Teaching and Learning English in Non-English-Speaking Countries

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this book is to discuss the importance and the role of learning the English language in today's world, especially in non-native English-speaking countries. The nine papers presented in the book 'Learning English in Non-English-Speaking Countries' cover a range of topics, including a critique of the norms of native speakers as compared with international English speakers. There is also a discussion of the three major circles which divide English speakers universally. Since in most south Asian countries, including Pakistan, the carrot-and-stick approach is still considered the only teaching method, I also discuss a few other teaching approaches which have been successfully adopted in some advanced countries, such as humanistic approaches to language teaching and the use of English literature, normally considered a subject for members of the elite class who have an advanced knowledge of the language. In one of my papers, 'Learning English through literary chunks', I suggest that proficiency in the English language, especially the skills of listening and reading, can be enhanced by incorporating into teaching programmes popular chunks, rhymes, quotations, sayings, proverbs and phrases on various topics from a variety of sources, ranging from great literary masterpieces to comics and fairytales. The aim of this book is to make learning English easy, convenient and enjoyable for a wide variety of learners. To achieve this purpose, I have designed English-language courses for nurses, for administrative staff and for teachers and lecturers by introducing some simple and practical teaching and learning techniques and methods. Although the centre of my papers is Pakistan, other countries which have similar linguistic issues can also take benefits from the teaching courses which I describe. In addition, case studies of two Pakistani children aged three and seven years are described and discussed in regard to second-language acquisition in children. English-language learners, teachers, students and office holders in non-English-speaking countries in which proficiency in English is both useful and essential are the main audience for this book.

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INTRODUCTION

The Indo-Pak sub-continent has in many respects remained one of the colonies of the British Empire. The British first arrived in India in the early 1600s and soon established trading posts in a number of cities under the control of the East India Company. By 1765, the Company's influence had grown to such an extent that the British were effectively controlling most parts of the country. This date is often taken as the start of what is referred to as the Raj, a period of British rule in India which lasted until independence or, more correctly, until the partition of the united India in 1947.

The region under British control was commonly called British India in contemporaneous usage, and included areas directly administered by the United Kingdom which were ruled by indigenous rulers, but under British tutelage, and called the princely states. This system of governance was instituted on 28 June 1858, when, after the Indian Rebellion of 1857, the rule of the British East India Company was transferred to the crown in the person of Queen Victoria (who, in 1876, was proclaimed Empress of India).

As far as the origins of the use of English in India are concerned, the English language probably arrived in South Asia with the British merchant adventurers who came to India for trading purposes to establish the East India Company. After the colonisation of India, English was initially only taught to the local population by Christian missionaries. There were no official attempts to force the language on the population as a whole, but by the 1700s, English had become firmly established as the language of administration. By 1857, universities had opened in Bombay, Calcutta and Madras, in which members of the socially advanced class preferred to study in English. English was increasingly accepted as the language of government, of the social elite and of the national press.

At Independence, the united India was partitioned into two main states/countries, India and Pakistan, and it was intended that English would gradually be replaced as the language of administration in India as well as in Pakistan. For India, there was no simple solution as to which

language should replace it. At first Hindi, the most widely spoken language, seemed the obvious choice, but following violent protests in 1963 in the state of Tamil Nadu against the imposition of Hindi as a national language, opinion remained divided. Pakistan faced a different situation. To replace English, Urdu (Hindi vocabulary enriched by words from the Persian, Arabic and Turkic languages, written in a modified form of the Perso-Arabic alphabet) was declared the national language/*lingua franca* of Pakistan in order to promote national unity. As the country was also home to several regional languages, five of these languages, Bengali, Punjabi, Pashto, Sindhi and Balochi, were and still are provincial languages. The decision outraged the various nationalities residing in Pakistan and one of the reasons for the separation of Bangal (now Bangla Desh) was a linguistic issue because the Bangalis believed that the Bengali language had the right to become Pakistan's national language as it was spoken by the majority of the population. Many times, the government of Pakistan has announced plans to make Urdu the sole official language and abolish English as the second official language, but none of these plans have ever succeeded. English is the language of the cultural, social and political elite, offering significant economic, political and social advantages to fluent speakers. The speakers of the English language automatically enjoy greater social status and have easier access to positions of power and influence. So although English is not an indigenous language of Pakistan, it enjoys the status of the 'undeclared official language or a second language'.

Despite continued pressure from nationalists, English is widely used in the media, in higher education and in government and therefore remains a common means of communication among the ruling classes and between speakers of mutually unintelligible languages. However, because of the negative propaganda against the English language and deteriorating educational standards, learning English has been difficult for the majority of ordinary people. Pakistan has a range of private English-speaking schools in which all the subjects are taught in English. Nevertheless, these expensive schools are out of the reach of the majority of people. In government-run schools, the standard of teaching English is not appreciable. People with lower incomes continue to search for English-language teaching organisations and language-learning courses in order to pass the examinations for various jobs as all the tests and job interviews are mostly taken in English.

The intention behind publishing this book is to provide various Pakistani government and non-government educational and professional institutions

with simple and practical language-learning courses which fulfil the requirements of people who want to learn English. The book has reasonably detailed notes about the four major skills of learning English, identifying and focusing on specific problems in regard to the English language and to professional requirements; it also considers the role of motivation in language learning, native-speakers' norms and international English. For English-language teachers in schools and colleges and in teacher-training institutes in Pakistan, the humanistic approach to language teaching is introduced and, along with the concept of L3 and the new inner circle in learning to learn, learning English through literary chunks is also presented. There are some short learner-training programmes for nurses, clerks and office bearers in various departments of Pakistan. Most importantly, for people who are interested in enabling their children to become fluent in English from their childhood, second-language acquisition in Pakistani children (two case studies) is also included. Because English-language learning is one of the most debated issues in Pakistani educational and professional fields, this book will be of great interest to a wide variety of readers including teachers, language learners, students, linguistic departments, general readers who are struggling to learn English and professionals who want to overcome the language barrier.

<div align="right">Dr Shahnaz Shoro</div>

CHAPTER ONE

NATIVE-SPEAKER NORMS AND INTERNATIONAL ENGLISH: A CRITIQUE

The English language is spreading rapidly all around the world. Perhaps it is not an exaggeration to say that it is the only language which has successfully become a global language at all levels of communication. As a universal language, it is raising different issues among people of different parts of the world. The interesting thing is that the debates and discussions on these issues produce a variety of results according to the different social and psychological needs and the perspective of the particular environment of the learners and instructors.

In this paper, I shall consider a questionnaire survey conducted by Ivor Timmis who explored two main issues concerning the pronunciation norms of native speakers and the differences between the English grammar described in the conventional way in ELT material and the grammar used in the conversation of native speakers. Timmis's survey generated a total of 600 responses from students and teachers of English from 45 countries. The idea of conducting the survey was driven by observing a class discussion about "appropriate norms and models for the class room". Interest was also accelerated by the research work already conducted on these issues by Prodromou (1997), Carter and McCarthy (1995), Jenkins (1998) and Willy (1999). Another key factor was Timmis's own determination to realise the differences between his speaking and his teaching of English. Principally, he wanted to find out the extent to which students and teachers of English want to adopt the norms of native speakers in pronunciation and the use of informal grammar in everyday conversation.

The question concerned with pronunciation norms was answered by 400 students from fourteen different countries and their views were confirmed by fifteen interviews held in Leeds in the UK. Slightly different questionnaires were distributed among the teachers attending an IATEFL conference in

Dublin in the Irish Republic in 2000; the participants were from 45 countries and they returned 180 replies.

In the question regarding pronunciation norms, the student respondents were given two examples of types of student and were asked to select one. The majority, 67% of them, preferred the model A student, who wanted to speak like a native speaker, and only 32% chose student B, who had an intelligible pronunciation for both native and non-native speakers with interference from his L1. Interestingly, 64% of the students who came from South Africa, India and Pakistan favoured student B, but for a good number of students, native-like pronunciation was the touchstone.

On the same issue, the teachers were also given a third 'no preference' option, and for student B and 'no preference' they had nearly same opinion. Many teachers opined that although student B also had a good standard, accomplishing the accent of a native speaker should be made a long-term goal.

On the second topic, grammar, three types of student were presented for the student respondents to choose from. This question was designed to find the extent to which the grammatical norms of native speakers are idealised by students. The majority, 68%, of the students preferred student E, who knew and used both formal and informal structures. Students C and D were each selected by an equal number of respondents. Student C actually used understandable grammar, both by native and non-native speakers, but realised that sometimes he was considered by native speakers to use incorrect grammar. Student D did not like learning the informal use of grammar.

Teachers, on this topic, were again given a further option of 'no preference'. Of the teachers, 54% preferred student E and only 5% selected student D. Native and non-native teachers equally chose student E, who knew the grammatical structure of written as well as spoken informal English.

As far as the students' choice for informal spoken grammar was concerned, two examples of conversation were given to the students. Example A was based on a sophisticated grammatical structure as written in the ELT material. Example B was based on a typical native-to-native informal conversation. The majority, 63%, of the students preferred example B and 34% chose example A. Also, 37% preferred the use of the kind of English in example B. It is also interesting that 63% correctly

identified the native-speaker extract and that those who disagreed with the use of the informal type of grammar did not identify the speech between native-to-native speakers. So for the majority of the students, the informal use of grammar carried importance only in speaking with native speakers.

Both of the examples were given to the teachers with two additional points: either to expose students to the natural flow of English, or to hide the exposure for two reasons, mainly because this type of style is unnecessary for communication between non-native speakers and secondly that it would be complicated for a non-native speaker to handle.

Timmis concluded that for the majority of the students, learning to communicate was more important, but for a significant number of them, adopting the norms of native speakers was the paradigm. Both the teachers and the students showed large differences as far as the informal use of grammar by native speakers is concerned. Timmis suggested that teachers should rethink their responsibilities and consider these issues in the context of achieving an appropriate understanding in the English-speaking world.

Timmis's study dealt with the two main issues which concern language learners and users; the pronunciation norm and the informal grammar found in spoken corpora. The motivation for the study was to determine the extent to which students and teachers want to acquire the pronunciation and data-attested spoken norms of native speakers.

Although the findings are interesting, the survey had several flaws. Instead of compiling a clear and deep survey questionnaire, Timmis had prepared quite vague models of students for the respondents to choose between and did not give open choices to either the students or the teachers to present their own views according to their personal experiences and experiments. The questions did not ask about which part of the world the participants lived in, their personal circumstances or the conditions in which they used English, which would have been important in order to understand the different thinking of teachers and students according to their locations, teaching and learning stages, involvement, environment, exposure, age, intelligence, professional responsibilities, future plans, job requirements, social needs, amount of work, purpose of study, motivation, patience, cultural background and regional conflicts and identities. Instead of just giving two or three models displaying the native accent, he should have included at least three more choices:

1. a student who prefers the GA (General American) accent of English,
2. a student who prefers RP (Received Pronunciation); and
3. a student who attaches no importance to English accent.

Some countries have their own complexities in and hindrances to acquiring English because of multiple political, psychological and religious differences. For example, in countries which were subjected to British colonialism and in post-imperial countries, the attitude of learners towards English is inevitably different from that of students who belong to the countries which, for instance, are part of the European Union. In countries where people have strong reservations about American and British policies and pro-European international organisations, the learning approach is entirely different from that in countries which are very impressed by western culture and society. Likewise, those who are religious fundamentalists look upon these issues differently. It would therefore have been more appropriate to divide the participants into at least three groups; ESL, EFL and native-speaking countries.

The questionnaires were distributed among teachers when they were away from their home countries and their familiar teaching scenarios. This could possibly have been a cause of them not revealing their real thoughts, but mainly this was because they had no choice other than to follow the words and the choices given in the questionnaires. The option of 'no preference' seems useless and served no real purpose other than to give respondents a neutral response option.

The respondents in a third group whose opinions Timmis obtained (in fifteen interviews) all belonged to just one English university. The superficial comments which were made by teachers at the University of Leeds clearly revealed a lack of awareness of the social, cultural and psychological needs of developing and underdeveloped countries to learn English. It was also not clear whether they had observed or taught in any of the Third World countries in order to comprehend the socio-linguistic differences and approaches there. Their comments threw no light at all on the choices made by the students and teachers.

It is unfortunate that the scores obtained by both students and teachers in Timmis's survey show no surprising results. Although students from South Africa, Pakistan, India and China preferred the choice of the model student who was not ashamed of having interference from L1, it is clear that competence to the level of sounding like a native speaker was the

ideal for both students and teachers. As far as the choice about grammar is concerned, preference was given to the student who had control of both formal and informal grammar. The vast majority of the students wanted to acquire natural and informal conversation, which seems precisely the opposite of standard written grammar. A considerable proportion of the student participants did not want to acquire the norms of native speakers.

The survey could have been effective if open choices had been given to the students and teachers by presenting a full and proper survey questionnaire instead of simply giving a few models, in order to ensure that the teachers and students would have a wide range of options for selection. Furthermore, Timmis did not state the time allowed to the students or the teachers to complete the questionnaire and he also gave no information about whether he circulated the questionnaires inside the classroom or out of it. The students should have been categorised into various stages of learning proficiency, by genres and by their requirements for learning English. Sadly, analysis of the conduct and the findings of the survey shows that it lacked many aspects which would have made the study worthwhile and helpful. Timmis (2001: 17) himself realistically stated that "It would be absurd to suggest that this survey provides a statistically accurate picture of the state of opinion among students and teachers, the sample is but a tiny fraction of the English language learning and teaching population". There is clearly a need for a broader and more comprehensive survey.

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CHAPTER TWO

L3 AND THE NEW INNER CIRCLE

The distinguished linguist Paul Emmerson proposed a new form of "fully intelligible international English" which he called L3. His proposal was a reworking of Braj Kachru's 'three circles' of language users. Kachru divided English speakers into three circles:

A: The **Inner Circle**: native speakers – British, American, Caribbean, Canadian and Australian people.

B: The **Outer Circle**: countries where English is used as an official language alongside other languages, such as the Indian sub-continent, some African territories and Singapore.

C: The **Extended Circle**: countries where English has the status of a second language, such as countries in the Far East, the Middle East and Africa, such as Zimbabwe.

Emmerson divided people into various categories and countries belonging to different L1s. When they get together and speak English, they speak neither RP (Received Pronunciation) nor GA (General American) even though they speak mutually comprehensible versions of the English language. He firmly believed that the country of origin carries no importance for an individual's ability to communicate effectively in an international context. He introduced two new terminologies:

1. **RP/GA minus**

An individual's appropriate pronunciation according to a written phonetic script with little accent from the L1. Stress on key words. No use of assimilation/adaptation, unlike native speakers.

2. *High-frequency lexis plus*

An individual who can use almost three thousand common words frequently. Uses the high-frequency portion of language, both vocabulary and functional language. Uses extra low-frequency words according to interest or occupation which are easily understandable. Uses only the most common phrasal verbs.

His three circles of intelligibility take in nearly all the speakers of English in the world except for absolute beginners. He identified six categories of English speaker:

1. Individuals who have an advanced level of English through exposure, education, experience or living abroad.
2. Individuals without a strong accent who are sensitively aware of the problems of non-native speakers. May be a native-speaker or teacher of English, or any individual with a different background.
3. Individuals with a reasonable level of English.
4. Speakers without a strong accent; may belong to a native or non-native country and use weak forms and a low-frequency lexis.
5. Speakers with basic levels of English, maybe at pre-intermediate level.
6. Speakers who cannot code-switch to L3. May be native or non-native speakers.

These six categories are formed into pairs each forming one circle. Categories one and two constitute the inner circle, whereas speakers of categories three and four comprise the outer circle and those of categories five and six form the extended circle.
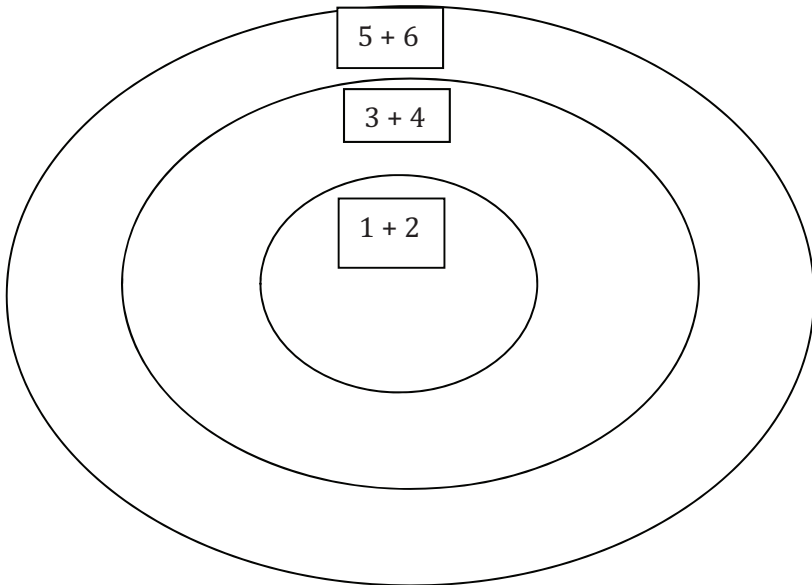
As far as grammar is concerned, Emmerson did not see it as essential but he did believe that it is an integral part of L3. Qualifications and exposure decide the importance of grammar. He gave three reasons for wanting to learn grammar:

1. To appear well-educated and not to be seen as a speaker of pidgin;
2. To become a fluent speaker; and
3. To achieve a sense of completeness and discovery.

In L3, the use of lexis needs little social and cultural context to be understood; he described this as a matter of choice. In his words, "what you see is what you get". His final formula appeared as:

L3 = 'RP/GA minus' with 'High-frequency lexis plus' (with 'personally appropriate grammar').

Language continues to change for a variety of social and cultural reasons. Our own tribal, provincial and national languages have all undergone these changes. Some languages have died, some are surviving and some are being sucked up by the most powerful language of the day which is, of course, English. From Gower to Chaucer, from Chaucer to Shakespeare

and from Shakespeare to Ben Okri, the English language has gone through multi-dimensional, visible and surprising changes. Today the English language has largely been accepted as a global language. According to modern research, around 1.5 billion people speak English as a first language, second language or foreign language, and the number is increasing each day. Undoubtedly, English has successfully become the language of trade, commerce, media, art, theatre, business management, science and technology. I, as a Pakistani teacher of English literature, firmly believe that English is the language which will take over almost all the languages of the world. People around the world are curious to learn to speak English for a variety of reasons. English has proved itself the fittest language to survive all challenges to come.

Since English is becoming the international *lingua franca* in numerous domains across the globe, it is no longer controversial to speculate that its native speakers are in the minority among the total number of its daily users. Linguists are researching into language with relevance to the problems of the real world. Multi-disciplinary approaches are being promoted to carry out research into language and related concerns in various fields encompassed by applied linguistics. This research into language is producing some creditable as well as complicated theories.

As already mentioned at the start of this paper, Braj Kachru, a well-known Indian linguist, divided English users into three circles, but the latest development of Kachru's classification was presented by Paul Emmerson with the claim that he had included all English users except for beginners into three circles. I believe that it is quite difficult fully to comprehend Emmerson's theory. He talks about RP/GA English. This is a time when English users speak many different dialects of English; the English spoken in southeast England, for example, and BBC English (what is called 'received pronunciation' or RP) are not the same and never have been. He does not talk about 'Standard English'. To have an advanced level of English is, for him, sufficient to be included in the inner circle whether a person is a native or a non-native speaker. A question arises here as to where is the place of intellectuals, creative writers, poets, philosophers, linguists and researchers? Can they be equivalent to what Emmerson referred to as "A good language learner or a businessman with many international contacts"? Within the same circle, he talks only about speaking ability. It is obvious that some people are very good at speaking and listening but have no competence in writing and reading. How can all of them be classified together?

Another question is 'Why just three circles?' They cannot classify the millions of speakers who speak English in all the continents of the world and have their own L1s, each with its particular grammar, pronunciation and phonetics. When these elements mix with English, they appear in a different way. For example, in my country when people speak English, we call it Pakistani English, whereas in Singapore they call it Singlish. It is the same in other countries where they localise English and speak it in their own way and in their native accent. In the Arabian language there are very good writers such as Naguib Mehfooz, but in the Arabic language, there is no letter 'P' and they pronounce it as 'B'. So what is the place of Arabian speakers of the English language in Emmerson's three-circle theory?

As far as phonological, lexical and grammatical features are concerned, Emmerson stated that "How much and what features of grammar appear in any one individual's L3 depend on the person concerned". Can it really be a matter of choice? My view is that grammar is an essential part of language. If a person thinks that he is fluent in speaking but does not care about singulars and plurals, he may use the wrong forms of verbs, he cares less about using modals and his language could not be called standard language. Without correct grammar, a speaker will appear to be illiterate.

Emmerson rightly concluded that the expressions of L3 speakers are transparent and do not carry hidden meaning. L3 speakers are objective in their approach, and their purpose for speaking the language is different. Native speakers, however, speak English not only to convey the content objectively but they speak subjective and metaphorical language wherein their lexis carries idioms and many layers of meaning, which is the beauty of language.

Emmerson's theory was based on native, non-native, well-educated, semi-educated, business personnel, teachers, students and people who have multi-dimensional backgrounds whether they live in the west or in the east. He considered all of them to be part of the English-speaking world. For him, the concept of Standard English has to be revised and reconstituted. When he observes English speakers of different origins and ethnicities who speak non-RP or non-GA English but it is mutually understandable and acceptable sometimes with a non-standard form of grammar, he sees the emergence of a new form of English which is already fully operational and functional among its users. This L3 is supposed to be simple and easy. The importance of grammar is certainly there but it carries only secondary importance.

Emmerson's theory is very important from another angle, given the fact that he is going to be the pioneer of the new forthcoming standard of the English language. Currently, the number of non-native speakers of English in the world is greater than the number of native speakers and it is increasing daily. The English spoken by non-native speakers is going to dominate the world very soon. In the near future it is predicted that all varieties of non-native English will amalgamate and merge and a new, blended English will come into being containing a new and different vocabulary, accent and pronunciation. In this futuristic scenario, the hegemony of native English will certainly diminish and a new standard of English will replace the present one.

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Chapter Three

Humanistic Approaches in Language Teaching

Introduction

When different European civilisations and cultures came into contact during the Renaissance, learning foreign languages became a matter of importance. Since that time, different types of approach have been used in language teaching. During the First and Second World Wars and in the decades since, there have been many experiments in the process of teaching language. Some of the major trends and methodologies have been

1. the grammar-translation approach;
2. the direct method approach;
3. the reading approach,
4. the audio-lingual approach;
5. the oral or situational approach;
6. the cognitive approach;
7. affective humanistic approaches;
8. comprehension approaches;
9. communicative approaches; and
10. syllabus design approaches.

Language teaching has been a fluctuating field in which new theories emerge regularly and attract the attention of educationists. Some of the teaching methodologies become popular as soon as they emerge but others face a reluctant reaction to being accepted. Such has been the case with humanistic approaches to language teaching, which are seen as a purely American phenomenon based on an optimistic philosophy of education with a strong focus on individual and personal growth.

Despite the various methodologies and approaches, the traditional ways of dealing with the problems of learning and learners have often been criticised. Some of the theories are considered to be difficult to prove or irrational. Although these methodologies have had a significant positive

impact on language teaching, some educationists and critics have consistently discussed the lack of particular aspects in them.

Whenever a new theory emerges, it creates a sort of unrest among the people involved in the field. This has happened with the humanistic approaches to language teaching. In this paper, I shall go through the historical background to the emergence of the methodology of humanistic approaches in teaching language, the therapeutic origins of humanism, how language teaching has been affected by these theories and what sort of development has been seen in language teaching because of these theories. In order to do this, I shall describe some of the details of my own teaching context regarding teaching techniques and offer some suggestions on how to incorporate the humanistic approaches into this type of teaching system with reference to the age and language level of the students.

The historical background to the emergence of the humanistic approach to teaching language is linked to the humanistic psychology which emerged in the 1950s with the formation of the American Association for Humanistic Psychology (AAHP), whose founders included Carl Rogers, Abraham Maslow and George Kelly. In the early 1960s, Rogers, Maslow, Kelly, Combs and Arthur W. and George Isaac Brown had a deep concern about the prevailing education system in language teaching. Their worries about the existing system were mainly that it involved learners' heads only; their feelings and emotions were completely missing. Rogers (1957) stated that humans have a strong tendency to react to music, beauty and colour. A number of techniques and methods had to be introduced to humanise the education system. Including these aspects in education can result in better learning. They described it as knowledge transmission, not education. They said that too much apprehension about the intellectual or cognitive part of learning would cause serious social consequences. They believed that the love and the excitement had gone out of education; students felt left out, distanced and ignored. Interest needed to be raised. 'Bringing together ideas and learning' seemed to be the motivation for their approach. Another viewpoint which was heard from the critics was that too much irrelevant information was given in the current system; more focus should be given to the human side. The major failing of the existing system was an inability to help students to discover the personal meaning of the information provided. In the opinion of Moskowitz, "our preoccupation with information has dehumanized our schools, alienated our youth, and produced a system irrelevant for most students" (Moskowitz, 1978: 9).

When discussing the problems and promises of educational leadership, a number of critics have commented that in a dead classroom, learning is mechanistic, routine, over-ritualised, dull and boring. Robotic teachers perceive children as containers or receptacles whose primary function is to receive and hold subject matter. The live classroom, however, is one which is full of learning activities in which students are enthusiastically involved and each student is genuinely respected and treated as a human being by the teacher because "Learning involves living with uncertainty and unknown outcomes" (Shreeves, Sims & Trowler, 2010: 12).

The development of humanistic approaches in English-language teaching had its roots in the therapeutic origins of humanism in the context of education. The humanist psychology of Rogers, Maslow and Kelly was concerned with the exploration of the individual's inner thoughts and feelings with the motto 'Let's humanise education'. The therapeutic origins of humanism in English-language teaching will be discussed next.

Carl Rogers (1902-1987), a humanistic philosopher, counsellor, therapist and educator, put forward the idea of freedom to learn. The aim of Rogerian counselling was to help patients to become fully functional human beings in society. Counselling had to be based on a completely philanthropic attitude. A passion for listening and a helping attitude will help to develop self-esteem in order to make a person more confident. Rogerian counselling suggested three qualities which characterise a good therapist; these are the conditions which are needed to promote growth and self-acceptance in client-centric counselling:

1. *Empathy*: the ability to feel and understand an individual passionately;
2. *Prizing*: unconditional positive reward; and
3. *Genuineness*: the naturalness of the therapist, creating a natural relationship with a person.

Rogers believed that these features should be the main qualities of a good teacher. A teacher should be able to transfer these characteristics to the classroom and to facilitate his/her students. Humanistic learning theory stems from individual uniqueness, wholeness and potential. Rogers, Maslow and Kelly referred to an interest in "Topics having little place in existing theories and systems e.g., love, creativity, self-growth, self-actualization, higher values, being, becoming, spontaneity, play, humour, affection, naturalness, warmth, autonomy, responsibility".

In regard to the emphasis within humanism, the question arises: How can education be humanised? What characteristics will make it humanistic? Moskowitz (1978) suggested that it can be done by building a warm, supportive, accepting and non-threatening climate because everyone of any age and in any culture has the same basic needs, and that awareness strategies can be used to teach any language at any level and within any curriculum. The focus should be on identifying strengths, developing a positive self-image and giving and receiving positive feedback. To understand self and others makes a teacher's work more effective. The way to judge and evaluate strengths and weaknesses should be very cultured and refined; no-one should be put down and everybody is respected. A teacher can develop better interpersonal skills through low-risk activities in which students have a right to pass some things related to the language-learning class. Encouragement is essential in foreign-language learning and no students should be made to feel small.

Some procedural steps must be followed before carrying out an activity in the classroom in order for students to be fully prepared. They should know the purpose of the activity and they should be directed regarding examples and responses. After instructions have been given, the target activity should be carried out and after that, feedback should be gathered, such as what the students think that they have learnt from the activity and their feelings about the work which they have done. Then the teacher should summarise the purpose and the learning for the whole class. This would have a positive impact in foreign-language teaching. This might enable foreign-language teaching to play an important role in education towards co-operation and empathy. Stevick (1980) described the following five features of humanism:

1. *Feelings*: this aspect of humanism involves personal emotions and aesthetic approval. It encourages positive feelings in people regarding their surroundings and possessions. It refutes those feelings which compel human beings to not take pleasure in their artistic senses.
2. *Social relations*: this aspect gives confidence for students to develop friendly relations and to be co-operative with others and it discourages anyone to go against the prevailing attitudes.
3. *Responsibility*: this aspect recognises the importance of being criticised and scrutinised by society. It values self-correction and prevents people from feeling that their importance is being denied.
4. *Intellect*: this aspect deals with intelligence, reason and understanding. It fights against whatever gets in the way of thinking and

rationalisation. The mind works through this with all its capacity and reacts if it comes across something which is difficult to prove through intellect.

5. ***Self-actualisation***: self-realisation is a major part of this aspect of humanism. It is in fact a quest for the full realisation of one's deepest, truest qualities. This aspect believes that since conformity leads to enslavement, the pursuit of uniqueness brings about liberation.

Humanistic approaches draw their inspiration from psychology rather than from other disciplines such as linguistics. The language learner is regarded as a whole person with emotional and intellectual needs. Proponents of humanistic language teaching claim that their methods tend to reach those parts in learners which have traditionally been neglected. The three approaches which will be discussed in the following paragraphs, community language learning or counselling learning, suggestopaedia and the silent way, have been attributed to humanistic language teaching. Nunan (1991: 234) discussed a diverse range of classroom techniques and teaching methods and believed that

> … if learners can be encouraged to adopt the right attitudes, interests and motivation in the target language and culture, as well as in the learning environment in which they find themselves, then successful learning will occur, and if these affective factors are not right, then no set of techniques is likely to succeed, regardless of how carefully they have been devised or how solidly they are based on the latest theory and research.

Community Language Learning (CLL)

This is a method developed by a professor of psychology and a specialist in counselling, Charles Curran (1913-1978) and his associates. His application of psychological counselling techniques to learning is known as counselling-learning. The purpose behind it was to identify fully the roles of the teacher (the counsellor) and the learners (the clients) in the language classroom. It derived its primary insight from Rogerian counselling (Rogers, 1951). It was also described as a humanistic technique (Moskowitz, 1978); a blend of what the students feel and think about the learning of target languages. It is linked with another set of practices used in some types of bilingual education programme, referred to by Mackey (1999) as "language alternation".

CLL was primarily designed for monolingual conversation classes where the teacher-counsellor could speak the learners' L1. It is a method which is based on English for communication and is extremely learner-focused. The course focuses on learner empowerment. A typical CLL lesson has five stages (Bolitho, British Council, 1982):

1. Stage 1 - ***Reflection***
2. Stage 2 - ***Recorded conversation***
3. Stage 3 - ***Discussion***
4. Stage 4 - ***Transcription***
5. Stage 5 - ***Language Analysis***

In this format, several issues have to be taken into consideration if a CLL lesson is to work effectively, including the length of the stages and working with monolingual, multilingual or large classes. In a CLL classroom, students sit in a circle around a tape-recorder to create a community atmosphere. They reflect in silence about what they would like to talk about and can brainstorm their ideas on the board before recording them. First, they express their ideas in their L1 and the teacher translates the language chunks into English. If the students feel comfortable enough, they try to express themselves in English and the teacher can help to correct their English. When they feel ready to speak, they record their sentences into the microphone. Here they are working on pace and fluency. The third stage is a discussion about the students' views on how they think the conversation went and their feelings about recording their words into a microphone; they also judge their level of comfort while speaking for recording. They listen to the recording and transcribe their conversations. The teacher can intervene if the students want him/her to. At the start, the students might want the teacher to help frequently but the teacher should try to keep at a distance in order to enable them to learn by themselves (Parkinson & Maher, 1998). The teacher gives a further explanation and then gets the students to analyse the language of either the same lesson or the next one. This involves looking at the form of tenses and the vocabulary used. By this means, the students are totally involved in the analysis process, whether it is of tenses, lexis or discourse. The teacher can guide the analysis by choosing the most common problems encountered in the recording stages. The intention is to create a mutually supportive community in which learners 'grow' from a position of dependence on a teacher to the point where they are able to function autonomously. Richards and Rodgers (2001) stated that the timing of this will depend entirely on how quickly each class responds to all the levels of the CLL process. The teacher has to be careful to ensure that the

conversation does not become too long as this can undermine the effectiveness of the process.

Suggestopaedia

Georgi Lozanov (1926-2012), a Bulgarian neurologist, psychiatrist, psychologist and educator, developed *suggestopaedia*, a humanistic approach which is also known in the US as 'super learning', in the 1970s. It was based on the idea that as people get older, this inhibits their learning in order to conform to the social norms, and in order to reactivate their capabilities, teachers have to use the power of suggestion (Lozanov, 1978). He assumed that the only measures of linguistic problems in the language classroom are memorisation and understanding the students' personalities. Suggestopaedia was designed primarily to make these two processes more effective. Lozanov (1978) maintained that learners need a relaxed but alert state as the optimum state for learning. Suggestopaedia makes use of soothing, rhythmic music, a comfortable and relaxing environment and a relationship between the teacher and the student similar to the parent-child relationship: "The body relaxed, the mind becomes alert" (Ostrander, Schroeder & Ostrander, 1979: 74). The students' feelings should carry importance and they need to feel confident and relaxed. Music is vital for this approach and the type of music is critical to learning success:

> The idea that music can affect your body and mind certainly isn't new ....
> The key was to find the right kind of music for just the right kind of effect.
> The music you use in super learning is extremely important. If it does not
> have the required pattern, the desired altered states of consciousness will
> not be induced and results will be poor. ... It is specific music - sonic
> patterns - for a specific purpose. (Ostrander *et al*., 1979: 73-4)

In the music, specific instruments should not stand out from the orchestra because they are likely to distract the students, and the same instruments should be played throughout the work; the best choice is a string orchestra (Lozanov, 1978). Learners sit in comfortable chairs; there are flowers in the room; music is played as the teacher reads a foreign-language text and learners are encouraged to close their eyes. A translation of the text is also available (a question here is whether that would be helpful if their eyes were closed!). The musical rhythm affects body rhythms such as heartbeat, and researchers have noted that "with a slow heartbeat, mind efficiency takes a great leap forward" (Lozanov, 1978). Unlike other methods and approaches, there is neither an apparent theory of language nor an order in

which items of language are presented. However, Romhart (1996) stated that a lesson which involves the learning of vocabulary by means of flashcards has three parts to the music:

1. first, an introductory *largo* piece of baroque music (60 beats/min) helps the learner to relax (about three minutes);
2. second, students look at the flashcards to a background of soothing baroque music; and
3. third, a faster *allegretto* baroque movement (120 beats/min) wakes the students from their half-sleep (three minutes).

The teacher should use different intonations and rhythms to make each flash-card memorable. A suggestopaedic session, which is based on the memorising of text, is accomplished through a ritualistic concert session. In order to stimulate the students' creativity, accompanied by the correct background music, carefully made grammar posters are among other art posters hung in the classroom and teachers give a proper, dramatic reading. So what helps learners to visualise a context and aids their memorisation? The teacher uses both verbal and non-verbal ways to communicate the learning hypothesis: 'I am doing this so I am learning the language; I did it so I can use the language'. This is a necessary and continuous part of suggestopaedic teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

The Silent Way

This is a method of language teaching devised by Caleb Gattegno (1911-1988). It is based on the principle that the teacher should be silent as much as possible in the classroom and the learners should be encouraged to speak as much of the target language as possible. Its focus is on the potential of the learner to develop hypotheses on the basis of minimal teacher input and through continual self-evaluation, and it also works to improve the capacity of students to become highly independent (Larsen, 1986). The teacher should try to facilitate activities so that students can discover the conceptual rules governing the language for themselves rather than by imitating or memorising them (Brown, 1994). Richards and Rodgers (2001) described the key theories underlying the silent way:

1. learning is facilitated if the learner discovers and creates rather than remembers and repeats what is to be learned;
2. learning is facilitated by the accompanying (mediating) physical objects and sounds; and

3. learning is facilitated by problem-solving involving the material to be learned.

The elements of the silent way, particularly colour charts and coloured Cuisenaire rods, were introduced by Gattegno (1972). For learning first the sound and then the pronunciation of common words, these were innovative features. The teacher presents and elicits language from the pupils using these aids. The use of finger corrections and gestures reduces the teacher's talking time even further. In theory, the emphasis is on learning independently. Memory research has demonstrated that the learner's memory benefits from creatively searching out, discovering and depicting (Bower & Winzenz, 1970).

Gattegno (1972: 84) said that "each language is composed of phonological and suprasegmental elements that combine to give a language its unique sound system and melody". The silent way takes a structural approach to the organisation of language: "Language is seen as groups of sounds arbitrarily associated with specific meanings and organised into sentences or strings of meaningful units by grammar rules" (Richards & Rodgers, 1986: 19). Gattegno (1972) regarded vocabulary as a central problem of language learning and distinguished between several classes of vocabulary items because a second language is learned in a completely different way from L1. He stated that "The silent teaching is not merely a language teaching method but a recovery of innocence. A learner learns by acquiring 'inner criteria' which play a central role in one's education throughout all of one's life. It may be called a return to our full powers and potentials" Gattegno (1972: 11).

The silent way adopts a basically structured syllabus. It gives beginner-level students an aural facility in the basic elements of the target language. The general goal is near-native fluency and correct pronunciation (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The immediate object is to provide the learner with a basic practical knowledge of the grammar of the language. Gattegno (1972) devised different objectives for learners, such as becoming fluent in everyday conversation with a good accent, mainly about family, themselves and the notions, culture and literature of the target language; being able to describe a logically set object; and improving spelling, grammar, reading comprehension and writing. Gattegno (1972) further explained that learners are expected to develop independence and responsibility. The teacher has to create an environment which encourages students to take risks: "The teacher, like a complete dramatist, writes the script, chooses the props, sets the mood, models the

action, designates the players, and is critic for the performance" (Richards & Rodgers, 1986: 107).

The Effects and Influences of Humanistic Approaches to English-Language Teaching

English-language teaching (ELT) has undergone many changes. In different parts of the world, according to variations between cultures, backgrounds, phonological differences and sounds, language teaching is constantly, and quite naturally, constantly going through significant changes. It can clearly be seen that the direct method approach was a reaction to rote-based grammar-teaching techniques. Phonological approaches are also in decline in some parts of the world. The rise of reading approaches did not last long. From an audio-lingual approach to cognitive approaches and from communicative approaches to syllabus-type approaches, ELT has modified itself in order to create a very effective and acceptable method for a large part of the world.

Like other language-teaching methods, ELT consists of three main elements, the triangle of learner (student), learned (teacher) and material. If either of the latter two is weak, the entire labour falls on the student's shoulders; although the teacher and the material have an authoritarian role in the relationship. The motive behind this is not to measure the authority of the teacher or the authenticity of the material but to achieve success for the learner. Students have been neglected in most methodologies, treated as robots whose primary duty is to obey, memorise and follow. Their individuality, personality, feelings, preconceived ideas, natural ways and emotions have for the first time been brought into ELT by the humanistic approaches and this has created a whole new view of language teaching (Arnold, 1981).

Stevick (1990) listed five components of humanism: feelings, social relations, responsibility, intellect and self-actualisation. All of these aspects can be detected in the humanistic approaches but seem to have been missing in nearly all the previous methodologies. As human beings are marvellously diverse, so will their ideas and their realisations be (Arnold, 1981).

The main features of the humanistic approaches which contribute greatly to the effectiveness of language teaching are the focus on the learner's individual needs and the respect of personal opinions and individual differences. Every culture has its own preferences and strategies and the

theories are flexible enough to be incorporated partially, if not fully. Learner choice, self-direction, self-assessment and learner training mean that the learner's autonomy is completely respected, even though he/she can only make small choices. The approaches encourage the bonding of groups through sharing, exchanging and discussing experiences, opinions and feelings, and developing empathy.

The tasks encourage communication in the class with the sharing of some personal information. The learner has to be involved in the learning process through many opportunities to take part in activities such as negotiation. He/she may also get an opportunity to criticise the learning material and the method or technique of teaching.

Stevick (1976) discussed the methods and ideas described above. He rightly commented that the approaches should be used as an addition to traditional techniques, not a substitute. The importance given to the learners should lead them towards a genuine love of learning; they will be equipped with confidence and independence, which is one of the motivations for English language teaching. The humanistic language-teaching approaches bring a new view of the language teacher which includes recognition of the importance of his/her personal development. These skills will be much more effective if teachers are also concerned with their own emotional IQ.

Dulay and Burt (1973; 1974) talked about the socio-affective filter. These methodologies or approaches strongly affect the promotion of social relations. Moskowitz (1978) suggested the idea of the encouragement of caring and sharing between students and teachers in the foreign-language classroom as one of the very positive effects of ELT. In the following paragraphs, I shall present the arguments in favour of and against humanistic approaches.

No field in the world can claim that a particular theory has been accepted unanimously by all those involved in the field, and this is definitely the case with the liberal theory of the humanistic approaches. Brumfit (1989: 18) wrote that "We must be willing to have our minds changed. We must assist our opponents to attack our views by always being willing to continue the argument".

Although Brumfit was one of the critics of the humanistic approaches, his criticisms waere quite rational, and some strong objections and critical points were also raised by Gadd (1998: 227) who referred to "liberating

the teacher from the inappropriate and oppressive role of nurturer of the inner self" and in another place he pointed out that another shortcoming of the theories is that the "humanistic teacher is only concerned with the learner's feelings and inner life". He found fault with using techniques which involve the emotions or the inner self because maths and science teachers do not do so. He also criticised the situational talk regarding genre and registers.

All of Gadd's criticisms of the humanistic approaches have been answered by a number of linguists. For example, Arnold (1998: 235), regarding Gadd's objections about the role of a teacher, responded that "Humanistic language teaching is not conceived of as something to be imposed from above upon an unwilling teacher or to be prescribed for all teachers in a programme but rather as an opinion freely accepted or sought after, often those most drawn to humanistic education have a self-actualizing nature and a desire to help their students reach their fullest potential, as such they can be highly motivating teachers".

Arnold (1998) defended the humanistic approaches and said that the teacher has to facilitate the cognitive aspect of language learning and encourage the development of the whole person. Gadd's attack on the techniques used by humanistic teachers was answered by Arnold (1998) when she clarified that all subjects have a different temperament. Reid (1996: 3) explained that "students are motivated by self-discovery and by the control such knowledge brings". On the point raised about genre and register, Swales (1990: 58) affirmed that "it is not the case that all communicative events are considered instances of genre because normal conversation falls outside genre". Cambell and Kryszewska (1992) referred to the great variety of situations in students' socio-cultural contexts which lead to a wide range of registers.

Gadd (1998: 225) criticised humanistic language teachers for imparting values in education but Arnold (1998) wondered where all the English teachers who feel they have "the right to impose moral and ethical values" are. Brown (1994: 441-2) noted that "teaching is a political act and that a language teacher is an agent for change", but he also said that a teacher should be very careful not to push a particular philosophy or morality on to the students. The negotiation means harmoniously to tread critically and to write persuasively.

Gadd (1998) implied that focusing attention on the effects has nothing to do with cognitive development. Antonio Damasio ((1995: 12-15), cited in

Arnold), a neurobiologist, in his book *Descartes' error* asserted that "our emotional life is an integral component of the machinery of reasons and feelings. Along with emotions they … are not luxury but are just as cognitive as other perceptions".

Early (1982) wondered about the criticism that the humanistic approaches are simply meaningless. Brumfit (1984) also expressed various doubts about humanistic language teaching; for example, about the dangers inherent in transferring ideas from a medical to an educational domain. A number of other commentators have pointed out that the three humanistic methodologies discussed above are very different from each other either in conception or in realisation. Bolitho (1982) considered it misleading to lump them all together under the label 'humanistic approaches'.

Brumfit (1989), however, did not deny the value of a caring and sharing exercise. Moskowitz (1978) suggested that if the teacher is experienced and sympathetic, then the humanistic techniques are "worth adopting". But Early (1981: 136) commented on Moskowitz's claim that "… there are all sorts of cultural and practical constraints involved in applying many of the techniques known as humanistic, but in spite of these one is left fairly convinced that there is something valuable to be gained by using humanistic methodologies".

Brumfit (1989) attacked the idea of classrooms containing wholesome relationships but was happy to see the development of genuine relationships. He warned against spontaneity in the classroom and against humanistic teachers because, in his opinion, they are disposed to reject analytical modes of argument. He was not entirely opposed and he valued some of the humanistic teaching techniques; he admitted that the approaches which he had condemned were too concerned with the needs of learners as human being and not enough with their linguistic needs. But Early (1986: 362) asked "can they really be separated?" Denying the value of these approaches used simultaneously, he said, simply means "throwing out the baby with the bath water".

Learners' Needs and the Background

The English language has been taught in Pakistan since the country was formed and is used there as a second language. Although the national language and native languages are still used, English is used everywhere as the official language. There are three types of educational institute which are run under the patronage of the government. In the government's

educational institutes, English is a compulsory subject, whereas other institutes, such as the Islamic institutions, neglect language altogether. There are some privately-owned schools which are called 'English-medium schools' where the medium of learning is mainly English. Comparatively, these English-medium schools provide better learning as far as the English language is concerned. The government schools have failed to promote or teach the English language effectively. In order to prove this, I can give many examples of graduates and post-graduate students who are unable to write even a job application in English. Although many reasons can be given for this, it cannot be denied that the old, dull, outdated syllabus and incompetent teachers are the main causes of this situation. My grandfather is 73; he once took the English book of the 9th class from one of his granddaughters and surprisingly announced that it was the same book as he had used when he was studying at school. There is no need to explain that his son was also compelled to read the same book. In such a society where education and its related aspects have been denied the teaching of Standard English, talking about humanistic approaches to language teaching seems humorous.

Now that English has successfully become the language of the twenty-first century, it is the language of technology and trade, of business and communication and a symbol of status for a wide range of the population who understand the need for and importance of it. Those who are wealthy enough send their children to English-medium schools, which to some extent prove to be better. But large numbers of students obtain part-time admission to English language centres which have become a source of minting money. In nearly all the cities in Pakistan, those who can speak just a few sentences confidently (wrongly or rightly, who judges?) can open and establish their own language centres. Many poor learners whose backgrounds are far away from English language and culture get admission and then are simply unable to cope with the difficult grammar books and an untrained, totally unsympathetic teacher; thus their desire for and love of learning languages dies with the conclusion that the language is impossible to learn. People desperately want to learn the English language regardless of age. Their basic needs are:

1. to take competitive exams;
2. to obtain a job in some private company;
3. to pass the TOEFL or IELTS tests;
4. to pass promotional exams;
5. to look well educated;
6. to satisfy a superiority complex;

7. to be given a visa interview;
8. to satisfy job requirements;
9. to be able to marry abroad and
10. to get a job in a multi-national company or abroad.

I have taught in an institute where students of all ages, from sixteen to sixty, went for the purpose of learning English for one or more of the various needs listed above. The teaching system there was very traditional and the main focus was on finishing the syllabus or course within the target time. Students had to listen and follow under very strict circumstances. The teachers taught and worked under the supervision of the head-teacher, who used to make surprise visits to the classrooms. Students were given no opportunity to raise their own points of view. They had to act like dummies in order to be considered as an obedient student. Those who had an ability to ask questions or were confident enough to make some critical comment could face consequences such as expulsion from the centre or a change of class. How could such a regime possibly be appropriate for students?

In the system in which I taught, I sadly felt that there was no room for the intellectual or personal growth of students. Reasoning was forbidden, personality let-down was common, and there was no respect for differences in points of view. The teachers had, whether under the influence of western culture or with inspiration from the new theories in language teaching, to try to bring any sort of change to the syllabus or the class teaching system, or become more frank with students to convince them that they were important and that their personal strengths and weaknesses were respected, even though they were often the targets of critical comments made by staff members and other teachers. The humanistic approaches seemed just like a big leap towards a positive change, to a world in which teachers do not make students feel small and students can freely express themselves with full confidence. The humanistic approaches are helpful in the personal development of the teacher but, before anything else, proper training should be given to enable teachers to use the methodologies otherwise the only result will be the failure of language learning. Hallinger (2000) believed that "the single biggest obstacle to teacher development is their own fear of making mistakes". In my opinion, this very perceptive comment carries a lot of weight, especially in the context of Pakistan, where teachers who teach English have no firm command of the language themselves. Another question in this same context is how to motivate students' inner self to learn the second language.

Both features bear significance. Until and unless teachers take the initiative to stimulate students' independent thinking and self-respecting learning, the outcome will be at risk. To support and apply the humanistic approaches in language teaching is the need of the times. This should be wholeheartedly accepted as a wonderful addition to integrate into the existing teaching methodologies. Language influences behaviour. By using these methodologies in language teaching we could include students who until that time had been a neglected part of the language-teaching classrooms in Pakistan. These revolutionary teaching techniques encourage the development of the whole person and are helpful in their character building. Putting the emphasis on out-dated material and old grammar books which bore learners and burden them with a situation in which even the teacher has no interest will never lead to success in language learning. The result was that previously, every one of those institutes failed to produce good English speakers. In the language-learning process, they lacked those human aspects which give a person dignity and the desire to learn with respect and confidence.

There is much to say about the reasons why I feel that the humanistic approaches should be implemented in the language-teaching system. How beautifully Dorothy Law Nolte (1972) wrote that:

> If a child lives with encouragement,
> He learns confidence.
> If a child lives with praise,
> He learns to appreciate.
> If a child lives with fairness,
> He learns justice.
> If a child lives with security,
> He learns to have faith.

In the disordered and chaotic language-teaching system in which I taught, all these optimistic approaches were missing. A language such as English requires a learner to become more refined and cultured. To learn and to be a benefit to society seems to be the motive of these approaches. The importance of second-language learning has been generally accepted. The failure in the promotion of learning a language lies with the techniques and approaches which are used to teach it. Why should learners be deprived of the cultural aspect of language learning? The expectations of students were different from what happened in a language class. A well-structured class with an honourable, democratic and non-authoritarian attitude of the teacher will infuse a new spirit of learning in the students. The possible implications of using humanistic approaches in the classroom will be

discussed next and some suggestions for achieving them will be put forward.

Stevick (1980) stated that the purpose of the humanistic approaches is to provoke thought and reflection. In a prejudiced, fundamentalist, impatient and intolerant society in which accepting a new thought or challenge is rare, introducing humanistic approaches into any activity might attract negative criticism, a view that these trends must be criticised as another unwelcome impact of western culture. But the progressively minded, although they may be few in number, will agree with the ideology behind the approaches. Stevick (1980) suggested that every teacher should be an object of primacy in a world of meaningful action. So the teacher should let the students develop and exercise initiative and cooperation. It would indeed not be possible to introduce these methodologies all at once, but some of the aspects can be selected according to the situation and the circumstances. For example, the teacher's ego has to be left aside. The teacher talked a lot in previous methodologies; s/he now has to provide an open opportunity for learners to express themselves. Music is called 'food for the soul' in Asia. This aspect of the humanistic methodology will help the teacher to bring in music, and even flowers, to the classroom. This would be a real transformation in language teaching. Cambell and Kryszewska (1992: 5) wrote of the need to "change the balance of power in the classroom". Hunter (1988) described the English teacher as a "nurturer of the soul". Such teachers would have to be taken as models and students will learn from them how to argue, speak, defend a point of view, mount a critique and other similar skills. Their creativity and intellect should be let free. Let the learning include pleasure, care and affection. Grammatical books and the harsh way of teaching have dehumanised learning enough. It is time to humanise education in the subcontinent too.

Of course, cultural, political and educational barriers would be raised against the implementation of these theories in the language-teaching class. Students who have not previously observed or experienced such respect and freedom might initially go wild and react inappropriately at the beginning but what is needed to make the situation work is highly motivated teachers who have support from their head-teachers and who love teaching English. The determination of teachers can make them courageous enough to negotiate with the authorities and convince them that the change is necessary. But before that can happen, teachers should be confident and optimistic about the positive rewards and the success of the humanistic language approaches.

Conclusion

In this paper, I have highlighted the importance of learning foreign languages, particularly English, and have described some of the major traditional teaching methodologies which had been in practice ever since the need for second-language teaching and learning was realised. In this current context, 'second language' means the English language. English is no longer an alien language in most parts of the world. As well as native English-speaking countries, there are countries where English is used as a second language and in many other countries it is used as a foreign language. The formation of the American Association for Humanistic Psychology by educationist philosophers introduced a new trend for using music, beauty and colour to humanise the education system which was far different from the simple traditional ways of teaching L2.

I have discussed the emergence of the application of humanistic approaches to language teaching with the purpose of making second-language learning more effective, with unconventional ideas and concepts where the language-learning process should touch feelings and emotions and not just the brain in a warm, supportive, accepting and non-threatening environment. A number of philosophical teaching methodologies have been discussed, such as community language learning, suggestopaedic teaching and the silent way, and the criticisms which these theories have attracted have also been considered. These teaching techniques have been accepted enthusiastically and incorporated into a learning environment by linguists in countries and societies where educational experiments are possible and where the desire to achieve better results is not a matter of controversy.

When it comes to learners' needs, however, and the background in conservative societies where the aims of learning and teaching are very much associated with the traditional conventional norms which involve strict reinforcement and discipline, incorporating humanistic teaching methods which are more philosophical than theoretical in their very nature is still a huge challenge. In a country such as Pakistan, both government-run educational institutes and private education providers are reluctant to introduce new methods in the teaching arena. To introduce and practise any humanistic educational theory not only needs strong determination and zeal from teachers in order to achieve the expected results, it also needs the intelligent coordination of the education-providing institutes.

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CHAPTER FOUR

LEARNING ENGLISH THROUGH LITERARY CHUNKS

Introduction

This paper is concerned with the lexical approach to learning English through literary chunks, its definitions, basic types of chunks and some theoretical principles of lexical items. In the world of ESL and EFL in the second half of the twentieth century, more emphasis was put on the teaching of grammar than on other components of language such as vocabulary and chunks. This practice has not achieved the successful results which are needed. Therefore, in the light of research on the lexical approach to learning English, in the first part of this paper, I shall discuss the lexical approach and its theoretical key principles. I shall then consider what types of chunks have been distinguished in the previous literature by examining what words, collocations, fixed expressions, semi-fixed expressions and small word groups of lexical items are and how they differ from each other.

I shall also discuss the findings of current research which show that language is not just a combination of grammar and vocabulary but that another fundamental component is lexical chunks which successfully form the structure of language. For use in countries where the entire focus is on learning language through grammar, I shall suggest some methods of teaching through chunks which could make the learning process easier and more interesting and I shall explore the possibilities of teaching language through literature, where various chunks of language are defined interestingly, which might be helpful in language learning.

The Lexical Approach

Most ELT teachers in non-English-speaking countries such as Pakistan, India and Bangladesh believe that it is an unarguable supposition that language comprises the components of grammar (structure) and

vocabulary (words). Recent advanced research, however, has pointed out that complete phrases with a single meaning (chunks) form a significant proportion of language and that if these chunks are taught and learned properly, the cyclical process of learning L2 can become easier. Studies exploring this essential element which plays a vital role in the formation of language were carried out in the early 1980s, when Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) suggested that "Perhaps we should base our teaching on the assumption that language production consist of piecing together the ready-made units appropriate for a particular situation". Pawley and Syder (1983) agreed with this suggestion and added that "Multiword chunks form a high proportion of conversational English".

The recognition and comprehension of lexis came into a broader spectrum when Lewis (1993) challenged the fundamental view about the proportions of language and said that "Language consists of chunks which, when combined, produce continuous coherent text that can be of different types". Lewis also emphasised that although vocabulary is just a list of words, it nevertheless carries more meaning than grammar and that each lexical item is a unit of meaning. Lewis (1993) set out a number of theoretical key principles regarding the issue of lexical items:

1. Grammar is taught inaccurately in comprehensible rules.
2. Grammar examples are often misrepresented in teaching material.
3. Important language patterns have not been noted because of the emphasis on the production of correct sentences.
4. As far as second-language acquisition is concerned, there is no research evidence that explicit knowledge of grammar and acquisition of the grammatical system leads to effective learning. Language consists of grammaticalised lexis not lexicalised grammar.
5. The primacy of speech over writing is recognised.

Lewis (1993) did not deny the importance of grammar and said that grammatical information is useful to students but that grammar does not mean simply the system of tenses. Research has proved that grammar as structure is subordinate to lexis and that therefore language consists of chunks which, when combined, produce continuous meaning, and that this should be given appropriate attention in order to learn a language effectively. In addition, it is important to realise that the meaning of lexical items is not totally predictable from the form as each item is a minimal unit and a social institution. The basic types of chunk are discussed next.

a) Words

The largest of the four categories in the lexicon, words that can stand alone, such as 'open' and 'certainly', are lexical items. But words in themselves are not the basic units out of which English is built. Having different varieties, some words carry more meanings than others and actually it is the *use* of the words which determines their importance. Special uses carry more significance or meanings. Since the majority of words are nouns, there are fewer verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions or other frequently used words. Some single words produce totally new meanings when used alone and become substitutes for complete sentences, such as 'absolutely', 'exactly' and 'please'.

b) Collocations

"Collocations describe the way individual words co-occur with others" (Lewis, 1993: 93). Not every combination of two words can necessarily create a collocation. Particular words co-occur in natural text, such as 'last year', 'wedding anniversary', 'bread and butter'. They are not randomly selected words because simply changing the position of the words will not give the appropriate or expected meaning but will seem rather odd to the listener, such as 'butter and bread', and 'chips and fish'. McCarthy (1990) gave an example of collocation using the similar words 'blond' and 'beige': 'blond hair' and 'beige car' make sense, but not 'blond car' and 'beige hair'. Some collocations are weaker than others. For instance, 'blond hair' has a stronger word partnership than 'brown hair'. Very likely collocations are 'light suitcase', 'red light' and 'safe system'. A number of free collocations have been distinguished. Free collocations or relatively weak collocations were listed by David Brazil (cited in Lewis, 1997) as 'word-like objects'; weak ones like 'a nice day' or 'a good chance' combine two common words each of which may occur with other words.

c) Fixed Expressions

Fixed expressions have a special status in a language. The key feature of expressions of this type is that they are fully fixed, unlike semi-fixed words which may be completed in a limited number of ways (Lewis, 1997). Some most frequently used recognised fixed expressions are 'no way' and 'guess what?' These expressions have special significance in the formation of language. For example, in the case of social greeting, there are polite phrases such as 'good morning', 'happy birthday', 'thank you' and 'I am fine'. Fully fixed expressions often consist of verb-less

expressions in everyday conversation, but not all of them are verb-less. Phrases in this category are 'could you tell me please', 'I'd like to' and 'hang on'. Some examples of fully fixed expressions are 'Not too bad, thanks', 'by the way' and 'many happy returns'. Idioms also fall into this category. For instance, 'Hang on! You are putting the horse before the cart there'.

d) Semi-Fixed Expressions

The key difference between fixed expressions and semi-fixed expressions is that semi-fixed expressions have some slots and fillers. For example, in the sentence 'I've got a stone in my shoe', another nominal can replace 'stone': 'a pebble'/ 'a nail' / 'something'. Linguistically, of course, the slot can be filled with any other word such as 'apple', 'pen' or 'snake', but the chosen word should be relevant to real-world knowledge. Moreover, the sentence head in a semi-fixed expression can also be filled in many ways, but the meaning should be probable and logical. In contrast to fully fixed expressions, there are an enormous number of semi-fixed expressions in spoken and written language. Lewis (1993:11) commented that, "The semi fixed category contains items which are hardly covered by the informal use of 'expression'. This is a large and important category which contains a spectrum, from very short to very long and from fixed to very free". These items can occur without thinking in conversation, and in surprising, interesting and annoying situations. A vast number of semi-fixed expressions occur extensively in language, such as 'it's mine' or 'that's great' or 'nice to see you'. Time expressions using 'for (twenty minutes)' or 'since (last Monday)' and spoken sentences with a simple slot such as 'could you do me a favour?' and 'could you pass the sauce, please?' are all examples of semi-fixed expressions.

e) Poly Words / Small Groups of Lexical Items / Multi-Word Items

Poly words are different from semi-fixed and fixed expressions and are categorised somewhere in between words and the main multi-word categories. Some expressions have no similar alternative; for instance, 'once in a blue moon' and 'barking up the wrong tree'. The expression 'On the other hand' is restricted to hands only: it would be bizarre to write or say 'on the other arm' or 'on the other leg'. Word combinations such as 'bread and butter' and 'to and fro' are not accepted the other way round; these are called mini-idioms. However, gender pairings in English are illogical – sometimes the male idiomatically comes first, sometimes the female: 'boys and girls', ladies and gentlemen', husbands and wives',

'aunts and uncles'. Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) actually treated poly words as a separate class of lexical item. They are often adverbial phrases of different kinds; for example, 'the day after tomorrow', 'every now and then', 'on either side of' and 'upside down'.

The Lexical Approach through Literary Chunks

Maley and Duff (1989) stated that literature is used in different ways and different contexts. Language learning is one of the purposes of using literature. The reason for teaching language through literature can simply be that works of literature contain different sentences as well as the vocabulary related to specific situations and the learner can feel him/herself to be part of the situation and therefore particular literary chunks remain stuck in the learner's mind and he/she keeps on repeating them from time to time. Examples are the lines of well-known children's rhymes such as '*Jack and Jill went up the hill to fetch a pail of water*' and '*Two little dickey birds sat on a wall*'. By continually repeating lines of this type, learners may make some of the concepts clear with the use of the same sense with slightly different meanings, such as, 'went up the stairs', 'went up on the roof' or 'went up'; 'fetch something', 'fetch books' or 'fetching things'. In the same way, two little dickey birds can be extended to 'two, three or more than one friend sat down somewhere' or 'the four friends sat everywhere together', 'sat on the floor', 'sat on a bench'. Language learners can add extra words to make these small chunks more related to everyday conversation, such as 'let's sit at the table', or 'we can sit around', or 'sit down' or 'sit near the lake'.

Cook (1994) advocated the idea of learning language through repetition but this view was criticised by other researchers at the end of twentieth century. But in countries where English is still not a commonly spoken language, the idea of learning through repetition cannot be overlooked. Cook (1994) was of the opinion that learners can learn a language by continually repeating words, word phrases, chunks, verses, idioms or sentences, and that these single words, phrases or the combination of some of them will provide valuable help to a learner if they are repeated often. However, the question now arises of what type of literature and what kind of teaching would be most appropriate for improving learners' knowledge of chunks. Woolard (1997) found that poems which carry a rhythm and keep on repeating different feelings through rhyming words became a wonderful source of learning language. It is obvious that teaching language through literature does not mean to make the learner expert in

literature or enhance her/his intellectual ability, but the main aim is to teach language through repetition of chunks from interesting and well-known short stories and nursery rhymes which are common in Eastern societies too. Surprisingly, some of the chunks are memorised by children who constantly repeat them even in their play, such as when they are skipping over ropes and going down slides. For example, '*Rain, rain, go away*' can be heard in playgrounds in non-English speaking Europeanised cities on rainy days. Children who attend nurseries or play centres continually recite '*Twinkle, twinkle little star*' or '*Little red monkey bumping on the bed*' mainly because these rhymes relate to their favourite animals or toys and to other familiar things in their lives.

The focus must be on rhymes and short stories which contain chunks which are important for forming sense. Learning chunks from beginning to end according to a specific situation can help learners to identify their meaning(s) and use them in similar situations. Although not much literature has been written about this, there are nevertheless some studies which have supported the idea. For example, Woolard (1997) supported the value of repetition and provided examples of some poems which could be recited by students during learning activities which might lead them to empathise, to feel, to be amused and to be happy. The rhyming and rhythmic sounds, and the effects of simple and poetic thoughts can make students want to carry on repeating the verses. Commonly held facts, beliefs and opinions are often expressed through structure and provide a rich text in terms of ideas and images by using formulas such as 'it is generally known', 'it is agreed that', 'most people know', 'everybody knows'. Woolard (1997) gave examples of student-produced poems designed to inspire learners which contain frequently repeated chunks and can retain learners' interest.

For a model, take the example of the student-produced systematic poem '*Happiness*':

> *Happiness is when you realise a dream;*
> *happiness is when you are alive;*
> *happiness is when I can really be with myself;*
> *happiness is when you are with me;*
> *happiness is when the whole world smiles.*

Rudyard Kipling's great poem '*If*' carries many repeatable chunks such as,

> *If the wind could sweep away our sorrows*
> *if there were a God ...*

if we could speak their language ...
if we said less / if we listen more ...
if there were no violence …

With a poem, so many personal and collective dreams of human beings can easily capture learners' minds and they can keep on repeating chunks over and over again. This repetition might lead them to memorise the chunks and they might become able to connect them and fit them into everyday situations. Teachers can use audio recordings of these rhymes or learners can listen to them and read them as many times as required. Some students are also keen to repeat or read rhymes in the classroom. It is necessary to repeat only those chunks which occur frequently in works of literature rather than giving attention to those chunks which only appear once. Suitable chunks should be written out separately and exercises should be set for students to use them in their writing as well as in their speaking.

The Lexical Approach through Chunks in ESL Countries

In my opinion, it has long been assumed by language teachers in Pakistan and India, although not accepted evidentially, that teaching English through hard and fast rules of grammar or by memorising a large vocabulary neither helps learners as much as they would like nor produces impressive results. The system by which English is taught in countries such as Pakistan can help learners to classify words, verbs, adverbs, nouns, pronouns and adjectives in all their forms, to distinguish between singular and plural, to learn opposite words, phonetic sounds, spellings, syllables, tenses, morphemes, syntax and so on, but not actually to speak the language. There is no significant difference between the syllabus designs in government-run and private schools except for the difference in teaching material. From my experience of teaching, course books from class one to graduate level consist of extracts from literary works, essays, poems and dramas. After each chapter, there are grammar-related exercises testing what has been learned.

Viewing language as lexis rather than as a straightforward combination of grammar and vocabulary can supply an essential re-evaluation of content, material, methodology, ways of learning and the attitude of the teacher. The present context in which students learn English as a second or foreign language is based on an examination system. The students memorise expected essays and other question/answer elements in order to take examinations in both government-run and private schools. The only

difference between the systems is that private school teachers are often better English users than government teachers. The process, however, has not helped students to learn the target language to the required level. So some students enrol in language centres which are privately run by either NGOs (non-government organisations) or by individuals. These students are often between the ages of 16 and 22, but older people who need to improve their English either because of job requirements or for their own learning purposes sometimes join these institutes. In my experience, applying or implementing any new methods in government-run or private schools/colleges in order to teach English effectively is not easy. Nevertheless, a novel technique such as language teaching through literary chunks can be used in language centres where teachers have some liberty to discuss the process with the authorities and then apply it in their teaching, maybe with some minor necessary changes according to their cultural trends.

Unlike in the past, ordinary citizens love to learn English in most of the countries which had been British colonies; therefore there are chances that they might like new ideas and benefit from them. Introducing teaching language through chunks certainly depends on a very carefully devised systematic plan. To those teachers who have habitually followed the traditional methods without bothering about the results, the idea of using a new teaching technique may be anathema. It is also very likely that the school's owners may not let the teachers introduce or present a new procedure. Bringing a fundamental change in the traditionally accepted rules of teaching and learning a language can be easily avoided, even though it clearly seems to be a wonderful approach to answering many unsolved issues which hard and fast rules of grammar have consistently failed to resolve. But the challenge in implementing a new technique such as teaching through literary chunks successfully needs a thorough study of the critical analyses of the approach in order to envisage what hurdles practitioners might face when implementing it. How to overcome these fears and what type of literature would be acceptable to teachers and students will be discussed in the next section.

The Implementation of the Lexical Approach
in the Classroom

The idea of teaching language through chunks takes me to the world of words where fairy tales, stories, folk lures, poetry, anecdotes, riddles and small interesting pieces of writing contain hundreds of chunks which can

be taught, recalled, repeated, enforced and reinforced through a well-planned teaching scheme. Lewis (1992) said that learning through chunks can make non-native speakers close to native speakers. Although there might be a negative reaction such as 'I cannot tell / write/ create stories', Morgan and Rinvolucri (1983) answered that there may be, but if so you are in the minority. With regard to the question of teaching these lexical chunks, Willis (1990) believed that teachers should help students to notice patterning and to speculate about it, and should encourage them to analyse the language that they have experienced. Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) recommended that teachers should help students to learn these chunks through literary or creative language.

As far as the usefulness of chunks is concerned, their value is increased if they can be taken from different poems and sources and they must carry interest so that learners can enjoy repeating them over and over again. Nation (2000:163) suggested reading a vocabulary graded scheme of the Oxford '*Bookworms*' series. There are six levels in the series: a learner needs a vocabulary of around 400 words to read the book at level 1. Level 2 adds another 300 words making a total of 700 or 800 words. All of the books from level 2 to level 6 are within this vocabulary range. Some of the titles are simplifications and abridgements of famous works (for example, Sherlock Holmes's Short Stories and Bram Stoker's *Dracula*). This has encouraged some teachers to call graded readers 'language learner literature'. By reading these books, learners increase their vocabulary and it makes them confident about learning from a book in which 95% of the vocabulary is familiar and the remaining 5% can be understood with the help of a dictionary or by guessing. The learning conditions would not put a heavy burden on the learner's mind. Nation and Wang (1999) concluded that the graded reading scheme helps to reinforce and establish previously met vocabulary. The process (teaching language through chunks) will require teachers who are liberal in their thinking and well aware of the previous as well as the current teaching approaches so that they can implement the new concept with confidence, so it seems essential that the method should have cohesion between content, structure, theory and practical application in order to appeal to learners and retain their curiosity in the process to obtain high-quality results.

Students in an English-language-learning environment are often heard reciting poetry and singing English songs. This can provide a wonderful opportunity to select chunks from the poems and songs in order to build a new structure on them. However, because of cultural taboos, students may not be allowed in classrooms to repeat verses which contain descriptions

of physical beauty, references to sex or slang. Conversely, fairy tales such as *Cinderella*, *Beauty and the Beast*, *Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs* and *Jack and the Beanstalk* will add more interest to learning because they are full of many powerful repeated phrases and chunks; powerful in the way that they knit the whole tale together by recalling or repeating, and learners must recreate the tales with the help of these chunks. For instance, the tale, 'A spelling lesson' in *My Treasury of Stories and Rhymes* (2005: 266), consists of a series of chunks. The whole story can be presented as a model which will help learners to learn language through chunks. These chunks perhaps are one of the most suitable examples of ways that can enable learners to produce sentences on their own way in their everyday chat. Although the chunks in the story are not repeated, their simplicity and use with multiple meanings makes them a suitable model. It is important to remember that each of these sentences occurs only once in the whole short story. The following are some examples:

> *She went wandering through a very spooky wood.*
> *She loved to practise spooky spells.*
> *She gave a tree a creepy face that would frighten anyone who happened to be*
>   *passing.*
> *As quick as lightening she waved her wand.*
> *The wizard fell straight into the water.*
> *Although the water was not very deep,*
> *Say sorry! roared the wizard.*
> *You will stay like that.*
> *She was shocked to have met someone who was even speedier and nastier than*
>   *her.*
> *She apologised hastily to the wizard.*
> *She promised from now on there would be no more nasty spells.*

Even if in the real world learners cannot meet wizards and witches or cast magic spells, the formation of these chunks can help learners in many ways. Almost all of the texture of the sentences can easily be transferred to everyday observations and to experiences in everyday life.

For example, I can begin by using the chunks to make sentences related to the real world one after another:

> He/she/they/I went wandering the across the ground/in the passage/through the space/ on the beach … and so on.
> I/we/he/she/they loved to play basketball/loved to practise maths/loved to eat ice-cream/loved to watch movies.
> I/you/we/they gave the picture a spooky impression/gave the flower a touch/gave the boy a spooky mask.

> As quick as possible, as quick as the wind/as quick as a storm, he/we/you/they waved your hand/waved your scarf.
> The boy/the child/the toy fell straight into the hole/on the ground/in the junk yard/over the sack.
> Although the hole was not so deep/the water was shallow/the ground was not cemented/the puddle was deep …

In this way, each sentence can be completed in several different ways into diverse sentences with completely different meanings. There is no need to judge the learner's intellectual level or reaction speed but the main focus should be on the making of chunks which occur frequently in real life. Teachers should deliberately include anecdotes, riddles, short poems, newspaper cuttings or magazine articles about movies, dramas, famous personalities and significant events which contain meaningful chunks.

Teachers should be very careful to select the right texts. The term 'literary chunks' might persuade a non-English speaker to use established works of literature as models, but it would be very unhelpful to teach EFL students chunks of literature from Jane Austen, Conan Doyle, Charles Dickens, Shakespeare or Chaucer. It would be far better to use contemporary texts and even film and television scripts. This is not a sensitive cultural issue but simply a potential misunderstanding of what 'literature' is.

The idea of teaching English through chunks might initially be criticised as its practicality has not yet been fully tested but enthusiastic learners and teachers who are fully convinced about the method can make the process successful. It does, however, need continuous cautious endeavours to make teaching language through chunks refined and advanced. Teachers should draw help from collections of stories and rhymes which are easily available at bookstores. For example, a teacher could use the well-known tale *Rumpelstiltskin* from *My Treasury of Stories and Rhymes* (2005: 56-61) and use quotations or underline chunks one after another. Some of the chunks in the story which might carry significance are listed here with the number of instances that they appear in the six pages of the story:

> *Bring her to the palace at once. (1)*
> *What will you give me if I spin? (2)*
> *She sat down and wept. (3)*
> *If you succeed this time, you will become queen. (1)*
> *You know what will happen? (1)*
> *The child is mine. (1)*
> *Your time's running out. (1)*
> *He could not believe his ears. (1)*
> *Flew into a rage. (1)*

Who told you? (2)
You've won (2)

And the song which is sung by little man in the tale also carries interesting chunks. For example:

I'll be the winner of this game! (1)
The queen will never guess my name! (1)
She will lose and I will win. (1)

It is not a bizarre idea to say that these chunks could help students to use them with slightly different words, images and ideas in order to memorise them and become able to create meaningful sentences using them. The best way for a teacher to use them would be to read them aloud slowly, in a measured way, using plenty of eye contact, but those teachers who do not feel sufficiently confident to read aloud adequately could take help from audio-recorded stories. Each of the stories or poems has to be scattered across different exercises. That would lead to practising chunks and repeating the complete sentences and chunks and would thus facilitate learners.

The circumstance in which a new technique of learning L2 such as through literary chunks has to be applied may seem difficult at the beginning but by maintaining motivation and undertaking research into studies carried out in the relevant field, a teacher can convince students as well as the school authorities about the positive aspects of advanced research. Rejecting the idea without attempting to implement it would never bring about any positive result. It is essential, however, that the selection of the type of stories and poems must not come across as conflicting with susceptible strong cultural values in different societies. The teacher must always be aware of the sensitivity of Islamic and eastern taboos.

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CHAPTER FIVE

THE ROLE OF MOTIVATION IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Introduction

The beginnings of research into the importance of individual differences in language learning can be traced back to the end of the nineteenth century when they were first investigated scientifically by Sir Frances Galton (1822-1911). He regarded individual differences as a loose notion containing a number of core variables and many optional variables, including the influence of L1, the education system, cultural differences, the environment, family background, learners' abilities, gender, reason for learning, interest, teaching methodology, academic standard, the teacher's personality and knowledge of the language, appropriate use of material, age, intelligence, understanding between learner and instructor, reason for the learning attitude, language aptitude and motivation. Valuable research has been carried out on all of these variables and the findings made by linguists have suggested that motivation is of fundamental importance (Savignon, 1976). Research carried out in the various fields has shown that regardless of age, aptitude, reason for learning, self-interest, intelligence or the influence of L1, it is motivation which is a basic element in enabling progress to be made and in causing differences in the acquisition of the target language.

Discussions of motivation in individual differences in the learning of a second language have been limited by placing too much emphasis on attitude. This does not do full justice to the way in which L2 researchers have used the term 'motivation' (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991). Savignon (1976: 295) claimed that motivation "is the single most important factor in second language learning". Its rate and effects can be clearly seen in the success of second-language acquisition (SLA). Motivation can be developed by the careful selection of learning tasks to achieve the required level of success. Because it is such an important factor in L2 achievement, it is necessary to identify all the major types and combinations of

motivation which assist in SLA. From the social-psychological period to the cognitive-situated period, many theories have been put forward which have regarded the role of motivation in learning L2 as an issue of great significance. Theories in international psychology have also focused on motivational changes and their impacts on the L2 learner. More recently, newer concepts such as group dynamics, demotivation, the motivational self, self-regulation and the neurobiology of motivation have been described as showing that a number of internal and external forces can result in both motivation and de-motivation. It would be interesting to review all the research carried out in the respective fields but, because of the limited space available in this paper, I shall focus on the importance of motivation, its main components and the impact of integrative and instrumental motivation. Primary and secondary motivation will be discussed along with the teacher's role in promoting motivation in students.

Difference between Motivation and Attitude

The belief that motivation is one of the key factors in SLA has long been and continues to be important. It is defined as the learner's orientation with regard to the goal of learning a second language. Corder's comment that "Given motivation, anyone can learn a language" (cited in Skehan, 1989: 49) hints at the importance of avoiding unfavourable circumstances as well as other negative aspects in SLA. The theories on SLA do not always clearly explain the distinction between attitude and motivation, as motivation, attitude, thoughts, beliefs and anxiety are all in fact behaviours which cannot be directly observed or measured (Ellis, 1985). This makes research difficult and findings complex. But through the study of related investigations, it can be seen that motivation is one of the external factors which, combined with other factors, can have a great influence on a learner's success in SLA: it plays a vital role in learning strategies, interest and materials as well as in the effort required for learning. Gardner (1985) proposed the following equation to represent the components of motivation:

Motivation = effort + desire to achieve a goal + attitude.

For Gardner, 'effort' had various components such as compulsiveness, a desire to please teachers or parents, enthusiasm for achievement, good study habits and social pressure related to examination or reward. He described 'attitude' as related to behaviour, though not necessarily directly. The middle term in the equation, 'the desire to achieve a goal',

refs to the particular goal which is involved. Acquisition of L2 in this context and integrative orientation shape the direction for the motivation to operate. From Gardner's equation, it can be seen that "motivation is a function of effort plus desire to attain a goal plus attitudes" (Skehan 1989: 55). Schumann (1985) listed attitude as a social factor with variables such as the size of the learning group and motivation as an affective factor alongside cultural shock. He further commented that it is obvious that there is no general agreement about what precisely motivation or attitude consist of or the relationship between the two. According to Dörnyei (2005), three important phases of L2 motivation research can be identified:

1. the social-psychological period, led by the work of Gardner and Lambert;
2. the cognitive-situated period, characterised by work drawing on cognitive theories in educational psychology; and
3. the process-oriented period initiated by Dörnyei and his colleagues focusing on motivational changes.

Specific Motivations

Gardner and Lambert (1972) described two patterns of motivation; integrative motivation and instrumental orientation. Integrative motivation is characterised by the learner's positive attitude towards the language group and the desire to integrate into the target language community and to identify with the foreign culture and people. Integrated motivation helps where the L2 functions as a foreign language. It is an extension of Mowrer's (1950) account of motivation in L1 learning. Mowrer (1950) argued that the child associates the language which he hears with the satisfaction provided by the parent's presence. So the L2 learner may be motivated to identify with the L2 speech community by learning their language better. Gardner and Lambert (1972) linked integrative motivation to "additive bilingualism" because learners with an integrative motivation are likely to maintain their mother tongue when they learn an L2. In an EFL setting, as Benson (1991) suggested, this represents the desire of the individual to become bilingual and bicultural. This occurs through the addition of another language and culture to the learner's own cultural identity.

Instrumental orientation, in Gardner's view, is not rooted in the personality of the learner. When the learner's goals for learning are functional and when the L2 functions as second language, it underlies the goal to gain some social and economic rewards through the L2: for example, learning

might be directed towards passing examinations, having access to career opportunities or studying through the medium of the L2. Gardner and Lambert (1972) suggested that instrumental motivation is more likely to be linked to "subtractive bilingualism" when the learner either loses his mother tongue or fails to develop the ability to express particular functions in L1. In some cases, however, instrumentally motivated learners seem to achieve a high level of proficiency. With instrumental motivation, the purpose of language acquisition becomes more utilitarian, such as meeting the requirements of school, college, university, job, office or promotion, reading technical material or achieving higher social status.

Integrative *versus* Instrumental Motivation

Both types of motivation are essential for success in SLA, but it is integrative motivation which has been found to sustain long-term success when learning a language at school (Taylor *et al*., 1977; Ellis, 1997; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991). In the earlier work of Gardner and Lambert (1972), integrative motivation was viewed as being of more importance than instrumental motivation and in later studies, integrative motivation has continued to be emphasised. Now, however, the importance of instrumental motivation has been proved in a situation where the learner is provided with no opportunity to use the target language and no opportunity to interact with members of the target culture (Lukmani, 1972). Later studies have found instrumental motivation to be more important than integrative motivation. Kachru (1977) pointed out that in India, where English has become an international language, success in the L2 through instrumental motivation has been successfully achieved. Brown (2000) explained that integrative and instrumental motivation are not necessarily mutually exclusive. He cited the example of international students residing in the US who learn English both for academic purposes and simultaneously because they wish to integrate with the people and culture of the L2. Sometimes, therefore, a combination of the two can be clearly observed.

Alternative Motivational Orientation

Gardner's work focused primarily on integrative and instrumental orientation. Gardner (1985) indicated that there are other types of motivation, and these were also identified by Clément and Kruidenier (1983), who attributed to their learners 37 reasons for learning the L2. Their research identified four common factors for eight subject groups. Interestingly, one of the factors was labelled 'instrumental'. A second factor was 'friendship', which is

close to an integrative orientation. The other two factors which they found common to all groups were 'travel', and 'knowledge' or 'understanding'. Some additional factors emerged in some groups, such as familiarity/involvement and the importance of the language curriculum. Clément and Kruidenier (1985) developed a model wider than that of Gardner and tried to account for motivation in the individual in clear relationship to the social setting in the acquisition of L2. Brown (1989) distinguished between motivation and attitude and identified three types of motivation:

1. *global motivation*, which consists of a general motivation towards the goal of learning an L2;
2. *situational motivation*, which varies according to the situation in which learning takes place because classroom learning is different from naturalistic learning; and
3. *task motivation*, which is the motivation for performing particular learning tasks.

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic motivation has been described as one of the internal factors in the learning process (Dörnyei, 2001). It is the enthusiasm which results from curiosity. It is evident when people want to learn something on their own without any obvious external incentives. Educational psychologists have been studying it intensively since the 1970s and have found evidence in educational achievements. It is clear that the idea of being rewarded for achievement is not important in intrinsic motivation. Students can experience intrinsic motivation if they attribute their educational result to internal factors or are motivated towards deep mastery of a topic to achieve a good score.

Extrinsic motivation has traditionally been used to motivate employees by means of bonuses, extra payment and promotion. Praise and public commendation are also examples of extrinsic motivation. In learning an L2, both factors can be involved according to the need and developmental level of the learner. In intrinsic motivation, students' inner urge encourages them to accomplish their goal with zeal, whereas many external factors can be involved in extrinsic motivation, such as reward and other enticements to learn.

Primary and Secondary Motivation Processes

The primary and secondary motivational processes are based on the attitude of the learner towards the target language community and on keeping the balance between the two opposing forces of integrative-ness. Greater integrative-ness will lead to a positive temperament towards language learning but success comes from having an awareness of the learning situation, whether it is unique, cultural or multicultural. "In a unicultural situation, the primary process (integrative-ness minus fear of assimilation) translates fairly directly to determine motivational levels" (Gardner, 1985). In a multicultural situation, however, the learner's primary desire, enthusiasm and contact with the target language community determine success. It is the learner's curiosity for learning the newer aspects of language through various resources which finally sets the motivational level.

Sources of Motivation

Of the theories and evidences related to a specific motivation for FL study, Skehan (1989) suggested that the four main sources of motivation are "the material used, the constraints and rewards involved, the amount of success achieved and the goals of the students". Materials and teaching (the intrinsic hypothesis) and constraints and rewards (the characteristic hypothesis) are external influences and the real sources of individual differences. Success (the resultative hypothesis) can be the result of several factors; it could be success itself which influences motivation, external influences on the learning situation produce persistent goals which in turn strongly influence motivational patterns.

Skehan (1989) suggested that since all the determinants of motivation are believable, none of the motivational sources should be taken into account. It was reported by Gardner (1985) and by Kruidenier and Clément (1986) that even though motivational levels are independent of success and depend on the learner's goals, virtually no research had been carried out on the effect of material reward on motivational level. This has limited the understanding of the function of motivation in the acquisition of L2.

Motivation: Cause and Effect

Skehan (1989) related motivational characteristics to classroom behaviour and the processes of acquisition. Gliksman (1976) showed that some

students had integrative orientations to language study; they volunteered more frequently in the class, were asked more questions by the teacher when they did not volunteer, and they gave more correct answers and received more positive reinforcement from the teacher than those without the motivation orientation. Naiman *et al*. (1978) made similar findings. A specifically integrative motive was identified by Kaplan and Shand (1984) who argued that such an orientation was related to systematic patterns of error detection. Herman (1980) investigated two groups of German learners of English, one group from the fifth year of instruction and the other composed of beginners. The fifth-year group had more positive attitudes towards the target language community than the beginners. She concluded that it was instruction itself which had brought about this change.

Strong (1983) studied thirteen non-English-speaking Spanish kindergarten children in a bilingual classroom and looked at the relationship between English language proficiency and the children's tendency to nominate and interact with the English-speaking children in the class room. He reasoned that the children who nominated English speakers as the ones with whom they interacted would be showing an integrative orientation and should, in order for the motivation-as-cause hypothesis to be supported, show higher proficiency. There is much more evidential support for the motivation-as-cause position in other studies which cannot be described here due to the limited space.

Teacher's Role in Promoting Motivation

Since the aim of this paper is to explore motivation as a principal individual difference in the acquisition of L2, the language-learning process itself should be a motivating experience and it is necessary to put a great deal of thought into developing study programmes which will maintain students' interest in order to achieve both short-term and long-term goals. This could include language learning at university level. Berwick and Ross (1989) suggested that these programmes might include foreign exchange programmes with overseas universities, inviting native-speaker teachers for short courses, and the use of high-tech equipment in the classroom for a well-planned language-teaching strategy. Such activities might help to motivate students to improve their L2 proficiency. The task might prove difficult because of different levels or categories of students and this could result in frustration for teachers because of the lack of interest and commitment shown by some of the students, but this motivation will have a significant effect on the success of SLA. Encouraging students

to become more active participants in a lesson sometimes helps them to enjoy their success and their sense of accomplishment. There is always a difference between the results achieved by a confused and puzzled learner and those achieved by a well-motivated student. Here, the effect of individual differences becomes noticeable. Research has suggested that L2 achievement significantly affects motivation (Strong, 1983). The use of an interesting text in order to capture the full interest of the students instead of heavy emphasis on vocabulary and grammar can become an effective means of promoting motivation in students for SLA. Interesting teaching methods will develop their language skills and enhance their perception and understanding, and can consist of relatively simple techniques such as discussing different interesting topics in the classroom, studying different cultural behaviours and arranging meetings with speakers of the target L2.

Conclusion

The study of individual learner variables is not a simple matter and going through all the current theories will never produce exactly the same result. Almost all the concepts in language learning and the differences in individual learning have been investigated. The findings may be different but the results prove that the theories are of great importance. One of the main individual differences, motivation, has been studied in some depth. Researchers are agreed that it is hard to distinguish between integrated differences related to cognitive style, motivation and attitude. Gardner and Lambert (1972) decided that motivation is the main factor and that attitude is one of the parts of it. They further explained it with an equation of the actual components of motivation.

Studies of specific motivation have thrown light on two patterns of motivation, integrated and instrumental, which are both linked to the personality of the learner. With integrative motivation, the learner is likely to maintain his mother tongue when he acquires L2. Although instrumental motivation is more utilitarian, the learner either loses his mother tongue completely or loses the main functions of it. Both sorts of motivation have been criticised, and subsequent studies have seen instrumental motivation as more appropriate in language learning, but another point of view has also been found attractive, that both kinds of motivation can integrate simultaneously.

Some other forms of motivation have been briefly discussed. Sources of motivation have been described as depending on individual differences. Motivation as a social psychological factor is a part of personality, but it

depends on the learning scenario and on the instructor maintaining and promoting motivation in the students. If the learning process is not interesting and students are not motivated, the result will be failure in learning L2, whereas when the learner is motivated either in the classroom or outside it, the chances of success become higher. This makes the process of learning full of excitement as well as helping the learner to learn confidently. The available evidence indicates that the natural sequence which is influenced by motivation improves the overall level of proficiency achieved.

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CHAPTER SIX

DESIGNING AND DELIVERING SHORT ENGLISH COURSES FOR NURSES

Introduction

Teaching the English language for special purposes is not a novel or strange concept; every subject and every workplace has its unique vocabulary and diction. For example, English for business requires entirely different terminologies from the kind of lexicon and expressions needed to teach philosophy. Similarly, the medical vocabulary is different from literary English. In this paper, I shall briefly discuss the different types of English for special purposes and then I shall consider the different kinds of needs analysis required before constructing a training course for nurses as without an understanding of the gaps in the existing linguistic knowledge of the participants, constructing a teaching plan which will accomplish the aim of the programme is not feasible. The needs of the client and the instructor also have to be taken into account.

Designing a short course for not more than twenty nurses which should last for thirty hours in a small town in a non-English-speaking South Asian country such as Pakistan needs an understanding of the requirements of the client, a thorough study of the necessities of the teaching plan, consideration of the learning atmosphere and a meticulous strategy in order to achieve the required target. In this paper, I shall explain the negotiation procedure with the client to know what the expectations are in terms of the course results. It is important that the instructor and the client should discuss the present circumstances of the participants realistically and set a feasible target for the training. The focus will then be on how to realise the linguistic needs of the participants' second-language learning taking into account their difficulties in learning a foreign language.

The first of the factors which contribute to a successful training programme is that the instructor should set an assessment test and have a short session with the participants in order to evaluate their English

language skills and to understand what they are actually likely to gain from the course. I shall discuss in greater detail the fundamental and essential linguistic aspects which an instructor should focus on in order to create authentic materials to have the best results. Suggesting and selecting the teaching syllabus, designing the methodology and scheduling teaching hours will also be discussed, and this will be followed by a consideration of the final assessment procedure.

English for Special Purposes (ESP)

The term 'English for special purposes' appears strange in the sense that teaching always has a purpose, but in terms of the materials which will clarify the valuable aspects and distinguishing features of ESP, Jeff (1995: 11) stated that we should concentrate on the end which we seek to achieve, and in order to pursue a special purpose we must be clear what that purpose is; it is a process in which a syllabus is designed which will meet the needs of a particular group of students and to achieve this it is necessary to adopt a clear and appropriate methodology in order to teach the necessary skills. In the world of English language teaching, ESP teachers are called 'instructors', ESP students are called 'participants' and the people who commission and pay for the ESP course are the 'clients'. The major characteristics of ESP are authenticity, research-based language needs, learning and methodology.

ESP is often classified into sub-classes according to the field of the target activity:

    EAP: English for academic purposes,
    EOP: English for occupational purposes, and
    EST: English for science and technology (an important branch of ESP
        which is often contrasted with economics, business and law).

A definition of ESP for a particular course needs to distinguish between several absolute and variable characteristics. The absolute characteristics of ESP consist of language teaching which is designed to meet the specific needs of the participants in terms of its content (that is, in its themes and topics) in relation to particular disciplines, occupations and activities. Centred on the language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse and semantics, analyses of this discourse show a clear contrast with general English. As far as the variable characteristics are concerned, ESP may be, but is not necessarily restricted to, the language skills which

have to be learned; for example, by reading only and not taught according to any pre-ordained methodology. According to Stevens (1973), ESP can also involve means analyses, strategy analyses and evaluation, and it can be task-based, research-based and use authentic materials, and it needs aware and competent teachers: "What distinguishes ESP from general English is not the existence of the need as such but rather an awareness of the need" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). In short, it can be said that the course should be based on an analysis of the learners' needs and appropriate content must be provided, characterised by its subject, with a clear purpose of enhancing the participants' skills by that particular training.

Different Kinds of Needs Analysis

The notion of a 'needs analysis' in language teaching first appeared in India (Howatt, 1984; White, 1988; Tikoo, 1988). It was based on research which showed that before any effective teaching can take place, an analysis of the learners' needs should be carried out and a similar analysis of their employer's requirements should also be undertaken. Studies have shown that throughout the 1970s the target situation formed the scope of such analyses. Then in the 1980s, needs analysis spread to deficiency needs analyses, strategy needs analyses, means analyses and language audits. In the early 1990s, integrated analyses, computer-based analyses and material selection became the focus, and the techniques which began to be used were the discourse analyses approach, pedagogic needs analyses, register analyses, skills and strategies analyses and genre analyses. Skills-based and learning-centred analyses were also introduced (Allwright, 1982; Swales, 1989).

It should be emphasised that although usually a needs analysis procedure covers the needs of the participants, it is also important to analyse the requirements of the client. The client's needs are long-term, however, and in many teaching and training situations, it is essential also to analyse the shorter-term needs of the instructor. In an instructor's needs analysis, the schooling system and local norms have to be investigated and understood. If a teacher belongs to the same province and uses the same language as the students, s/he will be more confident and will be able to have an open discussion with the management of the institution and with the students.

To see unqualified nurses working in hospitals is common in Pakistan, especially in remote areas where qualified nurses are unwilling to go for a variety of reasons such as low salary, harsh weather, no travelling or

housing allowance, poor standard of transport, and fear of harassment from local people as well as the medical staff, including doctors. Nurses are normally appointed at the age of eighteen and above, and the retirement age is sixty. It is always good for an instructor to meet the nurse participants informally after agreeing to undertake the task. This is just the same as for a training course for enthusiastic young apprentices or for middle-aged participants.

Under-estimating the importance of the negotiation procedure with the employer (the client) might be detrimental to both the instructor and the participants. If you are the trainer, the client will probably have set some targets for you to achieve and only when clients trust your abilities to achieve them do they offer you the job. So basically, you are the bridge between the client and the participants and your responsibility is greater than that of either of the other two stakeholders. At the end of the course, your success will be assessed by the success of the participants and therefore you have to make yourself comfortable with the role and discuss your reservations and any areas of concern in order to ensure that you can give them the best results.

Some clients are keen to achieve their target but are unwilling to provide appropriate funding. Others are only interested in ticking a box in the relevant paper-work and are not bothered about the practical aspects of this type of training, whereas those who have a genuine desire to achieve the best for the institution will be keen to pursue the task step-by-step for the betterment of the institution and will want to hire a dedicated trainer with a well-designed plan which will clearly lead to an encouraging result.

Clients usually make contact with interested trainers (for a temporary appointment for running a one-off course) by placing advertisements in local newspapers and will want to set a time and place for an interview. In general, dedicated trainers only want to accept work in places where the incentives are better and the clients are eager to spend a sensible amount of money in order to see an improved scenario. The following advertisement is an appropriate example for a small hospital, and the reasons why it will seem attractive are explained below:

> A well-reputed and generous non-government organisation (NGO) has successfully opened a new hospital in a remote town in the province of Punjab. The area where this hospital has been built has badly needed health services for a long time. People of this area have suffered from the lack of proper health facilities. The hospital will not only benefit the health

of the whole town but it will also provide the people of the town with employment. The hospital administration is looking for a dedicated and well-organised English language instructor to help the nurses to become familiar with everyday English language usage in a medical and hospital scenario.

Interested candidates who live far from the town will take into consideration the availability of pick-n-drop transport as well as the salary and other possible incentives such as medical insurance. The availability of maternity and other forms of permitted absence such as sick leave and leave for domestic emergencies might also be relevant. It is advisable that applicants should arrive before the appointed time on the day of the interview with the clear idea that other well-prepared applicants will also be there. The interview panel or management group holding the interviews usually consists of three to five members who will already have each candidate's documents in front of them. Applicants must go prepared with the details of the expected content, aims and objects of the required training according to the information given in the advertisement, and an understanding that the interviewers' main concerns will be:

1. applicants' previous experience in teaching and training;
2. awareness of the prevailing situation in the local village or town and the hospital;
3. any arrangements for an assessment test for the nurses to check their existing knowledge of the English language;
4. any particular vocabulary and teaching materials which would be beneficial for nurses in order to understand everyday conversations, issues or matters concerned with the health sector;
5. a strong and clear plan for implementing the programme successfully; and
6. command of any local languages in order to be able to understand the nurses' cultural and social circumstances.

In this particular context, having a small discussion session and assessment test before starting the actual programme is always helpful in order to discover the language requirements for creating and managing the training. It is also a good idea to inform the client about the results of the assessment tests. When I was hired to provide this kind of training, I made it clear to the client that since the women participants had no experience of exposure to any English-speaking communities, it would be difficult for them to acquire the expected knowledge and understanding of the language in the limited time available, so sessions and workshops to

address this would be essential before any progress could be made. An instructor has to focus on a few key issues, such the circumstances under which the nurses will work where they need English-language skills and the extent to which the administration of the hospital wants these nurses to learn English in view of the fact that the patients may not have any knowledge of English at all. The following questions have to be considered before starting the task:

1. what is the target situation need;
2. what do the participants lack and therefore need to learn;
3. how should the students be grouped for training sessions;
4. what possible incentives could be offered to the participants to perform well in the training;
5. how can the work area be made learner-friendly;
6. how and where can training materials be printed and photocopied;
7. how much modern technology in terms of audio-video presentations is permissible; and
8. who is the trainer responsible to for discussing the course design, teaching method, scheduling of the classes and evaluation of the course?

I would like to share my own experience here. When I received a confirmation letter about a proposed programme of meetings with nurses, I followed the plan. I met the group of nurses for an informal discussion after the assessment test and I could see different expressions on their faces. As I have already explained, in Pakistan, the minimum age for a nurse to work in a hospital is eighteen and the retirement age is sixty. The minimum qualification to become a nurse is the intermediate level (grade 12). Not all nurses are trained: there are some who could have taken up their post immediately after completing their intermediate.

After introducing myself, my role and the purpose of the training by incorporating some English words in the local language, I encouraged them to talk. Although they seemed quite shy, they tried to use some English words with difficulty in their local accent, but their enthusiasm to work at the hospital and to learn English were positive things for them. However, when they realised that they had an opportunity to speak in their own language, they were all eager to say something. I evaluated some of their main shortcomings and on the basis of my findings I then had to organise appropriate teaching material and decide on the best strategy for implementing it.

Their maximum education level was intermediate. A few of them had worked as helpers in the field of gynaecology. They wanted to learn English but had no idea how to learn it. They did know some common English words such as thank you, my, I, name, you, pen, paper, man, woman, chair, table, child, telephone, TV, light, go, come, please, take, goodbye, care, letter, post, open, close, yes, no, mobile, computer, cable, wash, dish, table, chair, cup, lift, on, off, doctor, hospital, birth, injection, medicine, tablets, syrup and even stethoscope. I asked a few simple questions and distributed handouts which had simple English questions with the intention that they would memorise the answers to these questions with ease and that reinforcement would help them to look forward to learning longer and more complex sentences. The simple questions were:

1. What is your name?
2. Where do you live?
3. Why do you want to work here?
4. Why do you need to learn English?
5. What are your main responsibilities in the hospital?

It was obvious that those who had some work experience as helpers with local doctors had a better idea of the language because they came across some English words frequently. I gave them the following simple pro-forma to assess their writing ability with a view to seeing their grammatical strengths and vocabulary:

Pro-forma for Nurses
1. Why do you want to learn English?
2. How have you learned the English words which you have been using?
3. What type of English language do you need to learn for working in a hospital?
4. Can you write a short essay in English; if yes, on what subject?
5. What subject interests you?
6. What can you easily read in English?
   (a) letters, (b) brochures, (c) maps, (d) newspapers.
7. What can you write in English?
   (a) letters, (b) essays, (c) a paragraph, (d) nothing.
8. What are the most convenient hours for you to attend the classes?
   (a) morning time, (b) day time, (c) evening classes.
9. How do you inform doctors about the health of patients?
   (a) verbally, (b) by telephone, (c) in writing.

10. How would you explain the following words:
     (a) labour-room, (b) staff-room, (c) café, (d) OPD?
11. At what time would you give the following to patients:
     (a) evening meal, (b) midday meal, (c) breakfast, (d) packed lunch?
12. Describe the following in one sentence:
     (a) charge-sheet, (b) bed-sheet, (c) colour-sheet, (d) spread-sheet.

The participants found it difficult to return a completed pro-forma within
the specified time. Even so, the pro-forma responses gave me a good idea
as to what to teach and where to start. I wrote out the list of compulsory
vocabulary items which the client expected these participants to acquire.
The results and the discussion which followed enabled me to prepare a
practical and effective language course for delivery within the time limit.

Suggested Course

The aim of this kind of training is to enable the participants to speak and
understand basic English-language questions related to their work and to
answer them. To achieve that purpose, they have to learn, recognise and
memorise at least 100 new words, small chunks and phrases in English
and to understand their meaning and their proper use. Recycling the
vocabulary by speaking and using the newly learned words in writing can
bring better results. On the completion of this session and related study
tasks, the participants will have developed an understanding of the
vocabulary from sessions specially designed for their job-related needs.

How is such a programme to be set up? This is a complicated task. An
instructor should follow the procedure described above: building the
course after analysing the participants' existing vocabulary so that the
learning process can move them on to new knowledge rather than falling
between presumed existing knowledge and new knowledge. In the case
which I described above, the participants were given an opportunity to
write down their previous exposure to learning English and indicate the
vocabulary which they needed to learn. Some of the hints which I gave
them were:

- which linguistic skills did they find easy to understand and why?
- what did they expect to learn for their current job?
- what did they aim to achieve by learning English?
- did they have any vocabulary learning strategy?

The content of the course should be based on the most commonly used and important vocabulary in the medical field and the selection of significant words should be particularly connected with the nature of the participants' everyday job routine. Simple and uncomplicated words and phrases should he taught efficiently. Some essential words and phrases are blood pressure, pregnancy, instrument, prescription, scissors, patient, sick, ill, vaccination, lift, supervisor, supervision, ward, surgeon, surgery, emergency, injection, medicine, reception, receptionist, be quick, urgently, on duty, off duty, feel responsibility, how to do? deal with it, handle it, make a call, call a doctor at home, and manage a situation. Effective strategies have to be developed to teach new vocabulary in an interesting and convenient manner so that the participants will be able to memorise new terms with ease. Learning through repeating, writing, speaking and reading is a successful methodology.

In order to create a practical and successful programme, the instructor has to be empathetic with the participants and consider carefully all aspects of the course which could cause a disturbance to the students' efforts. The thirty hours duration of the course could be divided into fifteen weekly classes. Each week will have one two-hour class, preferably on a Monday or a Thursday to give the students ample time for revision. Class attendance has to be strictly maintained and recorded. Small incentives such as a gift pack or some cash in a sealed envelope could be given to the 'Winner of the Week' after each class to the most efficient and hard-working participant. If feasible, during each session a break of ten to fifteen minutes should be given for tea.

It is important to know what the participants think about the sessions and how they are dealing with the teaching strategies and the training materials. It is helpful for an instructor to describe each stage of learning clearly and encourage the participants to identify and speak out about any learning problems so that the instructor can try to solve them. The participants have to evaluate how to continue with their learning as the course progresses. The instructor must monitor whether or not they are achieving their objectives and keeping their learning notebooks up to date in order to keep a record of the continuous process because this will enable the instructor to understand how they are succeeding or whether they are confused by what they have to learn. Vocabulary notes, sample texts and comments made by the participants have to be recorded.

The core focus of ESP teaching is not on simply what (content) but how (procedure) because achieving the target result is of more significance than

just encountering new words. The instructor has to evaluate the on-going learning process throughout the sessions. This will help to identify what is being missed and which strategy is proving to be effective. Tasks which are crucial but which are not learned accurately must be repeated until the students have all learned them thoroughly.

Programme Evaluation

At the end of the course, it is important that the instructor has enough time to evaluate all the assigned tasks, not merely in order to allocate grades but to make sure that the aim of the training has been achieved successfully. This is a process which gives a great opportunity to think about why some of the students have learned more successfully than others. What teaching strategy could prove better for helping students to become fully involved in the learning process? By meeting the criteria listed below, they would definitely receive a pass certificate because they would have successfully undertaken the tasks of learning job-related vocabulary and conversation and would have read the learning materials provided and understood their meaning.

Signs of success are whether there is an element of clarity when talking and whether students have acquired a reasonably comprehensible accent. Can they practise speaking English inside and outside the class confidently? Have they been able to repeat and rewrite tests which they have already done with a better performance? The final test results will indicate some encouraging progress but to produce an accurate assessment the instructor should create a short questionnaire for gathering direct feedback. This could be similar to the following example:

No	Particular	Yes	No	Not clear
1	took parts in all tasks			
2	watched English audios and videos with interest			
3	followed instructions without confusion			
4	understood signs and jokes			
5	responded to telephone calls with understanding and by using English words			
6	can read paragraphs for general gist and for detail			
7	has note-taking ability			

8	is able to use an English dictionary			
9	can read the medical history of a patient			
10	can read prescriptions written in English			
11	can understand frequently used medical terminology			
12	has completed all the assignments, tests and communication activities			

This questionnaire will help to demonstrate the progress of the students who have taken the course to the client in order to show what learning has been achieved by the participants and what, if anything, still remains to be learned. If the instructor can also make some suggestions in regard to how to improve the standard of future courses, this will also be appreciated by the client.

Conclusion

In this paper, I have looked at some of the features of ESP course design for nurses who are working in hospitals run by non-government organisations and at the requirements which the nurses have in terms of their basic understanding of the English language. I have discussed the process of negotiation with the client and the value of needs analyses of the client, the student participants and the instructor. Designing an appropriate course to achieve the required success of the training programme is the major task and this can be achieved by having clear aims and objectives agreed in advance. The content of the training has to be selected carefully after discussing, observing and testing the needs of the participants. The course schedule must also be designed strategically to provide the learners with enough time to understand the course materials and to reinforce what they have learned. The key point to note is that this type of training course is delivered in areas which have their own particular languages and cultural values. For an instructor, it is imperative to have an in-depth knowledge of the set of values which the students possess and the language which they use so that the participants and the instructor do not appear to be apart. The basic purpose of the training is to achieve the best result. In this paper, I have offered advice based on my own experience of producing a design for a short training course for nurses, but an instructor can add and incorporate other teaching materials according to the precise needs of the participants as the needs of students in different areas will differ. Assignment tasks and assessment procedures have been described. Evaluation of the programme is an important aspect

of any training. Analyses of the target situation and the successful methodology go side-by-side. It is important to understand that whatever methods and content are employed, the learning process has to be active and effective. A training programme will be more effective if further follow-up recommendations can be made.

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CHAPTER SEVEN

A SHORT ENGLISH-LANGUAGE COURSE FOR ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF

Introduction

The English language competency of the revenue department's clerks in Sindh (Pakistan) is an important issue. As they have to write all official documents and paperwork in the English language, it seems appropriate to discuss briefly the issue of Pakistan's official languages in order to discover the learning needs of the revenue department clerks and the level of their ability to use English clearly, accurately and appropriately.

In this paper, I shall discuss their specific language-learning problems and the possible causes of the problems which they face. The staff's overall linguistic ability requirement in all four major language skills, reading, writing, listening and speaking, will be evaluated from their responses to a brief questionnaire. After a review of the literature relevant to enabling them to learn from their errors by themselves, I shall discuss a training course designed to make them sufficiently autonomous for self-assessment and self-access learning.

To enable the learners to take responsibility for their own learning needs, various methods for learning English will be introduced. This will not only help them to understand how to overcome their language-related weaknesses but the self-analysis process will also help them to continue the learning process in the long term. I shall suggest a learning-to-learn (LTL) programme for the clerks and discuss the rationale for the training programme described. Conclusions will be drawn after discussing examples of learning activities and their possible restrictions.

The Working Needs of the Staff

Since the emergence of Pakistan, English has been used as an official language in the country. Despite many efforts to replace English with the

national language (Urdu), the authorities have failed to implement it as an official language, and all the correspondence between government higher authorities and lower-level staff is still written in English.

The revenue department is one of the chief government departments in the country. The clerks are appointed by interview conducted by the Public Service Commission. Vacancies are advertised in local newspapers and graduates can apply for the posts. The interviews consist of a few questions and after a couple of weeks the successful candidates join the specific departments.

Nearly all of the clerks have graduated from Urdu- or Sindhi-medium colleges in Sindh so their written and spoken abilities in English are not very strong. On the other hand, higher revenue officials have to have a firm command of English because this is the main requirement of the competitive exams. In their jobs, they come across immense difficulties due to their clerical staff's poor grasp of English. When clerks type their dictated notes or write reports on any regular or important issues, they make many mistakes.

The main reason for my original decision to design an appropriate training course was that when my husband was working for a revenue department, I had observed him doing work at home late at night. When I asked why, he described it as essential extra work because he could not trust his clerks' drafts to be sent to the higher authorities. He also expressed concern that since he had taken on this responsibility after seeing blunders in clerks' writings, they had become even more careless in their writing. He said that some clerks clearly stated that they could not write in English so they should not be assigned work which involved writing in English. As he was posted to work in various districts, he became well aware of the widespread situation regarding the poor linguistic skills of the staff of the revenue department. That situation made me think about how I could create a plan for the clerks to be trained to learn by themselves. Before describing the working needs of the clerks, I shall give a brief description of the districts of Sindh and the various groups of clerks who work in them. There are 25 districts in the province of Sindh. Each district has eight revenue offices and each of the offices has five or six clerks, who can be categorised into three types:

    1: Assistant (the head clerk),
    2: Senior clerk,
    3: Junior clerk.

The clerks are expected to undertake the following duties:

1: taking notes and minutes of meetings;
2: drafting documents;
3: taking dictation;
4: dealing with correspondence by emails and postal mail;
5: sending letters such as leave letters, appointment letters and progress letters for or to the subordinate staff on behalf of their superiors;
4: preparing and compiling reports such as monthly progress reports, and forwarding details of the reports;
5: preparing data analyses and revenue achieved reports;
6: writing emergency reports to keep the relevant authorities aware of any accidents or catastrophes.

In general, the clerks have to collect data and deal with writing technical documents and they are therefore required to produce complete sentences in English. The revenue department is perhaps the only government department which receives hundreds of confidential letters every day from all over the country. These letters need extra and urgent attention and care in response. The specific learning problems of the clerks are explained in the following paragraphs.

Specific Language-Learning Problems

By looking through the letters and reports written by the administrative staff, it was possible to realise that their standard of English barely met the level of an elementary learner. They needed to improve their use of grammar, spelling and vocabulary and they also clearly had comprehension problems. The most important problem identified by one revenue officer was "how to undo their wrongly learned grammar". The official system and government policies demand formal English vocabulary in particular fields and issues.

The senior authorities of the revenue department expect a reasonable standard of work from their clerks. Higher officers anticipate that they should be able at least to write documents and letters on routine matters so that the officers might sign them as regular documents. Bosses give them dictation on both everyday routine issues and special matters. However, other issues such as new orders, rules and regulations, any emergency situations, special and occasional programmes or the arrangements for visits of special guests and similar situations all need written work. A large

number of clerks find it difficult to write even simple routine documents. This means that they need training in order to enhance not only their writing abilities but also their language potential to meet the job requirements. The training should focus on grammar and the grammatical structure of sentence composition, the proper formatting of particular letters, correct spelling, and writing and speaking at least common sentences for everyday use. As an instructor, according to my personal experience and observation and after discussing the issue with several revenue officers, I identified the following key problems:

1: they cannot afford language training after obtaining a full-time job;
2: because of their Sindhi- or Urdu-medium educational background, their English language proficiency is weak. They started learning English at the age of either eleven or twelve from teachers who were themselves not well trained in English;
3: the concept of language training appears useless to them;
4: they are getting benefits from their lack of English proficiency and they do not want to increase their workload;
5: they feel embarrassed about learning and do not want their language weaknesses to be exposed to their colleagues; and
6: there is a strong tradition of ridiculing those who try to speak English.

Most officers have the opinion that the staff members have no motivation for learning English. Most of the clerks are content with what they know (a comment made by one revenue officer). The learning process can become more complicated for those who have not encountered autonomy as a suitable way of learning during the period of their academic life. A case was reported in a local newspaper that in an Executive District Officer's (EDO) office, a senior clerk had been admitted to a mental hospital because he had become a target of mockery and taunting by his colleagues: it was said that he used to speak English most of the time. This news item disproves claims that every single worker is unmotivated or has no interest in learning. Another proof is that the administrative staff members are keen to secure a good education for their children, and a good education in a country such as Pakistan means education in English, which is provided by private English-medium schools. When I started to think about setting up a course for the clerks of revenue departments which might help them to learn English or might improve their performance, I studied the literature on 'learning-to-learn' (LTL). An advanced, adaptable and flexible strategy towards learning skills is what is meant by LTL. The purpose of the strategy is to make learners

autonomous in order to make a difference in their ability. Brewster, Ellis and Girard (2002) defined LTL as "learner training":

> Learner training aims to help learners consider the factors that affect their learning and discover the learning strategies that suit them best. It focuses their attention on the process of learning so that the emphasis is on how to learn rather than on what to learn. Learner training, therefore, aims to provide learners with the alternatives from which they can make informed choices about what, how, why, when and where they learn. This is not to say that they have to make all of the decisions all of the time. They may, indeed, choose to be teacher dependent. (Ellis & Sinclair, 1989: 2)

Ellis and Sinclair (1989) identified two stages of LTL: preparation for language training and skills training. The aim of learner training is to provide learners with the ways to learn effectively and to become more independent in their learning and engage actively without damaging their self-esteem in the learning process. Dickinson (1992) explained two additional notions about learning training. First, the teacher has to help learners to organise their learning by suggesting that they should practise with a study partner because other learners can be helpful in monitoring accuracy. Second, the teacher should give some information about various aspects of learning which might or might not be helpful in language learning. Consequently, the encouragement of self-assessment is an important factor for improving the efficiency of learning. Dickinson (1992) suggested that a trainer should let students try out several activities in order to discover the best one for them individually as an important part of learner training in order to build learner autonomy. Dam (1995) explained that "learner autonomy is categorized by a willingness to take charge of one's own learning according to one's needs and purposes. This entails a capacity and willingness to act independently and in co-operation with others, as a socially responsible person".

Holec (1981: 3) stated that "the learner who is capable of taking charge of his own learning is an autonomous learner". He suggested that a learner's potential capacity for autonomy is not necessarily innate so it needs to be trained. Sinclair (2006) defined 'autonomy' as a construct or capacity which consists of the development and awareness of particular metacognitive knowledge. Sinclair (2000) had previously explained that even if metacognitive knowledge is a base of learner autonomy, it will only work effectively when a learner is willing to learn independently. Sinclair defined metacognitive knowledge as knowledge about learning whereas metacognitive strategies involve thinking and reflection about learning. O'Malley *et al*. (1985) commented that "Students without metacognitive

approaches are essentially learners without directions and ability to review their progress, accomplishment and future learning directions".

The Principles of Learning to Learn (LTL)

LTL or learner training carries a wide variety of activities designed to develop learner strategies with the aim of focusing learners' attention on how they learn whatever they are learning. It is widely accepted that every learner has a different temperament and a unique way of learning. LTL helps learners to develop self-awareness and gradually takes them towards a conscious development of their own learning strategies. The aim of the process is to make them independent and effective learners. The strategies were broadly classified by Ellis (1992) as follows:

1: Planning for learning: hypothesising, self-assessment and monitoring all engage learners in reflecting on the learning process and direct them towards their own metacognitive strategies.
2: The development of awareness: this involves categorising and classifying, predicting and repeating different cognitive strategies, and using a library, dictionaries other informative material which can help learners to learn through specific activities in key areas such as grammar, tenses, spelling and the skill to approach learning in an organised way.
3: Social mediation strategies: the collaboration process involves learners learning through co-operation by peer correction in language-learning activities. Through peer or group work activities, learners can develop specific skills more effectively.

Equally important factors include making the students choose from a selection of tasks and materials for part of a lesson, such as predicting or reviewing. Learners should be made aware of what they are doing and why. Additionally, developing curiosity and a positive approach towards the target language is also important. Self-assessment will enable learners to monitor and perceive their progress so that they feel a sense of achievement and can identify those points on which they still need to work, along with what they are learning and how it is being learned.

Ellis (1992) suggested that this self-assessment can take place at any time during the learning process. It may be done at the beginning, the middle or the end of the study period to clarify expectations, attitudes and progress. Sinclair (2000) described three approaches to implementing learner

training which are known as the 'Teacher-Learner Directedness Continuum':

1: *The teacher-directed approach*; this is a traditional approach in which the teacher controls all aspects of learning with stress on the development of the product. The teacher has to teach pre-planned objectives based on the syllabus and according to the demands of the learning situation, teaching an isolated set of cognitive behaviours in which all learners carry out the same activity simultaneously.

2: *Learner-directed*; this utopian type of approach seems to be a reaction against the teacher-directed approach. The whole learning system revolves around the learners. They are the authority and the teacher acts as a facilitator. The syllabus is not pre-planned, but negotiated and organic, with personally-suited learning strategies. There is an implicit focus on the processes of learning.

3: *The teacher-guided/learner-decided approach*; this approach lies, as Sinclair (2000) wrote, "between the two extremes in the continuum in a compromise position". The teacher's role is to act as a guide to see the needs of the learners with an explicit focus on the processes of learning. Class activities lead to individual learners taking responsibility for their own learning decisions.

Suggested LTL for the Revenue Administrative Staff

O'Malley and Chamot (1995) described an experiment in which students were taught the use of learning strategies with three language tasks; vocabulary, listening and speaking. They concluded that strategy training worked for listening and speaking skills but not for vocabulary. From my analysis of the clerks' work, I wanted to try to identify the most useful training system for them. The main purpose behind the training plan was, as described by Ellis and Sinclair (1989), to help the learners to become aware of the best learning strategies for them individually through practice.

I could see that the question of how the training plan would be delivered to the revenue clerks, who might never have expected to involve themselves in any type of training, would probably create difficulties. Identifying and analysing material appropriate to their needs was an important task. The feature which could possibly make any training plan successful is the trainer's attitude and a well-thought-out study plan. The teacher should be capable of understanding the learners' attitudes towards language and their

level of maturity, age and amount of learning required in order to be able to embark on a successful training programme.

The training which the clerks would receive during the course led me to re-think my assumption that their performance and attitude would remain unchanged. I think that the research and the study of the theoretical material on the issue which I had undertaken beforehand would remain very helpful, although it needed an additional thorough study to understand the difficulties in the context of Pakistani culture.

The biggest problem was how to motivate them to learn, because training such as this needs some type of incentive or reward which would help their promotion. They should continue to receive their salary while they are on the training; or rather they should get an equivalent daily allowance separately, along with lunch and light refreshments at teatime on training days. To enable them to concentrate on the course, they would have to be given time away from their offices.

The first stage of the course which I designed was about the preparation for language learning. Because why and how they learn was the object of the training, the teacher would have to encourage discussion about their main problems regarding English language, writing, grammar, vocabulary and other essentials in order to discover their need areas. The teacher would have to help the learners to become aware of the wide range of alternative strategies for learning and encourage them to think carefully about three key questions.

    1: What type of writing do they need?
    2: What types of text seem difficult to write?
    3: What do they want to achieve?

The second stage consisted of skills training. In the 36-hour training programme, the main focus had to be on enhancing the writing ability of the clerks according to departmental needs. The course was designed to last for six working days in a single week and the daily sessions were each six hours long. The following framework was based on that used by Ellis and Sinclair (1989):

    Step 1: feelings and expectations about the course;
    Step 2: what they already understand and know;
    Step 3: identifying their strengths and weaknesses in writing;
    Step 4: goal-setting for the training;

Step 5: how they prefer to practise writing;
Step 6: what they need to learn for their writing; and
Step 7: how they currently organise their writing resources and practice.

The training was designed to improve the following skills:

1: writing proficiency;
2: dealing with grammar;
3: focusing on specific chunks;
4: extending vocabulary;
5: drafting and writing;
6: studying models of writing (including newspapers); and
7: revising and editing.

Examples of Activities

In the second stage, the focus was on the learning process. The aim of this twenty-hour, one-week intensive course for intermediate level clerks was to improve their writing ability by using different practices and suggestions. The activities employed had to make the training explicit so that the learners could be educated successfully; Wenden (1986) recommended that learners should be 'informed' rather than 'blinded' by knowledge. When creating materials for any training, a trainer should be constantly vigilant about the relevance of the material and the promotion of self-learning and autonomy in order to achieve a positive result.

The training which I devised kept the centre of attention on tenses, articles, sentence structure and the use of a computer, a means of showing well and badly written drafts, a bank of useful phrases and chunks, a grammar reference book, and a note-book with five or six nicely written applications. In this way the students would learn how to create a bank of resources by keeping useful examples of letters and a record of the whole learning programme saved on the computer in separate files to aid future access.

The details of the activities used for the five-day training course are shown next. Each of the days is discussed separately with its particular activity. Before starting the sessions, handouts (the detail of the plan) should be distributed. In the first session, the focus is on the task analyses. This is primarily a speaking, listening and discussion session. The second day deals with grammar; the forms of verbs and tenses were practised first and another session was spent correcting specific written work. A drafting and writing session would take place on the third day of the training. The

fourth day is dedicated to practising vocabulary and concentrates on learning how to extend and improve vocabulary. Writing strategies are discussed in the final session. In the final two days, the focus should be on revising and summing-up the earlier sessions. Some strategies might have to be repeated because weak aspects of their language use would need to be repeated. The activities would contain a model document based on one of the revenue issues which the clerks would encounter in their jobs.

Worksheet: Day One

Title of the session: task analyses and a speaking and listening session;

Aim: identifying problems in writing;

Resources: handout;

Materials: an incorrect draft and an accurate draft.

Handout contents

What and for whom are you going to write?

Have you already written some drafts? If yes, Please list a few of them.

What format is required for this particular type of writing?

Have you seen a model draft?

How can you analyse the quality of the draft?

What are the general problems you face while writing?

What type of text seems most difficult to write and why?

What do you want to achieve?

Do you collect some material to write a particular draft?

The main purpose of the first day is to create an atmosphere which will motivate the learners to complete the whole training course with dedication and to be enthusiastic learners. In the first introductory hour, the participants should be encouraged to express their views about the training course, things which they already know and their writing needs, as well as their expectations from the course. In the second hour, they should

respond to the questions in the handout by writing their answers down. The whole session would last for two hours and the written papers should be collected before the break.

After a short tea-break, the students regather. Following the earlier discussion, the trainer will have prioritised the learning targets systematically according to the needs of the learners. The list of tasks for the day should be written on the board. There could be exchanges between the activities and those on other days if that is what they want. A ten-minute discussion about further sessions would give them a clear idea about the tasks for the subsequent sessions.

They should be provided with some examples which are either wrong or badly written; these could be chunks taken from different types of document and information letters from the revenue department's regular work. They have to identify grammatical errors, spelling mistakes, wrong formatting and inapplicable vocabulary in the examples. When they have highlighted the mistakes, the trainer must listen to their findings and write them on the board. Some of the errors which have not been identified by the learners must be explained by the trainer and then discussed. Next, they should be given accurately written passages. This session is intended to motivate the students to discuss mistakes and to learn how to plan to write a letter or draft by following the provided models in order to make their writing effective. Two examples of correctly formatted passages are presented below:

> *Example 1:*
> 'Please find enclosed herewith a letter from the DCO/EDO/CM. You are requested to go through the contents of the letter and take necessary actions accordingly under intimation to this office.'

> *Example 2:*
> 'As you requested, a report was called from my subordinate. The requested report is submitted and is self-explanatory.'

Worksheet: Day Two

Title of session: dealing with grammar;

Aim: to learn how to organise drafts;

Resources: handout;

Materials: grammar book, dictionary, written chunks, outlines of drafts, google-search.

Handout contents

1: Which are the most difficult tenses for you?

2: How can a small grammar book be helpful for correcting tenses?

3: How can browsing a dictionary in an appropriate way save time and give you the meanings of required words and phrases?

4: How do you check spelling, grammar and punctuation mistakes on the computer?

5: How can learning different chunks of language help you to write a suitable draft?

6: How can you guess or understand the selection of relevant chunks for a specific draft?

7: How will providing outlines assist you to draw up a suitable draft?

8: How will the practice of grammar, the provided chunks, outlines of the draft and use of a computer make the process of organising a draft easy, better and more suitable?

In the first half of the session, these questions to the learners are intended to help to identify their errors. Their written answers will provide a clear picture of what they lack and which skills they need to focus on. Grammar is the main source for expressing ideas to achieve the purpose of any piece of writing. Its important components are tenses, articles, punctuation, choice of expression and vocabulary. Sentence structure normally creates problems for learners so in the first session, it is important to advise them always to have a small grammar book and an Oxford dictionary to hand. They should be given time to browse and use the dictionary properly and to find definitions of words or phrases. The chunks which they are given should be composed of several sentences which are useful and sometimes necessary for producing a formal piece of writing. Although they are formulaic, they are nevertheless necessary and should be memorised and used correctly. Selecting a good piece of writing can make writing even easier.

In such training courses, computers should be used by every trainee. With the help of the grammar-check, spell-check and punctuation correction on the computer, they should be able to correct sentences as well as the spellings of an already saved draft or report about any related topic. The learners' jobs mean that they have to write repetitive and monotonous drafts so in the second session of the day, they should be given four or five typical outlines and formats and a sample pro-forma letter of the type used in nearly all correspondence.

Memorising these chunks will help them to draw up a proper outline of a draft. But they also have to learn and recognise the difference between a letter, a document, a report, an emergency letter, a monthly routine report and other regularly used documents and to understand the differences in the formats as well as where to place these chunks in a document. In this section, their main task should be to recognise, fix and place the appropriate chunks in the right type of draft.

Worksheet: Day Three

Title of session: drafting and writing;

Aim: to practise drafting;

Resources: handout;

Materials: well written drafts on a few topics and issues.

Handout contents

1: How have the examples helped you to write another draft?

2: Write a new draft and evaluate your improvement.

3: What complications are you still experiencing in writing a suitable draft?

4: Think about and then write down the complications on separate sheets of paper.

5: Divide the written complications or difficulties in writing for the separate letters, documents and reports.

6: Gather questions and answers about the difficult or absent aspects of writing drafts.

7: Which tense is suitable for the proper format?

8: Is vocabulary now the main hurdle to thinking about, copying, rewriting and changing the pattern?

In the first session, the learners should be encouraged to save some model drafts, templates and monthly report models in separate files on hard disk so that whenever they need to write another document or report, they can open the relevant file and copy the format and then perhaps adjust it as appropriate. Some regular file types should be given to them to be written with the help of the saved templates as an assignment and this should be followed by a discussion of what they have done. Analysing how to make changes to an existing draft is not easy, but it will enable them to realise the need to expand their vocabulary.

In the second session, they should be told how to organise the information into several main points. Each type of draft should be handled separately. For example, if they have to prepare a letter about a monthly report, they should click on the relevant file, copy the format from the model and then gather ideas onto a separate piece of paper about:

1: how many days the office was open;
2: were there any absences and if so what were the reasons for them;
3: the monthly recovery position of the whole area;
4: how many cases have been finalised;
5: how many cases are still pending;
6: was there any visit by a VIP in the area during the month, and if there was, explain how it was handled; and
7: were there any emergency situations in the district, and if there were, how they were dealt with.

The learners need to think carefully. They have to find the appropriate model either from their saved work or from the files. Then once they have decided on the appropriate format, they have to start answering the questions above one by one. At this stage, they can find help from their earlier practice of grammar correction and try to be accurate about using the correct tenses. Grammatical accuracy is essential but conveying a clear meaning is equally important.

Worksheet: Day Four

Title of session: extending vocabulary and developing writing strategies;

Aim: making writing effective;

Resources: handout;

Materials: newspapers cuttings and documents containing specific vocabulary and terminology associated with revenue matters.

Handout contents

1: How do you think you can choose appropriate words, phrases and expressions for a particular context?

2: How will you gather revenue-related terminology for everyday office use?

3: How will you save the vocabulary as well as memorise it?

4: How can you practise memorising and using the vocabulary?

5: Make a list of as many revenue-related vocabulary items as you can and save them on the computer along with their meaning.

6: Can you describe some methods of memorising the vocabulary? (For example, type at least five words and phrases on pieces of paper in large letters and fix them somewhere around your table; look at them and repeat them as many times as possible; repeat this until you have completely memorised them and their meaning.)

7: Which strategies for writing a draft are effective for you?

The activities session is designed to enable the participants to realise that one of the key problems which produces their writing difficulty is related to their limited vocabulary. They have to improve and extend the vocabulary which will help them to choose appropriate words for each context because it was their inability to choose appropriate words and expressions for writing the drafts and templates which prevented them from achieving the required goal. They therefore need to take help from the model drafts and templates in order to make a list of the specific vocabulary and memorise it. A helpful aid in this is studying English daily newspapers. They should be able to get hold of English newspapers

(which are available in every office free of charge) and concentrate on reading revenue-related news and articles.

Their basic writing requirement is to produce revenue-related paperwork so they have to learn, remember and save the relevant vocabulary and terminology from newspapers or articles. They can save these words to hard disk or write them in their notebooks to look through over and over again and practise using them in their writing. They should be given at least forty minutes to find revenue-related vocabulary from newspapers and to find their meanings by carrying out a task to separate them according to each specific issue. This is the activity for the first session.

The other session of the day concentrates heavily on developing a writing strategy. Writing, like any other language skill, can never be achieved in a week; it needs continuous practice under careful supervision using the activities described above. Some strategies in this kind of tuition can be explained in handouts distributed in the class and the teacher should explain how to develop and use them. Various stages in the writing process can be discussed, such as

1: thinking over the ideas by brainstorming, reading and discussing them;
2: collecting information from written materials, newspapers and revenue acts and orders which are on record;
3: writing down the key information using bullet points along with specific model sentences;
4: when the students are satisfied with the material which they have gathered, they must try to put it into a logical order.

The collected information regarding each topic should be written in the required detail. The students should be reminded that the formats are already present in the computer and that grammar and spelling corrections can be made with the help of the computer. The use of dictionaries and grammar books should not be ignored as they will help in correcting the order of sentences and phrases and in giving the correct meaning of words.

Worksheet: Day Five

Title of session, revising and editing;

Aims: handling complicated writing and educating students to become lifelong learners;

Resources: handout;

Materials: examples of different paragraphs for various written drafts.

Handout contents

1: Can you organise the examples into an appropriate order?

2: Can you separate them into different topics?

3: According to the different themes and topics, separate and complete the drafts.

4: How did you gather them?

5: What logic did you use to choose paragraphs for a specific topic?

6: Did the examples and the stored material help you to create a suitable draft?

7: How would you revise your work at all levels, from word meanings to memorising chunks?

In the first session, the students should type a draft regarding a current revenue-related situation or a prolonged legal revenue matter. They have to use all the previous instructions and devices to write it cohesively and coherently. They should be given time to express any difficulties in order for them to make good use of the learned methods and activities. The topics must be discussed thoroughly so that any difficulties which they still have can be resolved. Logic, the balance of ideas, proper paragraphing, format, suitable use of a dictionary, consistency of their writing in relation to the objective, and issues of grammar, spelling and punctuation must all be discussed thoroughly. At this stage of the course, the participants' opinions about the components of their writing have to be revisited, so in the next session they should be given various paragraphs haphazardly taken from leave letters, reports of a particular occasion or monthly position reports, or the detail of expenses relating to a visit by the chief minister. One by one, they then have to arrange them in the correct order, put them into the proper format, and state to whom they will have to address or submit them. All the aspects from thinking to choosing vocabulary and typing have to be supervised by their teacher.

After receiving all their draft exercises, the trainer must grade them and then give the students feedback on the following day. All their ideas

should be gathered on paper for the final discussion and the revision process should be used to flesh out the existing ideas. The trainer should check the concepts, grammar, vocabulary, spelling, punctuation, formality and style of their drafts, correct them where necessary at every level and hand back to the participants a reorganised draft.

Worksheet: Day Six

Title of session: summing-up;

Aim: determining whether they have achieved the targets;

Resources: handout;

Materials: a questionnaire to be answered.

Questionnaire contents

1: What were the learning areas which you wished to improve?

2: What have you learned and improved?

3: What are the weaknesses and drawbacks that you still want to improve?

4: Will the strategies which you have learned help you to write effectively in the future?

5: Do you want to have another follow-up intensive training course?

6: How satisfied are you with this course?

7: What do you want to be improved in the next course?

The first session of the final day of the training will provide the learners with an opportunity to compile a file listing the procedures which they have followed throughout the training sessions. They must be reminded to write their answers to the questions clearly because they will be discussing them afterwards. The activities which they have undertaken might have helped them to clarify the problems which had previously affected their writing, so this session is theirs to use in their own way. It should be designed to enable then to answer some of the questions about which points they had wanted to improve, whether they had achieved any improvement and whether they expected to see them improved by constant efforts to continue to apply the strategies which they have learned. Their

responses will give them a personal plan which they will find useful for improving the quality of their work in the future. Using the comments on the previous session's written drafts, they should be asked what type of self-study plan suits them the best individually and whether they intend to continue with the self-study project. Alternatively at this final stage of a course, the teacher could advise them to work with a friend or friends and evaluate each other's work. This peer or group learning work between colleagues in the same department will enhance their abilities and help to sort out their writing-related problems. At the end of the session, a number of model documents, letters and monthly revenue reports should be provided for them to keep in their own records. The following is an example of one of these models:

Office of the
Executive District Officer (Revenue) Jamshoro
No. Reader / E.D.O / R/ Jamshoro /2018/
Dated: 01-02-2018
To,
The Special Secretary (Revenue)
Inspection Team, Record of Rights,
Board of Revenue, Sindh, Hyderabad
SUBJECT: Requesting For Sale Certificate Of S. No: 49/4 of Makan Goh Deh Sonwalhar Taluka Kotri.
Dear Sir,
I write in response to your letter No: CIT/ROR/320/2006 DATED: 08.11.2017, on the subject above. The facts of the case are that the total entries of D.K register No:10861 are 01 to 96 but due to a typing mistake, the entries in Annexure 'A' have been shown as from 01 to 24.

Accordingly, the order passed by District Officer (Revenue), Jamshoro is correct. The background of the case is that the applicant had submitted that he is the owner of the land and his ownership is entered in the Record of Rights of 1984.
As a matter of fact, when the whole Record of Rights was re-written in 1985, all the old entries were transcribed into the new registers. Due to an oversight and a clerical mistake, the entry of this applicant was not transcribed into the new register. The applicant remained unaware of this omission.
Now, on the request of the applicant, the collector has verified the Record himself and ordered that the Record be updated. Therefore the old entry of the applicant has now been transcribed into the new register.
This is for your information.
X Y Z
Executive District Officer,
Revenue, Jamshoro
A copy of this letter is being sent to the District Officer (Revenue), Jamshoro for information

Conclusion

In this paper, I have discussed the working needs of the administrative staff appointed as clerks in the revenue department of Sindh. Their specific language-learning problems and the possible causes of these problems have been discussed. After reviewing a number of different contexts for, descriptions of and rationale for the learning-to-learn (LTL) programme, I focused on the main problematic writing areas, which were grammar,

vocabulary, sentence structure and spelling. My proposed LTL programme for the clerks was based on a realistic understanding of the needs and requirements of their jobs.

After thorough research and a short language test, an instructor has to determine what kind of course will best address the needs of the learners. The two key principles of LTL have been made clear and obvious: to let the learners understand their own weaknesses and to give them sufficient information to be able to take responsibility for their own learning. I have discussed the description and rationale of the programme, and I have focused on every single area of English that was required to be learned or improved.

The success of an LTL programme can be assessed through the interest shown by the learners. The reward which is achieved by those clerks who showed their interest in learning, remained punctual and became responsible for their own learning through the various strategies which they learned on the training course might be a source of inspiration for similarly placed clerks in the revenue departments of other districts and provinces.

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CHAPTER EIGHT

A SHORT ENGLISH-LANGUAGE COURSE FOR TEACHERS/LECTURERS

Introduction

In this paper, I shall address the level of English-language competency among Pakistani lecturers and teachers of English. Ever since Pakistan came into being, the English language has been taught across the country as a compulsory subject in all government-run colleges. Students arrive in college at the age of sixteen or seventeen and are taught by college lecturers. At present, having an MA degree from a university is a sufficient qualification for becoming a lecturer and a subject specialist in government-run colleges. Since all colleges have to offer English as a subject, holders of MA English degrees can easily be engaged as college lecturers at Grade 17.

Lecturers have to use the same English teaching books which had not only been studied by them, but by generations of their predecessors. Consequently, the same teaching process goes on and on without any progress or change. It is interesting that a greater number of teachers in Pakistan choose to teach English in their mother tongue. Although they say that they do this in response to demands from their students, from my own observations they are not actually able to speak the English language themselves. I have had experience of teaching English in seven different colleges in Pakistan and have seen that many lecturers neither speak English with their colleagues nor discuss anything in English with the students.

In order to understand this paradox, it is necessary first to discuss briefly the English language issue and the teaching circumstances in Pakistani colleges. Pakistan is a country in which the English language still operates as the official language because all efforts to replace it with the national language, which is Urdu, have been unsuccessful. Nearly all official business has been conducted in English ever since Pakistan came into being.

The foundations of English teaching in Pakistan are extremely weak. Only recently have the authorities agreed that teaching the English language should begin from class one. Because it has neglected the English language for years, Pakistan does not have many well-trained lecturers or teachers who have a superb command of English and there is no established government-run or private training institute to train them and to improve their language skills.

In this situation, I see an enormous need to build a culture to promote learning in teaching so that teachers can learn how to address their weaknesses and teach with confidence in order that future generations can learn effectively. In my opinion, attention should first be given to speaking ability for the following reasons: first, the lack of confidence is a big hurdle in lecturers' learning; they avoid communication and interaction with other English teachers as well as with foreign visitors. Second, poor speaking ability has been affecting students for many years and as a result there is no obvious linguistic development among young people who have been educated in government-run colleges.

A well-designed training course might enable them to develop a culture of speaking English inside and outside the classroom. The training should make them confident enough to write academic or general articles and their desire to research should improve. Above all, they should become able to teach English in English and take part in language promotion with their colleagues and among their students. Lecturers teach students at the crucial time when they are preparing themselves to enter further or higher education. Properly trained lecturers will help them to overcome their language issues and enter any employment or academic field effectively.

At present, competent and experienced Pakistani English-language lecturers do not exist at any significant level. Training programmes of the type described above are not only urgently needed but should be organised at prioritised bases to ensure the future of the coming generation. It can be clearly seen that there were many reasons which led me to want to devise a suitable training course to improve lecturers' English proficiency and therefore, by extension, their teaching ability.

Definition and Content of Learning to Train

Philipson (1998) explained the journey from teacher to training by saying that by accepting the responsibility, a trainer becomes an agent of change, a process leader and an influence who can affect trainees' future lives. He

believed that a trainer has to be provider, manager, instructor, counsellor, observer, giver of feedback and assessor. Edge (1988:10) assigned three major roles for a trainer: "Language user, language analyst and language teacher".

By improving every aspect of his or her language ability, a trainer will become able to teach the components of a language course effectively and professionally. As far as teacher preparation practices are concerned, Ellis (1990) divided them into two parts: experiential and awareness-raising activities. He stated that the first can be achieved through teaching practice and that the definition of language awareness is similar to the description offered by Thornbury (1996) that explicit knowledge about language is language awareness.

Previous studies in the literature on this topic have considered the language competence of language teachers. McGrath (2002) identified two types of subject competence, "knowledge about the language" and "knowledge of the language" and stated that a key required element for a training course for teachers and lecturers is to focus on knowledge *of* the language, that is, "the ability to use it accurately and fluently for pedagogic purposes". He distinguished the difference between the two by saying that the former is conscious and analytical knowledge which a trainer draws on when planning a presentation of grammar, and by providing explanations and critically analysing the syllabus or course book, teachers will become able to transfer the knowledge to their students. On the other hand, knowledge *of* the language refers to the ability to use the language with accuracy and fluency. He regarded a trainer not as merely a language teacher but as a model who has competence and confidence.

The Role of Teachers and Lecturers

McGrath (2002) discussed the need to think about language teachers' language proficiency and their professional competence. He highlighted some of the needs which should be focused on when creating a language training course to develop participants' proficiency in grammar, suggesting that it is crucial to look critically at what are they teaching (the syllabus or course books) and whether they have the ability to make this accessible to their students. Another noteworthy element for improving lecturers' oral skills is confidence. Discussing the relationship between competence, experience and confidence, Cullen (1994) asserted that

> A poor and rusty command of English undermines the teacher's
> confidence in the class room, affects his or her self-esteem and
> professional status, and makes it difficult for him or her to follow even
> fairly straightforward teaching procedures such as asking questions on a
> text …, let alone fulfil the pedagogical requirements of new, more
> communicative curricula. (cited in McGrath, 2002:159)

Lecturers not only have to deliver the syllabus, they also have to be
competent and confident simply because they are role models for their
students. They should set themselves incentives to reach a high level of
professional competence with confidence.

In a review of the related literature, I shall now consider the definition and
the contents of learning to train (LTT). As no material exists regarding this
issue in Pakistan, it is necessary to look closely at the available material
about approaches to LTT in other countries and to identify what materials
are recommended for this specific type of learning and then decide how to
organise an appropriate training plan. At the end of the literature review, I
shall describe the possible ways to plan a course to meet the needs of the
teachers described above.

In the third section, I shall suggest a short training course for lecturers and
teachers. I shall give a description and rationale for the programme
together with details of the possible obstacles which might be encountered.
At the end of the paper, before the conclusion, some examples of activities
for the training course will be discussed.

Wallace (1991:2) explained that the need for English language teaching
increased the demand for language teachers in the late twentieth century.
This consequently gave rise to the need for appropriate training for the
professional development of the language teachers. In LTT, as Philipson
(1998) said, teachers need to develop their knowledge and skills and gain a
firm knowledge of classroom skills, language systems and learning
theories. A trainer should build up the ability to monitor his/her actions
and performance regularly and thoroughly. Edge (1988:9) stated that
"Knowledge about language and language learning ought to form a bridge
between trainees and language teachers".

On the other hand, McLaughlin (1978) advised that a trainer needs to be
acquainted with cultural differences and practical realities otherwise he
might contradict or refute learners' beliefs and that might upset the whole
learning process. Some teacher preparation activities were described by
Ellis (1994), who said that teachers are responsible for their own development

and suggested the kinds of task that can enable a trainer to evaluate and improve his or her performance. The challenging difference between a trainer and an ordinary language teacher will be discussed next.

The Approaches to Teacher Training

McGrath (1999) described the learning process and its consequences by saying that normally teachers and trainers follow the same pattern by which they themselves had learned; they might feel comfortable with that and look for no other options. This might be because of the expectations of authorities in wanting to continue the same method of teaching and training, or it could be teachers' own assumption that they had become successful by learning that way, so others should do so too. He concluded that if trainers and teachers continue to pursue the same procedure in this way, then "The standards are at best maintained and at worst fall" (McGrath, 1999:164).

Wallace (1991) believed that teachers themselves are responsible for their own development, although he did not rule out the importance of training for teachers but called it a "tremendous professional challenge". He proposed three models of professional education: the craft model, the applied science model and the reflective model.

These models present a progressive picture of evolutionary methods and skills in teaching and the ultimate object of these systematic approaches is to enable teachers to acquire professional competence. The reflective model combines the characteristics of the other two models. It is a modern and advanced model which answers the criticisms of the other two models about whether teaching language is craft-like or scientific. Wallace (1991:12) stated that

> Language teachers must be familiar with certain concepts from the science of linguistics such as intonation patterns and a grammatical hierarchy from the morpheme to the sentence. It combines two sorts of knowledge in teaching; received through research, findings, theories, skills, grammar and a reasonable degree of fluency in the target language to organise pair- and group-work and previous experiential knowledge.

Meeting the Needs

As described in the introduction to this paper, the principal needs of college lecturers have to be taken seriously; they are: to make them

competent, confident and professional role models. Although it has now been accepted that there is a dire need for an improvement in non-native-speaking English teachers' attitudes to and proficiency in English, the literature regarding this issue contains very few concrete suggestions about how this might be achieved. Cullen (1994) proposed that trainees should be encouraged to use what they have learned on a language course in their own classrooms so that their own process of learning can be continued by continual reinforcement. Tinker Sachs (1999:125) favoured micro-teaching, which she described as an opportunity for trainees "to practise teaching behaviours and receive feedback" on their teaching. McGrath (2002:160) put an emphasis on the content of the course, seeing its importance "in relation to other elements of the programme" and asking how it can be taught and how it can be assessed. McGrath (2002:161) advised that trainers should make an initial assessment of their students' language skills earlier rather than later in order to be able to see the students' development during the course.

These suggestions about ways to meet the needs of trainees are helpful but since they are drawn from countries other than Pakistan, the ways to tackle the issue in Pakistan might be a little bit different. The aim of the process is to see a reasonable difference in the trainees' language skills, practical teaching skills, level of general proficiency and confidence. Analysing the present teaching situation in Pakistan at college level enabled me to plan a type of course which should help trainees to cope with the specific needs of developing oral skill.

A Suggested Training Course for Teachers and Lecturers

The question of how to set up a training programme involves a wide range of issues. For example, the trainer should be aware of the skills and the knowledge which the trainees already possess and should determine what is lacking in their competency and decide how to bridge the gap between what they know and what they have to learn. The trainer should concentrate on the reasons why they are not able to speak confidently: is it a matter of competence or of confidence? Competence is affected by both ability in and awareness of the language which they need to learn. The course therefore has to deal with both of these aspects.

Two types of teaching approach were discussed by Richards (1992): top-down and bottom-up. The latter seems more appropriate in the context of the teaching circumstances in Pakistan. This approach gives importance to the internal rather than the external views of teaching and is primarily

concerned with the actual current state of affairs and the needs of a particular group. Bottom-up activity was summarised by Zahoric (1986:22) as follows:

> The essence of this view of good teaching is invention and personalization. The teacher assesses the needs and possibilities of a situation and creates and uses practice that has promise for the situation.

Since the aim of the training course which I am describing in this paper is to improve lecturers' talking proficiency and to get rid of their hesitation in speaking English, attention should be given to improving all their communication skills by using authentic listening material. A single initial session can involve a general discussion about the trainees' expectations of the course and any specific problems which they have regarding speaking and communicating. Key points written on a handout will encourage the trainees to write down their own suggestions and to feel that they are being involved in the process, and this will motivate them to approach the learning process with enthusiasm. Some of the suggestions which they make at this stage can be included in the later activities. A few of the possible questions are:

1: What are your feelings and expectations about the course?
2: What do you already understand and know (about the target language)?
3: Do you know your strengths and weaknesses in speaking the language?
4: What goals should be set for the training?
5: How do you prefer to practise speaking?
6: Does listening to English cause you trouble in understanding it?
7: How will you overcome your speaking hesitation?
8: What do you need to learn to improve your speaking skill?
9: Is it a matter of confidence or competence in your case?
10: Why do you need to overcome your weaknesses?

The intensive 160-hour course which I have devised for college lecturers is spread over eight weeks, with two four–hour sessions on five days each week: its aim is to improve their communication ability by using different explicit practices so that they can learn to speak English confidently. The material prepared for the course should focus on speaking activities which develop from one week to the next progressively with different tasks being constantly introduced. The titles of each week's activities will be explained and I shall give examples of all the activities. But before describing the

plan, I shall first explain the rationale behind such a course: Wallace (1990:92) stated that "Every course should have a rationale as a reasoned explanation of what kind of course it is and why it has been designed in the way that it has".

Setting the criteria for a course is necessary for getting the best results. All of the lecturers or teachers who are expected to take part in the training must have a Master's degree in English; they might be teaching students from the first year to the fourth year (graduation classes). Teachers and lecturers who have been teaching for up to 25 years in both government-run and private colleges are eligible to attend the course along with those who have only recently completed an MA in English and intend to join the teaching profession.

The trainer must not be preoccupied with the participants' knowledge and competence. Some of the descriptions of LTT suggest that the process can be successful if it is carried out appropriately. For example, Woodward (1991) called teacher training "teacher development", whereas Richards (1990) put greater responsibility on the trainer for the programme to be a success. Both trainer and trainees can achieve significant change by working together.

After attending a course on 'Learning to train' in the Education Department at Nottingham University, I felt an obligation to establish a training programme to produce lecturers of a type which does not exist in Pakistan at the moment. There should be a compulsory course for teachers of English which will enhance their professional aptitude and skills in the English language for the betterment of the next generation. For that reason, I shall present here a proposal for a programme which I hope will provide a base for creating similar training programmes in the future.

The principal objective of the proposed course is for teachers to improve their speaking ability, avoid mistakes and speak confidently. It is necessary to establish what the obstacles are which prevent them from speaking English. A compulsory course will enable trainees to speak English with their students with assurance and confidence and to deliver the syllabus in English with the minimum use of native languages. It is therefore important to write a few sentences to justify the choices which shape the design of the course. The whole course combines various activities which in my experience and observation will follow a smooth and logical sequence. The reasons for this are as follows.

I have already explained that at the beginning of the course there must be an introductory discussion session with all the trainees in order to enable them to get to know one another and for the trainer to judge their speaking abilities and have some idea of their existing language competence and their assumptions and expectations from the training. The next step is to get started with grammar as it is one of the foremost things which will help them to correct their basic mistakes and by writing about grammatical structures and other structures they might become more aware of their basic mistakes. The sessions must involve a variety of activities to create novelty and interest for them.

It is also important to let the trainees hear native speakers' accents. Although copying the native accent is not the idea of the sessions, it is nevertheless vital for English lecturers to recognise native pronunciation at least to a logical extent. By participating in a range of linked exercises, the trainees can become more familiar with the different English accents. The third step is to pay attention to increasing their vocabulary throughout all the activities because I believe that this will help them to maintain their interest in the course.

To let them speak in different ways, I have devised activities for the various sessions which might help them to speak, repeat, raise questions, take part in peer discussions and group conversations and carry out other communicative tasks. Since one of the principal aims of the course is to make the trainees confident, sessions such as these will help to remove their shyness about speaking English. They should be given opportunities to deliver lessons, present tasks and evaluate their own performances through micro-teaching.

Examples of Activities

The eight-week intensive course has to be built up in a way which will ensure that the main aims of the course are achieved to the maximum level. The activities should take up to six hours every day and the focus of the training should change slightly from week to week. Details of the activities are given in the Appendices. Each week's particular activities will be explained and discussed separately next. Before starting the sessions, a handout giving details of the course curriculum should be distributed.

Week One: Introductory Week

In the first session, the focus will be on task analyses. This will primarily be a speaking and discussion session. After the session, the trainer should be in a better position to decide the most appropriate framework for the course and select the materials and be clear about the activities which will be carried out. Some of the points regarding learning and promoting an English-speaking culture should be discussed early in the course. With the help of charts, the two main language issues, imprecision and hesitation, have to be addressed. The trainees should be encouraged to speak during the different tasks, for example to explain their own speaking difficulties. The trainer has to pay attention to these comments and might want to make notes of any unfamiliar problems. Their grammatical mistakes should not be corrected at this stage. The tasks issues could be:

1. describing pictures in a few sentences;
2. finding a way through a map;
3. describing a favourite movie;
4. recounting an interesting teaching experience;
5. explaining their everyday routine;
6. talking about difficulties which they come across in their job;
7. describing difficulties in managing students in English;
8. discussing the interesting or less interesting aspects of the syllabus; and
9. the authorities' expectations about the course and about their language improvement.

Week1:

Aim: identifying and focusing on specific problems;

Resources: worksheets;

Materials: questionnaire; tape recorder; activities chart; maps.

Titles of the five sessions:

   Why Urdu in an English class?
   Why not English in an English class?
   English and your professional needs
   Is training necessary?
   Let's focus on our problems.

Handout contents

1. What are you going to say and to whom are you going to say it?

2. Have you already encountered some speaking difficulties? If yes, please list them.

3. What format is required for this particular issue?

4. Have you ever thought of using a model training course to overcome the problems?

5. How do you analyse the quality of your speaking?

6. What are the general problems which you feel while speaking?

7. What level of proficiency do you want to achieve in speaking?

8. Have you ever felt it essential to improve your speaking ability because you are an English teacher?

Activities, week 1

The first session should be devoted to a discussion between the trainer and the trainees.

The main purpose in the first week is to create an atmosphere which will motivate the trainees to want to complete the whole training course with dedication and to be enthusiastic learners. In the introductory sessions, they should be given the freedom to express their views about the training course, about what they already know, about their writing, speaking and other needs, and about their expectations from the course. Next, they should consider the questions in the hand-out and write down their answers. With the help of the previous discussion, the trainer should use their answers to prioritise the learning targets systematically according to the needs of learners. A list of each day's tasks and priorities should be written on the board. Exchanges can be made between days and the activities if that is what the trainees want or need. Details of possible activities are as follows.

A map of any city such as Karachi, Islamabad or Hyderabad should be shown in the classroom and the trainees have to explain in English how to get from one part of the city to another. A discussion about their favourite movies might be built around the following questions:

1. Why do you like it?
2. What is important about the story?
3. If you were the director or writer of the film, which parts or scenes would you have changed and why?
4. Could different actors make the movie even better?
5. Who is the most miscast actor in the movie?
6. Who is the best performer in the movie?
7. Who else could have played a better role than the hero or heroine?

These simple questions should bring the trainees into the discussion. It might even make them confident about talking about the general questions which they have discussed and been asked before. Possible questions could be as follows:

1. Why did you choose teaching as a profession?
2. Have you ever thought of leaving the profession?
3. Would you like to describe an interesting teaching experience?
4. Are you satisfied with the job?
5. If you were given an opportunity to join a multi-national company, would you leave your present job?
6. What difficulties do you encounter while teaching?
7. What type of student do you like best and why?
8. Do your students like it when you do not use English during your lessons or do they get annoyed?
9. What is your daily routine?
10. How much time do you devote to learning to teach? If none, why not? If you do devote time to it, why?
11. Do you not feel that it is important to learn and read more?
12. Do you think that you are a perfect teacher and therefore see no point in learning more?
13. Does your everyday routine make you tired of teaching?
14. Do you love teaching or it is only a source of income for you?

Some discussion issues could be related to cricket, clothing, shopping centres and small-scale social issues. The trainer must not consider religion or politics as topics for class discussions as they are highly sensitive issues in Pakistani society.

Week Two: Dealing with Grammar and Individual Assignment Week

In the second week, the fact that grammar is one of the main obstacles to their speaking is addressed. They should be given different exercises on various rules, regulations and forms of grammar, and at the same time they should undertake writing assignments. From forms of verbs to the various formations of tenses, articles and sentence structures, a bank of useful phrases and chunks will be practised. Some common mistakes are

1. using the wrong article, such as 'a egg', 'a MA', 'an sight';
2. using the subjunctive form 'would' incorrectly;
3. difficulty in using the 's' form with the third person singular;
4. difficulty in switching over 'has' and 'have' (a singular/plural confusion);
5. using the continuous gerund form in the wrong place; such as 'put onning' for 'putting on' and 'turn offing' for 'turning off';
6. the incorrect use of comparative and superlative degrees, such as 'more good' and 'most tallest'; and
7. with modals, using other forms of verbs, such as 'I have to bought', 'I ought to gone' and 'she might wrote'.

It would be preferable at this stage to assign them a short passage or essay of not more than 500 words every day which should contain the activities and practice of each particular day. This writing activity would strengthen their skill at using the grammatical patterns practised in class. The trainer should select the topic and it will be useful to give them feedback on their written assignments and distribute new assignments at the end of the day's session.

Week 2:

Aims: finding and correcting their speaking problems through grammar correction, writing exercises and follow-up question and answer sessions;

Resources: worksheets;

Materials: computer; grammar books; Oxford Learner's Dictionary; a chart of tenses; comprehensions; essays; applications and paragraphs.

Titles of the week's sessions:

Why grammar?

Language without rules and grammar.
Grammar and the English language.
Rules and regulations of grammar in writing and speaking.
The unsolved mysteries of language.

Hand-out contents

1. Which are the difficult tenses for you?

2. Can grammar books be helpful in correcting tense errors?

3. How can browsing a dictionary in an appropriate way save time and give the meanings of required words and phrases?

4. How do you check spelling, punctuation and sentence structure on a computer?

5. Can you correctly guess and understand the meaning of a new word from the structure of the complete sentence?

6. How will the practice of grammar make the process of speaking easier or better?

7. Does grammar practice really affect speaking the language?

8. Is it easier to write correct English rather than to speak it correctly?

9. Do you feel embarrassed when you monitor your own mistakes or gaps in your spoken English?

10. How do you monitor the standard of your written drafts?

Activities, week 2: Dealing with grammar and individual assignments.

Grammar is the main source of clear expression. Through the correct use of grammar in speaking, it is possible to achieve proficiency in speaking. Its important components are tenses, articles, punctuation, choice of expression and vocabulary. Sentence structure usually creates problems so it is important to advise trainees to keep to hand a small grammar book and an Oxford Learner's Dictionary. They should be given some time to browse and use a dictionary properly and find definitions of words or phrases.

The correct use of articles, apostrophes, the subjunctive mood, singular and plural forms, verb tenses, comparatives and superlatives, and modals will be taught and all grammar components must be discussed thoroughly.

Trainees should be shown slides presenting grammatically wrong sentences and they have to correct them. They should also be given some wrong or badly written comprehension exercises consisting of short essays, letters or paragraphs. They have to identify the incorrect grammar, spelling mistakes and vocabulary errors in the given material. When they highlight the mistakes, the trainer should write them on the board. Some of the points which might have not been pointed out by the learners should be raised by the trainer and discussed.

It is recognised that devoting the five days of the second week to the practice of grammar might lead to a loss of interest, so the second session of each day must be spent on some related but different activities designed to retain the trainees' interest in the course. In these sessions, trainees should discuss and learn how to write an appropriate and effective comprehension exercise. While they are writing, the trainer must raise questions in order to encourage the trainees to speak more and more in order to describe the mistakes or perhaps some positive aspects of the written material.

The comprehension reading task should be read by them one by one and all the other participants should comment on their peers' performance. When dealing with grammar, the teacher must always remember that the actual purpose of each activity is to enable the trainees to speak fluently. At the end of each training day, the trainer should hand out paper to the trainees for them to write passages on the aspects of the day's grammar activities which they have discussed and practised.

Another way to bring novelty to the second sessions would be to engage the trainees in question and answer sessions in pairs. The trainer should prepare sheets showing the questions and the answers and the trainees then choose a partner to work with. Usually exercises such as this make the class noisy, so it is useful to ask one member of each pair to speak first and then the other can respond. In this way, every trainee will get an opportunity to listen and reap the greatest benefit from the exercise. When creating the question and answer sheets, the trainer should concentrate on the typical grammar exercises which had been carried out on the previous day. This offers another opportunity for the trainees to reinforce what they

have learned. For example, if the topic is the past perfect tense, all the questions should be in the same format, such as:

1. Have you ever been to Rome?
2. Had they not read the brochure carefully?
3. Has she passed her driving test?
4. Had I not been surprised to hear about that?

In the case of the future perfect continuous tense, the questions could be written as:

1. Will they have been enjoying their summer holidays?
2. Will he not have been going to appear at the examination?
3. Will her cousin not have been crying after being sacked?
4. This time next week shall we have arrived at the camp?

The answers should also be written on the sheets as the other partner has to speak them fluently, but if any trainees want to answer in their own words, they should be encouraged to do so. The trainer might notice mistakes but should not point them out at the time to avoid breaking the continuity of the task and making the speakers feel embarrassed.

Week Three: Listening, Discussing and Composition Week

Authentic listening material for learners either from the BBC or from Oxford or Cambridge texts should be provided in the classroom. Listening should be followed by a comprehension practice. Each day's composition practices should be checked by the trainer in order to ensure that progress is being made in understanding the native accent and acquiring the correct meaning. The trainer has to make it clear at the start that the intelligibility of the language is important rather than trying to acquire a native-like accent, so the learners should concentrate on catching the essence of the words.

The topics of the listening material should be distributed by the trainer in the form of interesting exercises, including some incorrect sentences and some puzzle-based activities, such as incorrect forms of verbs, tenses and modals, in order to check whether the trainees are recognising their mistakes or not, even though they have already listened to a passage many times.

Week 3:

Aims: learning speaking by listening to authentic material; discussion sessions and finding the correct answers to questions asked by native speakers;

Resources: worksheets;

Materials: CDs of different established language institutes or recordings of local English news broadcasts or BBC and CNN news broadcasts.

Titles of the day's sessions:

Why can't we understand it when native-speakers speak?
Why can't we understand the native accent?
Do we speak Pakistani English?
The issue of language intelligibility.
Learning through listening.

Hand-out contents

1. What percentage of an English-language movie can you understand?

2. Is the native accent easy to understand?

3. Is it important to understand native speakers? If yes, why? If no, why not?

4. Can you answer a native speaker's telephone call easily? If not, why not?

5. If an English person were to teach Urdu as a lecturer anywhere and could not understand our spoken Urdu, how would you feel?

6. Is the intelligibility of the English language important or is copying the native accent more important?

7. What are the main differences between the accents of BBC newsreaders and English movie actors?

Activities, week 3

CD recordings of authentic English speakers should be played in the classroom. The trainees then have to complete comprehension exercises

within a given time; they should tick the correct answers, fill in blanks and complete a true or false comprehension practice. The trainer should check their progress as they work through the exercises and must encourage the trainees to focus on the real meaning and to understand the English recordings.

Their answer sheets should then be discussed; their opinions, understanding, difficulties and interest or lack of interest about the listening material should be given importance. They have to describe their feelings about this activity.

Some sentences with completely opposite meanings from the actual material should be given to the trainees. The recordings must be played at least twice and even three or four times if required. The trainer should judge how many trainees have understood the true meaning and realised that the written material has the opposite meaning from what is spoken. Sheets should be distributed among the trainees with puzzle-type activities such as sentences with gaps and answers without questions and they should listen to topics related to the written material and find the mistakes and missing sections.

There could be one or two movie sessions; a hand-out with questions about the movies should be distributed among the trainees for discussion on the following day. The trainees have to describe scenes from the movies in their own words and this could be followed by an enthusiastic discussion.

The trainer should be careful to maintain the trainees' interest in the course by introducing variety into the sessions and the second session each day should be different from the first. If the first session is about listening, the second should be devoted to discussing the main points about the listening theme, topic, news, story or comments. Another useful idea is to allocate some sessions for listening to questions asked by native speakers and then suggesting the expected answers. In this way, they will not only speak in English but will also have to focus more and more on the syllables of words and the accent in order to understand what is being said.

A silent movie lasting twenty to thirty minutes could be shown and the trainees have to create dialogues to match the situations in the movie. This situational discourse should be discussed and trainees must think about and suggest a possible story or possible dialogues between the characters at the end of the discussion. It is the trainer's responsibility to ensure that

all of the participants are involved in the discussion and to keep the discussion active so that all of the participants have equal opportunities to elaborate their views.

Week Four: Extending Vocabulary Week

The fourth week is dedicated to the practice of vocabulary and how to extend and improve it. Some short stories, essays, poems, compositions, analytical articles or newspaper cuttings are needed for the practice. The trainees must get some new words from them, write them on a separate sheet of paper and hang it up in an easily accessible place. They can repeat this as many times as possible. They might start remembering the words after four or five times and increase the number of words as they go along. Other activities might be helpful for increasing the number of words known: some cuttings which contain most forms of tenses should be given to the trainees with some of the complicated phrases underlined. Another task could be to rewrite a story in their own words. A possible way of learning vocabulary is to go through children's story books and underline the sentences which in their opinion are well formed but lack strict grammatical rules. By memorising such chunks, they will become able to use them fluently and correctly in speaking and writing.

Week 4:

Aims: learning speaking by learning and memorising vocabulary;

Resources: worksheets;

Materials: newspapers, stories, notebooks, sheets.

Titles of the week's sessions:

Why is vocabulary necessary for speaking?
Is using a dictionary useless?
Memorising words.
What words and phrases are there in the syllabus which you teach?
More vocabulary, fewer problems.

Hand-out contents

1. Can having mastery over grammar alone make us good speakers?

2. What complications are you still experiencing in speaking English?

3. Is vocabulary the main hurdle to thinking, speaking and communicating with others in English?

4. How do you think you can choose appropriate words, phrases and expressions for use in conversation?

5. Do your students always get the meaning of the words and phrases they want from you?

6. How can you learn as well as memorise vocabulary?

7. How can you practise memorised vocabulary in everyday talk?

8. Can you describe some possible methods of memorising vocabulary? (For example, type at least five words and phrases on a piece of paper in large letters and fix them somewhere around your work table. Look at and repeat them as many times as possible until you have completely memorised them and their meanings.)

Activities, week 4: Extending Vocabulary Week

The activities in this fourth week might make them realise that one of their problems in speaking is linked to their limited vocabulary. They have to improve and extend their vocabulary so that they can choose appropriate words for a conversation. The inability to choose appropriate words and expressions prevents them from achieving the required goal, so they need to learn new vocabulary. Good support can be taken from English daily newspapers. From English newspapers, every trainee can select a news item and then find the meanings of difficult underlined words and phrases and write them on a sheet of paper. The trainer should advise them about some learning and memorising strategies.

It would be helpful if the trainer makes charts and writes down words similar to other words or things. Another strategy can be to give them assignments to write out a news item and then try to add new words to it appropriately. The focus should be on sustaining this activity for a long time; to be successful, it needs continuous practice in the right direction. Some of the strategies for learning new words can be described in the handouts distributed to the class and the trainer should explain how to use these strategies.

The use of new words and phrases should be monitored in the assigned writing tasks so that the trainer can see that they are learning in an

appropriate way. Lists of new vocabulary and phrases should be distributed to the trainees each day and by the use of different activities, the reinforcement of the vocabulary should be possible.

Trainees can find unknown words from short stories, essays, poems, compositions, articles and newspaper cuttings and then look up their meanings. They should be encouraged to write them out and put the paper where they can easily see it and repeat the words frequently, as described above.

Another activity which can be spread over at least two sessions is to give the trainees an interesting passage to read and when they have finished reading it, the trainer should collect the papers in and they then have to rewrite it in their own words. The trainer should make sure that the trainees use different words from the original ones. The written papers then need feedback from the trainer.

Week Five: Open Discussion

In the fifth week, the trainees should be involved in open discussions, communication in pairs and groups, and question sessions. Charts of the tenses should be displayed in the classroom and the students should be divided into four groups to discuss an assigned tense each. One member of each group has to describe the tense structure and the trainees should be given an opportunity to raise questions, which the trainer must respond to by providing more and more examples. In the other half of the session, the trainees should come forward and explain the structures voluntarily. The trainer should hand out question sheets so that they can ask question and get answers from their partners.

Week 5:

Aims: speaking more and more to overcome hesitation;

Resources: worksheets;

Materials: question and answer sheets; sheets of tenses; list of topics for discussion.

Titles of the week's sessions:

Conversation in English

Which topic seems difficult?
Which tenses seem difficult?
Which is the main issue – shyness or incompetence?
Fluency judgement
Speak English as your first language

Hand-out contents

1. What could be possible topics of everyday conversation?

2. Is asking questions easier than answering them?

3. Can you discuss the past by using only the past simple, past continuous and past perfect continuous tenses and past participles?

4. Can you talk using only all the future tenses?

5. Which topics or themes do you find easier to discuss?

6. Which themes seem difficult to have a discussion about?

7. What are your main difficulties in having a conversation about routine matters?

8. Do you feel shy when you speak Urdu or your mother tongue?

9. Is the English language only a symbol of colonial rule?

Activities, week 5: Pair and Group Discussions; Conversations; Question and Answer Sessions.

Open discussions and communication in pairs and groups can be used to encourage the trainees to talk as much as possible. Handing out question and answer sheets will give them an opportunity to answer questions related to everyday life. Topics can be selected to match the trainees' common interests. Each trainee has to be given an opportunity to participate actively. The discussions should contain those sentences or language areas which previous sessions have shown that they find difficult to speak. Some examples of the questions for group or partner discussions are as follows:

1. Ask Ali if he has got a message for you.
2. Can we go shopping tomorrow?
3. Could we arrange a party next week?

4. What would you like to do this evening?

5. How much does the bracelet cost?

In communication tasks with partners, the questions on a single topic could be:

Where do you start your journey?

Do you come by bus every day?

How long does it take?

Which route does it follow?

Would it not be convenient if you come by taxi?

Do you travel alone or does somebody go with you?

Is the bus fare reasonable?

Pair work needs compound questions so that the participants have an opportunity to give several answers and can also express their views. There could be questions like:

What type of course is offered by that university for next summer?

Has the forthcoming fashion week changed its venue?

Are complimentary meal served every Sunday in the Chinese restaurant?

As explained above, charts of the tenses should to be displayed in the classroom and trainees should be divided into groups to discuss their assigned tenses. The trainer should not interrupt the discussions unless it is necessary, but he/she should make notes of the mistakes made by the trainees. Although it is not advisable to point them out at this stage, the trainer has to be aware of the weaknesses as well as the strengths of the speaking process in order to be able to help the trainees with other activities later.

Week Six: Workshop and Communicative Tasks

For the sixth week, the trainees should be divided into groups and each group has to be assigned a different task. The tasks require the trainees to make a plan which will improve their students' learning. They have to decide how the plan will work to promote an English-speaking culture and how their students might learn to speak English not only inside but also outside the classroom. The activities which they suggest can then be performed or explained by the trainees and that should be followed by a question and answer sessions so that the explicitness, probabilities and

loopholes of each plan can be evaluated by the trainees themselves. The plans must be based on the compulsory syllabus and if they want to create only a language promotion plan for college level students, they must be allowed to do so.

Week 6:

Aims: making the trainees autonomous in creating programmes for their students;

Resources: worksheets;

Materials: anything sensible and practical which the trainees decide to use.

Titles of the week's sessions:

Why not English?
Do students benefit from teacher training?
Learning and teaching English for the benefit of the nation.
English language in Pakistani culture.
Threat or synthesis?

Handout contents

1. Why are you learning English?

2. Is English just for you or for the coming generation too?

3. Do you want your students to benefit from the training?

4. Do you think it is necessary for them to learn and speak English fluently?

5. Can they learn the English language from old syllabus books?

6. Apart from the course, what else do you suggest that they do to learn English?

7. If they speak more and more English, will it be a threat to our existing languages? If so. how?

8. Is the Urdu language a threat to our mother tongues?

Activities, week 6: Workshop and Communicative Tasks

Promoting English among their students should be the task for the sixth week. The trainees should be divided into groups and each group has to be assigned a different task to make a plan to improve their students' learning. They then have to explain how the plan would work to promote an English-speaking culture and how it would help their students to learn to speak English inside and outside the classroom. After they have presented their draft plans, the trainer should give them feedback on the following day.

The trainer should look at their papers to check the concept, grammar, vocabulary, spelling, punctuation and formality in the style of the draft. Their opinions about the components of what they have written might need revision, so in the following session the trainer should provide them with some random paragraphs. One by one, they have to arrange them in a logical order; all the aspects of this activity, from logical thinking to choosing vocabulary and the practicality of their ideas, should be discussed in the sessions.

Each group should decide which part of the syllabus they want to address. Those who are interested in poetry can form one group, another group could take prose and a third group might find novels interesting. One-act plays could be chosen by those who are keen to teach this topic or have been teaching it for years. Then, within their own framework for their own selected interests, they should design at least one month's course for students which should help them in their language learning. The course should not be designed solely to meet the requirements of an examination.

Some trainees might raise an objection that they would not be given time for the implementation of the course or that their students might find it useless. The trainer should explain the ways in which they could implement their plans in the classroom. One possible way to do this could be to add the designed activities just before the end of one part of the syllabus because there are four parts in the course from first year to graduation, so it would not be impossible to just add one week of well-planned activities about a specific topic such as drama, poetry, novels or prose.

The trainees' planned course activities should be performed and evaluated by the trainees themselves in open discussion. This activity might enable

them to realise how important is to improve their students' language skills and abilities.

Week Seven: Delivering Lectures Week

The trainees should be allowed to deliver lectures on any topics they wish. Extempore dialogues or speech about any extracts from the course books which they teach in their classes should be suggested as suitable topics. The lectures should last for seven to ten minutes. Each lecture should be followed by a question and answer session. After that, they should watch a video or listen to an audio recording of their actual lectures. That would help them to realise, count and comprehend their mistakes and they could also judge the appropriateness of their lecturing style. The trainer's role should be encouraging; he/she should be very careful about making comments. There could be some senior teachers who might not like to be assessed in this way. It is the responsibility of the trainer not to allow anyone's self-esteem to be damaged.

Week 7:

Aims: letting the trainees deliver prepared and extempore lectures;

Resources: worksheets;

Materials: possible tasks, topics or themes for the lectures.

Titles of the week's sessions:

Your lecture, your choice
Extempore speaking
Discussing any book or chapter which you teach
What does micro-teaching achieve?
Let's deal with teething troubles.

Handout contents

1. What is your favourite topic that you want to speak on?

2. Prepare at least a seven-minute lecture on your own chosen topic.

3. Can you talk extempore for ten minutes on any of the topics given by the trainer?

4. What are the difficulties in preparing and delivering lectures?

5. Is extempore speaking more difficult that delivering a prepared lecture? If yes, why? If no, why not?

6. Do some specific topics cause you difficulties or are all topics equal?

7. If you are given your favourite topic for extempore speaking, will you possibly speak for longer?

8. Is delivering a lecture about the syllabus easier than giving lectures outside the set syllabus?

Activities, week 7: Delivering Lectures Week

The micro-teaching process begins in this week. The trainees have to prepare a short lecture on their own selected topic and then deliver their lectures one by one. After each lecture, other trainees should raise points or ask questions about the lecture. Showing videos of their lectures is a simple way of letting them assess and evaluate the training programme.

Extempore dialogues or prepared talks could be based on extracts from the English course books which they teach in their classes. Some topics can be recommended by the trainer in order to check their speaking ability. Other trainees can raise points about the passages, poems, plays and dramas chosen as topics by their peers. Watching or listening to recordings of their lectures or extempore talks can help them to realise their errors and assess the appropriateness of their teaching style. One session should be allocated for their comments on the video-recorded lectures and the trainer could ask questions such as:

1. Do you usually deliver a better lecture than that?
2. Did the fact that it was being recorded make you aware and was your performance affected by it?
3. Would you like to be recorded again?
4. Are you satisfied with your selection of words, accent, sentence structures, overall level of language, the logic of your ideas and your style? If no, why not? If yes, why?
5. What are the aspects which made you happy after watching your performance?
6. What are the aspects which you need to improve in your lecture?
7. Do you feel more comfortable giving a prepared lecture or does giving an extempore talk make you more composed?

   8. What are the differences between these two styles of talking?

These sessions of lectures and the video recordings will engage the trainees in continuous talk not only about their own skills and appropriateness, but also about the performances of the other trainees. This could perhaps be the stage at which they overcome their shyness and discover confidence.

Week Eight: Individual Presentation Task and a Summing-up Session

Any activities which need to be practised to achieve the two targets of the course, speaking and confidence, might be repeated during this final week. Weak aspects of the trainees' language might need to be revisited and reinforced. It is recommended that the first day of the final week should be given over to revisiting any tasks which need further reinforcement. The trainer has to make sure that the trainees are quite relaxed about expressing themselves because this has to be a conversation week. Topics can be decided by common interest. Each trainee has to be able to participate actively. The discussions should cover those sentences or language areas which they had found difficult to speak. They might also describe the training experience and the difficulties which they experienced.

Week 8:

Aim: to make trainees courageous about speaking about the training and other topics;

Resources: worksheets;

Materials: a list of the topics for conversation.

Titles of the week's sessions:

The benefits of the course for your students.
The benefits of the course for you.
Have you gained or lost?
What next?
Summing-up session

Handout contents

1. What were the areas in your speaking which you wanted to improve?

2. What are the weaknesses and drawbacks which you still want to improve?

3. Will the strategies which you have learned help you to speak effectively in the future?

4. Do you want to have another follow-up intensive training course?

5. How satisfied are you with the course?

6. What are the drawbacks of the course?

7. Was the course useful or a waste of your time?

8. Will English now remain an integral part of speaking for you?

9. Are you sure you will teach English in English?

10. Will you continue to reinforce the activities which you have carried out?

11. Is there anything which will help your students which you have discovered from the training course?

Activities, week 8: Individual Presentation Task and a Summing-up Session

The activities which the trainees have carried out might have helped them to clarify the problems which often affect their speaking. The trainer should be ready to respond to any questions which they might have about what points they wanted to improve, and to ask whether they have achieved an improvement and whether they want to continue to improve with constant effort through the practices which they have learned. The final days are for conversation. Topics can be chosen from the trainees' interests and they must all have an opportunity to participate actively. They might want to reinforce some areas which still cause them difficulty and the trainer has to make sure that all the trainees are sufficiently relaxed to express themselves freely.

A list should be made of the techniques which they found useful for improving the quality of their speaking. Using the comments on the previous sessions' discussions, the trainer should ask them to think about what type of self-study plan suits them the best and whether they are planning to carry on speaking English with the same enthusiasm. Alternatively, the trainer could advise them to carry on speaking English with their staff colleagues, with their students and at home if possible. Pair or group learning work within the department might enhance their abilities and help them to deal with their speaking-related problems.

The trainer has to listen carefully and make notes about some of their needs and expectations. A detailed questionnaire should be given to them containing important questions about the training strategies, materials, systems, time-frame, the trainer's role, self-improvement, whether the course will be helpful for their students or not, their expectations, any dissatisfaction with the trainer, and the duration, design and arrangement of the course. Their responses should be used as basis for arranging further courses in a better way.

Possible Problems in the Implementation of the Training Course

The beginning as well as the planning of every new course creates a disturbance for those authorities who do not believe that any change is necessary. In particular, when the issue is English-language training in Pakistan, some strong reactions might emerge. In the following paragraphs, I shall anticipate and discuss some of the possible hindrances to setting up training courses of the type described in this paper and suggest some possible solutions to them.

How teacher training should be organised in Pakistan is a complicated question but especially so when the trainer is not a native speaker or is actually a colleague of the trainees. Usually, trainees bring their learning and teaching experience and have some awareness of their weaknesses and strengths along with learning expectations from a new training course. In general, Pakistani teachers do not see any importance in attending a course or training session. Wallace (1990) commented that no learning takes place in a vacuum; it depends on the learner what needs to be learned and how it has to be learned.

Anticipating the likely and potential difficulties is not very hard. Some of the most fundamental problems can be social behaviour and an anti-

English attitude, so I shall consider these first. A common assumption is that English can only be learned from a native speaker, so a non-native-speaking trainer might face humiliation or even mockery. Lecturers have never been questioned about their ability in front of other lecturers or colleagues, so they might feel embarrassment about having to endure this during a training course. On the other hand, senior lecturers might feel insulted if the trainer is junior to them.

Some teachers still believe that English is a language of invaders, so they keep its use in everyday life to a minimum. According to many older lecturers, learning English means accepting English culture which will spoil life for future generations. This attitude can seriously undermine the learning process. In small towns and cities, many people still mock those who try to speak English.

Apart from these issues, different levels of competence might cause anxiety among the trainees and could make a training course unpopular or unsuccessful. The tendency of some individuals to monopolise a discussion can create an embarrassing situation for a trainer and might lead to some of the participants losing interest. The trainer must be aware that the trainees will transfer what they learn from the training course to their own classrooms, so he/she must scrutinise the learning process thoroughly.

Possible Solutions to the Problems

I can suggest possible solutions to the anticipated difficulties described above. A native Pakistani trainer would certainly benefit from understanding the cultural and social barriers to which I have referred. So he or she needs to be patient and calm and prepared to show tolerance towards negative comments. Time must be allowed to help those who are reluctant to participate because they lack either confidence or competence. The trainer should understand the various tactics to control those individuals who constantly want to monopolise discussions. It is important to keep them engaged in order not to let them interrupt the smooth running of the course. Instead of talking too much, the trainer should give the trainees every opportunity to speak more and more on specific topics in order to build up their confidence. The trainer must always remember that the trainees will pass on what they have learned to their students so he/she must judge the standard of the learning which the trainees show and help them to get rid of misunderstandings and errors through constant reinforcement of the different learning tasks.

Conclusion

It is a depressing fact that lecturers and teachers in Pakistan who teach English to young learners are not themselves able to speak the target language confidently. I have become familiar with several methodologies of training courses which have successfully been delivered in different parts of the world. The content and method of the suggested course which I have described in this paper are just a small sample of possible formats which can be adopted for effective courses. I think that programmes such as this will go some way to fulfilling the needs of Pakistani lecturers without damaging either their self-esteem or their cultural values.

In this paper, I have discussed in some depth the reasons for setting up a course such as this. By understanding the background to language teaching in Pakistan, it is possible to establish short or long training courses of the type which I have described in order to meet the required criteria. At the start, the idea may not be accepted by the authorities, but a well-written and well-presented proposal setting out the need and the desire to improve the quality of a particular department might persuade the Ministry to consider it as a genuine issue. The teaching departments themselves can also take some initiative since almost all colleges have enough space to run the type of classes which are needed.

In the literature review, I described some of the approaches to learning how to train and I have presented a training course designed basically to help lecturers to develop their English-speaking ability. This does not mean that lecturers do not need to develop other language skills, but it is my firm belief that oral skills have to be given priority and that other key skills can be taught by other courses. I think that beginning with the spoken language can attract lecturers to want to attend the course and will prepare them for other courses. The course length might be shortened or stretched out longer than the eight weeks which I have described. The important thing to remember is that it must contain carefully planned and selected material in order to retain the interest of the trainees.

Whoever produces a plan for training lecturers should not assume immediate success for the whole programme; it actually requires a gradual but steady progression to achieve success. Primarily, it is the responsibility of the government and other influential bodies to accept the importance of the issue, and I shall conclude by making some suggestions which might help to resolve this problem.

First, the government should take the initiative for improving the standard of teaching because more than 80% of Pakistani people study at government-run colleges. The government is responsible for teachers' salaries, so its interest in and support for training courses will be an incentive for lecturers to be willing to attend training courses. Awards, special allowances, certificates, increments in salary, days off during the training, tea with light refreshments, and lunch boxes can all add to the attraction of attending a learning programme.

Arranging different training workshops on language skills with the help of some private organisations can make a big difference. Nowadays, the HEC (Higher Education Commission) is an active body; it should be encouraged to engage foreign teachers from British universities as trainers in all provinces to present training courses to all English teachers and lecturers. This would be the best solution for bringing native-speaking teachers into the learning situation. The Commission should also redesign the criteria for selection and the selected learners should be sent abroad on scholarships to learn English in order to bring about a difference in language teaching in Pakistan on their return.

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CHAPTER NINE

SECOND-LANGUAGE
ACQUISITION IN CHILDREN:
A CASE STUDY OF TWO PAKISTANI
CHILDREN, AGED 3 AND 7 YEARS

Introduction

In August 2006, I moved to Nottingham in the UK along with my husband and my two children: the boy was seven and the girl was three years and eight months old. At that time, both could speak English with a Pakistani accent. I was not sure whether within a short time they would become as fluent in English as native speakers are. I have increasingly been amazed by their obvious learning speed and their ways of picking the language up. This brought into focus the question of how children acquire a second language quickly, especially when they are living in the UK and taking part in academic and social activities.

This consequently inspired me to study this experience and to devote this paper to it in order that my findings might realistically contribute to the existing body of research into the subject. The inspiration led me to look deeply into the influence of the age factor in second-language acquisition (SLA) and to ask what previous studies have said about this. In what way have the theories and concepts about SLA been developed? How do the similarities and differences between L1 and L2 make a difference? What could be the right age for learning L2? My aim is to examine the role of social and cultural differences in acquiring L2, and the differences between a conscious and a naturalistic way of learning L2, and above all to consider how my two non-native children acquired the L2 in such a remarkable way during their one-year stay in the UK.

The main purpose of this paper is to relate this experience to the existing research in the field of SLA. My findings may or may not add something new, but the conclusion might be of some interest to those who suppose

that a non-native child cannot possess the language proficiency of a native-speaking child. Before describing the family background of the children, their educational experiences and the study of SLA, and to incorporate various language learning theories and the social and linguistic experiences which my children went through during their stay in the UK and the outcome of all that exposure, I shall briefly give an account of the language issues in Pakistan.

The Language Issues in Pakistan

Before Pakistan became an independent state in 1947, it was a part of an India ruled by the British. In that united India, by the 1700s, English had become the language of administration and members of the socially advanced class preferred to study in English. English was increasingly accepted as the language of government, of the social elite and of the national press.

When Pakistan came into being, the Urdu language was officially declared the national language of Pakistan but despite numerous attempts to replace English with Urdu, English is still used as an official language. Today, Pakistan is a multi-lingual country. In addition to the national and provincial languages, it is believed that more than twenty-four languages are spoken.

In the recent past, there has been strong pressure from various quarters that instead of students learning in English, all science subjects should be taught in Urdu with the intention that students should gain knowledge and learn terminologies in their own language. The government and some semi-governmental bodies attempted to establish research institutions for the purpose of translating subjects from English into Urdu but the project achieved no recognisable results and was abandoned.

It is a fact that a large segment of the population of Pakistan dislikes western culture and often demonstrates grievances against its social impact on Pakistani society and culture. An example of extreme determination to reject English was observed when the Pakistan American Cultural Centre (an English-language institute) in Karachi was burned in 2005 by a mob chanting anti-English and anti-western slogans.

Surprisingly, anyone visiting cosmopolitan cities in Pakistan such as Karachi or Islamabad might be surprised to see considerable numbers of westernised people. As a matter of fact, the English language has become

a status symbol in Pakistan, representing power and prestige. Indeed, it distinguishes the upper class. The upper-middle class also tries to follow the same pattern by sending their children to private English-medium schools. At the beginning of 2006, I saw an advertisement in a Pakistani newspaper from a private school; it showed a picture of a child and the caption was

> "Look! This 7-year-old boy speaks English. How? Get your child in and see the difference."

Whether this claim was true or false, in the wider perspective it is perhaps not exaggerated as people have realised that learning English is inevitable. Well-educated people believe that the language issue has been deliberately created to gain political mileage so that ordinary people should not to be able to speak the English language and should continue to regard it as the language of oppressors. On the other hand, the people of the elite class prefer their children to learn English from good English-medium schools. Even so, it is difficult to speak publicly in favour of learning English as people are afraid of being accused of being westernised and anti-Islamic.

The Family Background of the Children

The English language itself and its rich literature has remained a source of inspiration for me and for my husband. Our personal library contains a vast collection of books on a variety of subjects in the English language. My husband holds an MA in Economics and graduated in Law. He taught English at the Pakistan American Cultural Centre for five years before joining the Pakistani civil service. During the working day, most of his time is taken up by his official work and meetings, which are held in English. He has written two books in the Sindhi language, *The History of Philosophy* and *The History of Sindhi Literature*. The latter is included in the syllabus of the Sindhi Department of the University of Sindh. At many literary debates and seminars, he has read papers and he has written articles in various newspapers in favour of learning English. His published articles have caused fierce debates. Although a number of readers have favoured his ideas, many have called it a typical bureaucratic and slave mentality.

I took a Master's degree in English as well as in Urdu literature and I taught English literature in different colleges in Sindh after 1996. I write short stories in Urdu, some of which have been compiled into two volumes. In addition, I have worked on various Pakistani television

channels as a presenter and an interviewer. We both also contribute articles to Urdu and Sindhi newspapers and magazines on social and literary issues.

In the Pakistani context, 'second language' can mean either the national or a provincial language and 'native language' is the term used for a person's first language. It is very common in Pakistan to have a bilingual or multi-lingual background. During my own childhood, I used to speak Punjabi with my mother, Sindhi with my father and Urdu with teachers and friends, and I could read Arabic fluently. When I grew up, I decided to study the Persian language and also tried to learn Seraiki from my husband. Although I cannot speak Persian or Seraiki (neither do I have a total command over English), the languages which I learnt in my childhood had been strongly acquired through natural flow without any interruption by spelling syndromes or strange grammar rules. My husband is a Seraiki speaker on both his mother's and his father's sides. His medium of education was a combination of Sindhi and English. However, he is fluent in Sindhi, Urdu and English, well-versed in Punjabi and can read Arabic easily. As a result, our two children had access to seven languages in the family. However, in discussions about second language in the UK, the term always refers to the English language (the definition became clear to me only during the ELT course).

We were both aware that it is quite difficult to learn English at a later stage of life, so we started to speak English with our children right from when they were born. Our self-created English atmosphere encouraged the children to listen to and to speak English. Wall charts, children's storybooks, cassettes, English cartoons, comic stories and other appropriate English-language materials were provided to them. A good collection of audiocassettes soon attracted the children towards English rhymes and stories. There was no restriction or time limit for listening to and watching them. I read a story every night and child A developed a reasonably critical approach and at the end of the stories, he began adding a few sentences from his own imagination.

At home, our library of English books made child A fond of reading and helped him to build an impressive vocabulary as well as to improve his reading comprehension. The books around them made child A curious about English writers and their works. Surprisingly, even before the age of three, child A could name many great literary figures and philosophers. At the age of five, he began choosing games (video) and movies (cartoon or comic) by himself. He had memorised multiple chunks from his favourite

movies and stories and started using them jubilantly in his everyday conversation. Neither child liked to watch movies in other languages.

Although both of the children belong to the same family, they were brought up in dissimilar circumstances. It is important to give information about their social and environmental differences as they may be a cause of the children acquiring the L2 in dissimilar ways.

a) Child A

On the basis of our personal experience, my husband and I were keen to provide our children with English surroundings ever since our first child was born on 1 August 1999. In those days, my husband was posted to a small city in Sindh as a sub-divisional magistrate (SDM). The SDM house was quite removed from the heart of the city. Because we did not have a huge circle of friends, child A did not have much contact with the other languages and people around. People around us might have thought that we considered our own languages inferior, but there were reasonable grounds for our continuing wish to make our child fluent in English rather than in any other language. We therefore did our best to give him as much exposure to English as possible.

Because we wanted our child's early education to be in English, we moved to Karachi. In Karachi, there are some well-established, English-medium schools which have robust admission criteria, with the result that only a limited number of children get enrolled. These schools strongly recommend that children be prepared in a 'good' nursery (here 'good' means English-medium). We were convinced about the importance of nurseries, so we got him enrolled in a prestigious nursery when he reached eighteen months old ("You are late", said the nursery manager). This expensive nursery's day ran from 9am to 2pm.

It was a pathetic experience. The healthy and friendly child turned into a cranky and skinny boy. We discussed this irritating situation with the nursery co-ordinator and she consoled us by saying that it was an adjustment problem and that he would soon settle down. Soon, however, he became severely sick. When he got better, we again tried to send him to the nursery but his horrible crying made us change our minds. Being very disappointed with that experience, we converted one room of our home into a small play centre and gave extra time to him to make him acquainted with the English alphabet and the number system.

At the age of three, he passed the entry test and was admitted to a well-reputed, English-medium school in prep-1. I must admit that our obsession about making him fluent in English got him into trouble. By cutting him off from the natural environment, we realised that we had committed a sort of blunder when we saw him neither participating in games nor mixing with the other children who could not understand English but were very confident in Urdu and Sindhi.[1] He was so innocent and civilised that other children could ill-treat him easily. His belongings were stolen frequently. He found a huge gap between the home and school environments.

Astonishingly, the situation changed in the next year, when we saw him chatting effortlessly in Urdu with other children: he spoke in English with his parents and teachers and in Urdu with other pupils. He began getting reading awards and appreciative letters from class teachers. He even memorised some of the chunks from stories and comics.

When we came to Nottingham, he described the local accent as a "strange accent" spoken by "different people" who were Christians and not Muslims. At Dunkirk Primary School in Nottingham, he was placed in the fourth class although he had completed only class one in Pakistan. His school hours were 9am to 3.30pm, and after that he used to attend an after-school Fun Club in the same school from 3.30pm to 6pm. At school there were no complaints about his reading but his social interaction was a cause of constant trouble and he felt himself alien and aloof as he was bullied by some of the school children. He was completely unaware of slang words and insulting gestures. At first, he tried to learn them and adopt them himself, but he soon abandoned them when he understood what they really meant. Although the situation was normalised by the efforts taken by the teachers, some mild traces of the problems remained. In September 2007 he gave up the Fun Club and attended the school only.

b) Child B

The second child is a girl, born on 2 December 2002 when her brother was three years and four months old. She received the same attention and attitude from her parents as far as the English language was concerned but was brought up in entirely different circumstances. I used to take her with me to the college in Karachi where I was working as a lecturer when she

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[1] The local language of one the four provinces of Sindh.

was just less than two months old.[2] In the College, she could normally move with me from one department to another. From there, she picked up the Urdu language with its full variety.

After college, she would spend time at the home of our neighbours. They spoke Sindhi and soon she became confident in the Sindhi language too. Thus, by her second birthday she could speak three languages, Urdu, Sindhi and English, without any hesitation. Her brother, however, who was six years and four months old at that time, could speak two languages only.

She accompanied me every day when I had to drop off and collect child A at his school. She was admitted into the same school without difficulty when she reached three. At that time I had been admitted to Nottingham University and she was still too young to start school. When we arrived in the UK, nothing seemed surprising to her. She began admiring people, their hairstyles and their dress. We registered her at the Play Centre of Nottingham University. Being very talkative, she took to the play centre staff and, astonishingly, got involved with them within just a few days. The play centre hours were from 9am to 5.30pm. In September 2007, she left the play centre and joined Dunkirk Primary School (Nottingham), in Class One. For the initial few days, she remained disturbed by the change and was reluctant to go to the school but later on she became well settled and boasted that she was now a big girl at a big school.

c) Personality Differences

The children have differences in personality which are potentially important for their language learning. Child A is imaginative and speculative. The impact on him of reading children's literature is quite visible. Through his imagination he sometimes invents his own stories. For instance, he would tell his classmates that during the holidays he had gone to New York and then tell them a lot about his imagined trip. He was fascinated by science-fiction characters such as Spiderman, Superman and King Kong and was always in search of their movies. He was impressed by doctors, officers and other professionals and tried to copy them. He was fond of learning about unusual things and defining them in his own words; for example, he had a very clear understanding of hypnotism, yoga, karate and Greek mythology. To some extent he was extrovert, but he did not find it easy to

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[2] In Pakistan, the maternity leave is for the mother only and the maximum duration of this leave (with pay) is only four months.

make friends. Sometimes he was shy with older people. He was futuristic and preferred possibilities over realities. He did not like music and dance, and he did not like women who are not fully clothed.

The personality of child B was quite different. From the beginning she was quite a naughty girl and did not follow proper manners like her brother. She seldom paid attention to instructions and tried to ignore whatever was said to her. She felt no hesitation about having contact with people and neighbours. She loved to speak with everyone and seldom remained silent. Making friends was her hobby and she could win over anyone she liked. She was fond of fashion, make-up and jewellery and was impressed instantly by fashionable women, fancy dresses and glittering things. She did not show any interest in reading or listening to stories. She took an interest in movies but not as much as child A. However, she possessed some ability to act. Her confidence was her main asset; when she was expressing her feelings she was never shy or scared.

Neither child had any biased feelings about language and culture initially, but when child A began to play with other children, around the age of five in Pakistan, they displayed a rude attitude towards him as they were actually biased against the English culture. This disheartening situation made child A curious to know more about cultural and linguistic differences as he was told by people that speaking English was against not only Pakistani culture but also religion. On the other hand, child B could speak the local and national languages just as well as English. Moreover, she was too young to think about such comments so this psychological problem did not occur for her.

By the time we arrived in Nottingham, although they both spoke English, neither child had a native-like flow. Their accent was purely Pakistani but was comprehensible by native speakers. Child B had some basic vocabulary which she could use to communicate her meaning. As far as grammar was concerned, she used to make mistakes between singular-plural, third person singular and verbs in past tenses. She was not able to write anything but her listening was better and she could understand native speakers to some extent. When she joined the Nottingham University play centre, her teachers gave me a simple vocabulary list in order to make sure that she could understand the meaning of those words. I assured them that she would know all the words and their meanings. After just a couple of days, I enquired from the teachers if they had felt any difficulty in understanding her language or accent, but they said that they were satisfied.

On the other hand, child A was more fluent in speaking English with better grammatical structures. He was intelligible and was able to comprehend native speakers while they were speaking. His reading and listening habits had helped him to build a good vocabulary which was appreciated by his teachers when he joined Dunkirk Primary School. He could write paragraphs with few mistakes in grammar or spelling.

Since the aim of this paper is to elucidate how non-native-speaker children can acquire English in the UK, the essence of some of the most influential SLA theories will be described next in order to find relevance, insight and similarities with one or more of these in the light of my case study. Although not all the theories deal with the age factor in SLA and learning L2 in the country of L2, the chain of the findings of previous research work points out important features which it is essential to discuss as they provide the base for the study of learning both L1 and L2.

First-Language Acquisition

As far as first-language acquisition is concerned, many questions arise immediately, such as what language actually is, what learning is, how the process of learning language takes place, how far environmental conditions play a role, and whether there is simply one kind of human learning. Spada and Lightbown (1999) expressed surprise about what it really is that enables a child not only to learn words but to put them together in meaningful sentences.

In the mid-twentieth century, from 1940 to 1950, the psychological approach identified the system in which the L1 is learned and develops as 'behaviourism'. The behaviourists believed that hearing, imitation, practice, feedback on success and habit formation construct language in a natural way. Although this approach was criticised for its shortcomings, it nevertheless opened the debate on language acquisition. Because of its importance in L2 also, the behaviourist approach will be discussed separately later. The approach was favoured by Chomsky (1959), who saw the language-learning process as developing just as naturally as other biological functions. He referred to the child's innate endowment as 'universal grammar' (UG) which he considered a 'set of principles' which are common to all languages. Cook (1988) and White (1989) agreed with Chomsky and added that if children are pre-equipped with UG, then they have to learn the ways in which their own language makes use of these principles and the variations on those principles which might exist in the particular language which they hear spoken around them.

Chomsky (1981) claimed that all children learn their native language at the time of their life when they have nothing hard to learn. This critical-age hypothesis also suggests that there is a period when language acquisition takes place naturally without much effort. Penfield and Roberts (1959) stated that the first ten years of life are the most favourable years for language acquisition. They tried to prove this claim using the scientific reason that at a young age, the brain retains a plasticity which favours learning everything, including language; this plasticity of the brain disappears with puberty and consequently the language learning system becomes weaker. They did not explore whether or not the first ten years are critical for learning L2. And what if children are given exposure to more than one language in childhood? Does the plasticity of the brain in early childhood work in the same way as it works in learning L1 even if the surrounding language environment is L2? What effect do the age factor and brain plasticity have if children have contact with L1 and L2, or more than two languages, simultaneously?

Another theoretical view was presented by the interactionists. They focused on the role of interaction in the child's innate capacities as determining language development. They gave more importance to environment in L1 acquisition, which largely refers to the child's experience and cognitive development. The Swiss psychologist Piaget (*see* Ginsburg & Opper, 1969) monitored children in their play and in their interaction with elders in order to observe their cognitive understanding and the differences of approach in terms of logic. He concluded that the use and understanding of particular terms and concepts, built on the interaction between the child and objects, help the cognitive development of language. Another experimental view was held by the psychologist Vygotsky (1987) who emphasised that language develops entirely from social interaction. He asserted the importance of children's conversation with adults and other children to improve both language and thought.

In the first decade of twenty-first century, SLA attracted significant attention from researchers and consequently a large number of theories were put forward. Ellis (1985) stated that the 1970s had seen a growing body of empirical studies of SLA following the publication of Corder's (1967) paper *The significance of learners' errors*. Before I discuss the research that has been carried out in the field of SLA, I shall briefly compare the first and the second languages of the two children studied here.

A Comparison between the Children's First and Second Languages

As I explained above, in Pakistan, 'second language' can mean either the national or a provincial language and 'native language' is the term used for a person's L1; however, in discussions about second language in the UK, the term always refers to the English language. In this regard, I shall discuss Urdu as the children's first language and I shall try to find some obvious phonological and syntactical similarities as well as dissimilarities which make the two languages' temperaments and outlooks different. Lado (1964) claimed that the dissimilarities between L1 and L2 make SLA difficult, but if both languages have a resemblance, the learner will acquire L2 more easily.

In the English-speaking world, Urdu is treated as Hindi but they are quite dissimilar. Although the grammars of Hindi and Urdu were derived from the regional dialect of Khari Boli, the Urdu language is written in Arabic script and contains words of Sanskrit, Persian, Arabic and Turkish origin and different dialects of locally spoken languages, whereas Hindi follows the pattern and lexicon of the sacred language Sanskrit. The differences between English and Urdu syntax and grammar are given below. In an English sentence, the verb comes before the object, whereas in Urdu the object comes before the verb. Some examples are as follows:

English	Urdu
I read a book Subject +verb+ object	Main kitab parhta hoon Subject +object +verb
I write a letter S + V + O	Main khat likhta hoon S + O +V
I write a letter to Roger S+V + O + P +O	Main Roger ko khat likhta hoon S +O+P+O + V
I walk slowly S+V+ ADV	Main ahista chalta hoon S+ ADV +V
Where are you going? ADV+ V+ S+ V	Aap kahan ja rahe hain? S+ ADV+V+V

As far as vocabulary is concerned, some English words are spoken in Urdu in just the same way; there are no substitute words available in Urdu for them. Here are some instances:

Bulb	Jug
Bus	Karate
Bus stop	Loud speaker
Button	Machine
Camera	Magistrate
Cassette	Pen
Cement	Pencil
Coat	Petrol
Computer	Phone
Court	Radio
Cricket	Rubber
Cycle	Stadium
Film	Station
Football	Sweater
Gas	Tape recorder
Geyser	Television
Glass	Tissue paper
Heater	Tire
Injection	Truck
Jacket	Tube
Judge	Video

The following are some English words which do have substitutes in Urdu, but people prefer to speak these words in their English form.

Road	*Raasta*
Book	*Kitab*
Room	*Kamra*
Table	*Maiz*
Painting	*Tasveer*

Differences between Urdu and English phonology, the study of the sound system, produce wide variations in pronunciation. The number of speech sounds in English varies from dialect to dialect. Wells (1999) used the symbols of the International Phonetic Alphabet to denote 24 consonants and 23 vowels used in Received Pronunciation, plus two additional consonants and four additional vowels used in foreign words only. For General American, the system provides for 25 consonants and 19 vowels, with one additional consonant and three additional vowels for foreign words. On the other hand, *The American Heritage Dictionary* suggests 25

consonants and 18 vowels for American English, plus one consonant and five vowels for non-English terms. The phonology of Urdu has approximately 11 vowels and 35 consonants. Being a modified form of the Arabic script, it contains some Persian and local peculiar sounds.

In English, aspiration is phonemic/contrastive in the language. In other words, aspiration can minimally differentiate words from structurally similar words. For example, aspirated words such as 'pet' and 'pot' have the same word structure as non-aspirated words such as 'bet' and 'spot' which are pronounced differently. Unlike English, Urdu has no such aspirated word system.

Swan and Smith (1987) discussed the sets of aspirated and non-aspirated consonants in both languages and distinguished the alveolar series /t/, /d/ which they believed is a series of dentals produced by placing the blade of the tongue behind the teeth, and are therefore regularly replaced by retroflex consonants in Hindi/Urdu. In order to find relevant studies in the case of both children and their SLA, I shall next discuss the research that has been carried out in the field of SLA.

Second-Language Acquisition and Acquisition Theories

In the 1950s and 1960s, serious consideration began to be given to linguistic and psychological theories and research into SLA (Lado, 1964; Rivers, 1964). In the first half of the twentieth century, the behaviourists Watson (1924), Thorndike (1932), Bloomfield (1933) and Skinner (1957) presented some influential theories. They considered learning language to be as natural as any other kind of learning. Another vital concept about learning L2 emerged with the publication of Chomsky's *Syntactic Structures* in which he emphasised the role of UG and the natural innate learning force in human beings, which makes L2 learning possible. The process of learning L2, especially in children, from the psychological dimension, was studied by Skinner (1957) and Piaget and Inhelder (1966). Their analyses were criticised by other linguists but their views left a mark on the progress of SLA research. In the 1970s, Klima and Bellugi (1966), Slobin (1970), Brown (1973) and Aitchison (1989) found remarkable similarities through their investigations into L1 learning among the behaviour of young children, regardless of whatever language they were learning. They further agreed that children all over the world go through similar stages and processes.

Later research in the field of SLA contained a number of new elements such as systematic stage development, morpheme studies, classroom learning, naturalistic learning, the influence of L1 on the SLA process and the age factor. From Krashen's (1977a; 1977b; 1978) identification of five basic hypotheses in language acquisition to the critical-age hypotheses and Schumann's (1978a; 1978b; 1978c) pidginisation or acculturation model, many theories have won the support of linguists as well as researchers.

Research into learning L1 and L2 has now been divided into different categories, such as input, interaction, learner strategies, classroom SLA and UG. The findings are followed by an endless debate which is attracting greater focus to the topic (Ellis, 1985). In this paper, I shall concentrate only on those findings which have discussed SLA in children.

a) Behaviourism

Behaviourism, the dominant view during the 1950s and 1960s, remained influential throughout the twentieth century; it is also known as the learning perspective. Although over time many other theories have gained ground, the importance of behaviourism is still acknowledged. The early behaviourists tried to explain learning without referring to a mental process. Later modifications of behaviourism are known as S-O-R theories (stimulus-organism-response). The valuable principles of behaviourist theory give importance to repetition and the consistency of reinforcement. Habits and undesirable responses can be broken by removing the positive reinforcements connected with them. Immediate, consistent and positive reinforcement increases the speed of learning.

Lado (1964) linked this with the contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH) that the dissimilarities between L1 and L2 make SLA difficult, but that if both languages have a resemblance, the learner will acquire L2 more easily. For many years, these concepts formed the basis of most of the theories applied in child learning. It still seems that, in many instances, children do learn when provided with an appropriate blend of reward, reinforcement and punishment. However, researchers have found that one of the inadequacies in this view is that not all the errors predicted by the CAH are actually made and that many of the errors which learners do make are not predictable by the CAH. They have pointed out that adult beginners commit simple structural and grammatical mistakes in the target language just as children do.

b) Innatism

SLA researchers using the UG perspective looked at SLA rather as knowledge of a complex syntax. Chomsky (1959) maintained that children are biologically programmed for language learning through UG, just like other learning activities, and that it depends on listening to various sources. He found that the kinds of structure which languages have in common throughout the world affect the competence of the knowledge in learners' brains to enable them to identify similarities between L1 and L2. Chomsky noticed that children learn the rules of grammar without being explicitly taught them. There is some biological basis in the theory that the human brain contains a language-acquisition device (LAD) which is pre-programmed to process language. He was influential in extending the science of language learning to the languages themselves. Critics have argued that Chomsky made no specific claims about the implications of this theory in terms of how UG works in SLA development. Furthermore, UG is no longer regarded as guiding the acquisition of L2 in learners who have passed the critical period for language acquisition.

The CPH explains that the human brain learns language quickly from birth to puberty. Lenneberg (1964) clarified that if the smooth biological language-learning process is disturbed by some unnatural or unfortunate circumstances, such as deafness or extreme isolation, then the progression will not occur in the same way that it does in the natural situation because the LAD works successfully only when it is stimulated at the right time. Children who have been isolated, deprived, abused or neglected can never acquire the same learning ability as a child who lives in naturally composed surroundings. The innatists sought to prove this by representing some of the different examples of children who lost language-learning opportunities during their critical period. When they were brought to language exposure after they were grown up, their efforts at language learning became ineffective.

c) The Acculturation Model

Brown (1980) asserted that "acculturation is a process of becoming adapted to a new culture". This theory makes language an integral part of culture which includes the learner's internal processing mechanism. If cultural barriers are obvious between the learner's and the target language, it affects the learning process. Schumann (1978a) listed a number of causes of social and psychological apartness which influence the overall learning circumstances. He distinguished between 'good' and 'bad'

learning situations. When learners and the learning circumstances have cultural harmony and understanding and share positive attitudes, this creates a 'good' learning situation, but if the learning circumstances are the other way round, a 'bad' learning situation is created.

Psychological factors such as cultural shock, language shock, motivation and egoism create chaotic disorder in feelings and push the learner away from learning the target language subconsciously, and if the situation remains unchanged, the learner fails to progress in L2. Schumann (1978a) referred to this condition as the 'pidginisation hypothesis'; it is the condition in which the learner fossilises due to social and psychological distance and SLA intake for general functions ceases.

d) The Monitor Model

The monitor model is one of the most influential theories in language-teaching practice proposed by Krashen (1982). He suggested five hypotheses which he originally called the 'monitor model'. The details of these hypotheses are given below:

The Language-acquisition Hypothesis:

Krashen (1982) claimed that 'learning' and 'acquisition' are two ways which run parallel for the development of L2. He believed that we acquire language when we are exposed to a sample of the language which we understand. Similarly, children pick up their first language without giving any conscious attention to the form of language whereas adults use a conscious process based on 'form' and 'rule' to learn a language. He gave more importance to acquisition, saying that only acquired language is a source of natural and fluent communication and that learning cannot turn into acquisition. He asserted that learning should not be confused with acquisition since each plays a different role in language development. He distinguished between the two by saying that many learners are quite fluent without ever learning rules and that those who might have expertise in rules can fail to apply them while speaking.

The Monitor Hypothesis:

Krashen (1982) argued that the acquired system works to initiate utterances and judges the fluency and correctness of a speaker. The system works as an editor or monitor, producing minor changes to the acquired system. A speaker hears himself and focuses on mistakes in order to correct them. When learners have sufficient time to search their memory

for the relevant rules and understand them, writing favours them monitoring their progress. He suggested that knowing rules helps speakers to supplement what has been acquired. Moreover, Krashen specified that learners use the monitor system only when they are focusing on being correct. Although it seems difficult to determine through any specific utterances what has been produced by the acquired system and what is the result of monitor use, in Krashen's opinion a quickly and spontaneously produced language must have been acquired rather than learned.

The Natural Order Hypothesis:

Krashen's natural order hypothesis was actually based on morpheme studies in which a learner's speech was examined for the accuracy of specific grammatical morphemes. Krashen claimed that L2 learners seem to acquire the features of the target language in predictable sequences just as in L1. Some of the rules may appear easy but there is no guarantee of acquiring them. The natural order is independent whereas the classroom teaching rule sequence is different. For example, a rule learner knows to add 's' to the simple form of a verb to form the simple present tense, third-person singular, but often fails to apply this rule when he speaks. Even when advanced learners are engaged in rapid conversation in L2, they fail to apply those learned rules which seem easy.

The Input Hypothesis:

Krashen (1982) emphasised that we acquire language "by exposure to comprehensible input":

Comprehensible input $=i+1$

He asserted that input contains forms and structures just beyond the learner's current level of competence. He further stressed the role of indirect pleasure reading as a source of comprehensible input. However, he acknowledged that some learners who are exposed to comprehensible input do not achieve high levels of proficiency.

The Affective Filter Hypothesis:

The affective filter is an imaginary barrier which prevents learners from acquiring language from available input. According to Krashen's hypothesis,

Affect= motives + needs + attitudes + emotional state

A learner's capability is affected when he is angry, bored, tense or anxious. In these conditions, a learner cannot learn. In stressful and self-conscious circumstances, the filter becomes 'down'. Such emotions filter out the input, making it unavailable for acquisition. The filter limits what is noticed and acquired. The filter is 'up' when the learner is relaxed and motivated.

Language Pedagogy and Recent Psychological Theories

Ellis (1997) discussed SLA in relation to pedagogy and perceived the problem to be a gap between SLA and language pedagogy which is concerned with practical knowledge of language. Ellis (1997: 32) made a distinction between 'applied SLA' (the educational relevance of SLA research) and 'SLA applied' in which "an attempt is made to apply SLA research".

The diversity of teaching goals is not always recognised in discussions of the uses of SLA research in teaching. The goal of teaching is typically seen as some form of 'functional bilingualism', unachievable in reality (Jakobovits & Gordon, 1974). Ellis (1990: 188) assumed that "the *raison d'être* of the classroom is to learn the language", rephrased as 'LP' (language pedagogy), and is concerned with the ability to use language in communicative situations. In other words, language teaching helps the learner to use the language but, in many educational systems, communication is only one among many obvious or secret goals of language teaching, as illustrated above.

Cognitive psychologists put forward the idea of the gradual learning of language which touches some already existing knowledge and connects new information (of language) together with it in the mind. That information about knowledge makes SLA an automatic process. It may help in restructuring too. Some practices can automatically be a result of interaction with knowledge. The process may seem to be progress but it may be the cause of an over-generalisation of the rules and can incorporate wrong information into our knowledge.

a) Connectionism

Cognitive psychologists disagree over the concept of UG. The theory sees innatism just as an ability to learn and having nothing to do with the linguistic structure. Although they agree that the ability of the learner carries significance, greater importance is given to the environment.

Exposure builds up the construction of knowledge successfully if an intelligent learner and a favourable environment meet. The main difference between these theories is that the innatists see language input as a trigger to activate linguistic knowledge, whereas the connectionists see the input as the principal source of linguistic knowledge. Learners develop stronger and stronger mental and neurological 'connections' between language features in specific situational or linguistic contexts. Both theories are practically relevant to my case study of the two children in language acquisition which I shall report on later.

b) Interactionism

According to the interactionist theory, fast and valuable language acquisition is possible through conversation. Hatch (1992) and Pica (1994) both partially agreed with Krashen that comprehensible input is necessary but raised a question about the comprehensibility of input itself. They insisted, as did Long (1983), that interaction modification makes input comprehensible and promotes language acquisition. Long (1983) explained the functions of linguistic simplification by describing the chain which makes the process possible: elaboration, slower speech rate, additional contextual clues, comprehension checks, clarification requests, self-repetition and paraphrasing.

c) The role of Input, Intake and Interaction

Input is data which the L2 learner hears and intake is, as described by Ellis (1985: 159), that portion of the L2 which is assimilated and fed into the inter-language system. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) suggested that learners who engage in the regular use of their L2 and receive the greater quantity of input will be most likely to demonstrate a greater ability to use the L2. Interaction involves the negotiation of meaning and feedback which entails the negotiation of form, and might be a critical component of successful L2 development.

SLA relies on comprehensible input being available to the internal processing mechanisms of the learner (Long, 1983). The learner's focus must be on meaningful communication and input which contains the language forms which are due to be acquired next (Krashen, 1981; 1982). Ellis (1985) and Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) seemed to agree that the comprehensible input needs to become intake for learners to develop in their L2, although they believed that Krashen's (1980-1985) input hypothesis is therefore not enough. Long (1983), explaining the role of the

input and interactional structure, stated that input is made comprehensible by modifying interactional structures rather than by simplifying linguistic input.

Long (1983) stated that native linguists have divided the interaction modifications into two broad groups; first, there are strategies to avoid conversational trouble, and second, there are discourse repair tactics in order to repair conversation when trouble happens. Another part of this interaction modification described by Long combined strategies and tactics which included a slow pace of speech, stress on key words and repetition of utterances. Pica (1994: 494) showed that negotiation which involves the restructuring and modification of interaction may occur when L2 learners and their interlocutors have to work to achieve comprehensibility by repeating a message verbatim, adjusting its syntax, changing its words, or modifying its form and meaning in a host of other ways.

Long (1996), Pica (1994) and Gass (1997) all stated that implicit negative feedback which can be obtained through negotiated interaction facilitates SLA. Some support for the interaction hypothesis has been provided by studies which have explored the effects of interaction on production (Gass & Varonis, 1985). Ellis, Tanaka and Yamazaki (1994) showed the negative feed-back of assistance for lexical acquisition. Other studies, however, have not found any effects of interaction on grammatical development (Loschky, 1994). The main question addressed by this current study is whether conversational interaction facilitates L2 development or not. Even so, comprehensible input alone is an insufficient condition for SLA: input must become intake.

The age difference is, however, the main topic of theoretical as well as experimental research in SLA. A variety of theories have been presented and scrutinised and the continuing arguments and exchange of ideas still make it a hotly debated topic. As my theme is also the age factor (or age advantage) in L2, I shall next look into the theories and previous practical work on this issue. The lack of agreement among researchers about the effect of age is obvious, although there is some evidence to support the view that 'a younger learner is a better learner' than adults in learning L2.

SLA and the Age Factor

Comparative studies of the age and achievement of content-area in SLA have been concerned with three age groups, adults, adolescents and young learners. Yamada, Takatsuka, Kotabe and Kurusu (1980) showed that in

the case of grammar and vocabulary, adolescents perform better than children and adults provided that the length of exposure remains constant. But as far as fluency and learning speed is concerned, most previous studies have upheld the supremacy of learners aged from eight to eleven years, and the overall results favour a low starting age.

Krashen, Long and Scarcella (1982) also contended that older children acquire language faster than younger children provided that the time and exposure of the early stages of syntactic and morphological development are held constant. Children who are given natural exposure to L2 during childhood generally achieve higher proficiency than those beginning as adults. Cook (1986) found that older children are better than younger children at learning an L2 and that adults are better than children. He added that immigrants who start learning a second language at a younger age end up as better speakers in comparison with those who start when they are older. On the other hand, Neufeld (1979) suggested that there is no sensitive period for SLA. His findings were based on a study of adult learners of French with long French SL exposure. Schwartz (1993), however, defended young learners over older learners and said that young children neither need nor benefit from error correction and meta-linguistic information. He believed that these things change only the superficial appearance of the language performance and do not really affect the underlying systematic knowledge of the new language. His research revolved around four main areas; cognitive, social, physical and input. Thus the different results are due to the difference between levels of mind, the different social setup or relationships. Learners' abilities may differ in retaining attention, hearing, speaking and in brain storage. The language encountered may also be different.

The question of whether external conditions in which social exposure, influence of L1, L2 contact, home environment and outer surroundings remain constant, then up to what age are better results achieved in SLA was probed by Politzer and Ramirez (1973, *see* Hatch, 1978a). They studied different age groups of kindergarten children from first, third and fifth classes and two older groups of adolescents (ranging in age from 13 to 17) one of which had been settled in the US for one year and the other was newly arrived there. Their study of children *versus* adults in terms of SLA consisted of tests in various grammatical categories. The analysis of variance of total test scores from all the learner groups produced variable results but the overall results showed the superior performance of the adolescent group which had been settled in the US for a year on the grounds of its members' developed memory and conceptual ability. On the

relative advantages of older learners, Politzer and Ramirez (1973) admitted that they had not found a definite answer for that complex problem.

Wagner-Gough and Hatch (1975, *see* Hatch, 1978b) studied a Persian boy who had arrived in the US in 1973 at the age of five years and eleven months and could speak only his L1. Wagner-Gough looked at both the form and the function of the boy's SLA. The findings showed some progress in the acquisition of L2 but, in general, no overall development in multiple aspects of language, although a wide-ranging development could clearly be seen in the wh- questions (who, what, where, how, why and when) which led him to develop questions and influenced his own sentence formation. Klima and Billugi (1966), however, saw the process of the wh-question patterns' development as "a stem from a single sentence nucleus to which transformation is applied". Although that study is important in several respects, it did not open the way to any new direction in the study of SLA in children in terms of how they can learn L2 in the best possible way if they are surrounded by L1, as the Persian boy was. Neither did it identify any influence of the environment of L2 and the impact of its natural flow on the child's L1.

Watson (1924), Thorndike (1932) and Skinner (1957) asserted that language learning is very much a natural process and is constructed by listening, imitation, repetition and reinforcement. The behaviourist theory is supported by innatism, which is also based on the notion that language learning is natural. The kinds of structure which languages have in common throughout the world affect the competence of knowledge in learners' brains in terms of how it identifies similarities between L1 and L2.

The behaviourist theory contrasts with the acculturation model proposed by Brown (1980) who took it from Schumann (1978). This model emphasises that language is an integral part of culture and can be learnt after being adapted to culture, which implicitly means that it is culture rather than nature through which language learning takes place. Cultural barriers make the learning difficult.

Similarly, connectionism disagrees with innatism and supports the acculturation model. The connectionists claim that cognitive psychology disagrees with the concept of a UG. The theory sees innatism simply as an ability to learn and has nothing to do with linguistic structure. Although connectionists agree that the ability of the learner carries significance, they

follow the acculturation model in giving greater importance to the environment.

Krashen's (1982) monitor model is different in the way that it regards 'acquisition' and 'learning' as two parallel tracks. His monitor hypothesis works by an editor or monitor producing minor changes to the acquired system. His natural order hypothesis is close to the thinking of Chomsky. His input hypothesis emphasises the importance of language input through reading and other sources.

The information-processing theory based on cognitive psychology regards human brains as 'limited-capacity processors' which process the L2 input and connect it to the already existing knowledge of language. As a result, the gradual learning of language takes place automatically. This theory also seems to support innatism as it also believes that there is an inherent quality in humans to learn language.

Although the behaviourists' approach to learning through repetition and the consistency of immediate positive reinforcement might work, the reinforcement should be as simple as telling children that if they go closer to the fire they might burn their skin, or that shouting is a bad habit. The innatists followed Chomsky (1959) in perceiving that children are biologically programmed for learning language. There are many languages in the world, and it seems strange that there is one common factor in all languages which helps learners in learning languages through absolutely different surroundings. However, I set out to test whether children learn the rules of grammar without being explicitly told what they are and whether they acquire language from their environment during a critical age period in their development.

The critical period hypothesis states that the brain contains a time-limited plasticity which favours learning everything, including language. Although I have not gone through the full range of scientific research regarding brain elasticity and language acquisition, I would like to focus on the extent to which the findings of my study prove the hypothesis.

These theories have helped me to find how and why the age factor affects the L2 learner. Is it due to the environment, interaction and exposure or is simply being young sufficient for learning an L2? If the younger learner is the better learner, then what is the role of academic input, intelligence and environment? I am carrying out this current study on two children who had the same family background with slightly different ages, but their

differences in learning L2 could clearly be noticed; why was that so? The important difference may be because of learning L2 on home ground and in the UK. The place where a child learns, as well as who s/he learns from and listens to, is also important.

Many theorists favour the view that fast and valuable language acquisition is possible through conversation. In my case study, the academic role is also there, although the school did not teach English as a language, therefore I regard the school experience as an L2 surrounding. For example, child B used to stay with the play-centre workers for nine hours of each working day for about thirteen months. Dunkirk Primary School provided the same atmosphere but with fewer hours, six and a half hours every working day (book study was not included in this).

In my opinion, the vital variation in the children's language improvement was due to learning L2 in the UK. But this needs deeper consideration: they were brought to the UK together, each with a quite dissimilar language standard, so why were the results different? Why had child B gained a much better native accent and fluency than child A? At the start, child A had superiority in grammar and vocabulary, but within a year child B had reached a similar performance in both of these aspects of language.

In the incidental linguistic context, let me analyse child B first. After a month's stay in Nottingham, whenever she tried to talk by telephone to relatives in Pakistan, they were surprised to hear the way she talked. This was not a breakthrough for me however. But when I realised that she could not utter even a single word of our native languages in which she had previously been very fluent, I began calculating; from 8.30am to 5.30pm, she lived with native-language teachers. She was keen to take part in extra-curricular activities, which meant that the teachers had to talk to her more and more. She went to sleep at 8pm. So she just spent two and a half hours at home before sleep, in which she had to watch some English cartoons or comic movies and listen to stories in English. Whatever she talked about or heard from her mother or her brother was totally in the English language. At weekends, English friends visited us regularly and she would chat with them. Going to the theatre meant watching live performances in English and going out meant chatting and playing with native-speaking children. There was no room in her life for any other languages, so her amazing success in language, vocabulary and accent is entirely understandable.

Conversely, after arriving in Nottingham, child A missed his home country, his relatives and his school. At the start, in order to get them both acquainted with the English culture, we regularly took them to parks, shopping centres and theatres. Child A remained very concerned about unusual hair colours such as blue and red, tattoos on bodies and women in short dresses, but at the same time he was pleased with the polite behaviour of people.

The L2 learning context was available everywhere. Wherever the children went, they had to deal with a different vocabulary. For instance, when they went to a hotel they would use different vocabulary from that which they used when buying books or asking for new-release movies. They heard words, phrases and sentences which were different from one category to another. Obviously, a person who sells groceries speaks differently from a person who is selling cinema tickets or describing the drama in the theatre. This multi-dimensional learning context gave an opportunity to the children to acquire L2 without having to learn the language in an academic way. In this way, they both extended their vocabulary and tried to make themselves fit automatically into every type of surrounding and circumstance.

Progress in Relation to Specific Linguistic Subsystems

In the light of the findings and the discussion of the results given above, I shall next try to give a clear idea of the different language systems which the children faced. The data are arranged systematically with the different people at school and home. The children's general progress in L2 processing could be methodically analysed by listening to the recordings in chronological order.

The data did not show a constant picture in the case of child B; there were some interesting variations. The later recordings presented a different picture from the earlier ones. The evidences of change over time in the data collected about child B will be evaluated in later subsections. On the other hand, child A's data showed constant progress. From the first recording to the last, his language, vocabulary and grammatical structure were excellent but his accent was not comparable to that of child B.

a) Phonological Development

Ferguson, Menn and Stoel-Gammon (1992) clarified that the phonological processes are a common and predictable part of phonological development; people often recognise them as simple pronunciation errors. Most theories

concerning phonological development suggest that phonology is internal to children. As children grow and mature into adults, their mental capacity also develops. As their phonemic capacity increases, their sound systems become less restrained by phonological processes or phonological deviations (Bernhardt & Stemberger, 1998).

On the whole, it appears that the common phonological mistakes were not committed by child A as he was old enough to speak clearly. But some clear phonological development was found in child B's speech while she was processing the sound-system of English. I started making recordings of the children in July 2007. Child B used to pronounce 'roof' as 'loof' (*see* Appendix A, where her key worker also raised this error) and 'car' was pronounced as 'gar'. In the former error, the voiceless sound /R/ was replaced by /L/ and in the latter /k/ was replaced by /g/. In the recording made in the following November, the voiceless sounds appeared to have improved although not to an adult-like level. She used to speak a final voiced consonant in a word replaced by a voiceless consonant. For example, 'red' was pronounced as 'ret' and 'bag' was pronounced as 'bak'. In the case of final consonant deletion, she did not commit any mistakes. Her terminal consonant in each word could be clearly heard; words such as 'foam', 'half' and 'past' were very clear. Palatal fronting was common in her speech. The sounds 'sh' and 'zh' were replaced by a fricative. For example,

> *Child B*: I bought it from the 'sop'.
> *Julia*: Oh, from the shop. Who paid money for it then?
> *Child B*: My mummy gave money to the 'sop-keeper'.

Instead of the 'sh' sound for 'shop' and 'shop-keeper', she uttered an 's' sound. In terms of consonant harmony and other phonological deviations such as weak syllable deletion, cluster reduction and stopping, however, I can say that she had a clear style. In this phonological process, weak syllables were omitted when the child spoke words such as 'telephone', 'spider' and 'aunt', but through the sequence of recordings, it can be observed that these words were clearly uttered throughout. Gliding of liquids occurs by replacing the consonant /r/ with the consonant /l/. For example, 'rabbit' pronounced as 'labbit' and 'real' pronounced as 'leal' are even apparent in the current recording too. In the phonological pattern of speech sounds used by child A, however, in general, including patterns of inflection and derivation seems not to have been an abnormality but simply development. His sound was clear and well understood.

b) Syntax and Morphology

According to linguists, there are two branches of grammar. *Morphology* is the grammar of single words and their inflection, whereas *syntax* is the grammar of words in combinations in terms of how they fit together into sentences. Inflection in morphology means the different endings which particular kinds of words have and what they mean, whereas syntax in grammar means the different grammatical constructions or rules of combination that apply.

When both children came to the UK, their knowledge of English was not bad, and I started to collect the data after they had been living in the UK for ten months. There is a strong possibility that they had corrected the problematic aspects of language while living in the UK during that period, spending most of their time in the company of native speakers. Since their exposure to their L1s was then very limited and in the case of child B there was no exposure at all, except through her parents and her relatives in Pakistan, they did not need to find substitutes in other languages.

Words are generally accepted as being the smallest units of syntax and they relate to other words by means of rules. It is widely accepted that the first step to fluency is learning to recognise and use the different inflected forms of words. In English, endings are quite complex and confusing. When I evaluated the collected data to analyse both children's language structure, grammar rules and accuracy (plural nouns, irregular verb forms, phrases and key words), I found it difficult to find any inaccuracy in the conversations of child A, whereas the earlier recording from July 2007 showed that a few of the utterances from child B contained some inaccuracies regarding tenses. For example, in the use of the simple present tense, she said,

> *Child B*: "She do not want me to take her books …"
> *Nadine*: "She *doesn't* want."
> *Child B*: "… because she don't like me."

At another place in the same recording, child B says,

> *Child B*: "He eat my chocolate".

At another place, she uttered,

> *Child B*: "I am put offing my shoes".

Julia: "Take them off."

Later recordings (made in October and November 2007) show her forming nicely made sentences and questions, especially when she used the interrogative structure and wh- questions. Some examples are:

Child B: "Have they gone?"
Julia: "Not yet."
Child B: "Have they cut the cake."
Child B: "Will you go down with me."
Child B: "What if you wear my mum's dress."
Child B: "Are we going together to the party?"
Child B: "He did not take my Barbie."
Child B: "Why is this for?"
Child B: "Is he washing dishes?"
Child B: "They could not find us"
Child B: "Is she calling you?"
Child B: "Are they eating cake with daddy."
Child B: "Has he already gone home?"

In her use of auxiliary verbs and main verbs, I could not find any other mistakes except for those which I have mentioned above. There were a few examples of be+ ing forms in the recorded data, such as,

Child B: "We are coming."
Child B: "They are enjoying with us."
Child B: "My brother is not giving it to me."

Examples of her use of irregular verbs are:

Child B: "I took it from my brother."
Child B: "I saw when she bit her."

Some examples of plurals are:

Child B: "All toys are mine, only this duck is of my brother."
Child B: "These girls are my friends."
Child B: "I have lost my colour pencils and brushes."

In respect of grammar accuracy, I could not find any wrong sentence structures in the recorded data of child A, but his sentences were compact and grammatically more accurate. Some examples are:

> *Child A*: "Had it already been ripped?"
> *Child A*: "Have they not taken notice when she was leaving the home?"
> *Child A*: "By the way, can we start reading the story now?"
> *Child A*: "We have not decided the plan of tomorrow yet?"

Elided contractions, such as 'isn't', 'aren't', 'didn't' and 'haven't', are very accurate in the recorded data of both children. Frequent use of the modals 'going to be', 'may', 'might' and 'would' are used accurately. Also, English nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs are organised into proper sentences.

c) Lexis

Lexis is the storage of language in the dictionary of our mind which is used later to form speech and writing. Previously, it was thought that it is the grammar which is the base and which generates lexis, but recently it has been held to be the other way round; that is, grammar is created out of lexis. When convenient sentences do not fulfil the speaker's immediate needs, a new sentence is formed and grammar rules allow speakers to determine the feasibility of the new sentence.

In the case study of both children, when I began to analyse the structure of language statistically in terms of expressions, terminology, words, language, fluency and range of vocabulary, I noticed some high-frequency contexts.

Child B, who liked to copy teachers and actors, was pretending to be a presenter and in one of the recordings with Julia, made in November 2007 she announced,

> *Child B*: "Ladies and gentlemen pay attention! My dad is coming along with her girl friend."
> *Child A*: You idiot, there cannot be girl friend in this home.

The collocation of words and their co-occurrences can also be found in the recordings. Some examples are:

> *Child B*: "I have got a *pair of shoes*"
> *Dr Antonia*: "I can't see them".

Child B: "Why do you have *blond hair*"?
Dr Antonia: "I don't know".
Child B: "Why don't you ask mother"?
Child B: "My *dad is handsome*."
Dr Antonia: "What about your mummy?"
Child B: "No she is not handsome, *she is beautiful*."
Concordance for possibility can be checked through these dialogues:
Child A: "There might be a possibility of theft."
Father: How do you know?
Child A: I have heard a police siren.
Child B: Maybe there is a burglar?

In another recording made with his mother, child A says,

> *Child A*: "Her teacher thinks there is a possibility that she may have been captured by a criminal."

How the Data were Collected and Analysed

Data about both children were gathered by means of two questionnaires and recordings made at different stages in their schools as well as at home. In June 2007, I began working on the study and I prepared two questionnaires for the teacher of child A and the key worker of child B. Both questionnaires were returned in the first week of July. The questionnaires, along with the answers given by the teachers, are attached as Appendices 1 and 2.

The other data source consisted of two tape cassettes of the children recorded at different times and in different places between July and December 2007. The data collected from Dunkirk Primary School comprised a conversation between child A and his class teacher and then a class-room discussion. Child B was also recorded at school while she was busy painting and talking with other children in the classroom.

All the other recordings were made at home; child B's key worker talked to her for more than thirty minutes. I also recorded the talk of both children with different English people and English-speaking children at home at least once a month; some conversations were recorded twice a month. The final recording in which both children were talking with us (their parents) was recorded on 3 December 2007. As the recordings were made in different places and with different people, it seems appropriate to discuss the details in two different subsections.

The first recording was made in July 2007 in child A's school. Child A was quite reserved with his teacher and gave very short answers. There were just two people involved, the teacher and child A, and he knew about the recording as the tape recorder was situated on the table between them, but he nevertheless seemed surprised by the set-up. The teacher kept asking him questions about the Second World War. Although the topic was of his own choosing, he displayed a lack of enthusiasm and answered the questions simply for the sake of responding.

In the recording, no grammatical mistakes were noticed. His accent was highly comprehensible but not native-like. Other recordings were made in the classrooms of both children while they were chatting with other children. The first was made in child B's class on 26 November 2007. It is difficult to distinguish her voice from that of a native speaker. Another important issue is that even native-speaking children were committing basic mistakes while talking. She was using a vocabulary related to her drawing and to telling other class mates about the recording.

The recording made on 28 November 2007 in child A's classroom showed him to be fluent, intelligible and using correct sentences with a slight accent. It was noticeable that when he talked in the classroom with teachers and classmates, his accent became different from the accent in which he talked to his parents.

Other conversations of the children were recorded at home from July to December 2007. The first recording made at home was between child B and Miss Nadine (her key worker at the play centre). Child B was very pleased to have her teacher at home and took her to her room. She described her toys to her at the same time as giving answers to questions asked by her teacher. The duration of the recording was more than twenty minutes.

The next recording, made on 1 August 2007, was of both children talking to Julia, a native-speaker, final-year medical student at Nottingham University; they were in a jubilant mood and the recording lasted for 26 minutes. The topics were a little unusual so the vocabulary used was also different. This was the first recording of the children together; their talk is more spontaneous but the difference in their accents is obvious.

A recording made in the following month had a slightly dissimilar result. I recorded both children talking with our native-speaking neighbour's children while they were watching the movie *Spiderman Part 3*. Although

they were reluctant to talk, child A answered all my questions. He was explaining the different characters as well as predicting the coming scenes in the movie. His vocabulary level was no less than that of the other children who were watching and passing little comment.

Eleven days later, I made a recording of child B again with Julia and this time I wanted child B to give the different forms of verbs, using them in the past, present and future tenses in which she had committed mistakes before. Julia talked with her about toys, story books, a zoo visit, grandparents, favourite animals, school teachers and her friends. Julia deliberately made an effort to switch from past to future and from future to present so that I might check child B's improvement and ability during the time.

On 15 October, I recorded them speaking to Dr Antonia Brown who knew the purpose of the recording and discussed pre-decided topics with both children. Child B, as usual, talked more and was obviously better than in her previous recordings as far as the correct use of the simple present tense and the third person singular were concerned. In some places 'no, she does' and 'no she doesn't' were very clear.

The final recording of both children was made while they were talking with their parents on dissimilar matters on 3 December and produced no new information. They talked about movies, school, Pakistan and their favourite television programmes. Some jokes were also there. The final thing was that child B had overcome her basic problems over the span of seven months (the time since I started observing and collecting data). She had supremacy over child A only in accent; both had a good stock of vocabulary and both used good sentence structure on different topics.

Data Discussions

The written data in the form of questionnaire responses given by the teachers of both children in July give support to the results obtained by the recorded data. Child B, with good fluency, could explain the characteristics of toys. In previous recordings, she made numerous grammatical mistakes such as she could not utter 's' with the third person singular in the simple present tense, and there was no distinction between 'has' and 'have', although the difference between 'had' and 'have' was clear. In the same way, the concepts of 'do' and 'does' were not clear but the simple past and the past participle forms of the verb 'do' ('did' and 'done') were used appropriately. Her vocabulary was as good as her

brother's but she seemed to be ahead of her brother as far as accent was concerned.

Little positive change was noticeable in the recording made in September, although she was more appropriate in her vocabulary and committed very few grammatical mistakes. This time, Julia was correcting her mistakes and she was following the instructions by trying to repeat the correct form two or three times.

However, a dramatic change is clear in the recording made in October. In this conversation, it is difficult to find any grammar mistakes committed by child B; she was chatting fluently and cleverly shifting her tenses from one to another. Her final recording with her parents and her brother also proved her improvement in sentence structure. She had no trouble changing the past tense to the present or future tenses. The use of the simple present verb 'do' with 'does' and 'doesn't' in the third person singular were absolutely fine. The simple future verbs 'will' and 'would' were nicely determined.

Throughout the recorded data, child A used conditional and compound sentences accurately. His very first recording with his class teacher at school did not show him as clever as he proved to be in later recordings. In the later recordings, he enjoyed being recorded and spoke confidently. Taking the data recorded from July to December 2007 overall, the key aspects about child A are that his spoken sentences became more interesting, composed and grammatically well-knitted. It was gradually revealed that child A had two different accents; he spoke English with a Pakistani accent with us and with an acquired accent with native speakers. His accent was still not equivalent to that of child B.

I have observed that with the same period of exposure to a native-speaking land, both children had acquired L2 with different styles and accents. Therefore, in my opinion, the results show that if L2 exposure is given in an L1 environment, the results may not be as bright as in a native L2 atmosphere. When innate abilities encounter L2 exposure in a native L2 land, speedy acquisition takes place provided learners are kept away from the influence of L1. The findings prove that the initial five years is the decisive period for learning L2. The place where a child learns, as well as the people s/he learns with and listens to, carries much importance. These two children, as described earlier, were given proper English surroundings from their birth, but their intelligibility, accent and fluency were far below the level of their current acquisition.

Children's Learning in an SL Environment

For me, there is little doubt that children's typical learning is due to the L2 environment. I explained earlier that child A was far ahead of child B in many ways. Although at home they had an English atmosphere, outside the home they had other language interactions which had influenced child B's SLA and she did not learn in a conventional way.

With their arrival in Nottingham, the L2 acquisition process began. From booking a room in a hotel to the search for a home and schools, no language other than English was heard or spoken. The children had to be with us everywhere we went. After settling these issues, they then had to talk to classmates and teachers. The important thing was that everywhere there was a need for a different type of vocabulary. This real-life listening process is a long way from listening to English movies. Understanding the common accent and trying to make themselves understood in their own style subconsciously increased their fluency and vocabulary.

When I see both of my children talking in L2 without hesitation and with a wonderful fluency with native speakers, I feel proud but a little frustrated too, thinking 'why can I not speak like them?' But now I console myself by saying that I started quite late.

Going through the details of all of the theories as well as the various hypotheses on SLA made me feel that they are all almost identical but just described differently. Perhaps it is difficult to decide which theory is the best. Among the theories discussed here there are Chomsky's UG, Krashen's monitor theory, Schumann's pidginisation hypothesis or acculturation model, naturalistic learning and other functional-typological and multi-dimensional theories. With the help of the essence of these theories and my own findings, I feel as if the different aspects of the many theories work together to come to a conclusion. In my case study, I can see that Krashen's language-acquisition hypothesis worked successfully. If an L2 environment is provided to children in the same way as we learn L1, children will pick up L2 without the need to give any conscious attention to the form and the rules of language.

The results of this study favour the cognitive psychologists' idea of the gradual learning of language which only touches on some already existing knowledge but connects new information (on language) and restructures it together in the mind to make SLA an automatic process. Hearing, imitation, practice, feedback on success, repetition and the consistency of

the reinforcement and habit formation all construct language in a natural way. I agree with Vygotsky (1987) who emphasised that language develops entirely from social interaction, and that when children talk with adults and other children, their language and thinking both improve.

I therefore partially agree with Penfield and Roberts (1959) who claimed that the first ten years of life favour learning everything including language, but in my case study it seems that the first five years are the most favourable years for L2 learning through a child's innate capacities to determine language development. This is principally because, after the age of five, a child's brain if not to its fullest, at least somewhat resists having to adopt a second culture and language and does not let the learner's internal language-learning processing mechanism work fully.

As we saw in the case of child A, social and psychological issues, such as cultural shock, language shock, motivation and egoism, created a little disorder in his feelings about learning the target language and the feeling of apartness which influenced his overall learning circumstances. In this particular case, however, the circumstances never remained constant so he did not fail to progress in L2 and the difference was clear. On the other hand, child B, who did not initially possess the brightness and clarity in L2 which child A had, did not feel any psychological or social barriers and therefore had no trouble in achieving excellence when she came to the UK. This study therefore has important implications for the following reasons.

1: There was a need for research material on Pakistani children of different age groups in terms of how they learn, especially when they come to the UK.
2: The findings further emphasise that in learning or acquiring L2, younger and more out-going children are better learners than older children.
3: Exposure to the L1 should be minimised if the best results in L2 are to be obtained.
4: Impressive acquisition is only possible when the child is not aware of the learning process. In other words, conscious learning does not lead to such bright results as learning without conscious effort.
5: Non-acceptance of the culture of L2 affects the acquisition of L2 negatively. Adaptation to the L2 culture paves the way for faster and better SLA.
6: If children are given an L2 environment at home, their accuracy in L2 will possibly be increased.

    7: The more native the environment, the more sophisticated the language acquisition will be.

    8: This study can provide a base for further research in order to confirm or contradict different theories about L2.

To the best of my knowledge, in Pakistan most children learn consciously in schools as well as at home. My findings show that speaking or learning L2 knowingly cannot necessarily lead to a better result. The feeling that everyone around is listening or judging the language makes a learner speaker puzzled and s/he starts consciously picking up and dropping words and sentences in the mind in order to speak appropriately. As a result, s/he cannot gain the required confidence to speak L2.

Although the collection of the research data began in July, I had begun taking notice of visible changes in the children a few months before that. Even so, the main limitation of this study is perhaps that it involved too short a period to conclude, refute or support some well-regarded research theories. Also, the data were collected in only two places, at school and at home. The timings of the recordings were almost always the same, in the evening. The people who talked to the children normally finished their work and then came for the recording. If the data had been collected in the morning or the afternoon, it might have brought into focus some other aspects of their success and failure in L2. The study could have been made more interesting if they had remained unaware of the recording because each time they spoke with the tape-recorder in front of them, whatever they talked about, it was not quite their natural way of talking. Their usual talk seemed to be more interesting and composed. Another limitation of this study is that it did not have any recordings of them in public places where the different use of words could have helped me to judge more broadly their vocabulary and sentence structure.

Although I have discussed the evidence of considerable development in L2 in the case study of both children, through the literature review I realised that the previous research has mostly been carried out in a limited part of the world. Different parts of the world have different languages, cultures and ideologies. Each nation has to learn a second language in a different way therefore the research theories and hypotheses cannot be universally applied to all parts of the world. My recommendations for further research in this area are to enlarge the canvas to those children who learn L2 academically but have no language exposure outside the educational institutions. What measures should be taken to bring into practice their knowledge of English to refine and improve their language? It is clear that

not all parents can bring their children to the UK in order to make them fluent English speakers, but I suggest that evening clubs or play centres should be established in which children can experience an exclusively English environment. The teachers and instructors in schools and play centres should also be well-versed in the English language and accent.

There is also a need for further research into the ideal age for Pakistani children for learning L2, and there is a need to examine whether the children who learn L2 perfectly in an L2 country retain the same standard of proficiency when they go back to their own countries and become exposed again to their local languages.

Conclusion

This research on SLA in children has highlighted how non-native children acquire L2 in a native-speaking country. In this case study, the studied children already had a good understanding and background of the L2, rather they were more fluent in their second language than their first language. However, since languages are directly linked, attached to the culture, when the children came to England the dramatic changes in their accents and vocabulary have provided substantial evidence to me to think of the L2 learning process in children from a different perspective.

In this paper, I have discussed and contrasted various first- and second-language acquisition theories and compared the theoretical information with the SLA processes of my own children. A comparison between the children's first and second languages was also considered. Progress in relation to specific linguistic subsystems, such as phonological development, syntax, morphology and lexis, has been examined. The data collection process was comprised of two questionnaires and recordings made at different stages in their schools as well as at home. The analytical process of the data collected over the six months' time frame showed noticeable linguistic changes in their L2. The results favour the view that if an L2 environment is provided to children in the same way as L1, they will learn the L2 without any conscious effort. Social interaction, hearing, imitation, practice, feedback on success, repetition and the consistency of the reinforcement and habit formation all construct language in a natural way.

The data showed that L2 exposure of children under the age of ten in a native L2 land will enable them to pick up L2 without the need to give any conscious attention to the form and the rules of language, and that speedy acquisition takes place provided learners are kept away from the influence

of L1. Eight to thirteen months' L2 exposure in a native-speaking country at the ages of 3+ and 7+ surprisingly increased their intelligibility, accent and fluency in L2 like native speakers. However, variations in their grammatical structure, tone and accent showed that with the same period of exposure to a native-speaking land, the children had acquired L2 with different styles and accents. The result of this small study suggest that children under five learn language fluency and accent like a native speaker and their intelligibility is faster than that of children aged from five to ten. On the other hand, children between five and ten, in a similar situation, learn language with better grammatical construction. In my case study, it seems that the first five years are the most favourable years for L2 learning through a child's innate capacities to determine language development.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE ABOUT CHILD 'A' (FOR THE TEACHER OF CLASS FOUR PRIMARY SCHOOL)

Q1: How many Pakistani students of the age of 7 have you taught before?

Ans: Over many years of teaching, I can only guess at having taught over 40 Pakistani children. This has been in various schools in Nottingham and London.

Q2: What similarities and differences have you felt and observed between them and student 'A'?

Ans: As all children are from such varied backgrounds, it is difficult to comment on their similarities and differences, between each other and with student 'A'.

Q3: Can you remember what his English language standard was when he arrived here?

Ans: When student A arrived at the school, his spoken language was of a good standard and his written work showed a neat hand.

Q4: What were the main drawbacks which you observed in his spoken language – grammatical, phonological, accent and so on?

Ans: His spoken language was very clear and generally grammatically correct, however it sounded a bit stilted compared with children who had been in the country longer.

Q5: What type of main difficulties did he use to find, or still does find, as far as the English language is concerned?

Ans: His main problem was understanding colloquialisms and widely used slang words and phrases.

Q6: Was his pronunciation intelligible?

Ans: His pronunciation was clear and understandable on arrival at this school.

Q7: Is there any obvious improvement in his accent?

Ans: I have not noticed any change in his accent. This may be because of my constant contact with him.

Q8: Can you compare his vocabulary when he first arrived and now?

Ans: He obviously has a wider vocabulary now as he was taken part in the entire syllabus this year. He has generally learnt the new words in the accent of the class and in my own accent.

Q9: When he is discussing or answering in the classroom, how is he different from English children?

Ans: During class discussion, he is either quiet or very enthusiastic if he thinks he knows an answer.

Q10: Is he capable of expressing whatever he wants to in the classroom?

Ans: There have been times in class when he has not known the correct terminology for something and has had to describe it in other words until I have been able to give him the required vocabulary.

Q11: When he is playing or talking with other classmates does he find it difficult to understand their language or to make them understand him?

Ans: He has little problem making himself understood with his peer group.

Q12: Do all Pakistani children of this age learn English at the same rate and by the same route in your class in the span of ten months as he did?

Ans: Children from all backgrounds learn at different rates and in different ways. I feel that if he could concentrate more, he would have made better progress in his written work. However, his spoken language is as I would expect.

Q13: Have you taught him the English language?

Ans: During daily literacy lessons, we have covered different types of fiction and non-fiction writing and their key features. Also spelling,

grammar and sentence work. We have followed the National Literacy Strategy for year 3 pupils as laid down by the Department of Education.

Q14: If we record him speaking, would British people recognise him as a non-native speaker?

Ans: If his voice were to be recorded, I feel that most people would recognize him as not having been brought up in this country because of his slightly stilted accent.

Q15: Can you give me an approximate idea of the percentage?

Ans: My guess is that over 75% would agree with my statement above.

Q16: Do you feel that if he had come to the UK earlier, his accent would have been a lot better than it is?

Ans: I think that he would have had a slightly more local accent.

Q17: Does he seem to take an interest in English cultural activities and special occasions?

Ans: He takes an interest in all of the activities that are presented to him.

Q18: Has he ever complained of being bullied in school?

Ans: He has had times when he has not been happy, but there is usually a good reason for this and the school has always taken action.

Q19: Has he been a happy boy throughout his time at the school??

Ans: Mostly, Yes.

Q20: What could be the reasons for that?

Ans: He is basically a kind boy, ready to enjoy all that he experiences.

2 July 2007

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE ABOUT CHILD 'B'
(FOR THE KEY WORKER AT THE PLAY CENTRE)

Q1: Is child 'B' the very first Pakistani child to have had admission here?

Ans: She is not the first Pakistani child to attend the day centre. As we have a multi-cultural setting, we accept children from all over the world when their parents join the University staff. But I do not have access to records about children who have previously attended as they are confidential.

Q2: Are there any differences between her and other Asian students as far as accent, intelligibility and language understanding are concerned?

Ans: There are differences in all children's language, but there is nothing unusual about her language ability.

Q3: When she came here, were you able to comprehend her language?

Ans: When she joined the play centre, her language was understandable although she had a very strong accent of her home language.

Q4: What are the main differences in spoken language between her and other English children of her age?

Ans: I have not come across any differences in her spoken language and that of English children of her age. She does not pronounce her letter 'r' but replaces 'r' with 'l', so 'roof' becomes 'loof'.

Q5: Does she appear to like English cultural festivals such as Christmas and Easter?

Ans: She shows great excitement and participation in English events such as Christmas, although it is unclear whether she understands the meaning of them.

Q6: Does she behave like English children or is her attitude different from theirs? If it is, in what way is it different?

Ans: She is very mature for her age and views issues as an adult would.

Q7: Do you feel that her accent has improved from what it was like before?

Ans: Her accent is not as strong as it was. She now speaks and understands English fluently.

Q8: How much do you understand her language now?

Ans: Her spoken language is very understandable, although she sometimes talks too fast so we need to remind her to slow down.

Q9: Does she completely understand you when you speak, or not?

Ans: She understands English very well and responds appropriately.

Q10: Have you taught her English? If you have, then please give examples of how.

Ans: She has picked up lots of English while being here. She has learnt from repetition from the staff but also from what she has heard from other children. The issue about using the letter 'r' instead of 'l' is something that she will learn as she gets older.

Q11: Has she mixed with British children or has she remained either isolated or more comfortable with Asian students?

Ans: We do not let any child become isolated in this setting. She has been a part of a key working group of nine children containing a variety of different multi-cultured children.

Q12: Is there anything that surprises you or other teachers regarding her mind-set or attitude?

Ans: She is strong willed and determined to try out different activities and make friends.

Q13: Is there anything about her which you do not like but are compelled to tolerate because of your job?

Ans: When she first arrived at the play centre, I wanted to be her key

worker because I loved her bubbly-attitude and how she just got on and wanted to take part in activities. She used to pull my face to get my attention but she can now say 'excuse me', or say my name to get my attention.

Q14: If she speaks to a British person on the telephone, would he or she be able to understand her correctly?

Ans: She would be able to speak very clearly and you would be able to understand her. If she were to speak to a British person over the telephone, she has really come on with her English accent.

Q15: Would her audio recording be recognized by native speakers as a non-native speaker talking?

Ans: I am not sure.

Q16: What main differences have you identified in her spoken language from when she first arrived?

Ans: I have noticed that her accent has changed. She can speak more English than her home language. And she now slows down when she talks so it is a lot easier to understand her now. When she first started at the play centre, she would speak very fast in her home language so it was a little hard to understand what she was trying to say.

Q17: Do all Asian children normally become efficient at using the English language within a period of ten months? If not, why not?

Ans: It depends really. Some children do improve like her if they are in the right setting and listening to staff, people and other children who speak English. A child picks up the accent a lot quicker if the parents and carers use the English language at home, as is the case with her. Then a child has better chances of progressing in their English language and accent.

Q18: Has she ever talked in her mother tongue with Asian children?

Ans: She has never talked in her mother language with other Asian children. When her key worker asked if she could count in her home language, she counted in English; 1,2,3,4,5,6 …

Q19: What major improvements do you see in her spoken language?

Ans: She can say complete sentences and can talk about her day at the play

centre; and can ask for what she wants to eat and drink at snack time. I have noticed that she has more of an English accent now than of her home language.

Q20: What main errors in her language have you observed which have never improved despite her making enough effort?

Ans: I haven't noticed any main errors in her language except for the way that she mispronounces her 'r's, but despite that you can still understand what she is saying. She can have an adult conversation because she speaks very maturely for her age.

Q21: Is there anything which you like to add?

Ans: She is beginning to learn the names of letters and sounds and is also starting to form letters.

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