

# **ENGLISH IN THE CLASSROOM: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF THE MIDDLE SCHOOL LEVEL**

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**MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY**

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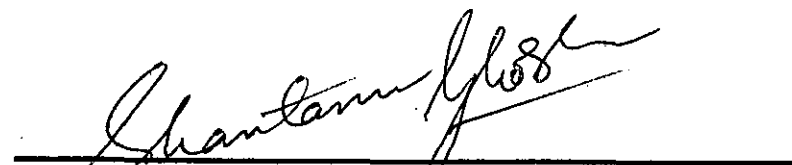
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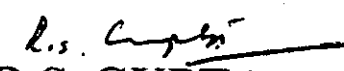
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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the Dissertation entitled “**English in the Classroom: An Empirical Study of the Middle School Level**” which is being submitted by **Shantanu Ghosh** for the award of the Degree of **Master of Philosophy** is his original work, and it has not been submitted previously for the award of any degree of this or any other University.

We recommend that this dissertation may be placed before the examiners for the award of the degree of Master of Philosophy.

  
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“If we do not invest all our resources of energy and will in education, the race with catastrophe will be lost and the balance between man and nature will be re-established by disasters that are not only unthinkable, but also avoidable. The choice is ours, and the time for action is now.”

**Dr. Federico Mayor**

*Director-General  
UNESCO*

The Delhi Declaration, EFA Summit of 9 High-Population  
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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

L <sub>2</sub> , L2	Second language
ELT	English Language Teaching
MT	Mother Tongue
ESL	English as a Second Language
TESL	Teaching English as a Second Language
MHRD	Ministry of Human Resources Development
CIEFL	Central Institute of English and Foreign Languages
NPE	National Policy of Education
NCERT	National Council for Education, Research and Training
CFOLT	Communicative Function Oriented Language Teaching
ICT	Information and Communication Technologies
LAD	Language Acquisition Device
L <sub>2</sub> L, L2L	Second Language Learning
RC	Reading Comprehension
REX	Response Evaluation Index
OUP	Oxford University Press
CUP	Cambridge University Press
CBSE	Central Board of Secondary Education
LSRW	Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing
STT	Student Talk Time
TTT	Teacher Talk Time

# Introduction

## 1.0. SCOPE

It is an established fact that English has firmly entrenched itself in India. The *functionality* of English in most fields (e.g. higher education in science and technology, medicine, pure and applied sciences, in law courts, administration business and commerce, international communications and even media and arts) is almost complete. But it is peculiar that in spite of varied and such widespread use, and in spite of its being institutionalised as a second language (L2), the standards of English teaching and learning in India are falling (Sareen 1992). Painting a bleak scenario, he states that there are numerous cases where even after six years of studying English at school and three years at the college level, an average undergraduate cannot produce a correct sentence in English (Sood 1995). Sood goes on to list a number of possible explanations: India's education policies, foreign language learning, outmoded syllabi and methodologies, even dearth of reading materials. But he zeroes in on (a) *the enormous variability of the socio-economic background of the learners* and (b) *the heterogeneous character of our classroom procedures*, as the two most important reasons for this poor performance. In the process he implicates the non-uniformity of the education policy at the school level itself, especially at the middle and high school levels. It is the second characteristic, i.e., and the heterogeneity of classroom procedures that this dissertation seeks to study in detail.

## 1.1. WHY THE CLASSROOM?

The classroom is the place where language learning occurs: it is the place where different teacher-learner and learner-learner relationships are embodied in

the numerous interactions. Classroom interaction can be highly erratic and varied: quite unplanned things may occur. Moreover, there might be a perceptible gap between what is taught and what is actually learnt. Observing a classroom thus gives us an insight into the learning opportunities that students actually get. It might also be suggested that the student does not learn directly from the syllabus, but the manner in which the syllabus is 'translated' into the classroom environment, not only in the form of materials but also of their use (read methods), by the teacher and the learners in the actual learning environment.

For more reasons than one it is important to study the Indian classroom. Teaching English in India has been regarded as the largest democratic exercise in the world (Krishnaswamy and Sriraman 1994). It is also true that there are, as far as I am aware of not many studies dealing with the actual teaching-learning exercise at the school level.

## **1.2. FORMULATING THE PROBLEM**

The diversity in socio-economic backgrounds of the learners in many ways makes it difficult to describe the Indian school classroom, let alone generalising about it, given. Also, as pointed out earlier, theorising is more common since it is easier, or at least more pleasurable and fashionable, than venturing into the quasi-sociological analyses demanded by the classroom situation (Loomba 1992). Loomba has pointed out three basic contradictions that characterise ELT in India: (a) the nature of educational institutions, (b) a multitude of educational policies, at times divergent, and (c) the status of the discipline. All three together determine what happens in the actual teaching

environment. Added to this, she rightly argues, is poor documentation of the methodologies in actual practice? Although Lomb speaks this in context of the university curriculum in English, it is clear from even a casual observation that it is also true about the Indian schools. The same author states that empirical work relating to ELT is still in its infancy in India (Loomba 1992).

Despite the enormous variation in student composition, teacher training and the nature of institutions (which means that the teaching practices are also as varied in their execution), the Indian classrooms have not been studied in any significant detail to be of much help to the policy makers and ELT managers. Explorations of the state of English education have remained mainly confined to what happens at the theoretical stages -- in official policies, in teacher training manuals, in pedagogic theories. These cannot be ignored, but at the same time, empirical studies cannot be neglected either. Moreover, studies connecting the methodologies in theory and practice are rare, if not absent altogether. This research, I hope, will succeed, to some extent, in filling the vacuum that exists.

### **1.3. EXISTING RESEARCH IN THE AREA**

There is a general lack of information about what actually happens in the classroom and the kind of interaction that is generated therein. Although there are studies that describe the 'real communication situations' (Swain and Lapkin 1982, Stevens 1983, Sood 1993) the researches are 'product-oriented' rather than 'process-oriented' (Karuna Kumar 1995). The different studies on variations in L2 achievements are accounted for by citing socio-psychological factors like the status of the mother tongue (MT), attitudes and motivation (see for example Burt

and Dulay 1981).

In India, too, there is a dearth of documentation of the actual classroom practices. Studies on ELT range from the history of English and its teaching in India (Sareen 1992, Krishnaswamy and Sriraman 1994, 'Introduction' in Agnihotri and Khanna 1995) to new perception, ideas and theoretical guidelines in teaching English and 'idea-bank' for teachers) to new perceptions, ideas (Krishnaswamy and Sriraman 1994), to analysis of the level of textual difficulty faced by the learners in different classes of schools (Sareen 1992). Rajeshwari Sunder Rajan (1992) in the 'Introduction' of *The Lie of the Land* looks into the establishment of English as a discipline and as a medium of instruction in terms of ideology of consolidating the British Empire. Probal Dasgupta's article in Agnihotri and Khanna (1995) makes a strong case for exposing teachers of English to linguistics and literature in Indian languages and for 'empowering' students through a reading-focused version of language teaching. This book also discusses, among other things, the history and place of English in India, the educational and sociological ramifications of learning English, the decolonisation of English and the place of English in a multilingual society like India. The earlier volume edited by Agnihotri and Khanna (1994) discusses curriculum design and pedagogical practices suitable for Indian learners of English, and the role of attitudes, motivations and stereotypes in learning English as a second language (ESL) in India. Gupta and Kapoor (1991) discuss, apart from the history, the issues and problems faced by English teachers in India today.

In Agnihotri and Khanna (1995) the section 'Classroom issues' focuses on central theoretical issues affecting learning in the classroom and suggestions

for improvement of the teaching process. Only one article by Karuna Kumar, 'Classroom Interaction in Different Subject Classes: Implications of Bilingual Education Programmes and Curriculum Design in ESL', analyses the classroom interaction in different classes in which English is either taught as a subject or used as a medium of instruction, in terms of the opportunities provided for language learning.

#### **1.4. AREA OF STUDY**

For this research, I have investigated the classroom practices in English teaching and learning in a government school (Kendriya Vidyalaya) and a so-called 'public' school. The classes under investigation were the middle school (classes VI, VII and VIII). Thus state was chosen since this is the stage when *all* schools teach English, either as a compulsory or as an optional subject.

#### **1.5. AIMS AND OBJECTIVES**

The dissertation shall focus upon the following:

- i) Trace a history of English in India and its teaching, and describe the present institutional status (with special reference to secondary education).
- /ii) Attempt a Needs Analysis of the learners at the aforementioned level.
- ✓ iii) Find out about the methodology that teachers are supposed to follow in the classroom according to the various L2 learning/L2 teaching theories (the theoretical dimension).
- ✓ iv) Investigate, using the field data, the nature and extent of the actual classroom practices in two different school settings (the practical aspect).



## **1.6. METHODOLOGY**

For developing a framework for observation and analysis of classroom interaction *vis-à-vis* L2 learning theories, various theories relating to first and second language acquisition and learning were studied, thus developing a broad criteria for comparison of classroom activities in terms of teaching methodologies and teacher behaviour. Notes taken in the classrooms were later analysed and coded for analysis. The statistical analysis yielded trends and associations that are described in Chapter IV.

## **1.7. HOW THIS WORK IS DIFFERENT**

In the chapters that follow the aim has been to trace briefly the history of English language in India (Chapter I); discuss the needs of an average learner English at the middle school level (Chapter II); and to give an overview of the various theories of learning (Chapter III). Lastly, Chapter IV discusses the observed phenomenon of English teaching in two different school settings. The statistical trends and analyses that follow give an overall view of what actually transpires during the teaching of English in these two settings under study. Chapter IV is thus an examination of the variables involved in the dynamics of an English classroom.

English as a second language (ESL) is taught under assumptions about classroom methods and techniques based on broadly similar, or at least comparable, principles. This commonality looks beyond individual teaching circumstances to relate to a 'common core'.<sup>1</sup> This idea of common core is made up of two kinds of factors: firstly, the various wide-ranging criteria on which

decisions about the teaching are based, and secondly, on the pedagogic principles according to which materials and methods are used. What emerges after unifying the above two is a framework for describing the different teaching patterns.

The overall goals of language teaching usually derive from an analysis of why a group of learners in a particular environment need to learn English. The actual implementation of these needs, translated into goals, is directly related to the learners themselves -- their needs, characteristics, etc. And to the whole educational setting in which the teaching takes place; both in macro- and micro-dimensions (the macro-dimension referring to broader, general educational purposes and the micro-dimension, which is embedded in the macro-setting, e.g. one that occurs within a particular school, or any other teaching environment).

The topic of individual teaching circumstances (the micro-setting) has been dealt in considerable depth by Stern (1983), who proposes a very detailed 'conceptual framework', designed as a model that is intended to capture what he sees as the complexity of language teaching. After surveying earlier models, he then sets out to detail his own scheme of things, the main components of which are (a) views of the native of language; (b) views of the learner and of language learning; (c) views of teaching and the language teacher; and (d) the whole context, including the educational setting, the language context, and the language teaching background. The chief characteristics of the model are that it should be comprehensive, covering any type of language teaching operation; and that all variables are independent, so that

no single factor, for example, the teacher, the method, the materials, a new concept, ... or a technological device, can by itself offer a general solution to most language learning problems;<sup>2</sup>

and that language teaching should be seen as a multi-disciplinary activity. This is the background against which classroom methods evolve. According to the Mc Donough and Shaw:

...although [teachers] work in specific situations with the specific groups of learners, according to a specified set of aims, [the teachers'] work can be described along a number of shared and generalised dimension. These dimensions are: (a) the characteristics of learners; (b) the range of factors in the teaching situation itself; and (c) the syllabus types available to [the teachers] ... the differences lie in the relative importance of those factors, and the actual choices that are made.<sup>3</sup>

## NOTES

- <sup>1</sup> Jo McDonough and Christopher Shaw. 1993. *Materials and Methods in ELT*. Oxford: OUP, p.2.
- <sup>2</sup> See H.H. Stern. 1983. *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching*. Oxford: OUP, p.47.
- <sup>3</sup> op.cit., pp. 17-18.

# Chapter One

## English Language Teaching in India

## **1.0. INTRODUCTION**

English came to India with the arrival of the British traders in the sixteenth century.<sup>1</sup> They soon found out that under the political situation prevailing in India at the time, they could use their military might to their great advantage. Soon, with their military conquests they had established their unchallenged suzerainty in India over their rival European powers. With the passing of the administration of the land into their hands, the British started exploiting the Indian people in various ways. They started intervening in every sphere of Indian life.

### **1.1. EDUCATION WAS NO EXCEPTION**

The British involvement in matters of education in India began with the Charter Act of 1813, the wordings of which were so ambiguous as to “encourage an unexpected prominence to English studies”.<sup>2</sup> The Act also altered radically the state of Indian education. It spelled out, quite brazenly, by its 13<sup>th</sup> Resolution, England’s “obligation” to promote the “interests and happiness” of the natives and that measures need to be taken for “the introduction among them of useful knowledge, and of religious and moral involvement”.<sup>3</sup> Under the garb of this goal of ‘civilising the natives’, the early British administrators started a thinly disguised appeal for enhancing the durability of colonial rule by increased territorial control, without which India would ‘remain uncivilised’.

The English Education Act of 1835, promulgated under the tutelage of William Bentinck, Governor-General, followed quickly on the heels of

Macaulay's Minute, provided for English to be taught as a subject. It was not the first time English was introduced into the curriculum; rudimentary English education was being provided for more than two decades earlier. The importance of this Act was that English, which was being taught only as an appendage to the Indian classics, now became the subject of state patronage, and the study of English literature was firmly entrenched as a subject of intellectual enquiry. Needless to say, English being taught to the natives as a 'secular' subject raised serious objections among a section of the British administrators, and this gave rise to the Orientalist-Anglicist controversy. This controversy about English education arose in part because of the approaches expressed under broad context of rationalism, orientalism and colonialism. English education increasingly began to be used as a tool of social progress by prominent Indian social reforms.

The diversity of the approaches expressed made no sharp distinctions between movements, but the attitude towards emotional awareness and social actions resulted in movements of resentment against the established order through cultural ends and constitutional means. It is clear today that there was a degree of social mobilisation through legitimised means for pursuing socio-cultural goals at the beginning of the nineteenth century in India. The idea of an unchanging traditional society in which hardly any significant changes had taken place in the past two thousand years suddenly changed. Minor deviations from the basic framework had taken place from time to time but all those were within the ambit of revivalism. For understanding the changes therefore, it is essential to understand the forces that shaped them, as it is important to understand the visualisations of the modifications that invariably creep into the existing reality.

Again this does not mean that only conflict or dissonance is applicable; consensus, harmony and equilibrium are as important as conflict to analyse the problem. Assessing the nature of emergence of nationalism, and the role of colonial education, is especially problematic and needs detailed examination. It might begin with charismatic leadership or in terms of gradual permeation of various thoughts, ideas and actions, or both, all of them coalescing to produce a vehement change in attitudes; the Indian colonial experience being a case in point.

Nationalism as an ideology has been problematised by the Western European tradition. The "consciously progressive civilisation"<sup>4</sup> that originated out of these western ideas led to fundamental awareness of an overwhelming liberty of the individual.<sup>5</sup> Sometimes attempts have been made to distinguish between this nationalism and 'eastern' nationalism which is "disturbed and ambivalent".<sup>6</sup> The attempt thus is deeply contradictory, which the liberal-nationalists would argue to be non-western, but in actuality it is the nationalism of the 'eastern' type that accepts and values the ideal of progress and strives to transform their respective inherited cultures in the light of the new stimuli in order to make them more relevant to the contemporary conditions. Space is therefore created for individual initiatives and for the growth of individual as well as collective consciousness and for the introduction of rational science and modern education.

In the Indian context, looking at the history of socio-political thought during the early nineteenth century, we can ascertain that this task was performed by the

English literary studies. The whole gamut of social changes was perhaps brought about by the introduction of English education. Seen from the perspective of the coloniser, the campaign for imparting English education was for creating a breed of natives who would be only just competent enough to carry out the administrative work of the British East India Company. But, as argued by Partha Chatterjee, the emergence of nationalist thought essentially started within the framework of the tidal wave of modernisation, which tended to disrupt traditional society, and that too unevenly.<sup>7</sup> The ideas of liberalism promoted by English education at that time and canalised through evangelicalism and Benthamite utilitarianism were brought to bear on the education of Bengal. The utilitarian belief that radical change of human nature and institutions could be made possible through the reform of law, education, trade and “march of intellect” was reflected in the official policies of the British. The evangelicals, on the other hand, created a moral outlook that changed permanently England’s attitude towards India.<sup>8</sup> These two divergent views had much in common when viewed against the orientalist philosophy. The Orientalists urged a new philosophy in stimulating an awareness of the old cultural heritage of India in keeping with its being a positive doctrine. Orientalism had its own paradigm of research, which increased enormously the available means of disseminating the western cultural model for reshaping Indian culture in a new synthesis. Unfortunately, they were borne out of a mythicised image of India, turn arising out of a need to create such an idea in the first place. This is what Edward Said says about how it would create,



...that reconstructive precision, science, even imagination....in a sense, the vindication of Orientalism was not only its intellectual or artistic successes but its later effectiveness, its usefulness, its authority.... To say simply that modern Orientalism has been an aspect of both imperialism and colonialism is not to say anything disputable.<sup>9</sup>

It was alleged by the Anglicists (who were a product of Evangelical and Utilitarian influences) that the Oriental scheme of education was calculated to produce not sound learning, but rather antiquated and pernicious errors.<sup>10</sup> These were the very people who were very vocal about all round condemnation of things Indian, because they were "heathenish". This led to the condemnation of Indian culture as a whole. Sir Charles Grant and William Wilberforce held, albeit with an ulterior motive, that "the ultimate aim of the expansion of the Empire was to spread Christianity",<sup>11</sup> and that the social abuses and moral degradation of the people were "the results of dense and widespread ignorance and could be removed only by education, first of all by Education in English".<sup>12</sup>

Wilberforce's resolve in giving a moral responsibility angle to the imparting of education in India can be seen in abundance by his persistence in making the House of Lords pass a resolution which later became a part of the Charter Act of India, 1793.<sup>13</sup> But the dual nature of British imperialism came out in the open when a large number of witnesses in their evidence stated that the state should not interfere in educational matters; and that no encouragement should be given to the western missionaries to undertake educational work in India.<sup>14</sup> Later on Wilberforce succeeded in making the Committee about Affairs of the East India Company in the House of Lords pass a resolution on the duty of England to promote "interest and happiness of the native inhabitants of the British dominions in India".<sup>15</sup> Armed with this resolution, the British went on to

teach English to the Indian “baboo” to fulfil their own needs for clerks for their petty administrative work at the Company offices.

As Mill had summed up the liberal viewpoint, India’s utility to Britain was not Britain’s military might that India would contribute to, but the opportunity to free trade and capital enterprise. Mill was also unforgiving in his attack on the Indian society, which he ignominiously referred to as “a hideous state of society much inferior in acquirements to Europe even in its darkest feudal age”.<sup>16</sup> Science and literature was in a progressive state of decay among the Indians, and this was readily recognised by the British. To mitigate this, the British policy was to ensure a gradual assemblance of English literature and science, to be adopted by engrafting European science taught through the medium of English, on the Indians.

It is usual to explain the British attitude as resulting out of infusion of liberal and humanitarian principles into Indian education. The necessity of cultural stimulus from some foreign source was thus assumed as an essential condition for the intellectual regeneration of India. The same logic (or illogic), when pushed a little further, also established a need for disseminating education in English. This was in brief, the ideology behind promoting education in English.<sup>17</sup>

## **1.2. ENGLISH IN POST-INDEPENDENCE INDIA**

When India became independent in 1947, the framers of the Constitution recognised the fact that English cannot be simply wished away. In fact, they

realized that English in a way could help us in enhancing our position among the nations of the world. Hence the constitutional provision of deliberately making English an associate official language, albeit for a limited period. The relevant portion of the Constitution of India is worth reproducing here:

**Art. 343**

- (1) The official language of the Union shall be Hindi in Devanagari script.
- (2) Notwithstanding anything in Clause (1), for a period of fifteen years from the commencement of this Constitution, the English language shall continue to be used for all the official purposes of the Union for which it was being used immediately before such commencement.
- (3) Notwithstanding anything in this article, Parliament may by law provide for the use, after the said period of fifteen years of
  - (a) the English language,... for such purposes as may be specified in the law.<sup>18</sup>

Following the provision of this article, the Parliament provided for the continued use of English as *associate official language* from time to time.<sup>19</sup> To fulfil the above demand, language education was to be provided at the lower stage itself, i.e., at the school level. The meeting of the Chief Ministers of States and Central Ministers held on August 10-12, 1961 called for the study of English in no uncertain terms:

**Para 6:** It is important, both from the point of view of international communication and the growth of modern knowledge, more especially, science, industry and technology, in India that there should be widespread knowledge of an international language. While this language may be one of the important European languages in effect, English will serve this purpose more easily as it is fairly well known in India. The study of English therefore is important.

**Para 9:** A three-language formula has been evolved by the Government of India, in consultation with the State Governments for adoption at the secondary stage for teaching language subjects. It was agreed that the formula should be simplified and the language subjects for teaching at the secondary stage of education (recommended is) as follows:

- (a) The regional language and mother tongue when the latter is different from the regional language;

- (b) Hindi or, in Hindi-speaking areas, another Indian language; and
- (c) English or any other modern European language.<sup>20</sup>

This became the genesis of the “three-language formula”. The National Integration Conference of September 1961 endorsed this and also agreed in principle that the study of Hindi and English should be commenced at an early stage. Earlier, in the Report of the University Service Commission (1948-49) of which Dr. Radhakrishnan was the Chairman, had stated that “the amount of language required will vary at different stages of education and in different parts of India”.<sup>21</sup>

The Commission had recommended education only in the Mother Tongue during grades 1-5, the emphasis on Mother Tongue and the federal language in grades 6-8, and from grades 9-12 the study of English to be added to these. It is quite clear from this that the Commission was in favour of developing the Indian languages and using them as the media of instruction in the early stages of education. The Commission, underscoring the importance of English, had said that English must continue to be studied as it was a language “rich in literature – humanistic, scientific, and technical”. But the study of English was to begin only at the senior stages, after a firm footing in education had been received through Mother Tongue and regional/federal languages. The 1961 declaration can thus be viewed as a distortion of sorts, as the curriculum prepared did not take into consideration the recommendations of the Radhakrishnan Commission, and continued with English education even in the middle school level. The syllabi of various boards of education (CBSE and the State Boards) continued in the old ways with minor adjustments here and there.

In India the tension between the basic principles of language planning and the extra-linguistic principles generated by the politics of the proposed replacement of English by English that, we find today. English being a 'windows to the world', it is important, inasmuch as it has been and still is impartial to all the sections of the Indian people. Nevertheless, its role in imparting upward social and economic mobility to those who know it, can hardly be overemphasised. Historically, too, it is through English that we discovered our strength, as Suniti K. Chatterji has so aptly expressed:

.... It is through English that we now in present-day India know ourselves-our very souls, through reading the great classics, the Hindu philosophy, and Sufism, and Ramakrishna, Vivekananda, Rabindranath, Sri Aurobindo and Gandhi. English alone now enables an average<sup>22</sup> Indian to know everything about other literature and local cultures. English has opened to the whole of India (and the world in addition) the treasures of old Tamil, of Kannada, of Marathi, of Sikhism, of Ghalib, and the Urdu poets...<sup>23</sup>

Notwithstanding Chatterji's impassioned championship of English, it is true that a language is what its users can make it into. S.K. Verma's view that "what a particular language does is always *context-governed* and *use-determined externalisations* of what it can do",<sup>24</sup> lends further credence to the fact that English has, in spite of all the objections raised to curb its use, become a truly pan-Indian link language. Also, as was stressed earlier, English acts like a window; and a window has a dual function: it not only allows people to look out; it also enables Indian thinkers to interact with thinkers all over the world; at the same time, if our ideas are powerful enough, scholars all over the world will make every effort to read about Indian ideas. At the present moment, our historical association with English helps us to take our messages out into the world.

English education has thus never left the agenda of our educational policy makers. However, given the confusion and compulsions of our political leaders, it has merely been paid lip-service, in the sense that there is a general lack of implementing the recommendations made by the various Education Commission. This has resulted in a double-layered contradiction: while recognising at the policy-making level, the importance of teaching English within the parameters of its functionality as the language for science and technology, of business, of administration, of international and inter-regional communication, the policy makers have not pressed forward the strategies to implement them rigorously. Various efforts have no doubt been made, but they have remained at best confined to experimental projects, and as with most things in India, started with a thunder and ended in a whimper. A case in point is the three-language formula, brilliant in conception but diluted in the implementation, to the extent that it was incapable of realising the goals it was set for.

Questions relating to how many and which languages are to be taught at the secondary level was examined as early as 1949 by the University Education Commission, whose recommendations included that the students of the higher secondary stage could be conversant with three languages, viz., (i) the regional language, (ii) the national language, and (iii) English.<sup>25</sup> The Secondary Education Commission had recommended a similar strategy, using somewhat different words for language study at the secondary stage: (i) Mother Tongue, (ii) Regional language, (iii) the link language and (iv) one classical language.<sup>26</sup> In 1957, the Central Advisory Board of Education examined this problem in relation to the learner needs and constitutional requirements and made suggestions, what is

generally known as the “three-language formula”, already referred to before. Later in 1966, the Kothari Commission recommended a ‘graduated’ three-language formula: the students in the Hindi belt to learn Hindi, English, and a modern Indian language, preferably from South India, while the pupils in the non-Hindi belt are to learn the regional language, Hindi and English.<sup>27</sup>

The teaching of English as a second language (TESL) in India has been less successful than it might seem from the above discussion. The reasons might lie in the restricted variety of linguistic contexts with which learners are provided. The pupils are thus aware of a kind of classroom variety or text-book variety as opposed to an informal register. English learning is severely restricted in a vast majority of the cases to a small set of social domains, and very few role-relationships with a similarly low number of speech-functions. Exposure to the variety of rich socio-linguistic-cultural material with a focus on ‘what to say and how and when’ which is necessary for effectively learning a language, is thus severely lacking in the Indian ELT scenario.

Since 1985, three documents relating to the plans and policies in the field of education have been published in close succession. *Challenges of Education -- A Policy Perspective*, was published by the Ministry of Human Resources Development (MHRD), then Ministry of Education, in 1985. This document calls for the reviewing and reshaping of the education system to meet the future challenges of India in the information-rich and technology-intensive society and marks an important stage in the changing perspectives of Indian education. Language, the medium which is central to education, does not, unfortunately, find even half a page in this policy statement. This lopsidedness was somewhat

rectified in the *National Policy on Education 1986*, MHRD, wherein the 1968 policy regarding the development of languages was asked to be implemented more vigorously and purposefully. The *Programme of Action 1986*, another MHRD publication, has a full chapter on the language policy to be followed. It calls for a more vigorous effort at implementing the three-language formula; improving the linguistic competencies of the pupils at various levels of instruction, and the provision for improved facilities for English instruction at the middle and senior secondary stage of education. It has also been suggested that the Central Institute of English and Foreign Languages (CIEFL) establish cells to monitor the effective implementation of the programmes at all instructional levels as far as the teaching and learning of English is concerned.

### **1.3. THREE BASIC CONTRADICTIONS**

The above discussion makes it clear that the teaching and learning of English in India suffers from lacunae at more levels than one. As pointed out by Loomba, there are three basic contradictions that characterise ELT in India: (1) the nature of educational institutions, (2) the educational policies, and (3) the status of the discipline. These contradictions, she says, result in the actual teaching scenarios. The study of actual teaching scenarios is fraught with multiple difficulties – practical, methodological, and of course, conceptual. The last one is the most relevant, given the multi-racial, multi-ethnic Indian society. The situation, when viewed alongside the enormous regional variations in “standards, cultural contexts and language” (Loomba 1992), makes the phrase “the Indian classroom” an almost meaningless generalisation. Thus, we can have



a class of Hindi speakers, a class of Tamil speakers, a class of Bengali or Marathi speakers; or we may have a class of urbanised pupils, homogeneous, yet diverse. We can also have rural classrooms in different parts of India. Moreover, given that the social factors that frame the actual classroom practices vary enormously, one can claim to have studied only that section of the Indian "reality" that one has observed directly.

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The difficulty in mapping actual teaching practices also emanates from the dysfunction between language teaching theory and the everyday activity of teaching. Also, even though the school teachers are given an almost uniform pre-service training, are assessed as well as supervised according to well-laid out principles, there is a wide variation in classroom experiences. The classrooms in India are also varied in their physical characteristics: from well-furnished classrooms with all relevant aids in urban 'public schools' to dilapidated, even non-existent classrooms in rural schools.<sup>28</sup> The teaching process is itself, more often than not, characterised by cruder forms of the teacher's 'self-insisted' positional authority. That is why almost all explorations into the state of English teaching in Indian classrooms have invariably pointed out a basic "truism", that most of the activity seems only to be present 'above'—in official policies, statements and institutional procedures, rather than being translated into actual pedagogical practice. This different situation 'below', i.e., at the level of the classroom, is arguably the most basic structural contradiction that hinders the actual teaching process of English. There exists very little or no scope for the teachers to answer the specific needs of the students. This at times is very frustrating for both the teacher as well as the learner. Despite this, the teachers do

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try their best under the circumstances and within their imitations, to 'tailor' their teaching to different kinds of students. (Loomba 1992). The second contradiction, as already stated, is the educational policy itself. It is obvious that for their teaching to be effective, language and literature should be taught as separate modules which they are; but this does not in any way mean that language cannot be taught through literature: they are highly interdependent, as language draws its sustenance from literature, while literature uses language as the vehicle. However, the relationship between the teaching of language and teaching of literature has been rather confused and blurred, and has also remained rather unexplored by the education policy makers. In fact, following in the footsteps of the pre-1947 model that language and literature are intrinsically connected, the existing Indian situation has actually been shaped by the historical forces in context. This leads us to the third important contradiction: the very *status* of English in India.

The disparity and contradiction regarding the position of English in the curriculum will be clear if we look at the three-language formula as approved in principle by the States and Union Territories (UTs). Consolidating the prevailing situation in different parts of India, the following picture emerges:

**A. Non Hindi Speaking States**

*First Language* – State language – MT of majority of the pop.

*Second Language* – Hindi/English

*Third Language* – English/Hindi

**B. Hindi Speaking States**

*First Language* – Hindi

*Second Language* – English/Urdu/Sanskrit

*Third Language* – English/Urdu/Sanskrit

We find that Pattern B is grossly violative of the three-language formula. A clearer picture will emerge as to actual scenario if we compare state-wise, the classes in which English is taught as a compulsory subject.

**Table 1.1**  
**Number of Years and classes in which English is taught as compulsory subject in secondary education in various State and Union Territory curricula**

State	Years	Class
Andhra Pradesh	6	V-X
Arunachal Pradesh	10	I-X
Assam	6	V-X
Bihar	4	VI-IX
Delhi	3	VI-VIII
Goa	6	V-X
Gujarat	2	VII-IX
Himachal Pradesh	5	VI-X
Haryana	5	VI-X
Jammu & Kashmir	5	VI-X
Karnataka	6	V-X
Kerala	6	V-X
Madhya Pradesh	3	VI-VIII
Maharashtra	6	<del>III-X</del>
Manipur	8	IV-X
Meghalya	7	IV-X
Nagaland	10	I-X
Orissa	6	IV-IX
Punjab	5	VI-X
Rajasthan	6	VI-X
Sikkim	10	I-X
Tamil Nadu	8	III-X
Tripura	8	III-X
Uttar Pradesh	3	VI-VIII
West Bengal*	8	III-X
Andaman & Nicobar Is.	10	I-X
Chandigarh	8	III-X
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	2	VIII-IX
Daman & Diu	6	V-X
Lakshadweep	7	IV-X
Pondicherry - Puduchery & Karaikal	5	VI-X
Mahe	8	III-X
Yanam	7	IV-X

\* Proposed by the Education Department of the state to be ten years (I-X).  
Source: Syllabi of Various State Secondary Education Boards

The disparities will be even more pronounced if we have comparative figures for the proposed time allotment for teaching of languages proposed by NCERT (Kothari Commission, 1964-66), given the fact that *no* State or UT has followed the time pattern suggested by NCERT.

With the regionalisation of the medium of instruction at the secondary level, a fairly large number of students all over the country have only 3 to 5 years of English education. This is not enough to handle the level of English needed in the tertiary education. Their English either has little or no use in the context, or it may be 'frozen'—they do not know how to use it. The communicative function-oriented language teaching (CFOLT) thus gains extreme importance in the Indian context. To address the needs of the learners the analysis of their actual learning needs will give us a fair idea about how to structure our curricula/syllabi, or even within the existing situation, how to use the modern teaching techniques so that a fairly high level of competence can be built up for a basic minimum language proficiency.

## NOTES

- <sup>1</sup> The arrival of Sir Thomas Roe at the court of Mughal emperor Jahangir formally marked the entry of the British East India Company, who had been given a charter on 31 December 1600 by Queen Elizabeth I to trade with India.
- <sup>2</sup> Gauri Viswanathan. 1989. *Masks of Conquest: Literary Study and British Rule in India*. London: Faber and Faber, p.21.
- <sup>3</sup> The Charter Act of 1813. Quoted in Gauri Viswanathan, *ibid.*, p.24.
- <sup>4</sup> Partha Chatterjee. 1989. *Nationalist Thought and the Colonial World: A Derivative Discourse?* Delhi: OUP, p.1.
- <sup>5</sup> *ibid.*, p.4.
- <sup>6</sup> *ibid.*, p.3.
- <sup>7</sup> *ibid.*, pp.6-9, 44-48.
- <sup>8</sup> *ibid.*, p.88.
- <sup>9</sup> Edward W. Said. 1978. *Orientalism*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, p.123.
- <sup>10</sup> Sri Kumar Acharya. 1992. *The Changing Pattern of Education in Early Nineteenth Century Bengal*. Calcutta: Punthi Pustak, pp.44-58.
- <sup>11</sup> K. Ingham. 1956. *Reformers in India*. Cambridge: CUP, p.11.
- <sup>12</sup> H. Morris. 1904. *The Life of Charles Grant*. London, publisher not known, p.327.
- <sup>13</sup> J.C. Marshman. *Evidence before the Select Committee of the House of Lords*, June 15, 1853 (from British Parliamentary Records).
- <sup>14</sup> Evidence of Warren Hastings, 30 March, 1813. Quoted in Sri Kumar Acharya, *The Changing Pattern...*, p.8.
- <sup>15</sup> HANSARD. Parliamentary Debates, vol.xxvi. May-July 1813, p.562.
- <sup>16</sup> J.S. Mill. 1820. *History of British India*, vol.II, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, p.1820.
- <sup>17</sup> See Gauri Viswanathan. 1989. *Masks of Conquest*. London: Faber and Faber.
- <sup>18</sup> *The Constitution of India*. 2000. Edited with expert comments by P.M. Bakshi. New Delhi: Universal Law Publishing.
- <sup>19</sup> These changes were made in 1963 and 1967, so that "the change-over from English to Hindi has been postponed indefinitely". For further details see Mahadev L. Apte. 1976. 'Language Controversies in the Indian Parliament (Lok Sabha): 1952-1960'. In William M. O'Barr and Jean F. O'Barr (eds). 1976. *Language and Politics*. The Hague: Mouton.
- <sup>20</sup> Statement issued after the Chief Ministers of State and Central Ministers Meeting held on August 10-12, 1961.
- <sup>21</sup> Report of the Radhakrishnan Commission. 1949. Calcutta: GOI Press.

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- <sup>22</sup> But the notion of an average Indian does not bear out this view of 'average', as only about 6.5% of the total Indian population speaks English (See Krishnaswamy and Sriraman 1994). According to Census of India 1991, the percentage is even less -- 3%.
- <sup>23</sup> S.K. Chatterji. 1972. *Select Papers I*. New Delhi: People's Publishing House, pp.13-14, (parantheses author's).
- <sup>24</sup> S.K. Verma. 1984. *The Changing Roles of Asian Languages: A Study in Register Creation*. Singapore: National University of Singapore, pp.12-13 (*italics* author's).
- <sup>25</sup> Report of the University Education Commission 1941-49, vol.1. 1956. Calcutta: GOI Press, pp.127-8.
- <sup>26</sup> Report of the Secondary Education Commission, 1952-53, p.49.
- <sup>27</sup> The three-language formula is definitely a surface manifestation of language planning. Three is not a magic number; it is more an expression of the significance of multilingualism in the Indian context. But it is not enough to say that a certain number of languages be taught. What is more important is a) to specify the objectives of teaching and learning these languages, and b) standardised certification of the levels of proficiency attained.
- <sup>28</sup> For an excellent survey of the situation of basic education in India, especially in rural areas, see PROBE. *Public Report on Basic Education*. 1999. New Delhi: OUP.

## Chapter Two

# Learning Needs of Indian Middle School Learners

## 2.0. INTRODUCTION

Towards the late 1960s it had become quite clear, both to the less developed countries (LDCs) themselves as well as to the developed ones, that the true and tried development strategies which had worked so effectively for western countries, had at best achieved modest result in the developing world.<sup>1</sup> The performances of many countries were significant, while others had experienced only modest levels of development.

In particular, the performance in respect of development of many countries with low per capita income and large populations had been totally inadequate.<sup>2</sup> The problem of poverty, unemployment, illiteracy, population, health care, nutrition and housing had not only been adequately tackled, but in some cases they had actually been aggravated. The programmes for future development strategies attempted, therefore, to avoid the weaknesses of past development, and to suggest new, bold and imaginative approaches to development problems and correction of past imbalances. In India, the growth of education followed a similar path.

Consistent with the strategies for development, the evolution of the education system in India was limited largely to formal schooling based on an age-grade system. The system of education was imported from an alien environment and was often incompatible with the local conditions. The development and exploitation of native systems were often largely ignored.<sup>3</sup>



Initially the underlying objectives of the Indian school system were to provide lower level 'trained' manpower for the exploitation of the economy. Later, provision of manpower for lower level administrative positions were also included in the objectives. The curricula emphasised basic literacy and numeracy skills and the content of curricula and teaching methods, as well as the examination methods were such that they alienated the student from his/her own environment.<sup>4</sup> Slowly, as the needs multiplied, the school system incorporated other objectives consistent with the new activities, to be undertaken by government and private organisations (business, trade, processing and missions). The educational system became further differentiated to accommodate these needs.

During the early third quarter of the past century, when developmental activities were added to the responsibility of the government after gaining independence, the formal education system incorporated teaching of science and technology<sup>5</sup> in a big way. When the population was exposed to the benefits of schooling, they recognised that formal education meant an access to modern goods and services denied to the uneducated, through the acquisition of jobs, mainly in the government. Education also allowed the individuals to negotiate the formal bureaucratic structure and wrangles of the government and industry more easily for his/her benefit. This meant a concomitant acquisition of social power, prestige and privilege and social mobility became a prized activity.

More recently in the era of globalisation, and when the distance barrier has been broken by the introduction of the Internet and information and

communication technologies (ICT) rule the roost, the modern youth would be seriously handicapped if he/she does not have adequate skills to handle all the information that is available at fingertips, literally at the touch of a button. Thus, to strengthen the capabilities of a learner in such a way that it allows for dissemination of information, is a prime need that has to be addressed by ELT curriculum developers.

There are two factors at play here: on the one hand, given the government's decision to downsize itself, the possible effects include a great degree of retrenchment. The reduction in the number of permanent government jobs is a distinct possibility here, more so a certainty. Tight finances and imposition of fiscal discipline once again go on to reinforce this trend. On the other hand, the rise of the private sector in almost all kinds of industrial activity and services, requires a manpower resource base trained in the basic communication skills. English plays a major role here, as it is the *de facto* national link language, and as a major international language, has no substitute. On the other hand there is simultaneously a huge rise in demand of jobs in the private sector, where skills of communication play a major role in success. If India is to turn her historical connection with English to her advantage, it is imperative that a balance be struck between what today's employer wants and what is being taught; in essence, an interface of the learning activities with the requirements of the industry is essential. More so, as a strong economy is the backbone of a prosperous nation, and with the second generation of reforms being put through, more and more jobs in future will be of a temporary or quasi-permanent nature on contractual in execution, both in the government as well as

in the private sector. The youth of today thus has to master the skills as demanded by the present situation.

This is in stark contrast to the education scenario today. Among other characteristics are somewhat archaic curricula not closely related to the developmental needs of the country. The outcome of the education process resulted in the students acquiring knowledge, but without concomitant acquisition of skills and attitude formation. Combined with lack of any relationship between education and work, it is bound to reduce the chances of being employed.

## **2.1. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DETERMINATION OF LEARNING NEEDS**

The assessment of learning needs for the planning of education is not as new an activity as it looks. Historically, educational endeavours (formal, non-formal, informal, etc.) have always been based implicitly on some perceived notions of the clientele's need to learn. What is perhaps new in this present concern with need determination, is a conscious effort to assess and explore systematically the learning needs of young people on a more formalised and empirical basis. This is necessitated by a variety of factors discussed in this section related to educational reform through a more relevant curriculum.

In discussing the English learning needs of an upper primary (middle school) learner in India, the problem of lack of relevance of curriculum to societal and individual needs has earlier been pointed to. In a relatively simple society with a slower pace of change the learning needs of young people remain fairly stable. What is learnt by one generation may still be found relevant by the next

generation. In the situation of a society as complex as India, undergoing fast structural changes in society and economy, the educational systems tend to lag behind the societal and individual needs. The new developments in knowledge and technology necessitate a discarding of obsolete ideas and the acquisition of new ones. In the arena of social organisation old roles become outdated and new ones originate which individuals are required to master. The differentiation of knowledge, technology and the social organisation makes it necessary for individuals to make choices about new ways of doing things and about new patterns of life. To be relevant in such a situation, English education has to be based on actual needs, if it seeks to promote the welfare of society and the adjustment of individuals.

## **2.2. WHAT IS A LEARNING NEED?**

The concept of learning needs in its new perspective has not been widely used in educational programming till the 1980s.<sup>6</sup> In this work an effort will be made to define it more clearly, to develop it, and operationalise it for application to the ELT program/curricula for the middle school level. As a first step towards such an understanding it is important to define it adequately.

The concept of learning needs is composed of two terms: 'learning' and 'needs'. 'Learning' is defined in the Shorter Oxford Dictionary as, "the action to learn (to get knowledge of or skill in; to acquire knowledge of a subject or matter)". The term 'need' is defined in the same dictionary as, "necessity arising from the facts or circumstances of a case; imperative call or demand for the presence or possession, etc. of something".

A learning need of an upper primary learner, therefore, encompasses his/her necessity, imperative calls or demand for the presence, possession or acquisition of knowledge of or skills in a subject or matter (in the context of this work, the proficiency in English), as arising from his/her circumstances. His/her 'necessity, imperative call or demand' may be taken as the difference between what he/she already knows or can do and what he/she must acquire, possess, have or be able to do for particular circumstance. His/her 'circumstances' include the environment (physical and social), the development goals (at international, national, regional and community levels) and his/her personal ambitions, aspirations, motivations and characteristics. Thus, the learning needs represent the difference between the present levels of knowledge, skills and attitudes about a particular subject and what a youth ought to know, be able to do or feel in order to achieve the goals that he/she has in mind, within the framework of environmental potentialities, national goals and needs of his/her future employers.

### **2.3. CHARACTERISTICS OF LEARNING NEEDS<sup>7</sup>**

For a meaningful use of the concept of learning need, it is essential to analyse its characteristics and to identify some of its various facets. Such an understanding will equip us with a knowledge of its strengths and weaknesses for our purposes. It will also guide us towards a more realistic set of implications of this concept for the development of English education. The following are some of the more important attributes of learning needs:

**(i) Existence of previous learning:**

*Learning needs assume the existence of previous learning.* For this concept to become operational, the qualitative and quantitative aspects of previous knowledge, skills and attitudes must be known. Without such a measurement the concept of learning needs could not be effectively used. In other words, the learning needs are based on 'what is' and where a middle school learner is situated in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes. Similarly, it is necessary for an adequate operationalisation of this concept that learning goals are known. That is, 'what ought to be' must also be known both qualitatively and quantitatively in all domains of learning related to the particular learning need.

**(ii) Commonality**

*Some learning needs may be common to all the learners in a region, or a nation, whereas others may be common to the groups or sub-groups of the learners; still other learning needs may be unique and peculiar to individuals.* The needs to learn originate from specific circumstances, problems and individual characteristics. Certain circumstances, problems and characteristics may be common to all middle school learners; others may be shared by some, while still others may not be shared at all.

**(iii) Dynamism**

*Learning needs are dynamic in nature and ever-changing.* The circumstances, problems, etc., may however change. Also, individuals develop, grow and mature. These changes are reflected in new and different interests and

in what is considered as relevant to learn. Therefore, learning needs are not static, but in a process of constant change and development. Different *learning needs change at different speeds*: depending upon the nature of social changes, some learning needs will prove to be more stable than others.

**(iv) Hierarchy**

*Learning needs develop from simple to complex.* Initially, the learning needs are simple. As individuals develop and grow, whatever is already learnt becomes the basis for new learning. Learning capacity is thus enhanced, enabling a learner to tackle progressively more difficult and complex undertakings. In the learning process certain types of knowledge, skills and attitudes must be acquired before the other types can be learnt effectively; therefore learning needs, of necessity, are also sequential in nature. Quantitatively, learning needs move from the direction of a few to many as the complexity of tasks undertaken increases. *Learning needs thus represent a hierarchy amongst themselves.* Individuals and groups needs will consider certain types of learning at a given time, while others will be still lower on the ladder of priorities. Factors determining the priority of learning needs include the relative importance of goals within the goal structure, availability of resources, individual circumstances, interests and the availability of resources, individual circumstances, interests and the availability of opportunity.

**(v) Both felt as well as unfelt**

*Learning needs may be felt or unfelt by the learner.* Felt learning needs

will be consciously recognised by a learner, while unfelt needs may require an educational process to make them be felt. In the process of fulfilling felt needs, other related needs are uncovered and brought to the surface.

**(vi) To know, do and feel**

*Some learning needs may only be to know, or to do, or to feel.* Other learning needs may be for knowledge, skills and attitudes or combinations thereof. It is expected, therefore, that the content of learning will vary with situational and personal factors.

**2.4. LEARNING NEEDS OF AN INDIAN LEARNER IN THE AGE-GROUP 11-14 AND THE INDIAN EDUCATION SYSTEM**

In this era of globalisation we note that there are interactions and continuities between national and international environment. The development process therefore has to promote mobility of individuals between the local, national and international situations. The development policies have to aim at an integration and promotion of continuities between the two. The implication of this is that the learning needs of the learner in the age-group 11-14 are an integral part of the initial learning needs which would later on contribute to a learner's future efficiency and proficiency in English. The educational system, therefore, has to provide the learner with such learning support which does not alienate them from the national and international systems, while at the same time facilitating their adjustment to their immediate socio-cultural environment and their needs. The differences between rural and urban areas are of considerable degree in a less developed country like India; they are large, real and significant



enough to generate some unique learning needs for urban and rural Indian youth which must be reflected in curricula and teaching strategies. In order for English education to be relevant, learning needs include basic communication skills such as literacy and numeracy. A young learner who has completed primary school will be more interested in learning things of occupational interest to him/her, where he/she can use his/her basic literacy skills. Similarly, a learner planning to attend a technical or medical school or an institution of higher learning will be more interested in academic subjects which will make him/her more competitive with other students.

The learning needs will vary for learners in different socio-economic or ethnic categories. In many cases one is liable to find need stratification along the lines of socio-economic, occupational or ethnic stratification. For example, farming, craft activities, such as butchering and tanning of skins, etc., or higher education and service activities, such as trade and business, may be distributed along socio-economic lines. For some time to come, such stratification will probably continue to be relevant in India.

The overall purpose of education, it should be realized, is not to sharpen these age, sex, educational and socio-economic status considerations in the society. Instead it should aim over the long term at promoting mobility and minimising the various kinds of differences. For the short term, however, these realities need to be taken into account, and education will need to be related to these differences in order to be relevant.

## 2.5. ROLES AS THE SOURCES FOR LEARNING NEEDS

The achievement of national development goals requires the performances of certain tasks and roles by the population. For an adequate performance of these roles and tasks citizens must achieve certain minimum levels of competencies through the acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitudes. These, in turn, provide the content for their learning. An analysis of the present and future roles and development tasks could, therefore, provide some basis for determining their learning needs in the middle school too. For an adequate design of English education programmes, not only should the present role-structure be analysed and understood, but an appropriate understanding of the anticipated role-structure of future society shall also be necessary.

To explore adult roles is relatively easy because, in order to know this, one need only take an inventory of what people are doing at present. The problem of anticipating adult roles for the present learner is complicated by the fact that what a young learner does today may or may not be related to their future roles. Roles become obsolete and new rôles arise to fulfil changing social and technological needs. Personal plans and aspirations change between youth and adulthood, thus limiting the long-term validity of cross-sectional empirical enquiries. In view of these problems, one could perhaps start with an inventory of existing roles and then periodically revise the list in the light of projected developments and according to changing trends in society. Generally speaking, four major categories of roles can be deduced.

## **(1) Occupational Roles**

In order to eliminate poverty, to raise incomes and to provide a basis for improved standards of living, an increase in productivity through occupational improvement is essential. Roles associated with the development of tertiary activities, industries, production, business and services will constitute the other major occupational category of roles.

India being an agricultural country, the rural development roles which might be open to the rural youth of today is as important an issue as urban areas. Thus, working for rural service and administration agencies, for example, teaching, extension work and health care, public works, and various specialist and general service roles are also important. In view of the importance of agriculture, it is expected that a majority of roles for rural youth in India in the years to come will relate to production, processing, storage, trade, exchange and transportation of plant and animal products. The development of rural institutions such as local government units, cooperative societies and other formal and informal organisations will also require the services of today's rural youth, while some of them might assume roles in business, industry and government based in larger population centres.

Some sections of the young learners in rural areas, particularly out-of-school youth, may already be engaged in work or may be sharing responsibility in some occupational activity that enables them to contribute to the family resources or to make an independent living. Their learning needs will focus on that occupational role with the prospect of improving their present knowledge

and skills. For others, learning needs may involve preparation for occupational roles which they may not be presently performing.

## **(2) Roles as Community Member and Citizen**

As effective participants in development of their communities and of the nation, some young learners of today will have to assume various roles associated with the building and running of social institutions. They will act as leaders, organisers, animators and promoters of social change. They will have to learn to link their community with outside structure, to participate in the political process and to manipulate governmental structures. Effective communication in English assumes tremendous importance in this regard.

## **(3) Roles Related to Raising a Family**

Future improvements in family living will depend, among other things, on the competence of today's youth in the effective performance of roles related to this area. Many youth in rural areas may already be playing various family roles, because of the custom of early marriages in rural areas of many parts of India. In other cases they will all eventually play roles associated with the establishment of a family and the running of a household. Learning needs will arise out of various roles such as those of parent, head of the family, manager of family resources, planner of family size and protector of family health and nutrition, consumer, or provider of food, clothing and housing for the family members, or as a result of social, recreational or religious activities.

#### **(4) Other Roles**

A few learners may have other adult roles related more to their own self-realisation and personal satisfaction, for example, as promoters of certain values, morals and life-styles in their adult life, organisers of groups for social action or as learners and teachers now and throughout life. Their English learning needs will stem from the competencies required to fulfil these roles.

### **2.6. AREAS OF LEARNING**

An analysis of the future occupational and social roles, interests and opportunities available to young learners in India will point towards certain areas of learning. Varying levels of competency in different areas of learning will have to be achieved by the young learners if these roles and interests are to be fulfilled and opportunities are to be taken advantage of. A general description of five areas of learning considered essential for development and for achieving quality of life by the individuals in India is given below.

#### **a. Basic Communication Skills**

For all learners of English, basic communication skills such as functional competence are essential towards their further education. The levels of these skills and the need for them will vary among the learners according to previous educational opportunities. For that section of learners who plan to go on the higher educational institutions and technical schools, a comparable competency in academic subjects will be required, so that they can compete effectively with other students, more so in the rural areas, where schools have till now remained at a disadvantage because of the rather poor educational facilities.

A large proportion of population in India either drop out of school during or after the middle school or do not have a schooling opportunity at all (see Appendix). This group is crucial because it is very large and its members are without basic communication skills which are so essential for them to educate themselves further throughout their lives. For this group, reading competency will be required to a level where the individual can read and understand simple material in English such as a newspaper, an information pamphlet, a letter from a friend and a letter or a circular from a governmental agency. To be able to read a land revenue or craft tax bill, a credit agreement, a poster or a bulletin providing instructions on subjects related to occupational activity or family living and to be able to read and understand instructions, are some of the other requirements for English proficiency levels of this group. Similar writing capabilities, to write a letter to a friend or relative, or a complaint or representation to a government agency or a request for information on some problem will be essential.

A very large part of social interaction goes on in face-to-face situations. Most people are handicapped and inarticulate in verbal communication. This area of communication will need to be strengthened to enable individuals to make a simple speech, a verbal presentation to a government official or to ask a question from an official without hesitation.

Familiarity with prevalent terminology used in government or other legal matters (which is quite often in English), and with the speech patterns of city-bred educational and development agency personnel is another important area where communications skills will need to be improved.

**b. General Understanding of the Principles of Science and the Processes of Nature**

One of the main problems in India has been a lack of scientific attitude on the part of the people. As a result of the relative lack of appreciation of the contributions of science to productive processes and in daily living, the decisions are often made on the basis of non-rational, traditional and often superstitious thinking. They need to appreciate, for example, that a particular disease is not caused by demons but by germs, and that the cure to this disease is not ceremonies to propitiate the demons, but immunisation. For such an appreciation the creation of scientific attitudes and of more favourable attitudes towards science among the youth of today is essential.

Application of technology to productive processes and everyday life would also require a considerable proficiency in English. Not only are a scientific attitude and outlook necessary, but also the acquisition and use of specific knowledge and skills associated with specific technological innovations. Popular science literature is more readily available in English than in the regional languages; thus to inculcate a scientific temper and read these, a young learner must have a basic competence in English scientific register.

**c. Economics, Business and Management**

For an efficient production and management of enterprises and for the smooth running of households, appropriate levels of competency in subjects related to economics, business and management are of absolute importance. Entrepreneurs will have to strengthen their businesses to be competitive. The

application of rational decision-making techniques, proper use of credit, book-keeping practices, marketing strategies and where applicable, personnel management principles will have to be incorporated into the functioning of productive enterprises. Additionally, a learner will need to acquire appropriate levels of knowledge and skills to be good consumers and to be able to manage their resources properly.

**d. Learning and Inter-Learning**

Education is continuous and lifelong. Also, self-learning and inter-learning<sup>8</sup> have been understood as important learning strategies. The implication therefore, is that learners will have to learn to identify their own learning needs; that is, they will have to learn to learn, and will have to learn to evaluate their learning in terms of their objectives, particularly in the use of knowledge for daily living and finally will have to learn to share their experiences with others. This area of learning for the young learner is important in view of the fact that they could teach each other quite effectively.

**e. Learning Areas Related to Occupational Choices, Aspirations and Attitudes**

Today's youth in a less developed country like India, particularly those who have had some education, have very unrealistic aspirations about occupations and life. For some time to come, the acquisition of basic literacy will perhaps be accompanied by the development of similar aspirations and attitudes.<sup>9</sup> Many programmes of educational reform have failed because the planners did not give suitable consideration to the strength of this phenomenon. The future



programmes of English education should provide learning in the area of realistic occupational choices available in rural as well as urban centres, about how to enter an occupation and how to change occupations, etc. Also, learning areas necessary for the establishing of an enterprise, such as 'how to go into farming', or 'how to set up an enterprise', need to be included. Learning in practical and procedural aspects, such as 'how to apply for a loan' or 'how to fill out government forms' will be helpful in order to facilitate the movement of youth from education to the work place.

## **2.7. GENERAL CONCERNS RELATED TO AREAS OF LEARNING**

In the preceding pages five general areas of learning for an Indian learner have been explored. For the purposes of description they have been stated separately. However, in terms of their use in the satisfaction of specific learning needs it will be found that they interrelate, overlap and permeate each other. In order to satisfy one learning need, varying levels of English proficiency in the different areas will be required.

Some areas of learning are general in scope and will be required by all young learners. These common areas include the basic communication skills at the level of literacy, a basic appreciation of science, general citizenship education, learning and inter-learning, and applied areas of science, economics business and management as they relate to the raising of a family and the running of a household. Other areas of learning will be specific to sub-groups, e.g., learning for different rural and urban settings are definitely different. Not only will the areas required vary but the levels of proficiency to be achieved for each

role will be variable. These areas include literacy and numeracy levels, application of science and technology, economics, business and management techniques to occupational development, learning about occupational choices and opportunities, and the learning areas of expressive, recreational and cultural aspects. Additionally, other areas may be required only according to individual interests and specific learning needs of the individual learner based on his/her personality traits.

The preceding listing of learning areas is fairly comprehensive, but it does not imply that the determination of learning needs of an Indian learner of English by the formal and non-formal education agencies will necessarily deal with all levels of these learning areas. The concept of education encompasses informal community and family-based learning systems as well. These spontaneous learning systems already take care of a considerable amount of learning in these areas at varying levels of competency. The educational strategies as conceived here aim at the full exploitation of these learning systems and at reinforcing their functioning with view to improving their capabilities. The formal and non-formal educational development agencies and organisations should try to identify and fulfil those learning needs which are either not fulfilled by the tradition and system, or which arise on account of new knowledge and technology, or call for corrective measures in the traditionally administered ELT.

Late upper primary/junior secondary broad age group, middle secondary or upper secondary broad age group learners who are developing at the range and level of language use and skills generally required at the late upper primary/junior secondary phase of schooling.

The focus at this stage is on:

- Consolidation of language skills developed in primary stage
- Transition from primary to secondary learning or from intensive languages centre to secondary learning
- Development of information use of language.

## **2.8. CHARACTERISTICS OF LEARNERS AT MIDDLE SCHOOL LEVEL**

Learners at this Stage may be in the upper primary/junior secondary, middle secondary phase of schooling.

In terms of language development all learners at middle school.

- are able to use language adequately to fulfil everyday needs but will benefit from consolidation, and from instruction in increasing the range of their ability e.g. more formal use, more context-specific use
- are beginning to use academic language with support (through texts, conditions, activities, expectations)
- are likely to have stronger receptive than productive skills
- benefit from a widening of the application of their English ability, particularly into written language and academic uses of language.

In terms of personal/cultural development, they may be experiencing stress in transition (from primary to secondary school; from intensive language centre to mainstream school) and are likely to need moral as well as language support.

In terms of conceptual range/skills development in English they are becoming more able to understand content in spoken and written forms, and are beginning to be more confident in using English in a productive way in these spheres, though productive abilities at this stage will still be limited and need strong ESL and mainstream teacher support. In terms of learning-how-to-learn skills. They will benefit from instruction in and reinforcement of these skills.

### **2.8.1. Focus on Goals:**

#### *(1) Communication Goals:*

- (a) To enable learners to establish and maintain relationships and discuss topics of interest e.g. through the exchange of information, ideas, opinions, attitudes, feelings, experiences, and plans.
- (b) To enable learners to participate in social interaction related to solving a problem, making arrangements, making decisions with others, transacting to obtain goods, services and public information.
- (c) To enable learners to obtain information by searching for specific details in spoken or written text, and then process and use the information obtained.
- (d) To enable learners to give information in spoken or written form e.g. give a talk, write essay or a set of instructions.
- (e) To enable learners to listen to, read or view, and respond to a stimulus e.g. a story, play, film, song, poem, picture.
- (f) To enable learners to be involved in spoken or written expression e.g. create a story, dramatic episode, poem, play.

(2) *Socio-cultural goals:*

- (a) To enable learners to develop an understanding of the everyday life patterns of their contemporary age group in the Indian community.
- (b) To enable learners to develop an insight into Indian cultural traditions.
- (c) To enable learners to develop understanding of the presence and mix of multiple cultures in India.

(3) *Learning-how-to-learn goals:*

To enable learners to develop learning-how-to-learn skills learners should be able to:

- (a) use a range of reference sources
- (b) process information from written texts
- (c) present information in a logical way
- (d) display awareness of cohesion and coherence
- (e) use coordination and subordination in writing
- (f) write paragraphs

(4) *Focus on Language and Cultural Awareness Goals:*

- (a) To enable learners to develop an understanding of some of extralinguistic aspects of discourse. Learners should be able to:
  - (i) use different language in different contexts
  - (ii) perceive and understand the use of extralinguistic features in spoken and written communication.

- (b) To enable learners to develop an understanding of the way language adapts to context.
- (c) To enable learners to develop learners' understanding of the reasons for the existence of different languages, and the relationship between these and English; and of how languages borrow from each other. Learners should be able to –
  - (i) understand some of the processes of word formation in English
  - (ii) understand cognates and use them to guess meaning
  - (iii) understand the systematic nature of language

**(5) *Focus on Knowledge Goals:***

The above specific goals, objectives and activities will develop out of classroom learning in different subject areas, and out of the needs and interests of learners.

## NOTES

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- <sup>1</sup> United Nations. Department of Economic and Social Affairs. 1970. *Towards Accelerated Development: Proposals for the Second Development Decade*. New York: UNO, p.1.
- <sup>2</sup> Majid Husain. 1999. *Human Geography*. Jaipur and New Delhi: Rawat Publications, pp.222-320.
- <sup>3</sup> Dhara S. Gill. *IIEP Occasional Paper No.49*. Paris: UNESCO, p.3.
- <sup>4</sup> *ibid.*, pp.33-39.
- <sup>5</sup> The development of non-formal education and distance education came later. Initially lack of resources and the non-recognition of their programmes as educational were major hurdles in their development. More attention has been paid and budgetary allocations substantially increased only recently for these areas.
- <sup>6</sup> Dhara S. Gill. *IIEP Occasional Paper No.49*. Paris: UNESCO, p.37.
- <sup>7</sup> For a model see R.H. Dave. Year of Publication not given. 'Concept Characteristics of Lifelong Education' in *Lifelong Education and the School Curriculum*. Hamburg: UNESCO Institute of Education, Monograph no.1, pp.11-27.
- <sup>8</sup> See R.H. Dave. 1975. 'On learning strategies for lifelong education'. In *Reflections on lifelong education and the school*. R.H.Dave (ed), Hamburg: UNESCO Institute of Education, pp.46-48.
- <sup>9</sup> Dhara S. Gill. *IIEP Occasional Paper No.49*. Paris: UNESCO.

# Chapter Three

## Theories of Learning



### 3.0. CHANGING PARADIGMS

In scientific method, linguistics has oscillated over the centuries between empiricism and rationalism, and the choice of scientific method has always implied a belief about the nature of language learning. Of late, ELT specialists have started recognising a problem that weighs down on many of the language teaching programmes – the relative neglect of learning factors. It is only after the language base has been analysed and systematised are learning factors considered. This problem was recognised quite early by Munby in 1978,<sup>1</sup> who mentions it as one of the constraints on the implementation of the aim specification of learning.

These implementational constraints are, of course, significant in the modification of syllabus specifications and production of materials, but that is the next stage in course design and should not take place until after the output from the operational instrument has been obtained.<sup>2</sup> This has not been adequately studied or analysed systematically until recently.<sup>3</sup>

Yet, language can only be thought of as a reflection of human thought processes, and language learning can only be possible through a process of conditioning of the human mind, in the way the mind observes, organises, stores and retrieves linguistic information.

Until the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century there was no coherent theory of learning available to the language teacher (Nunan 1988: 39). There existed, of course, sporadic efforts at theorising about the process of learning (e.g. the 16<sup>th</sup>

century studies by Comenius)<sup>4</sup> or the more directly observed precepts of the more popular Direct Methods;<sup>5</sup> but not until psychology had established itself firmly as a major discipline of scientific enquiry in the 20<sup>th</sup> century had a theory of learning of any substantial importance gained ground.

A topic of immense interest in connection with language teaching theory, the psychology of learning has been a major preoccupation with psychologists from the early part of the 20<sup>th</sup> century to the present day. This interest in learning phenomena largely arose from the wish on the part of psychologists to show that this new science had practical applications. The study of learning has obvious relevance to teaching, particularly of languages, and hence the analysis of teaching became a central theme in educational psychology.

Learning can be approached in two main ways: (1) through theoretical and experimental studies, like the S-R approach of Pavlov and Skinner and (2) through empirical studies in educational studies (case studies). The two together constitute the psychology of learning.<sup>6</sup>

### **3.1. PRE-STRUCTURAL LINGUISTICS**

Developments in linguistic theory could not have occurred in a vacuum. They were evidently related to, and often accompanied and influenced by, developments in related disciplines. Needless to say, the classical way of learning and teaching languages developed after years of experimentation, and due to a belief that categorised language of the classics as 'pure, standard, high and correct'. All language teaching activities therefore aimed at developing skills that

would make learners preserve the purity of the classical language. Such trends, usually referred to as 'classical fallacy', continued right upto the end of the 18<sup>th</sup> century.<sup>7</sup> Grammars were written to impose norms, and teaching made no distinction between linguistic aims and pedagogical aims. No distinction was made between Mother Tongue teaching and the teaching of a second or other tongue.

### **3.2. STRUCTURAL LINGUISTICS AND BEHAVIOURISM**

The first attempt at coherently formulating a theory of learning was the behaviourist theory. Structuralism, motivated in part by the need to describe language, in reaction to pre-structural ideas, was a major factor. This phase of structural linguistics coincides with the well-known behaviourist theory of learning in the area of psychology and psycholinguistics. This simple but powerful theory said that learning is a process mechanical in nature and leads to habit formation and proceeds by means of the frequent reinforcement of a stimulus-response (S-R) sequence. Language learning too, like all other learning, was considered situation-oriented and environment-oriented, which was a direct manifestation of the S-R sequence approach.

#### **3.2.1. Implication for Language Teaching**

The simplicity and directness of this theory had an enormous impact on learning psychology and language teaching. The impact of the combined effects of structuralism and behaviourism is quite marked. This laid down the familiar guiding methodological principles based on an assumption that second language

learning should reflect and initiate the perceived processes of mother tongue learning. More important of these precepts were:

- (a) Translation to be avoided
- (b) New language instruction to be in the following sequence: Listen, Speak, Read, Write (LSRW).
- (c) Frequent repetition essential to effective learning.
- (d) All errors to be corrected immediately.

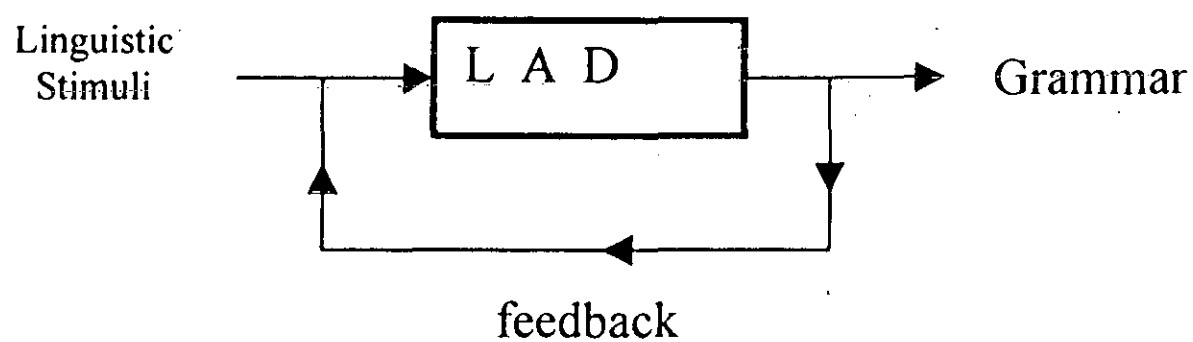
Revolutionary changes were observed in the pedagogical scene: a shift from normative grammars to descriptive pedagogical grammars, and from grammar teaching to skills-oriented language teaching.

The basic exercise for behaviourist methodology is pattern practice, and hence emphasis on accurate acquisition of verbal expressions, words, whole sentences, phonological units, to be acquired by a multiplicity of language drills, by mimicry and memorisation (MIM-MEM), their acquisitions concretised by corresponding semantic associations, once again by habit. As a result, Direct Methods of various kinds that gave primacy to speech and oral skills gained ground. Structural drills-oriented discrete points approaches, conditioning of reflexes by habit formation through repetitions abounded. There was thus an extensive use of language laboratories and other audio-lingual aids.

### **3.3. MENTALISM AND INNATE THEORY**

Considerable evidence was building up amongst language teachers that

the Pattern Practice drills and audio-lingual methods were not delivering the desired results as promised. Language learners almost always did not conform to the behaviourist stereotype of repeating items; instead they resorted to translating things and asked for grammatical rules. The first blow to behaviourist thinking came from Chomsky (*Aspects*, 1965). Having already published his *Review of Skinner's Verbal Behavior* (1959) he was in a perfect position to comment on the flaws of behavioural theory. He countered the Skinnerian ideas on the ground that exactly how the mind was able to transfer what was learnt in one S-R sequence to other novel situations was unclear. He rejected the vague 'generalisations' of Skinnerian behaviourism as untenable, simply because it could not explain how from a finite number of experiences the human mind was able to find utterances for new situations, and concluded that language must, therefore, be innate, and humans were genetically predisposed towards learning language. He also states that thinking must be rule-ordered at all levels: a finite set of rules that enables the mind to deal with a potentially infinite range of experiences to be represented linguistically. Thus, learning, according to Chomsky, was a process of acquiring rules through a process of hypothesis formation and feedback to test and the further hypothesis. It was not an outright rejection of the S-R approach, but a fundamental shift in thinking how this linguistic stimuli shape the character of the response in order to decipher an underlying pattern/system. All this is achieved by a theoretical Language Acquisition Device (**LAD**), a component of the human brain/intellect, and acts in the following way to capture the underlying pattern of a language by the 'native speaker'.



**Fig. 3.1: The Chomskyan model of learning language**

This underlying pattern is the grammar of a language that is acquired. It is open-ended and goes on expanding as long as a person is alive. It is this that leads to the native speaker-hearer's competence to understand and interpret, and his ability to conceive and construct grammatical sentences (performance). The innate theory accorded an important role to human mind in the learning theories and recognised that learning is not all environment-oriented or situation-oriented and indirectly discouraged mechanical methods like pattern- practice drills. There was observed in the pedagogical scene a distinct shift from structure-oriented to learner-oriented teaching and learning. A greater eclecticism was discernible; and the teacher looked for ways and means which facilitated the process of language acquisition by addressing the specific needs of a learner group formulating rules. This view of portraying the mind as a sub-seeker led to the next important stage in the evolution of learning theories – the cognitive theory of learning.

#### **3.4. COGNITIVE CODE: LEARNERS AS THINKING BEINGS**

Whereas behaviourists propounded a theory of learning that portrayed the learner as passive, the cognitivists took the stand that a learner is an active processor of information. Learning and using rules require learners to *think*, that

is, to apply their mental power in order to distil a *generative* rule from a host of data, and then to analyse and apply it to formulate generalised rules. Language learning, then, may be thought of as a process in which the learner has managed to have imposed some sort of meaningful interpretation or pattern on the linguistic data.

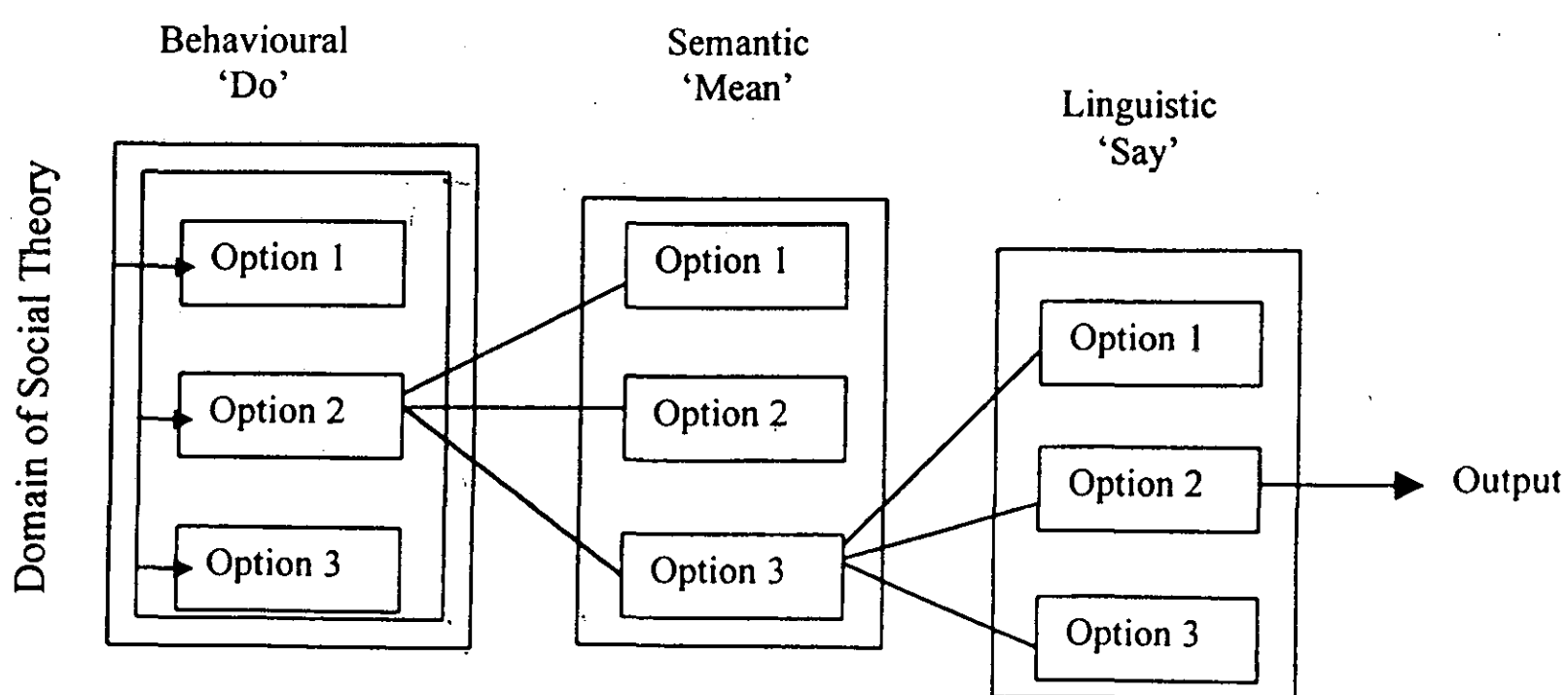
The basic teaching technique associated with a cognitive theory is the problem-solving task. Such exercises are often modelled on activities associated with developing cognitive/understanding/compre-hension skills of the learners. The cognitive view of learning is best exploited in teaching reading strategies. The learners are made aware of the reading strategies so that they can concentrate on applying them consciously to the understanding of texts. It thus treats learners as thinking beings and puts them firmly at the centre of the learning process.

### **3.5. SOCIOLINGUISTICS, COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE AND COMMUNICATIVE APPROACHES**

During the 1960s and early 1970s the mentalist-cognitivist views of Chomskyan ideas dominated all aspects of psycholinguistics. Grammar learning was seen as the acquisition of a set of rules of 'competence' for a native speaker-learner, which involves both innateness of ability and interaction with the environment. This premise of Chomsky for linguistic competence as the basis of a theory of cognitive competence came in for much criticism by sociolinguists and socio-semanticists alike. The basic issue of concern to people like Hymes and Halliday was what actually goes into competence and performance. Chomskyan theory and grammar reject anything pertaining to language use in socio-cultural

context and stresses only on formalised rules and their various transformations. This very idea was repugnant to social scientists like Hymes and Halliday. In this context one is reminded of Wittgenstein who in 1953 had defined the meaning of a word as its use in language. He asserted that the meaning of a word is known only by its association and because of our knowledge of “how it is to be used in a particular context”.<sup>8</sup>

The notion of competence in its social context was further developed by Dell Hymes to account for the communicative functions of language. Hymes recasts the notion of competence as “communicative competence”; competence for him is acquisition of rules of structure and includes rules of use of these structures in appropriate contexts. The focus thus shifts to the use of an utterance in a communicative act, and hence ‘on communicative functions of language in human context’.<sup>9</sup> The language learning thus focuses on acquisition of rules that a ‘real’ speaker-hearer (not ‘ideal’ speaker-hearer as in Chomsky) internalises while he undergoes the process of socialisation.



**Fig. 3.2: Semantic Options at the disposal of a speaker**



Towards the end of the 1970s, the pragmatic or socio-semantic views emphasised by scholars became important. Among them, one of the most plausible modes was proposed by Halliday (socio-semantic model of learning), the main precepts of which include irrelevance of the competence can be described as grammar performance cannot, at the same time language use is performance, which is more important. He thus proposes a socio-semantic model which has at its core the notion of 'meaning potential' – the set of options in meaning that are available to the speaker-hearer. This 'meaning potential' relates behaviours potential to lexico-grammatical potential as:

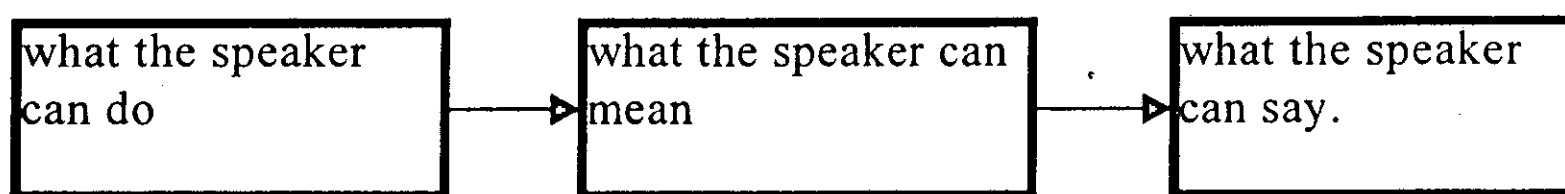


Fig.3.3: Halliday's Socio-semantic Model

### 3.6. PIAGETIAN MODELS

The field of cognitive psychology is one that has changed quite considerably. For many years, the best known work in the area was that of Jean Piaget (1896-1980). From the publication of his first book, *The Language and Thought of the Child* in 1926, until his death, Piaget, through his 40 odd books and innumerable journal articles on the cognitive development of the children was a major influence on the subject.

Piaget's belief that children's thinking develops primarily as a result of their activity in the world resulted in making primary schools in Europe, particularly in the UK, adopting on a large scale 'activity methods' of

teaching whereby the children were encouraged to explore the natural environment in a practical way.

Although Piaget's ideas were not without their critics within both psychology and education, the Piagetian idea of a hierarchy of skills is crucial to the cognitive development, especially that of languages. Two kinds of hierarchy of skills exist – *expression* hierarchy and *logical* hierarchy. Reading and writing are expression hierarchies while grammar learning is a logical hierarchy. Logical hierarchies occur when there is a logical sequence of concepts within a curriculum area. For instance, the simple present tense is taught before the present continuous tense.

It is typical of the Piagetian approach to think that in expression hierarchies, learning is top-down. If the child/adolescent gets their high-level general concepts sorted out, then the lower-level skills will automatically fall into place. The way to get the student to understand the broad and general concepts is to encourage discovery of basic principles by exposing the learners to situations and materials that will allow them to discover such principles without much assistance from the teacher, and hence the learning will be facilitated.

### **3.7. PERSONALITY MODELS**

During the 1980s an integral model consisting of not only behavioural and cognitive components, but also of personality features, has been gaining ground.

One such model is the *Holodynamic* model (or HDM) of Renzo Titone, which is based on the view that language learning consists of interacting modules of behavioural and cognitive nature which are controlled by the learner's personality structure. It thus assumes personality as a basic component of verbal behaviour. Personality, for Titone is an open relational system that relates the individual's internal structure to the outside environment (physical, social and cultural).<sup>10</sup>

At an operational level, the HDM has three hierarchical interacting levels: *tactic*, *strategic* and *ego-dynamic*. At the top is the *tactic* level, corresponding more or less with Surface Structure or S-Structure or SS. *Tactic operations* are those that orders/correlates relations in the domain of language perception and production. The pedagogic implications are those involving mental coordination and integration, and therefore the teaching strategy focuses on habit formation involving the 4 skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing, also called collectively as LSRW skills).

The *strategic* level comes below the *tactic*. At this level, rule-making, selection and programming operations dominate, which are mentalistic and cognitive in nature, thus corresponding to what Chomsky refers to as Deep Structure or D-Structure. It involves context-based use of appropriate rules. Only when a person has control over the strategic operations in the flow of speech is he/she able to speak (or write) the language. As a result, the pedagogy will focus on rule-learning activities (as in learning the rules of grammar) and contextualisation (as in notional-functional approaches). The HDM differs from earlier mentalistic-cognitive models in introducing a third, deeper *ego-dynamic*

level, consisting of personality variables (such as experience, attitude, IQ, etc.). These personality features help the learner to relate the tactic and strategic operations of the high levels with the outside world, in actual communicative settings. The implications on LT are obvious: LT must include *personality* as a variable in deciding the teaching strategy.

The language learning process within HDM can thus be defined as the simultaneous interplay of the ego-dynamic, strategic and tactic levels, and can be schematised as follows:

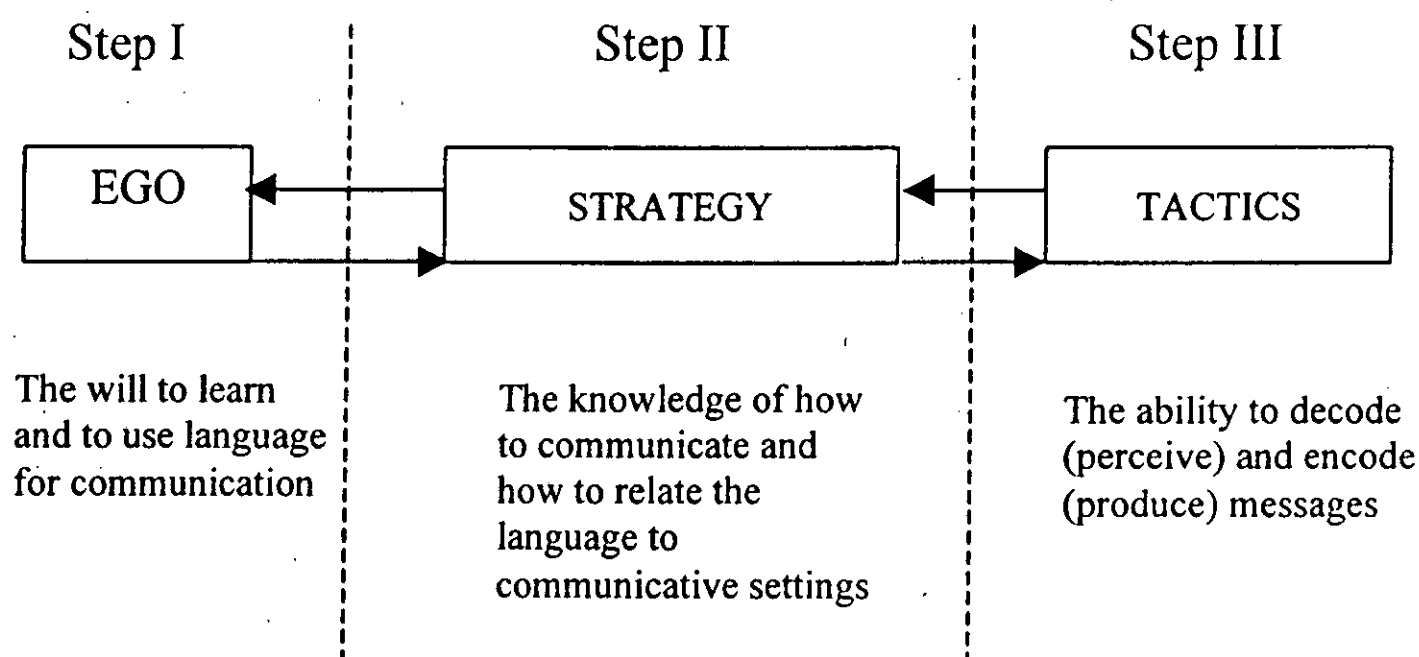


Fig 3.4: The Holodynamic Model (HDM) of language learning (After Renzo Titone. 1981. 'The Holistic Approach to Second Language Education')

### 3.8. AFFECTIVE LEARNING: LEARNERS AS EMOTIONAL BEINGS: THE DEVELOPMENT OF LEARNING CYCLES

Once the personality factor is introduced as a variable in learning models, the pedagogical principles undergo a qualitative change. Learners are perceived as emotional beings and learning, particularly the learning of a language, is described as an emotional experience, and the feelings that the learning process evokes will have a crucial bearing on the success or failure of the learning task.

The importance of the emotional factor is easily perceived if the relationship between the cognitive and affective aspects of the learner is taken into account. The emotional reaction to the learning experience is the essential foundation for the initiation of the cognitive process. How the learning is perceived by the learner affects the degree of learning that takes place. The cognitive/affective interplay can be represented in the form of a learning cycle, which can be either *positive* or *negative*. The role of feedback is thus a very important component, which drives this cycle. A good, effective and appropriate course/module/teaching item will ensure a positive feedback to the learner and thus generate a positive learning cycle.

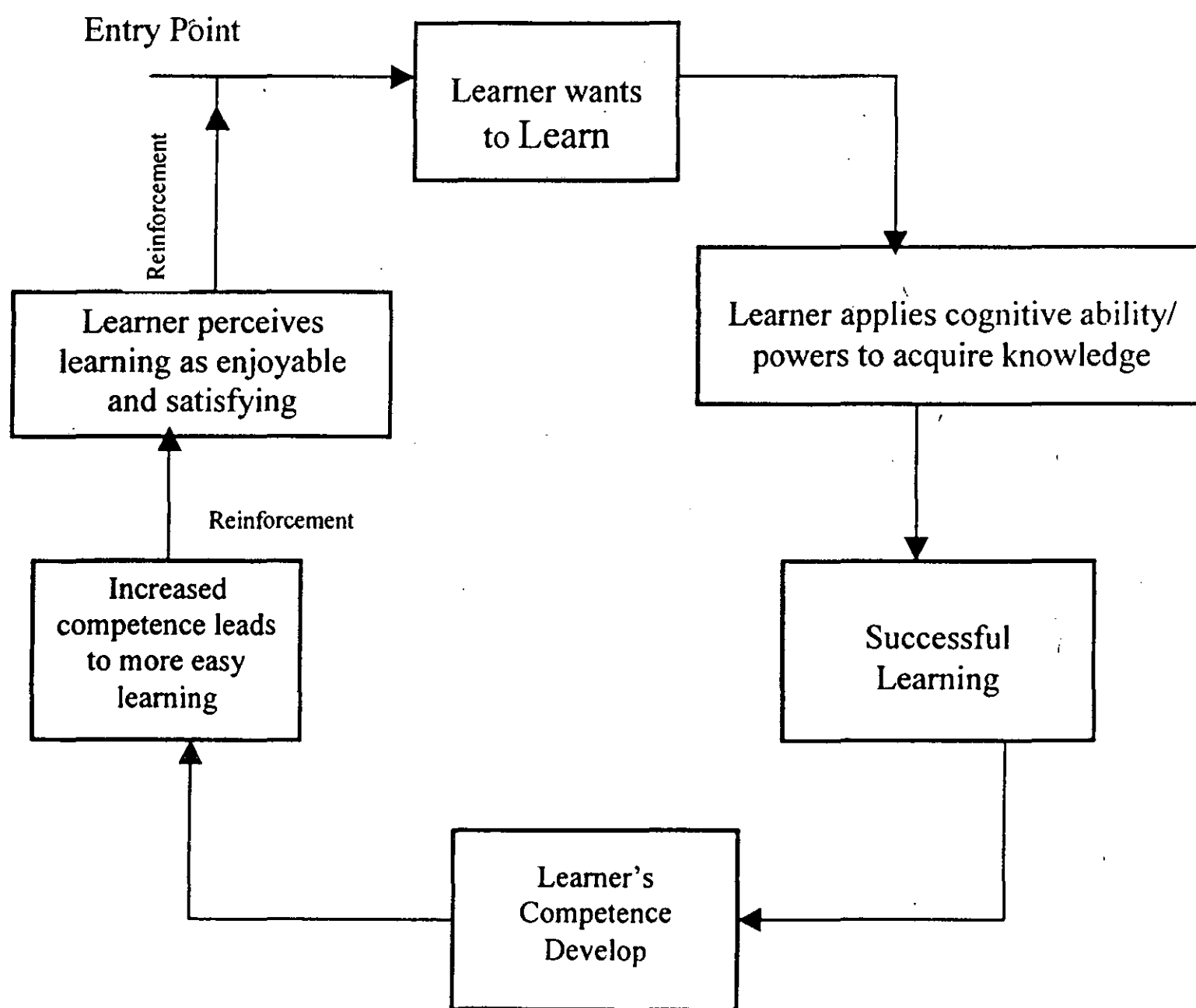


Fig.3.5: A positive learning cycle. (After Fraida Dubin and Elite Olshtain, 1988. *Course Design—Developing Programmes and Materials for Language Learning*. Cambridge: CUP.)

The relationship between the cognitive and emotional aspects of learning is, therefore, one of great importance, which affects the success of a learning programme/activity. Reinforcement of positive factors through continued motivation must therefore be an important ingredient in a learning theory.

### **3.9. LEARNING CYCLES: TWO MODERN CONCEPTS**

In 1984, Kolb devised his experiential learning cycle or ELC,<sup>11</sup> which describes learning as a holistic adaptive process that provides conceptual bridges across life situations. The learning cycle involves four stages: *Concrete Experience (CE)*, *Reflective Observation (RO)*, *Abstract Conceptualisation (AC)* and *Active Experimentation (AE)*. In order to complete the cycle, learners must engage in experiences, reflect on them from various perspectives, from concepts that integrate their observations with theories, and use these theories to guide their future action. Learning is an ongoing integration of theory and practice.

The experiential learning model can also be used to identify learning preferences in individuals. Having this information can help learners better understand their strengths as well as the potential obstacles to future development. Individuals can also use this information in group learning situations to better understand similarities and differences in the learning items. Furthermore, individuals can use Kolb's experimental component of ELC to enhance the transfer of learning from one situation to another. The cycle itself implies that experience is the springboard for new learning. The last phase of Kolb's cycle, i.e. active experimentation, involves developing a plan for the application of this learning in novel situations.

### 3.9.1. Group Learning

According to Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, Ross and Smith (1994),<sup>12</sup> groups can follow a learning cycle that parallels Kolb's model. The group learning model involves co-ordinated action, public reflection, developing shared meaning and conducting joint planning, as illustrated in the following figures (Fig.3.5). Once individuals become familiar with Kolb's ELC on an individual basis, they can apply it in groups. Providing learners with opportunities to understand and practice group learning in an educational setting will facilitate their application of the model in group learning sessions.

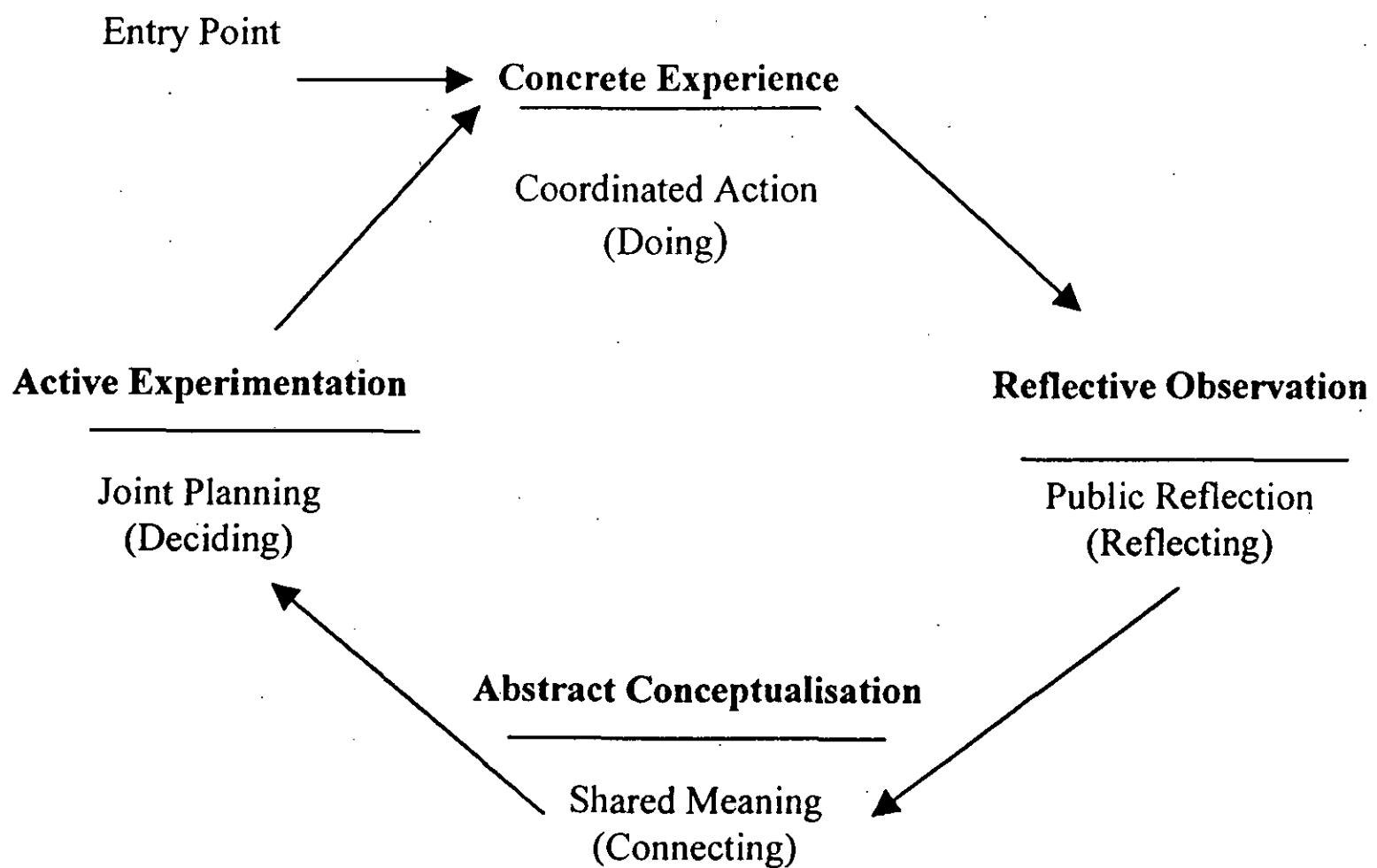


Fig.3.6: Comparison of **Experiential Learning Cycle (Kolb)** and **Group Learning Wheel (Senge, et. al)**

## NOTES

- <sup>1</sup> John Munby. 1978. *Communicative Syllabus Design*. Cambridge: CUP.
- <sup>2</sup> *ibid.*, p.217.
- <sup>3</sup> For further details, see Fraida Dubin and E. Olshtain. 1988. *Course Design*. Cambridge: CUP.
- <sup>4</sup> See H.H. Stern. 1983. *Fundamentals of Language Teaching*. Oxford: OUP.
- <sup>5</sup> For a detailed description of the language learning paradigms in traditional linguistics. See Eddy Roulet. 1975. *Linguistic Theory, Linguistic Description and Language Teaching*. (tr by Christopher N. Candlin). London: Longman.
- <sup>6</sup> For a more detailed account of learning theories see James P. Chaplin, and T.S. Krawiec. *Systems and Theories of Psychology*. 1979. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston. For an introductory survey see Clifford T. Morgan et al. 1996. (revised ed). *Introduction to Psychology*. New Delhi: Tata McGraw Hill.
- <sup>7</sup> See Vaishna Narang. 1996. *Communicative Language Teaching*. Delhi: Creative Books.
- <sup>8</sup> L. Wittgenstein. 1953. *Philosophical Investigations*. Oxford: Blackwell, p.43.
- <sup>9</sup> *op.cit.*
- <sup>10</sup> Renzo Titone. 1981. 'The Holistic Approach to Second Language Education'. In H. Altai et al. *The Second Language Classroom: Directions for the 1980's*. Oxford and New York: OUP, pp.69-77.
- <sup>11</sup> Brenda S. Gardner and Sharman J. Korth. 1997. 'Classroom Strategies that Facilitate Transfer to Learning to the Workplace'. In *Innovative Higher Education*, vol.22, no.1.
- <sup>12</sup> *ibid.*



# Chapter Four

## The Study: Data and Discussion

#### **4.0. THE STUDY**

A look at the research conducted on second language learning (L<sub>2</sub>L) reveals that the empirical base of most studies is either that of western students studying a foreign language in their respective countries or foreigners studying in western countries where the target language is the language of instruction to be used later by the students.

This study is different in the sense that it examines the processes of teaching and interaction in Indian classrooms rather than the terminal behaviour of proficiency, although it has been assumed for purposes of analysis that proficiency is dependent on the process of teaching, which in itself a function of school type. In the study the students are learning an “Indigenised” variety of English from ‘non-native speakers’ (Sridhar and Sridhar 1986). That this learning environment of non-native setting, with little or no support from native speakers of English, is the most common English learning environment in today’s world, is accepted by most (see Sheorey 1999). In India alone, reports Krishnaswamy and Sriraman in the 1994 study already referred to in the Introduction (p. 4), an estimated 6.5% of the Indian population speaks English to varying degrees, which translates in actual numbers, to about 65 million<sup>1</sup> English users of different degrees of proficiency.

#### **4.1. RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

There is a general scarcity of data on language learning in an Indigenised setting in general, and on classroom processes, in particular, which provided the

main impetus for this research. By the constraints of time and the level of study (M.Phil.) the research had to be restricted the study to an urban environment, viz., Delhi. The primary research question looked into are:

- What are the most commonly used teaching strategies/methodologies employed by the teacher of English in the context of Indian classrooms?
- What kind of elicitation techniques, presentation styles, variation of focus, and so on, characterises a particular type of school? If so, to what degree?
- What are the differences in the use of teaching environment provided by the teachers according to the type of school they are teaching in, such as a 'public' school and a government school?

#### **4.2. DATA COLLECTION**

The present study was conducted at two fairly large schools (population > 1200) in South Delhi, belonging to two different types of schools: privately funded reputed 'public' school (Modern School, Vasant Vihar, henceforth School A), and a government school (Kendriya Vidyalaya, JNU, hereafter School B). Both schools follow the CBSE syllabus, and hence, for purposes of comparative analysis, the sample classes can be assumed to possess a considerable degree of homogeneity in terms of teaching items in the classes under observation, viz., classes VI, VII and VIII (i.e., the upper primary or middle school, which is the highest segment of basic education). As far as possible, to maintain equivalence in teaching items, it was ascertained that same or similar modules were being

taught during the time the observations were made. The modules taught included Reading Comprehension (RC), English tenses and Phrasal Verbs.

The data for the study was collected over an eight-week period in February-April 2000, and included 15 hours (n=30)<sup>2</sup> and 21 hours (n=42)<sup>2</sup> of classroom teaching in schools A and B respectively.

### 4.3. THE INSTRUMENT

The data used in this study were collected through a series of worksheets called 'Classroom Observation Schedules and Instructions', extracted from HORACE<sup>3</sup> Guide to teacher counselling, and modified for use in the Indian classroom.

#### 4.3.1. Categories of Analysis

The range of teacher-student activities, particularly those involving conversation of one kind as another, was the focus of the study. The following are the variables studied:

**Table 4.1: List of variables studied in this work**

Variables Studied	Method of Analysis
Lesson beginnings	Diary + category analysis
Lesson endings	"
Transitions	Count coding
Nominating strategies	Count coding
Styles of presentation	Count coding + category analysis
Questioning: Cognitive types	Category analysis
Evaluation of Student response	Count coding
Domination by teacher	Time-lapse coding
Student talk: freedom and control	Time-lapse coding
Variation of focus	Diary + time coding

#### **4.4. METHODOLOGY OF DATA ANALYSIS**

After the collection of data, each worksheet was examined individually and the information collected was coded for statistical analysis to answer the research questions indicated above.

Firstly, the descriptive statistics (mean, frequency, standard deviation) for different process variables under observation were analysed (through tables, frequency polygons and graphs) for an overall picture of the teaching process at the middle school in the two schools under investigation and the summary findings are reported below in section 4.5.

Next, the correlation between the process variables (independent) with language proficiency (dependent variable) was studied for the two schools.

The following discussion focuses on a range of teacher and student activities, particularly those, which involve talking.

#### **4.5. PRESENTATION OF THE DATA**

The mean use of frequencies and their standard deviations in the two schools are given in Appendix II.

##### **4.5.1. Lesson Beginnings**

Beginnings represent the start of a class, from the moment the teacher walks in the classroom, to the point whether the teacher and students are entering into the first major learning task, constitute the beginning of a lesson. The various types of lesson beginnings identified are as follows:

Fig. 4.1a: Mean frequencies of different strategies used in lesson beginnings in School A.

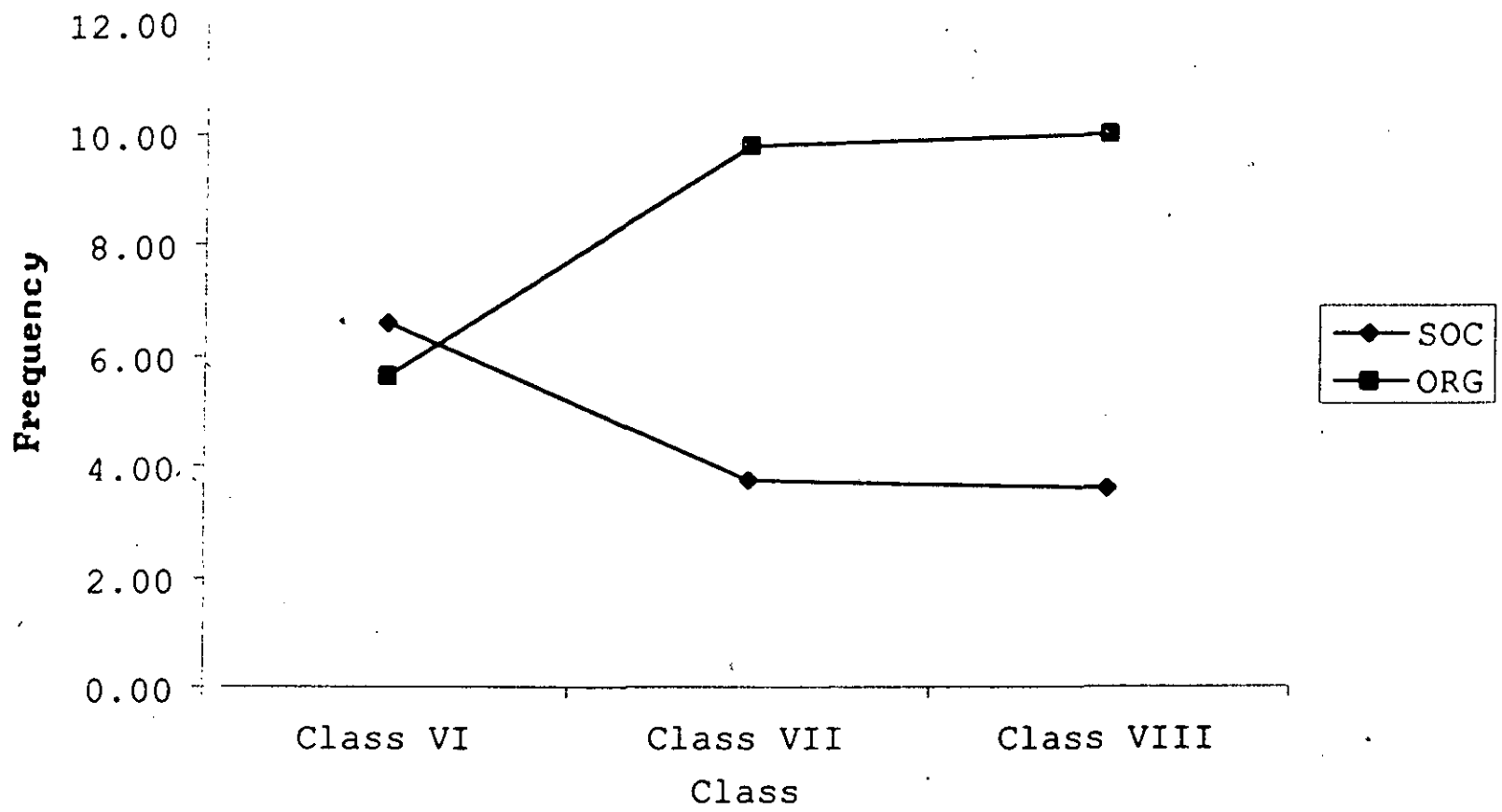
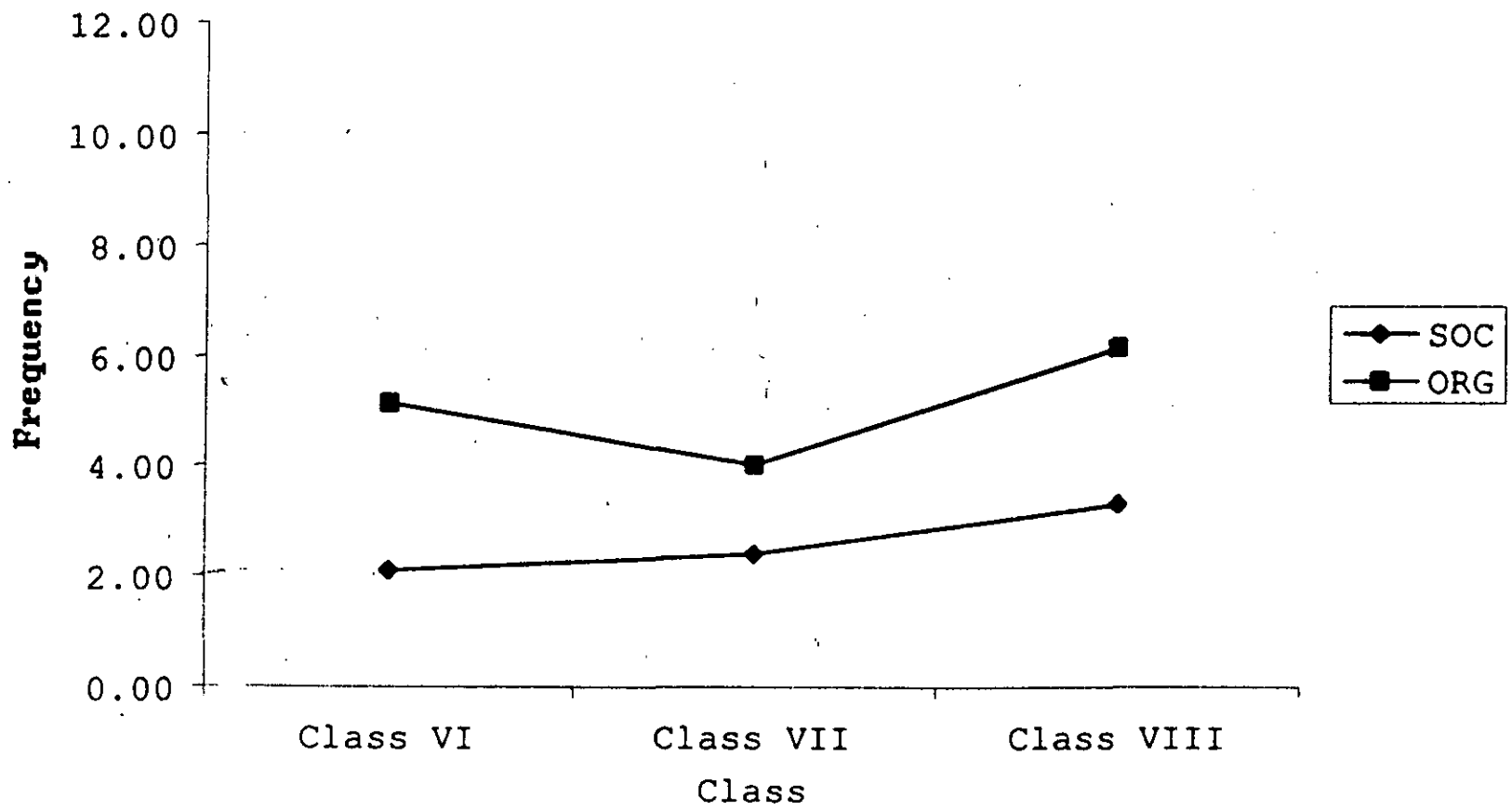


Fig. 4.1b: Mean frequencies of different strategies used in lesson beginnings in School B.



**SOC = SOCIATE;**

*Any talk which consists of greetings, social chat or joking.*

**ORG = ORGANISE;**

*Any talk which restates the purpose of the lesson without actually reteaching any points; or which invites students to show whether they have (or have to) understood or enjoyed the lesson; or which focuses on the topic of the next lesson; or which organize homework or an assignment.*

A look at Fig.4.1a and b shows us that in school A sociating talk falls continuously from class VI (mean = 6.6) to almost half that of class VII (mean = 3.75), falling marginally again in class VIII; the frequency of organising talk, on the other hand, increases quite sharply from class VI level of 5.6 to almost double in class VII at 9.75, and rising again in class VIII but only marginally, to 10 (Fig.4.5.1a).

Fig. 4.5.1b depicts the trends for the same variables for school B. Here, we find that the frequency for use of sociating talk always remains at lower level than organizing talk, which has a medium to high-medium usage.

Figures 4.1a and 4.1b also show that while in school A social talk in class VI, is more than organizing talk, the situation is quite the reverse in classes VII and VIII; the gap between the two becomes more and more wide. In school B the minimum difference between the frequencies of the variables of two kinds is minimum in class VII and maximum in class VI, and the difference in frequency is little less in class VIII from class VI level.

#### 4.5.2. Lesson Endings

The various types of lesson endings identified are SOC (SOCIALISE) and ORG (ORGANISE), as in lesson beginnings while others are as follows:

**PRES = PRESENT;**

*Any talk which restates the main points of the lesson in a way so that actual teaching takes place. (Included here is time spent writing a summary on the blackboard).*

**EL = ELICIT;**

*Any talk which requires another person to say something directly relating to the learning task. This includes review questions.*

**RES = RESPOND;**

*Any response to an ELICITING utterance.*

**EVAL = EVALUATE;**

*Any talk which assesses, positively or negatively, someone else's response.*

Fig. 4.2a and 4.2b shows the mean use of ending strategies used by the teachers in schools A and B respectively, in a continuum of highly socialising talk at one end, to highly evaluative behaviour of the lesson that is about to finish, on the other.

In school A while socialising talk is less frequent (mean frequency ranging between 3.8 to 5 per class), organising, presentation, elicitation and evaluative talk are moderately frequent (mean frequency ranging between 5 and 9): In school B we have socialising talk less frequently resorted to than in school



Fig. 4.2a: Mean use of ending strategies in school A in classes 6, 7, 8

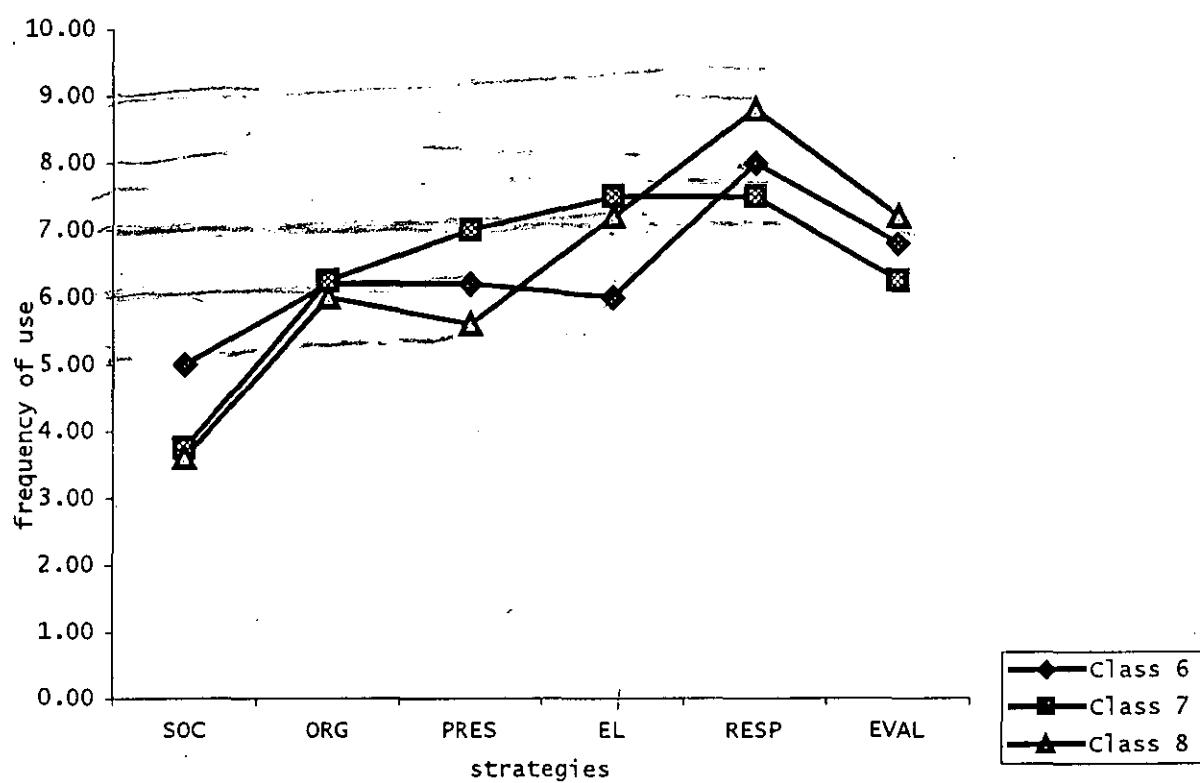


Fig 4.2b: Mean use of ending strategies in school B in class 6,7,8

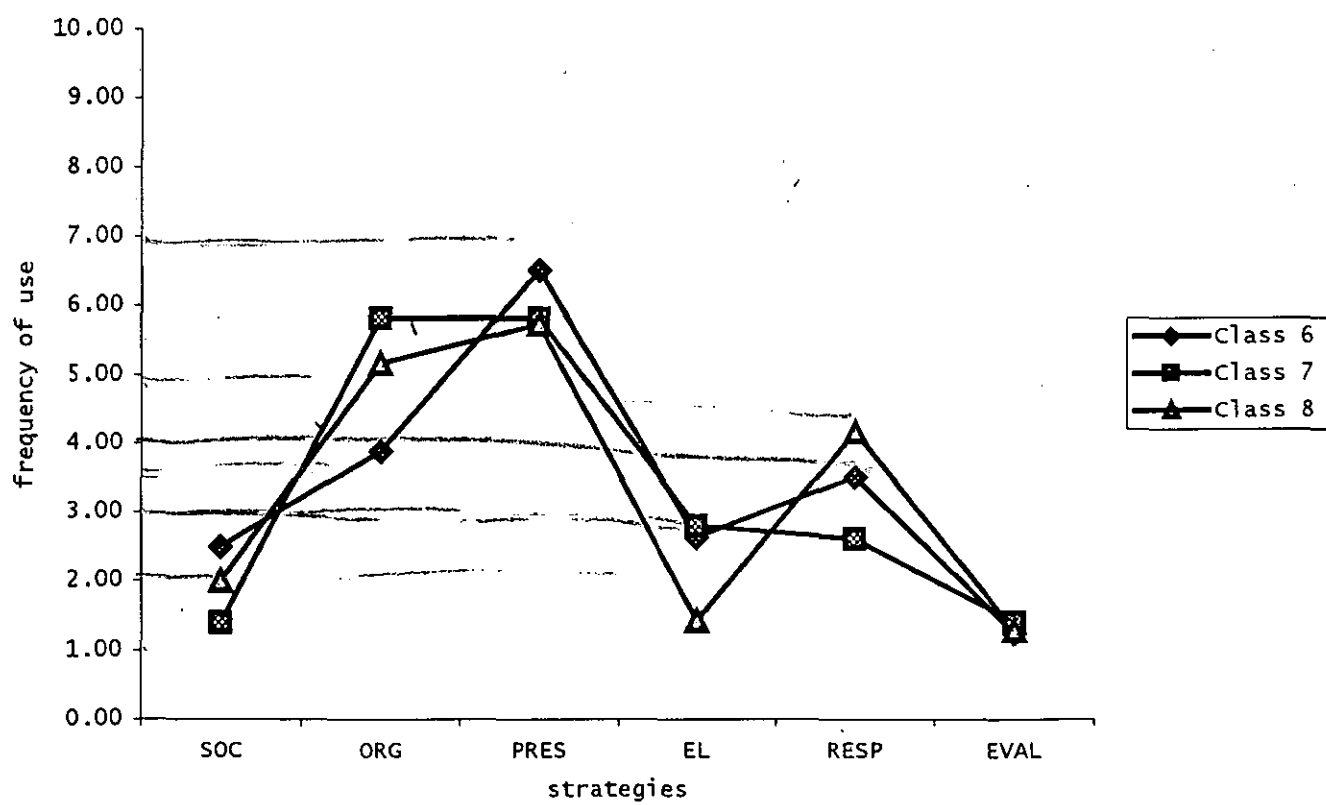
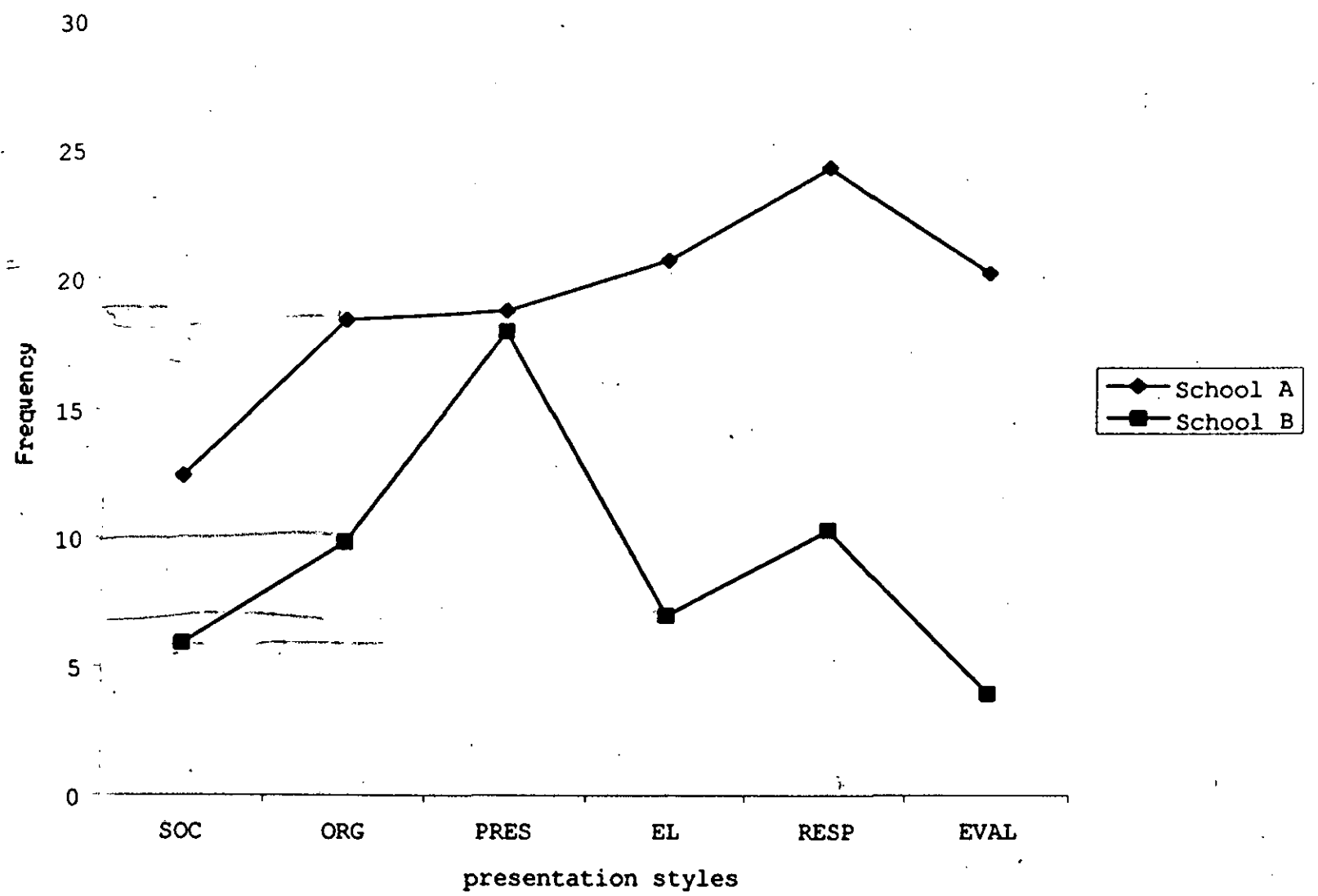


Fig. 4.2c: mean frequencies of various ending strategies in schools A and B



A, but then, evaluative and elicitation talk is also of considerably low mean frequencies ranging between 1.29 and 2.63, while organising (mean is between 3.8 and 5.2) and presentation (mean is between 5.7 and 6.5) is moderately frequent in all classes (VI, VII and VIII) in school B. The mean frequencies of use for ending strategies show a similar trend in School A and a quite different trend for all classes for all classes in school B. Responsive talk in school A is high (mean frequency is between 7 and 9), while in school B it is low (mean frequency between 2 and 5). This is corroborated by a visual inspection of the frequency polygons (Fig. 4.2a,b).

The mean values for all classes in both schools A and B respectively can thus be combined to represent by a single line, the behaviour in each school (Fig. 4.2c).

#### **4.5.3. Marking Transitions**

A transition is any point in a lesson where one thing stops happening and another starts. In particular, it is a point where the teacher stops performing one function and starts performing another. For example, after a lot of presenting talk the teacher may begin to ask some questions (eliciting). Or after a series of eliciting utterances, the teacher may want the students themselves to ask the questions.

Explicit transition in school A for classes VI, VII and VIII are in the medium range bracket, while implicit transitions are in the low range bracket in classes VI and VII, and increasing sharply to high usage level in class VIII. In

Fig. 4.3a: Class-wise mean frequencies of use of explicit and implicit transitions in school A

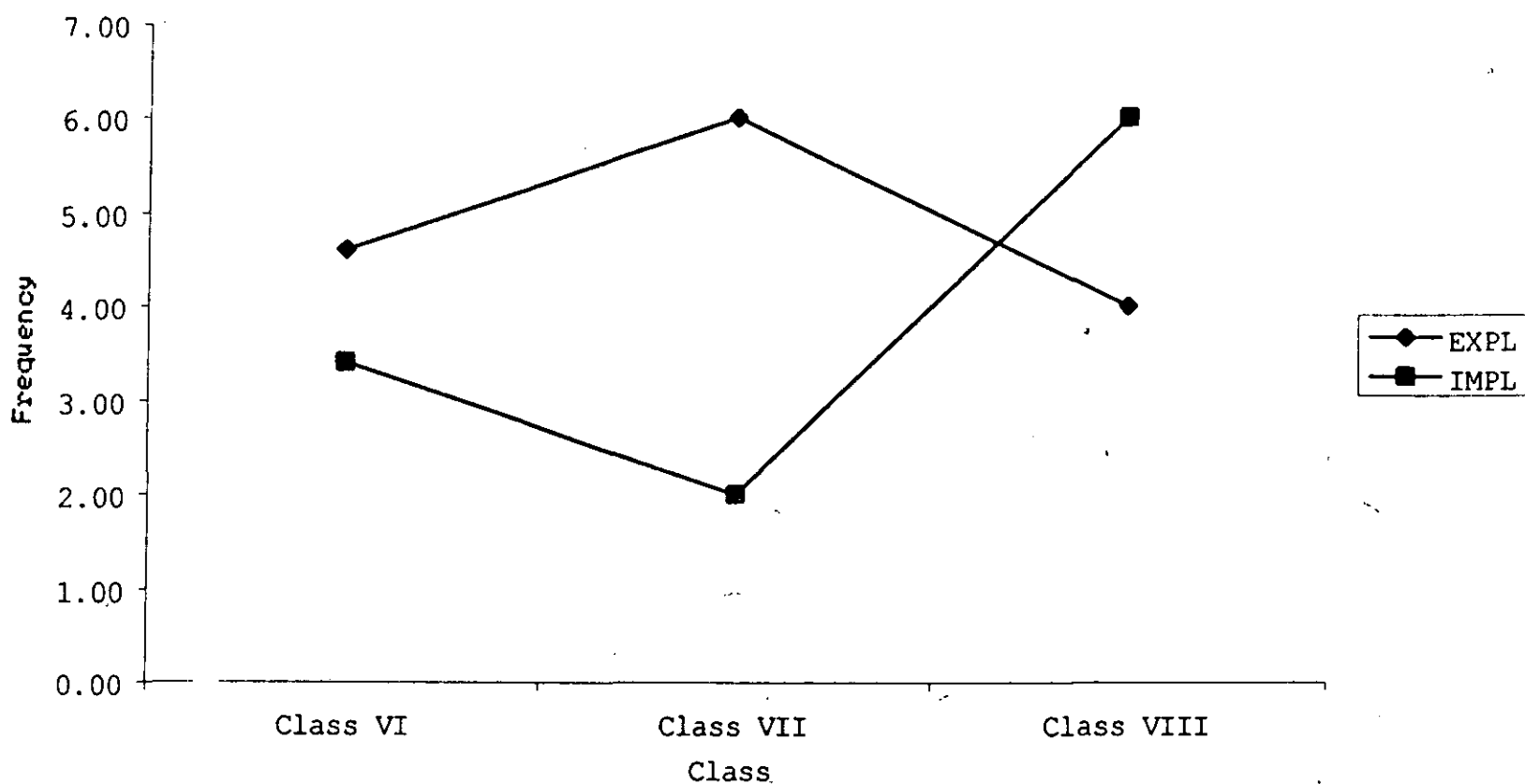
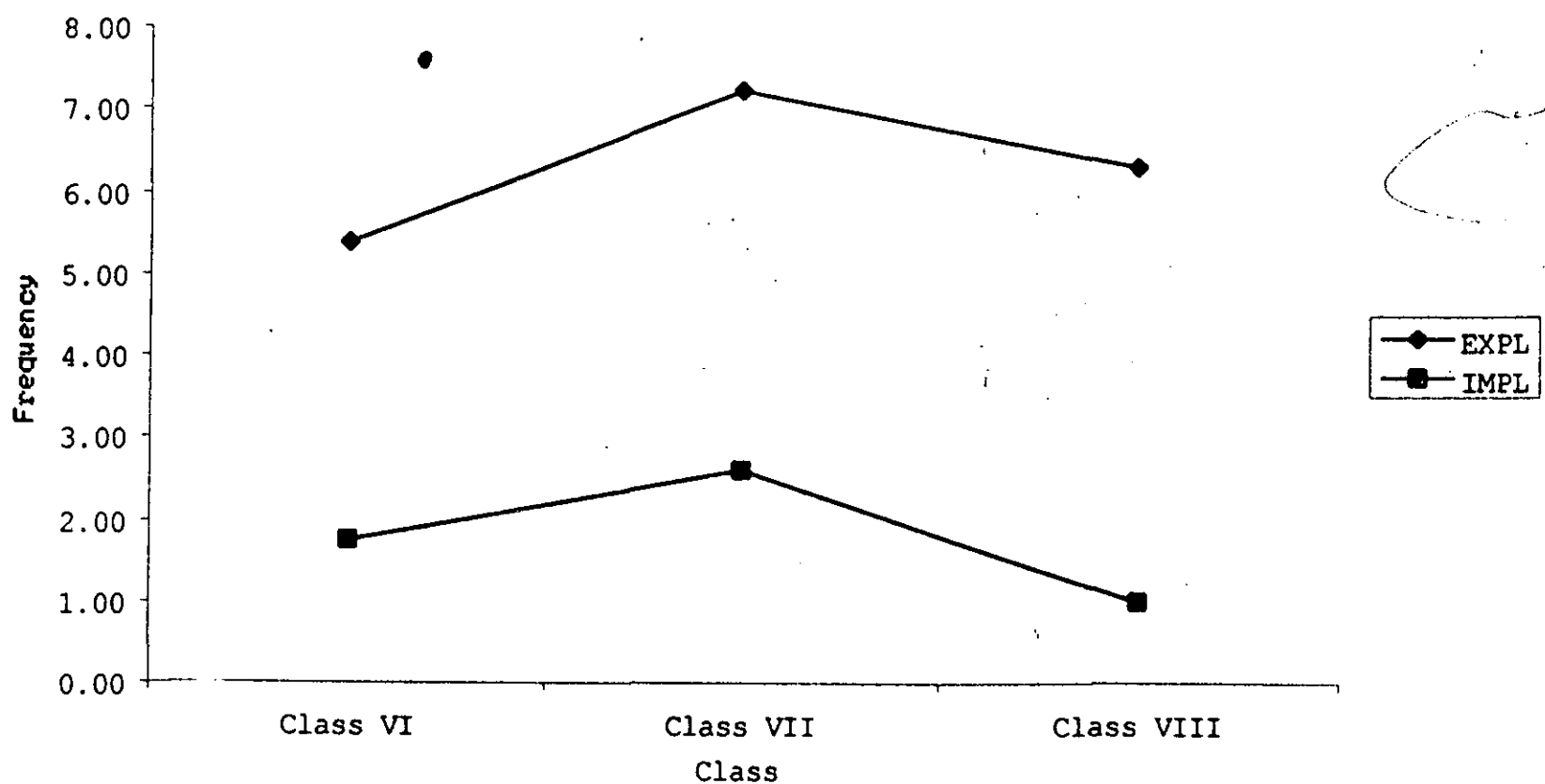


Fig. 4.3b: Class-wise mean frequencies of use of explicit and implicit transitions in school B



school B we find that implicit transitions are at a very low level compared to fairly high levels of the frequency of explicit transitions.

#### **4.5.4. Nominating Strategies (Q-Nomination)**

Discussed here are the most common nomination strategies used in the classrooms under investigation. For convenience, the discussion shall be restricted to the teacher asking questions and demanding a response, but this can mean any move that elicits student talk.

When the teacher encourages a student to talk, for example by asking a question, he/she has to make it clear who he/she wants to talk. The teacher can do this in a variety of ways, which we can call nomination strategies. The effective teacher consciously varies these strategies. The ineffective teacher either does not use variety or is not conscious of the strategies being used.

The various kinds of nominating strategies studied are:

- (a) NAME/Q: Teacher names or otherwise identifies student, then asks a question*
- (b) Q/NAME: Teacher asks a question, then identifies student*
- (c) Q/SEL: Teacher asks a question, then selects a student from those who have offered to answer*
- (d) Q/X: Teacher asks a question, then lets anybody answer*
- (e) CH/Q: Teacher calls for chorus response, then asks question*
- (f) Q/CH: Teacher asks a question, then calls for chorus response*

Fig. 4.4a: strategy-wise frequency of use of nominating strategies in school A in classes 6,7,8

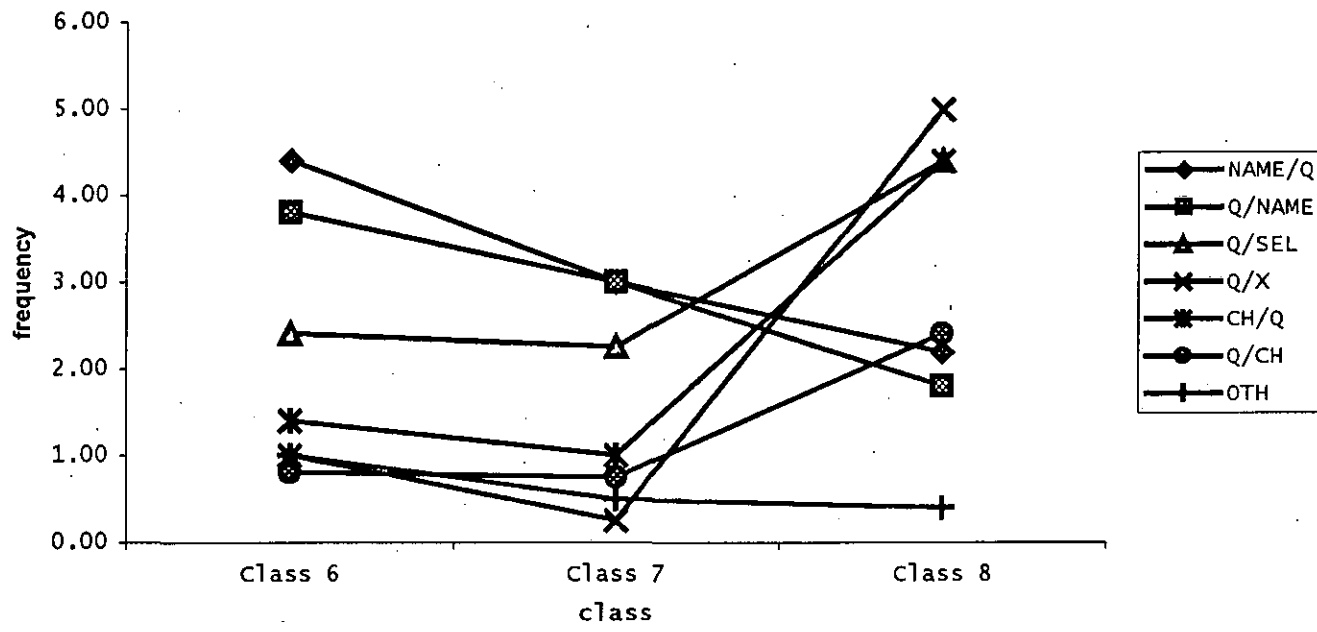
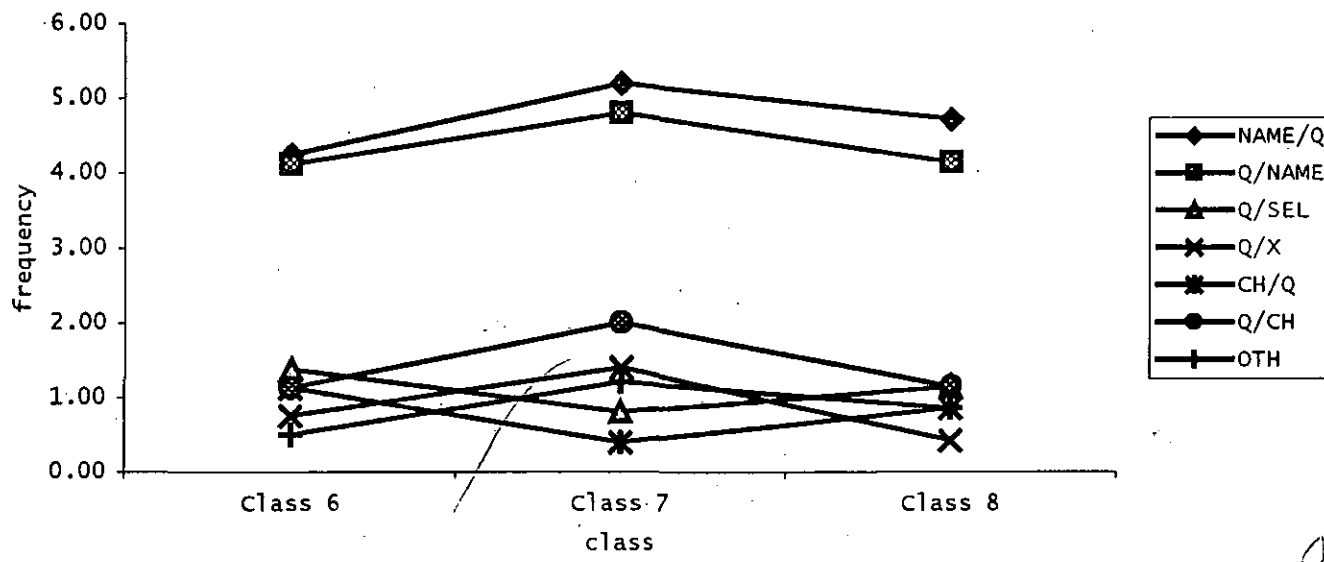


Fig. 4.4b: strategy-wise frequency of use of nominating strategies in school B in classes 6,7,8



(g) *OTH: Some other strategy is used.*

Fig. 4.4a shows that in School A the nominating strategies of the type NAME/Q and Q/NAME are of medium use in class VI, and decrease continuously in Class VII and Class VIII. Frequencies of strategies like Q/SEL, Q/X, CH/Q and Q/CH are still lower, and decrease from these low values in class VI to even lower in class VII, but show a considerable rise in class VIII from the Class VII level.

In school B, the frequencies of Q-Nomination strategies studied show more or less similar trends for all the classes VI, VII and VIII (see fig. 4.4b). The most important feature here is a clear-cut separation of Q-Nomination strategies with respect to frequencies in school B. There is a combination of strategies here with medium usage in all the classes as opposed to another combination of strategies with low frequency of use (see Fig. 4.4b). In school A, however, the Q-Nomination strategies are more or less homogeneously distributed in terms of frequency counts.

From Fig. 4.4c it is clear that different Q-Nomination strategies show rather similar trends in classes VI and VII in school A. All strategies except Q/CH have lesser values in class VII than in class VI, where it is same for both VI and VII. Also, we find that the frequencies of the use of the first two strategies, viz., use of NAME/Q and Q/NAME in class VIII is lesser than even class VII; whereas all other strategies are more frequent than those in class VI or class VIII. Fig. 4.4d shows the class-wise distribution of Q-Nomination strategies used in school B.

Fig. 4.4c: class-wise mean frequency of use of nominating strategies in school A

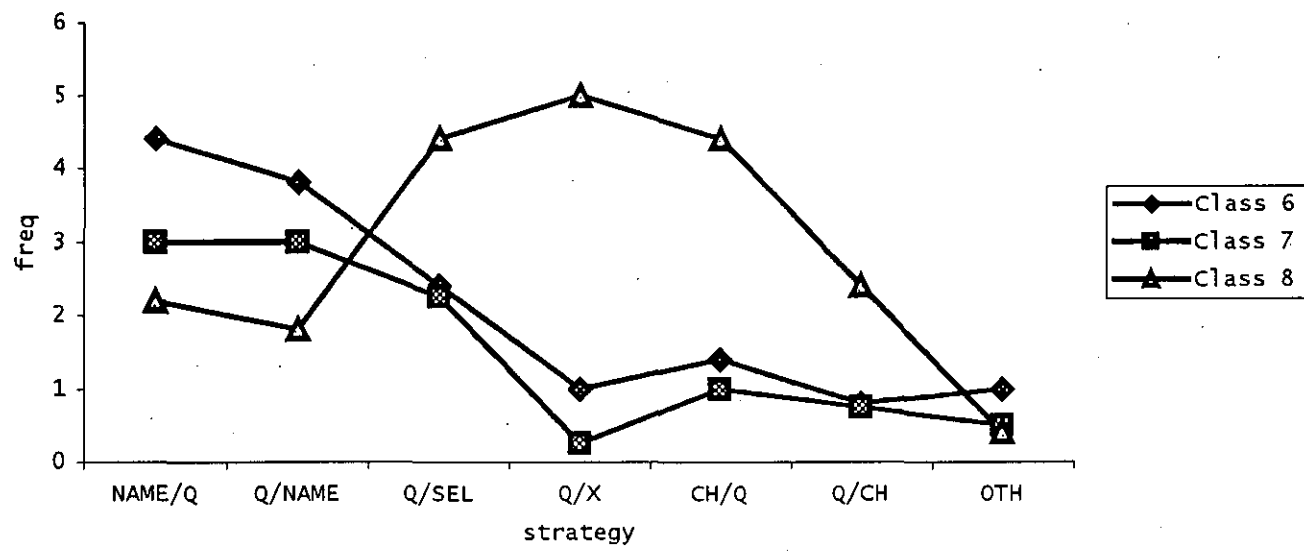
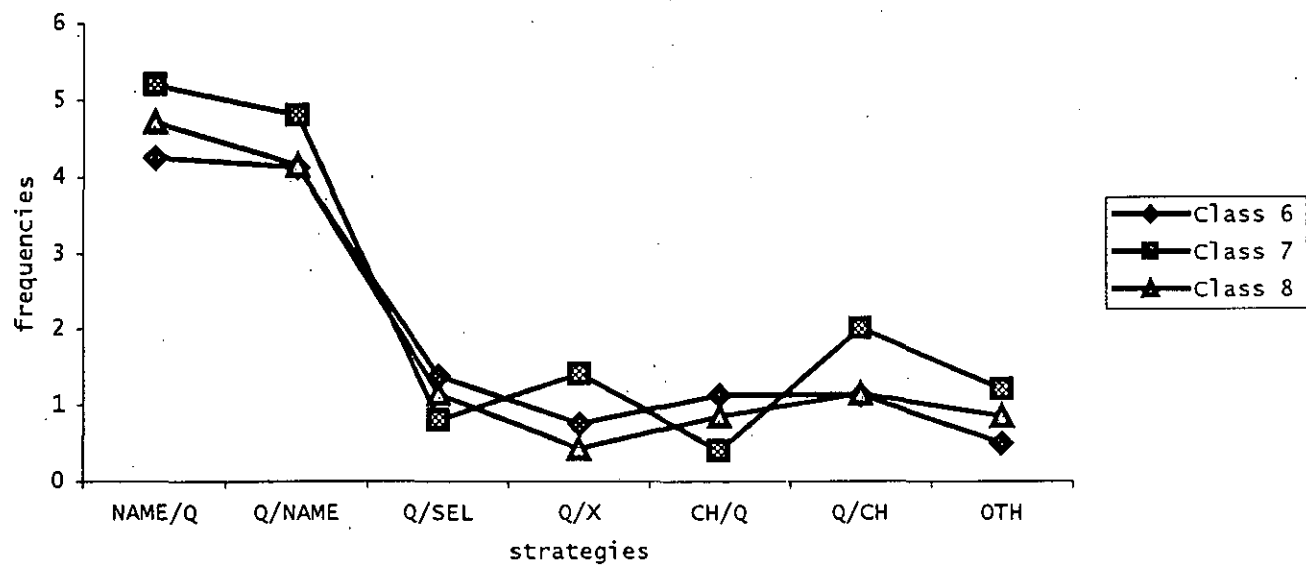


Fig.4.4d: class-wise mean frequency of use of nominating strategies in school B





#### 4.5.5. Presentation Style

Teacher presenting talk can present information, or it can present models of expression. Generally speaking, we may say, the information it offers is generalisation about English, the models are examples of English.

Both these functions are important. Neither is sufficient by itself. The teacher therefore has to strike a balance between the two, and has to decide whether to do one before the other or to mingle information and example. The various styles of presentation are summarised in the following table:

**Table 4.2**  
**Explanation of styles of presentation**

EGRUL	=	Examples followed by generalization
RULEG	=	Generalization followed by examples.
RUL/EG	=	Generalization mixed with example
RUL	=	Generalization only
EG	=	Example only

All strategies of presentation have low to extremely low usage pattern in School A (Fig. 4.5a). Further, Fig. 4.5c shows that RULEG falls sharply from low usage in classes VI and VII to very low usage in class VIII. Frequency of RUL/EG remain almost constant in this case, with EGRUL initially falling in class VII, but increasing again in class VIII. RUL fall from the class VI level to extremely low use in class VII before rising again in class VIII. The frequency of use of EG is almost some in classes having the extremely low range, rising a little in class VIII, but still remaining in the low-usage range.

Fig.4.5a: strategy-wise frequency of different presentation styles in different classes in school A

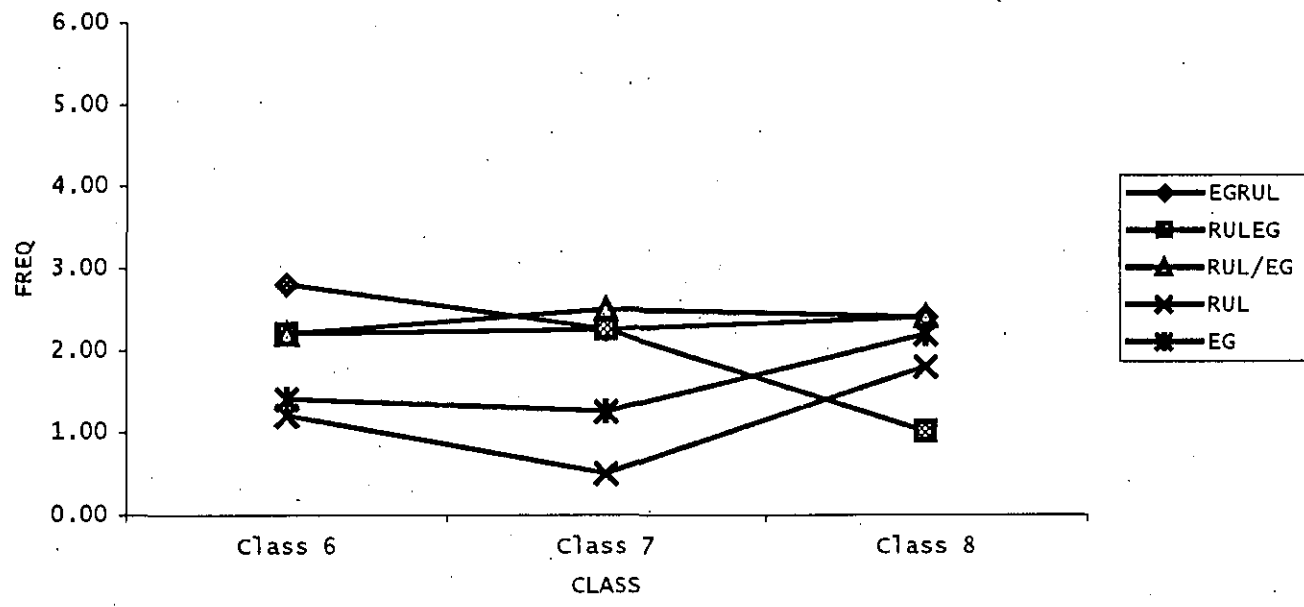


Fig 4.5b: strategy-wise frequency of different presentation styles in different classes in school B

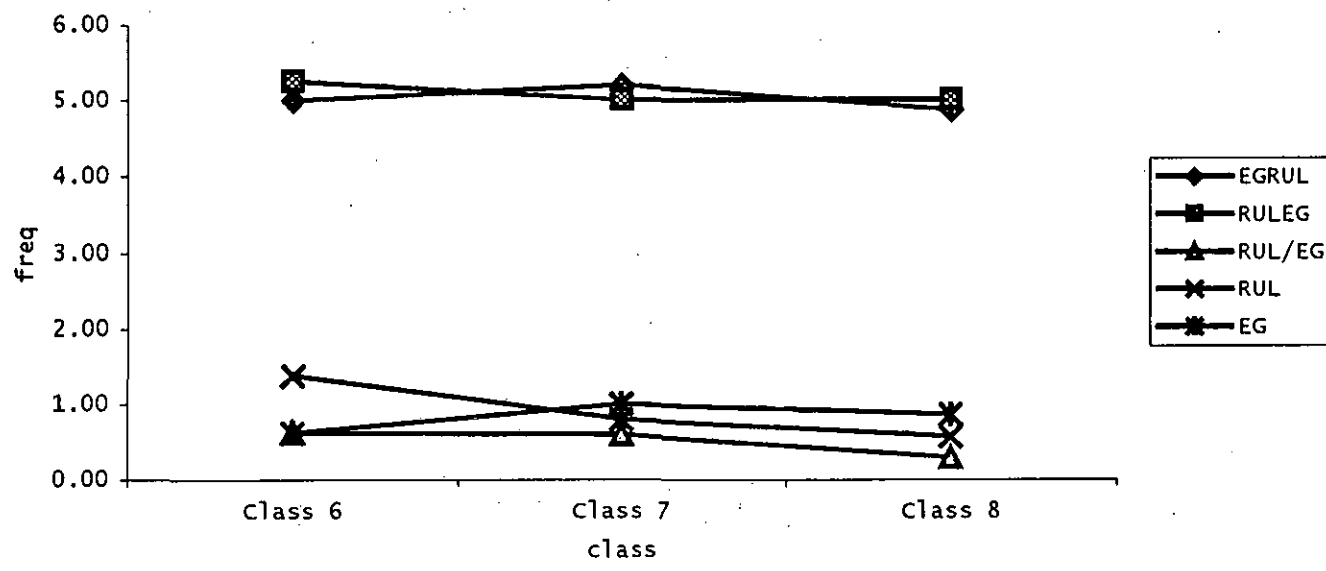


Fig. 4.5c: class-wise mean frequencies of use of different presentation styles in school A

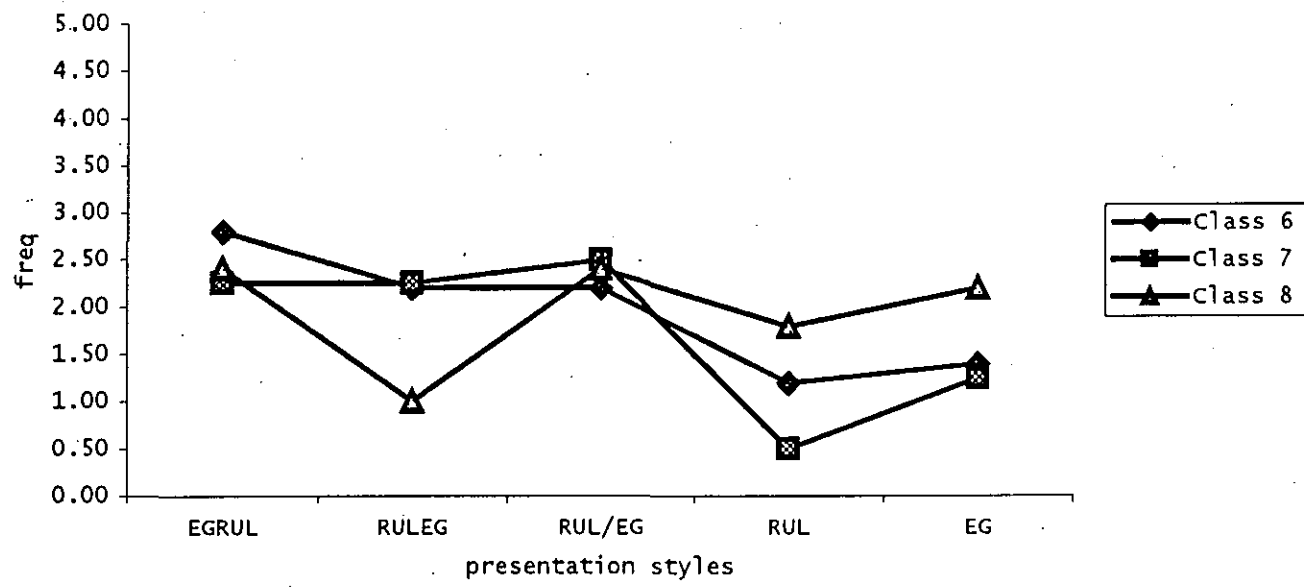
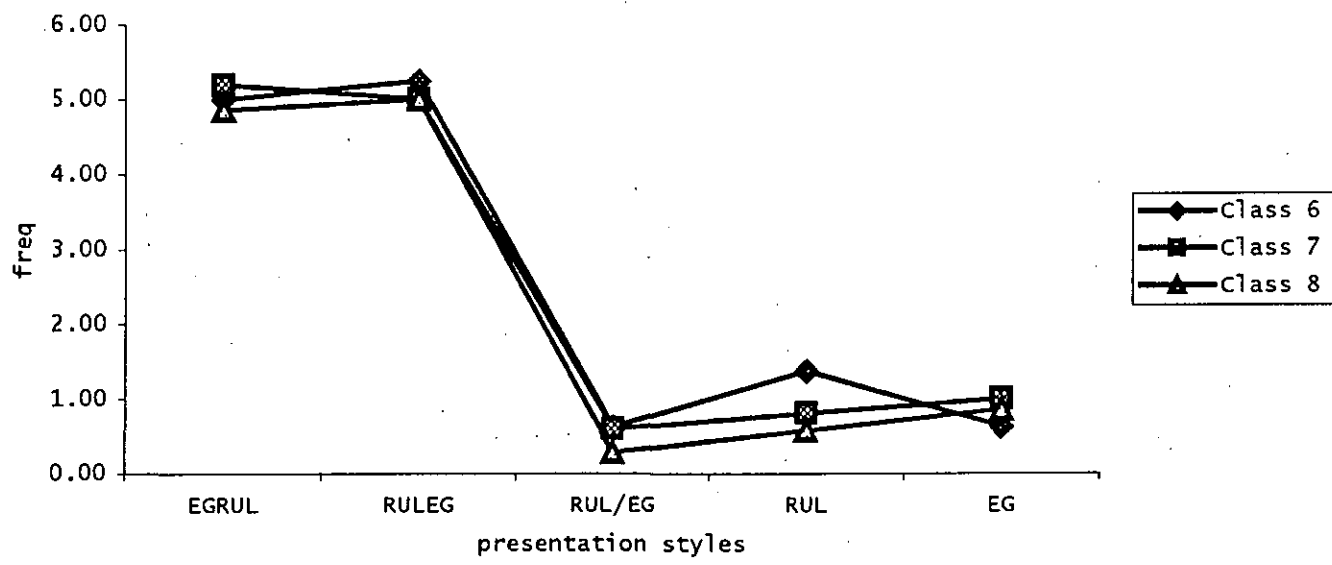


Fig. 4.5d: class-wise mean frequencies of use of different presentation styles in school B



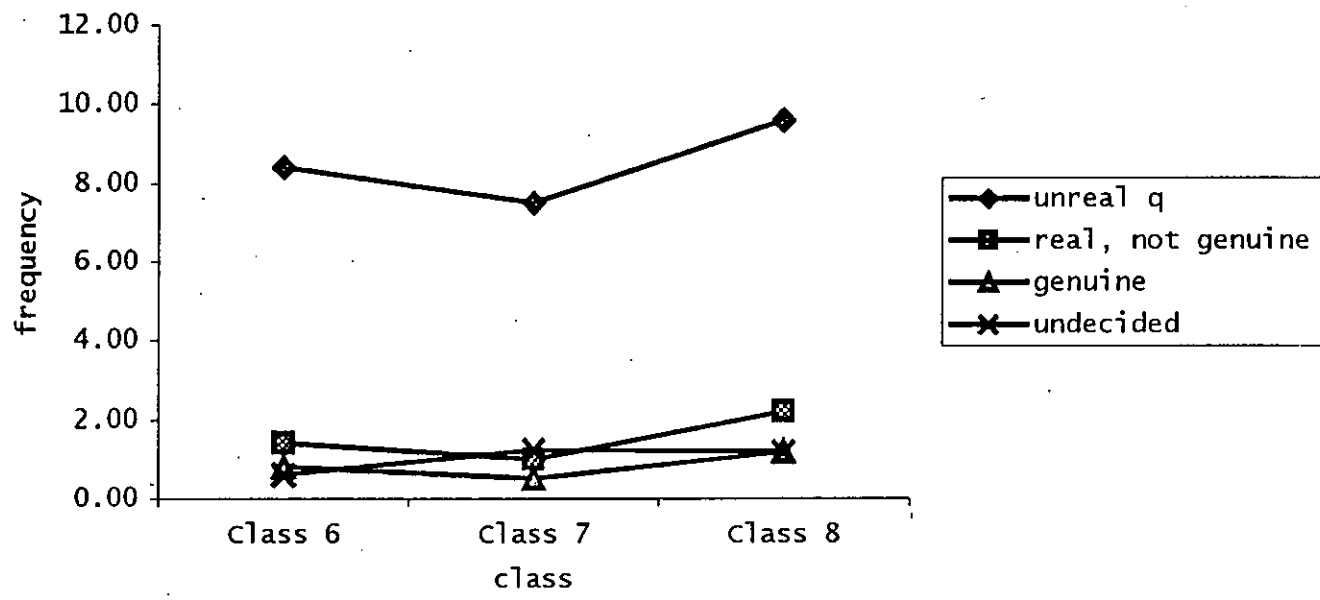
As Fig. 4.5b shows, in school B, we find, as with the Q-Nominating strategies, a clustering of features with EGRUL and RULEG having a medium-usage frequency (around 5) and RUL/EG, RUL and EG categories having an extremely low-usage frequency (below 2). The feature bundling for school B can be seen clearly in Fig. 4.5d.

#### **4.5.6. Questioning Type: Genuineness**

In ordinary conversation, we generally ask questions because there is something we do not know and want to know. But in the classroom this is not always the case; when teacher asks a question, they usually know the answer already -- they are simply testing the student's knowledge. So we can say that these questions are unreal questions. But let us suppose a teacher asks a real question -- one the students don't know the answer to. We still need to know whether the teacher is genuinely interested in the answer, rather than simply in the student's ability to frame a response. A genuine question, then, is one in which (a) the teacher does not already know the answer, and (b) the teacher wants or needs to know the answer.

Fig. 4.6a shows the UNREAL questions in school A with high usage, at a level slightly higher than in school B (Fig. 4.6b). All the others are of extremely low usage in school A with the frequencies of the REAL, NOT GENUINE and GENUINE questions falling slightly, while the usage of questions with UNDECIDED status effecting a slight increase.

Fig.4.6a: mean frequency of use of different question types in different classes of school A by question type



4.6b: mean frequency of use of different question types in different classes of school B by question type

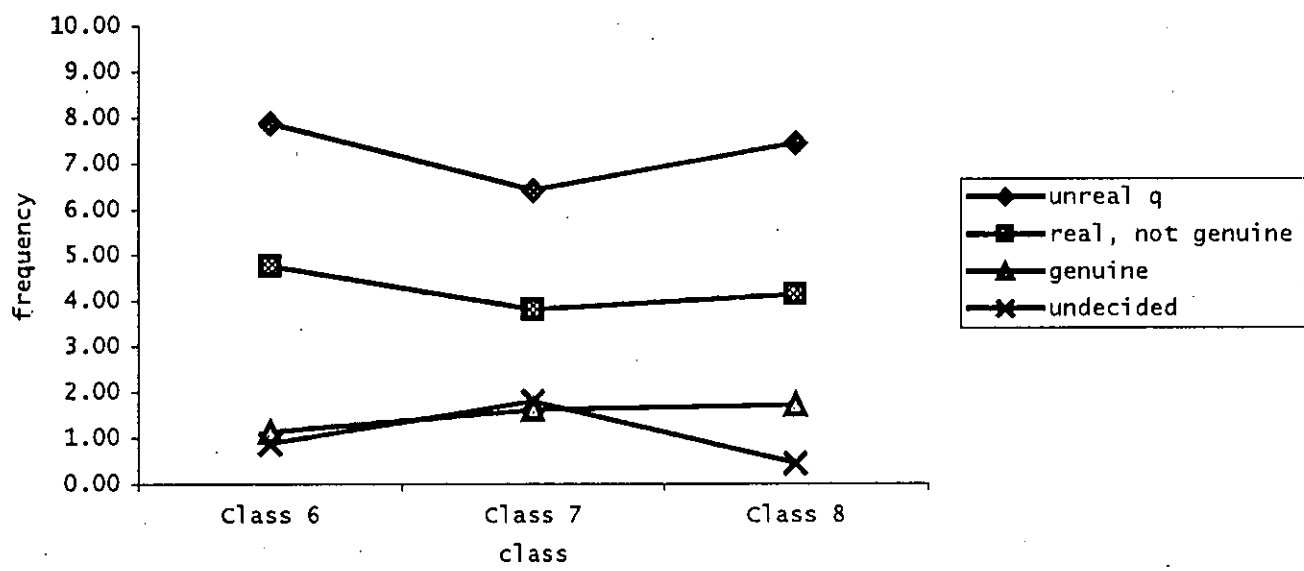


Fig 4.6c: class-wise frequency of questioning types in school A

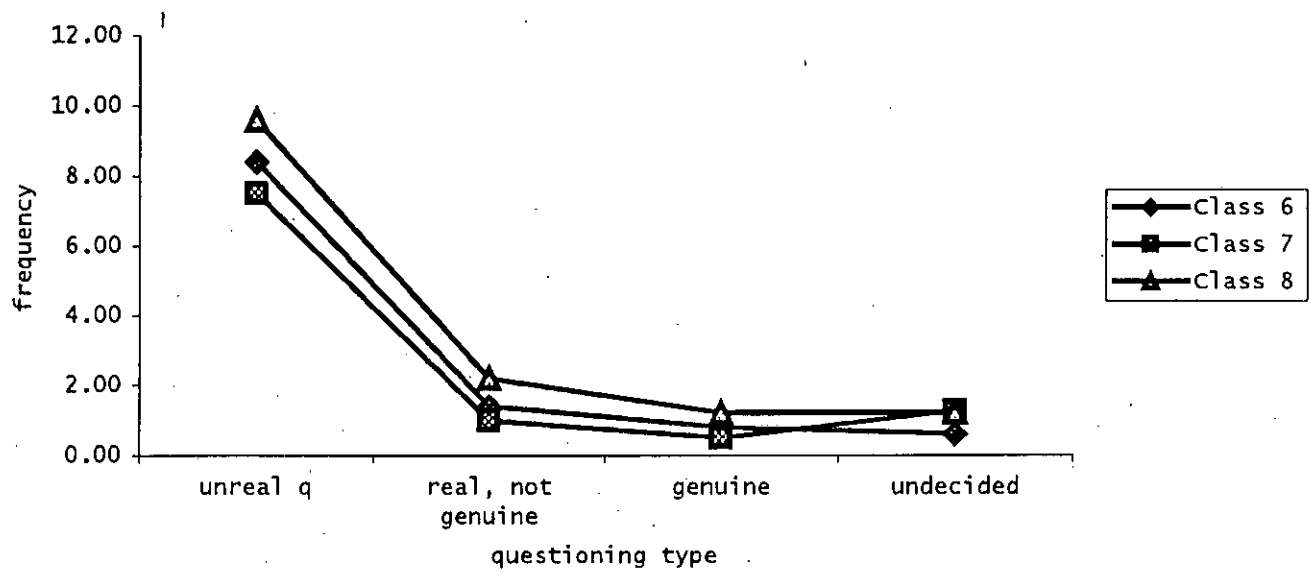
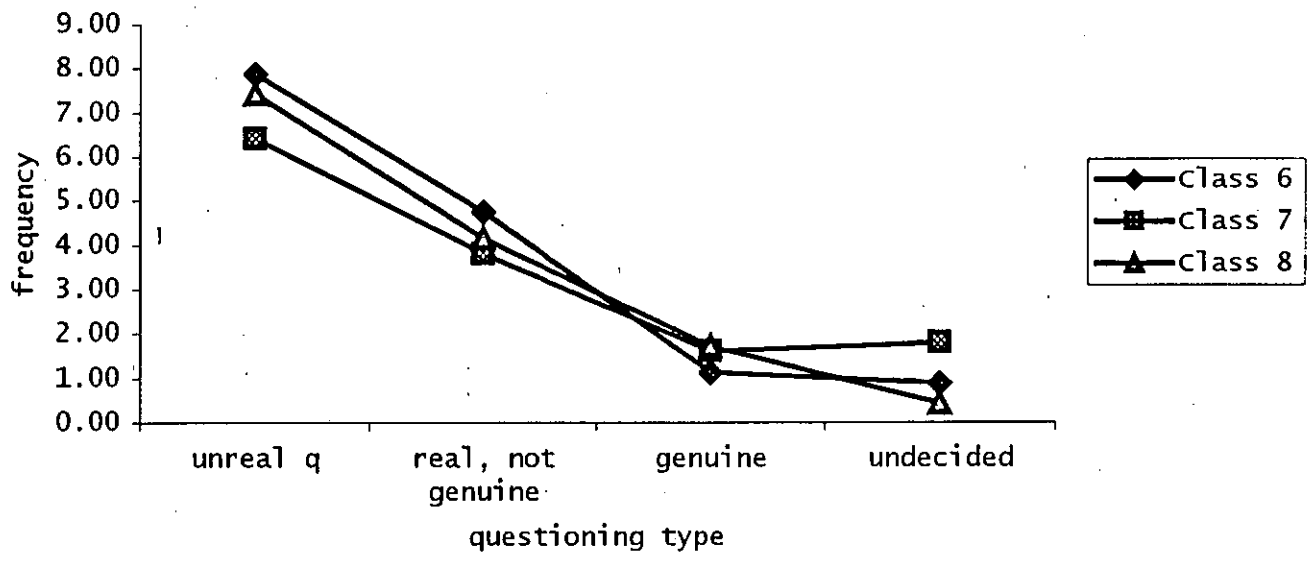


fig 4.6d: class-wise frequency of questioning types in school B



In school B, however, UNREAL questions have a high usage. It falls to a low value in class VII from the class VI level, then rises again in Class VIII (Fig. 4.6b). Real but NOT GENUINE questions have a medium usage, behaving similarly as in the case of UNREAL questions, falling first in class VII (from class VI level), before rising again slightly in class VIII. GENUINE questions have a low usage frequency, and rises continuously from VI to VII to VIII. Questions of UNDECIDED genuineness have a low usage too, rising first in class VII, and then falling to extremely low levels in class VIII.

#### **4.5.7. Questions: Cognitive Type**

Different kinds of questions make different demands on the listener who has to supply a suitable response. It is impossible to produce very detailed categorisations of question types. For present purposes, however, we shall distinguish simply three kinds of questions ('question' is a loose term -- we are interested in any piece of teacher-talk which directly requires a student to respond).

Three kinds of questions are these:

1. ECHOIC questions are those which only require a mechanical response - an 'echo'. These involve repetition, substitution, reading aloud and other such relatively unthinking' responses. Responses of this kind are corrected by teacher on purely formal grounds.
2. EPISTEMIC questions are those which require the student to use some cognitive faculty or summon up some factual knowledge. The response may,

FIG. 4.7a: class-wise mean frequency of use of question type in school A classified by required student response

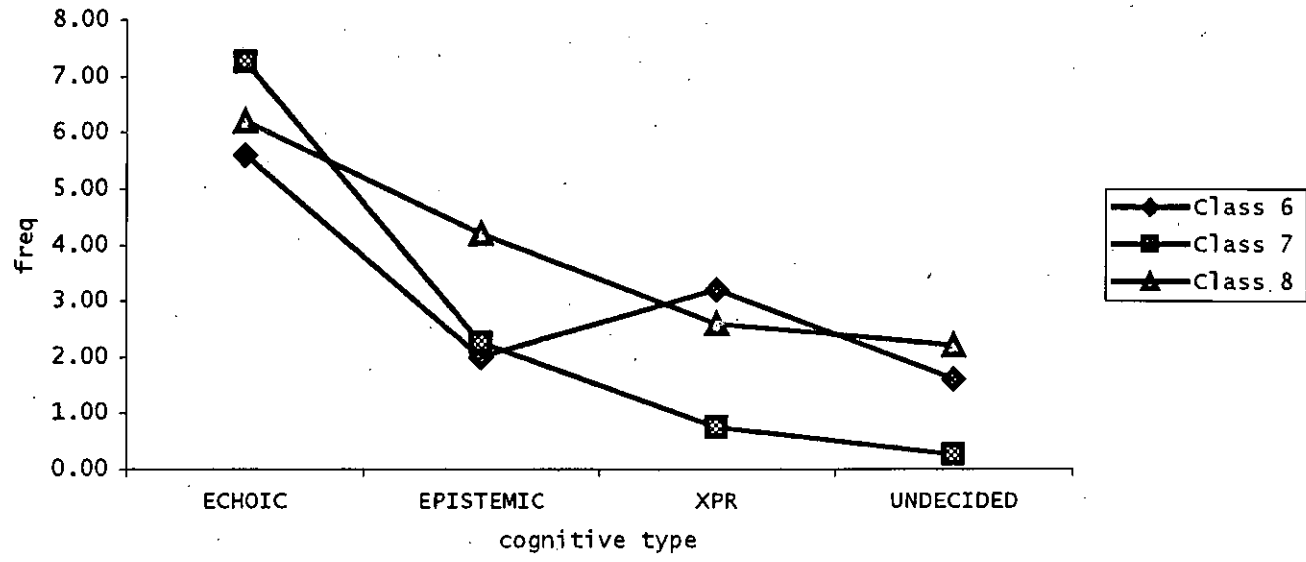
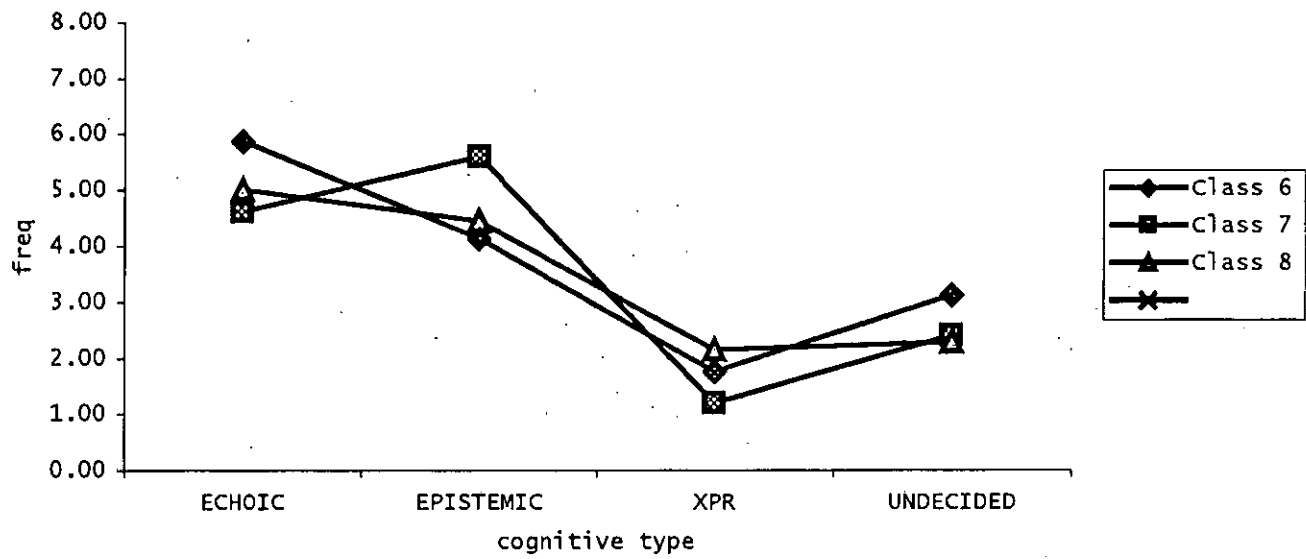


Fig 4.7b: class-wise mean frequency of use of question type in school B classified by required student response





for example require the use of memory, or recognition, or a logical process such as induction or deduction. Responses of this kind can be corrected on formal grounds and also on content grounds: the teacher may find fault with them because they are badly expressed or because they are factually wrong.

3. EXPRESSIVE questions are those which require the student to express a personal opinion or emotion - something which they alone can say is true because they alone know what they believe or feel. Such responses can be corrected formally; but they cannot be corrected for content - what you feel is what you feel.

The ratio of questions demanding response of a particular kind by the students in different classes in schools A and B are shown in Fig. 4.7a and 4.7b. In class VI, the different types range from medium for echoic to low in epistemic, expressive and undecided, expressive being slightly more frequent. We find from these figures that in class VII in school A, the maximum frequency is that of echoic, in the medium range, falling to low usage for epistemic type, and to extremely low usage for expressive type. In class VIII, the usage frequency decreases steadily from echoic to epistemic to expressive, and then only marginal decrease is seen for question of undecided type. In school B, similar decreasing trends are seen for questions requiring echoic, epistemic and expressive types of responses, but undecided type increases considerably in frequency.

Fig. 4.7c and 4.7d show the feature bundling in the high and low usage levels of frequency of questions by type of required response. While in school A, echoic questions are in high use, the rest are of low usage. In school B, question

Fig 4.7c: mean frequency of questions classified by question type (with respect to student response required) in different classes of school A

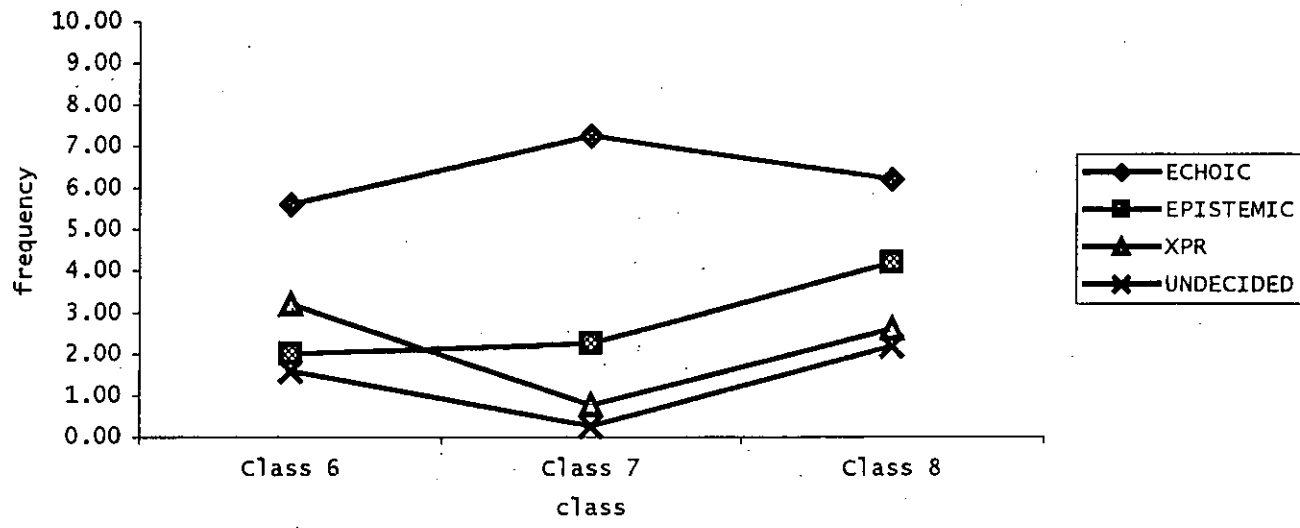


fig. 4.7d: mean frequency of questions classified by question type (with respect to student response required) in different classes of school B

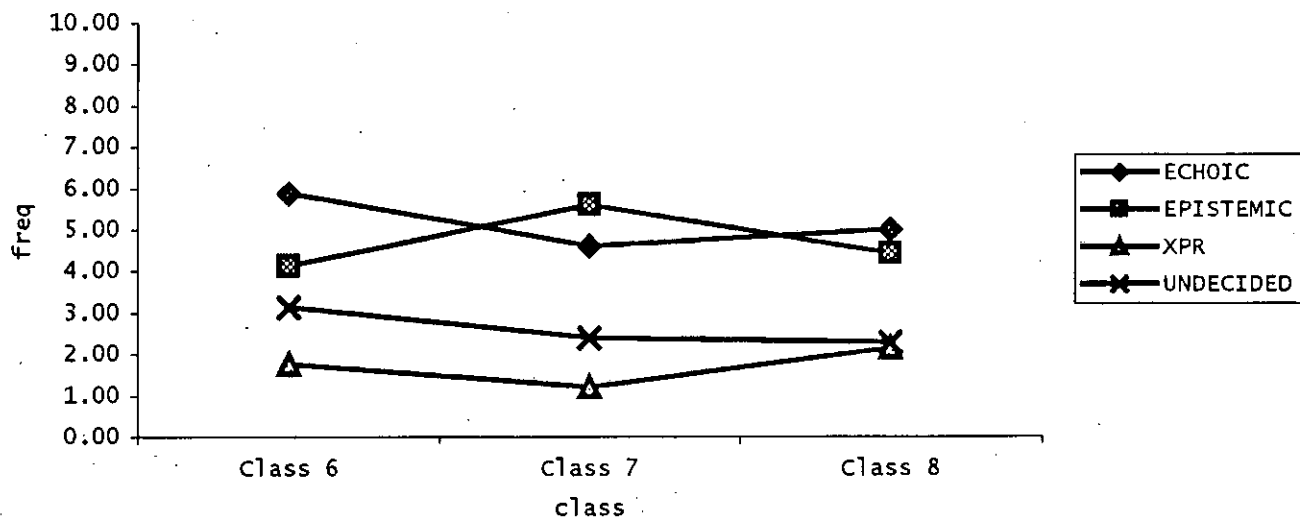
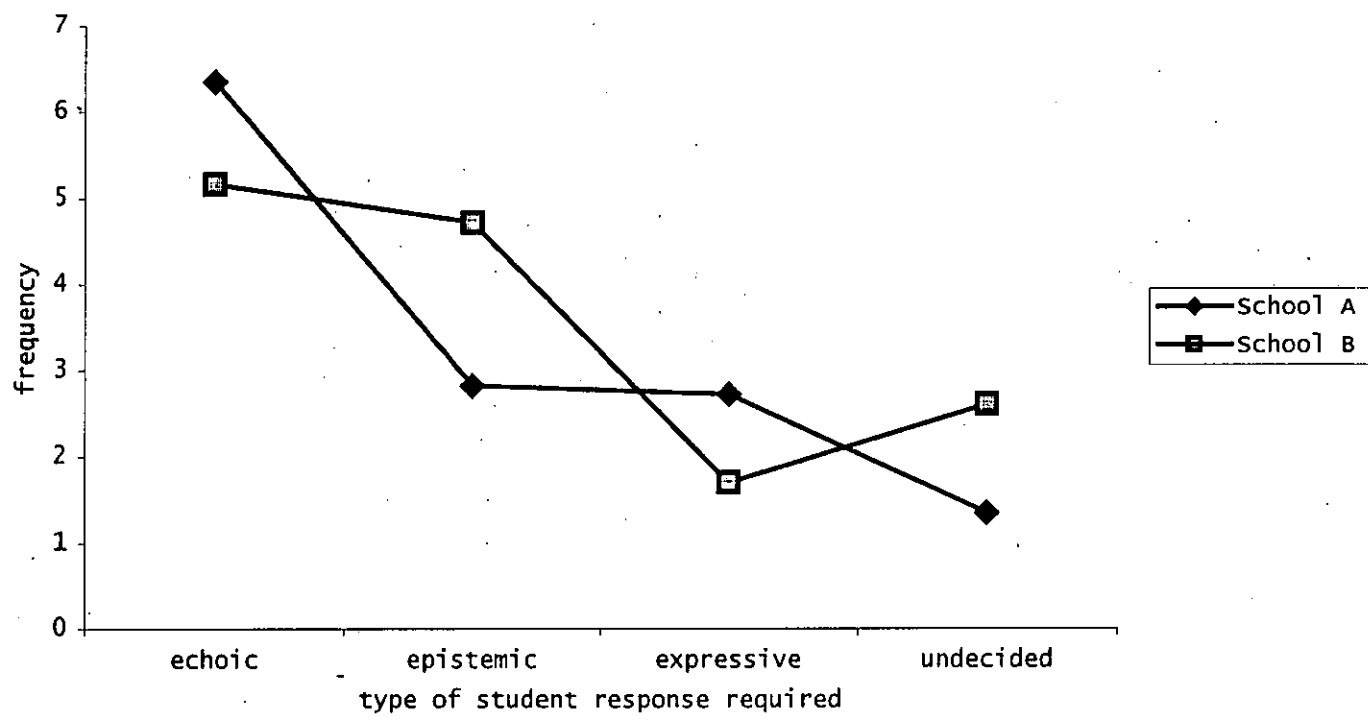


Fig.4.7e:mean frequency of questions of various cognitive types (in terms of required student response) in schools A and B



requiring both echoic and epistemic responses are of high usage, with questions requiring expressive and undecided responses being of low usage.

Patterns of question type in the two schools have been plotted in Fig. 4.7e.

#### **4.5.8. Evaluation of Student Response**

Teachers vary considerably in their evaluating behaviour. First of all, some teachers simply evaluate more than others. Next, some teachers are more positive than others in their evaluation: even if they were handling the same students giving the same responses, their assessment of the responses would appear to be different. Finally, all teachers have their own favourite way of giving positive and negative feedback -- of praising and discouraging.

Categories of evaluative talk used here for purposes of analysis are:

**EXTREMELY POSITIVE (XPOS):** The form and expression of the evaluation is intended to be heard as a very positive reaction to what the student has said.

**POSITIVE (POS):** The evaluation will be interpreted as positive but not extremely positive.

**NEUTRAL, AMBIGUOUS or MIXED (NEU):** The evaluation either leaves it unclear whether the teacher is in favour of the response or not; or it simultaneously praises one aspect of the response and criticizes another (e.g. Yes but...)

**NEGATIVE (NEG):** The evaluation will be taken as negative, but only mildly so.

Fig. 4.8a: evaluation of student response in terms of degree of positivity or negativity in school A

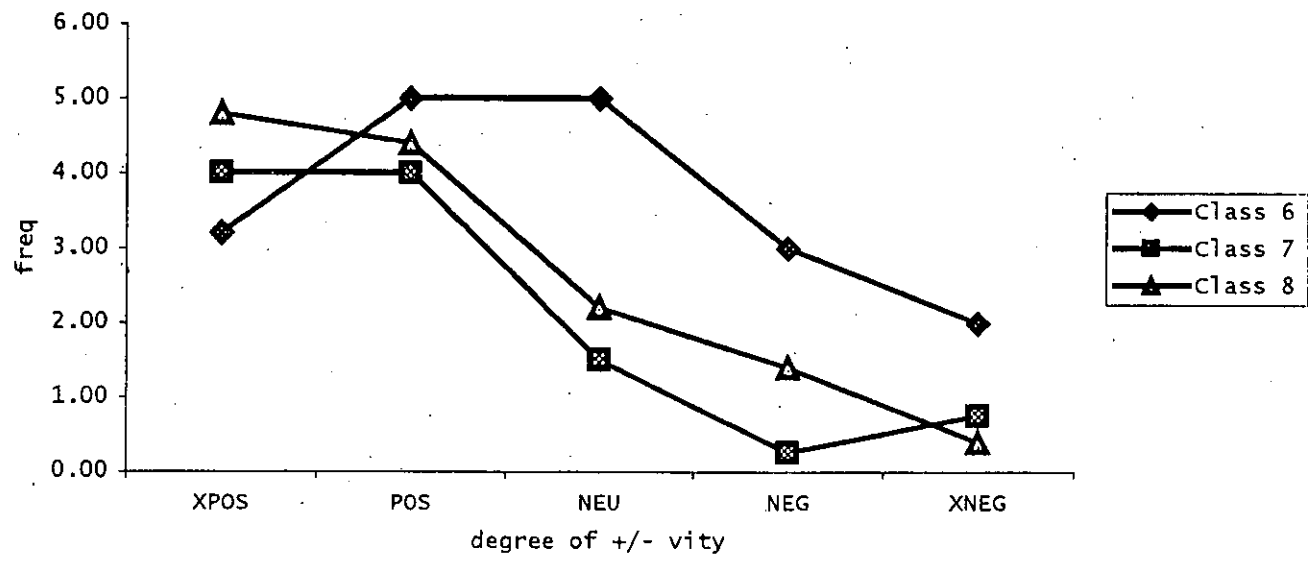
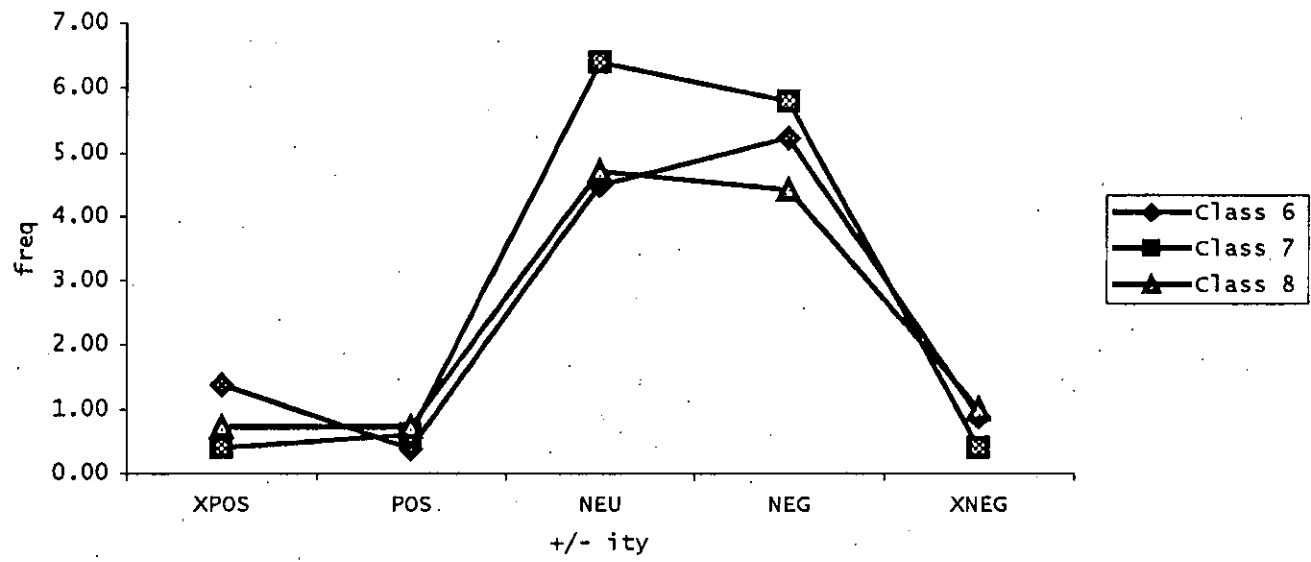


Fig 4.8b: evaluation of student response in terms of degree of positivity or negativity in school B



**EXTREMELY NEGATIVE (XNEG):** The form and content of the evaluation is intended to be heard as a very negative reaction to what the student has said.

From Fig. 4.8a, it is clear that in school A, the degree of positivity to student response increases as one proceeds from Class VI to VII to VIII. Fig.4.8a also reveals that there is a general decrease in the positivity of evaluation of student response as one moves from class VI to class VII in all but XPOS responses with class VIII displaying frequency counts between those of VI and VII for NEG, NEU and POS responses, while XNEG responses are maximum for VI, and minimum for VIII with frequencies for class VII coming between them. The situation is just the opposite for XPOS responses, but while XNEG responses hover around the low-frequency side, XPOS responses occur with higher frequencies. We also find, from Fig. 4.8c, that in class VI in school A, the teacher uses positive to neutral responses with medium frequency, while in classes VII and VIII the teacher uses XPOS and POS responses. Fig. 4.8b shows that the mean frequency values for evaluation in all classes in school B displays a similar trend, with very low usage for XNEG, POS and XPOS responses, and higher usage for NEG and NEU responses. Fig. 4.8d shows clearly the feature bundling of NEU and NEG responses with their frequencies of use, ranging from medium (around 4) to high (around 6); while the frequencies of XNEG, POS and XPOS evaluations are low.

The positivity of evaluation of student response for any particular class in any school can be expressed as a Response Evaluation Index (REX) symbolised

Fig. 4.8c: evaluation of student response in different classes of school A by type of response

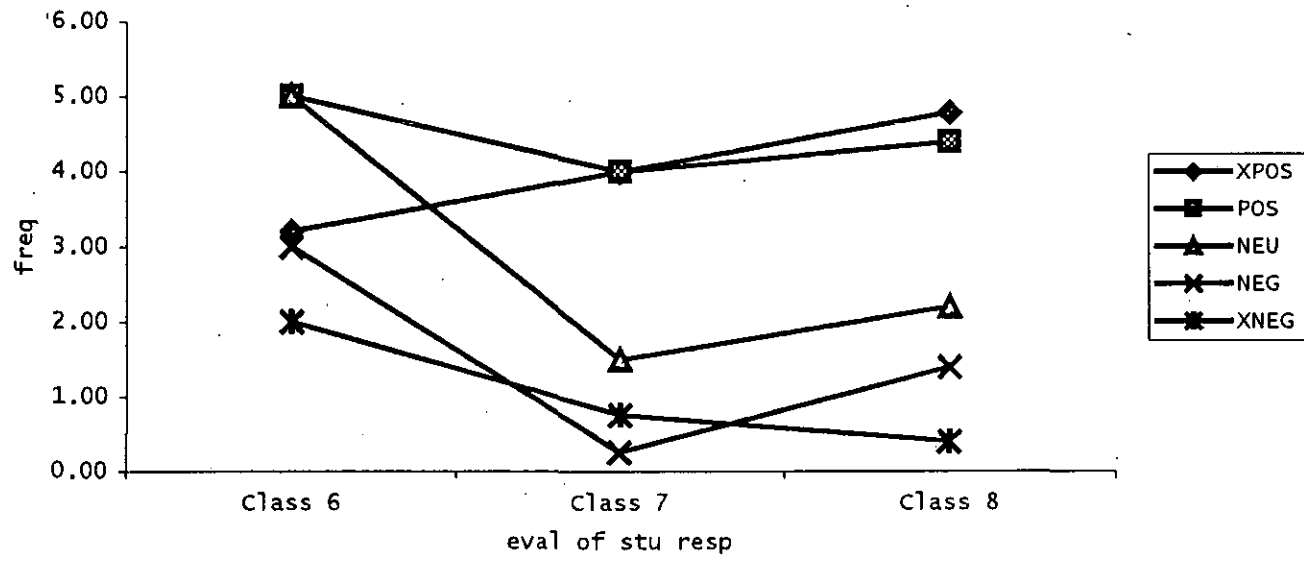
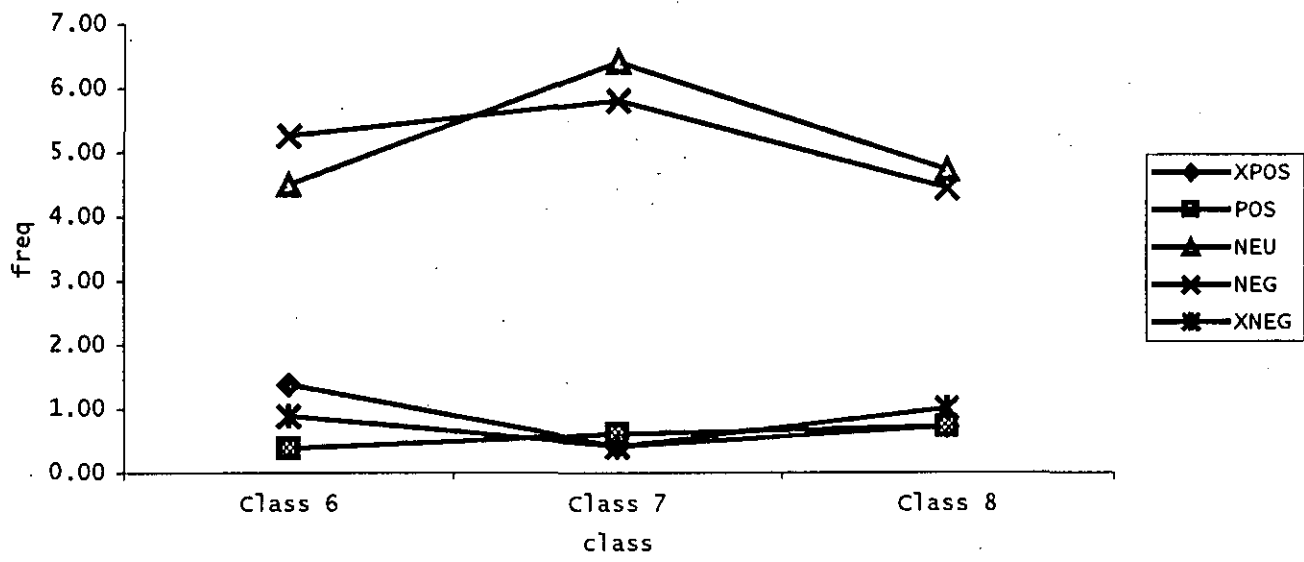


fig. 4.8d: evaluation of student response in different classes of school B by type of response



as  $\epsilon$ , as the sum of weighted (mean) frequency counts for each category or response evaluation, as follows:

$$\epsilon_a = \sum w_i f_i \dots\dots\dots \text{(Equation 4.1)}$$

where  $\epsilon_a$  = response evaluation index for class a

$f_i$  = mean frequency of  $i^{\text{th}}$  degree of response evaluation and

$w_i$  is a multivalued constant depending on  $i^{\text{th}}$  degree of response evaluation.

The value of  $w$  may arbitrarily be set at +10 for  $i = \text{XPOS}$ , +5 for  $i = \text{POS}$ , 0 for  $i = \text{NEU}$ , -5 for  $i = \text{NEG}$  and -10 for  $i = \text{XNEG}$ ; thus  $\epsilon$  for any class can now be calculated. For example,  $\epsilon$  for class VII in School A can be calculated from equation 4.1 as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon_{\text{VII}} &= 10. f_{\text{XPOS}} + 5. f_{\text{POS}} + 0. f_{\text{NEU}} + (-5). f_{\text{NEG}} + (-10). f_{\text{XNEG}} \\ &= 10 \times 4 + 5 \times 4 + 0 \times 1.5 + (-5) \times 0.25 + (-10) \times 0.75 \\ &= 51.25 \end{aligned}$$

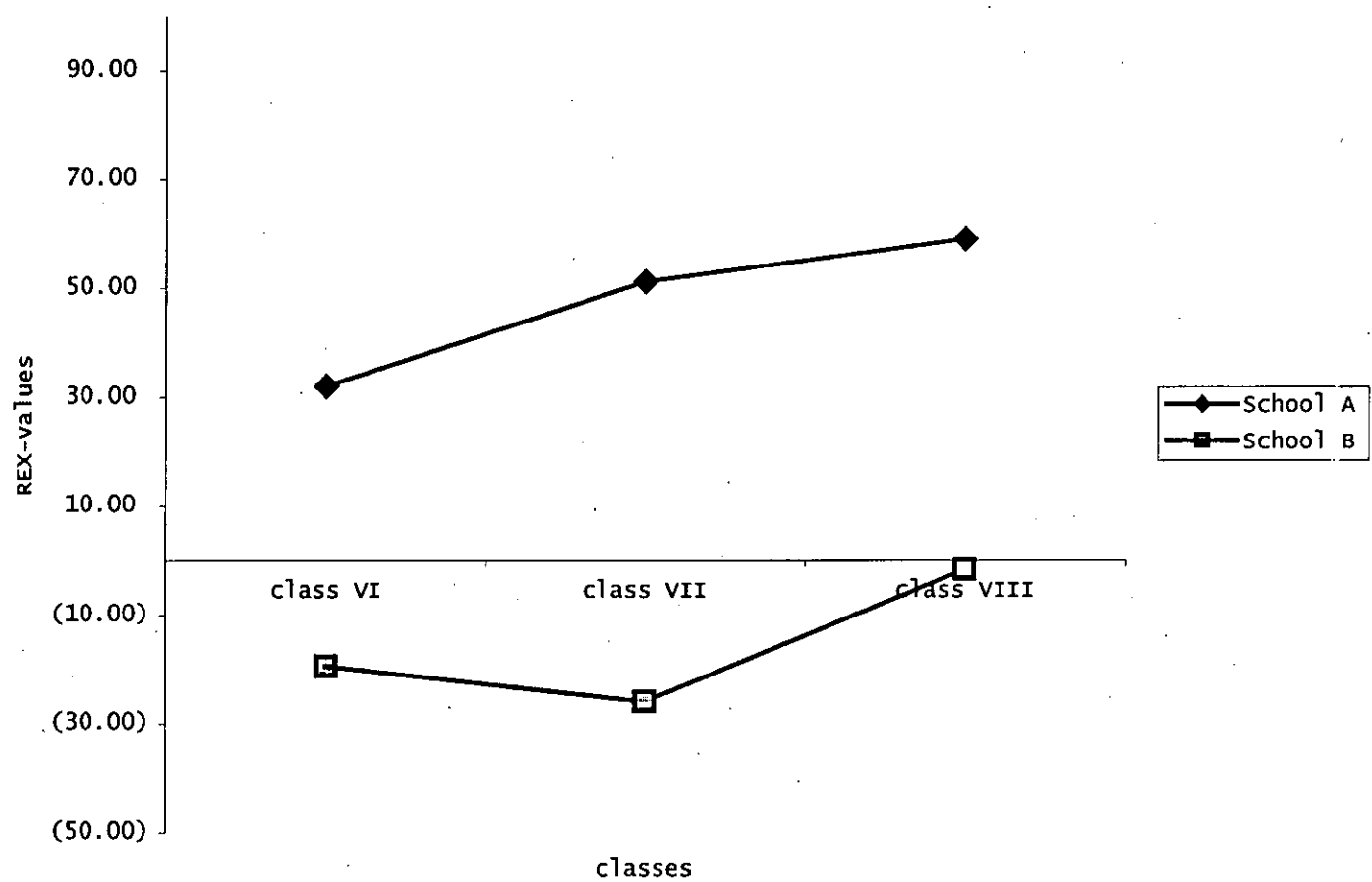
The values for  $\epsilon$  for other classes (VI, VIII in School A, and VI, VII and VIII in School B) may be calculated and plotted to get Fig. 4.8e, which records the  $\epsilon$  values for schools A and B for classes VI, VII and VIII.

#### 4.5.9. Teacher Domination

It is often true that teachers talk too much and students talk too little. but this is a dangerous general accusation to make for there are times when it is



Fig.4.8e: REX values for classes VI, VII and VIII in schools A and B



entirely appropriate for the teacher to do the talking and the students to do the listening. It is likely, however, in language lesson where oral competence is a part of our objective or where student participation is seen as worth pursuing in its own right, that we will decide that the teacher talks too much.

Just how much the teacher's talk dominates the proceedings can only be fully appreciated by measuring it. Even the most experienced of teachers, and the most seasoned of observers, are still surpassed when they actually quantify the proportions of teacher and student talk over a period of time.

This section attempts only the most basic of measurements and helps to answer these questions:

- How much time does the teacher spend talking in schools A and B?
- How much time do a student or students spend talking in schools A and B?
- How much time is spent in silence (or confusion) in schools A and B?

**Table 4.3: Explanation of teacher domination variables**

---

TE	Teacher is talking in English
TO	Teacher is talking in another language
SE	Student is talking in English
SO	Student is talking in another language
SILPOS	Silence, but contributing positively to the lesson
SILNEG	Silence, but not contributing positively to the lesson.

---

Fig. 4.9a: STT and TTT in school A

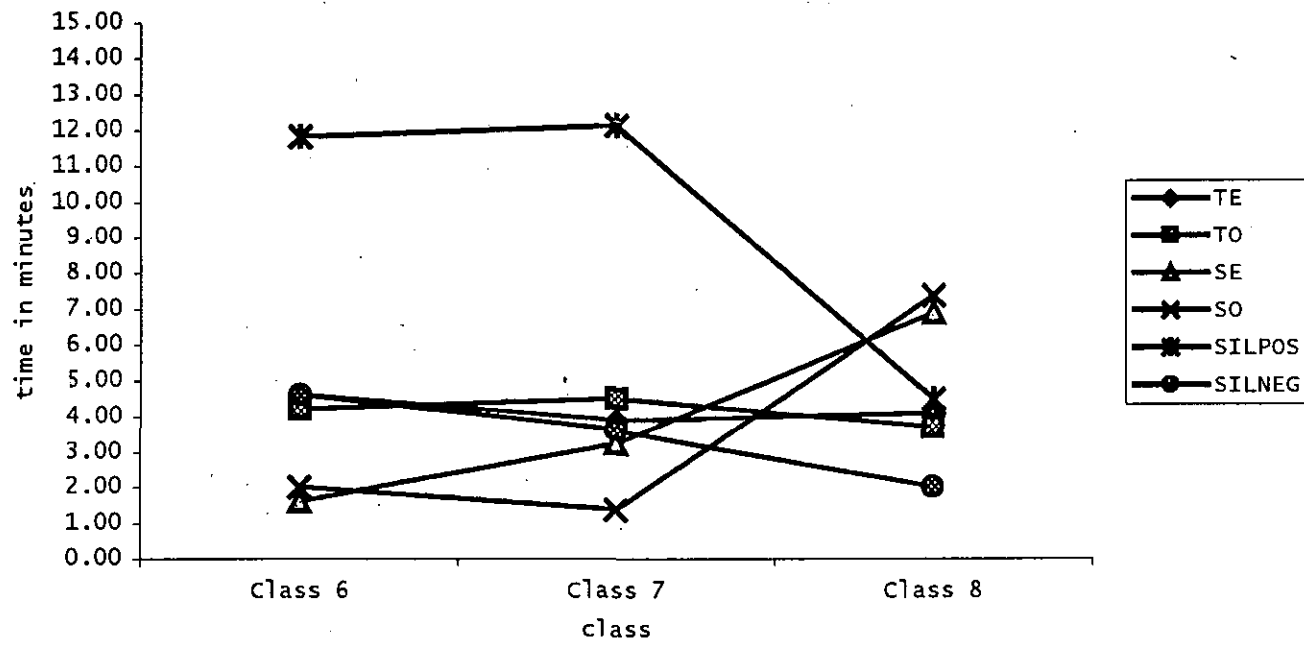
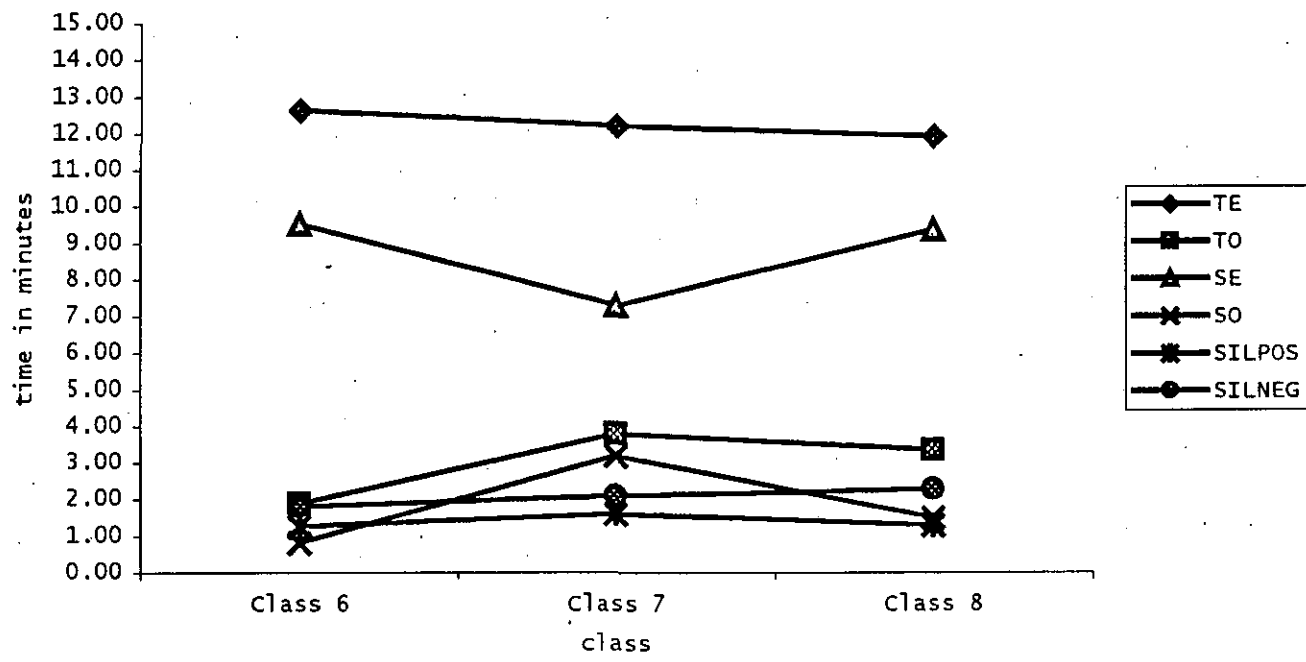


Fig. 4.9b: STT and TTT in school B



In school A, in classes VI and VII silence is moderately frequent and drops sharply in VIII to very low level; all others occur with low frequency; and only students speaking English or otherwise (STT) increased to moderately frequent level. TTT and silences are much less frequent.

In school B, in contrast, we find that the teacher in speaking most frequently (for around 12 minutes on an average) in English. Also, the students try to speak almost always in English. All other variables occur at low frequency in all classes.

The clustering of talking time and silence in different classes in the two schools can be seen quite clearly in the figures 4.9a and b.

#### **4.5.10. Degree of Control over Narrative**

The idea of free and controlled talk seems to be straightforward: we often speak, for example, of free conversation and controlled drills. Yet when we examine classroom talk more closely, we find that these terms are by no means precise. Very little student talk is fully free in the sense that what guides neither its form nor its content has gone before. Yet not much talk is fully controlled either: it is usually possible for the speaker to introduce some individual variation if only in a choice of word or intonation.

Nevertheless, the distinction between free and controlled response is useful and it helps us to distinguish between markedly different methods and styles of teaching. The following table gives the description of the categories of controlling student narrative.

Fig. 4.10a: degree of control over narrative in school A

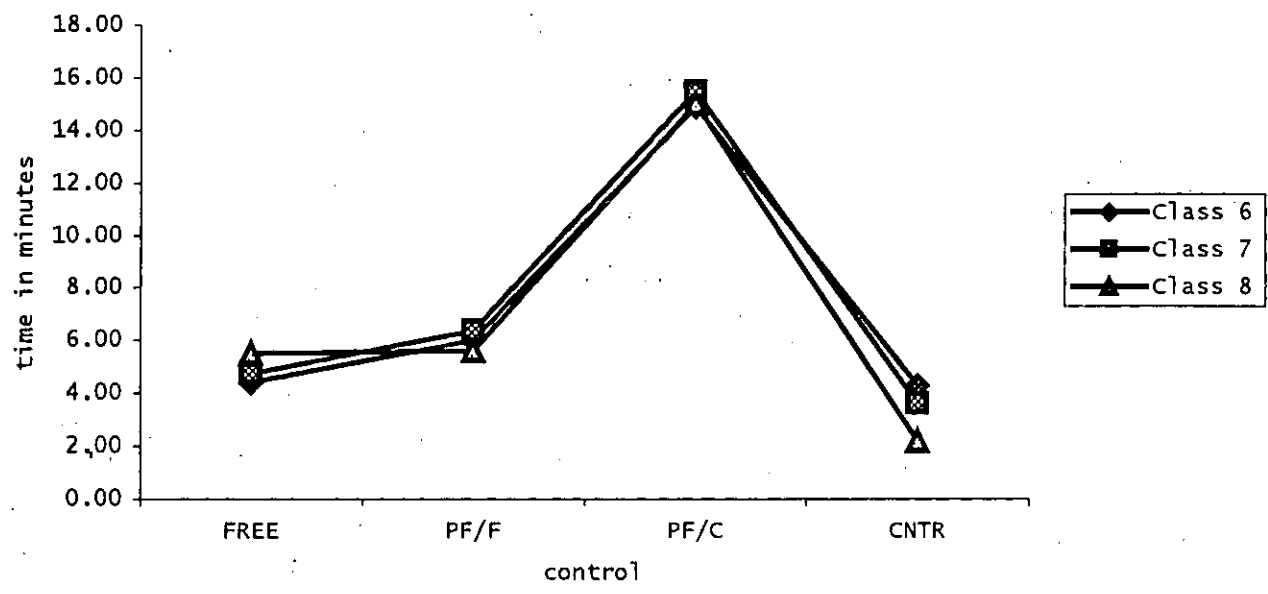
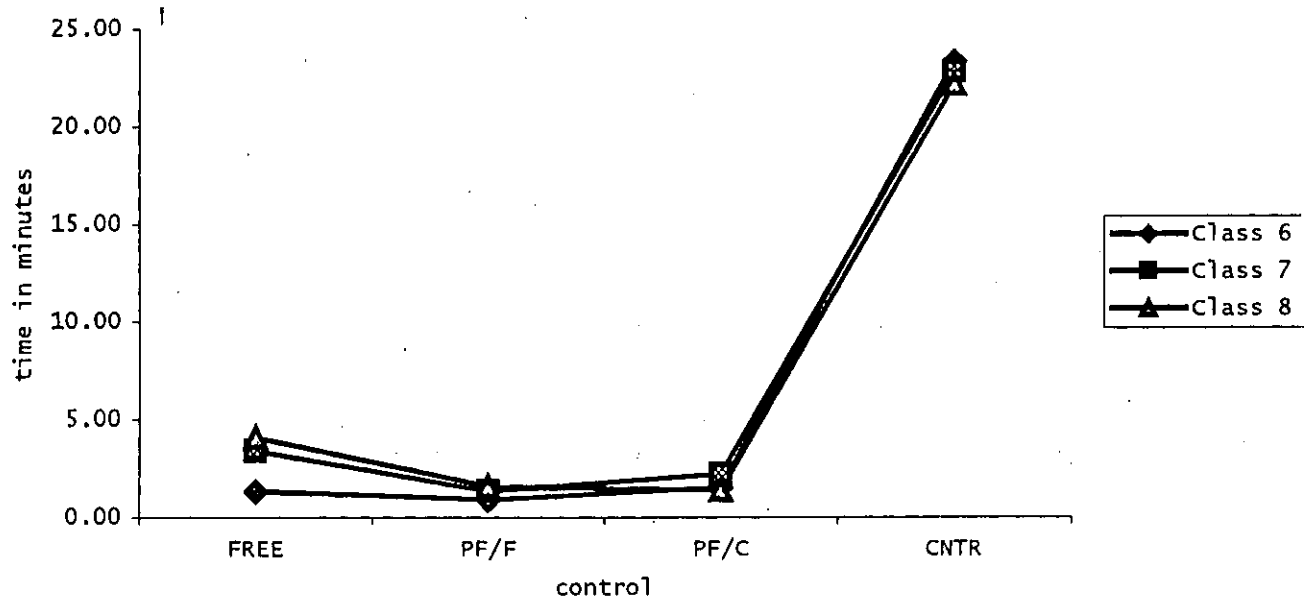


Fig 4.10b: degree of control over narrative in school B



*F = FREE*: Neither the form of the talk nor its content is firmly controlled by the teacher

*PF/F = PART-FREE*: The form of the talk is free but the content is controlled

*PF/C = PART-FREE*: The content of the talk is free but its form is controlled

*C = CONTROLLED*: Both form and content are firmly controlled by the teacher

The trend of control over the narrative in group-speaking activities is similar in all classes (VI, VII, VIII) in schools A and follows quite another pattern for all classes in school B, as exhibited in Fig. 4.10a and 4.10b respectively. But the extent of control is high in school B with respect to school A. We find that in school A for all classes VI, VII and VIII, the most frequently practised group- narrative phenomenon is partially free, with control over form (*PF/C*); while totally free narrative has medium frequency and totally controlled narrative is of low frequency.

In school B, on the other hand, we find that in class VI, although the time allocated to free, *PF/F* and *PF/C* increases slightly, the time allocated remains less than 2 minutes; while for class VII and VIII, the time allocated for *FREE* narrative, *PF/F* and *PF/C* stays at a lower level (below 5 minutes), and most of the narrative is strictly controlled by the teacher, both in form as well as content, as almost all the time is devoted to this kind of narrative.

The feature bundling for different classes can be seen very clearly for schools A and B in Fig.4.10c and 4.10d respectively. As seen in Fig. 4.10c, for

Fig. 4.10c: feature clustering of control in different classes in school A

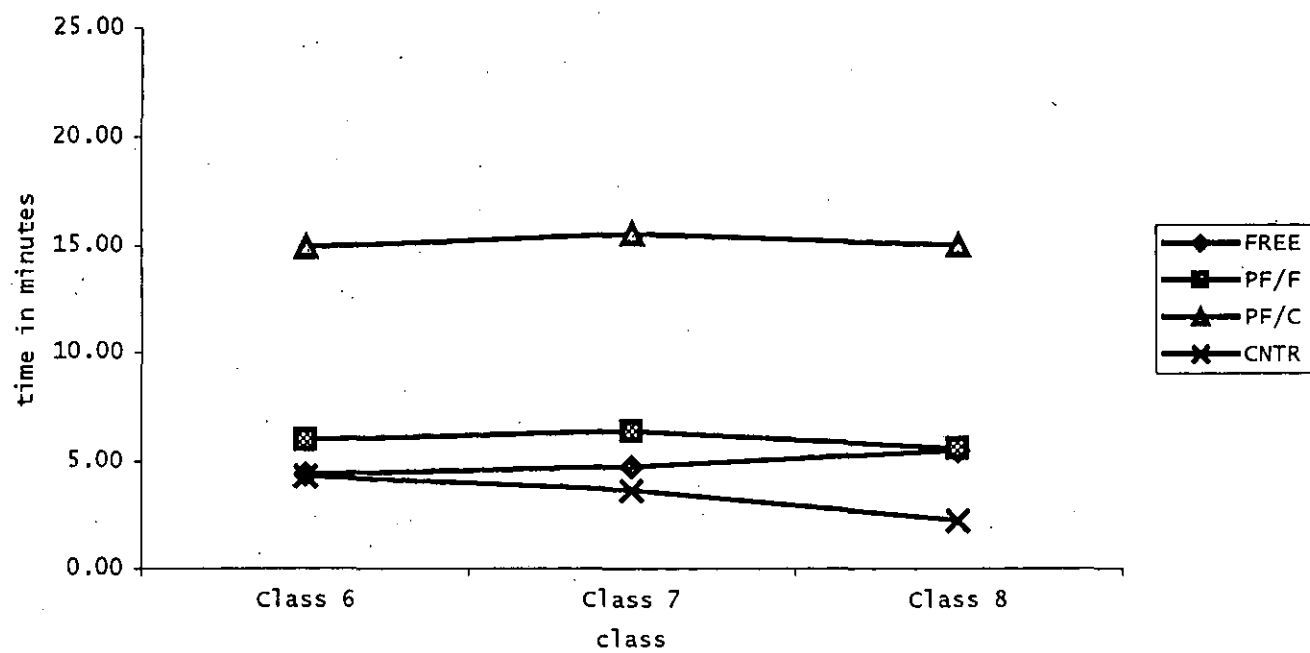


fig. 4.10d: feature clustering of control in different classes in school B

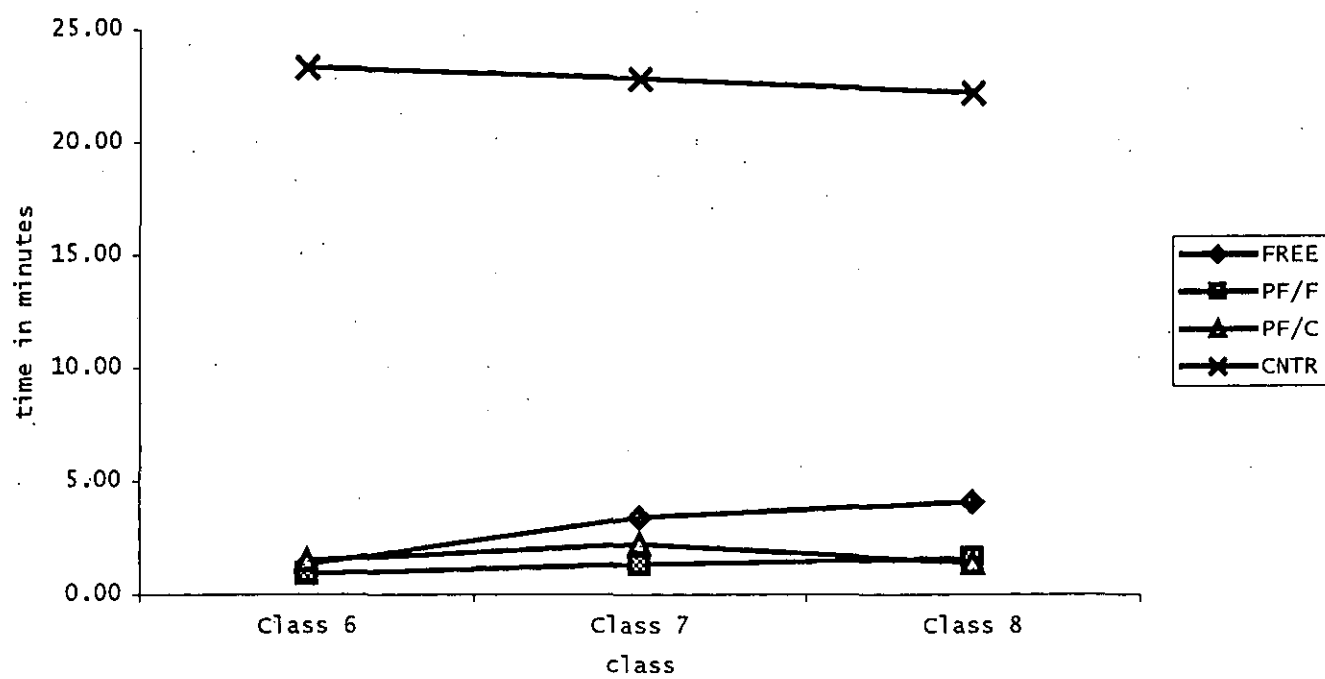
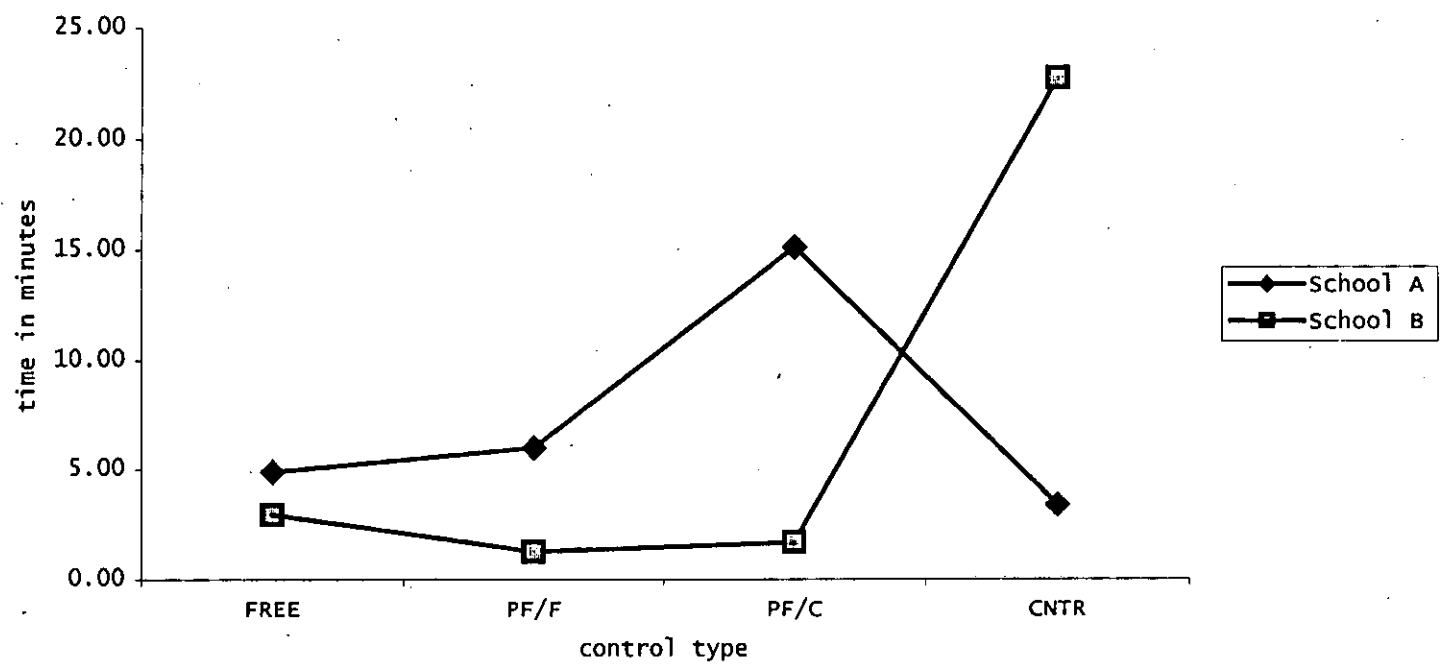


Fig.4.10e: degree of control over narrative in school A and B





school A, FREE talk increases slightly as one goes from class VI to VII to VIII, but remains at a low level, PF/F remains almost at the same level, at the low-use end, while the amount of time devoted to activities involving CONTROLLED narrative actually decreases as one goes from VI to VII to VIII. The PF/C stays at a fairly high-usage level averaging about 15 minutes per class (50 percent of the total duration of the class).

It is evident from Fig.4.10d that for school B, the controlled narrative is in the very high-usage bracket, averaging around 22 minutes, with a slight decrease when one goes from VI to VII and again decreasing only slightly when proceeding from VII to VIII. PF/F, PF/C and FREE narrative types are at the very low-usage level (below 5 minutes for all classes), with only FREE narrative style actually increasing in use, but only slightly, remaining within the 5-minute limit. A visual inspection of Fig.4.10a and 4.10b shows a great degree of overlap in the patterns of each class. They can be combined to give the mean duration of control for narratives in schools A and B as is shown in Fig.4.10e.

#### **4.5.11. Variation of Focus**

It is perhaps cynical to suggest that the whole of educational research into what makes classroom teaching work has ended up confirming a handful of commonsense observations -- for example, that large classes are not conducive to learner achievement; that students tend to achieve under achieve or depending on their perception of what they believe the teacher expects of them; and that variety of approach succeeds where continuing in the same way tends not to. Yet even these conclusions tend not to be acted upon. Administrators continue to expand

class sizes and affect surprise when standards fall. Teachers write off students who then live down to the teachers' obvious low opinion of them. And teachers continue to labour away at monotonous routines, and then complain that their students are poorly motivated.

This section explores the last of these features -- the feature of variety. It looks at one aspect of it -- the teacher's variation of the focus of attention. And by attention here is meant simply visual attention.

The following are the centres of focus that the students are encouraged to pay attention to:

- (a) the teacher
- (b) the blackboard (or its equivalent)
- (c) other visual aids (e.g. posters)
- (d) the text book
- (e) the exercise book
- (f) other students
- (g) the outside world.

Fig. 4.11a shows behaviour of variation in school A where in class VI and VII is a similar trend, while class VIII has a separate trend. In VI and VII, focus on the teacher is only medium, and so is focus on the blackboard, much focus is given on the exercise book, while the text book is focussed on to a very less degree. In class VIII, however, focus on the teacher, blackboard, exercise book or even visual aid has lesser focus of attention than in VI or VII, while there is a sudden spurt in the duration when the textbook is the focus.

Fig 4.11c: variation of focus in school A by variation type

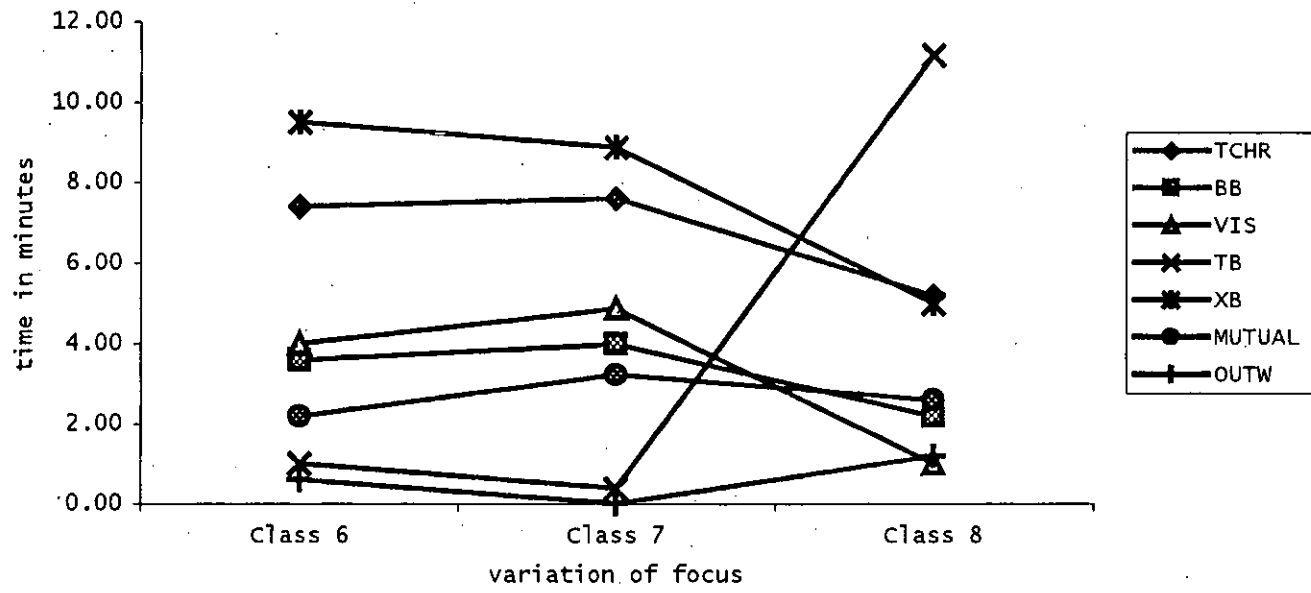


Fig. 4.11d: variation of focus in school B by variation type

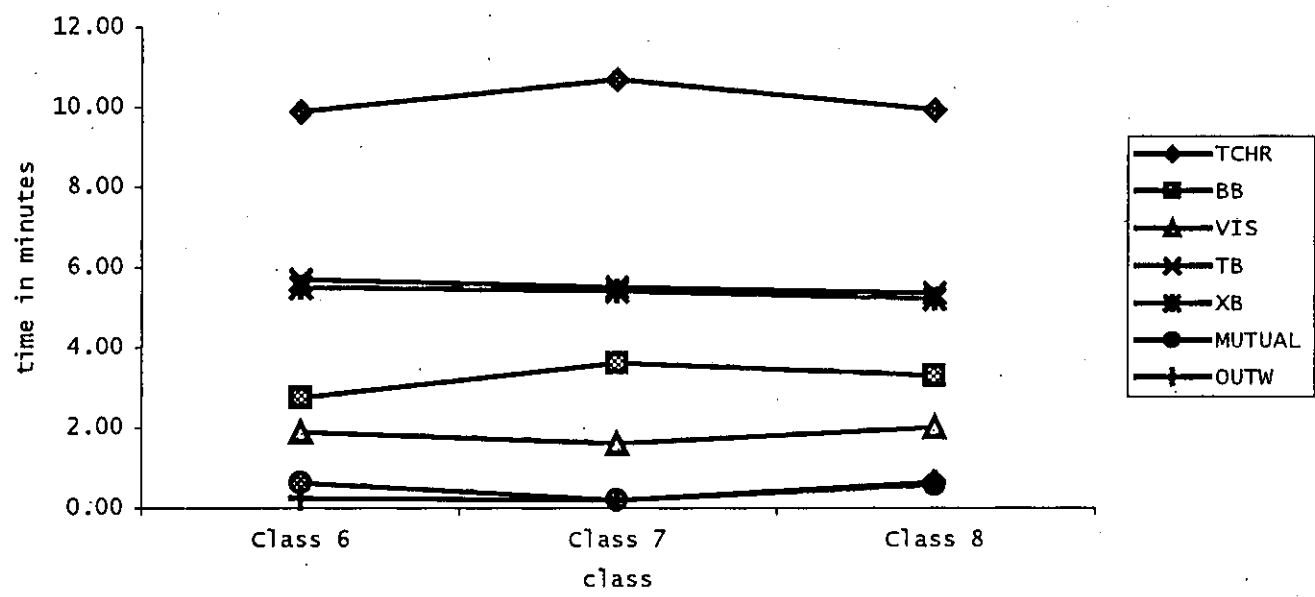


Fig. 4.11a: class-wise variation of focus in school A

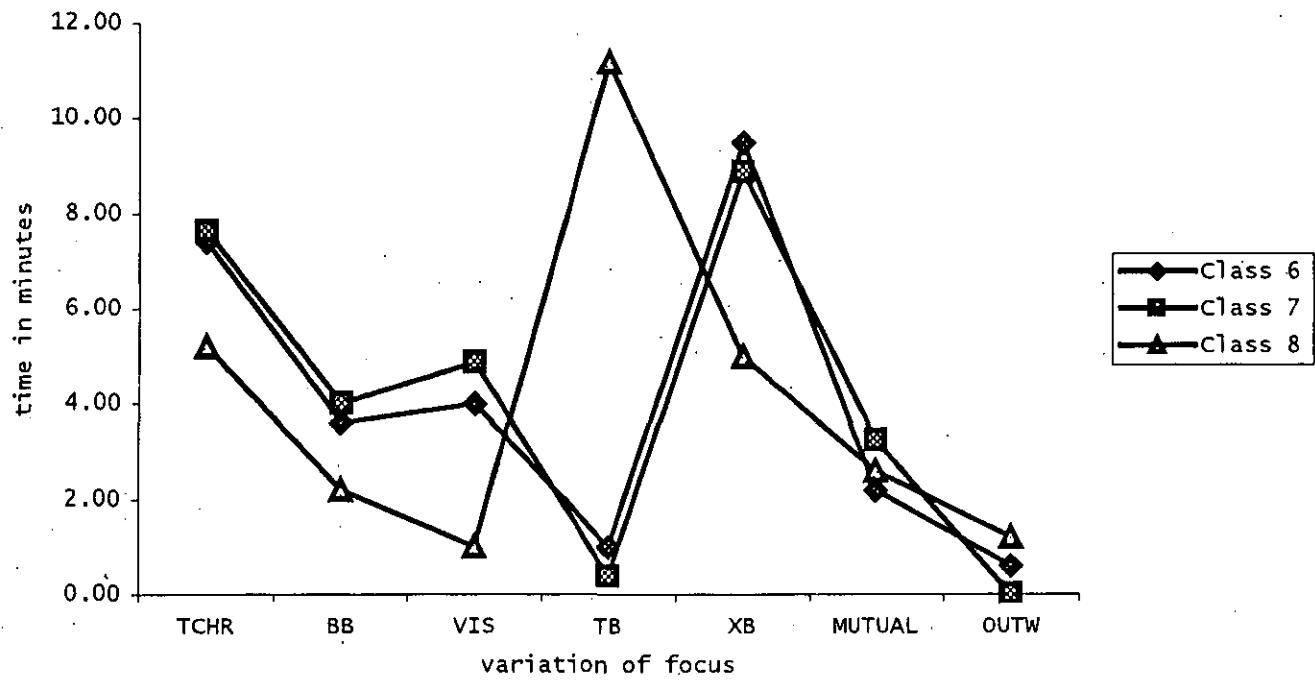
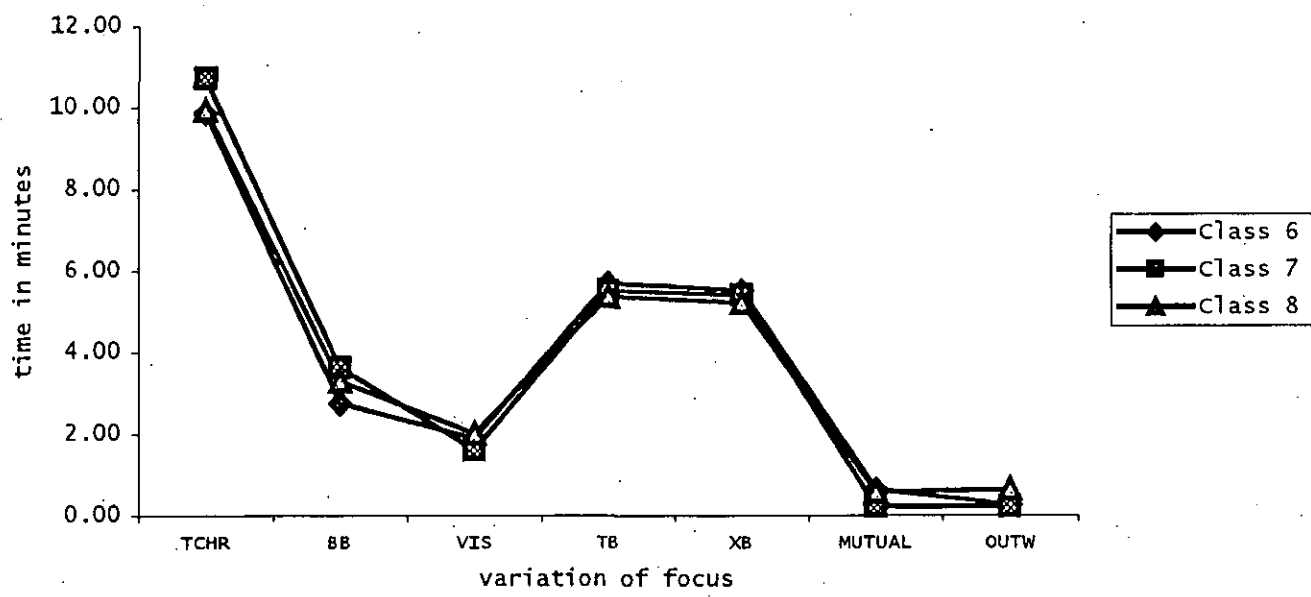


Fig 4.11b: class-wise variation of focus in school B



All classes in school B have highly overlapping pattern (Fig. 4.11b) where focus on the teacher is higher than in School A. The textbook and exercise book have a medium focus; the blackboard and visual aids have low focus; while mutual attention or focus on the outside world is of even low focus, which can be seen very clearly in Fig. 4.11c.

Another important point is that while in school B the focus mostly shifts from the teacher to the blackboard or textbook or exercise book and back again, the transition from one centre of focus to another is fairly well distributed among various centres of attention in school A, i.e., attention is fairly well-diversified in case of school A.

#### **4.6 PROFICIENCY AND ITS DETERMINANTS: CORRELATION**

The cumulative impact of the factors studied above is reflected in the learning, and thus ultimately, the level of proficiency in English. By looking at these indicators, it can be said that the usage of a certain set of factors is more conducive to better proficiency in English than other combinations.

The discussions in the preceding sections bring out some distinct features about magnitude of the various processes involved in the interaction/teaching-learning environment in the two kinds of schools under investigation. In this discussion and attempt has been made to identify the variables associated with high proficiency in English in the two schools. For this purpose, a correlation analysis was done. On the basis of the highly correlating variables, the factors responsible for the variation of proficiency between the two schools have been identified. Sometimes even correlations of considerably lesser extent than others

have been considered to be important because they happen to have the highest correlation among the type of variable being studied. The correlation matrix for the variables studied with respect to schools A and B is given below in Table 4.4.

In school A, the following variables have negative correlation: PRES, XPL, ECHOIC, TCHR, BB, VIS and TB, while the variables with positive correlation with proficiency are IMPL, Q/X, CH/Q, XPR, SO, SILPOS and OUT.

In school B however, the variables with negative correlation have been identified as ORG and RESP, while IMPL, Q/X, UNDECIDED genuineness of questions, SO, PF/C and TCHR are with positive correlation.

**Table 4.4****Correlation Coefficients of Process Variables with respect to English Language Proficiency**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Variable description</b>	<b>School A</b>	<b>School B</b>
X2	ORG beginnings		-0.59
X5	PRES endings	-0.44	
X7	RESP endings		-0.43
X9	XPL transitions	-0.45	
X10	IMPL transitions	0.65	0.58
X14	Q/X	0.55	0.39
X15	CH/Q	0.49	
X26	UNDECIDED genuineness of questions		0.60
X27	ECHOIC	-0.49	
X29	XPR	0.70	
X39	SO	0.52	0.45
X40	SILPOS	0.47	
X44	PF/C		0.55
X46	TCHR	-0.45	0.31
X47	BB	-0.46	
X48	VIS	-0.60	
X49	TB	-0.47	
X52	OUT	0.44	-0.34

## NOTES

<sup>1</sup> At the current (2000) estimated population of 1 billion. *The Hindu*, 12 May, 2000.

<sup>2</sup> n = number of teaching sessions, each of 30 minutes duration.

<sup>3</sup> Roger Bowers (ed). *British Council ELT Document 125*, pp.138-179. The primary objective of these worksheets is to offer a framework for teacher counselling, but they can also be used for classroom process evaluations.



# Conclusion

That the factors associated with teaching situations can affect the organisation of the teaching methodology has been recognised as a truism (see McDonough and Shaw 1993:4-6). The classroom cannot, and does not operate in a vacuum, and this patterning of methodological organisation is closely related to the role-relationships of teachers and learners, and of learners with each other; and thus by extension to the nature of the school and to the whole educational, even socio-cultural, context. More importantly, it is inherently related to the actual dynamics of the various factors involved in teaching. This work has been an attempt at arriving at a comparative analysis of the magnitude of the various teaching processes and variables in two different school settings. The preceding chapters have examined, from the point of view outlined above, the following points:

- 1) Traced a history of ELT in India, discussed the ideology behind the introduction of English into India, and the present institutional status of English teaching, particularly at the school level.
- 2) Attempted a needs analysis of the Indian learner, in terms of actual requirements.
- 3) Examined the different learning theories with reference to language learning.
- 4) Discussed the data on various teaching processes collected at two schools.

It will be useful at this point to make a general distinction in language teaching between *content* and *structure*. By 'content' is meant materials themselves -- the language items selected for practice, whether structural or functional; or situations, or role-play, and so on. 'Structure', on the other hand, in

concerned with how classes are managed, and about various options in procedures adopted.

One of the many aspects of the classroom management is how the classroom is controlled and organised in terms of teaching methods (of the type described in chapter IV), by the teacher to enable teaching to the place most effectively.

It can be argued that within this context, the classroom is the basic focus of teaching and learning process, with many diverse permutations and combinations of classroom processes, some of which have been examined in Chapter 4.

Starting with the historical development of ELT in India, Chapter 1 traces the origins of English education in the Indian sub-continent. It was shown how English started to be taught primarily because of its literary heritage, but later purpose of learning English became to acquire jobs in the British institutions. The purpose of the British in introducing English was shown to be one which would create a class of people who would be of Indian origin, but English in taste and temperament. Later, this very same measure turned out to be counter-productive for the British; as armed with natural ideas, and educated in the western paradigm, the educated Indians recognised the values of democracy and other progressive ideas that later on turned into a full-fledged movement for independence. After independence, the Constitution retained the use of English for official purposes as a deliberate act, initially for a period of 15 years, and given extension for an indefinite period later. The position of English as a pan-

Indian link language with immense pragmatic use and practical value was highlighted. It was also shown that:

- in a majority of the states, English is taught for 3 to 5 years,
- the middle school (classes VI, VII and VIII) is when English is taught in all states and union territories (except in Diu, where it is taught only in VIII and IX), either as a compulsory or as an optional subject.

It can thus be concluded that the teaching of English at the middle school level is of immense significance.

The significance of English teaching at the middle school, derived from a general importance of universal education as a whole, leads to another aspect of ELT: that of the actual needs of a learner of English at the middle school. This is discussed in Chapter II. It has been shown how the requirements of the industry and the society will require more communication-oriented skills in English language; how roles in business communication and everyday life influence what the actual requirements of the learners are. It has been also shown that learning needs are conditioned by adult roles that the young learners are going to perform in future, and that these learning needs are both *context-determined* (individualised need) and *context-independent* (common need). They are also different in rural and urban areas. Lastly, it was also shown that the learning-how-to-learn needs are an important component of the gamut of needs. The main needs that are common to almost all learners are those that are related to a) communication, both within the country and inter-cultural; b) the needs of the society; c) learning-how-to-learn; and d) knowledge-based skills.

Not only are the needs of learners necessary to be documented, but it is also imperative to have an understanding of the various learning theories for the teaching act to function in a more efficiently manner. An idea about learning theories will thus equip the teacher with a powerful tool for introducing innovations and to be more creative; this will have a positive effect on the learning environment of the classroom. In Chapter III various learning theories like those of Pavlov, Skinner, Chomsky, Piaget and Kolb, have been examined. They have all hypothesised about, and speculated on, how learning takes place and how languages are internalised as a set of rules.

The factors that have a positive correlation with English proficiency in both schools A and B are:

- (a) use of implicit transitions
- (b) use of Q-Nomination strategy in which the teacher first asks a question and then allows anyone to respond
- (c) encouraging students to use a language of their choice apart from English, as part of the internalisation of deep structures as it makes the learner more creative (this may have a bearing on the mode of language teaching too, since it suggests that bilingual and multilingual modes of education may be more suitable in the Indian context, given the multilingual setting of the country in the first place.

We have seen how a particular set of factors influence the proficiency level to a certain extent, while another set of factors influence the proficiency level in a way quite different from the first.

An analysis of the data obtained from the field work shows that the level of proficiency is relatively more among students of school A compared to that of school B, primarily because of two reasons:

- a) The factors that operate to reduce or amplify English proficiency among the learners in school A are not similar to those affecting the learners in school B.
- b) Even if the factors are common in the two schools, as in the case of a few variables, the set of factors differ in degree.

From the analysis of the data, the following observations can be made regarding which parameters characterise a particular school, and their relative intensities:

1. The difference between the frequencies of organising and sociating talk is smaller in school B than in school A during lesson beginnings. It is also apparent that greater the difference between social talk and organising talk, the higher is the social talk.
2. Mean frequencies of *all* kinds of presentation styles during lesson endings is greater in school A than in school B, and that the difference is more pronounced in case of elicitation, responsive and evaluative talk; presentation talk has almost similar frequencies.
3. Explicit transitions are always more frequent than implicit ones in school B. In school A, explicit transitions, rather than implicit ones, are more common in classes VI and VII, and the gap widens in VII; but implicit transitions are more common in school A.

4. There is a feature-bundling of Q/NAME and NAME/Q Q-Nomination strategies in school B in high-frequency range, while other Q-Nomination strategies have low frequencies. There is no such high/low segregation in school A.
5. Feature-bundling also exists in school B in presentation styles, with EGRUL and RULEG having a high usage and others having low usage; while there is no such feature-bundling in case of school A.
6. We can thus conclude from (5) and (6) above that Q/NAME and NAME/Q Q-Nomination strategies occur with EGRUL and RULEG presentation styles while there is no such thing in school A. We also find that students of school B has lower proficiency levels. We could say that proficiency is high if there is a homogeneous distribution of different presentation styles and Q-Nomination strategies.
7. Questions requiring epistemic and expressive responses from the students increase in frequency with increasing grade in school A, while quite the opposite happens in school B.
8. An overall negative and neutral evaluation (as shown by the calculated REX values) abound in school B while an overall positivity of evaluation of student response may correspond with higher proficiency, since positive evaluation might induce students to be more motivated to perform better.

9. In school A, a higher proportion of student talk is part-free, with the content being controlled by the teacher; while in school B, most student talk is strictly controlled by the teacher.

As the pattern in school A is more close to the communicative and learner-oriented approach that supposedly yields better proficiency, this pattern (PF/C) can be thought to be significant in enhancing the English proficiency of the students.

10. The textbook gains significant importance only in class VIII in school A, but is of moderate importance in school B. The exercise book too is of fairly high importance in school A, but only of moderate importance in school B.

11. The most important entity in a classroom, the teacher, is at the centre of focus to quite a considerable degree in school B, as he monopolises almost one-third of the total duration of the class (around 11 minutes). It is also a striking feature that while the teacher is of immense importance in school B, it is the textbook and exercise book that are the most important elements in school A.

The following observations and can be made in respect of the determinants of proficiency in English:

**I. For school A:**

A lot of presentation talk, explicit transitions, questions requiring echoic responses and TTT have an overall negative impact on the English proficiency



levels, and it is best if they are reduced, if they could not be avoided altogether. On the other hand, implicit transitions, picking anyone in class to answer questions or asking for a chorus response, encouraging the students to express themselves, even in languages other than English, and focus on the outside world have positive impact on proficiency. Excessive use of visual aids, e.g. posters, has a negative impact, and may be due to distractions caused by them.

## **II. For school B:**

Excessive organisational talk both at the beginnings as well as endings, and responsive endings to lessons should be avoided as much as possible, while implicit transitions, picking up any student to answer questions, and allowing students to speak in languages other than English too, have a positive correlation with English language proficiency.

This dissertation on classroom procedures in Indian schools may be regarded as an entry point to study the process rather than the final outcome. It has tried to fill an important gap in the study of English teaching in India. This is necessary, as a first step, for taking corrective measures at the very early stage itself, by filling up the gap in integrating theory and actual implementation at the school level.

# Appendices

Table A.1

## Distribution of 15+ population by level of Education

Illiterate	45.7
Literate	1.3
Below Primary	7.6
Primary	13.4
Middle	14.4
Secondary	8.8
Higher Secondary	4.2
Diploma/Certificate	0.4
Graduate	3.4
Post Graduate	0.7

Table A.2

## Distribution of Students by Percentage

Primary	53
Middle	24
Secondary/Higher Secondary	19
Higher Education	4

Table A.3

## Gross Enrolment Ratio(GER) and Net Enrolment Ratio(NER)

Level of Education	Type of Institute by Management				Overall
	Govt.	Local body	Pvt. aided	Pvt. unaided	
Primary	36.3	4.5	5.3	6.6	52.7
Middle School	14.8	2.0	5.0	2.1	23.9
Secondary/ Higher Secondary	10.5	1.1	6.0	1.5	19.1
Higher Education	2.1	0.2	1.4	0.3	4.0
Overall	63.7	7.8	17.7	10.5	100.00*

\* includes non-resident cases.

**Table A.4**

**Per Thousand Distribution of Persons of Age 5-24 years who are Pursuing General Education by Current Attendance in Class groups**

Class group	Rural			Urban			Total		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
<b>I-V</b>	575	661	608	457	468	462	543	596	564
<b>VI-VIII</b>	230	201	219	234	235	234	231	212	223
<b>IX-X</b>	114	80	101	131	127	129	119	96	109
<b>XI-XII</b>	47	30	40	82	80	81	56	47	52
<b>Higher Education</b>	26	16	22	88	81	85	43	38	41
<b>Total*</b>	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000

\* includes non resident cases

**Table A.5**

**Per thousand Distribution of Persons who drop out at Middle School Level**

	Rural			Urban			Total		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
<b>Middle School</b>	274	264	269	340	338	339	300	269	287

**Source of Tables A.1 to A.5 : NSSO 1998**

## Appendix II

Names and descriptions of micro-teaching variables studied, their means and standard deviations in schools A and B

var. no. & name	variable code		variable description	mean and sd			
				School A		School B	
				mean	s.d.	mean	s.d.
var_1 lesson beginnings	x1	SOC	Social talk	4.71	1.59	2.60	1.14
	x2	ORG	Organizing talk	8.36	2.62	5.20	1.44
var_2 lesson endings	x3	SOC	Social talk	4.14	1.46	2.05	1.28
	x4	ORG	Organizing talk	6.14	0.77	4.80	1.82
	x5	PRES	Presenting teaching items	6.21	1.19	6.05	1.23
	x6	EL	Elicitation	6.86	1.61	2.25	1.55
	x7	RESP	Responsive	8.14	1.10	3.50	1.40
	x8	EVAL	Evaluative	6.79	1.19	1.30	1.08
var_3 transition type	x9	XPL	Explicit	4.79	1.81	6.15	1.60
	x10	IMPL	Implicit	3.93	1.94	1.70	1.08
var_4 nominating strategy	x11	N/Q	Names student, followed by qn.	3.21	1.12	4.65	1.46
	x12	Q/N	Qn., followed by student name	2.86	1.03	4.30	1.84
	x13	Q/SEL	Qn., followed by one among willing volunteer	3.07	1.59	1.15	0.75
	x14	Q/X	qn., anyone answers	2.21	2.36	0.80	0.95
	x15	CH/Q	chorus followed by qn.	2.36	1.82	0.85	0.75
	x16	Q/CH	qn. followed by chorus	1.36	1.45	1.35	1.14
	x17	OTH	any other nominating strategy	0.64	0.93	0.80	0.77
var_5 presentation styles	x18	EGRUL	example followed by rule	2.50	0.94	5.00	0.97
	x19	RULEG	rule followed by example	1.79	0.97	5.10	1.12
	x20	RUL/EG	rule and example mixed	2.36	0.93	0.50	0.61
	x21	RUL	rule only	1.21	1.12	0.95	0.89
	x22	EG	example only	1.64	1.15	0.80	0.95
var_6 Questioning genuineness	x23	UNR	unreal qn	8.57	1.65	7.35	2.18
	x24	RNG	real but not genuine	1.57	0.85	4.30	1.66
	x25	GEN	genuine qn.	0.86	0.86	1.45	0.94
	x26	UNDG	undecided genuineness	1.00	0.68	0.95	0.89
var_7 Questioning: Cognitive type	x27	ECHO	qn. requiring echoic response (imitation)	6.29	1.33	5.25	1.37
	x28	EPI	concerned with what student knows	2.86	1.35	4.60	1.54
	x29	XPR	concerned with expressiveness	2.29	1.44	1.75	1.55
	x30	UNDC	undecided cognitive type	1.43	1.16	2.65	1.31
var_8 Evaluation of student response	x31	XPOS	extremely positive response to what student says	4.00	1.11	0.90	0.97
	x32	POS	positive response to what student says	4.50	0.76	0.55	0.60
	x33	NEU	neutral or ambiguous response to what student says	3.00	2.11	5.05	1.85
	x34	NEG	negative response to what student says	1.64	1.86	5.10	1.59
	x35	XNEG	extremely negative response to what student says	1.07	1.14	0.80	0.70

var. no. & name	variable code		variable description	mean and sd			
				School A		School B	
				mean	s.d.	mean	s.d.
var_9 Domination of teacher talk	x36	TE	teacher speaking in English	4.21	0.67	12.28	1.76
	x37	TO	teacher speaking in other language	4.11	0.68	2.88	1.29
	x38	SE	student speaking in English	3.96	2.57	8.90	1.67
	x39	SO	student speaking in other language	3.75	2.99	1.65	1.34
	x40	SILPOS	silence contributing to lesson understanding	9.29	3.97	1.35	0.65
	x41	SILNEG	silence not contributing to lesson understanding	3.39	1.69	2.05	0.90
var_10 student talk: freedom & control	x42	FREE	full freedom in student talk	4.89	1.08	2.80	1.63
	x43	PF/F	part-free, form free but content controlled	5.96	0.99	1.23	0.90
	x44	PF/C	part-free, content free but form controlled	15.11	2.36	1.63	0.58
	x45	CNTR	fully controlled	3.36	1.32	22.78	1.71
var_11 variation of focus	x46	TCHR	Teacher	6.68	1.38	10.10	0.91
	x47	BB	blackboard	3.21	1.12	3.15	0.75
	x48	VIS	other visual aids	3.18	1.85	1.85	0.89
	x49	TB	textbook	4.46	5.76	5.53	0.91
	x50	XB	exercise book	7.71	2.20	5.38	0.76
	x51	MUT	focus on other students/ interactive talk	2.64	0.95	0.50	0.49
	x52	OUTW	focus on outside world	0.64	0.95	0.38	0.53

Source: Field Work

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