**Audiences**
- specific person (e.g., self, teacher, friend, older person, younger person, parent)
- specific group (e.g., class, team/club, grade, age group, special interest group)
- general audience (e.g., school, community, adults, peers, students, unspecified).

**Writing Forms**

The ability to shape and organize ideas requires choosing a form that is appropriate to the audience and purpose. Students need experiences with a range of forms. Some examples include:

- personal experience narratives
- autobiographies
- biographies
- fictional narratives (e.g., short stories and novellas)
- diary entries
- journal entries
- learning logs
- poetry (e.g., ballads, acrostics, counted-syllable formats, free verse, song lyrics, other formats)
- parodies
- essays
- research reports
- reviews
- news stories
- editorials and opinions
- advertisements
- correspondence (e.g., friendly letters; invitations; letters of thanks, complaint, application, sympathy, inquiry, protest, congratulation, apology)
- scripts (e.g., skits, plays, radio plays, TV commercials)
- oral histories
- eulogies and last will and testaments
- speeches
- memoranda and messages
- instructions and advice
- rules and regulations
- minutes and forms
- pamphlets
- résumés and cover letters.

Through an appropriate balance of experiences with the previous purposes, audiences, and forms, students can become competent in a range of writing tasks.
Organizing and Developing Ideas

Writers not only need to think about what they are going to say but also about how they are going to say it. Pre-composing plans help students approach the blank page. During the pre-writing phase, students should also give some attention to how they might organize and develop their thoughts (Olson, 1992). Although these plans will be tentative, they are useful for getting started. Students need to organize their ideas in logical sequences. Several ways of developing and organizing ideas are possible depending on purpose and form. Some different ways of development and organization include:

1. **Chronological order**
   - A chronological or step-by-step arrangement of ideas by time or order of occurrence.
   - e.g.: A narration of an incident

2. **Spatial order**
   - Spatial, geometrical, or geographical arrangement of ideas according to their position in space-left to right, top to bottom, or circular from general to specific or vice versa.
   - e.g.: A description of an object or person

3. **Theoretical order**
   - Supportive ideas of equal quality to prove a topic idea.
   - e.g.: Reasons stated to convince.

4. **Common logical processes:**
   - definitive (e.g., is called, is made up of)
   - classification and division (e.g., parts and relationships)
   - order of importance (e.g., first, second)
   - comparison and contrast (e.g., compared to, differs from)
   - cause-effect (e.g., consequently, the reason for)
   - problem-solution (e.g., problem, alternatives, decisions)
   - pros and cons (e.g., strongly support, against)
   - inductive and deductive (e.g., specific to general, broad to specific)
   - dialectic (e.g., thesis/antithesis/synthesis).

Students could consider constructing a map, a chart, an outline, a visual organizer, or a ladder diagram to organize their main ideas and supporting details.

5. **Drafting**

   During this phase, writers produce a first draft. Additional drafts can be written that further shape, organize, and clarify the work.

**During drafting, teachers should encourage students to:**
- say what they mean as directly as they can.
be themselves; write from their own point of view or assume a new persona or voice from which to write.

write as though they were “telling” the reader about the topic.

Committing their thoughts to paper or computer screen is not an easy task for all students. Strategies such as the following may facilitate the translating of ideas into first and successive drafts.

- **Mapping:** Creating a map of additional ideas and reconceptualizing ways to order them as they write, may help students capture their ideas before they are lost.

- **“Writing-off” leads:** Creating several first lines and then using the key words and direction suggested by one of these leads may get drafts underway for students.

- **Fast or free writing:** Writing an entire first draft as quickly as possible without rereading or pausing to attend to mechanics may help students create their first draft.

- **Personal letters:** Writing a first draft as if it were a personal letter to one specific person such as a friend may free students to create their first draft.

- **Conferencing:** Talking about ideas with a teacher or peer may help students see how they can start and develop their first draft.

- **Reflecting and questioning:** Pausing to ask themselves what they are saying and if they need to say more or to say it differently may help students move their drafts forward.

**Revising - Editing and Proof-reading**

Drafts reflect the struggle to get words down on paper and, as such, they are usually rough and incomplete. Revising brings a work to completion. It is a complex process of deciding what should be changed, deleted, added, or retained. Revising is the general post-writing procedure which involves editing (revising for ideas and form) and proofreading (revising for sentence structure, spelling, punctuation, and capitalization).

**Useful strategies for revising ideas and form include:**

- Students can read compositions aloud and possibly tape them.

- Students can examine compositions in relation to specific questions or guidelines. (E.g., Is my composition clear? Is there something that I can do to make it clearer or more appealing? Do my ideas and form address the needs of my audience?)

- Students can use a revision process which involves them in working through various “passes” (Perrin, 1992).

**The following are some examples**

1. **Edit for truth and accuracy.**
   (e.g., Did the Prime Minister really say his opponent had a face like a ferret? Why correct the spelling at this point if you might change the sentence?)

2. **Edit for organization.**
   (e.g., Is each paragraph appropriately placed?)
3. **Edit for paragraph structure.**  
   (e.g., Does each paragraph have a topic sentence?)

4. **Edit for sentence structure.**  
   (e.g., Does each sentence have a verb? Is there variation in sentence length?)

5. **Edit for word choice.**  
   (e.g., Have you used “less” when you mean “fewer”?)

6. **Edit for spelling and punctuation.**

7. **Edit for conciseness and clarity.**  
   (e.g., Is there anything else that should be removed? Added?)

   Proof-reading involves reading for conventions rather than content. Proof-reading and editing are not mutually exclusive. During the editing process, some proof-reading may occur and during proof-reading, further editing may occur. Proof-reading is the process of checking a draft to make sure that the following conventions are correct and appropriate:

   - paragraph structure
   - sentence structure (syntax)
   - word choice (diction)
   - usage
   - spelling
   - capitalization
   - punctuation
   - appearance (e.g., spacing, indentation, page numbers).

**Conferences**

Conferences can take numerous forms and the teacher does not always need to be directly involved. In fact, students should be encouraged to discuss their writing with their classmates. Students can meet with one or two classmates to ask for advice, share a piece of writing, or revise a composition.

In peer conferences, students need to know how to maintain a helpful and supportive relationship. Teachers need to take time to model good responses and set some ground rules such as the following:

- **Be positive.** Respond to what the writer is trying to say and what the writer does well. Tearing down another person’s work will only result in discouragement and hurt feelings.
- **Be helpful.** Do your best to make comments that will be useful to the writer.
- **Be specific.** Talk about specific words, phrases, or paragraphs.

Students can be encouraged to use the **PQP method of peer response:**

- **P (Praise)** What do you like about my paper?
- **Q (Question)** What questions do you have about my paper?
- **P (Polish)** What specific improvements could I make?
Peer conference guides such as the following can also be used.

**Sample Peer Conference Guide**

Writer : 
Reader : 
Date : 
Written Work :

Discuss the following:

1. What I liked most:
2. The main idea seems to be:
3. Your organization is:
4. Questions I have are:
5. An idea to try is:
6. Additional comments:

In any teacher-student conference, the key to success lies in asking questions that teach, questions that lead students to discover what they have to say and want to communicate, and that encourage them to talk about the work. The teacher can, for example, ask:

- How is it going?
- Where are you now in your draft?
- Can you tell me more about that?
- Can you say more about ...?
- What do you think you will do next?
- Where do you want this piece to go?
- If you put that idea in, where could it go?

The value of revision is that students learn to “re-see” and rethink their writing. Ideally, students should go beyond concern for just the product of writing and become equally concerned with the process of writing.

**Recitations and Evaluations:**

- What words have you written? Can you spell them for me?
- Have adult volunteers or “older scholars” check slates / notebooks for correctness.

In many language classes, a mnemonic called “C.A.R.E.” is used for helping students to remember the four basic ways to revise. As all writers think their writing is important, they must CARE for it.

- C = Cross out ideas, sentences, paragraphs, words using the delete symbol
- A = Add images, figurative language, dialogue, thoughts, using the caret, speech, and thought bubbles
- R = Rearrange ideas to make sure they are in an order that make sense
- E = Exchange “tired” words like big, nice, good, etc. for more vivid words
What is Story Mapping?

A story map is a visual depiction of the settings or the sequence of major events and actions of story characters. This procedure enables students to relate story events and to perceive structure in literary selections. By sharing personal interpretations of stories through illustrations, students increase their understanding and appreciation of selections. Story maps can be used as frameworks for storytelling or retelling, and as outlines for story writing.

How to make a story map?

The Setting

Characters : Tell who is in the story.

Place : Tell where the story takes place.

Time : Tell when the story happens.

The Problem

One or more characters has a difficulty. What is the difficulty or problem?

The Goal

Goal : One or more of the characters has a goal - something they need or want to happen. Usually this goes along with the problem.

The Events

Events 1, 2 & 3 : Things that happen in the story that tell how the characters get from the problem and goal to the ending of the story.

The Ending

What happened at the end of the story. Tells how the character achieved his goal and solved his problem.
**STORY MAPPING**

To sum up, story mapping is a way of visually representing the major parts of a story. The focus is typically on the three main elements of a story: the beginning, middle, and end. The students are directed to concentrate on the most important events of the three main elements, and not get hung up with minor details.

1. The teacher reads the story to the class, or has them read it silently. The more familiar they are with the story, the more successful they will be.
2. The teacher draws an outline of the story map onto the board. The middle circle will contain the title of the story. From that circle, the teacher draws three lines to connect to three other circles containing the terms; beginning, middle, and end.
3. The students recall and list the most important events connected to each of the three story element parts. This is done by drawing lines from the story element (beginning, middle, end) to another circle with the event written within.
4. After the story map is complete, the students use it to orally retell the story, illustrate main events, write a summary, or act it out.

**Summary Blueprints**

This strategy helps students to read and learn from content area texts. This strategy helps students select the main information from a text by using a graphic representation of the story structure as a guide.

1. The teacher shares and discusses with the students the summary blueprint.
2. The students read the assigned text.
3. The students complete the summary blueprint by filling in the setting, characters, plot and ending.
4. The students create a written summary about the text using information gathered from the summary blueprint.
5. The students share and discuss their work.
Two-Column Notes for Plot & Conflict Resolution

This strategy helps students with a story’s plot development and resolution by using a graphic organizer. This organizer uses two columns. The first column lists the following story elements; setting, characters, problem(s), event(s), and resolution. The second column is for the students to complete using information from the story.

1. The teacher introduces the graphic organizer.
2. The students read an assigned story.
3. The students complete the two-column notes using their knowledge of the story.
4. The students share and discuss their notes with the class.
5. The students may add illustrations.

Assessment & Evaluation Considerations

- Note students’ ability to identify main story characters and events.
- Note students’ ability to sequence story events.
- Story maps reveal students’ level of comprehension of story events and structure.
- Variations among students’ story maps illustrate their personal interpretations.

PROMOTING WRITING SKILLS

LANGUAGE GAMES

Game-1: Familiar Things

Talk about ‘sets’ of household objects or other familiar things, such as ‘utensils’, ‘clothes’, ‘vehicles’. Ask children to name different things that would come under a set (e.g. spoons, pans, cups, under ‘utensils’). List all things that form a set on the blackboard. Form two groups of children. Every child in the first group will copy the name of one thing from the list. For instance, someone else will have ‘thali’. Children of the second group will now demand things, one at a time. Whoever has the demanded thing in the first group must stand up and go over to the child who has demanded it, and show him how to write the word he had copied earlier.

Game-2: Collecting Signs

Depending on the area where you work, you can choose signs of different kinds. In villages, sign boards and notices in bus stops, hospitals, and other public places can be used.

Ask children to copy the signs they see on their way to school. Write all the signs on the blackboard and ask children to explain where they found them and what they mean.
Game-3: Completing Words

Pair all children. One child will start a word, the other one will finish it. They will take turns till each has completed ten words successfully.

Game-4: Just One Word

Form groups of five. Each group will have a piece of paper or copybook to write on, and at least a pencil. Select one child as the ‘starter’ in each group.

The starter thinks of a sentence but he can only write one word on the paper which now goes to the next child in the group. This child can also contribute just one word - that goes with the first which is already there. The paper keeps going around till the sentence is complete.

Anyone can decide at any point that the sentence has become ‘sick’ and therefore must be abandoned. If others agree, the group gives the paper back to the starter or selects a different starter to write a fresh word.

Game-5: Drawing a Map

Ask children to tell the class how they go home. First tell them how you go home-describing briefly but clearly two or three things that you meet on your way.

When every child has had a chance to speak, ask them to draw a map showing the route they have just talked about. To demonstrate, draw the map showing your route on the blackboard. Go to each child as the map-making is in progress and write the name of one of the objects that he wants to show on the map, such as ‘tree’, ‘shop’, mailbox’, etc. Ask the child to copy the word just below the object in his map.

Next time, do this activity by talking about the way to some other place, such as ‘my friend’s house’, ‘temple’. Each time you organize this activity, increase the number of words you write in the map.

Game-6: Places Around Us

This is an extension of the last activity, but this time we ask children to draw maps of spaces or places they know rather than of the way to get there. Examples:

- the school’s backyard
- the classroom
- nearby pond or river

Write the name of any one object shown in the map at the appropriate place. Ask children to make the same map again, writing the name of the object where it belongs in the map.
Game-7: Writing About Pictures

See activity No. 8 in the chapter on ‘Talk’ and organize it with older children, asking them to write answers to your question.

Use children’s own pictures as well as advertisements, magazines, etc. Start by asking children to describe the picture, then proceed to the more complex questions.

Game-8: Making Poetry

Make groups of five. Give four lines of poetry to each group and ask them to add four more lines. Let each group go away to some distance for fifteen or twenty minutes of discussion.

Write (or form) what you know

a. Riddles and definitions lend themselves chiefly to vocabulary work, but they should be simple and the answer is to be written.

The teacher says, for example, ‘Write down the name of something we hold over our heads when it rains’. The pupils hopefully write ‘umbrella’, or better, ‘an umbrella’. ‘And now something that we can wear when it rains’. ‘A raincoat’. ‘What do we call very heavy rain?’ ‘A downpour’. This of course, is fairly advanced. Preferably, except at a very advanced stage, the vocabulary should belong to a subject the class has been reading or writing about recently. It is better for the questions to follow on one from another, and not to be on completely different subjects. The answer-words should be painstakingly selected by the teacher beforehand, and the questions framed with a proper regard for the pupils’ level of achievement and intelligence.

Further examples: What has four legs and a back but no head? (A chair.) What do we use to cut our meat? (A knife.) You can walk or drive along it. (A road.) It lives in rivers and has sharp, dangerous teeth. (A crocodile)

b. Finding words spelt similarly to the first word given is also a fairly advanced learners’ activity, since it presupposes that the pupils have a substantial vocabulary to draw on.

The teacher gives a word, e.g. unhappy, and asks the pupils to think of other words they know which begin in the same way – uninteresting, unintelligent, unwise, unending, undo, untie, un-wholesome, etc. They can be written on the board, adjectives in one column and verbs in another. ‘Odd men out’ like inactive, illiterate, and immature might have to be written up separately. But if this is a spelling activity it should not be allowed to slide over too much into vocabulary work.

If the teacher suspects someone of not knowing the meaning of a word which he or she has produced, he can always ask for a sentence or an explanation.

English spelling has its oddities. Grouping words of the same spelling pattern together is an aid to memory. Thus work, word, worse, worm, world, etc., show a regular correspondence of the letters wor- to the sound /w/ followed by a certain vowel, and
bought, fought, nought, sought, etc., a similar correspondence of the letters – ‘ought’
to a certain vowel sound followed by the sound /t/, however these vowel and consonant
sounds may be spelt in other words. The words grouped should, of course, be words
the pupils have already met with.

c. Word-completion is a game for both elementary and intermediate pupils. The image
of the word is fairly well known, or else can be found somewhere, say on the board or
in a book. The difficulty is in part of the word; for instance, it may be a matter of ie and
not et, or of having a double instead of single letter.

It is preferable, even when spelling is our main concern, to present the incomplete
word in a sentence: A p_ _ _ man is someone who delivers letters. Here there are three
letters to fill in (o s t). In the above example the number of dashes shows how many
letters are missing, but to make things more difficult there might be only one dash.
However, the teacher should wish to get the right solution rather than make things
difficult. On the other hand, if these little problems are below the learners’ level they
soon become boring.

Bowen et al. (1985) suggest the following: When the student is able to write words from
memory, he may be asked to

- list objects in pictures.
- draw and label his own pictures.
- make personalized stationery by drawing a personal letterhead.
- make a monthly calendar or birthday card for a classmate.
- draw a picture map of his neighborhood or another familiar area.

Alphabetizing tasks provide writing practice. These include the following.

- List five words that begin with _________.
- Rearrange the following words in alphabetical order:
- Write a girl’s name that begins with _________.
- Find two objects in the picture whose names begin with _________.
- Rearrange the letters in an alphabetical order.

As the beginner’s knowledge of English increases through what he is learning to say
and read and to generate new words phrases and sentences, he may be asked to

- make topical vocabulary lists.
- make associational pairs or groups of words.
- prepare antonyms.
- prepare synonyms.
- make familiar paradigms like the days of the week or the months.
- make personal lists, such as items on a shopping list, food served at a meal, and packing
  lists.

At this stage the student may practice his signature in cursive form.

From words students go on to short word groups such as phrases.

From the above steps, proceed to extend phrase writing into sentence writing.
The Conventions of Writing

Good writing requires a host of skills in content, organization, and style (including the conventions of written English). The conventions of writing are the generally accepted mechanics of language. They make communication possible. During the proof-reading stage, students attend to the following:

- form (e.g., paragraph, essay)
- sentence structure (syntax)
- word choice (diction)
- usage
- spelling
- punctuation and capitalization
- appearance (e.g., spacing, indentation, page numbers, quality of handwriting).

Students need to understand that readers expect certain conventions in writing. Surface errors distract the reader. A good revision guide, one that includes editing and proofreading criteria, is a start. Students need to understand how the guide can assist them.

Form

Form is basic to all writing. During writing, ideas are given shape and structure. Students need to understand the various formats available to them and understand that purpose dictates the format of each composition. Clear, practical instruction and practice with many models help students understand the range of writing forms available to them.

Prose Forms

The following list illustrates the range of prose forms:

- **Description**: paragraph, essay, character portrait or sketch
- **Narration**: paragraph, essay, anecdote, short story, diary, journal, biography, autobiography, fable, parable, myth, legend, personal letter
- **Exposition**: paragraph, essay, report, article, character study, research paper, news story, newspaper column, business letter, review, memo
- **Persuasion**: paragraph, essay, brief, editorial, letter to the editor, review, column.

ASSESSMENT OF WRITING

It is important that learning experiences in the classroom be assessed in an authentic manner. The traditional grading of papers still has a legitimate place in the English language arts classroom but should not be the sole means of assessing writing. Rather, continuous assessment should mirror instruction and be interwoven with it. Continuous assessment is vital in order that teachers gain a clear, reliable picture of how students are progressing and how well the methods of instruction address students’ needs.

Writing assessment can take many forms and should take into account both product and process. In process assessment, teachers monitor the process students go through as
they write. In product assessment, teachers evaluate students’ finished compositions. In both types of assessment, the goal is to help students become better and more confident writers.

**Process Assessment**

Teachers watch students as they engage in writing in order to determine strengths, abilities, and needs. Teachers observe in order to learn about students’ attitudes and interests in writing, the writing strategies that they use, and how students interact with classmates during conferencing. While observing, teachers may ask students questions such as: How is it going? What are you writing about? Where do you want this piece to go? This type of informal observation enables teachers to make informed instructional decisions and demonstrates to students that teachers are supportive of their efforts during the writing process.

**Conferencing** is a central means of assessing the writing process. A student-teacher conference is a meeting to discuss work-in-progress. As teachers listen to students talk about writing, they can learn how to help students work through the process. A conference can occur at various points of the writing process. Teachers’ questions can lead students to discuss what they know, what they are doing, what they find confusing, or of what they are proud. Teachers should balance the amount of their talk with the students’ talk and allow the students to take responsibility for discussing and thinking about their own writing.

The key to success in any conference lies in asking questions that teach. The following are examples:

*As students begin to write:*

- What will your topic be?
- How did you choose (or narrow) your topic?
- What pre-writing activities are you doing?
- How are you gathering ideas for writing?
- How might you organize your writing?
- How might you start writing your rough draft?
- What form might your writing take?
- Who might be your audience?
- What do you plan to do next?

*As students are drafting:*

- How is your writing going?
- Are you having any problems?
- What do you plan to do next?

*As students revise their writing:*

- How do you plan to revise your writing?
- What kinds of revisions did you make?
• Are you ready to make your final copy?
• What kinds of mechanical errors have you located?
• How has your editor helped you proofread?
• How can I help you identify (or correct) mechanical errors?
• What do you plan to do next?

**After students have completed their compositions:**

• With what audience will you share your writing?
• What did your audience say about your writing?
• What do you like best about your writing?
• If you were writing the composition again, what changes would you make?
• How did you engage in the phases of the writing process in writing this composition?

Using anecdotal records and checklists, teachers can chart students’ development and gather information that will help them determine grades and quality. Anecdotal records provide teachers with details about students’ writing. Over time, these records provide comprehensive pictures of the students as writers.

**Self Assessment**

When students assess their own writing and writing processes, they develop a sense of responsibility. In self-assessment, students assess their own writing and decide which pieces will be shared or evaluated. As students work through the writing process, they may address the quality and effectiveness of the writing. They may also judge if they have met the requirements for the given assignment. Early in the course, teachers can introduce students to the concept of self-assessment by creating a handout with questions such as the following:

**Sample Self-assessment**

1. Does my composition make sense?
2. Does it say what I want it to say?
3. Does it say it clearly?
4. Can the reader follow my thinking (i.e., my organization)?
5. Are there any details that need to be deleted? Added?
6. Am I happy with this composition?
7. What makes this piece of writing strong? Weak?

Students’ reflections and insights are an important element of evaluation. Most classes, with practice, are capable of assisting the teacher in establishing evaluative criteria. Teachers should clearly communicate to students their expectations regarding evaluation.
SAMPLE ASSESSMENT AND EVALUATION SUMMARY

Student’s Name : ___________________________________________
Class : ___________________________________________
Teacher : ___________________________________________

P = Poor (1-35)  
A = Average (36-60)  
G = Good (60-90)  
E = Excellent (91-100)

Unit:

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<th>Assessment (Process)</th>
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<th>G</th>
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<th>Assessment (Product)</th>
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| Speaking/Representing | • Practises behaviours of an effective speaker  
• Practises effective group skills  
• Expresses point of view appropriately  
• Summarizes main points and evaluation of discussion  
• Others |   |   |   |   | • Introduction of peer  
• Prepared dramatic reading (monologue)  
• Storyboard  
• Group talk  
• Summary |   |   |   |   |
| Listening/Viewing | • Practises behaviours of good listener  
• Follows directions effectively  
• Practises an effective notemaking strategy  
• Analyzes own listening/viewing behaviours  
• Others |   |   |   |   | • Listening/viewing guide  
• Notes  
• Listening/viewing self-assessment |   |   |   |   |
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<td>Reading/Viewing</td>
<td>• Practises behaviours of an effective reader</td>
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<td>• Response log</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Maintains a complete response log</td>
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<td>• Genre appreciations</td>
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<td>• Summarizes information read</td>
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<td>• Poetry</td>
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<td>• Identifies values and points of view in reading</td>
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<td>• Identifies values and points of view in reading</td>
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<td>• Summarizes information read</td>
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<td>• Summary</td>
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<td>• Identifies values and points of view in reading</td>
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<td>• Summarizes information read</td>
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<td>• Reading self-assessment</td>
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<tr>
<td>Homework Attendance</td>
<td>Others</td>
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<td>• Unit Test</td>
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<td>Others</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Unit Mark/Grade</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Comments such as the following can help students develop writing skills and can validate them as writers.

General
- I can picture this.
- I know just what you mean. I’ve felt this way too.
- Make this part a little more specific.

Beginnings and Endings
- Strong introduction. It makes me want to read this paper.
- Your ending came so quickly that I felt I missed something.
- Your wrap-up really captured the whole mood of the paper.
- The conclusions seemed a little weak. I felt let down.

Organization
- This was very well organized. I could follow it easily.
- I am confused about how this fits.
- I am not sure what the focus of the paper is.
- How is this connected to the sentence or idea before it?
- This sentence or paragraph seems overloaded. Too much happens too fast and I cannot follow.

Clarity
- Can you add detail here? I cannot see the whole picture.
- Good description. I could make a movie of this.
- Adding some physical description would help me see this more clearly.
- Tell me more about this. I need more information.
- An example here would help us support your case more willingly.
- The use of dialogue here would help me see this person more vividly.
- I am not sure what you mean. Let’s talk.

Structure and Language
- Notice that you have a number of short sentences here. Can you combine them to improve the flow?
- This sentence is a whopper! Break it up, please.
- Good word choice. It really captures the essence of what you are saying.
- Your language seems a bit overblown. I do not hear you talking and that distracts me.

Usage and Mechanics
- Oops—you changed tenses and confused me.
- You switched from the third person to the first. I can understand it, but it does distract.
- You capitalize words randomly. Let me sit down with you in workshop and show you some things.
- Break your work into sentences so I can more clearly see which ideas are related.

It is common practice for teachers to assign a grade or score to students’ writing products. Forms of scoring include both holistic and analytic.
Holistic Scoring

Teachers read the compositions for a general impression and, according to this impression, award a numerical score or letter grade. All aspects of the composition—content and conventions—affect the teacher’s response, but none of them is specifically identified or directly addressed using a checklist. This approach is rapid and efficient in judging overall performance. It may, however, be inappropriate for judging how well students applied a specific criterion or developed a particular form. A sample holistic scoring rubric follows, with scores ranging from 5 to 1.

Sample Holistic Writing Rubric

5/5 Ideas are insightful and well considered. This writing has a strong central focus and is well organized. The organizational pattern is interesting, perhaps original, and provides the piece with an introduction which hooks the reader and carries the piece through to a satisfying conclusion. If there are errors in mechanics, they are the result of the student taking a risk with more complex or original aspects of writing.

4/5 Ideas are thoughtful and clear. This writing has a clear and recognizable focus. A standard organizational pattern is used, with clear introduction, transitions, and conclusion. The writer’s voice and tone maintain the reader’s interest. The few errors in mechanics do not impede communication or annoy the reader unduly.

3/5 Ideas are straightforward and clear. This piece of writing has a recognizable focus, though there may be superfluous information provided. The organizational pattern used is clear and includes a basic introduction and conclusion though it may be formulaic or repetitive. The writer’s voice and tone establish, but may not maintain, the reader’s interest. The mechanics show less effort and attention to proofreading than needed.

2/5 Ideas are limited and overgeneralized but discernible. It is underdeveloped and lacks clear organization. There may be an introduction without a conclusion, or the reverse, a conclusion with no introduction. The point of view is unclear and there are frequent shifts in tense and person.

1/5 Ideas are elementary and may not be clear. This piece of writing lacks focus and coherence. The organizational pattern and development of the topic are confusing. Point of view may shift in a confusing way. Mechanical errors are abundant and interfere with understanding. The piece must be read several times to make sense of it.

Sample Holistic Rubric for a specific product. e.g.: Letter and Résumé

It is important for students to be given evaluation criteria before they begin writing. A covering letter and résumé could be evaluated using the following criteria. Rubric means, words put on a heading to show or explain how something should be done.

5/5 Letter and résumé are complete, succinct, neat, free of mechanical errors, and properly formatted.

4/5 Letter and résumé are generally complete but wording and formatting could be improved. There may be details missing and a mechanical error or two.
3/5 Letter and résumé are adequate but appearance could be improved. There may be several mechanical errors. Information may be missing or unnecessary information may be included.

2/5 Letter and résumé do not make a good impression on the reader. Important facts have been left out or are disorganized. There are a number of mechanical errors.

1/5 Back to the drawing board. The letter and résumé are incomplete, unclear, and contain numerous mistakes.

Analytic Scoring

In analytic scoring, teachers read compositions focusing on a pre-determined list of criteria. Although this type of analysis is more time consuming than other measures, it does provide detailed feedback. Diederich’s Scale (1974) is the most widely used analytic measure but it must be used cautiously in order to reflect the instructional focus. It is easy to adapt the scale for specific purposes. The following is an example:

**Sample Analytic Scoring Criteria**

1: Poor, 2: Weak, 3: Average, 4: Good, 5: Excellent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Writer: ____________________</th>
<th>Reader: ____________________</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quality and development of ideas</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization, relevance, movement</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Style, flavour, individuality</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wording and Phrasing</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar, sentence structure</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punctuation</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manuscript form, legibility</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total score</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A sample analytic scoring guide for measuring specific aspects of a multi-paragraph composition is shown below.

**Sample Analytic Scoring Guide**

Quality and Development of Ideas (10/25)

When marking the quality and development of ideas the marker should consider how thoughtfully and effectively, within the context of the writing situation, the writer:

- Communicates and integrates ideas (information, events, emotions, opinions, perspective, etc.)
- Includes details (evidence, anecdotes, examples, descriptions, characteristics, etc.) to support, develop, and/or illustrate ideas.
9-10 Ideas are insightful and well considered. This writing has a strong central focus and exhibits unique comprehension and insight that is supported by carefully chosen evidence. Sophisticated reasoning and literary appreciation are evident.

7-8 Ideas are thoughtful and clear. This writing has a clear and recognizable focus and exhibits a comprehensive and intimate knowledge of the subject matter. Literary interpretation is more logical/sensible than insightful.

5-6 Ideas are straightforward and clear. This writing has a recognizable focus and exhibits adequate development of content, although interpretation is more common place and predictable.

3-4 Ideas are limited and overgeneralized but discernible. This writing has an inconsistent or wandering focus and, although it exhibits some development of topic, ideas are often superficial and supporting evidence is vague or weak.

1-2 Ideas are elementary and may not be clear. This writing lacks focus and coherence and shows little or no development of topic. What is there is generalized and unsupported, so that there is little evidence of understanding.

**Organization (5/25)**

When marking organization the marker should consider how effectively, within the context of the writing situation, the writer:

- creates an introduction
- establishes and maintains focus
- orders and arranges events, ideas, and/or details
- establishes relationships between events, ideas, and/or details
- provides closure.

5 The introduction clearly states the direction the essay will take and invites further reading. Ideas are clearly and coherently developed and show evidence of critical thinking. The conclusion logically and thoughtfully completes the essay.

4 The introduction provides direction for the reader and the ideas generally focus and sustain the topic. Ideas are developed clearly and the conclusion effectively completes the essay.

3 The introduction provides some direction for the reader and the ideas are usually focussed but show little imagination. Ideas are clear but may lack coherence. The conclusion offers little insight.

2 The introduction is weak and relates only marginally to the body of the essay. There is no focus and the ideas are not clearly developed. The conclusion provides no real purpose.

1 The introduction, if there is one, does not contribute to a discernible controlling idea. Development of the topic is meagre or superficial. The conclusion, where present, is unclear or unrelated to the development provided.
**Style** (5/25)

When marking style the marker should consider how clearly and effectively, within the context of the writing situation, the writer:

- makes use of diction
- uses syntactical structures (such as parallelism, balance, etc.)
- makes choices that contribute to the creation of voice.

5 The writer has chosen appropriate details and established a definite point of view that enhances the writing. Diction is clear, vivid, and precise. Syntax is varied, effective, and polished. The writer’s voice and tone consistently sustain the reader’s interest.

4 The writer has established a point of view and a sense of audience, and shows awareness of language and structure. Diction is effective. Syntax is generally effective. The writer’s voice and tone maintain the reader’s interest.

3 The writer’s point of view is clear and consistent and shows a basic understanding. Diction is adequate but somewhat generalized. Syntax is straightforward. The writer’s voice and tone establish, but may not maintain, the reader’s interest.

2 The writer’s point of view is unclear and the choice of diction is imprecise and/or inappropriate. Control of syntax is limited and results in lack of clarity. The writing exhibits superficial and/or minimal awareness of the reader.

1 The writer’s point of view may shift in a confusing way. Diction is inappropriate and unclear. Syntax is confusing and results in unclear writing. Awareness of the reader is not apparent.

**Mechanics** (5/25)

When marking mechanics the marker should consider how clearly and effectively, within the context of the writing situation, the writer communicates by applying the conventions of:

- sentence structure
- vocabulary and spelling
- grammar, including subject-verb agreement, pronoun-antecedent agreement, correct and consistent verb tenses
- punctuation and capitalization.

5 Sentences are correct. Any mechanical errors are the result of taking a risk with more complex or original aspects of writing. The writing demonstrates a strong command of the conventions of language.

4 Sentences are substantially correct, with errors only in attempts at more complicated constructions. The few mechanical errors do not impede communication. The writing demonstrates a solid control of the conventions of language.

3 Common and simple constructions and patterns are correct. Information is clear despite a faltering in mechanics. The writing demonstrates a general control of the conventions of language.
Sentences having uncomplicated structures are usually clear, but attempts at more
difficult structures result in awkwardness and/or obscured communication.

The writing exhibits a lack of knowledge in the use of sentence structure, usage, grammar
and mechanics. The writing demonstrates only an elementary grasp of the conventions
of language.

WRITING REVIEW OF BOOKS

Writing a review of books is an advanced writing skill. Exposing students to book
reviews in newspapers and periodicals is a healthy practice at school level. This shall
introduce them to the best books released by leading publishers. Developing the skill of
writing reviews of books needs to be developed gradually. A teacher shall share the best part
of a book he/she has recently enjoyed reading and thus develop a desire in the pupil to read
books in their school library have been discussed in Section-A (pp. 40-41) of this source
book.

Translation - A developmental skill of language learners

Translation is a rather more complex task than one would tend to think. Language is
actually one of the best indicators of the complexity of mankind’s nature, relationships and
activities. It entails emotions, thoughts, beliefs, intentions, double meanings etc. And every
language has its own very specific rules one needs to be aware of and respect.

Translation is the interpreting of the meaning of a text and the subsequent production
of an equivalent text. It communicates the same message in another language. The text to be
translated is called the ‘source text’, and the language that it is to be translated into is
called the ‘target language’, the final product is sometimes called the ‘target text’.

Translation must take into account constraints that include context, the rules of grammar
of the two languages, their writing conventions and their idioms. A common misconception
is that there exists a simple word-for-word correspondence between any two languages,
and that translation is a straight forward mechanical process. Such a word-for-word
translation, however, cannot take into account context, grammar, conventions and idioms.
Translation is fraught with the potential for ‘spilling over’ of idioms and usages from one
language into the other, since both languages coexist within the translator’s mind. Such
spilling-over easily produces linguistic hybrids such as Tanglish (a mixture of Tamil and
English). Translation of literary works (novels, prose pieces, short stories, plays, poems
etc.) is considered a literary pursuit in its own right.

Using Graphic Organizers for Developing and Assessing Writing Skills

A language teacher employs various techniques for developing children’s language skills.
Graphic organizers help a child to plan his/her writing and revise the work too before
handing it in for evaluation to the teacher. Besides the assessment rubric enables a teacher
to exactly look for the organization and presentation of ideas in creative writing. A repeated
use of such graphic organizers make the process of learning to write easy and effortless
too. Besides the evaluation also becomes systematic and formative. The more the language
teacher employs such viable devices in the classrooms the more enjoyable learning becomes.
Let us see some of the examples of Graphic organizers.
TEACHER RUBRIC

Student: ___________________________ Date: ___________________________

Instructions: Check the box next to each number that best describes the student’s writing.

A. Introduction
   □ 4. Developed introduction in paragraph form
   □ 3. Introduction with some detail included
   □ 2. Simple beginning paragraph
   □ 1. Simple beginning sentence
   □ 0. Missing a beginning/introduction

B. Body: Organizes ideas
   □ 4. Three or more developed ideas; each idea organized into paragraphs; several transitional devices
   □ 3. Three ideas each organized into a paragraph; some transitional devices
   □ 2. More than one idea organized into a body paragraph
   □ 1. Ideas organized into sentences; ideas may be unorganized or difficult to follow at times; no paragraphs
   □ 0. No organization of ideas; random words and/or phrases

C. Includes descriptive details
   □ 4. At least three descriptive details about each idea
   □ 3. At least two descriptive details about each idea
   □ 2. One detail about each idea; some are descriptive
   □ 1. Basic detail included about some ideas
   □ 0. No details included

D. First-person point of view
   □ 3. Uses consistently
   □ 2. Uses most of the time
   □ 1. Uses inconsistently
   □ 0. Does not use at all

E. Conclusion
   □ 4. Developed conclusion in paragraph form
   □ 3. Conclusion with some detail included
   □ 2. Simple ending paragraph
   □ 1. Simple ending sentence
   □ 0. Missing an ending/conclusion

Score __________

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Beginning: 0–7
Early Developing: 8–11
Developing: 12–15
Fluent: 16–19
THE TWENTY SEVENTH MAY

It was 27th May. I had invited some of my friends from Madurai to join our family picnic to Vandalur zoo. It was a very special occasion because my friends from Madurai visited my home for the first time.

After visiting a part of bird’s section, we got tired and hungry. A lot of people thronged the aquarium building. So, we decided to sit somewhere. I looked for a green and shady area. We walked through the footpath and reached a well maintained lawn. I spread the blanket. Mother opened the bags. I circulated the paper plates and kept water jug at the centre. I helped my mother serve variety rice and pickle to all my friends and family members. My grandfather narrated how my father played pranks and got punished in his school. Gopi was interested in eating bananas. Just then a monkey appeared and snatched a bunch from his hands. He tried to frighten it to return the bunch of bananas. But the monkey was smart. It climbed a nearby tree and started its sweet lunch. We had a hearty laugh. But Gopi was upset for quite sometime. I offered the only banana I had and consoled him. Now there was less crowd in the bird’s section.

We saw white peacocks and love birds. As clouds started gathering in the sky, a peacock started dancing spreading his beautiful feathers. We were a little scared when we heard the roar of a big lion from inside its huge cage. We were thrilled to see a large and handsome tiger walking slowly and proudly. We saw a group of spotted deer grazing quietly. Their horns were pretty too.

Grandpa, being tired, was relaxing on the spread blanket. We returned to the gate of the zoo at 5 p.m. I did not expect the time to fly so fast. In the company of young friends, we forget worries and time also. We returned home by 8 p.m. Twenty seventh May turned out to be a very memorable day in my life.
SAMPLE OF A GRAPHIC ORGANIZER

(Exercise)

Name: Kumar

Introduction

What? Where? With whom?
Summer picnic - Visit to Vandalur Zoo, Family & Friends

Body

1. Topic sentence
   find place to sit
   Supporting details:
   * many people
   * walked through foot path
   * found a spot, spread blanket, opened all the bags, circulated paper plates.

2. Topic sentence
   got hungry, time to eat
   Supporting details
   * helped mother serve variety rice
   * grandpa told funny stories about dad
   * a monkey snatched bananas from Gopi

3. Topic sentence
   Supporting details
   * bright coloured birds inside cage
   * large tiger - caged lion roared
   * Peacock danced
   * Spotted deer grazing

Conclusion

Feeling or solution
Packed up, walked home, best 27th of May
Revision Checklist

Instructions: Check each box as you read over your writing.

- My introduction shows details for who and what the story is about.
- The body is organized into paragraphs for each of the ideas (at least three).
- I use at least three descriptive details to tell more about each idea.
- Each sentence is complete and makes sense.
- I include some figurative language.
- I use simple, compound, and complex sentences.
- I use first-person point of view.
- My conclusion shows a feeling or solution and why the topic is memorable.
THE TWENTY SEVENTH MAY

It was 27th May. I had invited some of my friends from Madurai to join our family picnic to Vandalur zoo. It was a very special occasion because my friends from Madurai visited my home for the first time.

After visiting a part of bird’s section, we got tired and hungry. A lot of people thronged the aquarium building. So, we decided to sit somewhere. I looked for a green and shady area. We walked through the footpath and reached a well maintained lawn. I spread the blanket. Mother opened the bags. I circulated the paper plates and kept water jug at the centre. I helped my mother serve variety rice and pickle to all my friends and family members. My grandfather narrated how my father played pranks and got punished in his school. Gopi was interested in eating bananas. Just then a monkey appeared and snatched a bunch from his hands. He tried to frighten it to return the bunch of bananas. But the monkey was smart. It climbed a nearby tree and started its sweet lunch. We had a hearty laugh. But Gopi was upset for quite sometime. I offered the only banana I had and consoled him. Now there was less crowd in the bird’s section. We saw white peacocks and love birds. As clouds started gathering in the sky, a peacock started dancing spreading his beautiful feathers. We were a little scared when we heard the roar of a big lion from inside its huge cage. We were thrilled to see a large and handsome tiger walking slowly and proudly. We saw a group of spotted deer grazing quietly. Their horns were pretty too.

Grandpa, being tired, was relaxing on the spread blanket. We returned to the gate of the zoo at 5 p.m. I did not expect the time to fly so fast. In the company of young friends, we forget worries and time also. We returned home by 8 p.m. Twenty seventh May turned out to be a very memorable day in my life.
Some Final Considerations

Students need to know exactly what will be evaluated and how. Teachers should communicate their expectations or develop the expectations with the class, considering the following:

- Teachers should not feel that they must mark everything but they should provide some kind of feedback for most of the students’ writing. Using the folder/portfolio system, students should choose what they will submit for evaluation. Teachers set the minimum guidelines (e.g., five public compositions/three informal compositions/several journal entries).
- Teachers should communicate their assessment guidelines as well as the methods (e.g., holistic, analytic) very clearly at the beginning of the course to all concerned—students, parents, school administration.
- Teachers should clearly communicate the mark allocation (e.g., the percentage assigned to each of product and process). For some assignments, students may have the option to weigh the process or product more heavily within a pre-determined range of marks.
- Teachers must balance the marks assigned to writing with the other language strands.

Growth in writing is slow and highly individualistic. Effective evaluation depends on teachers clearly understanding what students can do, assessing students’ growth, and giving meaningful feedback and encouragement.

C. Exploration

Student-Teachers shall do projects on the following topics:

- The relationship between handwriting and the personality of the writer.
- The scope for teaching the range of skills from lining and sketching to self-expressive creative forms of writing.

References


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11. Dictation - New methods, new possibilities, Paul Davis and Mario Rinvolucri, Cambridge University Press.
13. For interactive story mapping exercises, please use http://fcit.coedu.usf.edu/FCAT/strategies/sm/activity1.htm
3.1 Scope

3.1.1 Points to ponder

Following are some specific views on teaching grammar. Read them carefully and choose the one that you agree with:

1. *The acquisition of the grammatical system of a language remains a most important element in language learning. Grammar is the means through which linguistic creativity is ultimately achieved and inadequate knowledge of the grammar would lead to serious limitations on the creativity for communication.* - Wilkins

2. *Systematic attention to grammar is neither necessary nor sufficient for learning to use a language. That it is not necessary is demonstrated by the native speaker’s success without it, that it is not sufficient is seen in a second language learner’s lack of success with it.* - Newmark

3. *The grammar book and the grammar curriculum are like the luggage of an unskilled camper, who does not know where he is going or what he is going to do there, so he has tumbled into the bag all sorts of useless articles…* - Michael West

If you happen to be a staunch believer in grammar, you might have disagreed with the last two statements and gone by the first statement. However, there seems to be some truth in what Newmark and Michael West say. Most often learners feel burdened by the grammar they learn, and are unable to use it. It is also puzzling how native illiterate speakers manage to speak grammatically, without learning any grammar whatsoever, whereas in Indian learning situation second language learners are unable to communicate in English even after ten to twelve years of drilling in grammar.

In this unit, our major aim is to find answers to the following questions:

- What is grammar?
- Should we teach grammar?
- What grammar should we teach?
- What is the place of grammar in school curriculum?
- How should we teach grammar?

3.2 Objectives of Teaching Grammar:

Development

The ability to use a language effectively depends primarily on one’s knowledge of the underlying ‘rules’ that govern the uses of the language, Thus, if you are able to understand the meaning of something which is said to you in English or of something which you read, it is because you know something of the ‘rules’ of English.
Task 1

If some of your students make the following statements (say / write), do you find all is well or do you find any mistake in them?

1. Do you know what is this?
2. He is speak English fluently.
3. She ran fastly.
4. Mary is loving me very much.
5. I have no money.

Does your knowledge of the rules enable you to identify the mistakes committed and the category of errors?

You can get at the correct message of each statement, provided you have the knowledge of the rules. It is clear, therefore, that one of the important aims of language teaching is to give the learner a knowledge of the code or the underlying rules of the language. This brings us to the teaching of grammar.

The word ‘grammar’ usually reminds us of those tiresome, unappetizing periods in the school time-table when we were forced to memorize rules and paradigms. Since most pupils have very little use for this kind of grammar (none other than scoring some marks in the examinations) it is rapidly forgotten. Even most teachers, unsure of their knowledge of ‘grammar’, feel reluctant to teach it.

3.3.1 What is grammar?

All of us have a vague notion about grammar. This is because the word ‘grammar’ is interpreted in different ways by different people. Let us look briefly at three such interpretations and call them G1, G2 and G3.

1. Grammar 1 or G1:
   Grammar is the total mechanism which a language possesses and through which its users are able to communicate with each other.
   - Every native speaker of a language – literate or illiterate is aware of the total mechanism of the language which enables him to communicate with others. This awareness is intuitive.

2. Grammar 2 or G2:
   Grammar refers to the formal analysis and description of the rules of the language. This is known as descriptive grammar.

3. Grammar 3 or G3:
   Grammar refers also to the rules for the correct use of a language which may be prescribed for its users.
   - A grammar of this kind produced by Nesfield or Wren and Martin consists largely of rules which a learner is expected to master. For example, the verb should agree with the subject noun. The question is – which grammar is the teacher expected to teach – G1, or G2 or G3? Every teacher of English must ultimately teach the G1 of
English since this is what enables a student to use the language. However, we, as teachers of English follow the G_2 (The Descriptive Grammar) or the G_3 (The prescriptive Grammar or Formal Grammar). But does the teaching of G_2 or G_3 help the student in learning G_1?

The Indian situation seems to provide a ready answer to that question. Many of our students know a lot of G_2 or G_3 (this, at least, is what their marks in the school examination indicate), but they can neither speak nor write correctly. The inference is that their G_1 is poor.

On the other hand, a student can certainly be made proficient in G_1 without any experience to G_2 or G_3. This is what happens in the case of native speakers, and could happen with a student who is able to learn in the same way as a native speaker, that is, through constant exposure to the language.

If the teaching of G_2 or G_3 does not ensure the learning of G_1 and thereby assisting the learner to communicate in English, why is it taught at all? Infact, the reaction against the teaching of G_2 and G_3 has gone to that extreme that teachers are cautioned that they should “teach the language not about the language”.

As a result, a new approach to grammar teaching has come in where greater emphasis has been laid to the practice or use of language in meaningful, easy, real life situations wherein the following techniques are employed: oral drilling, pattern – practice, substitution exercises, etc. The student is systematically exposed to G_1 (The Functional Grammar) by the teacher and he absorbs as much of it as he can.

At the initial stages of learning, there is no attempt to make the student think consciously about language or to provide explanations of any kind. Formal Grammar (G_2) is excluded, as it is believed that explanations will confuse the young learner who does not possess the maturity to benefit from them.

But after some years of learning, when the learner has gained sufficient mastery over G_1, it is felt that he may be exposed to some Formal Grammar (G_2), as this helps to systematize and consolidate what he has already known from G_1.

**Should we teach grammar?**

Discuss with your teacher or debate it out with your peers

We need to teach grammar since our learners can never have the exposure that native speakers have. However, the teaching of G_3 does not seem to help much. So far our approach has been as follows:

| Present the rules of grammar | → provide practice through drills and exercises. |
| → apply this knowledge while communicating |

Now, many experts feel that it may be worthwhile adopting the following approach to the teaching of grammar.
Present genuine communication → elicit relevant rules.
→ provide practice in communication.

Here are two sets of grammar tasks. Go through them carefully and say which one you prefer and why.

**Task**

**A.** 1. Fill in the blanks in the following sentences with suitable prepositions:
   a) The results would be published ________ Monday.
   b) We returned ________ Chennai yesterday.
   c) A man is standing ________ the tree.

2. Change the verbs in the following sentences into the future tense.
   a) You are a teacher.
   b) You earn a lot of money.
   c) You become very famous.

**B.** Divide the students into groups. One of them is the fortune – teller. Others go to him / her one by one and asks questions. The fortune – teller answers their questions.

   For example:
   Q1: What will I become?  A1: You will be a teacher.
   Q2: How much will I earn?  A2: You will earn a lot of money.
   Q3: Will I become famous? A3: Yes, you will become very famous.

**3.3.2 Types of Grammar**

Nobody would dispute that the teaching of grammar is as important as the teaching of reading, writing or any other skill. But we know how to teach all other skills. Traditional approaches to language teaching had a strong influence on the teaching of grammar also. For example, in the Grammar Translation Method, the sentence formed the basis of language teaching. The learner was deliberately exposed to and taught the rules of English grammar one by one till he shaped his language accordingly. Such grammar is prescriptive in nature i.e. they tell us how to write and use the language and not how people use it in actual life.

There is another kind of grammar developed by Wilkins that concentrates not on the rules of forming correct sentences but on expressing the different notions and functions through appropriate grammatical structures. This grammar is called ‘the functional grammar’.

**i. Formal Grammar:**

- This grammar consists of elaborate rules, definitions and the structure of the language. It deals mainly with the physical form of words, word endings, word groups and sentences and not their total meaning as a piece of communication.
- This grammar classifies words into parts of speech and sentences. It further divides them as kinds of nouns, adjectives, verbs, etc and gives us many rules on sentences and transformation of sentences.
- Here reading and writing are the basic skills considered essential because, it is only through these skills language is preserved in its pure and standard form. Spoken English is largely ignored.
✧ It is also called ‘Prescriptive Grammar’. Teaching and learning had to follow prescriptivism for about a century. The rules that were applied to English were directly taken from Latin and Greek and imposed on the language. The whole focus is on corrections.
✧ In this type of grammar, there are sets of rules. Any departure from those rules is not allowed. Here the grammarians forgot that language is ever changing and ever growing.
✧ The students first of all learn the rules for the formation of tenses, words, etc. They learn everything else afterwards. In our schools, for a long time, this grammar was taught as a separate subject dealing with elements of language and neglecting their functions in communication.

ii. **Functional Grammar:**
✧ It is also called the ‘Incidental Grammar’. This type of grammar is learnt by the students quite unconsciously while learning the language. Here language learning is the first concern of the learners and knowing the rules and regulations comes next.
✧ Here the focus is on appropriate utterances rather than on grammatical sentences. For instance, for learning ‘how to seek permission’ students will have to learn the various grammatical forms that can be used to do this:
  - Can I use your phone, please?
  - May I use your phone, please?
  - Could I use your phone?
  - I wonder if I can use your phone?
  - I wondered if I could use your phone?
  - Do you mind if I use your phone?
  - Would you mind my using your phone?
✧ The above utterances are questions, which begin either with a modal, or an auxiliary, or which contains an if clause to achieve one function: seeking permission. Similarly a single grammatical form can be used to achieve different functions as in the following: (functions are given in parentheses)
  - Bake the cake in a slow oven. (instruction)
  - Come for dinner tomorrow. (invitation)
  - Take up this work. (advance / offer)
  - Pardon me please! (prayer)
All the above sentences are imperative, but they are used to serve different functions. The functional grammar does not focus so much on the form as the different functions the grammatical forms aim to do.
✧ This type of grammar takes into account the fact that language is growing and changing from time to time. Here the rules of language are set but change in those rules is allowed.
✧ It deals with the ability to use the language grammatically i.e. acceptable form of words, pattern of phrases, sentences, sounds, stress, rhythm, intonation, etc. It is the grammar in operation.
3.3.3 How are the two types of grammar different?
 Formal grammar is the ability to describe the language whereas functional grammar is the ability to use the language.
 The second type (i.e. the functional grammar) is better because it helps the learners in the achievement of real aims of language learning. So it is recommended for teaching purpose in the schools.
 All children learn functional grammar when they are learning to speak their mother–tongue. They have a very high degree of control over functional grammar before they even go to school. It is only in school where we find formal grammar is taught and used.
 The fact that people learn their mother–tongue without learning formal grammar is now being applied to the learning of second language.
 A learner can learn a new language without learning formal grammar first.

3.3.4 Place of Grammar in School Curriculum

Certainly today we cannot do without grammar. As Wilkins observes, “The acquisition of the grammatical system of a language remains the most important element in language learning. A notional syllabus no less than a grammatical syllabus must seek to ensure that grammatical system is properly assimilated by the learner”.

Without a knowledge of grammar of the language, one’s learning of the language is inadequate. Conscious learning of grammar is slowly converted into an automatic process. This grammar must be taught.

3.3.5 Expected Role of Grammar
 The expected role of grammar is that it should assist in learning the language.
 It should be a means to achieve the goal. The goal is to learn the language. It should not be allowed to become an end in itself.
 At the early stages of language learning the children should be enabled to learn the language straight way.
 They should be given practice in listening, speaking, reading and writing. A good deal of practice is needed for every learner.
 Let the child learn the language in a natural way. At the initial stages, the study of grammar need not be imposed.
 Grammar should be introduced after two or three years of learning the language. By that time, the learner can use grammar as a tool

3.3.6 Contents of Grammar Curriculum in Schools

Chapman has rightly opined, “The essential features of English which pupils must be acquainted with are: word order, tense formation, sentence joints, the fixed nature of idioms and flexibility”.
 During the first year of grammar teaching only functions of words and the way they are used should be taught.
 During the second year and third year, sentence patterns, phrase patterns, structural words and the ways in which English uses a few inflexions should be taught.
At the senior stage these should be coupled with analysis, synthesis, direct and indirect narration, transformation, compound and difficult sentences.

3.3.7 School Grammar Curriculum Focuses on
1. Identification and recall of parts of speech on the basis of their forms and functions in an utterance.
2. Knowledge of tenses and modals.
4. Identification of different kinds of phrases and clauses (conditional, relative, coordinate, etc.)
5. Recognition of parts of a sentence – subject, predicate, modifier, object, complement, etc.
7. Ability to analyse, transform and synthesize sentences.
8. Knowledge of punctuation.

3.3.8 How much grammar is taught in primary classes?
The body of grammatical facts appropriate to the primary school is limited. It might be summed up as follows:-
1. A knowledge of the sentence structure sufficient to analyze and parse it down to its individual words.
2. A knowledge of all the common inflections as they appear in nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs.
3. The various kinds of nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs and conjunctions.

3.3.9 The Objectives of Teaching Grammar
The main objectives of teaching grammar are enumerated as follows:
1. To develop students’ insight into the structure of English language.
2. To enable the students to assimilate the correct patterns of the language without rote memorization.
3. To teach grammar as a rule – governed behaviour.
4. To develop the mental abilities of reasoning and correct observation.
5. To develop a scientific attitude in pupils towards the language.

3.3.10 Principles of Teaching Grammar
The following principles should be adhered to while teaching grammar:
1. In the initial stages, a separate grammar book need not be introduced. Let the pupils unconsciously absorb grammatical items as contained in the reader.
2. Grammar should not begin on abstract lines and abstract principles which pupils may not understand.
3. Grammar points should begin with language. It must correlate speech, in which a sentence is a unitary whole with reading. After the students have listened to it, try to guide them to deduce the pattern which we want them to use.

4. Try to teach grammar and usage simultaneously with their own examples and make them listen to as many usages as possible.

5. Attention should be paid to the meaning of the structure rather than to its grammatical points.

6. Grammar should not be taught as an intellectual exercise; its aim is to make pupils skilful users of the language. So they should be taught to use the structures of English correctly rather than just label them.

3.3.11 Some Principles for Grammar Teaching in Schools

Any approach to grammar in the English classroom should:

✧ Acknowledge and build on what the children already know.
  • This will involve real familiarities with work undertaken at lower classes for higher class study. Always seek to make a link with something already known at the start of the topic so that the pupils have something to relate it to and are more likely to absorb new information.

✧ Involve children in exploration and investigation.
  • Don’t just tell them what they will find. Let them find out for themselves.

✧ Be descriptive and not prescriptive.
  • Focus on effectiveness rather than on simple ‘correctness’. Correct use of language is the usage of an educated, adult user of that language.

✧ Encourage interest in all forms of language.
  • Set a tone of interest and curiosity which accords respect to different ways of expressing ideas.

✧ Focus on the functions of grammar in actual texts.
  • Try not to invent examples; concentrate on what a grammatical device achieves in the text. Collect samples of text. Encourage pupils to bring in different types of text samples of real language use.

✧ Be explicitly related to children’s own reading and writing.
  • Make links between what you happen to be reading and the work already done.

Task:

Develop a scheme of work on grammar

This task will give you the chance to plan a sequence of lessons. You could apply the principles given above and build on a few grammar lessons for the class you are teaching.

a) Devise some activities for motivation.

b) Plan a sequence of two or three lessons on any topic from primary class grammar.

c) Show your scheme of work (lesson plan) to your teacher.

d) Teach the lessons and evaluate your success.
3.3.12 The Environment of an English Classroom.

The environment of an English classroom needs to be conducive to the exploration of grammar and study of words and meanings. All teachers of English need to consider what this will involve and decide how they can adapt their surroundings, attitudes and teaching methods / styles to achieve it. A ‘language–rich’ classroom should provide

- varied and challenging opportunities to use language;
- many opportunities to reflect on and talk about language;
- easy access to a wide range of resources: short stories, poems, comics, riddles, newspapers, pictures, television, motion pictures, Internet and pupils’ own writing on display.

In a ‘language–rich classroom’ the pupils and the teacher will

- show real enthusiasm for learning;
- use their knowledge of language from home and the media;
- show concern for effectiveness and appropriateness;
- make comparisons between texts.

**Task**

**Furnishing richer classroom climate**

The purpose of this task is to reflect on what opportunities can be provided for language use in the classroom environment. Reflect on the items you provide in your classroom or in a classroom you have observed.

1. Can you add anything to the list of opportunities?
2. List three things which could provide your classroom a richer environment.

3.3.13 Methods of Teaching Grammar

The introduction of the Direct method of teaching English and the later innovations, in spite of their permissive approach, did not undermine the necessity of grammar. A language has to be grammatically correct; there cannot be two opinions about it. What these new methods, however, did was that they changed the conventional concepts of teaching grammar and offered a simplified and interesting procedure of teaching grammar.

**i. Deductive Method of teaching grammar:**

- This method may be used with older children who have already learnt some language.
- This method insists on grammar–based language learning.
- The motto is: Grammar first, Language next.
- Examples flow down from universal rules.
- The approach is: general to particular
- The teacher states the rules which are illustrated by examples.
- Wren and Martin and Nesfield are proponents of this type of teaching grammar.

**The procedure**

1. Presentation of rule.
2. Illustration with examples.
3. Verification and application of rule.
4. Practice.

**A classroom reference:**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1.</strong> Presentation</td>
<td>The teacher presents the rules or definition of a language form – for example – the present continuous tense. He defines: The present continuous tense is used for describing actions that are going on at the moment of speaking.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **2.** Illustration | The teacher gives a number of examples making use of classroom situations, pictures or actions.  
I am speaking  
I am writing  
I am walking  
He is running  
She is drawing. |
| **3.** Verification and application of rule | The teacher explains how the rule / definition applies to various situations/examples. He makes the students learn the rule from examples. |
| **4.** Practice | He elicits examples from the students by showing some more pictures or giving some exercises. He gives them enough practice to use the correct form of verb. Care is taken to maintain agreement between the subject and the verb and also the spelling of ‘ing’ words. |

**Critical evaluation:**

The advocates of this type of grammar teaching say:

i. It fixes in the pupil’s mind a standard of accurate usage.
ii. It fortifies him against the influence of bad examples.
iii. It helps him to make usages which are correct, certain, rapid and intelligent.

The critics of this grammar, on the other hand, are very sceptic about its utility:

i. It ignores ‘oral aspects’ of the language.
ii. It is teacher-dominated and not child-centred.
iii. It does not provide anything for free thought and expression.
iv. It is uninteresting and creates a monotonous situation in the classroom.
v. Great scholars like Goethe learnt language through practice “without rule and without system”.

**ii. Inductive Method of teaching grammar:**

One way of teaching grammar is that examples are given to the students. Out of the examples the rules are formulated. This method is called inductive method. It is the method of formulating a generalization with the help of a sufficient number of concrete examples / facts.
The procedure
1. Presentation of examples.
2. Analysis of examples.
3. Generalization.
4. Application and practice.

Classroom Reference:
1. Presentation of examples
   The teacher gives examples and illustrations in a systematic order so they may arrive at a common understanding or a hypothetical generalization.
   Examples:
   I used to play football at school (Now I no longer play the game)
   Ravi used to bathe in cold water. (Now he bathes in hot water)
   My sister used to write well. (Now she doesn’t)

2. Analysis of examples
   The teacher writes some more examples on the blackboard.
   Madurai used to get good rains but now it doesn’t.
   He used to be very funny but he isn’t now.
   The teacher illustrates and explains that we use ‘used to’ to express a past habit. He cautions the students against using it to express a present habit or practice.

3. Generalization
   The teacher helps the students to frame the rule, from all the examples, that ‘used to’ expresses a past habit.
   Rule: ‘used to’ occurs only in the past tense. It expresses a state or habit in the past as contrasted with the present.
   We usually use the simple present tense to talk about present habits.
   Example: I used to play tennis. These days I play cricket.

4. Application and Practice:
   The teacher asks the students to learn the examples first and then the rule. He elicits some more examples from them.

Exercise
Fill in the blanks using ‘Used to’ / present simple verb where necessary.
1. I _____________ cricket. I stopped playing it a few years ago.
2. My brother used to walk any distance. Now he _____________ a scooter.
3. My grandmother _____________ tell us stories. Now she is too old to do that.

Critical Evaluation:
- The Inductive Method makes the pupils think and take active part in language learning.
- Teaching and learning are made interesting through contextualized activities.
- Children learn grammar incidentally as it involves a lot of practice and active participation.
Choice of Method:
- A good teacher of grammar should be eclectic. He should have his own approach based on a synthesis of the insights he has acquired from his study of different approaches to the teaching of grammar.
- He need not accept any one method in totality. He should select what is best suited for his purpose in the classroom.
- He should explain and describe grammatical aspects. He should illustrate them with examples.
- He should have a definite plan for classroom transaction and abide by it.

3.3.14 The Organization of Grammar Teaching

Any grammar class with a learner-friendly procedure can be successful only when the teacher is highly committed and involved. Steps involved in grammar teaching are:

i. Presentation
ii. Isolation and explanation
iii. Practice
iv. Evaluation

i. Presentation:
- We usually begin by presenting the class with a text in which the grammatical structure or item appears.
- The aim of presentation is to help the learners perceive the structure – its form and meaning in both speech and writing – and keep it in their memory.
- Often a story or short dialogue is used which appears in the written form in the text book and is also read aloud by the teacher.
- As a follow-up, students are allowed to read aloud, repeat or reproduce from memory or copy out instances of the use of the structure / grammar item found in the text.
- When the grammar item is very simple and an easily perceived one, ‘the presentation text’ can be a sentence or two which may as a model for immediate practice.

ii. Isolation and Exploration
- At this stage we move away from the context and focus on the grammatical items themselves – what they mean, how they function what rules govern them etc.
- The objective is that learners should understand the various aspects of the grammatical item.
- If situation warrants, in some instances we may need to make extensive use of the students’ native language to explain, make comparisons and generalizations.

iii. Practice
- The practice stage consists of a series of exercises done both in the classroom and as home assignments.
- Its aim is to make the learners absorb the grammatical item thoroughly.
- Here we use a series of varied exercises which will complement each other and provide a thorough understanding.
iv. Evaluation

- Learners here undergo some evaluation tests to demonstrate to themselves and to the teacher how well they have mastered the material they have been learning.
- The main objective of this testing within a classroom course is to provide feedback without which neither the teacher nor the learner would be able to progress.

3.3.15 Grammar learning a palatable exercise?

(Some suggested techniques to teach grammar)

Teaching grammar (English) is not simply a question of handing out clear, linguistic information to the learners. If this were the case, teaching language would be an easier job. Somehow, you, the teacher, have to induce, attract and persuade your students to a joyful learning of language/grammar items. This section provides you with some of the practical ways of inducing your students to English grammar learning. It suggests some interesting, game-like or communicative practice techniques that can be used to supplement those provided by regular course books.

1. Tasks
2. Games
3. Activities
4. Story-telling
5. Cloze exercises
6. Dramatization and role play
7. Pictures
8. Dialogues
9. Situations
10. Demonstration
11. Description / narration
12. Drills

Tasks:

- Tasks are
  i. Language–based (‘Give me some examples of ‘yes / no’ questions’)
  ii. Non–linguistic (‘Guess what I am thinking of’)

- The function the tasks do:
  Activate the learners in such a way as to get them engaged to the grammar item to be practised.

- Essential Characteristics :
  i. Clear objectives – using the grammar item.
  ii. Active language use – provision for repeated exposure and practice.
Task 1: Recipes

Objective:
Use of the imperative to give instructions

Procedure:
- Tell the class to write out instructions for a simple recipe.
  e.g. Making a cup of tea.
- Supply new vocabulary if need arises.
- Check that all participants understand the task and method.

Give instruction on how to ………………….
1. ……………….  boil an egg.
2. ……………….  to make a cup of tea.
3. ……………….  to make a paper boat.
4. ……………….  to prepare a lemonade.
5. ……………….  to make an omelette.

Task 2:
Describing Pictures

Objective:
Use of *is / are* or *there is / there are* to describe a scene.

Materials:
Large pictures that can be easily seen by all the class, preferably in colour and with plenty of details or individual smaller copies of the same to individual students.

Procedure:
1. Invite the students to say as much as they can about the picture, using ‘(There) is or (There) are’.
2. Set a definite target: 10 sentences in 2 minutes
3. As a motivation / preparatory exercise display the picture for two minutes, then hide it and ask students to recall its content.
Pictures to be described:

1.

2.

3.

Games

Most learners find that learning a foreign language like English is different from that of their mother-tongue. What is still more difficult is that the grammar of the new language is spectacularly different from the way the mother-tongue works. Learning English grammar
can be made enjoyable if you provide students with a game-like situation wherein they can feel, think, act and finally produce the grammar you want them to achieve through other non-interesting, mechanical exercises and drills.

**Game-1: Real time**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grammar</th>
<th>Language for telling the time.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>20-40 minutes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Materials</td>
<td>Twelve chairs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Procedure:**

1. Arrange a circle of twelve chairs, with uniform gaps between the chairs. Place a material on one of them to represent twelve o’clock.
2. Let the students stand around outside the circle. Ask for two volunteers to go into the circle.
3. Compare the heights of the two students; the taller one becomes the ‘long hand’ and the shorter the ‘small hand’.
4. The volunteers then sit down on two different chairs indicating time on the clock. They (or you) ask ‘what’s the time?’ Students outside the circle shout out the answer.
5. Continue changing the students inside the circle until you are satisfied with the students’ time-telling and pronunciation.
6. Practice this until the students are able to identify the time by hours.

**Game-2: I Challenge**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grammar</th>
<th>Word endings and suffixes.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>25 minutes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Materials</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Aim:

To avoid completing a word yourself and cause someone else into completing it.

Procedure:

1. Ask a student to call out a letter. It should be the first letter of a word he/she can visualize. Write the letter on the board.
2. Ask the student next to him to call out a letter. Write it next to the first one. Continue with the next student in line and so on.
3. The student whose turn it is can call out ‘I challenge’ instead of a letter. A challenge can be because no possible addition of a letter / letters will make an English word. If the student who provided the last letter can suggest a word, the challenge is defeated. The round is over.
4. The other grounds for a challenge is that letters on the board already make a word. This challenge can be defeated if the student who is being challenged can make a longer word which he says out loud. The round is over. Start a new sequence.
5. After a few word exercises done round, the exercise can be done by the students in small groups.

Example

Challenge 1: The first five students produce ‘butto’. The next student challenges but can be defeated by student 5 suggesting ‘button’.

Challenge 2: The first four students produce ‘free’. The next student can challenge because this is a complete word. Student 4 can defeat the challenge by saying ‘freed’, ‘freedom’, etc.

Note:
This game concentrates students’ attention on word endings –s, -ed, -ing, -er etc. and word building.

3. Activities

Herein, you will find some samples of short, easily prepared activities to supplement the longer teaching procedures on grammar. You may need these activities for
• a quick warm-up for the beginning to get your students into the right mood for learning.
• a brief review before starting a new text.
• a relief – a light filler – after a period of intense transaction.
• a game or amusing item to round off the lesson.

Activity-1: Expanding texts

Objective:

Forming grammatical sentences by adding words or phrases

Procedure:

Write a single simple verb in the centre of the board. Invite students one, two or three words to it. eg. Go - I go - I go to bed.

They go on suggesting additions of a maximum of three consecutive words each time, making the text longer and longer.

They can add only at the beginning or end of what is already written.

Add or change punctuation each time as appropriate.

Go
➤ Go to school.
➤ “Go to school” said I.
➤ “Go to school” said I to my child.
➤ “Go to school” said I to my child firmly.
➤ “You must go to school,” said I to my child firmly.
➤ “Sam, you must go to school”, said I to my child firmly.
➤ “Now Sam, you must go to school,” said I to my child firmly, but kindly.

Activity-2: My neighbour’s cat

Objective:

Review of adjectives.

Procedure:

Draw a cat on the board

• Introduce it as your neighbour’s cat. Say, “My neighbour’s cat is an awful cat”.
• Write the word ‘awful’ on the board.
• Write all the letters of the alphabet under the ‘a’ of awful.
• Ask the students to say what they can about the neighbour’s cat.
• They can offer their ideas in any order they like.
• As the ideas are suggested, write the adjectives next to the appropriate letters.

You : My neighbour’s cat is an awful cat.
Student A : My neighbour’s cat is an ugly cat.
Student B : My neighbour’s cat is a beautiful cat.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Letter</th>
<th>Adjectives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Awful, active, angry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Beautiful, bad, big, black</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Clever, careful, careless, cool</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Dirty, dark, dear, different</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Easy, excellent, energetic</td>
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<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Famous, fat, funny, fine</td>
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<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Good, greedy, grey, green</td>
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<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>Happy, hungry, heavy, honest</td>
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<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Ill, interesting, intelligent, innocent</td>
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<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>Joyful, jolly, jealous</td>
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<td>K</td>
<td>Kind, keen, kindly, knowledge</td>
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<td>L</td>
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<td>M</td>
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</table>
Task: 1 Starter Activities

Starter activities are designed as a ‘warm-up’ to the main lesson. Plan a starter which involves the whole class in learning a grammar point.

Illustration:

**Story Telling**

*Aim:*
Develop creativity and question – answer skill.

*Procedure:*
1. Divide the class into 5 or 6 groups.
2. The teacher initiates story telling
3. The groups one by one ask questions to get the story developed to a final conclusion.
4. Once a story is completed, the leader of a group goes for a fresh story.
5. Children love to play this game as they get enthused in creating new stories.

*Example:*
- Begin a story : I was walking in a garden one day.
- First group : What was in the garden?
- Teacher : A house.
- Second group : What was in the house?
- Teacher : A kitchen.
- Third group : What was in the kitchen?
- Teacher : A refrigerator.
- Fourth group : What was in the refrigerator?
- Teacher : An apple.
- Fifth group : What happened to the apple?
- Teacher : The child, there, ate it.

3.4 Exploration

**Task-1: Functional Grammar in School Curriculum.**

Examine the functional grammar syllabus for the class 3 learner. Which grammar items are given most curriculum space, Why?
Task-2:

Examine the functional grammar syllabus for the class 3 learner. The use of a structure is effectively learnt if it is presented with the help of meaningful situations. Situations can be created with the help of pictures, flash cards, actions, gestures, drawings and verbal contexts.

Following is a verbal situation by which efforts are made to teach the use of present continuous tense and simple present tense.

Devise some more verbal situations to teach the same.

Illustration:

Amarnath is a fisherman. He goes out into the sea for fishing every morning. Today is Sunday. He does not go for fishing. He is in church. He is praying.

Questions:
1. Who is Amarnath?
2. What does he do every morning?
3. Does he go out for fishing every day?
4. What is today?
5. Where is he now?
6. What is he doing?

Situation 1:
Mr John is a teacher.
He teaches English. Now he is in the staff-room.
He is reading a newspaper.

Situation 2:

Situation 3:
Reference
4.1 Scope

Setting the scene:

Think of the composition classes you have been teaching or have attended and answer the questionnaire on teaching composition.

1. Rank the role of the four basic language skills in your curriculum.
   (1 – most important; 4 least important)
   
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. How relevant and useful are your composition classes and exercises to the students?
   
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relevance</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very Useful</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent useful</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechanical</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Useless</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. What is the learners’ attitude to composition writing?
   
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitude</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Enjoy</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Like</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerate</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hate</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoid</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Rank the preferences to the following language exercises.
   
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exercise</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Letter writing</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precise writing</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Translation</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing Hints</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dialogue writing</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Is there an improvement in the learners’ writing skills as a result of composition exercises?
   
   a. Yes     | No

   b. Give reasons for your response.

   c. Suggest measures for improving the writing skills of students through composition exercises.
**Points to ponder**

| Neglect of writing at School levels | • Most English curricula in India, at any level, prefer examinations through the medium of writing alone. Learners write examinations at the end of the year or term tests.  
• But the language practice of teaching throughout the year fails to give them adequate training in the written skill.  
• Learners spend the whole year listening to the teacher’s exposition of the text. There is only one period for composition every week and even that too is often converted into a prose or poetry class.  
• Though writing happens to be the most important skill as far as the examination is concerned, it is given a raw deal in the classroom.  
• There are many occasions when learners have to use written English in real life as in filling in money order forms, bank challans and reservation forms, sending telegrams, furnishing details in application forms, curriculum vitae, etc. but the syllabus for writing composition continues to be stereotyped even at this Information Marvelling Period by including hardly anything besides letters, précis and essays. |

As a consequence of this tiring and mechanical language study, learners naturally either hate composition classes or try to skip them for they do not have any relevance to real-life situations or needs. Hence there is hardly any improvement in their writing skills over the years.

In this unit we shall make efforts to analyse the following topics and suggest fresh initiatives.

i) Aims and objectives of teaching composition.

ii) Oral and written composition

iii) Controlled and guided composition.

iv) Free composition

v) Expansion Exercises

vi) Correcting composition exercises.

vii) Developing creative competency.

viii) Developing strategic competency.
The Process of Writing

The process of writing has four stages;

- Structuring
- Copying
- Transcribing
- Composition.

i. Structuring - Teaching the child how to write the letters of the alphabet.
ii. Copying - Copying the passages or materials from the textbooks.
iii. Transcribing - The practice of writing the text materials without the help of the textbook.
iv. Composition - Advanced stage of learning to write on some topics of interest in a systematic way.

Characteristics of a Composition

- It is the expression of a child’s thoughts, ideas, feelings and observations.
- It includes both the process and product of composing.
- It refers to the process of collecting thoughts, arranging them in a proper sequence and expressing them in a recognized form.
- The product may take the shape of a letter, a paragraph, a description, a story, etc.

Main aim of a composition

The main aim is to communicate one’s thoughts in an organized way.

Objectives of Teaching Composition

1. To encourage the students to express their ideas in writing in an orderly and systematic way.
2. To communicate information that could be followed readily by the reader.
3. To enable the students arrange their ideas in writing at a reasonable speed and with accuracy.
4. To enable them recall appropriate vocabulary and use it in sentences.
5. To help them make use of appropriate punctuation marks for clarity of ideas.
6. To enable them fix the structures and vocabulary already learnt by them orally.
7. To develop among the students communicative competence through writing.

Why should composition be taught?

- It helps the students to express themselves freely. Everyone is keen to give an outlet to his feelings and observations. That desire for self-expression is satisfied.
- It enables a person to develop thinking and planning before writing.
- The process of oral practice before written exercise helps the students to be precise and accurate.
- It develops extensive thinking and creative imagination.
- It promotes various writing skills – describing, narrating, summarizing etc.
- Writing skills, developed through composition, are helpful in pursuing higher education and prospective careers.
The basic requirements for successful composition writing

1. Promotion of effective expression
   - The most pressing duty of the teacher is to help his pupils develop an effective mode of expression.

2. Necessity of copying
   - Copying is a necessary phase of the early stages of learning as it develops fluency in the mechanics of writing.
   - An original composition can be developed by modifying a set of sentences copied from the black board and applied to the student’s situations.

A Student may adapt this as follows

My routine

I am Sam. I always get up at 6.30.
I drink a tumbler of water.
I go for a walk in my garden.
I bathe before I take my breakfast.
I often eat idlies.
3. Preparation for composition:
   The teacher who wishes the whole class to write a composition on a particular subject must prepare them in the following ways.
   i. He must satisfy himself that all his students have enough ideas on the proposed subject. It forms the basis of a successful piece of writing.
   ii. He must also be sure that they have the required linguistic competence - vocabulary and sentence patterns - for conveying their thoughts on the given topic.

Principles of Composition
1. Principle of proper selection:
   Only such topics which are of interest and familiarity should be selected for composition.
2. Principle of gradation:
   Selection of topics should be in accordance with the age, ability and class level of students.
3. Principle of oral practice:
   Oral practice on the subject matter should be given before asking them to write anything. This will reduce the mistakes in writing.
4. Principle of sequence:
   Sentences on the given topic should be arranged coherently and have meaningful sequence.
5. Principle of timely correction:
   The written work should be corrected within a time limit. Otherwise students will continue to make mistakes.
6. Principle of follow-up:
   The teacher should initiate suitable remedial measures to make the students write without mistakes.

Types of Composition
There are two types of composition
   i. Oral composition
   ii. Written composition

Oral composition
- An oral composition is one in which a student orally expresses his ideas, feeling, needs, etc in a few sentences.
- It is a natural prelude to written composition at the beginning of language learning.
- Through this exercise, students are able to speak fluently and write correctly.
**Advantages of oral composition:**
- It is useful for giving practice in using the language already learnt.
- It is useful for training the pupils to express their ideas, feelings, observations, etc in the new language with confidence as they do it in their mother tongue.
- It prepares them for written composition.
- It promotes clear and precise thinking.
- It develops in the students the skills of spoken English i.e. pronunciation, stress, intonation, etc.

**Stages of oral composition**

1. **Primary Stage:**
   1. Direct reproduction of what the teacher says – words or sentences.
   2. The teacher asks questions on simple objects and students answer them.
   3. Execution of commands given by the teacher.
   4. Questions on what the pupils are doing and the pupils answering them.
   5. Pupils questioning on familiar objects or pictures.
   6. Describing an object, a picture or a person in a few connected sentences.
   7. Teacher asks questions on the textual lesson and pupils answer.
   8. Practising simple dialogue on familiar topics.
   10. Dramatization, recitation and oral reading.

2. **Upper Primary Stage**
   1. Conversation, recitation, debate and dramatization.
   2. Teacher’s questions based on the text taught and pupils’ answers.
   3. Describing common objects and answering questions on them.
   4. Story telling using the clues (after listening to the teacher).
   5. Short speeches about their experiences.
Oral Composition – A model demonstration

Model: 1

Showing the meaning of words.

Aim: To know the meaning of words

Procedure:

- Draw a picture of a human face in the blackboard in such a way that it appears to ‘smile’.
- Invite the pupils’ attention to the drawing on the board.
- Have an informal dialogue with the class.

Teacher : Look, he is smiling.

Now look at me.

I’m smiling. (shown by facial expression)

Smile. We smile when we are happy.

Smile, please. (gesture)

Students : (Smile)

Teacher : Good. What does ‘smile’ mean?

Students : They give mother/tongue translation (ôś đ i f)

How do the students benefit by this oral demonstration?

- Picture on board is so interesting that the students remember it longer.
- Facial expression gives them a clear meaning.
- Model sentences show how ‘smile’ is used as a verb.
- Teacher’s cordial talk and his use of techniques help in easy learning.
- Translation helps them understand the word clearly.

Model: 2

Aim: To focus on listening

Procedure:

- Read a short story sentence by sentence.
- Make a few meaningful pauses in the narration of the story.
- Ask questions to test their listening.
- Ask children to predict what will happen next.
- Instruct them to sit in groups and practise telling the story.

Once there was a boy in a village. His name was ABC. He was the son of a poor fisherman...........

(1. What was the name of the boy?)
(2. What was his father?)

........... He was going home one evening. On his way, he saw an old man lying by the side of the road ..........

(1. Where was he going one evening?)
(2. Who did he see by the side of the road?)
The boy pitied him. He took him to the hospital. The man was given medical treatment and good food. He recovered. He came forward to reward the boy with many gifts. The boy declined the gifts.

Ask student-teachers to frame questions for the above sentences.
1. ________________________
2. ________________________
3. ________________________

Written Composition
What is it?
Students communicate their feelings, ideas, observations, etc. by way of writing in a classroom language exercise.

Preparation for written composition
i. Oral questioning:
   • It should be specific, detailed and well distributed over the class.
   • It should be focused on definite aspects of the topic.
   • It should make the students look for more information and details of the subject matter.

ii. Use of pictures:
   • With one composite picture with many details for the entire class or individual picture cards for each student, a lot of information can be pooled for a written composition.
   • It is a good aid for writing picture compositions.

iii. Reading aloud:
   • Reading aloud extracts from interesting articles, magazines, newspaper, etc.
   • A written composition is one which involves oral activity of questions and answers on the text read aloud.
   • Students are allowed to have the fun and joy of reading aloud.

iv. Short informal talk:
   • The teacher can initiate some short informal discussion on the topic.
   • This helps to prepare the students mentally for the written exercise.

v. Visits for first hand information.
   • Instead of thrusting all information regarding the topic verbatim, students can be allowed to have the joy of experiential learning by visiting the places or persons to be written about.
   • The teacher can suggest required details.

Types of written composition
There are three types of written composition:

i. Controlled composition.
ii. Guided composition
iii. Free composition.
The controlled composition:

- In the 1950s and early 1960s under the influence of the Audio-lingual Method, writing was relegated to the secondary position.
- At lower levels, controlled writing was restricted to copying of sentences or filling-up exercises. Students were asked to change the present to the past tense, questions to statements or to combine sentences and clauses.
- Grammar, syntax and mechanics of writing were stressed to help the students develop composition skills.
- The students were not given freedom to construct sentences of their choice. The vocabulary was strictly controlled.

A few examples:

1. Gap filling: Listen to the teacher, and complete the sentences.
   One _____________ day, I fell on the _____________.
   The hay______________on the _____________.

   • Write the above exercise on the blackboard.
   • Read out the sentences: One sunny day, I fell on the hay. The hay lay on the way.
   • Ask the students to copy them, filling in the gaps in their composition notebooks.
   • Ask the students to read the sentences and write them on the blackboard.

2. Rearrange the jumbled words and make meaningful sentences.
   i. Arun / animals / their sounds / and / birds / loved / and.
   ii. He / out / went.
   iii. He / two crows / the tree / on / saw.

Procedure:

1. The teacher explains that the sentences describe Arun and his actions.
2. The students observe the jumbled words written on the blackboard.
3. They are asked to rearrange the words to make proper sentences.
4. After the exercise, they read out the sentences. The teacher writes them on the blackboard.
3. Substitution: Write statements like this about your friend.
   Kumar enjoys playing football.....................

Procedure:
1. Ask students to write a similar sentence about themselves.
2. Correct the sentence orally.

Example:
   Teacher : John, what do you enjoy doing?
   John : I enjoy swimming.
   Teacher : O.K. (Writes ‘swimming’ on the board.)
   Who else enjoys swimming?
   (He builds up a list of words on the board.)

Guided Composition
Composition given under the guidance of the teacher on the choice of the subject matter and the expression is called guided composition.

Why do the students need guidance?
The teacher’s intervention, control and guidance are necessary for students who are at the beginning of language learning because-
   i. They have a limited vocabulary.
   ii. They cannot express their ideas freely on their own.
   iii. They may not be familiar with the subject matter to write on it.

What does the teacher do in guided composition?
At the early stage of his/her language learning, a child needs to be guided in oral or written composition because he/she learns a new language like English by reception, imitation and reproduction.

So, the teacher guides the students in the following ways:
   i. He selects the topic after careful consideration.
   ii. He prescribes the vocabulary and structures within the range of students.
   iii. He furnishes the required details or information about the topic.
   iv. He takes decision on the procedure of doing the composition.
   v. He is always ready to offer his help to clarify things.

Procedure of Teaching Guided Composition
The following steps are taken to teach the guided composition:
   i. Selection of the topic
   ii. Preparation
   iii. Oral practice
   iv. Writing composition
   v. Correction
   vi. Follow-up work
1. **Selection of the topic**
   - The first requirement is the selection of a suitable topic.
   - The topic should suit the age or standard of the students.
   - It also needs to be interesting and familiar to them.

2. **Preparation**
   - The teacher should see that his students get enough information on the subject matter.
   - He can also use their mother tongue for enlightening the students on the topic.

3. **Oral practice**
   - The students should get enough oral practice before writing the exercises.
   - This can be done through question – answer mode.

4. **Writing of composition**
   - This is the most important step.
   - The teacher gives an outline summary of the composition.
   - Students expand and develop on the given outlines.
   - They can seek the teacher’s help and guidance at any time of writing the composition.

5. **Correction**
   - The teacher corrects the mistakes then and there.
   - This is done as early as possible.

6. **Follow-up work**
   - The teacher diagnoses the difficulties of the students and the nature of the mistakes committed.
   - He takes appropriate remedial measures so that the students know what their weak points are and how to work on them.

**Exercises for guided composition**

i. Writing from substitution tables
ii. Writing paragraph from the blackboard
iii. Filling in the blanks
iv. Arranging jumbled words / sentences
v. Writing parallel paragraphs
vi. Conversion of sentences
vii. Picture composition
viii. Story writing
ix. Writing dialogues
x. Questions - answers
Model Exercises:

1. Arranging jumbled words into sentences.

*Aim*: Rearranging jumbled words to make up a sentence.

*Procedure*:

1. Pair the students and ask one person in each pair to prepare to write on a sheet of paper.
2. Dictate the first sentence from the jumbled extracts. One person in each pair writes it down.
3. Ask the pairs to rewrite the jumbled words into a meaningful sentence, using all the words and putting in necessary punctuation.
4. Tell the pairs to check grammar and spelling errors and correct them wherever necessary.
5. Dictate the second jumbled sentence.
6. Repeat steps 3 and 4.
7. When you have dictated all the sentences in this way give out the original you have prepared.
8. Ask the students to compare their rearranged sentences with the answers.
9. Ask them to write the exercise in their composition note book.

**Jumbled Extracts**

1. Went Chennai I to week last.
2. My I uncle went with.
3. was it pleasant a evening.
4. beach the took he me to.
5. was it wonderful.

**Unjumbled extract**

1. I went to Chennai last week.
2. I went with my uncle.
3. It was a pleasant evening.
4. He took me to the beach.
5. It was wonderful.

*Note*:
You can use the source book material.
It may enhance the students’ interest.
Free Composition

Do you agree with the following observation?

Most of the examinations in Indian schools ask students to write a paragraph or an essay on some stereotyped topics or write a précis / summary / letter which they find tiring and frustrating. This results in memorising paragraphs or essays from cheap, easy bazaar notes.

Free composition

- “The ultimate aim of composition is to enable the pupils to arrange their own ideas in their own way – to choose their words to express their ideas freely. Hence the term “free composition? (H. Champion)
- The aim of free composition is to enable the students to express themselves correctly and creatively on a topic.
- It need not be introduced in the initial years of a language study.

Features of free composition

i. There are no restrictions on pupils for the use of vocabulary and structure.
ii. There are no rigid restriction to the length of the composition.
iii. They are free to select the topic.
iv. Their writing needs to be original and creative.
   v. Proper organization of subject matter and accuracy of presentation are very important.

Categories of free composition

There are mainly five categories:

i. Narrative or descriptive
ii. Story type
iii. Reflective
iv. Imaginative
v. Literary writing

Exercises of free composition

i. Paragraph construction
ii. Paraphrasing
iii. Letter writing
iv. Application writing
   v. Essay writing
   vi. Descriptive writing
   vii. Narrative writing
   viii. Story writing
   ix. Précis writing
   x. Poetry writing
Some models of free composition
Paragraph is a piece of writing which represents a logical organization of ideas.
- It is the simplest form of free composition.
- It may be written on any topic of interest or an event which students have witnessed or experienced.
- The teacher may give important key words to be used.
- The essential requirement is relevance and coherence of sentences to the topic.

Model exercise
1. Brainstorming
   Aim: To develop independent writing.
   Procedure:
   1. Give the students a topic / subject which you feel will focus their minds.
   2. Encourage them to go in for a personal rather than a generalised response.
   3. Tell them that you will not mark any mistakes but will only be concerned with the ideas or experiences they describe.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Brainstorming</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Themes:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- A memory from my childhood.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- A place I know</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- A person I know</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Something I love doing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Something I hate doing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- My favourite T.V. programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The game I like most.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Descriptive Writing
It is used in many situations
- Persons
- Places
- Objects
Descriptive writing is the enumeration of certain details that go into the making an object or a person or a place.

1. Describing persons
- In describing persons, we usually concentrate on their physical features, complexion, age, clothes, character, etc.
- Students must know the language items appropriate for such a description.
2. Describing places
• In describing places, focus should be on location and spatial relationships.
• Students should be aware of the language needed for such description.

3. Describing objects:
• Students need to know the specific language items that help to describe things i.e. shape, size, colour, quality, material, etc.

**Exercise**
**Aim:** Describe an object, a person, a place or an event.

**Procedure:**
1. Describe an object in the classroom and at the end of the description, ask ‘what is it’?
2. Follow this with a description of a person who is known to the students.
3. Students must try to identify what or who you have described.
4. Once the oral practice is over, individual students begin their written exercise.
5. Suggest an object / a person / a place for description.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>It has got three blades. But it doesn’t cut. It gives a current of air. What is it?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>The fan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>The person wears a black coat. He fights for wronged people in the court. He advises his clients on matters of law. Who is he?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>Lawyer.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Story Writing:**
It is an important exercise of free composition.
A story may be introduced by the teacher with the help of a set of pictures.
By putting leading questions, various details of the story outlined.
The teacher gives an outline of the story on the blackboard.
Students develop the story with the help of the outline and key words.

**Task:**
**Aim:** To listen to a story being told, read the outline of the story and write the story.

**Procedure:**
1. Tell a short story to the class.
2. Enrich your story using a picture or a set of pictures / narration and also by miming.
3. Observe whether the students enjoy the story as you narrate.
4. Write the text of the story on the blackboard.
5. Ask the students to read the story silently.
6. Erase a small part of the story - one or two words from each sentence.
7. Ask a student to read out the text of the story to the class supplying the missing words from his/her memory.
8. Continue in this way until the whole text has been erased and retold.
9. Ask the students to write or reconstruct the story in their composition note books.
A bangle seller came to Geetha’s village. He came to the village fair. He brought a lot of colourful bangles. Geetha’s mother bought a dozen glass bangles. She put them in a box and gave it to Geetha. Geetha took the box and ran out to show it to her friends. In her hurry, she tripped on a stone and fell down. But the box did not open. The glass bangles were safe. Geetha was happy.

Ask students to give a different end to the story.

**Expansion Exercises:**
- This is a good technique that gives students an opportunity to make many sentences in varying degrees of complexity and meaning.
- This technique is useful particularly in helping students learn how to add modifying words, phrases and clauses.

**Procedure**
1. The teacher, through a set of instructions, asks the students to add a new element to the basic sentence.
2. He asks them to make all necessary changes in punctuation, syntax, etc. that are needed because of the addition of the new elements.
3. He asks the students to read aloud the new sentence.
4. This expansion work can be done individually or in groups.
5. This exercise is done orally as well as through writing.

**Uses**
In expansion exercises, sentences are extracted with the use of
- i. Adjectives (big, small ……)
- ii. Adverbs of frequency (always, often…..)
- iii. Adverbs of time / place (in the morning/ here / there…..)
- iv. Prepositional phrases (in this room/ at the bank …..)
- v. Relative clauses. (who is a businessman /a circus artist….)
Example:

Basic sentence: Mr. Sam is busy.
Teacher (prompts): Often
Students: Mr. Sam is often busy.
Teacher: On Sundays
Students: Mr. Sam is often busy on Sundays.

Model exercises

1. Expanding headlines.

Aim: Building grammatical sentences out of newspaper headlines.

Procedure:
1. Bring an English newspaper to the class.
2. Ask the students to pick out a headline from it.
3. Write the headline on the blackboard and read it out to the class.
4. Give an initial assistance of adding a word or phrase.
5. Ask the students to write out the information in a full sentence.
6. Students expand the headline as much as they can.
7. The student with the longest and error-free sentence will be the winner.

Example:
PM to visit Tiruchendur

“The Prime minister will be visiting Tiruchendur, a temple town in Tamilnadu”.
2. Expanding commands

Aim: Forming grammatical imperative sentences by adding words or phrases.

Procedure:
1. Suggest a single action word, preferably a simple command / instruction.
2. Ask the students to obey the command.
3. Give a series of additions to the command and ask them to perform accordingly.
4. Any one who makes a mistake is out of the game.
5. Write these commands on the blackboard and ask the students to read them.
6. Ask the students to write similar series of commands in their composition notebooks.
7. The students who have created maximum number of commands are appreciated and declared the winner.

CORRECTING COMPOSITION EXERCISES

Introduction: A point to ponder

Here are some sentences spoken or written by the students. What is the error in each one? What suggestions could you give to help the students correct the errors?

Yesterday I go to school early

He live in Delhi

Where she is working?

Janet is more taller than Kamala

He is very short, isn’t it?
Any composition work involves the following six stages:

1. Teacher’s preparation.
2. Student’s oral practice.
3. Student’s writing.
4. Teacher’s correction
5. Remedial work.
6. Follow-up work.

➢ In spite of all the detailed preparatory measures, students may make mistakes. They have to correct them in a way beneficial to the students.

**Objectives of Remedial Work:**

- To point out the mistakes of the pupils so as to enable them to learn the correct forms.
- To offer suggestions to each student to improve his composition.
- To point out the mistakes in their language and suggest better ways of expression.

**Main areas of errors:**

- While correcting the exercises, it is useful for the teacher to have a notebook to record the frequency of various categories of errors.

Students tend to commit mistakes mostly in the following language items.

1. Syntax (order of words to form a sentence)
2. Structural words
3. Content words
4. Spelling
5. Punctuation
6. Paragraph organization

**Causes for errors:**

1. Carelessness or indifference
2. Confusion over selection of words or structuring of sentences.
3. Improper use of new language items.
4. Mother-tongue interference.
5. Ignorance of rules.

**Strategies to reduce errors:**

1. Drill work:
   - There should be plenty of drill work in the class.
   - Drill in oral practice helps the students in avoiding mistakes in the construction of sentences and spelling.

2. Oral correction:
   - The teacher goes round the class, observes each one’s notebook and points out the mistakes orally.
   - It saves time. Moreover the student becomes aware of his mistakes on the spot and corrects himself.
3. Teacher’s record:
The teacher has a separate record / diary to categorise the errors of his students and the frequency of their occurrences. This helps him in his remedial teaching and in evaluating his teaching strategy.

4. Setting attainable goals:
The teacher should set an exercise considering his students’ level or standard. He has to avoid unfamiliar or unknown subject matter and language items.

**Correction of mistakes:**
- Self-correction of mistakes is the best method. Pupils may be asked to point out their own mistakes. When they are aware of their mistake, they may not commit them again.
- The teacher may go round the class as they write and point out the mistakes then and there.
- After the composition is over, the teacher carries out his correction work as early as possible. He adopts some appropriate symbols and tells his students what they stand for.
  - A – Article mistake
  - Sp – Spelling
  - T – Tense or Verb
  - Gr – Grammatical or Structural error
  - Ww – Wrong word
  - Wo – Error in word order
  - P – Punctuation
  - ^ – Something missing
  - ? – Doubtful statement
  - à – Join the words
  - // – separate them
  - Z – irrelevant.

**Exploration:**
Read the four correction techniques undertaken by four teachers:

**Teacher A**

I collect the note books at the end of the composition class, and correct them during the leisure hour. Then I return them the next day.
1. Which of these techniques, do you think, will succeed?
2. Discuss with your peers the advantages and disadvantages of each technique.
3. Get your lecturer to give his own ideas.
DEVELOPING CREATIVE COMPETENCY

Creativity
It means two different aspects or processes

- Self-expression.
- Extraordinary way of expression.

i. Self expression:
   It may take any form – a process, a product, a discovery, a new piece of writing …..
   Creativity in writing is a form of self-expression.

ii. Extraordinary way of expression
   It is a unique and original way of expression.
   It is the specific way of expressing an idea or a thought.
   It is much beyond the levels of his / her peers.

Can creativity be developed?
- No academic marvel is beyond the power of a good and dedicated teacher. If he can’t, who else can?
- The teacher of English should try to stimulate the creative instinct inherent in every student.
- Composition is the best jump-start for the students in creative writing. Nothing can be communicated unless it is first composed.
- Orderly arrangement of ideas, words or sentences within the grammatical norms, a new way of expression or usage of a new meaning to a word are examples of creativity.
- The teacher should always recognize and support such efforts. Then creativity is not far from the students’ door steps.

Steps necessary for creative writing
1. During the academic year, ample opportunities should be given for writing creative compositions. In these exercises, free or picture composition, coining of new and novel meanings or uses of words, writing new modern verse on objects, persons or events can be tried.
2. The teacher should be a guiding and inspiring model.
3. The teacher should be conscientious of the feelings, aspirations and insights of the students. He must observe them keenly and facilitate in bringing their hidden talents out.
4. He can arrange for a language club or creative writers’ forum as a platform for sharing their innovations and creations with their peers.
Model exercises for developing creative competency

Model-1: Imaginative Descriptions

*Aim:* Describing things or persons / place in an imaginative and humorous way.

*Preparation:* Any two pictures large enough for the class to see clearly.

*Procedure:*

1. Hold up two pictures chosen at random and ask the students to suggest a possible relation between them.
2. Encourage them to think widely and suggest imaginative, humorous and even ridiculous ideas.
3. The connections can be personal or objective.
4. The descriptions can be short or long.

*Example:*

Student 1: A learned man is useful to the society.
   The tree is also useful to the society.

Student 2: Man moves everywhere.
   The tree doesn’t move.
**Model-2: Imaginative Identification**

*Aim:* Imaginative identification and vocabulary practice.

---

Teacher: What is this?
Student: A pen.
Teacher: No, it isn’t.
(pretend to fly the pen around as if it were a plane) What is it?
Student: It is a plane.

**Procedure:**
1. Hold up an object (say, a pen) and start a conversation
2. Give the pen to a student and ask him or her to pretend that it is something else.
3. Continue around the class for as long as imaginative ideas are forthcoming.
4. If the students need more inspiration, you suggest a few more examples.

*Note:* Replace the pen with a stick or a towel and repeat the same exercise.

---

**Objects and what they could represent**

- Pen: plane / screw driver / cigarette / flute / tester ……
- Cup: hat / micro phone / face and nose / nest / search light ……
- Book: Pillow / rectangle / baby / slate / tray ……
- Notebook: roof / bird / telescope / mirror / bat ……
Developing Strategic Competency

To acquire proficiency in any language, one should use it meaningfully – one should use it for communication. He must possess certain prerequisites like knowledge of language elements, experiences and also certain skills or competencies. Along with the basic skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, a learner should acquire more skills like study skills, occupational competency, creative competency and strategic competency. He reaches the desired expected level in language acquisition if he could understand, produce and manipulate varieties of language forms and styles. Strategic competency is that skill which helps the learner to use the language for specific language purposes.

Exercises:

Model 1

Collocation is a combination of words that go together in a way that sounds natural. *Example:* ‘Strong coffee’ not ‘Powerful coffee’.
The word ‘strong’ and ‘coffee’ go together. Which words can go with ‘weather”? Use a dictionary.

Model 2

When students come across a new word, they are likely to be interested in learning the new word if they are helped to identify some words of that category or family.

Suggest some related words to the following: drink, furniture
Task 1

Reasons for failure to learn English as a second language in some places may be attributed to the three major factors as identified below. Each of them consists of several factors. Try to think of as many sub-factors as possible, for each major factor. (Try to think in terms of lack of improvement in writing skills).
Exploration:

Choose ten weak / slow learners. Ask them to write a short paragraph on any topic of their choice. Pick out all the errors. Then classify them into the following categories. Find out in which category students commit more mistakes. Try to investigate the causes for it. Suggest some remedial measures.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spelling</th>
<th>Punctuation</th>
<th>Grammatical errors (Tense)</th>
<th>Faulty Syntax</th>
<th>Articles</th>
<th>Prepositions</th>
<th>Arrangement of sentences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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</tbody>
</table>

Task 3

A task based approach is considered the most suitable for teaching English especially for teaching oral composition as it involves meaningful interaction and provides a genuine desire for gathering information. Here some sample tasks are assigned for you to give a try. (You can try these exercises with your students during teaching practice sessions).

1. Describing an Object:
   i. Describe your school bag / pencil / tiffin box.
   ii. Describe your classroom / master’s chair / black board.

2. Giving instructions / directions:
   i. Give instruction to your neighbours at your bench to draw the following diagrams.

   ![Happy](image1)  ![Sad](image2)  ![Laughing](image3)  ![Crying](image4)

   Happy  Sad  Laughing  Crying

   ii. Give directions to a stranger to go to the post office / the bank.

3. Testing your creativity: Riddles
   Give instruction to your peers / students to think of an object, describe its salient features without naming what it is. Ask them to write all these details on a piece of paper. Try to elicit answers from the class.

   Example: I have four legs. But I cannot move on my own. I have two arms. But I cannot hold anything. Who am I? (Arm chair)

   Other examples: duster, chalk, clock, comb, candle…
Reference


UNIT-5
ASSESSMENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Facilitating and measuring growth and progress in learning a language.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assessment</td>
<td>Collecting information on the progress of students’ learning using a variety of procedures (e.g., checklists, formal tests, inventories, self-assessment, writing folders).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>Making judgments on the basis of the information collected.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grading</td>
<td>Assigning a mark based on the information gathered from assessment tools.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reporting</td>
<td>Conveying the results.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Evaluation and Assessment

Information gathered on checklists, anecdotal records, and other assessment data can be translated into a grade or marks (e.g., A+ or 72%) for reporting purposes. Students, parents, administrators, and the community as a whole should understand what will be evaluated and the role evaluation plays in curriculum and instruction. Evaluation is the process of making judgments on the basis of the information collected relative to the learning objectives. Assessment is the process of gathering the required information to make judgments for evaluation. Grading involves assigning a mark as a means of conveying the judgment. Reporting is conveying the results of the judgments made. In addition to determining student progress, evaluation communicates the message that a programme and each of its components are valid and significant.

1.1 Why Evaluate?

Evaluation is used for various purposes in education. Student evaluation measures students’ growth, development, and progress against stated learning objectives. Students need evaluation to let them know if they are meeting those learning objectives. Programme evaluation is a means of deciding how well the programme is meeting the needs and abilities of students. It is a task that involves teachers, parents, school, and system administrators. Evaluation tells educators the strengths and weaknesses of the programme in order that adjustments and adaptations can be made. In addition, teachers grow professionally when they reflect on their own teaching and when they keep themselves informed of current instructional strategies and evaluation methods that they could use in their programmes.

Finally, education is a public undertaking and, in addition to being accountable to students, the school system is accountable to parents and society at large. Occasionally, there may be an evaluation to provide information for the public to judge the effectiveness of the education system. An example of such a systemic evaluation of students’ learning which is organized by administrative, instructional, and research functions, is shown in the following chart.
### The Purpose of the Assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General purpose of the assessment</th>
<th>Specific reason for the assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Administrative</strong></td>
<td>general assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>placement</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>exemption</td>
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<td></td>
<td>certificate</td>
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<td></td>
<td>promotion</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Instructional</strong></td>
<td>diagnosis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>evidence of progress</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>feedback to the respondent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>evaluation of teaching or curriculum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Research</strong></td>
<td>evaluation</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>experimentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>knowledge about language learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>and language use</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Objectives of Assessment**

*To find out:*
- if instruction was effective,
- if students need more instruction,
- if students are ready for the next step,
- if a different approach is required, and how instruction can be improved the next time this lesson is taught.

*Teachers need to:*
- provide diagnostic and formative feedback to learners,
- gather information for reporting purposes (marks or grades),
- identify the appropriate level for a new student (placement),
- determine whether or not a student meets programme requirements (certification), and
- motivate learners to study and make steady progress.

*Learners need to:*
- know what is expected of them,
- know what they can do to improve their performance,
- understand what will comprise their course grade or marks and
- perceive evaluation as fair and meaningful.
Principles and Key Characteristics of Assessment for Learning

Principles
Assessment for learning is based on the following ten principles.

Assessment
✧ is part of effective planning
✧ focuses on how students learn
✧ is central to classroom practice
✧ is an important professional skill
✧ is sensitive and constructive
✧ fosters motivation
✧ promotes understanding of goals and criteria
✧ helps learners know how to improve
✧ develops the capacity for self-assessment [and peer assessment]
✧ recognizes all educational achievement.

Key characteristics of assessment
✧ It is embedded in a view of teaching and learning of which it is an essential part.
✧ It sharing the goals of learning with learners.
✧ It aims to help pupils know and recognise the level of their aims.
✧ It involves pupils in self-assessment [and peer assessment].
✧ It provides feedback that leads to pupils identifying and planning their next steps.
✧ It emphasizes that every student can improve. It involves both teacher and pupils in reviewing and reflecting on the assessment data.

TYPES OF ASSESSMENT
1. Oral Assessment
2. Oral Exam Questions
3. Entertainment

Samples: On preferences
• What kinds of movies do you like?
• Name some of the movies you have seen.
• Do you think there is too much violence on TV and in movies?
• Should movies be certified? (This means that children won’t be allowed to watch some movies that contain violence, sexual themes, etc).
• What kind of books do you like?
• Should books be censored?
• What fun things can people do for Rs.80?
• What do you do in your spare time?
• What kind of movies do you dislike?
• What kind of music do you like?
• What games do you like?
• What do you think about computer games?
• What sports do you like?
• What magazines do you like?

**Sample on Society**
• Do you think we should worry about the environment?
• What causes poverty?
• Do you think women are discriminated against?
• What do you think about the one child policy?
• Are illegal drugs a problem in the North-East?
• What can we do about pollution?
• Should the main goal of a company be to make money?
• Should the government help poor people?
• Should rich people help poor people?
• Why are there so many wars?
• Is religion a good or bad thing?
• Should rich countries help poor ones?
• What do you think about the death penalty for serious crimes?
• What do you think about beggars?

**Some more samples of oral tests (Mixed Type)**
1. How does your family usually celebrate New Year/Pongal?
2. Have computers improved our lives?
3. What motivates you to study?
4. What do you like about India?
5. Would you like to own a car? Why or why not?
6. In your opinion, what are the qualities important in a friend?
7. Should rich countries pollute the world more?
8. Who is your favourite teacher in your school, and why?
9. When did you last go on a holiday? What was it like?
10. If you hadn’t entered college, what job would you like to have?
11. What kinds of books do you like?
12. In what ways are you similar to, or different from, your parents?
13. Is it important to look good? Why or why not?
14. Should India continue its space programme? Why or why not?
15. Do you agree with the saying, “Where wealth accumulates man decays”?
16. Is religion a good thing or a bad thing?
17. What do you do in your spare time?
18. What kind of movies do you dislike?
19. What do you plan to do during the next summer?
20. When did you visit the library last? And which book did you read?
**Instruction - Role Play**

1. **Son or daughter**
   
   You will finish Primary school this year. You haven’t yet decided where you want to continue your studies. But you definitely want to decide for yourself. Explain this to your father.

2. **Test for Generosity**
   
   You are in a queue for buying a ticket. But an old man has got only one ticket but now needs one more to take his wife also. The counter closes after issuing you the last ticket. What will you do?

3. **Mother**
   
   You are very proud of your son. You hope he will study hard at the school and score more than 90% of marks in +2 examinations. Revision tests prove that he is getting only 60-70 in core subjects. You learn that he has been spending time in watching cricket matches in a friend’s home. What will you do?

---

1. **Brother**
   
   Your brother/sister will finish high school this year. You want him/her to study engineering at Anna University. Explain this to him/her.
   
   Start with: It’s time to start thinking about university

2. **Kamala’s friend**
   
   You don’t think Kamala should sacrifice her job, just for Latha. She should stay in Delhi. Give your advice to Kamala.

3. **Friend**
   
   Listen to your friend’s problem, and give your advice.
   
   Start with: What’s the matter?

4. **Friend**
   
   Your brother is a doctor who often works long hours at the hospital. He is a quiet thoughtful person. Should you introduce him to your local MP? Discuss the situation with your friend.

5. **Son/daughter**
   
   Tell your mother about your new friend in your Hostel.
   
   Start with: I’ve been so happy recently.
Written Assessment

There are many kinds of written assessments. They are broadly divided into objective tests and subjective tests. They are discussed at length below.

Objective Tests

The following describes the generic characteristics of objective tests and discusses their overall strengths and weaknesses. It then examines the different forms that objective test items can take, and offers advice on how to decide which type to use in any given situation. Finally, it provides detailed practical guidance on how to write objective questions of different types, on how to evaluate objective test items, and on how to mark objective tests.

General characteristics of objective tests

Objective tests are tests that are made up of items which provide a selection of alternative answers from which the learner has to choose rather than supply the answered by himself. As a result, such tests can be marked with complete reliability by anyone - including non-subject specialists; indeed, they can often be marked and scored electronically. It is from this intrinsic objectivity that the name of such tests is derived - not, as is sometimes erroneously supposed, because they are in some way related to instructional objectives. In the past, such tests were often criticised on the grounds that they were really only suitable for use at lower cognitive level, that is for testing knowledge and comprehension. It is now recognised that this is not necessarily the case, and that it is perfectly possible (albeit slightly more difficult) to design highly effective objective items to test at the middle levels of the cognitive domain (application and analysis) and also to test in some non-cognitive areas. It is, however, much more difficult to design objective test items for use at the highest levels of the cognitive domain (synthesis and evaluation). In most cases, such items are unsuitable for testing in these areas, although it is possible nowadays to use knowledge-based packages for diagnosing the presence or absence of particular skills.

The main strength of objective tests is the fact that they can be marked with 100% reliability, thus completely eliminating the possibility of marker subjectivity or bias. The fact that objective items are generally comparatively short also means that students can be asked to complete a much larger number of questions than would be possible in a conventional extended-answer test; this enables such tests to cover a much wider part of the syllabus, thus increasing their overall validity and making it unnecessary to provide students with a choice of questions. Objective items can also be designed to focus on specific knowledge and skills, and, since the relative difficulty of items is often known from trial testing, they can be set at any required level of difficulty. Such items can also be ‘banked’ and re-used - something that has become very much easier since the advent of the modern high-capacity microcomputer. Objective tests are also extremely easy to administer and mark tasks that can again be carried out by computer if the designer so wishes. This can be done either by producing machine-readable student response sheets that can be scanned by
data capture devices, such as an Optical Mark Reader (OMR) connected to a computer, or by delivering the test itself via computer.

Objective tests do have a number of intrinsic weaknesses, the main one being that good, valid items with an appropriate degree of discrimination between strong and weak students are notoriously difficult and time-consuming to construct and evaluate. Indeed, there are so many potential pitfalls in the design of such items that it is almost essential that they be subjected to some sort of field testing before being used in an actual test or examination - particularly if it is an important one (a common/public examination, for example). A related weakness is that it has not hitherto been possible to see the reasoning that leads a candidate to give a wrong answer - reasoning that might, in some cases, be just as valid as that which leads to the ‘correct’ answer. It is problems of this type that make it so important to field test objective items before use. As we have seen, objective items can also be limited in terms of the type of skills and learning outcomes that they can be used to test. Most computer-based-assessment packages now operate in a choice of modes, and it is here, in astute combination of what can be described as tutorial and examination mode, that new horizons - which combine objective testing with assistance in reaching the correct answer - are being reached.

The different types of objective test items

Let us now take a look at some of the different forms that objective test items can take.

True or False and Yes or No type Questions

True or false questions are formed after statements. A statement has to be marked true (T) or false (F). Student has to identify the correct statements. e.g.

1. New Delhi is the capital of India. (   )
2. The parrot is our national bird. (   )

Questions with verbs such as do, did, does, have, has are called Yes/No type questions. The answers would begin with either Yes or No. e.g.

1. Does the earth go round the sun?
2. Is milk white?
3. Can you drive a car?

Fill in the blanks:

1. ________ is the most populous nation in the world. (China, Japan, India)
2. ________ got the first Nobel Prize for literature in India? (Sarojini Naidu, Tagore, Toru Dutt)
Matching
1. Fat a) Compound noun
2. Dining-Table b) Gerund/Verbal noun
3. Swimming c) Preposition
4. Himalayas d) Personal pronoun
5. We e) Proper noun
f) Adjective

Sentence completion
1. She went to ______________
2. She read the _____________
3. She returned the _____________

Odd Man Out
Students have to find out which one is different from the group.
1. Papaya, apple, paddy, banana
2. Dog, lion, wolf, tiger
3. Python, kingfisher, cobra, Viper

Transformation of sentences
1. Hema must work hard to make-up for the period of sickness (Change into a compound sentence)
2. The thief confessed his guilt . (Change the simple sentence to complex)
3. He saw the snake. He ran away. (Combine the simple sentences into a single simple sentence).

Scrambled sentences
Scrambled sentences are given to enable children to learn how to place words in order to form meaningful sentences.
1. A radio my bought me last father week.
2. The customer handed the cashier to the cash.

Picture Descriptions
1. This is a ______________
2. This is ______________
3. This is a ______________
Multiple Choice Questions

By far the most widely used type of objective item is the multiple-choice question (or MCQ). In its most common form, this consists of a simple question or incomplete statement which poses the problem (the stem), and four or more possible answers or completions, one of these being correct (the key) and the others being incorrect (the distractors). Examples of the two basic forms are given below.

**Stem in the form of a question**

**Example-1**

What is most important for photosynthesis?  **STEM**

(a) Soil  □  Distractor
(b) Water  □  Distractor
(c) Sunlight  □  KEY
(d) Moonlight  □  Distractor

**Example-2**

Who wrote the book “The White Tiger”?  **STEM**

(a) Joseph Conrad  □  Distractor
(b) Ernest Hemingway  □  Distractor
(c) Jim Corbett  □  Distractor
(d) Aravind Adiga  □  KEY
(e) Prabakaran  □  Distractor

**3. Items with more than one correct answer**

**Example**

Which of the following countries have a large population?

(a) France  □  Distractor
(b) China  □  KEY
(c) The United Kingdom  □  Distractor
(d) India  □  KEY
(e) Brunei  □  Distractor
(f) Iran  □  Distractor
The Cloze Test

A cloze test is an exercise, test, or assessment consisting of a portion of text with certain words removed, where the participant is asked to replace the missing words. Cloze tests require the ability to understand context and vocabulary in order to identify the correct words or type of words that belong in the deleted passages of a text. This exercise is commonly administered for the assessment of native and second language learning and instruction. Words may be deleted from the text in question either mechanically (every sixth word) or selectively, depending on exactly what aspect it is intended to test for. Students would then be required to fill in the blanks with words that would best complete the passage. Context in language and content terms is essential in most, if not all, cloze tests.

Example:

Today I went to the supermarket and bought some milk and eggs. I knew it was going to rain, but I forgot to take my umbrella and ended up getting drenched on the way home.

**Cloze Test**

1. Today I went to the _________________ and bought some milk and eggs. I knew it was going to rain, but I forgot to take my _________________ and ended up getting _______ on the way _________________.

**Samples of a cloze test**

**Directions for administering and evaluating the cloze test**

The strict version of the test requires that students provide the correct term for each blank, while a looser version has also been used that accepts “partially correct” answers, such as those that are the correct part of speech (verb, noun, pronoun, etc.). These answers indicate that students are learning the syntactic rules of language, but are as yet unable to translate these into a semantic comprehension of the text.

2. Cloze Test on The old woman who lived in a school.

Deleted words from the passage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>lesson</th>
<th>were</th>
<th>lived</th>
<th>to</th>
<th>take in</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>make</td>
<td>must</td>
<td>else</td>
<td>at</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Fill in suitable answers**

Your name: __________________________

There once was an old woman who ______________________ (1) in a shoe. This must have been very cramped and difficult because living ____________________ (2) a shoe is not very comfortable, I expect. One day, she went out and there __________________ (3) some children playing in the street nearby where she lived. They began shouting ____________ (4) her. “You silly old woman, why do you live in a shoe?”, they shouted, and other things like that. They were very insulting ___________________ (5) the old woman.
I don’t know why the old woman had to live in a shoe, but she ____________ (6) have been very poor, and it was not nice to ______________ (7) fun of the poor woman because she was so hard up that she had nowhere _______________ (8) to live. But children can be very cruel sometimes, and this case was ________________ (9) exception. However, on this occasion the old woman didn’t just ________________ (10) their insults meekly, but became very angry and, shouted “I will teach you a ____________ (11)”, she chased them with a cane.

**Subjective tests**

Subjective tests are based on opinions. A subjective test tests the student’s skill, based on the criteria developed subjectively. The teacher tests not the accuracy of ideas but the way the student presents them and how well the answer is organized and how the student is able to argue for or against a topic. Essay and paragraph questions which challenge the students’ critical and analytical thinking abilities fall under this category. It is tragic that some essay questions are fact based and do not expect the students’ point of view but what the author has said. Those who construct tests should bear in mind the fact that a subjective test, especially in languages, need not expect a student to simply restate what a poem or a prose piece says. Instead, what a student has understood from the prescribed lesson needs to be tested. Besides, there must be a scope for the students’ interpretation, ideas and observations so that the teacher can also have an insight into the thinking process of the students.

**The QUOTE Strategy** to develop the technique of responding to Subjective questions

**Q - Question**

**Ask the Question:**

What are the direction words in the essay test item?

Direction words give you instructions as to how to answer the question.

Bracket the direction words on the test question.

**Practice (Identify the direction words in the following examples.)**

1. What is the relationship between cognitive effort and long-term memory?
2. Focus on the time, persons and place where the action took place.
3. Micro sociology focuses on social interaction, whereas macro sociology focuses on social structure. Explain why both are necessary for an understanding of social life.

**Answers (The direction words are bracketed.)**

1. What is the [relationship] between cognitive effort and long-term memory?
2. Focus on the time, persons and place where the action took place.
3. Micro sociology focuses on social interaction, whereas macro sociology focuses on social structure. [Explain] why both are necessary for an understanding of social life.
U - Underline

Underline the words in the question that help you focus your answer. For example if this were the question:

1. Blood glucose levels are regulated by the pancreas. Whenever blood sugar levels are too high, the pancreas releases a hormone called insulin. Explain the mechanism by which insulin lowers the level of blood sugar in the body.

You might underline the following words:

1. Blood glucose levels are regulated by the pancreas. Whenever blood sugar levels are too high, the pancreas releases a hormone called insulin. [Explain] the mechanism by which insulin lowers the level of blood sugar in the body.

O - Organize and Write

1. List what you know about the question.
2. Organize the information using an appropriate pattern of organization. Use the pattern suggested by the direction word.
3. Write your answer. Begin your answer with an introduction that reviews the question. Then in each succeeding paragraph open with a sentence that is a main point. Write supporting statements for each main point. End with a paragraph that states your conclusion.
4. Show the instructor that you understand the material covered in class.
5. Write your answer as if you were communicating with someone who does not already know the answer.

T - Time

Before beginning the test, consider the amount of time you have been given. Budget your time based upon the point values assigned. Decide how much time you will spend on each section of the test.

Allow time for reviewing your answers

E - Evaluate

• Did I answer all parts of the item?
• Did I include all the relevant facts?
• Are all my facts accurate?
• Did I answer the question that was asked?
• Was my answer detailed and complete?
• Is my answer clearly organized?
• Is my handwriting legible?
• Did I spell my words correctly?
• Did I use correct punctuation and grammar?
• How could I have improved my answer?
**Direction Words Used in Essay Questions**

- **Analyze**: break down into parts to discuss the whole
- **Compare**: state similarities as well as differences
- **Contrast**: emphasize differences
- **Criticize**: express your view of the truth, faults, or merits of an issue
- **Define**: give the meaning of a word or concept
- **Describe**: give an account of; present a detailed picture of something
- **Discuss**: examine, analyze, consider from various points of view
- **Enumerate**: list, number, name
- **Explain**: provide reasons for something
- **Evaluate**: judge something using a set of criteria
- **Illustrate**: provide examples
- **Justify**: give reasons or evidence to support a position
- **Outline**: offer a sketch of the main points, or provide a summary
- **Prove**: offer reasons to establish the truth of something
- **Relate**: show how two or more things are connected
- **Summarize**: state the main points about something
- **Support**: provide reasons that favour a point of view
- **Trace**: state a series of things in a time sequence

**Principles of Student Evaluation**

Given that the most important function of evaluation is the promotion of learning, the following principles should be reflected in the evaluation of students.

- Evaluation should reflect the stated learning objectives and be integrated with instruction.
- Evaluation should be continuous and useful.
- Evaluation expectations should be communicated clearly from the beginning.
- Evaluation should be fair and equitable.
- Evaluation should be constructive.
- Evaluation should be balanced and comprehensive.

The overall evaluation should address all language strands and balance its orientation. For example, consideration should be given to:

*Teacher/peer/self-evaluation.*

Teacher created assignments, tests, and observations should continue to provide important evaluation information. Peer evaluation should provide many opportunities for
extending learning and for increasing student confidence and ownership in the learning process. Self-monitoring and evaluation should allow students to become aware of their own learning and to enhance it.

**Content/process/product**

The assessment and evaluation processes should involve multiple perspectives and sources of data. Content, process, and product each play a role in assessment and evaluation. Students must know “what” they are required to learn (i.e. content), “how” they are expected to learn (i.e. process), and “what evidence” they will be required to produce as a result of that understanding (i.e. product). As much as possible, students should be introduced to a variety of ways to learn and demonstrate their learning.

**DIAGNOSTIC EVALUATION**

Diagnostic evaluation should be done informally and continuously. It is used to assess the strengths and needs of students and to make programme adjustments. It is used for diagnosis rather than grading.

**The Concept of Formative Assessment**

Diagnostic use of assessment to provide feedback to teachers and students over the course of instruction is called **formative assessment**. It stands in contrast to **summative assessment**, which generally takes place after a period of instruction and requires making a judgment about the learning that has occurred (e.g. by grading or scoring a test or paper). Formative evaluation should be conducted continuously throughout the course. It is used to improve instruction and learning and to keep both students and teachers aware of the course objectives and the students’ progress in achieving those objectives. The results of formative evaluation are analyzed and used to focus the efforts of the teacher and students.

**Purpose and Benefits of Formative Assessment**

Black and Wiliam (1998b) define assessment broadly to include all activities that teachers and students undertake to get information that can be used diagnostically to alter teaching and learning. Under this definition, assessment encompasses teacher observation, classroom discussion, and analysis of student work, including homework and tests. Assessments become formative when the information is used to adapt teaching and learning to meet student needs.

When teachers know how students are progressing and where they are having trouble, they can use this information to make necessary instructional adjustments, such as reteaching, trying alternative instructional approaches, or offering more opportunities for practice. These activities can lead to improved student success.

Black and Wiliam (1998a) conducted an extensive research review of 250 journal articles and book chapters winnowed from a much larger pool to determine whether formative assessment raises academic standards in the classroom. They concluded that efforts to strengthen formative assessment produce significant learning gains as measured by comparing the average improvements in the test scores of the students involved in the
innovation with the range of scores found for typical groups of students on the same tests. Effect sizes ranged between .4 and .7, with formative assessment apparently helping low-achieving students, including students with learning disabilities, even more than it helped other students (Black and Wiliam, 1998b).

Feedback given as part of formative assessment helps learners become aware of any gaps that exist between their desired goal and their current knowledge, understanding, or skill and guides them through actions necessary to obtain the goal (Ramaprasad, 1983; Sadler, 1989). The most helpful type of feedback on tests and homework provides specific comments about errors and specific suggestions for improvement and encourages students to focus their attention thoughtfully on the task rather than on simply getting the right answer (Bangert-Drowns, Kulick, & Morgan, 1991; Elawar & Corno, 1985). This type of feedback may be particularly helpful to lower achieving students because it emphasizes that students can improve as a result of effort rather than be doomed to low achievement due to some presumed lack of innate ability. Formative assessment helps support the expectation that all children can learn to high levels and counteracts the cycle in which students attribute poor performance to lack of ability and therefore become discouraged and unwilling to invest in further learning (Ames, 1992; Vispoel & Austin, 1995).

While feedback generally originates from a teacher, learners can also play an important role in formative assessment through self-evaluation. Two experimental research studies have shown that students who understand the learning objectives and assessment criteria and have opportunities to reflect on their work show greater improvement than those who do not (Fontana & Fernandes, 1994; Frederikson & White, 1997). Students with learning disabilities who are taught to use self-monitoring strategies related to their understanding of reading and writing tasks also show performance gains (McCurdy & Shapiro, 1992; Sawyer, Graham, & Harris, 1992).

SUMMATIVE ASSESSMENT

The results of summative assessments are used to make some sort of judgment, such as to determine what grade a student will receive on a classroom assignment, measure programme effectiveness, or determine whether a school has made adequate yearly progress. Summative assessment, sometimes referred to as assessment of learning, typically documents how much learning has occurred at a point in time; its purpose is to measure the level of student, school, or programme success.

Formative assessment, on the other hand, delivers information during the instructional process, before the summative assessment. Both the teacher and the student use formative assessment results to make decisions about what actions to take to promote further learning. It is an ongoing, dynamic process that involves far more than frequent testing, and measurement of student learning is just one of its components. Even though assessments will continue to be labelled formative or summative, how the results are used is what determines whether the assessment is formative or summative.
Summative Assessment Used in Formative Ways

Summative evaluation occurs at the end of a unit or programme. It is used with formative evaluation to determine student achievement and programme effectiveness. Summative evaluation should form only part of students’ grades or marks. An appropriate balance of diagnostic, formative, and summative evaluation should be used.

Teachers also select or develop their own summative assessments—those that count for a grade or a score. When teachers know what specific learning target each question or task on their test measures, they can use the results to select and reteach portions of the curriculum that students haven’t yet mastered. Carefully designed common assessments can be used this way as well.

Students, too, can use summative test results to make decisions about further study. If the assessment items are explicitly matched to the intended learning targets, teachers can guide students in examining their right and wrong answers in order to answer questions such as these:

- What are my strengths relative to the standards?
- What have I seen myself improve at?
- Where are my areas of weakness?
- Where didn’t I perform as desired, and how might I make those answers better?
- What do these results mean for the next steps in my learning, and how should I prepare for that improvement?

For students to make maximum use of these questions to guide further study, however, teachers must plan and allow time for students to learn the knowledge and skills they missed on the summative assessment and to retake the assessment. Lack of time for such learning is one of the biggest hindrances to formatively using summative classroom assessments.

Distinct benefits of Assessment for Learning

Although all formative assessment practices have the potential to increase student learning, assessment for learning in the classroom offers a number of distinct benefits:

- The timeliness of results enables teachers to adjust instruction quickly, while learning is in progress.
- The students who are assessed are the ones who benefit from the adjustments.
- The students can use the results to adjust and improve their own learning.

When we try to teacher-proof the assessment process by providing a steady diet of ready-made external tests, we lose these advantages. Such tests cannot substitute for the day-to-day level of formative assessment that only assessment-literate teachers are able to conduct. The greatest value in formative assessment lies in teachers and students making use of results to improve real-time teaching and learning at every turn.

Examples of Formative Assessment

Black and Wiliam (1998b) encourage teachers to use questioning and classroom discussion as an opportunity to increase their students’ knowledge and improve understanding.
They caution, however, that teachers need to make sure to ask thoughtful, reflective questions rather than simple, factual ones and then give students adequate time to respond. In order to involve everyone, they suggest strategies such as the following:

- Invite students to discuss their thinking about a question or topic in pairs or small groups, then ask a representative to share the thinking with the larger group (sometimes called think-pair-share).
- Present several possible answers to a question, then ask students to vote on them.
- Ask all students to write down an answer, then read a selected few out loud.

**Teachers might also assess students’ understanding in the following ways:**

- Have students write their understanding of vocabulary or concepts before and after instruction.
- Ask students to summarize the main ideas they’ve taken from a lecture, discussion, or assigned reading.
- Have students complete a few problems or questions at the end of instruction and check answers.
- Interview students individually or in groups about their thinking as they solve problems.
- Assign brief, in-class writing assignments (e.g., “Why is this person or event representative of this time period in history?”)
- In addition to these classroom techniques, tests and homework can be used formatively if teachers analyze where students are in their learning and provide specific, focused feedback regarding performance and ways to improve it.

**Language Learning Portfolios**

Portfolios, or collections of student work, may also be used formatively if students and teachers annotate the entries and observe growth over time and practice (Duschl & Gitomer, 1997).

**Evaluating Portfolios**

English language portfolios can be an effective way for students, teachers, and parents to observe student progress over a period of time. Because they are purposeful collections of student work, portfolios can serve as the basis for evaluation of student effort, progress, and achievements in English language learning. A term-end portfolio, assembled a few weeks before a reporting period, can include not only selected written products but also audiotapes of discussions, readings, and interviews; videotapes of oral presentations and debates; and visuals such as posters, graphics, and photographs from the term. An end-of-year portfolio can illustrate progress and achievement in a course. A multi-year portfolio can act as a showcase of the student’s best work from several courses and over time.

Students should understand the criteria for what to include in their portfolios and how to make the selection. Consideration might be given to the following:
• What kind of portfolio will the students compile—exemplary, process, or some combination?
• What period of time will the portfolio cover?
• How will it be evaluated?
• How will it foster student ownership?
• How will it encourage the students to reflect on their work and growth?

A language learning portfolio can be housed in a three-ring binder or folder and might include:
• a table of contents
• a statement of the student’s goals or a letter from the student explaining why each item was selected for inclusion
• items that represent the student’s understanding and achievement of the English language learning objectives (e.g., journals, a sample of written work in all its stages, notes, research, reading log), chosen by the student in some cases and required by the teacher in others (e.g., a particular assignment or a representative piece of writing)
• a student self-assessment that includes an assessment of the portfolio.

The portfolio product is important but the process of assembling an English language learning portfolio is just as important. It gives students ownership and the overall “big picture” of their progress.

Reflection

A. Imagine that your beginning level class is completing a unit about ‘Pastimes: what you like/don’t like to do.’ Look at the list of evaluations below and consider:

1. What information will you gather from the item?
2. Is this information useful?
3. For what purpose(s)?
4. Matching a list of pastimes to the appropriate pictures of the activity.
5. Labelling pictures of various activities.
6. Filling in the blank with the correct form of the verb to say what various people like/don’t like to do.
7. Listening to someone name an activity and identifying the picture of the activity that is named.
8. Choosing the correct response from three or four choices (multiple choice)
9. Chapter test – written
10. Rehearsed dialogue or skit

B. If you limit your evaluations to the ones listed above, will you know if your students can discuss with others and write about their pastimes? What else would you have to
do to make sure that your students could successfully communicate with others about their favourite/least favourite pastimes?

C. Now think about the difference between recalling information and applying information. If students can recall information (a list of vocabulary words, the endings for regular verbs), it does not mean that they can apply the information to communicate their ideas and understand others’ ideas successfully. To gain a complete picture of what students know and are able to do, how must you design your assessments? How will this affect your instruction?

Suggested Evaluation Procedure

To ensure the principles of student evaluation are met, teachers may consider the following suggestions.

1. Review the objectives for the course. Determine what content, processes, and products will be emphasized in the course and in specific units.
2. Next, determine what strategies will be used to assess the content, processes, and products.

Assessment strategies for a particular course might include:

**Speaking and Listening**
- Conversation Checklist
- Discussion—Peer Assessment
- Oral Interpretation Assessment
- Interview Assessment
- Panel Discussion Assessment
- Role Playing Assessment
- Choral Reading Assessment
- Listening Self-assessment
- Listening Behaviour Checklist
- Others

**Writing and Reading**
- Discussion on writing
- Writing Process Checklist
- Reading Log Holistic Scale
- Self-assessment for Reading Strategies
- Writing Folder Self-assessment
- Writing Rubric
- Response Journal Assessment
- Résumé and Covering Letter Criteria
- Analytic Scoring Criteria
- Unit-end Test
- Others
3. Consider how the expectations, assessment and evaluation strategies, and grading will be shared with and communicated to students, parents, and administrators. A handout such as the one on the following page might be shared with students at the beginning of an academic year.

4. Translate the assessment strategies into a grade. A form such as the Sample Assessment and Evaluation Summary that accompanies the sample handout on the following page might be used.

**Error Analysis**

Incorrect forms used by second language learners in their attempts to express themselves in that language are usually called errors. Linguists have defined errors variously as breaches of the code or deviations from the norm. An examination of learner’s errors often points to inadequate understanding of the target language rules as the basis of errors. Hence, the second definition of errors as ‘deviations’ from the norm seems to be more suitable. C.V. Taylor (1976) defines an error as “any deviation unacceptable to the majority of speakers of every major dialect of the given language”.

Errors are deviations which reveal the learner’s underlying knowledge of the language to-date. When a second language learner’s attention is drawn to an error, he may, in his effort to correct it, go on to make another error. This would clearly show that he has not internalized the rules of the target language, even though he may know them explicitly. Thus, an analysis of errors may have to be a comparative exercise, a comparison between the learner’s interlanguage code and the target language code.

Errors may arise in reception or understanding of what is spoken or written in the target language and in production, when the learner attempts to express himself in the target language through speech or writing. It is, however, the latter that we most readily notice.

Error analysis is a field of study recently developed within applied linguistics, and is of immense interest to linguists as well as teachers. It involves (1) the identification of actual errors, (2) the description of errors in linguistic terms, (3) the explanation of some of the probable sources of errors, and may or may not involve therapy, i.e., a linguistic evaluation and the application of the results to teaching methods, syllabus design and material production. Since explanation of errors, among other things, can involve a study of the differences between the mother tongue and the target language (i.e. interlingual interference), a contrastive analysis - as understood by its weak claim that it is an attempt “to explain already discovered deviations can be considered to be a necessary and explanatory complement to error analysis” (S. Johnsson, 1973). The analysis of errors can also be made by reference to pedagogical, sociological and psychological factors. “Although the study of errors is a natural starting point, the final analysis should include linguistic performance as a whole, not just deviations.” Hence ‘performance analysis’ would seem a more appropriate name than ‘error analysis’. Error analysis is thus a systematic investigation of the language, i.e. the interlanguage of the second language learner. It is, to quote Corder (1981, p.29) a “clinical approach to the study of the learner’s language.”
Errors caused by the learner’s inability to recall

i. Use of conceptually related terms: Unable to recall a word needed in a given context, the learner tends to use another conceptually related word which appears to suit his communicative need. Thus when one writes, “I saw an education in the beautician” , he seems to be thinking of the ‘career’ of a beautician, which logically includes training and education for the career.

Examples:
1. We went to room (the cinema hall)
2. India is a big city (country)
3. I wanted to go to chennai by flight (by air).
4. India Gate has been refurnished (re done/redecorated/repainted/renovated).

ii. Use of paraphrase: Sometimes, inability to recall may lead the learner to explain the underlying ideas paraphrasically as in
1. here and there (everywhere)
2. girls give (tie) rakhi to their brothers.
3. I was sitting next to a mam woman (eunach) in the bus

iii. Coinage of new terms: Sometimes the learners coin their own words on the pattern of the target language words which they are unable to remember exactly. Some examples of such coinage are given below:
1. All my teachers and friend congreal looked (congratulated) me.
2. My luggage was screeted (scattered) on the platform.
3. I wish that principal take interest in students not in money and sticked (was strict with) their teachers.

Errors caused by confusion between formally similar items

Errors may arise from formal similarity between words and morphemes. Due to his inadequate control over the target language the learner is easily confused between items of that language which are somehow similar in form but different in meaning or may appear to be similar to him. Unable to discriminate between them, the learner fails to use them in correct contexts. Examples of such errors are
1. deprive (arrive)
2. incident (accident)
3. brought (bought)
4. conserved (concerned)
5. debating (defeating)

Some of the errors resulting from inadequate practice in word formation rules are given below:
1. happy fully (happy/happily)
2. weared (wore)
3. beautician course (beautician’s course)
Errors caused by confusion between related items

Sometimes words which are somehow related either because they belong to the same semantic field or because they have a common source or origin or some other common features – except formal similarity which has been accounted for separately – may cause confusion and uncertainty to the learner, and result in errors. The learner may know the stem form of a lexical item but may fail to apply correct affixes.

1. When I education (When I completed my education)
   The noun ‘education’ was wrongly put in the verb slot.

2. They are celebrated in the festival. (They celebrate the festival).
   The learner is confused between active and passive forms.

3. People were enjoy (enjoy themselves/were joyous/were joyful).
   The learner is confused between the noun, verb and adjectival forms derived from “joy”.

4. Were decoration (decorated)
   There is confusion between noun and verb forms.

5. I service for ten years (I served there for ten years)
   There is confusion between noun and verb forms.

Errors in the use of Verbs and Tenses

Errors in this area appeared to be mostly an outcome of the learners’ effort to grasp the target language in it own terms. They reflect the general characteristics of the rule learning (Richards, 1974, p.174) and are intralingual, since the source of interference appears to be the target language itself. Prominent varieties of errors found in students writing are the following:

a. Absence of the main verb or an auxiliary.
   E.g. They finished the work just now.

b. Use of an infinitive or auxiliary in place of a modal.
   E.g. You are to protect your country.

c. Use of the present tense instead of the past tense.
   E.g. She lives in America last year.

d. Use of the past tense instead of the present tense.
   e.g. She always liked sweets.

e. Confusion between the simple and continuous forms.
   E.g. She works continuously today from 10 a.m.

f. Confusion between the simple and the perfect tenses.
   E.g. She finished the construction of her house recently.

g. Incorrect inflection of the verb for number and person.
   E.g. They goes to Kolkatta.
Confusion between the simple and the perfect tenses

Included in this class of errors are those caused by confusion between the simple past and the past perfect, the simple past and the present perfect, the continuous and the perfect continuous, the present perfect and the simple present. Confusions between these forms appear to result from an incomplete learning of rules leading the learners to hypothesize false concepts related to them.

1. I has completed the beautician’s course
2. The people has whitewashed his houses.

Verbs incorrectly inflected for number and person

This category includes errors related to subject-verb agreement such as:

1. the use of plural verb with singular subject – she love, he earn.
2. the use of singular verb with plural subject – We lives.
3. verb in the third person used with first or second person subject – I likes, where was you.

Remedial Steps Suggested

1. Teaching of English should be done through the direct method and not through translation into the mother tongue. This practice of teaching should be followed from the beginning, when the second language is first introduced to the students. Dependence on the mother tongue may lead to increased interference from it.

2. Possibility of confusion between similar or related items in the target language should be minimized by selecting non-synonymous contexts for their presentation. Language exercises should be so framed as to activate rule learning. Hence mechanical drilling exercises should be avoided.

3. Course designers should keep in mind the specific social function of the target language while selecting the contents of a course.

4. The learner should be the focus of teaching. Hence, his activities, social roles and relationships, social situations in which he may need to use the second language should be the focus of a second language course, so that it may have a functional value for the learner. This would make learning highly motivated.

Effective communication rather than proficiency in rules of grammar should be the focus of teaching.

Explorations:

1. Study the socio-economic or non-lingual factors influencing language learning in some schools around your institute.

2. Conduct a survey of teachers of English of some Elementary Schools around your institute and their educational background and aptitude for teaching English at the school stage where the foundations of second language are laid.
References

13. Carol Boston ERIC Clearinghouse on Assessment and Evaluation, University of Maryland, College Park


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UNIT-6
TEACHING LEARNING MATERIALS

1. RESOURCE CENTRE: AN OVERVIEW

In the modern world, language resources play a vital role in shaping and moulding the classroom interaction and classroom management. Every school should have a resource centre where all the teaching, learning and self-learning materials are available. A resource centre may have a language lab, a library and a wide assortment of audio and video materials. Language learning is now accepted by linguists as being a habit forming process. Habits are formed by repetition. Tedium is avoided by presenting the same concepts to the children in a variety of situations and contexts by visual and oral methods.

Specific Objectives
- To enable students to use language games.
- To enable students to know what a language lab is and how to use it.
- To make students understand the use of newspapers in the classroom for language skills’ development.
- To enable students to acquire the skill of using sketches in teaching.
- To expose students to English through radio, TV or internet and to enable them to use it productively for acquiring language skills.
- To enable students to use ICT for teaching English.

Materials for classroom use

Puppets
These can be paper-bag puppets, glove-puppets, hand-puppets or finger-puppets. In addition to the actual puppets a simple ‘stage’ is very useful if you want to perform dialogues and skits.

Class mascot
Teddy bear or any local animal like a dog or a cat can be a class mascot, or you might have special puppets or something of local significance.

Paper dolls
These are very useful for teaching, but have quite a short life and have to be regularly replaced.

English corner
Pupils should be encouraged to collect anything which is in any way connected with the English-speaking world.

Picture cards
These can be drawings or cut-outs from magazines, or perhaps photos. Once you’ve sorted them out for size, put them into themes or subject areas like ‘people’, ‘places’, ‘food’, etc.
**Word / Sentence cards**
Word cards are useful for displays and for work on the flannel graph. If you want to get full use of your collection, you should work out a system of classification to be used in combination to teach vocabulary, phrases, clauses and sentence patterns effectively.

**Calendar**
Your calendar should show the date, birthdays and special days.

**Clock**
Very simple clocks with movable hands are invaluable in the language classroom, not only for telling the time, but also for setting a scene in a skit and changing time now and then. They can be used for interactive tasks or for individual practice tasks.

**Weather Chart**
A weather chart can be prepared like a clock with one hand only and pictures of rainy day, cloudy day, hot day, windy day, etc. could represented on the dial in the place of the numbers.

**Displaying the books**
Put the books on low open shelves or in clearly marked boxes in your English corner. You might want to put new books or popular ones on low tables. Or you might put the books in book shelves. You should make sure that the children are physically able to reach them.

**Borrowing cards**
Have a system in which you know who has each book and how long he or she has had it. You might have a large card inside each book, and when the pupil borrows it he or she writes his or her name and the date on the card and puts the card in the space provided for in the book. This not only lets you see who has the book, but also tells you how popular the book is.

**Radio and Television**
Radio and Television can play a vital role in making classroom learning more interesting and joyful. The teachers have to equip themselves with the skills of selecting the right programme, preparing the students for the programme and organising the classroom. Apart from making changes in the seating arrangements during the programme they should give follow-up activities based on the programme.

**Computer**
In this world of computers a resource centre will be incomplete without a computer. A teacher has to know the basic operation of computers because it is one of the best tools for improving the communication skills of the teacher and the students.
Maps

You should have a map of the world or a globe in the classroom. A map of your local area is also useful, especially if it clearly shows the rivers, mountains, etc.

Wall charts

There are a lots of wall charts available in the market which are specially made for the language classroom. Be on the lookout for charts for other subjects too, especially if you are going to do team work or take part in projects working across the curriculum.

Toys

There are endless uses for toys in the language classroom. They also help in connecting the child’s world inside the classroom to what is happening outside the classroom.

Building blocks

Building blocks will make wonderful teaching and learning aids and they can be made from inexpensive wooden or plastic materials. They are so versatile. Collect shoe boxes and all other sorts of boxes to make models.

Cassette recorders

You should have in every classroom at least one cassette recorder which can record students’ talk. There are reasonably cheap cassette recorders in the market which have built-in microphones. Remember also to have blank cassettes on store for the recording.

Overhead projector

There is little doubt that presenting materials on the overhead projector allows you to face the children all the time and provides the children with a common focus of attention. You can come back to the same material whenever you want to and you can use the same material with different classes.

Transparencies

Transparencies could be useful for overhead projector presentations. They should be kept in special plastic covers or frames and then put into a file.

Albums

Picture collection or photos of students’ with their family members could help students talk about their families. Albums consisting of photos taken on different events could help students discuss various issues freely.

Materials to collect

Children find all sorts of uses for materials which might otherwise be thrown away. These are things which can be used in making collages, creating puppets, decorating pictures, telling stories, counting, acting, miming, etc. You can collect: cartons, assorted ribbons, old cards, postcards, cotton reels, all sorts of paper - tissue paper, old wrapping paper, wallpaper - stamps, coins, buttons, strings, jars, empty packets of all sorts, bits of material, etc.
**Learners’ Profile**

Each student can have a compilation of his own poems, travelogues or visits to interesting places. He can record his reflections and display them in the resource centre for others to read.

**Exploration**

1. Can you add any suggestions to the list of materials which you and your pupils can make to use in the English lessons?
2. What else would you add to the list of things that you collect for a resource centre?

**2. LANGUAGE GAMES – A FEW SAMPLES**

**Overview**

Language is central to human experience allowing communication with self and others. It guides the construction of reality. Games provide an interesting way of learning any language. It develops self confidence and skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking. Successful manipulation of games in the classroom goes a long way in improving the communication skills of students. Games can be used in many different settings. At the classroom level the games can be used to reinforce and support the teaching and learning of the language. There is no doubt that it also develops social skills in children. Skilled teachers determine the quality of games to be used in the classroom.

**Oral game:**

The class register can be used to develop the speaking skills of the students.

**Task 1:**

The teacher can pick out a few names from the class register and ask, for instance -

*Teacher:* Is Kumar here?
*Kumar:* Yes I am here.

*Teacher:* Where are you, Shyam? Put up your hand.
*Teacher:* Oh! There you are.

*Teacher:* Is Reshma here?
*Class:* No, sir.

*Teacher:* She was here yesterday, wasn’t she?
*Mala:* Yes, sir, she was.

*Teacher:* Where is she today, Reena?
*Reena:* She is at home in bed, sir.

Meaningful language learning will take place if the situation is exploited well.

**Some More Hints**

A good game, like a good recipe, can be dressed up to fit any occasion. Once you find a format appealing to your group, play it for all its worth. Change it to fit the subject, the season, or the class mood. If you are creative with your games, your children soon will be. You will find them suggesting changes which will make the game more exciting or more appropriate to their current interests.
Task 2: Learning Area

Grammar (Questioning)

All but two of the players join hands and form a circle (ring). One of the two (Ramu) is blindfolded, and both are in the centre. Ramu says, “Somu, where are you?” “Here I am,” says Somu but at once moves away silently. Ramu has to catch Somu by listening to his voice, and therefore he keeps on asking, “Somu, where are you?” Somu must answer every time but he cannot leave the ring. He can duck and dodge as much as he likes to avoid being touched by Ramu. When he is caught, Somu takes the place of Ramu and Ramu is substituted by someone else from the ring.

Task 3: Listening

The same or different!

This game can be played with sound words and sentences. Here are rough indications of several kinds of procedures.

The teacher says two sentences and pupils have to judge whether they are the same or different.

Examples:

Teacher: Throw away the pill, please. Throw away the peal, please. Are they all the same? I will repeat them once more. *The teacher repeats them and points out to Rajan*.

Rajan: The second sentence is different from the first one.

And so on. Sometimes the teacher will give the sentences in pairs and sometimes in threes or fours and they may be identical or different.

Task 4: Getting to know each other

Procedure:

In pairs, students find different ways of comparing themselves with each other, and write down or simply say the appropriate sentences.

You are taller than I am.
Ram has longer hair than I have.
James is older than Raheem.

As a follow-up, share some of the things participants have found out with the rest of the class.

Task 5: English words in our languages

Study of cognates or loan words from English in the students’ mother tongue.

Procedure:

In pairs of small groups the students think of as many words as they can in two minutes that they know were originally English but are commonly used in their own language. Write
up all the words on the board. Alternatively do the activity as a competition and see which group has the maximum number of words.

**Task 6: Vocabulary review**

**Procedure**

Ask about ten students to stand up at the front of the class. Ask them to arrange themselves in the alphabetical order of their names. When they are in order, they should each state their name in a complete sentence. They could also say the names of all the other students in the line.

**Example:**

My name is _______________. His name is _______________

The students who are still in their seats can take part by commenting on the correctness of what the students at the front are doing and saying.

**Variations:**

The same students or another group can continue this type of ordering activity in the following ways:

- Standing in order of their birthdays through the year if this is culturally important for the students. They should then give their birthday dates in turn.
  
  e.g.: I was born on Tuesday, the 12th of March 2002/ My birthday is on the 12th of March.

- Standing in the alphabetical order of their fathers’ names, the streets they come from, or the towns or villages they come from.

  e.g.: My family is from Madurai. My father’s name is _______________

- Standing in the order of the distance they travel to come to school / the class.

  e.g.: I travel 5 kilometers to reach the school.

- Standing in the order of the time at which they get up or go to bed.

  e.g.: I wake up at 6o’clock in the morning. I go to bed at 9 o’clock at night.

**Task 7: Imaginary classroom**

Describing a room; use of prepositions.

**Procedure:**

Tell the students to imagine that the room is absolutely empty with no furniture, no people, nothing. They have to create their ideal classroom by suggesting how to refurnish it.

**Example:**

There is a thick soft wall-to-wall carpet on the floor.

There is a television in the corner, with the video player.

**Task 8: Composing simple grammatical utterances**

Describing a picture
Preparation:
Select a picture from a magazine or poster of your own.

Procedure:
The students look at the picture and say things about it; you can give directions that these must be in the form of complete, grammatical sentences, or simply accept shorter utterances. For each acceptance write a tick on the board. How many sentences can the class think of in two minutes? Or can they find at least 20 or 30 sentences?
Write the more interesting ones on the board.

Task 9: Describing and guessing
Seeing pictures in your mind.
Who, where and what?

Procedure:
Describe an object in the classroom, and at the end of the description ask, ‘What is it?’ Follow this with a description of a person who is known to the students. They must try to identify what or who you have described.
Teacher: It has got two doors; it’s green and we keep books in it.
Student: The cupboard.
Teacher: She has long hair and is wearing a green skirt and she’s sitting on the last bench.
Student: Kala
Once the activity is understood, individual students describe people, places or objects for the rest of the class to identify.

Exploration:
1. How will you create games to improve the communication skills of children?
2. How far are games useful in making teaching learning more effective?
3. Create a game as a learning process for each of the following
   a. Pronouns
   b. Enquiry and response (e.g. Do you know English? Yes, I do)
   c. Adjective-Adverb (e.g. quick-quickly, neat-neatly)

3. LANGUAGE LAB

Overview
Every day we are faced with the problem of communication, whether it is in our classroom or outside. Why is there so much difficulty in understanding the idea that is communicated? The person desiring to communicate has a mental picture of the ideas to communicate. He then translates that mental picture into a verbal picture. Very often this translation does not take place effectively.

The essence of human interaction is language and communication. The world that our students will encounter as adults will be vastly different from the one we know today. The rapid development of telecommunications will make the ability to communicate in English a necessity. It is therefore necessary to provide the students with the right knowledge of the application of English to enable them to function optimally.
**What is a language lab?**

The language laboratory is an audio or audio-visual installation used as an aid in modern language teaching. The Language Laboratory is used for language tutorials and remedial English classes. The students are exposed to a variety of listening and speaking drills. This especially benefits students who are deficient in English and also aims at confidence-building for interviews and competitive examinations.

**Traditional System**

The ‘traditional’ language lab system generally comprised a master console (teacher position) which was electrically connected to a number of rows of student booths, typically containing a student tape recorder and a boom arm. The teacher console was usually fitted with master playback source equipment (tape recorder), some means of monitoring of each booth in the class via the teacher headset and an intercom facility offering two-way communication between the teacher and the student.

All but the simplest or first generation laboratories allowed the teacher to remotely control the tape transport controls of the student booths (record, stop, rewind, etc) from the master desk. This facilitated easy distribution of the master programme material, which was often copied at high speed onto the student positions for later use by the students at their own pace.

Once the master programme was transferred onto the student recorders, the teacher would hand over the control of the decks to the students. By pressing the record key in the booth, the student would simultaneously hear the playback of the programme whilst being able to record his or her voice in the pauses, using the microphone.

**New System**

In the new system the language lab is not only a resource centre but also the central focus of a school language department. This facility has a definite place in the school.

The language lab provides for many different activities: the traditional exercises of the old “language lab” as well as the newer ones modern technology has provided us with—computers, video, electronic testing, etc. There are other activities which can also have a place in the language lab such as the reading of English periodicals, bulletin boards, language games and English clubs. The Language Laboratory sessions also include word games, quizzes, extemporary speaking, debates, skits, etc

**Organising a Language Lab**

Of prime importance is the day-to-day administration of the Language Resource Centre. Daily administrative tasks include setting up of the cassettes and/or audio and video tapes for classroom situation, tape preparation, editing and duplication. Audio and video

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**Objectives**

At the end of the unit the students will be able to

- **Understand how to use a language lab effectively.**
- **Use multimedia to develop the skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing.**
- **Develop students’ confidence in using the language.**
cassettes as well as software inventories must be updated frequently and lists of these inventories provided to the faculty and the students. Actual maintenance of the equipments: demagnetizing recording heads, routine cleaning of the equipment, and checking for malfunctions must be undertaken on a regular basis.

Task-based lab activities

The objective of task-based activities is to provide learners with opportunities to use English contextually, and to explore the language through situational activities. In this way, the language lab can serve as a valuable tool in the language learning and teaching process, for it provides opportunities for learning that cannot be duplicated in the classroom.

A tool, however, is only as effective as its implementor, and thus the role of the teacher is central to the success of task-based activities. The aim of lab drills is to provide a mechanical means to free the teacher for other instructional activities. Task-based activities bring the teacher back into the lab.

Characteristics of task-based activities

There are three main characteristics of task-based activities.

1. First, they have a goal or purpose that requires the use of the target language, but is not itself centred on that language.

   Eg: *Each student writes in his notebook and records on tape a story about an invented vocation. Students then listen to the stories and evaluate them in terms of which vocation they would like the most.*

   The students’ goal is to tell stories that interest and excite their peers. The focus is on the story rather than on the language itself; however, the means to the end is through effective communication in the target language.

2. The second trait involves making use of the unique features of a language lab to create a learning environment that cannot be recreated in the regular classroom. Some classroom-based group activities can be improvised by adapting them to the language laboratory.

3. The third trait of a task-based activity is that it involves the student in a way that intrinsically motivates, and creates a desire to excel. Task-based activities can be designed to provide students with the opportunity to get motivated.
Traditional Classroom versus Multimedia Lab:

In a traditional classroom, the teacher provides the topic-specific situation for students to make use of language as much as they can. Since the traditional classroom is far removed from any similarities to the real life situation, the teacher has to tell students to use their imagination and place themselves in that situation. On the other hand the computer software used in the multimedia lab creates a virtual world that is very similar to the real world. It is a world that you can see and experience.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Tools</th>
<th>Traditional Classroom</th>
<th>Multimedia Lab</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching materials</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicative activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student-teacher</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chalk, blackboard, audio tapes</td>
<td>Local computer network, video on demand, internet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Textbook</td>
<td>Interactive computer software.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Imaginative role-play</td>
<td>Realistic computer-simulated environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Direct communication and more ‘intimacy’</td>
<td>Indirect communication and less intimacy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Exploration:
- *Can a teacher create a modest language lab in the school using limited resources?*
- *Have the students write a role play and record the same on a cassette?*
- *Does the language lab mean only audio and video tools?*

4. NEWSPAPER IN TEACHING ENGLISH (NITE)

Practicals

Material collection is an on-going process, but it is well worth devoting some time in collecting and filing specific categories of newspaper extracts (e.g. weather forecasts, short articles, advertisement, headings).

Judicious use of newspaper in the classroom can play a significant role in motivating students to read. There are four key ways teachers can successfully use newspaper materials with students:

1. Pre-activity preparation;
2. Careful selection of materials;
3. Careful design of tasks and

Objectives:
1. To provide students practical and creative ideas to exploit all the different sections of newspapers.
2. To enable others to meet the diverse needs and interests of their students, using newspaper materials.
3. To provide students purposeful and valuable language practice through newspaper-based activity and tasks which develop listening, speaking, reading and writing skills.

To instill in students a positive and comfortable attitude towards reading newspapers.
Pre-activity preparation

Pre-activity preparation involves familiarising students with the content of the materials to be used and preparing students for any difficult language they contain, before they read them. It is important to remember that not all newspaper materials are difficult. Clearly, some texts are easier than others.

This is particularly true in the case of short newspaper items such as news in brief articles, where only two or three words may need explaining to make the texts fully understandable. This can easily be achieved by teaching difficult vocabulary at the beginning of the activity.

Selection of materials

Newspapers provide a wide scope for exploring the possibilities of learning a language. Newspapers can be exploited on a regular basis to strengthen the skills of the students for:

- Reinforcing grammatical terms
- Reading with comprehension
- Writing creatively
- Improving knowledge of structure

Newspapers have a lot of resources to be used in the classroom. In the hands of a resourceful teacher, such items as headlines, news columns, pictures in the newspaper, advertisement columns, business columns, etc can become sources for classroom activities and tasks.

Generally speaking, many students can find it quite tiring and discouraging to have to read a long and perhaps complicated newspaper article from beginning to end. So it would be advisable to select the easier items from the newspapers.

Design of tasks:

There are plenty of simple activities you can design in the classroom just by using even old newspapers and magazines. Collect the newspapers and cut out suitable items such as pictures, advertisements and headlines and carry out the following activities:

- Making negative sentences.
- Framing questions for given statements.
- Writing the other degrees of comparison for selected sentences.
- Writing the indirect speech or direct speech sentences.

Task 1: The press

In groups, discuss these questions.

- What are the main stories in the press these days?
- Are there similar types of papers in your country?
- Are newspapers free from government influence?
- Do you think newspapers should be smaller?
Task 2: Newspaper headlines

Preparation:
Select a number of headlines from a newspaper and cut them into individual words. Use these to compile a sheet of headline words in a jumbled order, and make one copy of this sheet for each pair of students in the class.

In class:
Pair students, give each pair a copy of the sheet of words and tell your students that the words have all been taken from newspaper headlines. Deal with any problem related to vocabulary at this stage of the activity.
Tell your students that they should try to use as many of these words as they can to make up sentences, but make it absolutely clear that they do not need to use all the words on the sheet.
Explain that their sentences can be as long or as short as they wish, and tell them that they can add grammatical words (e.g. auxiliary verbs, linking words, pronouns and articles) which do not appear on the sheet to help them make their sentences grammatically correct.
Tell your students that as they use a word, they should tick it on the sheet and not use that word again. They list all the sentences they make, adding the appropriate punctuation (e.g. full stops, commas, question marks).
As each pair finishes, ask them to exchange their lists with one another to check the sentences they have produced.
Finally, ask the pairs to read out their lists of sentences, and discuss their accuracy with the class.

Task 3:
Work in small groups. Write these newspaper headlines as full sentences. (Allocate a few headlines to each group). Continue the stories to make a complete news bulletin, e.g. Oil discovered in city centre - Massive reserves of crude oil were discovered in the city centre yesterday when builders started digging the foundations for a new office block…

- Gangs overflows
- PM admitted in hospital
- Smoking to be banned
- Man abducted by "aliens"
- Trapped girl saved
- Dog taught to drive
Task 4:

Work as pairs; write a headline of your own, if possible about a story in the news at the moment. Exchange it with the next pair and see if you can expand on the headline that is passed to you. They will be collected and read out as a news bulletin in the class.

Task 5:

Headline halves

Matching halves of newspaper headlines

Preparation

Compile a list of eight to ten headlines, each of which should consist of six or more words. The meanings of the headlines should be transparent, i.e. there should be no word play or ambiguity.

Paste the accompanying articles (without the headlines) onto a sheet of paper, numbering them for ease of reference. Deal with any vocabulary or language problems by adding a translation or an explanation and make one copy of this sheet for each student in the class. Keep the matching headlines for the final stage to check your students’ answers.

In class

1) On the left-hand side of the board, write the beginnings of the headlines you have chosen. On the other side of the board, write the endings of these headlines, but in a jumbled order. Deal with any vocabulary or language problems at this stage of the activity.

2) Explain to your students that the headline endings on the right complete the beginnings on the left, but they are in a jumbled order. Tell them that they should try to find as many possible matching endings for each headline beginning as they can. Their complete headlines should have meaning, and they should form grammatically possible combinations.

3) Begin the activity. When your students are ready, ask them to compare and discuss their complete headlines with a partner.

4) Finally, tell your students the original (complete) headlines.

Task 6:

Look at the advertisement and answer the questions that follow.

1. Who has given the advertisement?
2. What is the advertisement about?
3. Who can apply for the distributorship?
4. Where can you get the application from?
5. Where is NCERT located?
Projects

Project 1:

Compare two English newspapers circulated in your locality and state your observations of the following:

*Preparation*

*Task 1:*

Look at the table. Fill in the required details about the two newspapers. Compare the details and discuss the similarities and differences in coverage and use of language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classifications</th>
<th>The Hindu</th>
<th>Indian Express/Deccan Chronicle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pages</td>
<td>Space</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional News</td>
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<tr>
<td>State news</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>International News</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Business Review</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Sports News</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Feature Article</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Editorial</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Readers’ Letters</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Classified Ads</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Radio and TV Programmes</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Bus and Train Timings.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weather Forecasts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Arts &amp; Entertainment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horoscope</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Task 2:

Relate the following to the appropriate classifications given in the table.

e.g:

1. Capricorn: Horoscope
   Although you could be having problems at work this week, your social life has never been better.

2. Sir, with reference to your report on drop-out rate in the schools, I wish to point out that

3. Tonight temperature will drop to around 3°

4. For sale 1992 Ford

5. A ten year old girl was in hospital after

6. Obama is elected President of the USA

Project 2:

*What, who, where, when, how, why?*

Write the following questions on the board and explain to your students that the introductory paragraph of a newspaper article will usually answer several of these questions:

- What happened?
- Who did it involve?
- Where did it happen?
- When did it happen?
- How did it happen?
- Why did it happen?

Compile a sheet with the introductory (i.e. the first) paragraph plus the headline from several ‘hard news’ articles - news of the day which deals with quotations and factual details, and which contains little description, journalistic comment or analysis. Number each paragraph for ease of reference and make one copy of this sheet for each student in the class.

Does the introductory paragraph of the newspaper clippings answer all the questions? Discuss in groups.

What questions are answered by the rest of the paragraph?

Project 3:

*Finding factual information in introductory paragraphs to articles*

Find two articles from different newspapers about the same story and bring them into the class. In groups, make notes about the differences in the coverage of the story.

Project 4:

Look at the newspaper and find an advertisement you like and one you don’t.

Work in small groups and explain why you like or dislike them. Try to identify the persuasive techniques used by advertisers. As a group, choose your favourite advertisement.
Project 5:

What does the first paragraph of the following newspaper clipping talk about?

How will you rephrase the heading?

Researchers discover elusive frog

SYDNEY: A tiny frog species thought by many experts to be extinct has been rediscovered alive and well in a remote area of Australia's tropical north, researchers said on Thursday.

The 40 mm-long Armoured Mistfrog had not been seen since 1991, and many experts assumed it had been wiped out by a devastating fungus that struck northern Queensland State.

How they did it

But two months ago, a doctoral student at James Cook University in Townsville conducting research on another frog species in Queensland stumbled across what appeared to be several Armoured Mistfrogs in a creek, said Professor Ross Alford, head of a research team on threatened frogs.

Conrad Hoskin, a researcher at The Australian National University in Canberra who has been studying the evolutionary biology of north Queensland frogs for the past 10 years, conducted DNA tests on tissue samples from the frogs and determined they were the elusive Armoured Mistfrog.

Professor Alford's group got the results on Wednesday. A spokeswoman for the Queensland Environmental Protection Agency also confirmed the findings.

"A lot of us were starting to believe it had gone extinct, so to discover it now is amazing," Mr. Hoskin said. "It means some of the other species that are missing could potentially just be hidden away along some of the streams up there."

Craig Franklin, a Professor of Zoology at The University of Queensland who studies frogs, said the Mistfrog's rediscovery was exciting. "It's very significant," he said. "We've lost so many frog species in Australia... Hopefully it's a population that's making a comeback."

The light brown frogs, with dark brown spots, congregate in areas with fast-flowing water. So far, between 30 and 40 have been found.

The chytrid fungus was blamed for decimating frog populations worldwide, including seven species in Queensland's tropics between the late 1980s and early 1990s. Armoured Mistfrogs had been classified as critically endangered rather than extinct, but most researchers believed they had died out from the disease.

Most of the Armoured Mistfrogs that the group has found are infected with the fungus, but the disease does not appear to be making them sick.

Professor Alford and his team plan to study the creatures to try and determine how they managed to coexist with the fungus, in a bid to aid future conservation and management of vulnerable frogs.


List out the nouns, adjectives and prepositions used in the news item. e.g.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nouns</th>
<th>Adjectives</th>
<th>Prepositions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>frog</td>
<td>tiny</td>
<td>by</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Project 6:

Writing a news item

Part 1:

Encouraging children to read and write in ways that allow them to make sense of real language in real contexts is more likely to help them develop the skills necessary to become fluent readers and writers. Creation of a class newspaper provides such a real context, and thus makes an excellent choice as the basis for a project designed with this goal in mind.
Newspaper Information Hunt

Preparation:

Teachers need to collect enough newspapers for students to work in pairs. Before assigning the newspaper information hunt, make a model of what students should do in this activity. Circle and label all listed items in student directions for the hunt in red marker.

Teaching Steps:

Step 1. Divide students into pairs. Give each pair a newspaper and two markers.

Step 2. Tell students that they have to skim and scan their newspapers for basic news writing techniques. Explain the term lead, headline, byline, quote, news story, editorial and advertisement.

Step 3. Allow time for students to work in the class to complete the information hunt. Ask each pair to share a few interesting items from their search.

Directions for Students

With a partner, find five examples of each of the following techniques in your newspaper. Circle and label each with a marker.

- **Lead**: Usually one sentence that tells who, what where, when, why and how. It is found at the beginning of the story.
- **Headline**: The title of the story
- **Byline**: The author of the story
- **Quote**: Exactly what someone said and is in quotation marks
- **Editorial**: A writer gives his or her opinion about a subject
- **Advertisement**: An article or ad that is paid for by the company

After the hunt is complete, move on to part two of this lesson where students will write a news story.

Part 2

Teaching basic news writing

Directions for students:

1. Choose a news-worthy topic. Example topics: dress code, school lunch, sports, clubs, after school activities, new course offerings, student teachers, pep assemblies, recycling programmes, etc.
2. Choose two to three people to be interviewed to find out information about the topic.
3. Write questions for these people to make the interview organised and efficient. Ask the following types of questions: *Who, what, where, when, why and How.*
4. Take notes on what each person says. If the person has a strong opinion about a topic, ask him or her if you can include a quote in your story. Make sure you write down exactly what he or she says when it is an opinion or an unusual fact.

5. Organise this information into a story. The most important information goes at the top of the story. The least important information goes at the end. This is called the inverted pyramid.

6. The first line of your story is called the lead. The lead should include as much of the following: who, what, where, when, why and how information. The lead should not be more than 30 words. It should grab the reader’s attention and make a reader want to finish reading your story.

7. Do not put in your own opinion in this story. If you want opinion in your story, it must be from a quote (something that someone said.) The information should be in quotation marks with the person’s name after the quote.

8. Paragraphs must be short in length.

When the newsletter is complete with all the students’ stories, give each student a copy. Parents will enjoy reading the class project and the students will love seeing their names in print.

**Recycling Materials:**

The materials prepared for the activities or tasks need not be thrown away after use. They can be preserved in a safe place for later use. They are of perennial value as far as using them as teaching learning materials is concerned.

**Exploration:**

- Can newspapers be used to teach grammar?
- How will you use a newspaper for teaching primary students?

### 5. BLACKBOARD SKETCHES

Chalk board is a basic, most widely used and versatile tool of instruction. Even in the modern age of television and teaching machines it remains as the most trusted and powerful companion of a teacher. Next to a teacher’s personal visualization of the teaching matter is his verbal delivery of the same. This is always to be supported by a frame-work of visualized details to be displayed on the chalk board. A teacher need not be an artist to use the board effectively.

**Planning your blackboard work**

If you plan your blackboard work well in advance and include it as part of the lesson plan, much of the chaotic and untidy work on the blackboard can be avoided. Ideally the blackboard can be sectioned off into several areas. It can be divided into four convenient sections. Thus one part of the blackboard can be set apart for pictures, another part for writing tables and lists, another part for planned work and another part for unforeseen use.
Planned work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pictures</th>
<th>Tables, lists, etc.</th>
<th>Unforeseen use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

The teacher has to erase the board before he/she leaves at the end of the class unless the contents on the board are absolutely necessary for follow up work or assignment.

**Techniques of Usage**

Keeping in view the varieties of chalk boards many techniques can be used. The teacher, by his careful selection, integration and use of the textual details of a subject matter can employ any one or combination of the following techniques in teaching.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>The Template Technique</strong></th>
<th><strong>The Pattern Technique</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For regular use of symbols, diagrams and designs in science lessons, templates can be used. Templates are cut out of cardboard, wood or masonite. The template is held against the board and the outline is drawn with chalk. These can be stored conveniently or hung for a ready use.</td>
<td>Detailed outlines of diagrams are punched on heavy tracing paper sheet. The punches are perforated with any sharp-edged pointed material like a nail. The pattern paper is held against the board and a dusty eraser is rubbed against the perforated section of the outline. This will make an outline of chalk dust stick to the board. By free-hand drawings along these dots the basic pattern can be completed.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>The Magnetic Board Technique</strong></th>
<th><strong>The Subject Matter Outlines Technique</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>This requires the use of steel chalk board and small pieces of magnet. Magnets help to fix symbols of light three-dimensional objects on the board which are progressively uncovered by a cloth curtain fixed at the top of the board.</td>
<td>Description, procedures, processes and experiments can be detailed out step by step through properly worded summaries. Key words and expressions and rules of usage can be memorized and understood by focusing attention on important word and phrases. Key ideas can be conveyed through contrast by the use of coloured chalk.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**LOW LEVEL BLACK BOARD**

Low level black board refers to the three walls in class room painted black up to the level the children can reach. The children themselves can use it for writing, doing sums, drawing or any creative activity.

It is the natural tendency of children to scribble. The children show a lot of interest in showing their innate talents by writing on the black board. They have a sense of fulfillment and achievement. Blackboard activity promotes healthy competition among children and in turn the tendency to excel. Low Level Blackboard goes a long way in improving the classroom
performance of the children. There is plenty of scope for peer learning, peer correction, peer evaluation and self learning and self evaluation.

**Chalk sheets for teaching**

These are uniform pieces of sheets of paper painted black and joined together at one end with thin wooden strips. The sheets can be made of wrapping paper or craft paper of good quality, pastel paper, thin card, construction paper, etc.

**Preparation**

Take even pieces of wrapping paper of good quality. About six to ten even sheets are required. Select a fine variety of blackboard paint or some black flat varnish paint. Paint the smooth sides of these sheets evenly with a one inch or two inches wide brush. After these sheets get dried, these are to be bound at one end with thin pieces of wooden strips.

**Method of usage**

These sheets provide a very useful and handy tool for teaching. You can develop blackboard details, lesson summaries, and simple explanatory sketches on these sheets. Your ideas or concepts can be easily analyzed into different stages, each being depicted on one sheet.

Compose the text and sketches on these sheets with coloured chalk or crayons. These details can be easily wiped clean with a piece of wet cloth. If preserved carefully, these can be used for a good number of times.

**Blackboard drawing**

Many teachers are reluctant to try their hand at blackboard. They say that they can’t draw, without ever having tried. But simple stick figures are not beyond even the most hopeless amongst us; and with a little practice, every teacher can learn enough to draw simple pictures for language practice.

Picture Composition can be made a lot more interesting by drawing the pictures on the blackboard rather than having them on specially prepared cards.

**Whiteboard**

A whiteboard (also known as a marker-board, dry-erase board, dry-wipe board or a pen-board) is a name for any glossy surface, most commonly coloured white, where non-permanent markings can be made. The popularity of whiteboards increased rapidly in the mid-1990s and they have become very common in many offices, meeting rooms, school
classrooms, and other work environments. A special marker pen containing removable ink is used for writing on the whiteboard.

**Advantages**
- Whiteboard ink markings are less susceptible to external factors. Using markers does not generate the dust that comes from using and erasing chalk, allowing their use in areas containing dust-sensitive equipment. Some who are allergic to chalk or are asthmatic use whiteboards as an alternative.
- A whiteboard can be used as the projecting medium for an overhead or video projector. This allows the person giving the presentation to fill in blanks, edit, underline and make comments by writing directly onto the whiteboard, which in turn shows through the projected image.
- A dry erase marker is easier to hold and write with. In addition, marking on a whiteboard takes less time, effort, and pressure than marking on a chalkboard.
- When compared to a chalkboard a whiteboard can have significantly more colours because markers have a greater range of colours than chalk.

**Stick-Figures**

One of the most obvious advantages of the use of stick figures in language teaching is the possibility of illustrating a special teaching point by itself. A stick figure drawing can omit all distracting information and shows clearly, by itself, the particular word or phrase that is required.

**Types of stick-figure Drawing**

Stick-figure drawings can be very simple or elaborate. The type chosen depends on the use to be made of them; in practice the type will also depend on the time available to make them.

Type 1 drawings are useful for rapid blackboard sketches during the lesson. Being simple they take less time to draw, and can be rubbed out and quickly replaced.

To begin with simple drawings are the most useful for all purposes. As soon as some skill has been developed, more elaborate drawings should be attempted.

For cueing words and providing ‘Situations’, on the other hand, the more elaborate drawings are needed. In such cases the blackboard, wall pictures and flash cards should be illustrated with Type 2 stick-figures. These should be drawn before the lesson starts.

All sticks are composed of straight lines and curves. Skills can be increased rapidly by practice in drawing lines and curves many times, followed by simple shapes, and then complete figures.
Task:

Look at the following sequence which can be developed for a picture composition lesson. Write a story based on the stick figures and hints given in the box:

**Words for the story**
- Boys
- Boat
- Clouds
- Rain
- Oars
- Rowing
- Storm
- Swim
- Shore
- Sea

**Exploration**
1. Can the blackboard be a substitute to the text book?
2. What kind of blackboard sketches can be easily done in the classroom?

**6. USE OF RADIO AND T.V AND INTERNET FOR TEACHING ENGLISH**

**An Overview**

Education is not limited to the classroom teaching rules alone. It is broad-based and multidimensional; it is life long, universal, free and open.

Hence there is no end to learning and no frontier of learning. School is not the only institution of learning. In this age of science and technology importance of mass media cannot be overestimated. Radio and T.V are the most powerful media at present. Both are complementary to one another.

**Component of Educational Technology:**

ET consists of all materials, media and methods used for optimization of learning. It comprises teaching aids like chalk sticks, books, journals, illustration, charts, posters etc.

**Educational Broadcasting**

**Uses**
- A means of motivation
- A major component of non-formal educational system.
- A direct instructional medium.
- An enrichment of formal educational system.
- A training component for teachers and supervisors.
- A means of improving professional skills
- A supplementary teaching medium Aid.
Television

TV is the most powerful medium of communication. It has revolutionized the method of teaching and learning.
- It is a convenient and economical medium of reaching a large cross-section of population.
- It combines the best of radio and motion pictures.
- It helps overcome barriers to learning.

Selecting the Programme

The following guidelines will be helpful when selecting TV programmes.
1. The programmes should fit comfortably into the class schedule.
2. The teacher should know exactly what objectives she wants the telecast to cover.
3. The telecast material should fall within the interest range and attention span of the children.
4. The materials and equipment to carry out the lesson should be readily accessible.

Organising TV Classes

1. The TV sets should be placed high enough for comfortable viewing.
2. Picture quality should be checked before telecast.
3. The room should not be darkened.
4. The set should be placed away from windows to reduce glare.
5. The screen size determines the seating arrangement for proper viewing.
6. Care should be taken to place students with poor vision in the more advantageous seats.
7. The difference in the heights of the student should be taken into account.

Preparing Students for Television

The amount of preparation for a lesson depends largely upon the type of programme and how it is to be used. However, it is important for the teacher to give the students any background information necessary and in keeping with the purpose of the lesson.

Warming up Activities

Task 1: Prime time
(Ask the students which English programmes they are interested in. Elicit the following programmes by giving clues, e.g. It provides up-to-date news around the world.

Discovery Channel, Animal Planet, BBC, CNN, SUN TV, SUN News, National Geographic, History Channel, ESPN, Ten Sports, Star Sports.

If you know one of these programmes, describe it to another student who has never seen it. In groups, brainstorm a list of ten different kinds of programmes and then work on your list,
to put the list in order from your most to least favourite. Compare your order with that of
the group. (Elicit the genres and write them on the board. Here are some possibilities.)

Current affairs, nature/wildlife, soap operas, sport, history, music, cookery, comedy,
dramas, travel, talk shows, quizzes, weather forecast, gardening

Task 2: Survey

Each student is given a question. Students mingle and ask each other to answer the
question given to them. This answers are recorded.

- Would you like to live without a TV?
- How many hours a week do you watch TV?
- How often do you watch English language programmes?
- Do you watch sports programmes? Which ones?
- What is your favourite TV programme?
- Do you watch nature programmes?
- Is there too much violence on TV?
- Do you watch the news every day?

Take turns to read out your question and the result of your survey, e.g. I asked the class if
there was more than one TV in their house. Two of them said there was - that’s 20 per cent.
One student had a TV in every room.

During the Telecast

The classroom teacher should do whatever is necessary to see to it that her children
get the most out of the telecasts. The teacher clarifies points, answers questions, leads
discussions, and gives individual help. It is the classroom teacher who decides what she
expects her children to get out of the lessons. The final success of any television programme
greatly depends upon the teacher’s attitude.

The teacher should:

1. Actively respond to the lesson.
2. Record items to be clarified.
3. Recognize children who need additional help.
4. Encourage children to respond to directions and questions.

Follow-up Activities

The teacher should use a variety of activities to follow up a lesson. Whether dealing
with total groups, small groups, or individuals, each activity should have a definite purpose
which expands the TV programme. The following is a sampling of various types of follow-
up activities:
• Writing stories, poems, letters.
• Taking notes, making reports, outlines.
• Articles for school paper.
• Listing vocabulary.
• Making a list of books related to the TV series.

PROJECTS
• Watch the news on TV tonight and make notes about the stories, sports and whether forecast. Turn them into headlines. In groups, compare your headlines. How similar are they?
• Write about two programmes that you watch(or don’t watch) on TV. Say what kind of programme it is and what you like and don’t like about it using the items in the box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cartoon</th>
<th>Documentary</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chat Show</td>
<td>Sports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comedy</td>
<td>Crime Stories</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Songs</td>
<td>News</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teleconferencing

Teleconferencing is the synchronous two-way connection of two or more locations through audio and video equipment as a method of extending classrooms to students at different locations. Of all the distance teaching technologies, teleconferencing is the most similar to classroom instruction.

Preparation
• Become familiar with the equipment and learn to operate it without assistance.
• Run a test session with the location or locations that will be connecting to your classroom so you are sure that all of the remote sites have the right setup.
• Compile the contact information for technical people at the remote location, just in case something goes wrong.
• Prepare a teleconferencing etiquette summary for your students so that they learn not to tap their pens on the table, shuffle papers or place materials on top of the microphone, and know when they should mute their microphones or how you would like them to interact with the rest of the class.
• Have a backup plan in case the technology fails. A good option is dialing into a speakerphone at the remote location so that you can continue your class without much of an interruption.
• Go to the classroom 10 minutes early.

Room Arrangement
• If you are mainly presenting information to students through videoconferencing, then position the unit in a location where the camera can get the best picture of you and your materials.
• If you are planning any kind of class discussion, arrange the class in a triangular formation so that each party can see the other without much difficulty.

**Participation**

• Let your students know the protocol for asking questions. Do you want them to interrupt you as you’re speaking (with a question or a raised hand) or will you allow a certain time for questions?

• Learn the names of your students and directly ask them questions that can be discussed.

• Give the students seed questions to generate discussions in the class during a particular reading or case study.

• Let students mute their microphones and have their own course-related discussion.

• Small group discussion activities encourage students to discuss a topic and express their thoughts. They also give students a break from passively watching a presentation.

**Moderating**

• Before beginning a discussion, start with some quick ground rules such as “Let’s start the conversation with the ‘A’ group, and then we’ll move to ‘B’ group”. As questions come up, write them down so that you’re prepared for your turn. Select one moderator at each location. A moderator at your location can alert you to a question that comes up. The moderator’s role should be rotated among students.

**Radio**

Radio technology offers a unique way for teachers to integrate technology into the curriculum. Teachers can use radio programmes to reinforce listening, writing, and speaking skills. With a shortwave radio, teachers can provide students with an opportunity to hear the authentic language demonstrated by native speakers. Teachers without Internet connections will find radios an accessible technology for bringing the world to their students.

Radio brings the outside world into the classroom making educational programmes more attractive and entertaining. Useful radio programmes on every aspect of life are available, making the medium particularly useful for content-based English language instruction. Teachers can now download the scripts of various listening passages, select any programme on the site of the radio channel (notably BBC), and connect the computer speakers to a tape recorder, using recording wire. Of course, the content shouldn’t be used passively; students should be assigned genuine and relevant tasks to do while listening.

**Pre-listening**

On the blackboard, write a list of words related to the topic of the listening passage. Ask the students to guess what the passage will discuss. Give the students a script of an English language passage that they are about to hear delivered at a slow pace. The script should include spaces where words are missing. Below the script, provide definitions for the missing words. Ask the students to read the script and definitions. Tell them that as they listen to the recording, they are going to fill in the blanks in the script.
While listening

The students now listen to the passage with the aid of the script. Thus the vocabulary is explained through context as the students listen to the passage. After that, give the students a list of definitions for other words, but this time in random. Play the remainder of the programme without giving the students the benefit of a script and have them identify the words defined in the list. The absence of a script requires further concentration in order to recognize the words and match them with their corresponding definitions.

Post-listening

To ensure that the students can use the words they just learned correctly in context, have them create sentences using the words. We can use the radio to make our teaching creative and interesting. We can design many types of activities based either on live or pre-recorded radio programmes. Radio is accessible to most schools, and has the great virtue of exposing students to authentic English spoken by native speakers.

7. INTERNET FOR TEACHING ENGLISH

We live in the age of computers and there are growing demands on almost everyone, including the teacher, to become technologically literate. The internet is commonly referred to in its abbreviation form as ‘Net’. It is also known as cyberspace or the information superhighway. It has been hyped as the most significant development in communication tools.

Task:

- In small groups, imagine you are going to give a course on how to use the internet to a class of complete beginners. Before you start, you can explain the following vocabulary.
- Ask the students to prepare notes on them.
  ISP (Internet Service Provider), password, to log on, virus, hacker, links, spam, to browse, to download, online, website, surf, bandwidth, worldwide web, home page, HTTP (Hypertext Transfer Protocol)
- Have them compare their notes with another group. Who has the clearest explanations?
- In small groups, write a list of the top ten uses of the internet. Compare your lists.

As a teacher and lifelong learner, one of the most powerful and rewarding instructional tools at your fingertips is the Internet. Within seconds, an entire civilization or country thousands of miles away is at your desktop. The Internet is also an ideal mechanism for encouraging students to assume responsibility for their own learning. As students find different learning resources on the Internet, they become active participants

Benefits of Internet

- Browsing the web
- Visiting Govt museum, university and schools
- Reading news
- Exploring libraries
- Reading Books
- Getting software
- Online shopping
- Playing games
- Watching videos
- Having a discussion
- Chatting
- Reading programme on other computers
- Exchanging messages
- On line Banking
in their quest for knowledge. Students are able to define their learning needs, find information, assess its value, build their own knowledge base, and communicate their discoveries. Yet before you can begin to use the Internet in your classroom, students need to have the foundation of two main sets of skills to help them navigate the Internet and then manage the large amounts of information they find.

**Internet Navigation Skills**

It helps in introducing the Internet to your students to familiarize them with common terms. You may want to use the Internet to help define terms. The Internet is an amazing system of computers that provides people with an incredible amount of information. In order to make sense of all of this information, search engines were created to help people find what they were looking for in a more efficient way.

**Simple Searching Rules**

1. Use the word AND when you want information about two or more key words together.
   e.g.: Colleges and SAT, dolphins and whales, Dodgers and Giants and Expos
2. Use the word NOT when you want information about one key word but no information about the other.
   e.g.: Art NOT painting, football NOT playoffs, national parks NOT California
3. Use quotation marks around the names of people, places, or a phrase. This makes sure that the words appear right next to each other in the Web site.
   e.g.: “English Classroom,” “Rashtrapathi Bhavan,” “Indian Parliament”
4. To find a picture of something, type in image: (what you are looking for).
   e.g.: Image: dog, image: Saturn, image: Sunil Gavaskar

Note that the clearer the key word is, the more specific the returned information will be.

**Organising Skills**

Once students analyze and organize information, it is time to begin putting it all together. Students can be taught to ask themselves if the new information “fits” with what they already know or if it is different. Students now turn their attention to producing an end product with their information and knowledge. An important step in teaching this skill is to show students examples of well-done final products. These may be reports, drawings, oral presentations, or multimedia products. One of the final steps in any product is to document where the information was found. Using a bibliography format, students can record the Web site addresses, the name of the site, and other important information such as who is sponsoring the site.

**Podcasts**

Listening to podcasts is one of the best ways of improving the communication skills of the students. Podcasts on education and teaching and learning of English can be downloaded and the students can be made to listen to the contents to improve their listening skills. There are a wide variety of listening materials in podcast format available on the net. There are video casts also which are very useful for classroom use. BBC is bringing out quite a lot of materials on current affairs and use of English. To make it more convenient the listening materials can be converted, recorded and played on audio cassettes.
Developing Internet-Safe Lessons

Now that your students have basic skills on searching and navigating the Internet and strategies to manage and make sense of the information they find, you can begin using the Internet in your lessons, learning centres, and individual assignments and projects. A few last-minute tips on developing Internet-safe lessons:

1. Never start lessons by having students only use search engines.
2. Require students to find very specific information, not just surf.
3. Always require students to write down the URLs of the sites they use for reports in a bibliography format.
4. Don’t send the entire class to the same site at the same time.
5. Try to preview sites before students visit them.

Exploration:
- How will you integrate the internet into classroom activity?
- How can the internet be used to transform the regular classroom transaction?

8. USE OF ICT FOR TEACHING ENGLISH

Overview

ICT stands for Information Communication Technology, and describes the technologies we use in our daily lives to communicate. It is increasingly used in education and business. This means children have access to ICT in many different aspects of their lives. It is essential, therefore, that we give them a wide variety of opportunities to explore how technology can support them in their learning. For example, while students can use a desk top publishing package to create a school newspaper they can also develop their ability to communicate more effectively. This provides both a context and a meaning for the ICT activity.

ICT helps pupils learn English by enabling them to communicate, edit, annotate and arrange text quickly and flexibly. ICT can be used to integrate speaking, listening, reading and writing. It enhances interactive teaching and learning styles. It also extends pupils’ ability to exercise choice, work independently and make connections between their work in English and in other subjects. This area used to be called IT. The letters stood for Information Technology. The C in ICT was introduced because it has become obvious that technology as a device for handling information, is as equally important as a tool for communication.
Seen as communication tools, computers have an obvious place in language teaching and learning. The C in ICT can help us to remember a number of key points to bear in mind when using computers in English classrooms.

**Objectives**
After going through this chapter, the teacher trainees will be able to:
- plan, draft, revise and edit their own writing using a word processor and other desktop publishing packages;
- easily locate and read significant parts of the text by using search strategies;
- locate information quickly, confidently and accurately;
- have access to a wider number of texts online e.g. newspapers;
- communicate with a wider group of people e.g. via e-mail, newsgroups, online conferencing;
- integrate different media into one text.

**Catalysts**
Computers are often a *catalyst* for student activity. Unlike television, computers invite learners to be *active*. They can’t just sit staring at a computer screen. They have to *do* something. Related to this point is the idea of *challenge*. Working with computers offers an almost continual series of minor (and sometimes major) problems.

**Collaboration**
Another key concept is *collaboration* or co-operation. The computer screen allows pupils to do things together. Two or three (or even a whole class, if the screen is big enough) can participate in the same activity, (solving a problem, finding answers to a question, writing a story and so on.)

**Creativity**
Computers also encourage *creativity*. Sound, pictures, animations, video and text can be put together in new and different ways to make stories more convincing and explanations clearer than they would have been without this multi-media tool.

**Complementary Function**
Computers seem to work best as tools for learning and teaching when they *complement* other teaching and learning activity. Learners should be encouraged to take notes when working with computers. Many computer programmes for young

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Using ICT can help students to:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- access, select and interpret information</td>
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<tr>
<td>- recognise patterns, relationships and behaviours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- test reliability and accuracy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- review and modify their work to improve quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- communicate with others and present information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- evaluate their work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- improve efficiency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- be creative and take risks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- gain confidence and independence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- sort and process text and data quickly and efficiently</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- save, record, edit and adapt their work quickly and efficiently</td>
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</table>
learners can be used as sources of teaching materials such as flashcards for oral activities, materials for wall charts and classroom displays. Electronic reference materials such as dictionaries can be consulted when needed for writing - or to help students to understand a text.

➢ Control
Textbooks can be used to make pupils act in highly predictable ways such as answering questions about given texts, practicing and writing specified vocabulary items, responding to pronunciation exercises or grammar tasks in the textbook.

➢ Competence
Competence is a key concept, both linguistic and technical. The computer is not a mechanical surrogate teacher. Teachers cannot get pupils to create Internet web pages if they have no idea how to do these themselves. It is no use teachers telling pupils to use an electronic dictionary if they do not know what it contains, how to get at it or how to interpret it. Some students already know a lot about computers and we should invite them to help where this makes sense.

➢ Communication
The C in ICT stands for communication. The primary purpose of ICT in teaching English must be to stimulate real communication between students. Whenever computers are used in English teaching, there are opportunities for teachers to communicate informally and purposefully with their students.
A word-processor is an ideal vehicle for modelling the writing process in shared writing activities.

Guided writing
The opportunities for using ICT for guided writing are much the same as for shared writing, but allows for even more focus on the drafting process.

Independent/group-work
There is a range of software available to support specific areas of literacy, particularly spelling, phonics and grammar, which can be ideal for group and independent work. Some pupils can work on the computer while others work on paper, both working to the same learning objectives. When planning word-processing activities, a key point to remember is to keep to short focused tasks, concentrating on specific aspects of writing.

Examples of ICT in classroom

- Word processors to write up and present class work;
- Using a spreadsheet to enter data for creating charts, and interpreting the results.
- Using a database to enter data as part of educational investigation;
- Using hypermedia to write up, lay out and present work for publication on the Internet;
- Using the Internet and CD-ROMs to help with research during an investigation.
### Tasks for students for improving their usage of English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task 1: Assembling Text</strong></td>
<td>Students could write sentences describing five familiar objects. They could use clip art in MS Word to match sentences referring to pictures of the objects. They could also match beginning and ending of sentences or complete the sentences and match them with the pictures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task 2: Labelling &amp; Classifying</strong></td>
<td>Students could use a prepared word bank with names, shapes, sizes and colours of objects in your class or objects related to your topic. They could choose appropriate words for objects to make labels which could then be printed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task 3: Using a Word Bank</strong></td>
<td>Students could select words from a word bank or word list on a word processor to complete sentences. Ask pupils to produce a piece of text about themselves or write simple stories based on previous reading using words from a word bank.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task 4: Writing Stories</strong></td>
<td>Communicating information using text: Students could do a range of activities with text using MS Word; this could run throughout the year. This includes typing labels, writing simple sentences, rearranging lines in a poem, arranging a string of ten items from a shopping list into a horizontal list, typing speech into a speech bubble or deleting words to break up longer sentences. Pupils could produce a picture book by writing text to go with the pictures to tell the story.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task 5: Finding Information</strong></td>
<td>Students could use a CD-ROM dictionary to find definitions for unusual words encountered in texts related to the class topic. Students could use a CD-ROM encyclopaedia or the Internet to gather information on a topic which could be used to draft sentences on what they found out.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task 6: Combining Text &amp; Graphics</strong></td>
<td>Students could produce a class newsletter which includes pictures, captions and font effects, with the text punctuated and arranged in paragraphs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task 7: Preparing TLM</strong></td>
<td>Students could write portraits of characters and present them in a variety of ways such as a poster, or a labelled diagram. This could also be a poster on a topic of concern and the other pupils could respond with written comments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task 8: E-mail</strong></td>
<td>Students should use e-mail to write to a range of people. This could be to pupils in another school involved in a joint e-mail project or an organisation from which they require information for the class topic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task 9: Writing for different audiences</strong></td>
<td>They should use web sites of national and local newspapers to read a variety of reports. They should look at the layout and common features. They could collect, list and compare opening sentences. Pupils could write articles in pairs over a period of time. Their articles could then be used to produce a class newspaper.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Exploration:
- What are the innovative pedagogical practices in which teachers use ICT?
- How do these practices change what teachers do in the classroom?
- How do these innovations change what students do in the classroom?
- Browse the internet and find out how ICT has been used and can be used to extend pupils' capabilities in the classroom.
- Compare a class of students not provided with ICT with another so provided. Observe the responses and evaluate each group's nature of attainments in terms of quality.

REFERENCES
17. http://ipod.about.com/od/introtopodcasts/a/intro_podcasts.htm

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## ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

**DTE – II YEAR**

### BLUE PRINT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>UNITS</th>
<th>VERY SHORT QUESTIONS</th>
<th>SHORT QUESTIONS</th>
<th>BIG QUESTIONS</th>
<th>TOTAL MARKS</th>
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<td>40 %</td>
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<td>1(5)</td>
<td>1(5)</td>
<td>1(10)</td>
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**TOTAL MARKS**

| 10 | 20 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 20 | 10 | 10 | 100 |

*CHOICE QUESTIONS*

- **K** = 20%  
  VERY SHORT QUESTIONS = 20 x 2 = 40
- **U** = 40%  
  SHORT QUESTIONS = 8 x 5 = 40  --> CHOICE 8 OUT OF 11 QUESTIONS
- **A/S** = 40%  
  BIG QUESTIONS = 2 x 10 = 20  --> EITHER / OR

100% 100
# ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING
## DTE – II YEAR
### BLUE PRINT

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<tr>
<th>UNITS</th>
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| PRACTICAL | LANG SKILLS | 2(4) | 2(4) | 1(2) | 1(5) | 5(10) | 1(5) | 2(10) | *1(10) | 17 |
|GRAMMAR    | I            | 1(2) |       |       | 1(5) |       |       |       | *1(10) | 23 |
|           | II           |       |       |       | *1(5) |       |       |       | 1(10) | 7  |
|           | III          |       |       |       | *1(5) |       |       |       | 7    | 10 |
|           | IV           | 2(4) |       |       | 2(4) |       |       |       | 7    | 9  |
|           | V            | 1(2) |       |       | 1(2) |       |       |       | 1(10) | 14 |
|           | VI           |       |       |       | 2(4) |       |       |       | 13   |    |

| TOTAL MARKS | 10 | 10 | 20 | 10 | 10 | 20 | 10 | 10 | 100 |

* CHOICE QUESTIONS

K = 20% VERY SHORT QUESTIONS = 20 x 2 = 40
U = 30% SHORT QUESTIONS = 8 x 5 = 40 --> CHOICE 8 OUT OF 11 QUESTIONS
A/S = 50% BIG QUESTIONS = 2 x 10 = 20 --> EITHER / OR
I. Answer all the questions: 20×2=40

1. The guide words on the dictionary pages are given. On which page would you find each of these entry words?

   **demonstrate - density 310**
   **dent-deplore 311**
   a) demate  b) dense  c) depart  d) denizen

2. How are gerunds used?

3. What are the uses of infinitives?

4. Identify the type of ‘if’ clause used in each of the following sentences.
   a) If I were you, I would fight for my rights
   b) If it rains, we will not play the match

5. Combine the sentences using a relative clause.
   a) The village was destroyed by floods. It has been rebuilt.
   b) I read a book. The book was interesting.

6. Identify the error in the following sentences.
   a) The teacher made the children to work hard.
   b) The plane took from the airport at the right time.

7. Identify the type of sentences given below.
   a) I had a sound sleep last night.
   b) When I looked into the bottle, I saw a few worms.

8. Frame suitable questions for the underlined part in the following sentences;
   a) I waited for the bus for **half an hour**.
   b) **The police** caught the thief.

9. Supply a suitable tag to the following sentences.
   a) King Karikalan built Kallannai.
   b) Nails are not meant for biting.

10. Convert the following into a compound sentence.
    If you read newspapers regularly, you can improve your English.

11. What actually happens to your eyes when you read?

12. What are the various grammatical forms for seeking permission?

13. What is a composition?

14. What are the stages involved in the process of writing?

15. What are the objectives of assessment?
16. What do the following types of exercises test?
   a) Missing letters.
   b) Fill in the blank with suitable words given in the brackets.
17. What are the uses of teaching learning materials?
18. Mention any two newspaper based activities to develop the reading skill of the students.
19. What is a language laboratory?
20. Give two examples for teaching present continuous tense using blackboard sketches.

II. Answer any eight of the following questions:  
   8×5=40
21. What are the guidelines for explaining a process?
23. Summarise the following paragraph without losing its essence.
   **The Elephant**

   Now that the mammoth is extinct, the elephant is the largest of all animals living, and the strongest. It is a strange-looking animal, with its thick legs, huge sides and back, large hanging ears, short tail, small eyes, long white tusks, and above all, its long nose, called the trunk. The trunk is the elephant’s peculiar feature, and it puts it to various uses. It draws up water by its trunk, and can squirt it all over its body like a shower bath; and with it, it picks leaves from the trees and puts them into its mouth. In fact, its trunk serves the elephant as a long arm and hand. Elephants look very clumsy and heavy, and yet they can move very quickly when they need to do so.

   Elephants are found in India and in Africa. The African elephant differs in some points from the Indian, being larger, with longer tusks and bigger ears. In fact the two are considered to be different species. In both countries, they live in herds in the jungles, and are naturally shy animals that keep away from men. Elephants, with their great size and strength, are fine advertisement for vegetarianism, for they live entirely on leaves of trees, grass, roots and bulbs.

   The elephant is a very intelligent animal, and its intelligence combined with its great strength, makes it, when tamed, a very useful servant to man; and it has been trained to serve in various ways.

24. Fill in the blanks with the suitable form of the verb given in brackets.
   News ________ (collect) from various parts of the city. It ________ (edit) in the editor’s room. He also ______ (write) the editorial. The reporter _____ (ask) to verify the sources of the news again. Finally it ______ (print) in the newspapers.
25. What are the advantages of silent reading?
26. What are the objectives of creative writing?
27. Give instructions on how to make a paper boat.

29. Rearrange the jumbled words and make meaningful sentences.
   i) Put in the coconut sapling
   ii) Pour water.
   iii) Fill the pit to a height of ½ feet with sand.
   iv) Again fill the pit till the face of the coconut is covered.
   v) Sprinkle some dry cowdung, charcoal and a handful of salt.
   vi) Dig a 3 feet deep pit. 2×2 sq.ft

30. Expand the following newspaper headlines.
    Powercut affects the examinees.

31. List any five teaching learning materials and illustrate their uses with an example for each.

III. Answer the following questions within a range of 500 words each.  
    \[ 2 \times 10 = 20 \]

32. Prepare a lesson plan to teach ‘If clause’ type-I with a minimum of the five activities.
   (Or)

33. Devise five activities for improving the learners’ reading ability.

34. What is story mapping? Explain it with an example.
   (Or)

35. a) Frame five true or false questions for a prose lesson from Std. V.
    b) Design a ‘fill-in’ exercise for testing vocabulary in Std. IV.
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

DTE - II YEAR

Time allowed: 3 hours                                                                 Maximum Marks: 100

Note: Answer all the questions neatly and legibly

I. **Answer all the questions**: 20×2=40

1. Choose the word that has the same or almost the same meaning of the given word.
   a) fast
      i) slow ii) quick iii) open
   b) sad
      i) angry ii) unhappy iii) asleep
   c) beautiful
      i) pretty ii) magic iii) better
   d) loud
      i) notice ii) quiet iii) noisy

2. Frame a sentence using the phrasal verb ‘give up’.

3. Underline the prepositional phrases in the following sentences.
   i) The baby is beside the father.
   ii) Airplanes can fly through storms.
   iii) The cat is under the table.
   iv) The mother treats her children with kindness.

4. Fill in the blanks with ‘who’ or ‘which’.
   a) I want to congratulate the boy _______ got first mark in the annual examination.
   b) Tell me the name of the film _______ you saw yesterday.
   c) This is not the shop _______ sells Televisions.
   d) Have you found the chain _______ you lost recently.

5. What are the three common types of conditional sentences?

6. What is bare infinitive? Give an example.

7. Frame questions for the following statements.
   i) She can dance. (‘Yes’ or ‘No’ question)
   ii) They went to Chennai for their holiday. (‘Wh’ question).

8. Turn the following sentences from the Active Voice to the Passive Voice.
   i) Rama was making a kite.
   ii) My cousin has drawn this picture.

9. Identify the coordinating conjunctions in the following sentences.
   i) I like English and my friend like Tamil.
   ii) Eswari was not well, so she didn’t attend the class.
   iii) He worked hard, yet he failed in the examination.
   iv) Birds fly and fish swim.

10. Change the following complex sentence into simple and compound sentences:
    If you do exercise regularly, you can improve your health.
11. What are the uses of skimming?
12. Design an activity to teach ‘adjectives’.
13. What are the types of composition?
14. What are the features of free composition?
15. Mention any four characteristics of assessment.
16. Design a cloze exercise to teach preposition.
17. Name some of the teaching learning materials (minimum four) that can be used for classroom teaching and learning.
18. Create a game for teaching ‘pronoun’.
19. What are the differences between traditional classroom and multimedia lab.
20. Give two examples for teaching ‘opposites’ using blackboard sketches.

II. **Answer any eight of the following questions:**

21. Develop the following proverb into a paragraph.
   ‘Time and tide wait for no one’.
22. Write a letter to your friend thanking him for the gift of a watch sent to you for your birthday.
23. Describe the process of recording a dialogue in a cassette.
   i) She can’t swim.  
   ii) It isn’t going to rain.  
   iii) You are free.  
   iv) Gopi broke the glass.
   v) Mohan doesn’t work hard.
25. What is reading readiness and how will you foster it?
27. Explain the steps involved in teaching grammar.
28. Devise two verbal situations to teach ‘verbs’.
29. Why should composition be taught? Explain.
30. Describe your classroom in five sentences.
31. What are the advantages of low level blackboard and white-board.

III. **Answer the following questions within a range of 500 words each.**

32. Design five activities to teach active and passive voice.
   (Or)
33. What are the methods of teaching reading? Which is the best method of teaching reading.
34. Mention the common problems in handwriting and suggest suitable remedial measures for the same.
   (Or)
35. a) Frame a ‘matching exercise’ for a prose lesson from Std. V.
   b) Design an ‘odd man out’ exercise for testing vocabulary in std. IV.
## INTERNAL ASSESSMENT - ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Marks</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I.</td>
<td><strong>Practicals</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>i. Preparing story map for five stories</td>
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<td></td>
<td>ii. Writing review of two books taken from the Institute Library</td>
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<td></td>
<td>iii. Designing five innovative activities for any two grammatical</td>
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<td>items from Content B</td>
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<td>iv. Preparing any five teaching learning materials for Std.V</td>
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<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Test</strong></td>
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<td>Marks of Unit Test and Term Tests conducted in the institution</td>
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<td>III.</td>
<td><strong>Seminar</strong></td>
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<td>Presenting papers in two seminars conducted by the institution</td>
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<td>IV.</td>
<td><strong>Question Bank</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Preparing question banks containing all types of questions</td>
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<td>(Subjective and objective) in each unit in the school syllabus for</td>
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<td>any one standard from I to V and any one unit from the course</td>
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<td>syllabus (Subjective questions only)</td>
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<td>V.</td>
<td><strong>Subject specific Tasks</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>i. Preparing sample non-verbal texts for reading</td>
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<td>(Graphs, Tables, Maps, Charts etc. 4x5=20)</td>
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<td>ii. Collecting four composite pictures and designing tasks</td>
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<td>(Picture reading)</td>
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<td>iii. Selecting five paragraphs in Tamil and translating them into</td>
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