the learner with a good mastery of the rule. For this reason, the proposed procedure tries to also include consciousness-raising. In this case, the learners need to be carefully aware of certain features of the rule. This activity can be carried out through a passage and a text. For example, when teaching simple past tense, the teacher might ask the students to identify or notice sentences in the passage or text using the simple past tense. Even though the learners are recipients of the rule, this activity is useful to internalize the rule into their comprehension about it. Lastly, after exploring the concept of deductive-inductive approaches, I feel that it is indispensable to combine

the two approaches into an innovative procedure for teaching grammar.

* To sum up, the proposed procedure trains the students in the rule related to word, phrase, clause and sentence problems in which the target sentence pattern is well introduced to the students through exercises from form to function. In this case, understanding meaning and using the rule automatically are of great concern.
* **Five-step procedure**
* On the basis of the rationales above, I would like to propose a procedure for teaching grammar in which the activities involve five steps:

1. building up students’ knowledge of the rule or rule initiation;

2. eliciting functions of the rule or rule elicitation;

3. familiarising students with the rule in use through exercises or rule practice;

4. checking students’ comprehension or rule activation; and

5. expanding students’ knowledge or rule enrichment.

I will describe each step and give model classroom materials relating to teaching the present perfect tense to students at pre-intermediate level as an example.

* ***Step 1: Building up students’ knowledge of the rule or rule initiation***
* The proposed procedure starts with teaching grammar by some leading questions and providing model sentences in which the grammatical item to be taught is underlined.
* Such activities are geared to build up learners’ knowledge of the grammatical items taught. At this stage, a teacher is required to ask students to respond to the questions orally. This can stimulate students’ self-confidence in using the grammatical item learned communicatively. The teachers should not tell students what grammatical item s/he is going to explain. Some leading questions can be asked in the form of yes/no and information (w-h) questions (see Table 4 for an example). It is crucial to note that the students need to be asked the questions in a complete statement. As explained in the inductive approach, in this step, the teacher implicitly directs the students to the whole form of the sentences using the grammatical item in focus. More importantly, this activity encourages students to communicate in a spoken form; thus building the students’ confidence in using the rule and the students’ awareness of using it in the context of communicative tasks (for example, speaking). At more advanced level, this activity can be carried out through short conversations using the rule learned. For examples of Step 1 relating to teaching present perfect tense, see Step One Yes/No question input

Step One: Information question input

* In addition to providing the leading questions, model sentences are presented. To assist the students to easily focus on the rule targeted, the crucial elements (that is, verb form, time signals, and so on) should be underlined so that they can guess what the grammatical item is that they are going to learn. This activity is a reinforcement for the leading questions in which the goal is to enable the students to internalize the rule easily in a written form. In other words, building up the students’ knowledge of the grammatical items that will be taught provides apperception and motivation to them so that they are ready to learn the grammatical item given by the teacher. For an

Step One: Noticing model sentences

1) **Have** you **had** breakfast?

2) **Has** your sister **been** abroad?

3) **Have** you **finished** your homework?

4) **Has** your teacher **corrected** your work?

5) **Have** you ever **gone** climbing?

6) **Has** your father **worked** for more than 20 years?

1) How many times **have** you **read** this book?

2) How many years **has** your father **lived** in this town?

3) How long **have** you **learned** English?

4) How many times **have** your sister and brother **been** to Bali?

5) How long **has** your teacher **taught** you?

6) How many years **have** you **known** me?

1) We have gone to Singapore.

2) He has recently written some letters.

3) They have seen the movie “The World Is Not Enough” four times.

4) My brother has been here for five years.

5) I have learned Dutch since 1999.

6) My daughter has broken that Chinese vase.

* At the end of Step 1, the teacher can tell the students the name of the grammatical item learned. Essentially, the students are involved in communicative grammar teaching. This concept also breaks the folklore that teaching grammar must be separated from a communicative task.

***Step 2: Eliciting functions of the rule or rule elicitation***

Step 2 aims to elicit the functions of the grammatical item taught accompanied with examples. This step furnishes the students with clear descriptions of the language focus uses so that students can apply the language focus appropriately in communicative settings. In this step, the teacher explicitly tells the students some features of the sentence, such as the verb form, commonly used time signals, and functions of the present perfect tense*,* so that students are well prepared for the exercises following the presentation/explanation. In addition, this step consolidates the students’ comprehension about what they have guessed in Step 1 so that the students’ wrong conclusion about the rule can be avoided. In other words, Step 2 enhances students’ confidence in applying the rule communicatively. Any teaching media and aids could be used for eliciting the functions of the grammatical item (that is, the present prefect tense) taught. See Table 7 for a sample explanation of the present perfect tense.

Step Two: Functions and examples of the present perfect tense

**Functions**

To grammarians, *Present Perfect* can be used to :

* **Examples**

1. Express an action/event that happened at unspecified/ indefinite time in the past. In this case, we do not know when this action/event occurred. In other words, the exact time is unimportant.

1. - She **has climbed** a mountain.

2. - They **have seen** this movie.

3. - I **have complained** about the

traffic before.

Express an action/event that has recently occurred, and it often may

have a result in the present.

1. - He **has broken** the glass.

2. - We **have cleaned** the floor.

(Now, the floor is clean)

3. - I **have washed** the car.

(Now, It looks lovely)

3. Express an action/event that began in the past and continues up to the

present (often used with ‘for’ or ‘since’). In this instance, the

action/event is incomplete. Note that when using time signals *for* and

*since*, both are different in use. The former denotes length of time,

while the latter indicates a certain period of time.

1. - John **has lived** in New York for four years.

(He still lives in New York)

- I **have learned** German since 1990.

(I still learn German)

3. - I **have worn** glasses for ten years.

(I still wear glasses)

4. Express an action that happened repeatedly before now. In other words,

such an action/event occurred more than once in the past. It may be

repeated in the present or future. Note that this function should be

differentiated from that of *simple present tense* indicating present

habits.

- We **have seen** this movie twice.

(We may see it again)

- She **has been** here many times.

(She may be here again)

John **has visited** Ohio four times.

(He may visit it again)

* ***Step 3: Familiarizing students with the rule in use through exercises or rule practice***
* Step 3 focuses upon familiarizing the students with the grammatical item in use. The process followed in this step is that the teacher presents some exercises, checks for students’ comprehension, and encourages active student involvement. The forms of the exercises used in Step 3 may vary according to the particular grammatical item

The students are required to write their answers using complete sentences on the basis of the questions asked. The reason for having the students write their answer in a complete sentence is that this ensures they are trained to make a complete sentence using the rule given.

Step Three, Exercise 1: Written question input

* The next exercise is a correct verb form completion problem. Students are required to fill out the appropriate grammatical item in the bracket based on the rule taught (see a present perfect tense. This exercise trains the students to be more familiar with the verb form used. Being familiar with the verb form is crucial because the verb form identifies the rule and its meaning.

Step Three, Exercise 2: Correct verb form completion

* The third exercise given in Step 3 is a sentence transformation problem. For example,the students have to change sentences using simple present tense into those using the present perfect tense. In this respect, the students are challenged to write a correct sentence using the present perfect tense, and students are trained to be alert to using time signals as well.
* Fourthly, a sentence composition problem using the time signals is given In this case, the data are given, and the students are required to write sentences on the basis of the data available. The sample answer is provided to help the students to do this exercise easily. The students are also trained to apply the commonly used time signals (for example, *for* and *since*) in the case of using a certain rule (that is, the present perfect tense). For a more challenging activity, the time signals can be extended (that is, the use of *already* and *yet*; *during the four past years*, *over a few*

***Answer the following questions in a complete sentence.***

1. How many letters has she written this month?

2. Where have you put my book?

3. How long have you studied here?

4. How many times has she been to Bali?

5. With whom has Maria spoken?

6. How long have they cleaned the floor?

7. How many years has your mother lived in a town?

***Change the words in the bracket with an appropriate form.***

1. She has not (attend) any meetings since she worked here.

2. Bill (be) (be) here since four hours ago.

3. I have never (see) snow before.

4. Bill’s parents have (grow) rice crops since he was a child.

5. We have not (take) the TOEFL test.

6. Maria and Anna have (live) here for ten years.

7. I (not be) (see) you for a long time.

8. He (not be) (be) here since Christmas.

In other words, the time signal-based exercise is given since in some cases, tenses are much influenced by certain time signals.

Step Three, Exercise 3: Tense-based sentence transformation Step Three, Exercise 4: Sentence composition 1

* ***Make a sentence using time signals: “for” and “since” based on the following data.***

***Number 1 has been done for you as an example.***

***No Participant Activity A Period of Time Length of Time***

1 Pusporini Take an English course January 1996 10 years

2 Maria’s Father Work for a shoes company 1968 25 years

3 John and Bill Study at college Three months ago 3 months

4 We Attend a workshop 9 o’clock 7 hours

5 They Teach Javanese Seven days ago 7 days

6 Jolene Do this work 11 o’clock A few hours

7 Sondak Stay in a village Some weeks ago Some weeks

1. a. Pusporini has taken an English course since January 1996.

b. Pusporini has taken an English course for 10 years.

2. a. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_.

b. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_.

3. a. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_.

b. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_.

4. a. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_.

b. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_.

5. a. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_.

b. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_.

6. a. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_.

b. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_.

7. a. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_.

b. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_.

* In the fifth exercise, like the fourth, the students are required to write sentences using the time signals in which the data in the form of time expressions are provided (see This exercise is intended to check students’ progress in using the time
* ***Change the following sentences into the present perfect form.***

***You may include a certain time signal if required.***

1. She does not go to school yet.

\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ .

2. We drink coffee.

\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ .

3. They read these books.

\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ .

4. He has breakfast.

\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ .

5. My mother boils much water.

\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ .

6. I still learn English.

\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ .

In this respect, the teacher can monitor students’ progress in such a form of exercise.

Step Three, Exercise 5: Sentence composition 2

* ***Make a sentence using the following key words. Number 1 has been done for you as an example.***

***No. Linking Verbs Main Verbs Adverb Signals***

1. Have Be Seven months

2. Has Visit Lately

3. Have Write Many years

4. Has Arrive Just

5. Have Speak Four years ago

6. Has Have lunch Four times

7. Have Do the dishes A couple of hours

1. They have been here for seven months.

2. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_.

3. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_.

4. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_.

5. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_.

6. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_.

7. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_.

The sixth exercise focuses on error recognition and correction. In this sense, the students have to identify and correct the mistakes in the sentences given. In the case of present perfect tense, error problems include verb form and time signals. This exercise checks students’ comprehension about the application of the rule (that is, the present perfect tense). Moreover, the exercise trains the students to carefully notice inappropriate features of the rule (for example, the present perfect tense).

Step Three, Exercise 6: Error recognition and correction

* The final exercise is sentence construction or composition based on the tense functions. The exercise enables the students to practise with both form and function-based exposure. Furthermore, the function-based exercise can assist students to apply the rule in communicative tasks (that is, speaking and writing).

***Correct the sentences below.***

1. They has moved into a new apartment.

2. She has already saw this movie.

3. Maria and Anna have flown on an airplane since many

times.

4. Mr. Regan has working for his company for 1977.

5. I have waited for you for three hours ago.

6. The lift has broke down.

7. We have clean this floor two times.

8. John Smith has wrote a number of short stories.

9. There has been some climatic changes lately in my town.

10. Many farmers have recently harvest rice crops.

Step Three, Exercise 7: Rule-function based sentence composition

* To sum up, in Step 3, a set of exercises are oriented towards form-function exposure so that the students have many opportunities to get closer to both forms and functions of the grammatical item learned. The aim is to enable students to use the grammatical item correctly in communicative tasks. I suggest that the model exercises given in relating to teaching the present perfect tense be developed into various forms of exercises relevant to specific grammatical items.
* ***Step 4: Checking students’ comprehension or rule activation***
* This step is geared to check students’ comprehension of the grammatical item being taught. At this stage, the teacher provides an assessment of student comprehension to gauge whether the students completely grasp what they have been taught. The form of the evaluation can be in the form of sentence construction. This is used in order to have the students apply the concept of the grammatical item learned productively, not receptively. In this case, the students are required to work individually. This step can help the teacher redesign her or his further grammar teaching to facilitate the students’ progress in applying the rule taught. An example of Step 4 relating to present perfect tense can be seen below

Step Four: Students’ comprehension of rule-based sentence construction

***Step 5: Expanding students’ knowledge or enrichment***

The last step is focused on expanding students’ comprehension of the grammatical item being taught. In this phase, the teacher employs other activities to reinforce some concepts and even to relate new ones. S/he gives the students opportunities to do independent work and can set certain activities or tasks from the lesson as homework or an assignment. In the example of materials designed for teaching present perfect tense, I propose two tasks: pattern identification in a passage or a text (see Table 16 and inter-pattern comparison in meaning (see Table 17). Pattern identification in a passage or text provides students with an opportunity to do noticing or consciousness-

***Make two sentences using present perfect tense indicating:***

1. An action that began in the past and is still occurring now with “for”

2. An action that happened more than once in the past, and may occur again in the future

3. An action that happened at indefinite time in the past

4. An action that began in the past and is still occurring now with ‘since’

5. An action that has recently occurred, and it often may have a result in the present.

Make a sentence using the *present perfect tense* with time signals: *already*,

*recently*, *for*, *during the past years*, *since*, *just*, *twice*, and *many times*.

1. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ .

2. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ .

3. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ .

4. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ .

5. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ .

6. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ .

7. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ .

8. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ .

raising. In this respect, the students are expected to be expert in applying the rule on the basis of their cognitive capacity. Inter-pattern comparison encourages the students to differentiate between the concepts they already know and the newly introduced grammatical item. This task can train students to think analytically.

Step Five: Pattern identification in the passage or the text

Step 5: Inter-pattern comparison in meaning

***Identify the clauses or sentences using present perfect in the following passage, and underline the verbs.*** The whale is the largest animal that has ever lived. Some species grow to a length of over 30 meters and weigh up to 90 metric tons, or 90,000 kilos. Millions of years ago, whales lived on land and walked on four legs. Before recorded history, however, they went into the sea. It was really a return to the sea; the remote ancestors of all animals had originated in the sea. The remains of the whale’s hind legs still exist inside its body, and there is other evidence that it was once a land mammal. It is warm-blooded, for example, and has respiratory, digestive, and reproductive systems somewhat like those of other mammals.

For hundreds of years, people have killed some whale species for their blubber or whalebone. In recent years, it has become evident that the great sperm whale is especially in danger of becoming extinct. Unless we stop killing them, the species will soon disappear. Before the end of the twentieth century, some believe we will have destroyed this interesting and valuable animal.

***Differentiate a couple of sentences based on aspect of meaning below.***

1. A. She has had breakfast.

B. She had breakfast.

* 2. A. We have visited Bali four times.
* B. We visited Bali four times a year.
* 3. A. They have lived in a remote area.
* B. They lived in a remote area.
* 4. A. He has broken the cup.
* B. He broke the cup.
* 5. A. I have studied Japanese for five years.
* B. I studied Japanese for five years.
* 6. A. She has had breakfast.
* B. She had breakfast.
* 7. A. George and Anna have waited for you for three hours.
* B. George and Anna waited for you for three hours.
* 8. A. Pusporini has washed her motorbike.
* B. Pusporini washed her motorbike.
* 9. A. Mary and Shirley have seen this movie.
* B. Mary and Shirley saw this movie.
* H. Widodo *Approaches and procedures for teaching grammar*
* *English Teaching: Practice and Critique* 139

**ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF THE PROPOSED**

**PROCEDURE**

* After describing and discussing the proposed five-step procedure for teaching grammar, it is wise to highlight some advantages and disadvantages over the existing approaches to teaching grammar. The advantages of the proposed procedure are:

1. the procedure tries to encourage the students’ involvement in communicative tasks (that is, Step 1: Question Input);

2. learners are trained to be accustomed to rule discovery, which could enhance learning autonomy and self-reliance as shown in Step 1 (that is, sentence noticing);

3. learners have a chance to apply their greater degree of cognitive depth;

* 4. the procedure respects the intelligence and maturity of many adult learners in particular and acknowledges the role of cognitive processes in language acquisition;
* 5. learners are more active in the learning process, rather than being simply passive recipients of exercises;

6. the procedure involves learners’ pattern-recognition and problem-solving;

7. the procedure attempts to measure the learners’ progress in mastering the rule through an individual evaluation as part of the learning process; and

* 8. the procedure tries to reconnect what the learners already know with

something new (that is, new rules of the grammar).

* Although the proposed procedure offers some advantages, I should acknowledge its disadvantages. Among them are:

1. the procedure is an intense activity that is time and energy consuming;

2. the procedure places an emphasis on teachers in designing data and materials;

3. the procedure requires the teacher to have extensive knowledge of the grammatical rule being taught, since s/he not only tells her/his students the formula, but s/he also attempts to lead the students to have comprehensive knowledge and application of the rule taught; and

4. the procedure may frustrate learners who would prefer simply to be told the rule.

* **CONCLUSION**

The ultimate goal of teaching grammar is to provide the students with knowledge of the way language is constructed so that when they listen, speak, read and write, they have no trouble applying the language that they are learning. Language teachers are,therefore, challenged to use creative and innovative attempts to teach grammar so that such a goal can successfully be achieved. In other words, whatever exercises are given, the most crucial thing is that the teacher provide the students with an opportunity to be able to produce the grammatical item making use of syntactically and semantically correct examples of sentences comprised of appropriate and relevant vocabulary.

**UNIT EIGHT**

**Learning strategies**

**Introduction**

Language learning strategies have attracted increasing focus as a way of understanding the process of language acquisition. This unit therefore, introduces you to various learning strategies.

**Listening as a way to learn**

Clearly listening is used to learn, but not all language learners employ it consciously. Listening to understand is one level of listening but focused listening is not something that most learners employ as a strategy. Ensure that they appear in context where their meanings are easily understood. Learners’ familiarity with the topic or subject of speech is very important if they are to understand what you are talking about as a teacher. This is why we write the topic and lesson of the day on the board; it is not just for fun.

Understanding is often impeded when we listen to someone speak on an unfamiliar topic. If for example you select a text in the area of Law or Government or Economics or Education, you must make sure that your learners are conversant with the vocabulary and registers and general notions about the particular field of profession. If that is not the case, your learners will have a hard time understanding the text selected. As second language teacher and examiners, we have to ensure that we select Zambian friendly texts and give them to learners to read. This will help them contextualize the difficult words and make meaning within the context and text using textual analysis. Being cruel is bring a passage talking about snow and submarine which does not exist in Zambia and we pretend we have set a comprehension passage, it is time wasting and teachers need to change such manners of punishing instead of teaching.

**The listener’s attitude/interest to the speaker and topic**

Attitude and interest play a vital role in achieving our lives’ goals. Positive attitude and interest will yield positive results. The meaning a listener gets from a speaker depends on the listener’s interest and attitude towards the speaker and what he or she is saying. When we do not show interest to a live lecture or television/radio programme for example, we are likely to miss a lot of what the speaker is saying. As a teacher, you must encourage your learners to listen with interest and pay attention when someone is speaking to them. A useful way of kindling your learners’ interest is by selecting texts they can connect with. Examples are texts on family, social, political economic issues at national and international levels. You must also ensure that the language of the text (vocabulary and registers) is at your learners’ level of understanding. The teacher should tell the learners that listening is a skill which needs development. The learners should ensure that they look the teacher in the eyes, observe the lip movement, gestures and the general body language. This will keep them entertained and make them follow the conversation.

**Types of Listening**

As a teacher, it is important to be aware that there are five types of listening skills:

• Informational Listening: In this type of listening, we listen for the content of the message to get the gist of the message. For example, when we are listening to a lecture in a classroom or being given instruction to carry out.

. Critical /Evaluative Listening: Here, we judge/evaluate the message we received in terms of its worth or whether we agree with the speaker or not. For example, we do this at debates, discussion sessions etc

• Appreciative /Aesthetic Listening*:* This type entails listening for entertainment (enjoyment). For example, listening to music, drama, concerts, poems, entertaining radio and television programmes etc

• Therapeutic/Empathetic Listening*:* Listening to support or encourage others, for example, a sick person, angry person, disturbed/ worried person

• Inferential Listening: We do this when we interpret a speaker’s message beyond what s/he has said.

If you look at all the above types of listening, you will find that they are for academic purposes as well as for personal and social purposes. You must teach your learners to develop the ability to perform these types of listening. This will help them appreciate the school and its goals beyond classroom learning.

**Goals/Purposes of Listening**

Listening skills should be taught not as an end in themselves but as a means for attaining specific communication purposes. Below are listed purposes for listening. You can see that they are closely related to types of listening discussed above. In this section you will learn of different purposes of listening and the activities for teaching learners the skills for attaining these purposes.

The National Curriculum for Junior and Senior Secondary Schools in Zambia has listed the following as goals for teaching listening.

• Listening for main ideas

• Listening to follow directions and to note details and sequence

• Listening to understand a speaker’s purpose, tone and mood

• Listening to the same ideas repeated in different words

• Listening for verbatim recall

• Listening for implied meaning

• Listening for critical evaluation in order to express one’s opinion or to judge

The teacher should strive to teach these skills so that the learners are well vested with the language and its skills. It should be realized that the skills are also applicable in the second and other languages. Other important purposes for listening are: 15

• Listening in a conversational interchange

• Listening during group discussions

• Listening to identify another viewpoint

• Listening to radio and television programmes

• Listening to someone speak over the phone

• Listening for a sequence of ideas or plot of a story

• Listening to anticipate an outcome

• Listening for exact statements of a speaker

• Listening to identify lexical and grammatical errors

• Listening to distinguish facts from fiction

• Listening for appreciation and pleasure

• Listening for new vocabulary/words

• Listening to recognize relationships expressed or implied

• Listening to learn various subject matter areas

The above list of purposes may seem too many to you, but these are essentially the purposes or reasons why anybody would want to listen. It takes some learning and practice to acquire skills for these purposes, whether in our mother-tongue or in another language. In the case of English as a second language, learners at various school levels should be taught how to acquire and use these the skills needed to attain the above purposes.

**Reading as a way to learn**

Many people read to understand but the strategy of reading text to learn grammar and discourse styles can also be employed

**Speaking as a way to learn**

Alongside listening and reading exercises, practicing conversation skills is an important aspect of [language acquisition](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_acquisition). Language learners can gain experience in speaking foreign languages through in-person language classes, language meet-ups, university language exchange programs, joining online language learning communities (e.g. [Conversation Exchange](https://www.conversationexchange.com/) and [Tandem](https://www.tandem.net/)), and traveling to a country where the language is spoken.

**Learning vocabulary**

Translation and rote memorization have been the two strategies that have been employed traditionally. There are other strategies that also can be used such as guessing, based on looking for contextual clues, spaced repetition with a use of various apps, games and tools (e.g. [DuoLingo](http://www.duolingo.com), [LingoMonkey](http://www.LingoMonkey.com) and [Vocabulary Stickers](http://www.vocabularystickers.com)). Knowledge about how the brain works can be utilized in creating strategies for how to remember words.

**Learning Esperanto**

Esperanto, the most widely used international auxiliary language, is founded by [L. L. Zamenhof](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/L._L._Zamenhof), a Polish-Jewish ophthalmologist, in 1887, aimed to eliminate language barriers in the international contacts. Esperanto is an artificial language created on the basis of the [Indo-European languages](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Indo-European_languages), absorbing the reasonable factors of commonality of the [Germanic languages](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Germanic_languages). Esperanto is completely consistent in its speech and writing. The stress of every word is fixed on the penultimate syllable. By learning twenty-eight letters and mastering the phonetic rules, one can read and write any words. With further simplification and standardization, Esperanto becomes more easily to master than other languages. Ease of learning helps one build the confidence and learning Esperanto, as a learning strategy, constitutes a good introduction to foreign language study.

**Teaching strategies**

**Blended learning**

Blended learning combines face-to-face teaching with distance education, frequently electronic, either computer-based or web-based. It has been a major growth point in the ELT (English Language Teaching) industry over the last ten years

Some people, though, use the phrase 'Blended Learning' to refer to learning taking place while the focus is on other activities. For example, playing a card game that requires calling for cards may allow blended learning of numbers (1 to 10).

**Skill teaching**

When talking about language skills, the four basic ones are: listening, speaking, reading and writing. However, other, more socially based skills have been identified more recently such as summarizing, describing, narrating etc. In addition, more general learning skills such as study skills and knowing how one learns have been applied to language classrooms.

In the 1970s and 1980s, the four basic skills were generally taught in isolation in a very rigid order, such as listening before speaking. However, since then, it has been recognized that we generally use more than one skill at a time, leading to more integrated exercises. Speaking is a skill that often is underrepresented in the traditional classroom. This is due to the fact that it is considered harder to teach and test. There are numerous texts on teaching and testing writing but relatively few on speaking.

More recent textbooks stress the importance of students working with other students in pairs and groups, sometimes the entire class. Pair and group work give opportunities for more students to participate more actively. However, supervision of pairs and groups is important to make sure everyone participates as equally as possible. Such activities also provide opportunities for peer teaching, where weaker learners can find support from stronger classmates.

**Sandwich technique**

In [foreign language teaching](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Second_language_acquisition), the sandwich technique is the oral insertion of an [idiomatic translation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Idiom) in the [mother tongue](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mother_tongue) between an unknown phrase in the [learned language](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Second_language) and its repetition, in order to convey meaning as rapidly and completely as possible. The mother tongue equivalent can be given almost as an aside, with a slight break in the flow of speech to mark it as an intruder.

When modeling a dialogue sentence for students to repeat, the teacher not only gives an oral mother tongue equivalent for unknown words or phrases, but repeats the foreign language phrase before students imitate it: L2 => L1 => L2. For example, a [German](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/German_language) teacher of [English](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/English_language) might engage in the following exchange with the students:

Teacher: "Let me try – lass mich versuchen – let me try."

Students: "Let me try."

**Mother tongue mirroring**

Mother tongue mirroring is the adaptation of the time-honoured technique of [literal translation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Literal_translation) or word-for word translation for pedagogical purposes. The aim is to make foreign constructions salient and transparent to learners and, in many cases, spare them the technical jargon of grammatical analysis. It differs from [literal translation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Literal_translation) and [interlinear text](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Interlinear_text) as used in the past since it takes the progress learners have made into account and only focuses upon a specific structure at a time. As a didactic device, it can only be used to the extent that it remains intelligible to the learner, unless it is combined with a normal idiomatic translation. This technique is seldom referred to or used these days.

**Back-chaining**

Back-chaining is a technique used in teaching oral language skills, especially with [polysyllabic](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Polysyllabic) or difficult words. The teacher pronounces the last syllable, the student repeats, and then the teacher continues, working backwards from the end of the word to the beginning.

For example, to teach the name ‘[Mussorgsky](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Modest_Mussorgsky)' a teacher will pronounce the last syllable: *-sky,* and have the student repeat it. Then the teacher will repeat it with *-sorg-* attached before: *-sorg-sky,* and all that remains is the first syllable: *Mus-sorg-sky.*

**Code Switching**

Code switching is a special linguistic phenomenon that the speaker consciously alternates two or more languages according to different time, places, contents, objects and other factors. Code switching shows its functions while one is in the environment that mother tongue are not playing a dominant role in students' life and study, such as the children in the bilingual family or in the immigrant family. That is to say, the capability of using code switching, relating to the transformation of phonetics, words, language structure, expression mode, thinking mode, cultural differences and so on, is needed to be guided and developed in the daily communication environment. Most people learn foreign language in the circumstance filled with the using of their native language so that their ability of code switching cannot be stimulated, and thus the efficiency of foreign language acquisition would decrease. Therefore, as a teaching strategy, code switching is used to help students better gain conceptual competences and to provide rich semantic context for them to understand some specific vocabularies.

**UNIT NINE**

1. **TEACHING OF MAJOR COMPONENTS IN LOCAL LANGUAGES**

**Introduction**

This unit introduces you students to the teaching of major components in local languages, such as; comprehension, composition, summary, translation etc.

* 1. **TEACHING OF COMPRENHENTION IN LOCAL LANGUAGE**
* Consider the length of the passage
* Consider the level of vocabulary used in the passage
* Ask general questions about the passage
* Let learners read silently and identify difficulty vocabulary
* Discuss those difficult words, give learners chance first to try
* Read the passage loudly as a teacher
* Give then an exercise
* Mark the exercise as a teacher
* Discuss both correct and wrong answers given by learners
* Materials are very few in Zambian languages, hence you can look for passages in text books, story books, magazines, past examination papers, and you can compose as a teacher
* Teach comprehension and do not merely test learners.
* Problems of teaching reading comprehension in Zambian languages
* Teaching and testing reading comprehension
* Comprehension skills
* Types of reading comprehension questions
* Comprehension teaching method
* Comprehension Strategies
* **Conclusion**
* Reading is a receptive skill and there are various types for different purposes. Knowing what each of the different types of reading entails and when to use them will help you make better choices with your learners.
  1. **THE TEACHING OF SUMMARY IN LOCAL LANGUAGES**
* A summary is a shortened way of presenting information, an idea or messages
* It is done in everyday life, when reporting events such as church services, sporting activities. We do not say or write everything
* We only extract what is relevant
* Summary activities may be spoken or written
* A spoken summary is the shortening of spoken information
* Written summary is the shortening of written information. Examples : Advertisements, note taking and note marking, and short message service (SMS)

9.3 **FORMS OF SUMMARY**

* Oral-Oral: a passage is in oral form and a summary is to be in oral form
* Written-written: a passage is written and a summary is to be written
* Written-oral: a passage is written but a summary is to be oral
* Oral- written: a passage is oral but a summary is to be written

**9.4 SKILLS INVOLVED IN SUMMARY**

* A summary is a combination of comprehension and composition
* You need to comprehend the passage, in order to summarize it
* You need to be concise
* Be clear
* Organize material so that it is easily seen, understood, remembered and referred to.
* Teach specific skills and relate them to life situations
* Avoid marking the summary lessons artificial and inadequate

**9.5 OTHER IMPORTANT SUMMARY SKILLS**

* Selection of main points
* Minimizing redundancies (unnecessary repetition and extra information)
* Identifying titles, subtitles, examples, introductions and conclusions
* Connecting related points
* Awareness of time sequence
* Tabulation so that it is seen and understood
* Note making and note taking
* Understanding the question and type of summary ( prose or note summary)

**9.6 THE PROCEDURE FOR TEACHING OF SUMMARY IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL**

## ****What**** ****Is**** ****Summarizing?****

Summarizing is how we take larger selections of text and reduce them to their bare essentials: the gist, the key ideas, the main points that are worth noting and remembering.

Webster Dictionary defines a summary as the “general idea in a brief form”. It’s the condensation, or reduction of a larger work into its primary notions.

## ****What**** ****Are**** ****We**** ****Doing**** ****When**** ****We**** ****Summarize?****

We strip away the extra verbiage and extraneous examples. We focus on the heart of the matter. We try to find the keywords and phrases that express the gist of what we’ve read. We are trying to capture the main ideas and the crucial details that are necessary for supporting them.

## ****How**** ****to Teach**** ****Your**** learners ****to**** ****Summarize?****

1. Take articles from the newspaper, and cut off their headlines. Have students practice writing headlines for (or matching the severed headlines to) the “headless” stories.
2. Take one article from the newspaper and ask students to use the keywords or phrases to identify only Who, What, When, Where, Why, and How.
3. Give the students a piece of paper including a reading text and ask them to read the text.
4. After reading the text, ask students to turn the sheet over and attempt to create a summary paragraph of what they can remember of the key ideas in the text.
5. Ask students to go back and forth between the summary they write and the reading text several times until they capture the important ideas from the text
6. Have students write successively shorter summaries, constantly refining and reducing their written piece until only the most essential and relevant information remains.
7. Encourage students to start off with half a page; then try to get it down to two paragraphs; then one paragraph; then two or three sentences; and ultimately a single sentence.

## ****To Sum**** ****It**** ****Up****

You should have your students imagine they are placing a classified ad or sending a telegram, where every word used costs them money. You can adjust the amount they have to spend, and therefore the length of the summary, according to the text they are summarizing.

**9.7 THE TEACHING OF TRANSLATION**

**Types of Translation**

* Roman Jakobson in his 1959 work On Linguistic Works of Translation states that there are 3 types of translation:

1) intralingual - rewording or paraphrasing, summarizing, expanding or commenting within a language;

2) interlingual - the traditional concept of translation from ST to TT or the "shifting of meaning from one language to another";

3) intersemiotic - the changing of a written text into a different form, such as art or dance.

* As translators, we deal with the following types of translation:
* 1- Word-For-Word Translation; i.e., Scientific Translation: Transferring the meaning of each individual word in a text to another, equivalent word in the target language. Sometimes called 'Literal Translation'. While this is clearly appropriate for dictionaries, it can produce very for complex passages of text. Hence, legal translation falls into this category.

3. Literary translation: Translation of literary works (novels, short stories, plays, poems, etc.) is considered a literary pursuit in its own right.

4. Free Translation: Translating loosely from the original. Contrasted with word for word or literal translation, this may be the best method depending on the most appropriate unit of translation involved. I personally would incorporate journalistic translation under this type because it contains editing, rewriting and combing different sources of the same news item into one story.

5. Descriptive translation: One must bear in mind that it is the notional meaning of the source language unit and not always its morphological nature or structural form that is to be rendered in the target language. As a result, the target language unit, which equivalently/faithfully conveys the denotative/connotative meaning of the corresponding source language unit may not necessarily belong to the same language stratification level. Depending on the notion expressed by the source language word/lexeme, it may be conveyed in the target language sometimes through a word-combination or even through a sentence, i.e., descriptively. Descriptive translating/interpreting is very often employed to render the sense/meaning of idioms/phraseologisms, which have no equivalents in the target language. Descriptive translation is also employed in foot-notes to explain obscure places in narration.

6. Antonymic translation is employed for the sake of achieving faithfulness in conveying content or the necessary expressiveness of sense units. It represents a way of rendering when an affirmative in structure language unit (word, word-combination or sentence) is conveyed via a negative in sense or structure but identical in content language unit, or vice versa: a negative in sense or structure sense unit is translated via an affirmative sense unit.

* The antonymic device is employed in the following cases: a) when in the target language there is no direct equivalent for the sense unit of the source language; b) when the sense unit of the source language has two negations of its own which create an affirmation; c) in order to achieve the necessary expressiveness in narration; d) in order to avoid the use of the same or identical structures close to each other in a text (stylistic aim and means).

7. Back-translation: If one text is a translation of another, a back-translation is a translation of the translated text back into the language of the original text, made without reference to the original text. In the context of machine translation, this is also called a "round-trip translation." Comparison of a back-translation to the original text is sometimes used as a quality check on the original translation, but it is certainly far from infallible and the reliability of this technique has been disputed.

8. Machine Translation: Machine translation (MT) is automatic translation, in which a computer takes over all the work of translating. Obviously, a computer will work much faster (and is cheaper) than a human being. It can be a useful method if the purpose of the translation is a limited one; for example, to gain a rough idea of what a text contains ('gisting') and/or to process large numbers of documents very rapidly.

* MT works best on highly repetitive texts, involving a restricted range of vocabulary. Typically, these are highly intricate scientific or technical texts. It does less well on more general or varied texts, and those involving a high degree of abstraction, and with these often yields useless results. The problem here is that it fails to cope with speech acts.
* Even on repetitive texts, the finished output often needs to be checked to by a human translator, and varying degrees of post-editing might be necessary.
* Another factor is the source language - target language pair. MT works best also where languages are of a similar type (isolating: English - Spanish) or related (German - English) or closely related (Norwegian - Danish). At the time of writing, the obvious advantage of using MT to translate from one dialect to another in the same language (e.g. US English - British English) seems to have been overlooked but, using the same logic, it should work well on this.

9. CAT: Computer-assisted translation (CAT), also called "computer-aided translation," "machine-aided human translation (МАНТ)" and "interactive translation," is a form of translation wherein a human translator creates a target text with the assistance of a computer program. The machine supports a human translator.

* Computer-assisted translation can include standard dictionary and grammar software. The term, however, normally refers to a range of specialized programs available to the translator, including translation-memory, terminology-management, concordance, and alignment programs.
* With the internet, translation software can help non-native-speaking individuals understand web pages published in other languages. Whole-page translation tools are of limited utility, however, since they offer only a limited potential understanding of the original author's intent and context; translated pages tend to be more humorous and confusing than enlightening.
* Interactive translations with pop-up windows are becoming more popular. These tools show several possible translations of each word or phrase. Human operators merely need to select the correct translation as the mouse glides over the foreign-language text. Possible definitions can be grouped by pronunciation.

10. Pseudo-translation is a technique needed for pseudolocalization that is used in software localization. In contrast to the usual translation process it is the process of creating text that mimics a foreign language without the goal of expressing the source text meaning in the target language.

* One approach to pseudo-translation involves the addition of special characters typical for the locale of the target language (for example a diacritical mark like a German Umlaut 'a'), as well as changing the number of characters belonging to the text. In that approach, the text is pseudo-translated in a way that allows to recognize the original source text. Another pseudo-translation solution involves the use of machine translation technology, which not only generates the necessary special characters but also gives developers a good indication of the length of a string in a particular target language.
* Pseudo-translation precedes the actual translation in the software development process. Its purpose is to test that the software is prepared for translation.
* Top of Form
* Bottom of Form
* **Source and target language**

Translation is the communication of the [**meaning**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Meaning_(linguistic)) of a [**source language**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Translation#source_and_target_languages) text by means of an [**equivalent**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dynamic_and_formal_equivalence) [**target language**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Translation#source_and_target_languages) text. The English language draws a [**terminological**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Terminology) distinction (which does not exist in every language) between translating (a written text) and [**interpreting**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_interpretation) (oral or [**signed**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sign_language) communication between users of different languages); under this distinction, translation can begin only after the appearance of [**writing**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Writing) within a language community.

A translator always risks inadvertently introducing source language words, [**grammar**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Grammar), or [**syntax**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Syntax) into the target language rendering. On the other hand, such "spill-overs" have sometimes imported useful source language [**calques**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Calque) and [**loanwords**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Loanword) that have enriched target languages. Translators, including early translators of [**sacred texts**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sacred_text), have helped shape the very languages into which they have translated.

Because of the laboriousness of the translation process, since the 1940s efforts have been made, with varying degrees of success, to [**automate translation**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Machine_translation) or to [**mechanically aid the human translator**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Computer-assisted_translation). More recently, the rise of the [**Internet**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Internet) has fostered a [**world-wide market**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World-wide_market) for [**translation services**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Translation_services) and has facilitated "[**language localization**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_localization)".

The [English](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/English_language) word "translation" derives from the [Latin](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Latin) word *translatio*, which comes from [*trans*](https://en.wiktionary.org/wiki/trans#Latin), "across" + [*ferre*](https://en.wiktionary.org/wiki/fero#Latin), "to carry" or "to bring" (*-latio* in turn coming from *latus*, the [past participle](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Past_participle) of *ferre*). Thus *translatio* is "a carrying across" or "a bringing across" – in this case, of a text from one language to another.

Some [Slavic languages](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Slavic_languages) and the [Germanic languages](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Germanic_languages) (other than [Dutch](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dutch_language) and [Afrikaans](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Afrikaans)) have [calqued](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Calque#Loan_translation:_''translātiō''_and_''trāductiō'') their words for the [concept](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Concept) of "translation" on *translatio*, substituting their respective Slavic or Germanic root words for the Latin roots. The remaining Slavic languages instead calqued their words for "translation" from an alternative Latin word, *trāductiō*, itself derived from [*trādūcō*](https://en.wiktionary.org/wiki/traduco#Latin) ("to lead across" or "to bring across") from *trans* ("across") + [*dūcō*](https://en.wiktionary.org/wiki/duco#Latin), ("to lead" or "to bring").

The [West](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/West_Slavic_languages) and [East Slavic languages](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/East_Slavic_languages) (except for [Russian](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Russian_language)) adopted the *translātiō* pattern, whereas Russian and the [South Slavic languages](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/South_Slavic_languages) adopted the *trāductiō* pattern. The [Romance languages](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Romance_language), deriving directly from Latin, did not need to *calque* their equivalent words for "translation"; instead, they simply adapted the second of the two alternative Latin words, *trāductiō*.,

The [Ancient Greek](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ancient_Greek_language) term for "translation", μετάφρασις (*metaphrasis*, "a speaking across"), has supplied English with "[metaphrase](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Metaphrase)" (a "[literal](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Literal_translation)", or "word-for-word", translation) as contrasted with "[paraphrase](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Paraphrase)" ("a saying in other words", from παράφρασις, *paraphrasis*). "Metaphrase" corresponds, in one of the more recent terminologies, to "[formal equivalence](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Translation#Equivalence)"; and "paraphrase", to "[dynamic equivalence](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Translation#Equivalence)".

Strictly speaking, the concept of metaphrase of "word-for-word translation"—is an [imperfect](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Perfection) concept, because a given word in a given language often carries more than one meaning; and because a similar given meaning may often be represented in a given language by more than one word. Nevertheless, "metaphrase" and "paraphrase" may be useful as *ideal* concepts that mark the extremes in the spectrum of possible approaches to translation.

Discussions of the theory and practice of translation reach back into [antiquity](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ancient_history) and show remarkable continuities. The [ancient Greeks](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ancient_Greece) distinguished between *metaphrase* (literal translation) and *paraphrase*. This distinction was adopted by English poet and translator [John Dryden](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/John_Dryden) (1631–1700), who described translation as the judicious blending of these two modes of phrasing when selecting, in the target language, "counterparts," or [equivalents](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dynamic_and_formal_equivalence), for the expressions used in the source language:

When [words] appear... literally graceful, it were an injury to the author that they should be changed. But since... what is beautiful in one [language] is often barbarous, nay sometimes nonsense, in another, it would be unreasonable to limit a translator to the narrow compass of his author's words: 'tis enough if he choose out some expression which does not vitiate the sense.

Dryden cautioned, however, against the license of "imitation", i.e., of adapted translation: "When a painter copies from the life... he has no privilege to alter features and lineaments..."

This general formulation of the central concept of translation [equivalence](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dynamic_and_formal_equivalence) is as adequate as any that has been proposed since [Cicero](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cicero) and [Horace](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Horace), who, in 1st-century-BCE [Rome](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ancient_Rome), famously and literally cautioned against translating "word for word" (*verbum pro verbo*).

Despite occasional theoretical diversity, the actual *practice* of translation has hardly changed since antiquity. Except for some extreme metaphrasers in the early Christian period and the [Middle Ages](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Middle_Ages), and adapters in various periods (especially pre-Classical Rome, and the 18th century), translators have generally shown prudent flexibility in seeking [equivalents](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dynamic_and_formal_equivalence) "literal" where possible, paraphrastic where necessary for the original [meaning](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Meaning_(linguistics)) and other crucial "values" (e.g., [style](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Style_(fiction)), [verse form](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Verse_form), concordance with musical accompaniment or, in films, with speech [articulatory](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Manner_of_articulation) movements) as determined from context.

In general, translators have sought to preserve the [context](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Context_(language_use)) itself by reproducing the original order of [sememes](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sememe), and hence [word order](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Word_order) when necessary, reinterpreting the actual [grammatical](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Grammar) structure, for example, by shifting from [active](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Active_voice) to [passive voice](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Passive_voice), or *vice versa*. The grammatical differences between "fixed-word-order" [languages](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language) (e.g. English, [French](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/French_language), [German](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/German_language)) and "free-word-order" languages (e.g., [Greek](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Greek_language), Latin, [Polish](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Polish_language), [Russian](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Russian_language)) have been no impediment in this regard. The particular syntax (sentence-structure) characteristics of a text's source language are adjusted to the syntactic requirements of the target language.

When a target language has lacked [terms](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Terminology) that are found in a source language, translators have borrowed those terms, thereby enriching the target language. Thanks in great measure to the exchange of calques and [loanwords](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Loanword) between languages, and to their importation from other languages, there are few [concepts](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Concept) that are "[untranslatable](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Untranslatability)" among the modern European languages. A greater problem, however, is translating terms relating to cultural concepts that have no equivalent in the target language. For full comprehension, such situations require the provision of a [gloss](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gloss_(annotation)#In_linguistics).

Generally, the greater the contact and exchange that have existed between two languages, or between those languages and a third one, the greater is the ratio of [metaphrase](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Metaphrase) to [paraphrase](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Paraphrase) that may be used in translating among them. However, due to shifts in [ecological niches](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ecological_niche) of words, a common [etymology](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Etymology) is sometimes misleading as a guide to current meaning in one or the other language. For example, the English *actual* should not be confused with the [cognate](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cognate) French *actuel* ("present", "current"), the Polish *aktualny* ("present", "current," "topical", "timely", "feasible"), the Swedish *aktuell* ("topical", "presently of importance"), the Russian актуальный ("urgent", "topical") or the Dutch *actueel* ("current").

The translator's role as a bridge for "carrying across" values between cultures has been discussed at least since [Terence](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Terence), the 2nd-century-BCE Roman adapter of Greek comedies. The translator's role is, however, by no means a passive, mechanical one, and so has also been compared to that of an [artist](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Artist). The main ground seems to be the concept of parallel creation found in critics such as [Cicero](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cicero). Dryden observed that "Translation is a type of drawing after life..." Comparison of the translator with a musician or actor goes back at least to [Samuel Johnson](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Samuel_Johnson)'s remark about [Alexander Pope](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Alexander_Pope) playing [Homer](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Homer) on a [flageolet](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Flageolet), while Homer himself used a [bassoon](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bassoon).

If translation be an art, it is no easy one. In the 13th century, [Roger Bacon](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Roger_Bacon) wrote that if a translation is to be true, the translator must know both [languages](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language), as well as the [science](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Science) that he is to translate; and finding that few translators did, he wanted to do away with translation and translators altogether.

The translator of the Bible into German, [Martin Luther](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Martin_Luther) (1483–1546), is credited with being the first European to posit that one translates satisfactorily only toward his own language. L.G. Kelly states that since [Johann Gottfried Herder](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Johann_Gottfried_Herder) in the 18th century, "it has been axiomatic" that one translates only toward his own language.

Compounding the demands on the translator is the fact that no [dictionary](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dictionary) or [thesaurus](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Thesaurus) can ever be a fully adequate guide in translating. The Scottish historian [Alexander Tytler](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Alexander_Fraser_Tytler,_Lord_Woodhouselee), in his *Essay on the Principles of Translation* (1790), emphasized that assiduous reading is a more comprehensive guide to a language than are dictionaries. The same point, but also including listening to the [*spoken* language](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Spoken_language), had earlier, in 1783, been made by the Polish poet and [grammarian](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Grammar) [Onufry Kopczyński](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Onufry_Kopczy%C5%84ski).

The translator's special role in society is described in a posthumous 1803 essay by "Poland's [La Fontaine](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/La_Fontaine)", the Roman Catholic [Primate of Poland](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Primate_of_Poland), poet, [encyclopedist](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Encyclopedia), [author](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Novelist) of the first Polish novel, and translator from French and Greek, [Ignacy Krasicki](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ignacy_Krasicki):

[T]ranslation... is in fact an art both estimable and very difficult, and therefore is not the labor and portion of common minds; [it] should be [practiced] by those who are themselves capable of being actors, when they see greater use in translating the works of others than in their own works, and hold higher than their own glory the service that they render their country.

### Other traditions

Due to [Western colonialism](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Western_colonialism) and cultural dominance in recent centuries, Western translation traditions have largely replaced other traditions. The Western traditions draw on both ancient and medieval traditions, and on more recent European innovations.

Though earlier approaches to translation are less commonly used today, they retain importance when dealing with their products, as when historians view ancient or medieval records to piece together events which took place in non-Western or pre-Western environments. Also, though heavily influenced by Western traditions and practiced by translators taught in Western-style educational systems, Chinese and related translation traditions retain some theories and philosophies unique to the Chinese tradition.

Once the untranslatables have been set aside, the problems for a translator, especially of Chinese poetry, are two: What does the translator think the poetic line says? And once he thinks he understands it, how can he render it into the target language? Most of the difficulties, according to Link, arise in addressing the second problem, "where the impossibility of perfect answers spawns endless debate." Almost always at the center is the letter-versus-spirit [dilemma](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dilemma). At the literalist extreme, efforts are made to dissect every conceivable detail about the language of the original Chinese poem. "The dissection, though," writes Link, "normally does to the art of a poem approximately what the [scalpel](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Scalpel) of an [anatomy](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Anatomy) instructor does to the life of a frog."

Chinese [verbs](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Verb) are [tense](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Grammatical_tense)-less: there are several ways to specify when something happened or will happen, but [verb tense](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Verb_tense) is not one of them. For poets, this creates the great advantage of [ambiguity](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ambiguity). According to Link, Weinberger's insight about subjectlessness that it produces an effect "both universal and immediate" applies to timelessness as well.

Link proposes a kind of uncertainty principle that may be applicable not only to translation from the Chinese language, but to all translation:

Dilemmas about translation do not have definitive right answers (although there can be unambiguously wrong ones if misreadings of the original are involved). Any translation (except machine translation, a different case) must pass through the mind of a translator, and that mind inevitably contains its own store of perceptions, memories, and values. Weinberger [...] pushes this insight further when he writes that "every reading of every poem, regardless of language, is an act of translation: translation into the reader's intellectual and emotional life." Then he goes still further: because a reader's mental life shifts over time, there is a sense in which "the same poem cannot be read twice."

#### Islamic world

Translation of material into [Arabic](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Arabic_language) expanded after the creation of [Arabic script](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Arabic_script) in the 5th century, and gained great importance with the rise of [Islam](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Islam) and Islamic empires. Arab translation initially focused primarily on politics, rendering Persian, Greek, even Chinese and Indic diplomatic materials into Arabic. It later focused on translating classical Greek and Persian works, as well as some Chinese and Indian texts, into Arabic for scholarly study at major Islamic learning centers, such as the [Al-Karaouine](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Madrasah_of_Al-Karaouine) ([Fes](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fes), [Morocco](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Morocco)), [Al-Azhar](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Al-Azhar_Madrasah) ([Cairo](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cairo), [Egypt](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Egypt)), and the [Al-Nizamiyya of Baghdad](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Al-Nizamiyya_of_Baghdad). In terms of theory, Arabic translation drew heavily on earlier Near Eastern traditions as well as more contemporary Greek and Persian traditions.

Arabic translation efforts and techniques are important to Western translation traditions due to centuries of close contacts and exchanges. Especially after the [Renaissance](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Renaissance), Europeans began more intensive study of Arabic and Persian translations of classical works as well as scientific and philosophical works of Arab and oriental origins. Arabic, and to a lesser degree Persian, became important sources of material and perhaps of techniques for revitalized Western traditions, which in time would overtake the Islamic and oriental traditions.

In the 19th century, after the [Middle East](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Middle_East)'s [Islamic](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Islam) clerics and copyists

had conceded defeat in their centuries-old battle to contain the corrupting effects of the [printing press](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Printing_press), [an] explosion in publishing ... ensued. Along with expanding secular education, printing transformed an overwhelmingly illiterate society into a partly literate one.

In the past, the [sheikhs](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sheikh) and the government had exercised a monopoly over knowledge. Now an expanding elite benefitted from a stream of information on virtually anything that interested them. Between 1880 and 1908... more than six hundred newspapers and periodicals were founded in Egypt alone.

The most prominent among them was *al-Muqtataf* ... [It] was the popular expression of a **translation movement** that had begun earlier in the century with military and medical manuals and highlights from the [Enlightenment](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Age_of_Enlightenment) canon. ([Montesquieu](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Montesquieu)'s *Considerations on the Romans* and [Fénelon](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/F%C3%A9nelon)'s *Telemachus* had been favorites.)

A translator who contributed mightily to the advance of the Islamic Enlightenment was the Egyptian cleric Rifaa al-Tahtawi (1801–73), who had spent five years in Paris in the late 1820s, teaching religion to Muslim students. After returning to Cairo with the encouragement of [Muhammad Ali](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Muhammad_Ali_of_Egypt) (1769–1849), the [Ottoman](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ottoman_Empire) viceroy of Egypt, al Tahtawi became head of the new school of languages and embarked on an intellectual revolution by initiating a program to translate some two thousand European and Turkish volumes, ranging from ancient texts on geography and geometry to [Voltaire](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Voltaire)'s biography of [Peter the Great](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Peter_the_Great), along with the [*Marseillaise*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Marseillaise) and the entire [*Code Napoléon*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Code_Napol%C3%A9on). This was the biggest, most meaningful importation of foreign thought into Arabic since [Abbasid](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Abbasid) times (750–1258).

In France al-Tahtawi had been struck by the way the French language... was constantly renewing itself to fit modern ways of living. Yet [Arabic](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Arabic) has its own sources of reinvention. The root system that Arabic shares with other [Semitic](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Semitic_languages) tongues such as Hebrew is capable of expanding the meanings of words using structured [consonantal](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Consonant) variations: the word for airplane, for example, has the same root as the word for bird.

The movement to translate English and European texts transformed the Arabic and [Ottoman](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ottoman_Turkey) [Turkish](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Turkish_language) languages, and new words, simplified syntax, and directness came to be valued over the previous convolutions. Educated Arabs and Turks in the new professions and the modernized [civil service](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Civil_service) expressed [skepticism](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Skepticism), writes [Christopher de Bellaigue](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Christopher_de_Bellaigue), "with a freedom that is rarely witnessed today ... No longer was legitimate knowledge defined by texts in the religious schools, interpreted for the most part with stultifying literalness. It had come to include virtually any intellectual production anywhere in the world." One of the [neologisms](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Neologisms) that, in a way, came to characterize the infusion of new ideas via translation was *"darwiniya"*, or "[Darwinism](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Darwinism)".

One of the most influential liberal Islamic thinkers of the time was [Muhammad Abduh](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Muhammad_Abduh) (1849–1905), Egypt's senior judicial authority its chief [mufti](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mufti) at the turn of the 20th century and an admirer of [Darwin](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Charles_Darwin) who in 1903 visited Darwin's exponent [Herbert Spencer](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Herbert_Spencer) at his home in [Brighton](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Brighton). Spencer's view of [society as an organism](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_organism) with its own laws of evolution paralleled Abduh's ideas.

After [World War I](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World_War_I), when Britain and France divided up the Middle East's countries, apart from Turkey, between them, pursuant to the [Sykes-Picot agreement](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sykes-Picot_agreement) in violation of solemn wartime promises of postwar Arab autonomy there came an immediate reaction: the [Muslim Brotherhood](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Muslim_Brotherhood) emerged in Egypt, the [House of Saud](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/House_of_Saud) took over the [Hijaz](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hijaz), and regimes led by army officers came to power in [Iran](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Iran) and Turkey. "[B]oth illiberal currents of the modern Middle East," writes [de Bellaigue](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Christopher_de_Bellaigue), "Islamism and militarism, received a major impetus from Western [empire-builders](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Imperialism)."As often happens in countries undergoing social crisis, the aspirations of the Muslim world's translators and modernizers, such as Muhammad Abduh, largely had to yield to retrograde currents.

## Fidelity and transparency in translation

[Fidelity](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fidelity) (or "faithfulness") and felicity (or [transparency](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Transparency_(linguistic))), dual ideals in translation, are often (though not always) at odds. A 17th-century French critic coined the phrase "*les belles infidèles*" to suggest that translations can be either faithful or beautiful, but not both. [Fidelity](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fidelity) is the extent to which a translation accurately renders the meaning of the [source text](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Source_text), without distortion. [Transparency](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Transparency_(linguistic)) is the extent to which a translation appears to a native speaker of the target language to have originally been written in that language, and conforms to its grammar, syntax and idiom. John Dryden (1631–1700) wrote in his preface to the translation anthology *Sylvae*:

Where I have taken away some of [the original authors'] Expressions, and cut them shorter, it may possibly be on this consideration, that what was beautiful in the Greek or Latin, would not appear so shining in the English; and where I have enlarg'd them, I desire the false Criticks would not always think that those thoughts are wholly mine, but that either they are secretly in the Poet, or may be fairly deduc'd from him; or at least, if both those considerations should fail, that my own is of a piece with his, and that if he were living, and an Englishman, they are such as he would probably have written.

A translation that meets the criterion of fidelity (faithfulness) is said to be "faithful"; a translation that meets the criterion of transparency, "[idiomatic](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Idiomatic)". Depending on the given translation, the two qualities may not be mutually exclusive. The criteria for judging the [fidelity](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fidelity) of a translation vary according to the subject, type and use of the text, its literary qualities, its social or historical context, etc. The criteria for judging the [transparency](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Transparency_(linguistic)) of a translation appear more straightforward: an unidiomatic translation "sounds wrong"; and, in the extreme case of word-for-word translations generated by many [machine-translation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Machine_translation) systems, often results in patent nonsense

Nevertheless, in certain contexts a translator may consciously seek to produce a literal translation. Translators of literary, religious, or historic texts often adhere as closely as possible to the source text, stretching the limits of the target language to produce an unidiomatic text. Also, a translator may adopt expressions from the source language in order to provide "local color".

While current Western translation practice is dominated by the dual concepts of "fidelity" and "transparency", this has not always been the case. There have been periods, especially in pre-Classical Rome and in the 18th century, when many translators stepped beyond the bounds of translation proper into the realm of [*adaptation*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Adaptation). [Adapted translation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Adapted_translation) retains currency in some non-Western traditions. The [Indian](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/India) epic, the [*Ramayana*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ramayana), appears in many versions in the various [Indian languages](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Languages_of_India), and the stories are different in each. Similar examples are to be found in [medieval Christian](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Medieval_Christianity) literature, which adjusted the text to local customs and mores.

Many non-transparent-translation theories draw on concepts from [German Romanticism](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/German_Romanticism), the most obvious influence being the German theologian and philosopher [Friedrich Schleiermacher](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Friedrich_Schleiermacher). In his seminal lecture "On the Different Methods of Translation" (1813) he distinguished between translation methods that move "the writer toward [the reader]", i.e., [transparency](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Transparency_(linguistic)), and those that move the "reader toward [the author]", i.e., an extreme [fidelity](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fidelity) to the foreignness of the [source text](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Source_text). Schleiermacher favored the latter approach; he was motivated, however, not so much by a desire to embrace the foreign, as by a nationalist desire to oppose France's cultural domination and to promote [German literature](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/German_literature).

In recent decades, prominent advocates of such "non-transparent" translation have included the French scholar [Antoine Berman](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Antoine_Berman), who identified twelve deforming tendencies inherent in most prose translations,[[34]](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Translation#cite_note-37) and the American theorist [Lawrence Venuti](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lawrence_Venuti), who has called on translators to apply "foreignizing" rather than domesticating translation strategies.[[35]](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Translation#cite_note-38)

### Equivalence

The question of fidelity vs. transparency has also been formulated in terms of, respectively, "*formal* equivalence" and "*dynamic* [or *functional*] equivalence" – expressions associated with the translator Eugene Nida and originally coined to describe ways of translating the Bible; but the two approaches are applicable to any translation. "Formal equivalence" corresponds to "metaphrase", and "dynamic equivalence" to "paraphrase". "Formal equivalence" (sought via "literal" translation) attempts to render the text literally, or "word for word" (the latter expression being itself a word-for-word rendering of the classical Latin *verbum pro verbo*) – if necessary, at the expense of features natural to the target language. By contrast, "dynamic equivalence" (or "*functional* equivalence") conveys the essential thoughts expressed in a source text—if necessary, at the expense of literality, original sememe and word order, the source text's active vs. passive voice, etc.

There is, however, no sharp boundary between formal and functional equivalence. On the contrary, they represent a spectrum of translation approaches. Each is used at various times and in various contexts by the same translator, and at various points within the same text – sometimes simultaneously. Competent translation entails the judicious blending of formal and functional equivalents.

Common pitfalls in translation, especially when practiced by inexperienced translators, involve false equivalents such as "false friends" and false cognates.

### Back-translation

A "back-translation" is a translation of a translated text back into the language of the original text, made without reference to the original text. Comparison of a back-translation with the original text is sometimes used as a check on the accuracy of the original translation, much as the accuracy of a mathematical operation is sometimes checked by reversing the operation. But the results of such reverse-translation operations, while useful as approximate checks, are not always precisely reliable. Back-translation must in general be less accurate than back-calculation because linguistic symbols (words) are often ambiguous, whereas mathematical symbols are intentionally unequivocal. In the context of machine translation, a back-translation is also called a "round-trip translation." When translations are produced of material used in medical clinical trials, such as informed-consent forms, a back-translation is often required by the ethics committee or institutional review board.

Mark Twain provided humorously telling evidence for the frequent unreliability of back-translation when he issued his own back-translation of a French translation of his short story, "The Celebrated Jumping Frog of Calaveras County". He published his back-translation in a 1903 volume together with his English-language original, the French translation, and a "Private History of the 'Jumping Frog' Story". The latter included a synopsized adaptation of his story that Twain stated had appeared, unattributed to Twain, in a Professor Sidgwick's *Greek Prose Composition* (p. 116) under the title, "The Athenian and the Frog"; the adaptation had for a time been taken for an independent ancient Greek precursor to Twain's "Jumping Frog" story.

When a document survives only in translation, the original having been lost, researchers sometimes undertake back-translation in an effort to reconstruct the original text. An example involves the novel *The Saragossa Manuscript* by the Polish aristocrat Jan Potocki (1761–1815), who wrote the novel in French and anonymously published fragments in 1804 and 1813–14. Portions of the original French-language manuscript were subsequently lost; however, the missing fragments survived in a Polish translation, made by Edmund Chojecki in 1847 from a complete French copy that has since been lost. French-language versions of the complete *Saragossa Manuscript* have since been produced, based on extant French-language fragments and on French-language versions that have been back-translated from Chojecki's Polish version.

Many works by the influential Classical physician Galen survive only in medieval Arabic translation. Some survive only in Renaissance Latin translations from the Arabic, thus at a second remove from the original. To better understand Galen, scholars have attempted back-translation of such works in order to reconstruct the original Greek.

When historians suspect that a document is actually a translation from another language, back-translation into that hypothetical original language can provide supporting evidence by showing that such characteristics as idioms, puns, peculiar grammatical structures, etc., are in fact derived from the original language. For example, the known text of the *Till Eulenspiegel* folk tales is in High German but contains puns that work only when back-translated to Low German. This seems clear evidence that these tales (or at least large portions of them) were originally written in Low German and translated into High German by an over-metaphrastic translator.

Supporters of Aramaic primacy the view that the Christian New Testament or its sources were originally written in the Aramaic language seek to prove their case by showing that difficult passages in the existing Greek text of the New Testament make much more sense when back-translated to Aramaic: that, for example, some incomprehensible references are in fact Aramaic puns that do not work in Greek. Due to similar indications, it is believed that the 2nd century Gnostic Gospel of Judas, which survives only in Coptic, was originally written in Greek.

John Dryden (1631–1700), the dominant English-language literary figure of his age, illustrates, in his use of back-translation, translators' influence on the evolution of languages and literary styles. Dryden is believed to be the first person to posit that English sentences should not end in prepositions because Latin sentences cannot end in prepositions. Dryden created the proscription against "preposition stranding" in 1672 when he objected to Ben Jonson's 1611 phrase, "the bodies that those souls were freighted from", though he did not provide the rationale for his preference. Dryden often translated his writing into Latin, to check whether his writing was concise and elegant, Latin being considered an elegant and long-lived language with which to compare; then he back-translated his writing back to English according to Latin-grammar usage. As Latin does not have sentences ending in prepositions, Dryden may have applied Latin grammar to English, thus forming the controversial rule of no sentence-ending prepositions, subsequently adopted by other writers.

### Source and target languages

In the practice of translation, the **source language** is the language being translated from, while the **target language**, also called the **receptor language**, is the language being translated into. Difficulties in translating can arise from lexical and syntactical differences between the source language and the target language, which differences tend to be greater between two languages belonging to different language families.

Often the source language is the translator's second language, while the target language is the translator's first language. In some geographical settings, however, the source language is the translator's first language because not enough people speak the source language as a second language. For instance, a 2005 survey found that 89% of professional Slovene translators translate into their second language, usually English. In cases where the source language is the translator's first language, the translation process has been referred to by various terms, including "translating into a non-mother tongue", "translating into a second language", "inverse translation", "reverse translation", "service translation", and "translation from A to B".

Translation for specialized or professional fields requires a working knowledge, as well, of the pertinent terminology in the field. For example, translation of a legal text requires not only fluency in the respective languages but also familiarity with the terminology specific to the legal field in each language.

While the form and style of the source language often cannot be reproduced in the target language, the meaning and content can. Linguist Roman Jakobs went so far as to assert that all cognitive experience can be classified and expressed in any living language. Linguist Ghil'ad Zuckermann suggests that the limits are not of translation *per se* but rather of *elegant* translation.

#### Source and target texts

**TARGET LANGUAGE:  The aim of a good translation.  More than just words, the target language includes such things as style, tone, register, nuance, and cultural sensitivity. Technical competency combines with depth of knowledge and feeling to create a good target text.**

The target language is the language we work into and is always the translator’s native language.  The result of years of the linguist’s development in his/her field and specialization, it is more than just ‘input/output’, common in today’s CAT (computer aided translation) industry.

We have found that – no surprise – the best translators are also professional writers, fully aware of the styles, registers, and lexicon available to them as they transfer one language’s content and style into another.

The target languages offered at Spectrum Translation reflect the breadth of backgrounds and specializations of our linguists, translators, editors, and writers.

We’ll always put the best person for the job on your project, taking all of the above factors into consideration.

In translation, a [**source text**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Source_text) (**ST**) is a text written in a given source language which is to be, or has been, translated into another language, while a **target text** (**TT**) is a translated text written in the intended target language, which is the result of a translation from a given source text. According to Jeremy Munday's definition of translation, "the process of translation between two different written languages involves the changing of an original written text (the source text or ST) in the original verbal language (the source language or SL) into a written text (the target text or TT) in a different verbal language (the target language or TL)". The terms 'source text' and 'target text' are preferred over 'original' and 'translation' because they do not have the same positive vs. negative value judgment.

Translation scholars including [Eugene Nida](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Eugene_Nida) and [Peter Newmark](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Peter_Newmark) have represented the different approaches to translation as falling broadly into source-text-oriented or target-text-oriented categories.

## Translators

Competent translators show the following attributes:

* a *very good* knowledge of the language, written and spoken, *from which* they are translating (the source language);
* an *excellent* command of the language *into which* they are translating (the target language);
* familiarity with the subject matter of the text being translated;
* a profound understanding of the [etymological](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Etymological) and [idiomatic](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Idiomatic) correlates between the two languages, including [sociolinguistic register](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Register_(sociolinguistics)) when appropriate; and
* a finely tuned sense of when to *metaphrase* ("translate literally") and when to *paraphrase*, so as to assure true rather than spurious [*equivalents*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Translation#Equivalence) between the source and target language texts.

A competent translator is not only bilingual but [bicultural](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bicultural). A [language](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language) is not merely a collection of [words](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Word) and of rules of [grammar](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Grammar) and syntax for generating [sentences](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sentence_(linguistics)), but also a vast interconnecting system of [connotations](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Connotation) and [cultural](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Culture) references whose mastery, writes [linguist](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Linguist) [Mario Pei](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mario_Pei), "comes close to being a lifetime job." The complexity of the translator's task cannot be overstated; one author suggests that becoming an accomplished translator after having already acquired a good basic knowledge of both languages and cultures may require a minimum of ten years' experience. Viewed in this light, it is a serious misconception to assume that a person who has fair fluency in two languages will, by virtue of that fact alone, be consistently competent to translate between them. [Emily Wilson](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Emily_Wilson_(classicist)), a professor of classical studies at the [University of Pennsylvania](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/University_of_Pennsylvania) and herself a translator, writes: "[I]t is [hard] to produce a good literary translation. This is certainly true of translations of [ancient Greek](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ancient_Greek) and [Roman](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Latin) texts, but it is also true of literary translation in general: it is very difficult. Most readers of foreign languages are not translators; most writers are not translators. Translators have to read and write at the same time, as if always playing multiple instruments in a one-person band. And most one-person bands do not sound very good."

The translator's role in relation to a text has been compared to that of an artist, e.g., a musician or actor, who interprets a work of art. Translation, like other human activities,entails making choices, and choice implies interpretation. Mark Polizzotti writes: "A good translation offers not a reproduction of the work but an interpretation, a re-representation, just as the performance of a play or a sonata is a representation of the script or the score, one among many possible representations."

The English-language novelist Joseph Conrad, whose writings Zdzisław Najder has described as verging on "auto-translation" from Conrad's Polish and French linguistic personae,advised his niece and Polish translator Aniela Zagórska: "[D]on't trouble to be too scrupulous ... I may tell you (in French) that in my opinion *il vaut mieux interpréter que traduire* [it is better to interpret than to translate] ...*Il s'agit donc de trouver les équivalents. Et là, ma chère, je vous prie laissez vous guider plutôt par votre tempérament que par une conscience sévère ...* [It is, then, a question of finding the equivalent expressions. And there, my dear, I beg you to let yourself be guided more by your temperament than by a strict conscience....]"Conrad advised another translator that the prime requisite for a good translation is that it be "idiomatic". "For in the idiom is the *clearness* of a language and the language's force and its picturesqueness—by which last I mean the picture-producing power of arranged words." Conrad thought C.K. Scott Moncrieff's English translation of Marcel Proust's *À la recherche du temps perdu* (*In Search of Lost Time* or, in Scott Moncrieff's rendering, *Remembrance of Things Past*) to be preferable to the French original.

The necessity of making choices, and therefore of interpretation, in translating (and in other fields of human endeavor) stems from the ambiguity that subjectively pervades the universe. Part of the ambiguity, for a translator, involves the structure of human language. Psychologist and neural scientist Gary Marcus notes that "virtually every sentence [that people generate] is ambiguous, often in multiple ways. Our brain is so good at comprehending language that we do not usually notice." An example of linguistic ambiguity is the "pronoun disambiguation problem" ("PDP"): a machine has no way of determining to whom or what a pronoun in a sentence such as "he", "she" or "it" refers. Such disambiguation is not infallible by a human, either.

Ambiguity is a concern to both translators and, as the writings of poet and literary critic William Empson have demonstrated, to literary critics. Ambiguity may be desirable, indeed essential, in poetry and diplomacy; it can be more problematic in ordinary prose.

A translator is faced with two contradictory tasks: when translating, to strive for omniscience; when reviewing the resulting translation, to assume (the naive reader's) ignorance.

Translators may render only parts of the original text, provided that they inform readers of that action. But a translator should not assume the role of censor and surreptitiously delete or bowdlerize passages merely to please a political or moral interest.

Translating has served as a school of writing for many an author, much as the copying of masterworks of [painting](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Painting) has schooled many a novice painter. A translator who can competently render an author's thoughts into the translator's own language, should certainly be able to adequately render, in his own language, any thoughts of his own. Translating (like [analytic philosophy](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Analytic_philosophy)) compels precise analysis of [language elements](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language) and of their usage. In 1946 the poet [Ezra Pound](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ezra_Pound), then at [St. Elizabeth's Hospital](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/St._Elizabeth%27s_Hospital), in [Washington, D.C.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Washington,_D.C.), advised a visitor, the 18-year-old beginning poet [W.S. Merwin](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/W.S._Merwin): "The work of translation is the best teacher you'll ever have."Merwin, translator-poet who took Pound's advice to heart, writes of translation as an "impossible, unfinishable" art.

Translators, including monks who spread [Buddhist](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Buddhist) texts in [East Asia](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/East_Asia), and the early modern European translators of the Bible, in the course of their work have shaped the very languages into which they have translated. They have acted as bridges for conveying knowledge between [cultures](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Culture); and along with ideas, they have imported from the source languages, into their own languages, [loanwords](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Loanword) and calques of [grammatical structures](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Grammar), [idioms](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Idiom), and [vocabulary](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Vocabulary).

### Interpreting

[Interpreting](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Interpreting) is the facilitation of [oral](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Speech_communication) or [sign-language](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sign_language) [communication](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Communication), either simultaneously or consecutively, between two, or among three or more, speakers who are not speaking, or signing, the same language. The term "interpreting," rather than "interpretation," is preferentially used for this activity by Anglophone translators, to avoid confusion with other meanings of the word "[interpretation](https://en.wiktionary.org/wiki/interpret)." Unlike English, many languages do not employ two separate words to denote the activities of [written](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Writing) and live-communication ([oral](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Speech_communication) or [sign-language](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sign_language)) translators. Even English does not always make the distinction, frequently using "translating" as a synonym for "interpreting."

Interpreters have sometimes played crucial roles in [history](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_the_world). A prime example is [La Malinche](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/La_Malinche), also known as *Malintzin*, *Malinalli* and *Doña Marina*, an early-16th-century [Nahua](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nahua_peoples) woman from the Mexican [Gulf Coast](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gulf_of_Mexico). As a child she had been sold or given to [Maya](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Maya_peoples) slave-traders from Xicalango, and thus had become bilingual. Subsequently given along with other women to the invading Spaniards, she became instrumental in the [Spanish](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Spain) conquest of [Mexico](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mexico), acting as interpreter, adviser, intermediary and lover to [Hernán Cortés](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hern%C3%A1n_Cort%C3%A9s).

### Sworn translation

Sworn translation, also called "certified translation," aims at legal equivalence between two documents written in different languages. It is performed by someone authorized to do so by local regulations, which vary widely from country to country. Some countries recognize self-declared competence. Others require the translator to be an official state appointee. In some countries, such as the United Kingdom, certain government institutions require that translators be accredited by certain translation institutes or associations in order to be able to carry out certified translations.

### Telephone

Many commercial services exist that will interpret spoken language via telephone. There is also at least one custom-built mobile device that does the same thing. The device connects users to human interpreters who can translate between English and 180 other languages.

### Internet

Web-based human translation is generally favored by companies and individuals that wish to secure more accurate translations. In view of the frequent inaccuracy of machine translations, human translation remains the most reliable, most accurate form of translation available. With the recent emergence of translation [crowd sourcing](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Crowdsourcing), [translation memory](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Translation_memory) techniques, and [internet](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Internet) applications, translation agencies have been able to provide on-demand human-translation services to [businesses](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Small_and_medium_businesses), individuals, and enterprises.

While not instantaneous like its machine counterparts such as [Google Translate](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Google_Translate) and [Babel Fish](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Babel_Fish_(website)) (now defunct), web-based human translation has been gaining popularity by providing relatively fast, accurate translation of business communications, legal documents, medical records, and [software localization](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Software_localization). Web-based human translation also appeals to private website users and bloggers. Contents of websites are translatable but urls of websites are not translatable into other languages. Language tools on the internet provide help in understanding text.

### Computer assisted

Computer-assisted translation (CAT), also called "computer-aided translation," "machine-aided human translation" (MAHT) and "interactive translation," is a form of translation wherein a human translator creates a [target text](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Translation#Source_and_target_texts) with the assistance of a computer program. The machine supports a human translator.

Computer-assisted translation can include standard [dictionary](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dictionary) and grammar software. The term, however, normally refers to a range of specialized programs available to the translator, including translation memory, [terminology](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Terminology)-management, [concordance](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Concordancer), and alignment programs.

These tools speed up and facilitate human translation, but they do not provide translation. The latter is a function of tools known broadly as machine translation.

## Machine translation

Machine translation (MT) is a process whereby a computer program analyzes a [source text](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Source_text) and, in principle, produces a target text without human intervention. In reality, however, machine translation typically does involve human intervention, in the form of pre-editing and [post-editing](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Post-editing). With proper [terminology](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Terminology) work, with preparation of the [source text](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Source_text) for machine translation (pre-editing), and with reworking of the machine translation by a human translator (post-editing), commercial machine-translation tools can produce useful results, especially if the machine-translation system is integrated with a translation memory or [translation management system](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Translation_management_system).

Unedited machine translation is publicly available through tools on the [Internet](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Internet) such as [Google Translate](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Google_Translate), [Babel Fish](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Babel_Fish_(website)) (now defunct), [Babylon](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Babylon_Software), and [StarDict](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/StarDict). These produce rough translations that, under favorable circumstances, "give the gist" of the source text. With the Internet, translation software can help non-native-speaking individuals understand web pages published in other languages. Whole-page-translation tools are of limited utility, however, since they offer only a limited potential understanding of the original author's intent and context; translated pages tend to be more erroneously humorous and confusing than enlightening.

Interactive translations with [pop-up windows](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pop-up_ad) are becoming more popular. These tools show one or more possible equivalents for each word or phrase. Human operators merely need to select the likeliest equivalent as the mouse glides over the foreign-language text. Possible equivalents can be grouped by pronunciation. Also, companies such as [Ectaco](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ectaco) produce pocket devices that provide machine translations.

Relying exclusively on unedited machine translation, however, ignores the fact that communication in [human language](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Natural_language) is [context](https://en.wiktionary.org/wiki/context)-embedded and that it takes a person to comprehend the context of the original text with a reasonable degree of probability. It is certainly true that even purely human-generated translations are prone to error; therefore, to ensure that a machine-generated translation will be useful to a human being and that publishable-quality translation is achieved, such translations must be reviewed and edited by a human. [Claude Piron](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Claude_Piron) writes that machine translation, at its best, automates the easier part of a translator's job; the harder and more time-consuming part usually involves doing extensive research to resolve [ambiguities](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ambiguity) in the [source text](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Source_text), which the [grammatical](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Grammatical) and [lexical](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lexical_(semiotics)) exigencies of the target language require to be resolved. Such research is a necessary prelude to the pre-editing necessary in order to provide input for machine-translation software, such that the output will not be [meaningless](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Garbage_in_garbage_out).

The weaknesses of pure machine translation, unaided by human expertise, are [those of artificial intelligence itself](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Logology_(science_of_science)#Artificial_intelligence). As of 2018, professional translator Mark Polizzotti held that machine translation, by [Google Translate](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Google_Translate) and the like, was unlikely to threaten human translators anytime soon, because machines would never grasp nuance and [connotation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Connotation).

## Literary translation

A 1998 nonfiction book by Robert Wechsler on literary translation as a performative, rather than creative, art

Translation of [literary works](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Literature) ([novels](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Novel), [short stories](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Short_story), [plays](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Theatre), [poems](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Poetry), etc.) is considered a literary pursuit in its own right. Notable in [Canadian literature](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Canadian_literature) *specifically* as translators are figures such as [Sheila Fischman](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sheila_Fischman), [Robert Dickson](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Robert_Dickson_(writer)), and [Linda Gaboriau](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Linda_Gaboriau); and the Canadian [Governor General's Awards](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Governor_General%27s_Awards) annually present prizes for the best English-to-French and French-to-English literary translations.

In the 2010s a substantial gender imbalance was noted in literary translation into English,with far more male writers being translated than women writers. In 2014 Meytal Radzinski launched the *Women in Translation* campaign to address this.

### History of transltion

The first important translation in the West was that of the [Septuagint](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Septuagint), a collection of [Jewish](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jew) Scriptures translated into early [Koine Greek](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Koine_Greek) in [Alexandria](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Alexandria) between the 3rd and 1st centuries BCE. The dispersed [Jews](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jew) had forgotten their ancestral language and needed Greek versions (translations) of their Scriptures.

In [Asia](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Asia), the spread of [Buddhism](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Buddhism) led to large-scale ongoing translation efforts spanning well over a thousand years. The [Tangut Empire](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tangut_Empire) was especially efficient in such efforts; exploiting the then newly invented [block printing](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Block_printing), and with the full support of the government (contemporary sources describe the Emperor and his mother personally contributing to the translation effort, alongside sages of various nationalities), the Tanguts took mere decades to translate volumes that had taken the Chinese centuries to render.

The [Arabs](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Arabs) undertook [large-scale efforts at translation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Translation_Movement). Having conquered the [Greek](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ancient_Greece) world, they made Arabic versions of its philosophical and scientific works. During the [Middle Ages](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Middle_Ages), translations of some of these Arabic versions [were made into Latin](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Latin_translations_of_the_12th_century), chiefly at [Córdoba](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/C%C3%B3rdoba,_Spain) in [Spain](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Spain).[[95]](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Translation#cite_note-Cohen13-105) King [Alfonso X the Wise](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Alfonso_X_of_Castile) of [Castile](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kingdom_of_Castile) in the 13th century promoted this effort by founding a *Schola Traductorum* (School of Translation) in [Toledo](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Toledo,_Spain). There Arabic texts, Hebrew texts, and Latin texts were translated into the other tongues by Muslim, Jewish, and Christian scholars, who also argued the merits of their respective religions. Latin translations of Greek and original Arab works of scholarship and science helped advance European [Scholasticism](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Scholasticism), and thus European science and culture.

The broad historic trends in Western translation practice may be illustrated on the example of translation into the English language.

The first fine translations into English were made in the 14th century by [Geoffrey Chaucer](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Geoffrey_Chaucer), who adapted from the [Italian](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Italian_language) of [Giovanni Boccaccio](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Giovanni_Boccaccio) in his own [*Knight's Tale*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Knight%27s_Tale) and [*Troilus and Criseyde*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Troilus_and_Criseyde); began a translation of the French-language [*Roman de la Rose*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Roman_de_la_Rose); and completed a translation of [Boethius](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Boethius) from the Latin. Chaucer founded an English [poetic](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Poetry) tradition on [*adaptations*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Literary_adaptation) and translations from those earlier-established [literary languages](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Literary_language).[[95]](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Translation#cite_note-Cohen13-105)

The first great English translation was the [*Wycliffe Bible*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wycliffe_Bible) (c. 1382), which showed the weaknesses of an underdeveloped English [prose](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Prose). Only at the end of the 15th century did the great age of English prose translation begin with [Thomas Malory](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Thomas_Malory)'s [*Le Morte Darthur*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Le_Morte_Darthur)—an adaptation of [Arthurian romances](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Arthurian_romance) so free that it can, in fact, hardly be called a true translation. The first great [Tudor](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tudor_period) translations are, accordingly, the [*Tyndale New Testament*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tyndale_Bible) (1525), which influenced the [*Authorized Version*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Authorized_Version) (1611), and [Lord Berners](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lord_Berners)' version of [Jean Froissart](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jean_Froissart)'s *Chronicles* (1523–25).

Meanwhile, in [Renaissance](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Renaissance) [Italy](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Italy), a new period in the history of translation had opened in [Florence](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Florence) with the arrival, at the court of [Cosimo de' Medici](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cosimo_de%27_Medici), of the [Byzantine](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Byzantine) scholar [Georgius Gemistus Pletho](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Georgius_Gemistus_Pletho) shortly before the fall of [Constantinople](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Constantinople) to the Turks (1453). A Latin translation of [Plato](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Plato)'s works was undertaken by [Marsilio Ficino](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Marsilio_Ficino). This and [Erasmus](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Erasmus)' Latin edition of the [*New Testament*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/New_Testament) led to a new attitude to translation. For the first time, readers demanded rigor of rendering, as philosophical and religious beliefs depended on the exact words of [Plato](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Plato), [Aristotle](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Aristotle) and [Jesus](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jesus).[[95]](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Translation#cite_note-Cohen13-105)

Non-scholarly literature, however, continued to rely on *adaptation*. [France](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/France)'s [*Pléiade*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pl%C3%A9iade), [England](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/England)'s [Tudor](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tudor_period) poets, and the [Elizabethan](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Elizabethan) translators adapted themes by [Horace](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Horace), [Ovid](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ovid), [Petrarch](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Petrarch) and modern Latin writers, forming a new poetic style on those models. The English poets and translators sought to supply a new public, created by the rise of a [middle class](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Middle_class) and the development of [printing](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Printing), with works such as the original authors *would have written*, had they been writing in England in that day.

The [Elizabethan](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Elizabethan) period of translation saw considerable progress beyond mere paraphrase toward an ideal of [stylistic](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stylistics_(linguistics)) equivalence, but even to the end of this period, which actually reached to the middle of the 17th century, there was no concern for [verbal](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Words) [accuracy](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Accuracy).

In the second half of the 17th century, the poet John Dryden sought to make [Virgil](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Virgil) speak "in words such as he would probably have written if he were living and an Englishman". As great as Dryden's poem is, however, one is reading Dryden, and not experiencing the Roman poet's concision. Similarly, [Homer](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Homer) arguably suffers from [Alexander Pope](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Alexander_Pope)'s endeavor to reduce the Greek poet's "wild paradise" to order. Both works live on as worthy *English* epics, more than as a point of access to the Latin or Greek.

Throughout the 18th century, the watchword of translators was ease of reading. Whatever they did not understand in a text, or thought might bore readers, they omitted. They cheerfully assumed that their own style of expression was the best, and that texts should be made to conform to it in translation. For scholarship they cared no more than had their predecessors, and they did not shrink from making translations from translations in third languages, or from languages that they hardly knew, or—as in the case of [James Macpherson](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/James_Macpherson)'s "translations" of [Ossian](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ossian)—from texts that were actually of the "translator's" own composition.

The 19th century brought new standards of accuracy and style. In regard to accuracy, observes J.M. Cohen, the policy became "the text, the whole text, and nothing but the text", In regard to style, the [Victorians](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Victorians)' aim, achieved through far-reaching metaphrase (literality) or *pseudo*-metaphrase, was to constantly remind readers that they were reading a *foreign* classic. An exception was the outstanding translation in this period, [Edward FitzGerald](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Edward_FitzGerald_(poet))'s [*Rubaiyat*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rubaiyat_of_Omar_Khayyam) of [Omar Khayyam](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Omar_Khayyam) (1859), which achieved its Oriental flavor largely by using Persian names and discreet Biblical echoes and actually drew little of its material from the Persian original.

In advance of the 20th century, a new pattern was set in 1871 by [Benjamin Jowett](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Benjamin_Jowett), who translated [Plato](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Plato) into simple, straightforward language. Jowett's example was not followed, however, until well into the new century, when accuracy rather than style became the principal criterion.

### Modern translation

As a language evolves, texts in an earlier version of the language original texts, or old translations may become difficult for modern readers to understand. Such a text may therefore be translated into more modern language, producing a "modern translation" (e.g., a "modern English translation" or "modernized translation").

Such modern rendering is applied either to literature from classical languages such as Latin or Greek, notably to the Bible (see "[Modern English Bible translations](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Modern_English_Bible_translations)"), or to literature from an earlier stage of the same language, as with the works of [William Shakespeare](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/William_Shakespeare) (which are largely understandable by a modern audience, though with some difficulty) or with [Geoffrey Chaucer](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Geoffrey_Chaucer)'s [Middle-English](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Middle_English) [*Canterbury Tales*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/The_Canterbury_Tales) (which is understandable to most modern readers only through heavy dependence on footnotes). In 2015 the [Oregon Shakespeare Festival](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Oregon_Shakespeare_Festival) commissioned professional translation of the entire Shakespeare canon, including disputed works such as [*Edward III*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Edward_III_(play)), into contemporary vernacular English; in 2019, off-off-Broadway, the canon was premiered in a month-long series of staged readings.

Modern translation is applicable to any language with a long literary history. For example, in Japanese the 11th-century [*Tale of Genji*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/The_Tale_of_Genji) is generally read in modern translation (see "[*Genji:* modern readership](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/The_Tale_of_Genji#Modern_readership)").

Modern translation often involves literary scholarship and textual revision, as there is frequently not one single canonical text. This is particularly noteworthy in the case of the Bible and Shakespeare, where modern scholarship can result in substantive textual changes.

[Anna North](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Anna_North) writes: "Translating the long-dead language [Homer](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Homer) used a variant of [ancient Greek](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ancient_Greek) called Homeric Greek into contemporary English is no easy task, and translators bring their own skills, opinions, and stylistic sensibilities to the text. The result is that every translation is different, almost a new poem in itself." An example is [Emily Wilson](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Emily_Wilson_(classicist))'s 2017 translation of Homer's [*Odyssey*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Odyssey), where by conscious choice Wilson "lays bare the morals of its time and place, and invites us to consider how different they are from our own, and how similar."

Modern translation meets with opposition from some traditionalists. In English, some readers prefer the Authorized King James Version of the Bible to modern translations, and Shakespeare in the original of ca. 1600 to modern translations.

### Poetry

Views on the possibility of satisfactorily translating poetry show a broad spectrum, depending largely on the degree of latitude to be granted the translator in regard to a poem's formal features (rhythm, rhyme, verse form, etc.). [Douglas Hofstadter](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Douglas_Hofstadter), in his 1997 book, [*Le Ton beau de Marot*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Le_Ton_beau_de_Marot), argued that a good translation of a poem must convey as much as possible not only of its literal meaning but also of its form and structure (meter, rhyme or alliteration scheme, etc.).

The [Russian](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Russia)-born [linguist](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Linguist) and [semiotician](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Semiotician) [Roman Jakobson](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Roman_Jakobson), however, had in his 1959 paper "[On Linguistic Aspects of Translation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/On_Linguistic_Aspects_of_Translation)", declared that "poetry by definition [is] untranslatable". [Vladimir Nabokov](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Vladimir_Nabokov), another Russian-born author, took a view similar to Jakobson's. He considered rhymed, metrical, versed poetry to be in principle untranslatable and therefore rendered his 1964 English translation of [Alexander Pushkin](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Alexander_Pushkin)'s [*Eugene Onegin* in prose](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Eugene_Onegin#Into_English).

However, a host of more contemporary literary translators of poetry lean toward [Alexander von Humboldt](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Alexander_von_Humboldt)'s notion of language as a "third universe" existing "midway between the phenomenal reality of the 'empirical world' and the internalized structures of consciousness."[[101]](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Translation#cite_note-112) Perhaps this is what poet [Sholeh Wolpé](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sholeh_Wolp%C3%A9), translator of the 12th-century Iranian epic poem [*The Conference of the Birds*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/The_Conference_of_the_Birds), means when she writes:

Twelfth-century Persian and contemporary English are as different as sky and sea. The best I can do as a poet is to reflect one into the other. The sea can reflect the sky with its moving stars, shifting clouds, gestations of the moon, and migrating birds—but ultimately the sea is not the sky. By nature, it is liquid. It ripples. There are waves. If you are a fish living in the sea, you can only understand the sky if its reflection becomes part of the water. Therefore, this translation of *The Conference of the Birds*, while faithful to the original text, aims at its re-creation into a still living and breathing work of literature.

Poet Sherod Santos writes: "The task is not to reproduce the content, but with the flint and the steel of one's own language to spark what Robert Lowell has called 'the fire and finish of the original.'" According to Walter Benjamin:

While a poet's words endure in his own language, even the greatest translation is destined to become part of the growth of its own language and eventually to perish with its renewal. Translation is so far removed from being the sterile equation of two dead languages that of all literary forms it is the one charged with the special mission of watching over the maturing process of the original language and the birth pangs of its own.

Gregory Hays, in the course of discussing [Roman](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ancient_Rome) adapted translations of [ancient Greek literature](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ancient_Greek_literature), makes approving reference to some views on the translating of poetry expressed by [David Bellos](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/David_Bellos), an accomplished French-to-English translator. Hays writes:

Among the *idées reçues* [received ideas] skewered by David Bellos is the old saw that "poetry is what gets lost in translation." The saying is often attributed to [Robert Frost](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Robert_Frost), but as Bellos notes, the attribution is as dubious as the idea itself. A translation is an assemblage of words, and as such it can contain as much or as little poetry as any other such assemblage. The Japanese even have a word (*chōyaku*, roughly "hypertranslation") to designate a version that deliberately improves on the original.

### Book titles

Book-title translations can be either descriptive or symbolic. Descriptive book titles, for example Antoine de Saint-Exupéry's *Le Petit Prince* (The Little Prince), are meant to be informative, and can name the protagonist, and indicate the theme of the book. An example of a symbolic book title is Stieg Larsson's *The Girl with the Dragon Tattoo*,whose original Swedish title is *Män som hatar kvinnor* (Men Who Hate Women). Such symbolic book titles usually indicate the theme, issues, or atmosphere of the work.

When translators are working with long book titles, the translated titles are often shorter and indicate the theme of the book.

### Plays

The translation of plays poses many problems such as the added element of actors, speech duration, translation literalness, and the relationship between the arts of drama and acting. Successful play translators are able to create language that allows the actor and the playwright to work together effectively. Play translators must also take into account several other aspects: the final performance, varying theatrical and acting traditions, characters' speaking styles, modern theatrical discourse, and even the acoustics of the auditorium, i.e., whether certain words will have the same effect on the new audience as they had on the original audience.

Audiences in Shakespeare's time were more accustomed than modern playgoers to actors having longer stage time. Modern translators tend to simplify the sentence structures of earlier dramas, which included compound sentences with intricate hierarchies of subordinate clauses.

### Sung texts

Translation of a text that is sung in vocal music for the purpose of singing in another language sometimes called "singing translation" is closely linked to translation of poetry because most vocal music, at least in the Western tradition, is set to [verse](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Verse_(popular_music)), especially verse in regular patterns with [rhyme](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rhyme). (Since the late 19th century, musical setting of [prose](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Prose) and [free verse](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Free_verse) has also been practiced in some [art music](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Art_music), though popular music tends to remain conservative in its retention of [stanzaic](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stanza) forms with or without [refrains](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Refrain).) A rudimentary example of translating poetry for singing is church [hymns](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hymn), such as the German [chorales](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Chorale) translated into English by [Catherine Winkworth](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Catherine_Winkworth).

Translation of sung texts is generally much more restrictive than translation of poetry, because in the former there is little or no freedom to choose between a versified translation and a translation that dispenses with verse structure. One might modify or omit rhyme in a singing translation, but the assignment of syllables to specific notes in the original musical setting places great challenges on the translator. There is the option in prose sung texts, less so in verse, of adding or deleting a syllable here and there by subdividing or combining notes, respectively, but even with prose the process is almost like strict verse translation because of the need to stick as closely as possible to the original prosody of the sung melodic line.

Other considerations in writing a singing translation include repetition of words and phrases, the placement of rests and/or punctuation, the quality of vowels sung on high notes, and rhythmic features of the vocal line that may be more natural to the original language than to the target language. A sung translation may be considerably or completely different from the original, thus resulting in a contrafactum.

Translations of sung texts whether of the above type meant to be sung or of a more or less literal type meant to be read are also used as aids to audiences, singers and conductors, when a work is being sung in a language not known to them. The most familiar types are translations presented as subtitles or surtitles projected during opera performances, those inserted into concert programs, and those that accompany commercial audio CDs of vocal music. In addition, professional and amateur singers often sing works in languages they do not know (or do not know well), and translations are then used to enable them to understand the meaning of the words they are singing.

### Religious texts

An important role in history has been played by translation of religious texts. Such translations may be influenced by tension between the text and the religious values the translators wish to convey. For example, [Buddhist](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Buddhist) [monks](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Monk) who translated the [Indian](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/India) [sutras](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sutra) into [Chinese](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Chinese_language) occasionally adjusted their translations to better reflect [China](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/China)'s distinct [culture](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Culture), emphasizing notions such as [filial piety](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Filial_piety).

One of the first recorded instances of translation in the West was the 3rd century BCE rendering of some books of the biblical [Old Testament](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Old_Testament) from Hebrew into [Koine Greek](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Koine_Greek). The translation is known as the "[Septuagint](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Septuagint)", a name that refers to the supposedly seventy translators (seventy-two, in some versions) who were commissioned to translate the Bible at [Alexandria](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Alexandria), Egypt. According to legend, each translator worked in solitary confinement in his own cell, and, according to legend, all seventy versions proved identical. The *Septuagint* became the [source text](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Source_text) for later translations into many languages, including Latin, [Coptic](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Coptic_language), [Armenian](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Armenian_language), and [Georgian](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Georgian_language).

Still considered one of the greatest translators in history, for having rendered the Bible into Latin, is [Jerome](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jerome) (347–420 CE), the [patron saint](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Patron_saint) of translators. For centuries the [Roman Catholic Church](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Roman_Catholic_Church) used his translation (known as the [Vulgate](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Vulgate)), though even this translation stirred controversy. By contrast with Jerome's contemporary, [Augustine of Hippo](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Augustine_of_Hippo) (354–430 CE), who endorsed precise translation, Jerome believed in adaptation, and sometimes invention, in order to more effectively bring across the meaning. Jerome's colorful Vulgate translation of the Bible includes some crucial instances of "overdetermination". For example, [Isaiah](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Isaiah)'s prophecy announcing that the Savior will be born of a virgin, uses the word '*almah*, which is also used to describe the dancing girls at [Solomon](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Solomon)'s court, and simply means young and nubile. Jerome, writes [Marina Warner](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Marina_Warner), translates it as *virgo*, "adding divine authority to the virulent cult of [sexual](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sex) disgust that shaped Christian moral theology (the [Moslem] [*Quran*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Quran), free from this linguistic trap, does not connect [Mariam](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Maryam_(name))/[Mary](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mary,_mother_of_Jesus)'s miraculous nature with moral horror of sex)." The apple that [Eve](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Eve) offered to [Adam](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Adam), according to Mark Polizzotti, could equally well have been an [apricot](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Apricot), orange, or banana; but Jerome liked the [pun](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pun) *malus/malum* (apple/evil).

[Pope Francis](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pope_Francis) has suggested that the phrase "lead us not into temptation", in the [Lord's Prayer](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lord%27s_Prayer) found in the [Gospels of Matthew](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gospel_of_Matthew) (the first Gospel, written c. 80–90 CE) and [Luke](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gospel_of_Luke) (the third Gospel, written c. 80–110 CE), should more properly be translated, "do not let us fall into temptation", commenting that God does not lead people into temptation—[Satan](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Satan) does. Some important early Christian authors interpreted the Bible's Greek text and [Jerome](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jerome)'s [Latin Vulgate](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Latin_Vulgate) similarly to Pope Francis. A.J.B. Higgins in 1943 showed that among the earliest Christian authors, the understanding and even the text of this devotional verse underwent considerable changes. These ancient writers suggest that, even if the Greek and Latin texts are left unmodified, something like "do not let us fall" could be an acceptable English rendering. Higgins cited [Tertullian](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tertullian), the earliest of the Latin [Church Fathers](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Church_Fathers) (c. 155–c. 240 CE, "do not allow us to be led") and [Cyprian](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cyprian) (c. 200–258 CE, "do not allow us to be led into temptation"). A later author, [Ambrose](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ambrose) (C. 340–397 CE), followed Cyprian's interpretation. [Augustine of Hippo](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Augustine_of_Hippo) (354–430), familiar with Jerome's Latin Vulgate rendering, observed that "many people... say it this way: 'and do not allow us to be led into temptation.'"

In 863 CE the brothers [Saints Cyril and Methodius](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Saints_Cyril_and_Methodius), the [Byzantine Empire](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Byzantine_Empire)'s "Apostles to the Slavs", began translating parts of the Bible into the [Old Church Slavonic](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Old_Church_Slavonic) language, using the [Glagolitic script](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Glagolitic_script) that they had devised, based on the [Greek alphabet](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Greek_alphabet).

The periods preceding and contemporary with the [Protestant Reformation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Protestant_Reformation) saw translations of the Bible into [vernacular](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Vernacular) (local) European languages—a development that contributed to [Western Christianity](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Western_Christianity)'s split into Roman Catholicism and [Protestantism](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Protestantism) over disparities between Catholic and Protestant renderings of crucial words and passages (and due to a Protestant-perceived need to reform the Roman Catholic Church). Lasting effects on the religions, cultures, and languages of their respective countries were exerted by such Bible translations as [Martin Luther](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Martin_Luther)'s into German (the [New Testament](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/New_Testament), 1522), [Jakub Wujek](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jakub_Wujek)'s into Polish (1599, as revised by the [Jesuits](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jesuits)), and [William Tyndale](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/William_Tyndale)'s (New Testament, 1526 and revisions) and the [*King James Version*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/King_James_Version) into English (1611).

MISTRANSLATION:

Efforts to translate the Bible into English had their [martyrs](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Martyr). [William Tyndale](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/William_Tyndale) (1494–1536) was convicted of [heresy](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Heresy) at [Antwerp](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Antwerp), was strangled to death while tied at the stake, and then his dead body was burned. Earlier, [John Wycliffe](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/John_Wycliffe) (mid-1320s – 1384) had managed to die a natural death, but 30 years later the [Council of Constance](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Council_of_Constance) in 1415 declared him a heretic and decreed that his works and earthly remains should be burned; the order, confirmed by [Pope Martin V](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pope_Martin_V), was carried out in 1428, and Wycliffe's corpse was exhumed and burned and the ashes cast into the [River Swift](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/River_Swift). Debate and religious [schism](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Schism) over different translations of religious texts continue, as demonstrated by, for example, the [King James Only movement](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/King_James_Only_movement).

A famous *mistranslation* of a Biblical text is the rendering of the Hebrew word קֶרֶן‎ (*keren*), which has several meanings, as "horn" in a context where it more plausibly means "beam of light": as a result, for centuries artists, including sculptor Michelangelo, have rendered Mose the Lawgiver with horns growing from his forehead.

A fundamental difficulty in translating the *Quran* accurately stems from the fact that an Arabic word, like a Hebrew or Aramaic word, may have a range of meanings, depending on context. This is said to be a linguistic feature, particularly of all Semitic languages, that adds to the usual similar difficulties encountered in translating between any two languages. There is always an element of human judgment of interpretation involved in understanding and translating a text. Muslims regard any translation of the *Quran* as but one possible interpretation of the Quranic (Classical) Arabic text, and not as a full equivalent of that divinely communicated original. Hence such a translation is often called an "interpretation" rather than a translation.

To complicate matters further, as with other languages, the meanings and usages of some expressions have changed *over time*, between the Classical Arabic of the *Quran*, and modern Arabic. Thus a modern Arabic speaker may misinterpret the meaning of a word or passage in the *Quran*. Moreover, the interpretation of a Quranic passage will also depend on the historic context of Muhammad's life and of his early community. Properly researching that context requires a detailed knowledge of *hadith* and *sirah*, which are themselves vast and complex texts. Hence, analogously to the translating of Chinese literature, an attempt at an accurate translation of the *Quran* requires a knowledge not only of the Arabic language and of the target language, including their respective evolutions, but also a deep understanding of the two cultures involved.

### Science fiction

Science fiction being a genre with a recognizable set of conventions and literary genealogies, in which language often includes neologisms, neosemes,and invented languages, techno-scientific and pseudoscientific vocabulary,and fictional representation of the translation process, the translation of science-fiction texts involves specific concerns. The science-fiction translator tends to acquire specific competences and assume a distinctive publishing and cultural agency. As in the case of other mass-fiction genres, this professional specialization and role often is not recognized by publishers and scholars.

Translation of science fiction accounts for the transnational nature of science fiction's repertoire of shared conventions and tropes. After World War II, many European countries were swept by a wave of translations from the English. Due to the prominence of English as a source language, the use of pseudonyms and pseudo translations became common in countries such as Italy and Hungary, and English has often been used as a vehicular language to translate from languages such as Chinese and Japanese.

More recently, the international market in science-fiction translations has seen an increasing presence of source languages other than English.

Technical translation renders documents such as manuals, instruction sheets, internal memos, minutes, financial reports, and other documents for a limited audience (who are directly affected by the document) and whose useful life is often limited. Thus, a user guide for a particular model of refrigerator is useful only for the owner of the refrigerator, and will remain useful only as long as that refrigerator model is in use. Similarly, software documentation generally pertains to a particular software, whose applications are used only by a certain class of users

**Translators usually have to deal with six different translation problems in their work,**

Translators usually have to deal with six different problematic areas in their work, whether they are translating technical documents or a sworn statement. These include: lexical-semantic problems; grammar; syntax; rhetoric; and pragmatic and cultural problems. Not to mention administrative issues, computer-related problems and stress…

## ****1. Lexical-semantic problems****

Lexical-semantic problems can be resolved by consulting dictionaries, glossaries, terminology banks and experts. These problems include terminology alternatives, neologisms, semantic gaps, contextual synonyms and antonyms (these affect polysemic units: synonyms and antonyms are only aimed at an acceptance which depends on the context to determine which meaning is correct), semantic contiguity (a consistency procedure which works by identifying semantic features common  to two or more terms) and lexical networks.

## ****2. Grammatical problems****

Grammatical problems include, for example, questions of temporality, as pectuality (the appearance indicates how the process is represented or the state expressed by the verb from the point of view of its development, as opposed to time itself), pronouns, and whether or not to make the subject pronoun explicit.

## ****3. Syntactical problems****

Syntactical problems may originate in syntactic parallels, the direction of the passive voice, the focus (the point of view from which a story is told), or even rhetorical figures of speech, such as a hyperbaton (the inversion of the natural order of speech) or an anaphora (repetition of a word or segment at the beginning of a line or a phrase).

## ****4. Rhetorical problems****

Rhetorical problems are related to the identification and recreation of figures of thought (comparison, metaphor, metonymy, synecdoche, oxymoron, paradox, etc.) and diction.

## ****5. Pragmatic problems: an example of a marketing translation****

Pragmatic problems arise with the difference in the formal and informal modes of address using “you”, as well as idiomatic phrases, sayings, irony, humor and sarcasm. These difficulties can also include other challenges; for example, in the translation of a marketing text from English into French, specifically with the translation of the personal pronoun “you”. The translator must decide whether the formal or the informal “you” is more appropriate, a decision which is not always clear.

## ****6. Cultural issues: an example of a financial translation****

Cultural issues may arise from differences between cultural references, such as names of food, festivals and cultural connotations, in general. The translator will use language localization to correctly adapt the translation to the culture targeted. A very simple example is a financial translation which includes dates. If the text is in English, it is most likely, but not absolutely certain, that 05/06/2015 will mean June 5. However, as everyone knows, the same sequence in another language refers to May 6.

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* The procedure for teaching translation

Translation is closely interwoven with sociolinguistics, contrastive linguistics, with concepts of thinking and cognitive aspects. It is an interlinguistic communication, which presupposes both language and culture encoding and decoding

What matters most is preparation. One need to develop a wide spectrum of skills in reading, writing, listening, speaking, recalling, fluency, grasping intentions, comprehending situations.

Learners should comprehend what has been said including informative and pragmatic values

The focus should be on the origin text and learners should translate the text or passage as a whole and not word by word.

You can start with simple phrases, long sentences, short paragraphs and whole chapters or texts

* 1. TEACHING OF COMPOSITION IN MOTHER TONGUE

9.11 The basic structure of a composition

1. Planning the composition: allows an individual to put the points in order. Considering the heading, characters and their roles. Failure to plan may lead to change in plot, confusing pronouns, pointless introduction and poor conclusion
2. Writing the first paragraph. Many people struggle with introductions, hence memorize introductions from sample compositions, and this defeats the purpose of creative writing. It should capture the reader’s attention, generate interest and be relevant. An introduction is an expansion of the title. Remember also that a title should be short but cover the most important theme
3. The problem/ conflict: learners should spend most of their time on this stage. This is where all the necessary points are written. Should have more than two paragraphs. Events should be well narrated, described and expanded. They should describe using their five senses.
4. Writing the resolution: resolve the conflict/problem in a logical way. This is part of what is traditionally known as main body
5. Writing the conclusion: tie up the loose ends in the story, reflect on the events or the incident, make plan for the future, and show how your characters’ lives will be in future

5. Sub-vocalization (murmuring, making unnecessary sounds).

You can however help your students to overcome these problems through constant practice under timed conditions.

**9.12 Writing skills**

Writing is a productive skill. When we write we use graphic symbols, that is, letters or combinations of letters, which represent the sounds we make when we speak (Byrne, 1979). These symbols need to be arranged properly to form words, and then sentences in paragraphs.

**Purpose, Audience and Types of Writing**

For you to successfully launch your students into the art of writing, there are three main issues in writing that you will have to take them through. These are:

**Purposes/Objectives of Writing**

Writing is defined by its purpose which is the goal or intention of the writer. The goals of writing vary and are of the, following types:

i. Taking notes at lectures or when you read.

ii. Summarising e.g. the main ideas of a text; (iii) answering test or examination questions.

iii. Describing an incident, event, an experience.

iv. Describing a process, procedure and event, an object or a person; (vi) persuading someone or people.

v. Exposing an idea, a procedure, a belief a philosophy. The last four are usually in form of essays or composition.

**Audience**

In any form of communication, the aim is the transmission of ideas from one person to another. In the case of writing the audience is not physically present. However, you should have at the back of your mind the target group you are writing the piece for. You should be able to ask yourself such questions as: Who is going to read this piece? For whom am I writing? Are they: familiar known (friends, family, peers), extended known (community, student body, local media), extended unknown audience (wider range of media, other publications?).

**9.14 Writing in Zambian language**

There are various types of writing which include reports, letters, composition / essays and summary. Your purpose of writing will determine type of writing you are going to do.

**The Writing Process: Useful Tips for Writing**

**Essays/Composition**

i. *Choosing a topic* – You give a topic to your students to write on. (ii) *Planning* – Guide them to think about the topic and gather related ideas or points.

ii. *Shaping* – Show them how to organise the ideas into sections/ paragraphs in a related and orderly manner to signal relationship of ideas. Teach them that a good composition must have – **introduction, body and conclusion**

iii. *Drafting* – Teach them how to write the ideas in appropriate sentences arranged in paragraphs. Teach them the use of link words such as additionally, then, next etc in linking ideas, paragraphs.

iv. *Revising* – Students revise their work under your guidance. Based on their evaluation, they make decisions on whether to re-write the draft of their work by adding, deleting, rewording or reorganising.

v. *Editing* – Under your guidance students edit their work by checking the technical correctness of grammar, flow of expression and punctuations.

**9.15 Hints to Enhance learner’s Writing**

Teach learners to do the following things to enhance their writing skills:

1. Write on topics / ideas they are familiar with whenever they have a choice.

2. When given questions to answer, read through the questions carefully before writing their answers, for example, in comprehension and summary exercises.

3. Write full meaningful sentences.

4. Vary sentence and paragraph lengths.

5. Vary sentence constructions.

6. Ensure correct sentence agreement/concord.

7. Use the most suitable tense

8. Use direct speech/dialogues with discretion.

9. Write numerals in words unless for dates and monetary amount or an instruction.

10. Avoid:

Repetition of words at the beginning of sentences. E.g., I went to the market. I met my friend. I talked with her for over an hour

• Overusing adjectives and adverbs.

• Overusing words.

• Slang (except you are using it in direct speech to make a point.)

• Redundancy and tautology

• Verbosity

• Unnecessary “big words”

• Distinguish between American and British English words

**9.16 Teacher characteristics**

The teacher is role model to every learner despite what and how you are. It is for those reason that you have to write clearly to motivate learners to be good writers. Never copy other people’s work but be innovative enough to create your own passages for your learners. Such will motivate them to be creative too. Ensure you are consistent with the writing rules you have set for the class and the English language guidelines. Be up to date with the changing writing models, punctuation skills and new language being used at that particular time. A teacher should be ready to learn from what the learners have written because some of them are better exposed than the teacher. Therefore, do not make the learners stop reading as a result of your ignorance and do not accept everything the learners write. This put a teacher in the position of being a researcher on a daily basis so that learners are not ahead of the teacher where knowledge on writing is concerned.

* The basic structure of a composition
* Planning the composition

9.17 SKILLS AND EXERCISES FOR COMPOSITION WRITING

- completing compositions

- writing in paragraphs

- writing from tables

- use simple vocabulary

- write correct sentences

- use punctuation marks correctly

* Integrating skills in composition writing
* Skills in early grades of the secondary level
* Skills in the senior grades

**UNIT TEN**

1. **PSYCHOLINGUISTICS AND PEDAGOGY**

**Introduction**

Psycholinguistics plays a very important role in the development of various teaching methods. Many language teaching methods have been born from the field of psycholinguistics.

* Relevance of psycholinguistics in language teaching
* Psycholinguistics has provided numerous theories that explain how a person acquires a language, produces and perceives both spoken and written language
* These theories are a basis in the development of language teaching methods such as suggestopedia, total physical response, and the natural method
* Psycholinguistics views learning as a cognitive individual process happening within the individual and then moves to social dimension
* Such theories deal with how a person acquires the first language LI and learns a second language L2
* It deals with language perception which means listening and reading, language production which means speaking and writing. It therefore helps in the teaching of language based on the four skills of language
* Psycholinguistics therefore, helps to understand the difficulties of these four skills of language both intrinsic and extrinsic difficulties
* It also helps to explain the errors learners do in language learning, as it defines some kinds of brain disorders that affect language learning performance such as agraphia and many types of aphasia which must be treated properly
* Psycholinguistics mainly helps teachers to consider the use of appropriate method to teach those four skills of language. I hope you understand these four skills of language
  1. INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN LANGUAGE LEARNING
* Psycholinguistic processes in language use and learning

1. Attention : this is concentration (mental focus, serious consideration)learners always have different levels of attention when learning language
2. Consciousness: being mindful of how language works in different situations,
3. Information processing: it discusses the mechanisms through which learning occurs, eg memory encoding and retrieval
4. Extrinsic motivation

10.2 **Inductive Method**

The method of **inductive learning** or **learning by induction, is the one** in which learners are not taught grammatical or other types of rules directly but are left to discover or induce rules from their experience of using the language (Richards and Schmidt, 2002). This is the language teaching methods which emphasize the use of the language rather than presentation of information about the language (for example the Direct Method, Communicative Approach, and Counselling Learning) make use of the principle of inductive learning.

The inductive method is also known as “bottom up” approach and advocated for by the Audio-lingual methodologists, is based on the assumption that exposure to comprehensible language use will result in the internalization of the linguistic system. This process may be conscious or unconscious or a combination of the two.

In this method learners are not taught rules directly but are left to discover the grammatical rules by themselves or induce the rules from their experience of using the language. The role of the teacher is to guide the learners. By guiding the learners, the teacher leads the learners to look for similarities and differences, and generalize their observations, form and test hypotheses and discover how the language works. For example, to teach the use of the ending “-d”, “-ed” and “- ied” with verbs in the simple past tense (regular form) a typical lesson using this method will take the following steps:

**Lesson Outline**

*Step I:* Start the lesson with a social or cognitive introduction to capture the learners’ mood for the lesson and to review their prior knowledge on the simple present tense.

*Step II:* Continue the lesson by writing some relevant sentences on the board.

1. The coronavirus lockdown stated on 22nd April, 2020.
2. He **attended** a party last week.
3. They **danced** gracefully at the wedding.
4. They **refused** to accept my gift.
5. Kondwani **tried** to jump back.
6. Mirriam **bullied** all the little boys in his class.

* Ask the learners to make the statements appear as if the actions are happening today. The learners should concentrate on the verb forms which are bold in the sentences.

**10.3 Deductive Method**

The deductive method comes from deductive learning and others call it as ‘learning by deduction.’ By definition, this is an approach to language teaching in which learners are taught rules and given specific information about a language. They then apply these rules when they use the language. This also is a form of language teaching method which emphasize the study of the grammatical rules of a language (for example the Grammar Translation Method) make use of the principle of deductive learning.

The deductive method is also known as “top down” approach where the teacher explains the grammar rules to the learners who learns these rules and then applies them in responding to exercises on grammar. The principle behind this method is based on the rationale that learners need to understand the elements of the linguistic system of a language before putting them into practice. With this understanding plus memorization and frequent use, learners are sure to internalize the structures. The teacher plays a major role in this method.

For example, to teach the use of the ending “-d”, “-ed” and “- ied” with verbs in the simple past tense (regular form) a typical lesson using this method will take the following steps

**Lesson Outline**

*Step I*: Start the lesson with a revision exercise to review learners’ prior knowledge on the simple present tense. This can be a social or cognitive devised introduction depending with the nature of the learners and the environment the teacher is found in.

*Step II:* State the objective of the lesson clearly by defining the rules and applying them to verbs with which the learners are familiar.

There are three ways in which the simple past tense can be formed in the regular form:

**Add ‘-d’ to verbs ending with the vowel letter ‘e’**

dance – danced

refuse – refused

**Add ‘-ed’ to verbs ending with consonants end – ended**

attend – attended

**Add ‘-ied’ to verbs ending with the letter ‘y’ (delete ‘y’ first)** 33 try – tried bully – bullied

*Step III:* Give further illustrations with a number of examples. Write the verbs in three columns, one for each rule. Ask learners to identify the rule used in the formation and state the reason.

The teacher can also use cue cards to re-enforce the rules. The teacher can prepare the verbs on cards and ask learners to change to the past tense using the learnt rules and explain why other rules cannot apply to the change they have made.

*Step IV:* Let the learner provide additional examples on their own using the verbs they know or from the chart of verbs given by the teacher.

*Step V:* Ask learners to sum up what they have learned throughout the lesson.

*Step VI:* Give learners homework to be marked in the next session.

* From this procedure, it has been demonstrated on how the rule explanation can be used to teach grammar to learners. The learners are learning from known to unknown in this context.

*10.4 FACTORS AFFECTING LANGUAGE LERNING*

**>** *Age:* Some studies have revealed that after puberty; Lateralization (the assigning of linguistic functions to the different brain hemispheres) is completed and adults’ ability to distinguish and produce native-like sounds is limited. This is also referred to as the “Critical Period Hypothesis”. This hypothesis states that if humans do not learn a second/foreign language before a certain age, then due to changes such as maturation of the brain, it becomes impossible to learn a second/foreign language like a native speaker. (Graham, 1994).

> *H*ome/ School/Community *Environment:* The amount of exposure to spoken English that your learners have at home/school/community will affect their speech pattern.

> *Individual Ability:* Due to biological and physiological differences, some of your learners will be more sensitive to and better at imitating sounds than others.

> *A*ttitude: Learners’ attitude toward the target language, culture and native speakers can support or impede their speech development.

**UNIT ELEVEN**

1. **DEPARTMENTAL ADMINISTRATION**

**Introduction**

Zambian languages belong to the literature and languages department. All the languages be local, official or foreign have the same treatment and anyone from the department can be the Head oh department regardless of the subject taught as long they possess the required qualities and qualifications.

The head of department is an officer who is appointed by the president through the teaching service commission to man a department in a secondary school. Depending on the number of subjects and the curriculum being offered by a given school, the number of HODs vary. However, every school has a head of department for languages because it has compulsory subjects, and these are taught in all schools. The department comprises of English language, Zambian languages, and Foreign languages. The foreign languages in other schools which are international are actually compulsory while the Zambian languages in some of them do not exist. However, the focus is the government schools and some private schools which have commonalities that are shared, and they also meet in the use of the Zambian curriculum.

**Management in schools**

The job description of the HOD is: To supervise and teach in the specified subject /sessions in order to ensure delivery of quality education

What is management in teaching and in relation to the HOD?

• Involves planning, coordination, organization, directive and control of the teaching activities.

• Involves coordination of staff in order to achieve set goals and objectives

• Involves controlling Staff and decision making

• Is how an educational institution looks at its affairs

• Is the process of managing information through people

• Is the act of getting work done through others

• Involves influencing, controlling and directing in order to achieve the institution goals

• Involves planning, organizing, directing, controlling, supervising, coordinating, motivating, monitoring and evaluation, material and human resources

What is administration for the HOD?

• Involves in the effective implementation of procedures, systems, processes and supervision and control and production activities. Management of records and information, human resources

• The process of running and organization

• The process of effectively administering the entire organization

• Involves decision making, pertaining the issues of the institution in order to attend the objectives and goals

• Involves effective of institution rules and regulations

**11.1 Role of the head of department (HOD)**

The HOD is an office whose role is to organize the department, human resource and materials to the best and benefit of the learners in schools. In order to ensure that such organization is achieved, the following roles are enshrined on the HOD’s office.

a. To update the books in the department at the beginning and at the end of the term so that he or she can know on what has been happening.

b. To update the personal file records for each teacher in the department as a means of ensuring record keeping process is complete in school. The HOD is responsible for his or her teachers and their personal and professional data.

c. To update the departmental timetable so that he or she knows when and where the teachers are at a given time.

d. To plan for the meetings in the department for the whole year through the annual work plane.

e. Prepare an annual work plan and follow it so as to achieve the objectives set in it for that given period.

f. To check the teaching and learning processes in school in the subjects which are in the department.

g. Guide teachers on the teaching and learning processes co that there is effective and uniform teaching and delivery of content in the department. This is key and the HOD should be ready to learn from others because knowledge is not static.

h. Prepare Continuing Professional Development Meetings for the term as indicated in the departmental workplan.

i. Demonstrate how to teach certain components and lessons to classes available in the school.

j. Ensure that teachers provide feedback to learners promptly to their classes.

k. Source and guide the relevant materials for the department so that teaching and learning can be smooth in school.

l. Check and follow the changes that come with the curriculum and the examinations council of Zambia regarding assessment and examinations.

m. Cope up with the pressure of work and change the personal attitude to that of a servant and not being a BOSS.

n. Act on behalf of the deputy head and head teacher when appointed to act on whichever grounds. It should be noted that acting is never permanent, and the actions should be that of a servant and not to prove the office bearer is not capable.

o. Report to the deputy on how the department is running during the organized meetings as per school routine.

p. Evaluate the teaching materials which teachers prepare for their classes and certify them before they are used before learners.

q. Mark lesson plans everyday for every teacher before he or she goes to class. He or she has the right to make the teacher re-write the lesson plan to meet the standards of the school or to meet the learner’s needs as per stated objectives.

r. Ensure that assessment is given to all the classes as per schedule, marked, entered and learners receive feedback.

s. Delegate the running of the department to others like the appointment of the head of sections.

t. Lead others to make sure the teachers in the department are groomed to be leaders as well when he or she goes out.

u. Stock take the departmental materials, books and office inventory every beginning and end of term.

v. Submit departmental reports to the deputy head, head teacher, DEBS and SESO languages. This is sent at the end of the term.

w. Supervise the teaching and learning through teacher monitoring every week if possible and provide feedback to the observed teachers. Also, to submit reports to the deputy head regarding the observations.

x. Orient teachers sent to the department and guide on how the department runs its affairs so that the teachers are not found wanting.

y. Rehearse with management on the needs of the department when need arises so that there is no information gap.

z. Protect the management from attacks which teachers prepare because he or she is a manager as well. This will help the smooth governing of the department and school.

**11.2 Files for the department**

There are a number of files which are prepared and found in the office of the head of department for languages. Amongst them are:

**a. Teaching file**

This file keeps records of the teachers and their teaching timetables which are being used during that term. It is updated every term in case there are changes in the teaching loads with respect to transfers and leave.

**b. Academic and professional file**

This is the file which has the documentation of the qualification of the teachers in the department. This is a subfile which should correspond to the file which the head teachers keep in the confidential locker.

**c. Past papers**

This is a file which has the past papers which have been written in the recent past for all grade, 9 and 12. In other school, there may be a separate file for end of term examinations, continuous assessment and homework given. So, these files are supposed to be separate since they only keep samples of what was examined to the learners. However, it depends with the resources available in school and the lobbying power of the HOD to create such files.

**d. Schemes**

This file keeps the exhausted schemes of work for the previous terms and years. These are kept to show evidence that teaching and learning took place. Also, to show evidence that the HOD and the management were checking the progression of the teaching and learning during that time because the date stamps will be shown as evidence. This file also keeps blank schemes of work which are given to teachers at the beginning of the term.

**e. Association file**

This is the file which keeps documentation on the associations which exist in the department and their activities. In other school, this file is combined with clubs, yet they are different. This file only takes the information which is related to the departmental association matters like the Language Teachers’ Association of Zambia (LATAZ).

**f. Correspondences**

This file keeps information which is coming into the department and going out of the department formally (in writing). This saves as evidence of communication which has had happened between the department and others in the education circles or beyond. Budgets for materials needed for the department are filed here and the requested which are either fulfilled or rejected are also filed here as evidence of not having such materials in case you are visited and questioned.

**g. Departmental minutes**

This file has minutes for the various meetings which the department held during the period the file stipulates. In organized school, you can even find minutes which were written when the school opened its doors to the public while disorganized school do not even have a record for the last term’s meeting. Kindly check your school.

**h. Departmental reports**

This file keeps termly reports that are presented to the administration, DEBS and SESO languages. These are reports acts as evidence of having submitted reports to inform the offices on the way the department was performing.

**i. Miscellaneous**

This file files the information which is unclassified in any of the mentioned or discussed files. This file helps in allocation of the unallocated files.

**j. Records of work**

This file stores the used records of work for a given period of time. It is up to the HOD to decide on the volume of the schemes to keep depending with the storage facility available and the number of teachers in the department. This file also keeps blank records which are given to teachers.

**k. Homework**

This file keeps the homework given to the pupils every ween Friday and the concurrent answers to them.

**l. Clubs**

This file keeps the records which comes from the club patrons. Every club in the department has file which has corresponding data for record keeping. The reports from the clubs are also file together with their annual and departmental work plans. This acts as a guide to the HOD regarding which club is alive and the ones which are dead.

**m. Confidential**

This file stores disciplinary letters from the HOD and the school management saved to a teacher in the department. It also keeps confidential information like who may remain to take over the department when the time comes. It is kept under key and lock in departmental locker.

**n. Exam analysis**

This is the file which where examination analysis are kept for the subjects which are in the department. This analysis is cumulative in the manner that is analyses each learner’s performance in the subjects which are in the department. It is not only the final examinations, but the tests and continuous assessment.

**o. CPD**

This file keeps information regarding the CPD meetings which were help in the department. It also caters for the meetings which have been planned and they are yet to be held. An annual work plan for the planned CPD meetings is also filed here to give guidance on the progression of the meetings.

**p. Lesson observation**

This file keeps forms which have been used to observe teachers with. It also keeps forms which are blank and are supposed to be used on the teacher observation when the time reaches.

**q. Lesson study cycle file**

This is the file which keeps the information on the progression of the teaching cycle which have been organized in the department for a given term and year. it gives information on who taught what, and what remained to be taught in the cycle.

**r. Exam Topic file**

This file files the structured topics which are supposed to be schemed and taught in a particular grade for a period of time. It also gives a guide on which examination topics were examined previous and which ones may come for that given year.

**s. Transfers in and out/ handovers file**

This is a file which stocks the triplicate of the handover minutes which are signed by the management appointed overseer. It also files the photocopies of transfers of teachers who have come to the department and those who have left. This supplements the handovers which are made by the teachers and the receivers.

**11.3 Delegation and supervision**

To be an effective head of department, there is need for him or her to delegate certain duties to the members of the department. It is not only duties where there is no money, but also meetings can be attended by HOS to represent the HOD as a way of training them to be leaders. It always becomes a problem and conflict when the HOD is failing to delegate and attends to all duties alone. This makes the teacher feel inferior and leave managerial work for the HOD and refuse to assist in the duties when he needs them to. Therefore, delegation should be rotational as well not always one teacher being appointed to represent the HOD outside while others represent the HOD when he has work to attend to. It is unprofessional of the HOD.

The HOD should ensure that he or she creates a rotational supervision timetable for classroom observation. This will help in the quality fostering of the teaching and learning processes in the school. When such is done, the teachers do their work on their own while the HOD walks around to ensure work is being done.

**11.4 Departmental meetings and the roles**

The HOD is always the chairperson in the departmental meeting. He or she makes the agenda with the HOS so that they speak the same language. He or she ensures that the department is making progress in the meetings and always make follow ups on issues which were left pending with the administration. He or she is not the final person to decide or dictate the way forward, but should listen to needs of the members. The writing of minutes is usually rotational in the department amongst its members. 175

**11.5 Personal characteristics of an HOD**

An HOD is supposed to have exemplary characteristics which should be admirable by the teachers and the entire school. Not all characteristics are agreed upon, but some common ones are as follows:

a. Should be ready to learn from the juniors because education changes with time.

b. He or she should be a good listener

c. He or she should speak less. A talkative HOD misses the point of what the members would love to present

d. Do not be the ‘I know it all’ kind of a leader, you will fail

e. Should be well organised and should organise the office very well

f. Should be more knowledgeable in the subject matter

g. Should highly qualified so that he or she should command respect with confidence

h. Should be tactical in the way you handle cases in the department

i. Ensure you protect your teachers in public and never despise them

j. Respect every member of your department regardless of their age and capabilities

k. Delegate responsibly and evenly without favour

l. Report what is important to your superiors and be brief. Not all is for the head teacher’s consumption

m. Be mature enough to keep secretes for your teachers that is how they will respect you and develop confidence in you

n. Be close to the learners that is when you will get to know their needs and how your teachers are.

o. Be firm and polite in you approach to real issues.

p. Should always be punctual for any function and should communicate to other members effectively earlier than the date for meeting.

**11.6 Supervision and monitoring**

Teachers’ supervision and evaluation are essential and complementary functions, although they present distinctive characteristics (Glickman et al., 2008; Nolan & Hoover, 2004; Pawlas & Oliva, 2007). Supervision represents an organizational duty that promotes professional development, perfecting teaching practice and more learning and success for the student. Being of procedural nature, it has its basis on research-action and it configures ecological, cooperative and formative activities. As such, each teacher can exercise supervision duties, regardless of his/her duties in the organizational structure.

In turn, teachers’ evaluation is an organizational duty that accomplishes an overall formal assessment of teacher’s competence and performance. Evaluation makes sure that each teacher’s performance is acceptable the system reveals a minimum level of competence, taking into account the student’s success. The converging duties of evaluator, specialist and decision-maker are based on national-level criteria, as well as on objectives and targets stated by each school, within its pedagogical autonomy framework. Hence, the evaluator exercises duties of global assessment for each teacher, including class observation. Unlike supervision, the relationship between the evaluator and the evaluated is hierarchical, exercised by teachers appointed for that purpose

**11.7 Sources of authority**

1. Position

2. Training

3. Natural wisdom

Note: the opposite of the above QUALITIES OF A GOOD HOD

An ideal HOD must have the following professional and inter-personal qualities:

1. Good listener

2. Good researcher

3. Good communicator (eloquent speaker, ict wizard,

4. Good record keeper

5. Follow up addict

6. Submissive

7. Assertive

8. Protective

9. Cultured, mannerism,

10. Creative

11. Foresight/forecasting

12. Warm hearted / charismatic.

13. Punctual

14. Ethical/Professional

16. Knowledgeable

17. Prompt to complete assigned tasks

18. Self motivated

19. Self supervised

20. Sacrifice

21. Critical thinking

22. Empathy

23. Preparedness

24. Confidant

25. Analytical

26. Accountability

27. Dependability

28. Presentable

29. Resourceful

30. Availability

31. Suggestible (not conceited, insolent, I know it all, accept divergent views)

32. Integrity

33. Honest

34. Social

Role model. ***Remove what’s in your eye before doing so for others***

**11.8 Roles of the HOD in school improvement**

To ensure success HODs should

➢Allow stakeholders to interact during problem-solving and come up with shared opinions.

➢Involve the staff during planning of desired improvements.

➢Afford opportunities to experiment with suggested improvements.

There are a number of challenges which HODs face despite the system demanding more from them. Some of the are:

• Lack of resources

• Financial and human resources

• Planning events

• Too many meetings not funded

• Political interference

• No capacity building

• Brain drain

• Poor attitude towards work

• Low salaries

• Teachers discipline

• Human resource inertia

• Poor communication between head teachers and management

• Lack of teaching and learning materials

• Less man power (vocational skills)

• Absenteeism

The roles of the HOD are changing in line with the changes in education as well as technological needs. It is in the office of the HOD that departmental examinations are types and stored for the monthly and end of term. So, if some of the above are not relevant in one school, they maybe relevant in another school and new ones can come up be in force. There is not fixed role of an HOD hence there is no memorisation of a job description.

**TASK**

***1. With reference to your school, discuss the areas where your HOD is failing to manage the department effectively.***

***2. With specific examples, discuss how natural wisdom can be applied by the HOD in solving departmental issues in school without involving the deputy head?***

***3. Why is the office of the HOD important in a secondary school?***

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