Prepared by

Unit I Learning and Society

Unit II Language Diversity in Classrooms

Unit III Position of Mother-tongue in Classroom Instruction

Unit IV Language across the Curriculum

Unit V Language-related Issues

COURSE 4: LANGUAGE ACROSS THE CURRICULUM

UNIT I LANGUAGE AND SOCIETY

Course Objectives

At the end of the unit, the student – teachers will be able to

1. understand the meaning and functions of language.-
2. differentiate between home language and school language.
3. comprehend the language background of the learner.
4. develop oral and written language fluency.
5. recognize cultural diversity in the classroom.

Introduction

Language is essentially a means of communication among the members of a society. In the expression of culture, language is a fundamental aspect. It is the tool that conveys traditions and values related to group identity. The purpose of this lesson is to show that a common language is one of the most important features of a community and the ceaseless use of the same language is the most certain proof of the historical continuity of a community of people. This function is strongly related to the social nature of a language, whereas there are interdependency and mutual conditionality relations between language occurrence and a society with its inherent culture.

Language is one of the most powerful emblems of social behavior. In the normal transfer of information through language, we use language to send vital social messages about who we are, where we come from, and who we associate with. It is often shocking to realize how extensively we may judge a person's background, character, and intentions based simply upon the person's language, dialect, or, in some instances, even the choice of a single word.

Language is a constituent element of civilization. It raised man from a savage state to the plane which he was capable of reaching. Man could not become man except by language. An essential point in which man differs from animals is that man alone is the sole possessor of

language. No doubt animals also exhibit certain degree of power of communication but that is not only inferior in degree to human language, but also radically diverse in kind from it.

Language is one of the most marked, conspicuous, as well as fundamentally characteristic of the faculties of man. The importance of language for man and society cannot be minimized. As a personal thing, language is not only a mode of communication between individuals but is also a way for the expression of their personality. Sociologically, language moulds the individual from infancy. The child comes to know most of the things of the world through language. This unit deals with meaning, concept and acquisition of language, home language, school language, oral language and written language. Further, it deals with functions of language and relationship between language and culture.

Meaning of Language

Language is a living and dynamic phenomenon, and people have always found ways of expressing their thoughts, feelings even in the most tightly controlled and oppressive societies. In fact language is continuously creating new words in order to define a new concept.

In discussions of language and education, language is usually defined as a shared set of verbal codes, such as Tamil, Arabic, Hindi, etc. But language can also be defined as a generic, communicative phenomenon, especially in descriptions of instruction. Teachers and students use spoken and written language to communicate with each other–to present tasks, engage in learning processes, present academic content, assess learning, display knowledge and skill, and build classroom life. In addition, much of what students learn is language. They learn to read and write (academic written language), and they learn the discourse of academic disciplines (sometimes called academic languages and literacy's). Both definitions of language are important to understanding the relationship between language and education.

As suggested by M. A. K. Halliday, the relationship between language and education can be divided into three heuristic categories: (1) learning language,(2) learning through language, and (3) learning about language.

Learning Language

In their early years, children are learning both spoken and written language. They are developing use of complex grammatical structures and vocabulary; communicative competence comprehension of spoken and written language; and ways to express themselves.

Learning through Language

Learning in classrooms is primarily accomplished through language. Teachers lecture, ask questions, initiate discussions, and assign reading and writing tasks. Students engage in academic tasks through reading, writing, exploring the Internet, giving verbal answers to teacher questions, listening to teacher lectures and student presentations, participating in whole-class and instructional peer group discussions, memorizing written text and vocabulary, and so on.

Learning about Language

Perhaps the most obvious classroom practice for learning about language is through the study of grammar and spelling. As linguists point out, the grammar taught in school is a prescriptive grammar and is not a descriptive grammar. For those students who use Standard English, prescriptive grammar is often very close to the language they speak. But for students who speak a variation of English other than Standard English the teaching and learning of prescriptive grammar does not necessarily related to the language they speak, and thus they are learning about a language different from the language they speak.

Another typical classroom practice for learning about language is the instruction of a second language. Learning a second language can mean one of two things: the learning of a foreign language or the learning of English by those whose native language is not English. It is often the case that the teaching of a second language includes coverage of the grammar, vocabulary structures, and history of the language.

Human beings can communicate with each other. We are able to exchange knowledge, beliefs, opinions, wishes, threats, commands, thanks, promises, declarations, feelings – only our imagination sets limits. We can laugh to express amusement, happiness, or disrespect, we can

smile to express amusement, pleasure, approval, or bitter feelings, we can shriek to express anger, excitement, or fear, we can tightly closed our hands to express determination, anger or a threat, we can raise our eyebrows to express surprise or disapproval, and so on, but our system of communication before anything else is language. Language is a system of communication based upon words and the combination of words into sentences. Communication by means of language may be referred to as linguistic communication, the other ways mentioned above – laughing, smiling, crying, and so on are types of non-linguistic communication.

Language is a dual system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for human communication. The duality is due to the coexistence of two systems of language - the system of sounds and the system of meanings; thus, duality is a basic feature of language. Language is arbitrary because we cannot predict which features will be found in any particular language; language is symbolic because the words humans speak are associated with objects, ideas, and actions.

Language refers to communication of thoughts and feelings through a system of arbitrary signals, such as voice sounds, gestures, or written symbols. Such a system including its rules for combining its components, such as words. Such a system as used by a nation, people, or other distinct community; often contrasted with dialect.

Language is a system for communicating. Written languages use symbols to build words. The entire set of words is the language's vocabulary. The ways in which the words can be meaningfully combined is defined by the language's syntax and grammar. The actual meaning of words and combinations of words is defined by the language's semantics.

In brief, language means system of sounds, words, patterns used by humans to communicate their thoughts and feelings. So language is the source of expression of thought by means of speech sounds. Language is the most powerful, convenient and permanent means and form of communication.

Communication is the act of conveying intended meanings from one entity or group to another through the use of mutually understood signs and semiotic rules.

The basic steps of communication are

1. The forming of communicative intent.
2. Message composition.
3. Message encoding and decoding.
4. Transmission of the encoded message as a sequence of signals using a specific channel or medium.
5. Reception of signals.
6. Reconstruction of the original message.
7. Interpretation and making sense of the reconstructed message.

The study of communication can be divided into:

- Information theory which studies the quantification, storage, and communication of information in general;
- Communication studies which concerns human communication;
- Biosemiotics which examines the communication of organisms in general.

The channel of communication can be visual, auditory, tactile and hap tic, olfactory, Kinesics, electromagnetic, or biochemical. Human communication is unique for its extensive use of abstract language.

Definition of Language

Language is an exclusively human method for communicating thoughts, feelings, and wishes; it is not rooted in instinct, and it employs a system of freely structured symbols (Spair).

A language is a system of arbitrary sound symbols by means of which a social group interacts (Bloch and Trager).

Language is the institution used by human beings for communication and interaction by means of conventional and voluntary oral-auditory symbols (Hall).

One definition sees language primarily as the mental faculty that allows humans to undertake linguistic behavior: to learn languages and to produce and understand utterances. This definition

stresses the universality of language to all humans, and it emphasizes the biological basis for the human capacity for language as a unique development of the human brain.

Another definition sees language as a formal system of signs governed by grammatical rules of combination to communicate meaning. This definition stresses that human languages can be described as closed structural systems consisting of rules that relate particular signs to particular meanings.

Yet another definition sees language as a system of communication that enables humans to exchange verbal or symbolic utterances. This definition stresses the social functions of language and the fact that humans use it to express themselves and to manipulate objects in their environment.

The defining characteristics of human language can be easily deduced from the following definition made by an American linguist, John B. Carrol in his book entitled "The Study of Language "

From the definition of language quoted above one can draw some basic characteristic of human language, among others that language is systematic, arbitrary, social and complete.

Concept of Language

'Language is a mirror of mind in a deep significant sense. It is a product of human intelligence, created anew in each individuals by operations that lie far beyond the reach of will or consciousness'.

Language is, today, an inseparable part of human society. Human civilization has been possible only through language. It is through language only that humanity has come out of the stone age and has developed science, art and technology in a big way. Language is a means of communication, it is arbitrary, it is a system of systems. We know that speech is primary while writing is secondary.

Language is human so it differs from animal communication in several ways. Language can have scores of characteristics but the following are the most important ones: language is arbitrary, productive, creative, systematic, vocalic, social, non-instinctive and conventional.

These characteristics of language set human language apart from animal communication. Some of these features may be part of animal communication; yet they do not form part of it in total.

Language is Arbitrary: Language is arbitrary in the sense that there is no inherent relation between the words of a language and their meanings or the ideas conveyed by them. There is no reason why a female adult human being be called a woman in English, aurat in Urdu, Zen in Persian and Femine in French. The choice of a word selected to mean a particular thing or idea is purely arbitrary but once a word is selected for a particular referent, it comes to stay as such. It may be noted that had language not been arbitrary, there would have been only one language in the world.

Language is Social: Language is a set of conventional communicative signals used by humans for communication in a community. Language in this sense is a possession of a social group, comprising an indispensable set of rules which permits its members to relate to each other, to interact with each other, to co-operate with each other; it is a social institution. Language exists in society; it is a means of nourishing and developing culture and establishing human relations.

Language is Symbolic: Language consists of various sound symbols and their graph logical counterparts that are employed to denote some objects, occurrences or meaning. These symbols are arbitrarily chosen and conventionally accepted and employed. Words in a language are not mere signs or figures, but symbols of meaning. The intelligibility of a language depends on a correct interpretation of these symbols.

Language is Systematic: Although language is symbolic, yet its symbols are arranged in a particular system. All languages have their system of arrangements. Every language is a system of systems. All languages have phonological and grammatical systems, and within a system there are several sub-systems. For example, within the grammatical system we have morphological and syntactic systems, and within these two sub-systems we have systems such as those of plural, of mood, of aspect, of tense, etc.

Language is Vocal: Language is primarily made up of vocal sounds only produced by a physiological articulatory mechanism in the human body. In the beginning, it appeared as vocal sounds only. Writing came much later, as an intelligent attempt to represent vocal sounds.

Writing is only the graphic representation of the sounds of the language. So the linguists say that speech is primary.

Language is Non-instinctive, Conventional: No language was created in a day out of a mutually agreed upon formula by a group of humans. Language is the outcome of evolution and convention. Each generation transmits this convention on to the next. Like all human institutions languages also change and die, grow and expand. Every language then is a convention in a community. It is non-instinctive because it is acquired by human beings. Nobody gets a language in heritage; he acquires it because he an innate ability.

Language is Productive and Creative: Language has creativity and productivity. The structural elements of human language can be combined to produce new utterances, which neither the speaker nor his hearers may ever have made or heard before any, listener, yet which both sides understand without difficulty. Language changes according to the needs of society.

Finally, language has other characteristics such as Duality referring to the two systems of sound and meaning, Displacement which means the ability to talk across time and space, Humanness which means that animals cannot acquire it, Universality which refers to the equilibrium across humanity on linguistic grounds, Competence and Performance which means that language is innate and produced is society and furthermore, language is culturally transmitted. It is learnt by an individual from his elders, and is transmitted from one generation to another. Thus using J. Firth's term, language is a 'polysystametic'. It is also open to be studied from multifaceted angles.

The concept of language can be broadly classified into many categories based on its purposes.

Universal language

Universal language may refer to a hypothetical or historical language spoken and understood by all or most of the world's population. In some contexts, it refers to a means of communication said to be understood by all living things, beings, and objects alike. It may be the idea of an international auxiliary language for communication between groups speaking different primary languages. In other conceptions, it may be the primary language of all speakers, or the only existing language. Some religious and mythological traditions state that there was once a single universal language among all people, or shared by humans and supernatural beings.

Standard language

A standard language is a language variety used by a group of people in their public discourse. Alternatively, varieties become standard by undergoing a process of standardization, during which it is organized for description in grammars and dictionaries and encoded in such reference works. Typically, varieties that become standardized are the local dialects spoken in the centers of commerce and government, where a need arises for a variety that will serve more than local needs. A standard language can be either pluricentric (e.g. Arabic, English, French, and Hindi Portuguese and Spanish) or monocentric (e.g. Italian, Japanese, and Russian)

Official language

An official language is a language that is given a special legal status in a particular country, state, or other jurisdiction. Typically a country's official language refers to the language used within government. Since "the means of expression of a people cannot be changed by any law", the term "official language" does not typically refer to the language used by a people or country, but by its government.

Sister languages

In historical linguistics, sister languages, also known as sibling languages or brother languages are family languages; that is, languages that descend from a common ancestral language, the so-called proto-language. Every language in an established language family is a sister to the others.

Vernacular language

Vernacular describes everyday language, including informal words, that is used by the people. The vernacular is different from literary or official language: it is the way people really talk with each other, like how families talk at home.

Vernacular is different: think of it as how friends talk when no one is listening. Vernacular language includes slang and obscenities. One of the hardest things about writing for school is getting away from the vernacular and learning to write in more formal ways that don't

come as naturally. We can also say specific groups have a vernacular, meaning the unique way people in a certain region or profession speak.

International auxiliary language

An international auxiliary language or inter language is a language meant for communication between people from different nations who do not share a common first language. An auxiliary language is primarily a second language.

Inter-language

Inter-language is the term for an idiolect that has been developed by a learner of a second language (or L2) who has not yet reached proficiency. A learner's inter-language preserves some features of their first language (or L1), and can also over generalize some L2 writing and speaking rules. These two characteristics of an inter-language result in the system's unique linguistic organization.

Inter-language can be variable across different contexts; for example, it may be more accurate, complex and fluent in one domain than in another.

To study the psychological processes involved one can compare the inter-language utterances of the learner with two things:

1. Utterances in the native language (L1) to convey the same message produced by the learner.
2. Utterances in the target language (L2) to convey the same message, produced by a native speaker of that language.

It is possible to apply an inter-language perspective to a learner's underlying knowledge of the target language sound system (inter-language phonology), grammar (morphology and syntax), vocabulary (lexicon), and language-use norms found among learners (inter-language pragmatics).

Constructed language

A planned or constructed language is a language whose phonology, grammar, and vocabulary have been consciously devised for human or human-like communication, instead

of having developed naturally. It is also referred to as an artificial or invented language. There are many possible reasons to create a constructed language, such as: to ease human communication to give fiction or an associated constructed setting an added layer of realism, for experimentation in the fields of linguistics, cognitive science, and machine learning, for artistic creation, and for language games.

In neuropsychology, linguistics and the philosophy of language, a natural language or ordinary language is any language that has evolved naturally in humans through use and repetition without conscious planning or premeditation. Natural languages can take different forms, such as speech, signing, or writing. They are distinguished from constructed and formal languages such as those used to program computers or to study logic.

Though the exact definition varies between scholars, natural language can broadly be defined in contrast to artificial or constructed languages (such as computer programming languages and international auxiliary languages) and to other communication systems in nature. Such examples include bees' waggle dance and whale song, to which researchers have found and/or applied the linguistic cognates of dialect and even syntax.

Mother tongue refers to the first language learned at home in childhood and still understood by the person at the time the data was collected. If the person no longer understands the first language learned, the mother tongue is the second language learned. For a person who learned two languages at the same time in early childhood, the mother tongue is the language this person spoke most often at home before starting school. The person has two mother tongues only if the two languages were used equally often and are still understood by the person. For a child who has not yet learned to speak, the mother tongue is the language spoken most often to this child at home. The child has two mother tongues only if both languages are spoken equally often so that the child learns both languages at the same time.

A foreign language is a language indigenous to another country. It is also a language not spoken in the native country of the person referred to, i.e., an Tamil speaker living in Tamil nadu can say that English is a foreign language to him or her. These two characterizations

do not exhaust the possible definitions, however, and the label is occasionally applied in ways that are variously misleading or factually inaccurate.

Some children learn more than one language from birth or from a very young age: they are bilingual or multilingual. These children can be said to have two, three or more mother tongues: neither language is foreign to that child, even if one language is a foreign language for the vast majority of people in the child's birth country. For example, a child learning Tamil from his Tamil father and English at school can speak both Tamil and English but neither is a foreign language to him.

In general, it is believed that children have advantage to learning a foreign language over adults. However, there are studies which have shown adult students are better at foreign language learning than child students. It is because adults have pre-existing knowledge of how grammar works, and a superior ability of memorizing vocabulary.

An indigenous language or autochthonous language is a language that is native to a region and spoken by indigenous people, often reduced to the status of a minority language. This language would be from a linguistically distinct community that has been settled in the area for many generations. Indigenous languages are not necessarily national languages, and the reverse is also true.

Many indigenous peoples worldwide have stopped passing on their ancestral languages to the next generation, and have instead adopted the majority language as part of their acculturation into the majority culture.

A minority language is a language spoken by a minority of the population of a territory.

The regional or minority languages means languages that are:

- traditionally used within a given territory of a State by nationals of that State who form a group numerically smaller than the rest of the State's population; and
- different from the official language(s) of that State

Functions of Language

Language functions refer to the purposes in which we use language to communicate. We use language for a variety of formal and informal purposes, and specific grammatical structures and vocabulary are often used with each language function. Some examples of language functions include:

- Language is the primary vehicle of communication
- Language reflects both the personality of the individual and the culture of the society.
- Languages make possible the growth and transmission of culture, and the continuity of societies, and the effective functioning and control of social group.

Three Basic Functions of language are generally noted. They are as follows:

1. **Informative language function**: essentially, the communication of information.

   This function concentrates on the message. The informative function affirms or denies propositions, as in science or the statement of a fact.

   It is used to give new information. This function is used to describe the world or reason about it.

   These sentences have a truth value; that is, the sentences are either true or false. Hence, they are important for logic.

2. **Expressive language function**: reports feelings or attitudes of the writer (or speaker), or of the subject, or evokes feelings in the reader (or listener).

   Language can have an expressive function i.e., it can be used to express its originator's feelings and attitude. Poetry and literature are among the best examples, but much of, perhaps most of, ordinary language discourse is the expression of emotions, feelings or attitudes.

   Two main aspects of this function are generally noted such as evoking certain feelings and expressing feelings. Expressive discourse is best regarded as neither true or false.

3. **Directive language function**: language used for the purpose of causing (or preventing) overt action.

The directive function is most commonly found in commands and requests.

Directive language is not normally considered true or false.

This function of social control places emphasis on the receiver's end, rather than the originator's end of the message: but it resembles the expressive function in giving less importance, on the whole, to conceptual meaning than to other types of meaning, particularly affective and connotative meaning"

Roman Jakobson defined six functions of language (or communication functions), according to which an effective act of verbal communication can be described. Each of the functions has an associated factor.

1. The Referential Function

It corresponds to the factor of context and describes a situation, object or mental state. The descriptive statements of the referential function can consist of both definite descriptions and deictic words. This function is all about describing and is oriented toward the context.

2. The Poetic Function

It focuses on "the message for its own sake" and is the operative function in poetry as well as slogans. This function describes something.

3. The Emotive (Expressive or Affective) Function

It relates to the Addresser (sender) and is best exemplified by interjections and other sound changes that do not alter the denotative meaning of an utterance but do add information about the Addresser's (speaker's) internal state. This function is concerned with commanding and is oriented toward addresser.

4. The Cognitive Function

It engages the Addressee (receiver) directly and is best illustrated by vocatives and imperatives. This function is choosing one’s words wisely and is oriented toward the addressee.

5. The Phatic Function

It is language for the sake of interaction and is therefore associated with the contact/channel factor. The Phatic Function can be observed in greetings and casual

discussions of the weather, particularly with strangers. It also provides the keys to open, maintain, verify or close the communication channel. The Phatic function means engaging for the sake of conversation and serves to establish, prolong or discontinue communication.

6. The Meta-lingual (Meta-linguistic or Reflexive) Function

It is the use of language to discuss or describe itself. This function requires analyzing language. This function is used to establish manual agreement on the code.

Thus, the Jakobson's model of the functions of language distinguishes six elements, or factors of communication, that are necessary for communication to occur: (1) context, (2) addresser (sender), (3) addressee (receiver), (4) contact, (5) common code and (6) message. Each factor is the focal point of a relation, or function that operates between the message and the factor. The functions are the following, in order: (1) referential (2) emotive (3) cognitive (4) phatic (5) meta-lingual and (6) poetic. When we analyze the functions of language for a given unit we specify to which class or type it belongs which functions are present/absent, and the characteristics of these functions, including the hierarchical relations and any other relations that may operate between them.

Understanding of Home Language and School language

First Language / Home Language

First language is otherwise called as in many names such as mother language, arterial language, home language, native language, vernacular language, indigenous, or autochthonous language

In most cases, the term first language refers to the language that a person acquires in early childhood because it is spoken in the family and/or it is the language of the region where the child lives. Also known as a mother tongue, native language, or arterial language. A person who has more than one native language is regarded as bilingual or multilingual.

Contemporary linguists and educators commonly use the term L1 to refer to a first or native language, and the term L2 to refer to a second language or a foreign language that is being studied.

Bloomfield (1933) defines a native language as one learned on one's mother's knee, and claims that no one is perfectly sure in a language that is acquired later. 'The first language a human being learns to speak is his native language; he is a native speaker of this language'. This definition equates a native speaker with a mother tongue speaker.

A home language is the language or the variety of a language that is most commonly spoken by the members of a family for everyday interactions at home. Also called the family language or the language of the home.

Sometimes, the term mother tongue or mother language is used for the language that a person learned as a child at home. Children growing up in bilingual homes can, according to this definition, have more than one mother tongue or native language.

A vernacular or vernacular language is the native language or native dialect of a specific population, especially as distinguished from a literary, national or standard variety of the language, or a lingua franca used in the region or state inhabited by that population. Some linguists use "vernacular" and "nonstandard dialect" as synonyms.

Heritage language learning is the act of learning a heritage language by someone from an ethno linguistic group that traditionally speaks the language, or whose family historically spoke the language. The objective of Heritage Language learning is promote divergent bilingualism and illiteracy. According to a generally accepted definition by Valdes (2000), heritage language is the language someone learns at home as a child which is a minority language in society, but because of growing up in a dominant language, the speaker seems to be more competent in the latter and feels more comfortable to communicate in that language. Polinsky& Kagan label it as a continuum that ranges from fluent speakers to barely speaking individuals of the home language. In some countries or cultures where they determine one's mother tongue by the ethnic group, a heritage language would be linked to native language. The term can also refer to the language of a person's family or community, which the person does not speak or understand but with which they culturally identify.

A first language (L1) is the language or are the languages a person has been exposed to from birth or within the critical period, or that a person speaks the best and so is often the basis

for sociolinguistic identity. In some countries, the terms native language or mother tongue refer to the language of one's ethnic group rather than one's first language. Children brought up speaking more than one language can have more than one native language, and be bilingual. By contrast, a second language is any language that one speaks other than one's first language.

Language acquisition is the process by which humans acquire the capacity to perceive and comprehend language, as well as to produce and use words and sentences to communicate. Language acquisition is one of the quintessential human traits, because non-humans do not communicate by using language. Language acquisition usually refers to first-language acquisition, which studies infants' acquisition of their native language. This is distinguished from second-language acquisition, which deals with the acquisition (in both children and adults) of additional languages.

The capacity to successfully use language requires one to acquire a range of tools including phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and an extensive vocabulary. Language can be vocalized as in speech or manual as in sign. The human language capacity is represented in the brain. Even though the human language capacity is finite, one can say and understand an infinite number of sentences, which is based on a syntactic principle called recursion. Evidence suggests that every individual has three recursive mechanisms that allow sentences to go indeterminately. These three mechanisms are: relativization, complementation and coordination. Furthermore, there are actually two main guiding principles in first-language acquisition, that is, speech perception always precedes speech production and the gradually evolving system by which a child learns a language is built up one step at a time, beginning with the distinction between individual phonemes.

The term first language acquisition refers to children's natural acquisition of the language or languages they hear from birth. It is distinguished from second language acquisition, which begins later, and from foreign language learning, which typically involves formal instruction.

Process of L1 Acquisition

The first language acquisition usually consist of following stages:

- Cooing (3 – 6 months)- use phonemes from every language

- Babbling (6- 8 months)- selectively use phonemes from their native language, talking incoherently and continuous low murmuring sound.
- Holophrastic stage or one word stage (9 - 18 months) – Single open class words or word stems.
- Two word stage (18 – 24 months) mini-sentences with semantic relations.
- Telegraphic speech (24- 30 months) Early multiword sentence structures of lexical rather than functional or grammatical morphemes.
- Fluency (30 + months) - almost normal developed speech and grammatical or functional structures emerge.

Characteristics of first language acquisition

1) It is an instinct. This is true in the technical sense, i.e. it is triggered by birth and takes its own course, though of course linguistic input from the environment is needed for the child to acquire a specific language. As an instinct, language acquisition can be compared to the acquisition of binocular vision or binaural hearing.

2) It is very rapid. The amount of time required to acquire one's native language is quite short, very short compared to that needed to learn a second language successfully later on in life.

3) It is very complete. The quality of first language acquisition is far better than that of a second language. One does not forget one's native language.

4) It does not require instruction. Despite the fact that many non-linguists think that mothers are important for children to learn their native language, instructions by parents or care-takers are unnecessary, despite the psychological benefits of attention to the child.

Significance of First language

The first language of a child is part of the personal, social and cultural identity. Another impact of the first language is that it brings about the reflection and learning of successful social patterns of acting and speaking. It is basically responsible for differentiating the linguistic competence of acting. While some argue that there is no such thing as "native speaker" or a "mother tongue," it is important to understand the key terms as well as understand what it means

to be a "non-native" speaker and the implications that can have on one's life. Research suggest that while a non-native speaker may develop fluency in a targeted language (L2)after about two years of immersion, it can actually take between five and seven years for that child to be on the same working level as their native speaking counterparts. That has implications on the education of non-native speakers.

The topic of native speaker also gives way to discussion about what exactly bilingualism is. One definition is that a person is bilingual by being equally proficient in both L1and L2 languages. A person who grows up speaking Tamil and begins learning English for four years is not necessarily bilingual unless he speaks the two languages with equal fluency. Pearl and Lambert were the first to test only "balanced" bilinguals—that is, children who are completely fluent in two languages and feel that neither is their "native" language because they grasp the two so perfectly. This study found the following: balanced bilinguals perform significantly better in tasks that require flexibility more aware of arbitrary nature of language and also that balanced bilinguals choose word associations based on logical rather than phonetic preferences.

Second Language / School Language

A person's second language or L2, is a language that is not the native language of the speaker, but that is used in the locale of that person. In contrast, a foreign language is a language that is learned in an area where that language is not generally spoken. Some languages, often called auxiliary languages, are used primarily as second languages or linguas franca.

More informally, a second language can be said to be any language learned in addition to one's native language, especially in context of, learning a new foreign language.

Second language refers to any language learned in addition to a person's first language; although the concept is named second-language acquisition, it can also incorporate the learning of third, fourth, or subsequent languages. Second-language acquisition refers to what learners do; it does not refer to practices in language teaching, although teaching can affect acquisition.

Second Language Acquisition can incorporate heritage language learning, but it does not usually incorporate bilingualism. Most SLA researchers see bilingualism as being the end result

of learning a language, not the process itself, and see the term as referring to native-like fluency. Writers in fields such as education and psychology, however, often use bilingualism loosely to refer to all forms of multilingualism. SLA is also not to be contrasted with the acquisition of a foreign language; rather, the learning of second languages and the learning of foreign languages involve the same fundamental processes in different situations.

English as a second or foreign language is the use of English by speakers with different native languages. Instruction for English-language learners may be known as English as a second language (ESL), English as a foreign language (EFL), English as an additional language (EAL), or English for speakers of other languages (ESOL). English as a foreign language (EFL) is used for non-native English speakers learning English in a country where English is not commonly spoken. The term ESL has been misinterpreted by some to indicate that English would be of secondary importance. However, it simply refers to the order in which the language was learned, consistent with the linguistic terminology of second-language acquisition. The term ESL can be a misnomer for some students who have learned several languages before learning English. The terms English Language Learners (ELL), and more recently English Learners (EL), have been used instead, and the students' home language and cultures are considered important.

Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) refers to teaching the English language to students with different first languages. TEFL can occur either within the state school system or more privately, at a language school or with a tutor. TEFL can also take place in an English-speaking country for people who have immigrated there either temporarily for school or work, or permanently. TEFL teachers may be native or non-native speakers of English. Other acronyms for TEFL are TESL (Teaching English as a Second Language), TESOL (Teaching English as a Second or Other Language), and ESL (English as a second language, a term typically used in English-speaking countries, and more often referring to the learning than the teaching).

Communication strategies used by L2 learners

In the course of learning a second language, learners will frequently encounter communication problems caused by a lack of linguistic resources. Communication

strategies are strategies that learners use to overcome these problems in order to convey their intended meaning. Strategies used may include paraphrasing, substitution, coining new words, switching to the first language, and asking for clarification. These strategies, with the exception of switching languages, are also used by native speakers.

No comprehensive list of strategies has been agreed on by researchers in second-language acquisition, but some commonly used strategies have been observed:

Circumlocution

This refers to learners using different words or phrases to express their intended meaning. For example, if learners do not know the word grandfather they may paraphrase it by saying "my father's father".

Semantic avoidance

Learners may avoid a problematic word by using a different one, for example substituting the irregular verb make with the regular verb ask. The regularity of "ask" makes it easier to use correctly.

Word coinage

This refers to learners creating new words or phrases for words that they do not know. For example, a learner might refer to an art gallery as a "picture place".

Language switch

Learners may insert a word from their first language into a sentence, and hope that their interlocutor will understand.

Asking for clarification

The strategy of asking an interlocutor for the correct word or other help is a communication strategy.

Non-verbal strategies

This can refer to strategies such as the use of gesture and mime to augment or replace verbal communication.

Avoidance

Avoidance, which takes multiple forms, has been identified as a communication strategy. Learners of a second language may learn to avoid talking about topics for which they lack the

necessary vocabulary or other language skills in the second language. Also, language learners sometimes start to try to talk about a topic, but abandon the effort in mid-utterance after discovering that they lack the language resources needed to complete their message.

Process of L2 Acquisition

Researchers define language acquisition into two categories: first-language acquisition and second-language acquisition. First-language acquisition is a universal process regardless of home language. Babies listen to the sounds around them, begin to imitate them, and eventually start producing words. Second-language acquisition assumes knowledge in a first language and encompasses the process an individual goes through as he or she learns the elements of a new language, such as vocabulary, phonological components, grammatical structures, and writing systems.

Haynes divided the process of second-language acquisition into five stages: preproduction, early production, speech emergence, intermediate fluency, and advanced fluency.

Pre-production

This is also called "the silent period," when the student takes in the new language but does not speak it. This period often lasts six weeks or longer, depending on the individual.

Early production

The individual begins to speak using short words and sentences, but the emphasis is still on listening and absorbing the new language. There will be many errors in the early production stage.

Speech Emergent

Speech becomes more frequent, words and sentences are longer, but the individual still relies heavily on context clues and familiar topics. Vocabulary continues to increase and errors begin to decrease, especially in common or repeated interactions.

Beginning Fluency

Speech is fairly fluent in social situations with minimal errors. New contexts and academic language are challenging and the individual will struggle to express themselves due to gaps in vocabulary and appropriate phrases.

Intermediate Fluency

Communicating in the second language is fluent, especially in social language situations. The individual is able to speak almost fluently in new situations or in academic areas, but there will be gaps in vocabulary knowledge and some unknown expressions. There are very few errors, and the individual is able to demonstrate higher order thinking skills in the second language such as offering an opinion or analyzing a problem.

Advanced Fluency

The individual communicates fluently in all contexts and can maneuver successfully in new contexts and when exposed to new academic information. At this stage, the individual may still have an accent and use idiomatic expressions incorrectly at times, but the individual is essentially fluent and comfortable communicating in the second language.

Theories that have been developed to account for second language learning, or acquisition, are closely related to general learning theories.

A behaviorist approach to second language learning focuses on imitation, practice, encouragement and habit formation. Learning a second language necessarily involves comparison with the learner's first language, but the latter is generally perceived as causing 'interference' in the learning of additional one(s). This approach is seen now to offer an insufficient explanation of the complexity of language learning.

The linguist Noam Chomsky (1957) provided a major critique of behaviorism and its view of second language learning as imitation and habit formation. He developed a theory of first language learning that suggests that language learning is an innate capacity – that children are programmed to acquire language thanks to their in-built knowledge of a Universal Grammar. He

called this knowledge 'competence', to distinguish it from what might actually be said on a particular occasion.

For Chomsky, this abstract knowledge of language consists of a limited set of rules that enabled an infinite number of sentences to be constructed. While he did not specifically address second language learning, his theory has been applied to it.

With regard to teaching methodology, behaviorism can be linked to grammar/translation methods that tend to focus on the parts of grammatical knowledge with less attention on how these parts might be brought together in communication. The audiovisual and audio-lingual approaches were based on stimulus-response psychology – that is, training students through practicing patterns to form 'habits'.

One of the most influential of the innatist theories (ie theories that argue that language is innate, is that of Stephen Krashen and it is this theory that influenced communicative language teaching (for more information, see Lightblown & Spada, 1999, Chapter2).

Within cognitive theories of second language acquisition, learning involves building up the knowledge system or architecture which over time and through practice becomes automatically accessible in reception and production. Some theorists within the cognitivist tradition have argued that interaction is essential for language learning to take place, with the modification of input, by teachers for example, to render it comprehensible to the learner (see Long, 1983).

The socio-cultural perspective on second language learning, based on the work of Vygotsky (1978), highlights that all learning, including language learning, is based on social interaction (see Lantolf, 2000) with more proficient others, on an interpersonal and intrapersonal plane as described above. Through the concept of the zone of proximal development, it highlights that language learning is developmental. The characteristic of 'prior knowledge' is very important. It recognizes that new learning is built on prior learning – that is, the ideas and concepts that students bring to learning. Teachers work with these preconceptions in order to facilitate learning.

The characteristic of 'meta-cognition', or awareness about how we learn, is integral to learning. Students need to understand how they learn. They need to continuously reflect on their learning and develop self-awareness of themselves as learners. There is a strong connection

between learning and identity: learners need to negotiate constantly who they are, and how they can be/ should be/ would like to be in the language and culture they are learning.

Understanding the language background of the learner

Background knowledge of students

Genishi and Dyson (2009) highlight that 21st-century early childhood classrooms are rooted in cultural, linguistic, and educational diversity so that teachers' pedagogies no longer connect rigid traditional curricula with "one-size-fit-all" activities but connect with flexible emerging curricula to foreground children's "normalcy of diversity". In particular, second language classroom teachers should be able to recognize what students they have faced and what problems the students have met in second language classrooms.

In addition, to understand language diversity in second language classrooms, relative research indicates the significance of the background knowledge of linguistics regarding the phonology, morphology, and syntax. First, the phonology knowledge is related to how people produce a language through understanding phonology and phonemes. Phonology refers to "the study of speech sounds;" while, phonemes refers to "the meaningful sounds of a language"

Second, the morphology knowledge explores how words are formed, particularly showing information about morphemes that refer to smaller parts of a word. Third, the syntax knowledge presents how sentences are formed through probing into the "syntactic structure" which is called "syntax".

In a word, teachers should have knowledge of linguistics so that they can make themselves more aware of linguistic differences that their students bring to the classroom, thus designing an effective approach to help their students for learning.

An English language learner (ELL) is a person who is learning the English language in addition to his or her native language. The instruction and assessment of students, their cultural background, and the attitudes of classroom teachers towards ELLs have all been found to be factors in ELL student achievement. Some ways that have been suggested to assist ELLs include

bringing their home cultures into the classroom, involving them in language-appropriate content-area instruction from the beginning, and by integrating literature into the learning program. Some educational advocates, prefer for a student learning any second language the term emergent bilingual.

There are various issues within a classroom that contains a considerable number of ESL students (English as a Second Language), causing a strong need for additional support, programs, and services. Oftentimes, the issues arrive because of differences amongst the students, teachers, and other peers within the school who are culturally and linguistically diverse. ESL students are often expected to do the same work as all the other students, which causes frustration, low self-esteem, anxiety, and eventually leads to behavioral problems.

When students enter the second language classroom, they come with varying degrees of experience with and knowledge of the language; some students may have no knowledge, some may have a bit, and other students may have a good knowledge based upon which to build. What can make the situation complicated for the teacher, is that all of these students may be in the same class together; how can we compensate for such differences? As teachers, it is important not just to realize that each student comes with their own background knowledge, but that we need to become familiar with what that background knowledge is and work with it to lead all students to higher levels of success in the target language (L2). This section of unit I will look at the need to know a student's background knowledge, how that background can be determined and an example of how to go about collecting this information.

We know that it is very rare, except for perhaps the first class, that a group of learners will all start with what we can refer to as "no background". The minute students begin to learn a language, all sorts of individual factors come into play to contribute to that learning which force the teacher to differentiate almost immediately. However, a bigger challenge arises when dealing with students who are coming from "feeder schools" i.e., The students who are entering either junior or senior high school and come with some previous exposure to a second language from their previous school. The feeder schools might have more or less high quality teacher proficiency, or more or less priority placed on the language program. These differences culminate in such a way that some kids who come from one feeder school might be stronger than

those coming from another feeder school. It can't be assumed that just because the students have all had the same amount of time being exposed to the language they are all on the same page.

When teachers are doing planning and preparation, they should be thinking about every stage of learner. When we think about doing a "needs assessment" of students, we need to think about how this assessment is to be done, whether with a placement test, observational anecdotal notes, etc. In other words, how do we determine the background knowledge of the students? There are ways to do this, but a placement test is only as good as the number of people who use it, who developed it, and what the intended purpose was. Placement tests tend not to be used as much in elementary, junior high or senior high schools, so it is up to the teacher to get a sense of where the students are in their learning. More and more bilingual programs, for example, have discerned that in the grade 8-10 bilingual programs there are kids with a wide range of ability levels. This is in part due to the fact that within these programs some of the children are native speakers, some are more recent immigrants, some are third or fourth generation children who have heard the language and have a sense for the culture but don't really know the language, and some have no cultural connection at all. This last group is more rare, but does exist and it is important to remember that these students are not automatically the lowest students in the group. These bilingual programs, which might have 120 students in three different grades, have divided these students into three groups across the grade levels so that they are working more at their own ability level. This is an example of a case where a needs assessment of the students had been done. Usually the needs assessment shows through strongest in the oral ability.

One type of needs assessment that is all encompassing is the interview format; this looks at listening comprehension, reading, speaking and writing, cultural knowledge, awareness and ability to integrate. This type of an assessment would be done on an individual, one-on-one basis with the student and take anywhere from 10-15 minutes, depending on the level of the learner. As much as this can be a challenge to organize, a second language teacher could make a very good case as to why they would need a substitute teacher on a certain day so that they can arrange to have those one-on-one meetings with students, because this is the best way for the teacher to determine the background knowledge of students.

The principles of language learning have a number of implications for teachers catering to the needs of gifted and talented culturally and linguistically diverse learners.

The language learning involves certain basic principles.

- imply that the choice of methods and strategies should be flexible
- advocate an eclectic approach to methodology which draws upon many methods for the best techniques approaches and strategies for learning English and learning through English
- imply that gifted and talented CALD students learn best when given the opportunity to use English freely and creatively in many different communicative situations
- imply a need to create an atmosphere of trust to encourage learners to take risks
- imply a need to provide opportunities for gifted and talented CALD learners to find answers to their own questions and pursue their own interests
- imply a need to, at times, actively focus students on specific aspects of English, such as strategies, skills, structures and vocabulary
- imply a need to encourage and promote the active involvement of gifted and talented CALD learners in exploring, investigating, reflecting, communicating and self discovery
- advocate related and recycled experiences to support conceptual development
- require a balance of teaching/learning situations in the classroom
- advocate the use of peer collaboration for modeling and scaffolding purposes

Many culturally and linguistically diverse students have developed a camouflage for language survival and have never really mastered English at the level required to communicate complex ideas and higher level thinking.

The inability to hypothesize or to draw inference or conclusion from observations has to be seen as possible a function of language rather than an indication of general lack of ability.

The move from interpersonal communicative language to more academic language must occur if the student's ability to communicate complex ideas is to be recognized and developed. This can be encouraged in the classroom by incorporating the following techniques.

- Identify areas in the course or program where a definition, report, hypothesis or use of evidence to make inferences or draw conclusions is required.
- Assist students to make lists of things which need defining. Spend time defining these, distinguish from an example, and use exact language. Look at dictionary definitions and meanings.
- Do the same with reports, hypotheses and drawing conclusions. Isolate facts and observations from which students can make inferences or draw conclusions. Move on to other areas of higher language use.
- The importance of reading cannot be over-emphasized. Students need encouragement to read a wide range of materials in order to acquire language through print.

Language Support for Students in the Home and in School

Students in bilingual and ESL classrooms manipulate more than one language and are influenced by more than one culture. Their experiences with these languages and cultures influence their learning. The more we understand the personal, socio-cultural, and linguistic backgrounds of bilingual students, the better equipped we will be to provide these students with an effective learning environment. This environment should be one that supports learning in a second language and culture, while fostering a positive attitude and respect for the other language and culture.

The responsibility for English language learning, academic progress, and integration of bilingual and ESL learners into the school community should be assumed by all personnel at the school, not just by the bilingual and ESL staff. School administrators should make certain that bilingual students have opportunities to integrate both socially and academically with monolingual English speakers.

The following practices promote the inclusion of all students in a supportive, educational environment:

- Create participatory, inquiry-based classrooms
- Maintain high expectations for all students

- Teach ESL through content-area instruction
- Use thematic units
- Incorporate culturally familiar learning strategies
- Use a variety of strategies when teaching literacy
- Provide appropriate and valid assessment
- Recognize that students use both languages to learn

Characteristics of Effective Language

Language Power (LP) is a measure of one's ability to communicate effectively in a given language, specifically one that is not native to the speaker. Current instructional programs throughout the world continue to attempt to teach how to communicate in a second language – yet they struggle. They struggle because existing methodologies do not typically result in the learner being able to communicate effectively in the new language. The root cause of this global problem is that learners do not reach a sufficient level of "native-ness" in their speech which hurts the learner's career achievements - despite numerous attempts at language instruction policy and practice reform. Language Power consists of two key components: 1) an ability to speak and be understood, and 2) an ability to listen and understand. Individuals with strong language power possess the ability to communicate effectively in a social environment. When non-native speakers engage in oral communication, native speakers of that language recognize sufficiently well-formed speech, in that it is satisfactorily 'native' or sufficiently close to what they know as 'their language' in order to be completely understood. When non-native speakers listen to a secondary language, they need to be capable of interpreting and processing words that are spoken at real world rates of speech in the manner spoken by native speakers of that language.

There are six main characteristics of effective language. Effective language is: (1) concrete and specific, not vague and abstract; (2) concise, not verbose; (3) familiar, not obscure; (4) precise and clear, not inaccurate or ambiguous; (5) constructive, not destructive; and (6) appropriately formal.

Concrete and Specific Language

Concrete language includes descriptions which create tangible images with details the reader can visualize. Abstract language is vague and obscure, and does not bring to mind specific visual images.

Concise Language

A hallmark of effective writers is the ability to express the desired message in as few words as possible. Good writers, in other words, use language which is straightforward and to-the-point.

Familiar Language

Familiar language is that which the readers easily recognize and understand because they use it on a regular basis. One of the most important functions of language is to build "homophily" or a sense of commonality with one's readers. Language which is foreign and unfamiliar to the reader tends to emphasize the differences between writer and reader, and makes the message difficult to understand. By using language that is familiar to the reader, the message is likely to have more impact.

Precise and Clear Language

The use of appropriate language is a tricky matter because the meaning of words is relative and situational. In other words, words can be interpreted in different ways by different people in different situations. For this reason, it is important to choose language which is as precise and clear as possible. The more precise and clear one's use of language becomes, the fewer the number of possible interpretations for a message.

Constructive Language

Constructive language phrases a potentially negative message in a positive way, whereas destructive language directs blame and criticism toward the reader, creating defensiveness.

Readers are likely to become defensive when the writer's language expresses any or all of the following:

- Superiority over the reader
- Indifference or apathy about an issue of importance to the reader
- Negative evaluation or judgment of the reader (as opposed to neutral descriptions or observations)
- Command or control over the reader
- Skepticism or doubt about the reader's credibility or the legitimacy of their claims

Formality of Language

The formality of the language one uses should match the formality of the situation and the relationship between the writer and reader.

The capacity to successfully use language requires one to acquire a range of tools including phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and an extensive vocabulary. Language can be vocalized as in speech, or manual as in sign. The human language capacity is represented in the brain. Even though the human language capacity is finite, one can say and understand an infinite number of sentences, which is based on a syntactic principle called recursion. Evidence suggests that every individual has three recursive mechanisms that allow sentences to go indeterminately.

These three mechanismsare: gelatinization, complementation and coordination. Furthermore, there are actually two main guiding principles in first-language acquisition, that is, speech perception always precedes speech production and the gradually evolving system by which a child learns a language is built up one step at a time, beginning with the distinction between individual phonemes.

Using of the L1 in the L2 classroom

L1 refers to the first language, or native tongue, of the students and/or teacher. L2, or second language, can be viewed as the target/foreign language.

There have always been contradicting views about whether to use the mother tongue of the students in the foreign language classroom. The monolingual approach suggests that the

target language ought to be the sole medium of communication, implying the prohibition of the native language would maximize the effectiveness of learning the target language.

In most of the roles of the L1 that we have looked at, there is the common theme that the L1 provides a familiar and effective way of quickly getting to grips with the meaning and content of what needs to be used in the L2. It is effective to utilize this proven and efficient means of communicating meaning. To do so would be directly parallel to saying that pictures or real objects should not be used in the L2 class. All the arguments against L1 use similarly apply to the use of pictures, real objects, and demonstration. The L1 needs to be seen as a useful tool that like other tools should be used where needed but should not be over-used.

In classes where learners all share the same first language or national language, teachers need to use a range of options to encourage learners to use the L2 as much as possible. The following range of options is based on the idea that there are several reasons why learners use the L1 when they should be using the L2. These reasons include low proficiency in the L2, the naturalness of using the L2 to do certain jobs, shyness in using the L2, or simply a lack of interest in learning the L2. Here are some of the ways of dealing with these obstacles to L2 use.

- Choose manageable tasks that are within the learners' proficiency.
- Prepare learners for tasks by pre-teaching the language items and skills needed.
- Use staged and graded tasks that bring learners up to the level required.
- Get learners to pretend to be English speakers.
- Make the L2 an unavoidable part of the task. Retelling activities, strip stories, completion activities, and role plays all require the use of the L2.
- Repeat tasks to make them easier.
- Inform learners of the learning goals of each task so that they can see how using the L2 will help them achieve a clear short term learning goal.
- Discuss with the learners the value of using the L2 in class.
- Get learners to discuss the reasons why they avoid using the L2 and get them to suggest solutions to encourage L2 use.

- Set up a monitoring system to remind learners to use the L2. In group work speaking tasks this can involve giving one learner in each group the role of reminding others to use the L2.
- Use non-threatening tasks. Learners can choose their own groups, the teacher can stay out of the groups, allow learners to prepare well for the tasks, don't use tasks that put learners in embarrassing situations, and choose interesting, non-threatening topics. If encouraging L2 use is a problem, several of these different solutions may need to be used. These solutions cover a range of affective, cognitive, and resource approaches and thus can be seen as complementary rather than as alternatives.

In some countries, English and the L1 are in competition with each other and the use of English increases at the expense of the L1. Teachers need to show respect for the learners' L1 and need to avoid doing things that make the L1 seem inferior to English. At the same time, it is the English teacher's job to help learners develop their proficiency in English. Thus, a balanced approach is needed which sees a role for the L1 but also recognizes the importance of maximizing L2 use in the classroom.

Translation is more and more frequently evaluated as a positive form of interference aimed at enriching rather than harming learners' competence and performance skills. The use of translation in language classes might, of course, have some limitations but also benefits should be explored and taken into consideration.

Translation should not be seen, and consequently treated, as a completely different language skill as compared to reading, writing, speaking and listening because it is an activity which includes them and is, to a certain degree, dependent on them.

It is well known fact that moderate and judicious use of the mother tongue can aid and facilitate the learning and teaching of the target language, a view shared by many colleagues of mine. However, the value of using the mother tongue is a neglected topic in the TEFL methodology literature. This omission, together with the widely advocated principle that the native language should not be used in the foreign language classroom, makes most teachers,

experienced or not, feel uneasy about using L1 or permitting its use in the classroom, even when there is a need to do so.

Developing Oral and Written Language in the classroom

Language development is a process starting early in human life. Infants start without language, yet by 10 months, babies can distinguish speech sounds and engage in babbling. It is thought to proceed by ordinary processes of learning in which children acquire the forms, meanings and uses of words and utterances from the linguistic input. The method in which we develop language skills is universal; however, the major debate is how the rules of syntax are acquired. There are two major approaches to syntactic development, an empiricist account by which children learn all syntactic rules from the linguistic input, and a nativist approach by which some principles of syntax are innate and are transmitted through the human genome.

The nativist theory, proposed by Noam Chomsky, argues that language is a unique human accomplishment. Chomsky says that all children have what is called an innate language acquisition device (LAD). Theoretically, the LAD is an area of the brain that has a set of universal syntactic rules for all languages. This device provides children with the ability to construct novel sentences using learned vocabulary. Chomsky's claim is based upon the view that what children hear—their linguistic input—is insufficient to explain how they come to learn language. He argues that linguistic input from the environment is limited and full of errors. Therefore, nativists assume that it is impossible for children to learn linguistic information solely from their environment. However, because children possess this LAD, they are in fact, able to learn language despite incomplete information from their environment. This view has dominated linguistic theory for over fifty years and remains highly influential, as witnessed by the number of articles in journals and books.

The empiricist theory suggests, that there is enough information in the linguistic input children receive and therefore, there is no need to assume an innate language acquisition device exists. Rather than a LAD evolved specifically for language, empiricists believe that general brain processes are sufficient enough for language acquisition. During this process, it is necessary for the child to actively engage with their environment. For a child to learn language, the parent or caregiver adopts a particular way of appropriately communicating with the child;

this is known as child-directed speech (CDS). CDS is used so that children are given the necessary linguistic information needed for their language. Empiricism is a general approach and sometimes goes along with the inter-actionist approach. Statistical language acquisition, which falls under empiricist theory, suggests that infants acquire language by means of pattern perception.

Other researchers embrace an inter-actionist perspective, consisting of social-inter-actionist theories of language development. In such approaches, children learn language in the interactive and communicative context, learning language forms for meaningful moves of communication. These theories focus mainly on the caregiver's attitudes and attentiveness to their children in order to promote productive language habits.

An older empiricist theory, the behaviorist theory proposed by B. F. Skinner suggested that language is learned through operant conditioning, namely, by imitation of stimuli and by reinforcement of correct responses.

Other relevant theories about language development include Piaget's theory of cognitive development, which considers the development of language as a continuation of general cognitive development and Vygotsky's social theories that attribute the development of language to an individual's social interactions and growth.

Oral language is one of the fundamental aspects of all education. The oral language is otherwise known as spoken language or vocal language.

According to Wood, oral language development takes place in six consecutive stages:

During the first year of life the child is in a pre-speech or pre-linguistic stage. Developmental aspects related to speech would include the development of gestures, making adequate eye contact, sound repartee between infant and caregiver, cooing, babbling and crying.

The child usually reaches holophrase phase between the age of 10 and 13 months. Although the child tends to utter a single word at a time, its meaning is also supplemented by the context in which it takes place, as well as by non-verbal cues.

By 18 months the child reaches two-word sentence stage. Child's "sentences" now usually comprise a noun or a verb plus a modifier. This enables the child to formulate a sentence which may be either declarative, negative, imperative or interrogative.

The child reaches Multiple-word sentences stage between the age of two and two and a half. Grammatical morphemes in the form of prefixes or suffices are used when changing meanings or tenses. Furthermore, the child can now form sentences with a subject and a predicate.

Children reach more complex grammatical structures stage roughly between two and half and three years of age. They use more intricate and complex grammatical structures, elements are added (conjunction), embedded and permuted within sentences and prepositions are used.

The five to six-year-old child reaches Adult-like language structures developmental level. Complex structural distinctions can now be made, such as by using the concepts "ask/tell" and "promise" and changing the word order in the sentence accordingly.

As students develop language, they go through some predictable stages. The ages at which some of these developments occur may vary from child to child; therefore the indicated age is only an approximation. During the pre-linguistic stage, babies in their first year of life are beginning to understand how to communicate. In the first half of the year, babies make random sounds, but in the second half of the year, babbling begins. Infants are able to communicate through distinct cries and mimic speech patterns, including melody, intonation, and stress. Around their first birthday, infants begin to say their first words. During the one word stage, babies are able to identify people and things. They are also beginning to communicate decisions, most often with the word, 'no.' During the combinatory speech stage, children are beginning to put words together into phrases. By their fourth birthday, children are able to use pronouns, prepositions, plurals, and tense. During kindergarten, 1st and 2nd grade, oral language skills become more advanced as the child learns to use possessives, follow directions, and tell jokes.

There are five accepted components to effective oral language instruction.

The first is developing listening and speaking skills. A lot of this is based on modeling. To teach people how to listen and speak, the teacher have to show people how to listen and speak. Create pairs of people to act out speaking and listening and have students model this, taking turns presenting and listening to information. From here, teacher can teach students the concept of having the floor, as in 'the speaker has the floor'. From this, students learn to recognize when it is an appropriate time to talk and when it is time to listen.

The second component of oral language instruction is teaching a variety of spoken texts. According to British linguist, Michael Halliday, there are seven different functions of language. They are instrumental (language of expressing needs), regulatory (influencing others), interactional (getting along with others), personal (expressing personal feelings), heuristic (learning about one's environment), imaginary (creating stories), and representational (communicating information). So, the texts to be instructed use need to embrace all seven of these functions.

Learning requires a positive environment. There are three parts to this: the physical environment, classroom culture, and opportunities for communication. The physical environment can be enriched through creative toys, dress up boxes, and tables to display and discuss work. Classroom culture is promoted by being sensitive to cultural differences, emphasizing equality, and teaching students to take turns. Opportunities for discussion can be developed by modeling listening and speaking, reading as a class, and reciting raps, poems, or songs to introduce new sounds and rhythms.

The fourth component of oral language instruction is teaching and extending vocabulary and conceptual knowledge. The words we use to express the world around us go a long way in influencing how we think about the world. First, we start with basic words, those that most students already know by the time they have entered school. From there, we introduce slightly more conceptual words, ones and after that, we bring in uncommon words that can be physically demonstrated.

From birth on, children begin to learn about their environments and to communicate with family members. What they are learning is reflected in the ways in which they vocalize. When a person

begins to learn a language, they go through stages of language acquisition. These stages function differently depending on whether the person is acquiring their first or second language. Typically, first language acquisition happens during infancy, which is a time when a person cannot consciously process the stages of language acquisition. Second language acquisition often occurs between adolescence and adulthood when a person can more cognitively process through the stages and better identify their progress.

Spoken language is language produced by articulate sounds, as opposed to written language. Many languages have no written form and so are only spoken. Oral language or vocal language is language produced with the vocal tract, as opposed to sign language, which is produced with the hands and face. The term "spoken language" is sometimes used to mean only vocal languages, especially by linguists, making all three terms synonyms by excluding sign languages. Others refer to sign language as "spoken", especially in contrast to written transcriptions of signs.

In spoken language, much of the meaning is determined by the context. That contrasts with written language in which more of the meaning is provided directly by the text. In spoken language, the truth of a proposition is determined by common-sense reference to experience, but in written language, a greater emphasis is placed on logical and coherent argument. Similarly, spoken language tends to convey subjective information, including the relationship between the speaker and the audience, whereas written language tends to convey objective information.

The relationship between spoken language and written language is complex. Within the field of linguistics the current consensus is that speech is an innate human capability, and written language is a cultural invention. However some linguists, such as those of the Prague school, argue that written and spoken language possess distinct qualities which would argue against written language being dependent on spoken language for its existence.

Both vocal and sign languages are composed of words. In vocal languages, words are made up from a limited set of vowels and consonants, and often tone. In sign languages, words are made up from a limited set of shapes, orientations, locations movements of the hands, and often facial expressions; in both cases, the building blocks are called phonemes. In both vocal

and sign languages, words are grammatically and prosodically linked into phrases, clauses, and larger units of discourse.

Hearing children acquire as their first language the language that is used around them, whether vocal or signed. Deaf children will do the same with sign language if one is used around them. Vocal language must be consciously taught to them in the same way that written language must be taught to hearing children.

Intelligent vocal sounds (speech) inherent of a specific linguistic anthology, interpreted in such a way that a collection of specific recognizable created characters (alphabetical signs) were allocated to specific sounds (speech and words) indicating specific meaning (objects, subjects and verbs) and with relevant connecting rules, ideas could be formulated and preserved as simple or complex sentences in written language.

When a tongue is in a recognizable written form, the clans traditions and history (culture) is correctly preserved depending on the circumstances of the relevant period and the integrity of the historian (scribe). This contributes to the culture's self-respect, an entity of its own and in a greater cosmos, an equal to others. Written language is an easy way to enhance the inheritance of culture, standards and uniformity, to accumulate and bequeath knowledge and skills and the profit is belonging and the realization of accomplishment.

A written language is the representation of a spoken or gestural language by means of a writing system. Written language is an invention in that it must be taught to children, who will pick up spoken language (oral or sign) by exposure even if they are not specifically taught.

A written language exists only as a complement to a specific spoken language, and no natural language is purely written. However, extinct languages may be, in effect, purely written if only their writings survive

The invention of writing is one of the greatest intellectual achievements of man. Human memory does not last long and the storage capacity of the brain is limited, but this problem is overcome over distance as well as over time. Writing is essential for a people to develop literature, recorded history, and technology. Groups without writing therefore do not go beyond a

certain stage in culture. Only a written language allows the possibility of information storage, so that inventions and discoveries will not be lost, but can be added to and developed further. Writing can thus be defined as follows:

"Writing is a human communication system set up by convention, which represents language as a sequence of symbols. These symbols should be able to be transmitted and received, must be mutually understood, and must represent spoken words. Writing reproduces spoken language in the form of symbols".

Writing is a medium of human communication that creates language and through the inscription or recording of signs, symbols, characters and letters. In most languages, writing is a complement to speech or spoken language. Writing is not a language but a form of technology that developed as tools advanced with human society. Within a language system, writing relies on many of the same structures as speech, such as vocabulary, grammar and semantics, with the added dependency of a system of signs or symbols. The result of writing is generally called text, and the recipient of text is called a reader. Motivations for writing include publication, storytelling, correspondence and diary. Writing has been instrumental in keeping history, maintaining culture, dissemination of knowledge through the media and the formation of legal systems.

The major writing systems—methods of inscription—broadly fall into four categories: logographic, syllabic, alphabetic, and featural.

A logogram is a written character which represents a word or morpheme.

A syllabify is a set of written symbols that represent syllables.

An alphabet is a set of symbols, each of which represents or historically represented a phoneme of the language.

A featural script notates the building blocks of the phonemes that make up a language.

Another category, ideographic (symbols for ideas), has never been developed sufficiently to represent language. A sixth category, pictographic, is insufficient to represent language on its own, but often forms the core of logo-graphics.

Good writing is essential for success in school and the 21st Century workplace. Writing is a complex combination of skills which is best taught by breaking down the process. The writing process involves a series of steps to follow in producing a finished piece of writing. Educators have found that by focusing on the process of writing, almost everyone learns to write successfully. By breaking down writing step-by-step, the mystery is removed and writer's block is reduced. Most importantly, students discover the benefits of constructive feedback on their writing, and they progressively master, and even enjoy, writing.

Steps in the Writing Process

1. ***Pre-writing:*** This is the planning phase of the writing process, when students brainstorm, research, gather and outline ideas, often using diagrams for mapping out their thoughts. Audience and purpose should be considered at this point, and for the older students, a working thesis statement needs to be started.
2. ***Drafting:*** Students create their initial composition by writing down all their ideas in an organized way to convey a particular idea or present an argument. Audience and purpose need to be finalized.
3. ***Revising:*** Students review, modify, and reorganize their work by rearranging, adding, or deleting content, and by making the tone, style, and content appropriate for the intended audience. The goal of this phase of the writing process is to improve the draft.
4. ***Editing:*** At this point in the writing process, writers proofread and correct errors in grammar and mechanics, and edit to improve style and clarity. Having another writer's feedback in this stage is helpful.
5. ***Publishing:*** In this last step of the writing process, the final writing is shared with the group. Sharing can be accomplished in a variety of ways, and with the help of computers, it can even be printed or published online.

Language and Culture

A language can be defined as a system of signs (verbal or otherwise) intended for communication. It is a system since its constituent components relate to each other in an intricate and yet organized fashion. Again, it is intended for communication, for it can be safely assumed that we speak to pass on information to others. But communication is not the only function of language. In fact, language can be used for dreaming, internal monologue, soliloquy, poetry, etc. For the sake of this discussion, we take the position that, essentially, language plays a communicative role.

Language as one element of culture has a very important role in human life. Language allows a person communicating with others in meeting their needs. Thus, it can be said is the main function of language as a communication tool. This does not mean that the language has only one function. Another function is as a tool to express self-expression, a tool to make integration and social adaptation, as well as a tool to hold social control.

Based on these functions, it is inferred that "Language is a means of communication between members of the public symbol of the sound produced by means of said human". Further it is mentioned that "Language is a symbol of the sound produced by means of said human, and the system has means that are arbitrary; used by men in her life as a means of communication between each other to form, express, and communicate thoughts and feelings.

The Concise Oxford Dictionary defines culture as “customs, civilization and achievements of a particular time or people.” In general terms then, culture defines a people’s way of life. Indeed, it can be considered as the sum total of norms and values espoused and cherished by a particular people. If values are patterns of behavior, norms are standards of behavior.

Culture is symbolic communication. Some of its symbols include a group's skills, knowledge, attitudes, values, and motives. The meanings of the symbols are learned and deliberately perpetuated in a society through its institutions.

Understanding language

Language is at the heart of language teaching and learning and teachers need to constantly reflect on what language is. This is because our understandings of language affect the ways we teach languages.

Language as code

Traditionally, language is viewed as a code. In this view, language is made up of words and a series of rules that connect words together. If language is only viewed in this way, language learning just involves learning vocabulary and the rules for constructing sentences. This understanding of language is, however, a very narrow one. It sees language as fixed and finite and does not explore the complexities involved in using language for communication.

Language as social practice

An understanding of language as 'open, dynamic, energetic, constantly evolving and personal' encompasses the rich complexities of communication. This expanded view of language also makes educational experience more engaging for students. Language is not a thing to be studied but a way of seeing, understanding and communicating about the world and each language user uses his or her language(s) differently to do this. People use language for purposeful communication and learning a new language involves learning how to use words, rules and knowledge about language and its use in order to communicate with speakers of the language. This understanding of language sees a language not simply as a body of knowledge to be learnt but as a social practice in which to participate. Language is something that people do in their daily lives and something they use to express, create and interpret meanings and to establish and maintain social and interpersonal relationships.

If language is a social practice of meaning-making and interpretation, then it is not enough for language learners just to know grammar and vocabulary. They also need to know how that language is used to create and represent meanings and how to communicate with others and to engage with the communication of others. This requires the development of awareness of the nature of language and its impact on the world.

Our understanding of language, as languages educators, becomes part of our professional stance and, as such, influences our curriculum, planning and classroom pedagogies. Teachers who view language simply as code make acquiring grammar and vocabulary the primary, if not the only, goal of language learning. Within such a limited approach, students do not begin to engage with language as a communicative reality but simply as an intellectual exercise or as a work requiring memorizing.

A professional stance that understands language as a social practice requires students to engage in tasks in which they create and interpret meaning, and in which they communicate their own personal meanings and develop personal connections with the new language.

The understanding of language that is part of our stance also affects what happens in the classroom and the ways in which learners begin to understand the relationship between their own languages and the languages of their learning. If the language learning program focuses on the code, then it models a theory of language in which the relationship between two languages is simply a matter of code replacement, where the only difference is a difference in words. If the language pedagogies focus on the interpretation and creation of meaning, language is learned as a system of personal engagement with a new world, where learners necessarily engage with diversity at a personal level.

Within a professional stance that understands language as a social practice, teachers need to ensure that students are provided with opportunities to go beyond what they already know and to learn to engage with unplanned and unpredictable aspects of language. Learning language as a complex, personal communication system involves ongoing investigation of language as a dynamic system and of the way it works to create and convey meanings. This involves learners in analysis and in talking analytically about language. Kramsch (1993) notes that: ‘talk about talk is what the classroom does best and yet this potential source of knowledge has not been sufficiently tapped, even in communicatively oriented classrooms’. The emphasis on ongoing investigation and analysis assumes that learners are involved in learning which promotes exploration and discovery rather than only being passive recipients of knowledge as it is

transmitted to them by others. These learners require learning skills which will give them independence as users and analyzers' of language.

Understanding culture

Cultures varies from one another and it shares four major components, these are the communication, cognitive, material and behavioral aspects.

Communication components include language and symbols. Through having a language, a group of people interact with one another, socially sharing their thoughts, feelings or ideas to the people with same language.

Language forms the core of all cultures throughout society. The symbols are considered as the backbone of symbolic interactions. A symbol might be considered as anything that holds a particular meaning and are recognized by the people that shares the same culture. Different cultures have different symbols, it is cross-culturally and it might be change over a period of time.

The second major component of culture is the cognitive component. It includes Ideas, Knowledge and Belief, Values and Accounts.

Ideas, Knowledge and Belief are basic units of knowledge construction. Ideas are considered as mental representation and are used to organize stimulus. When Ideas are link together it will organize into larger systems of information which will become knowledge.

Knowledge now is considered as a storage of information fact or assumption, and these knowledge can be passed down from one generation to another.

Belief on the other hand assumes that a proposition, statement, description of fact are true in nature. These acceptance were influenced by the external authorities such as government, religion, or science rather than proven true from the individual's direct experiences.

Values serve as guidelines for social living. Culturally, it can be defined as the standards of desirability, goodness and beauty.

Accounts are considered to be a way on how people use the language for their explanation, justification, or to rationalize, excuse, or legitimize a behavior towards themselves or to the others.

The third major component of culture is the behavioral components. Behavioral component is the major component of culture that is concerned about on how we act. It includes norms which further categorizes into Mores, Laws, Folkway, and Rituals.

Norms are considered as rules and expectations eventually set by a particular society that serve as guides to the behavior of its members. It varies in the terms of the degrees of importance and might be change over a period of time. It is reinforced by sanctions in the forms or rewards and punishments. These are standards accepted by society culturally and serves as obligatory and expected behavior's of the people in different situations in life.

Mores are kinds of norms that are considered to be as a customary behavior patterns which have taken from a moralistic value.

Laws serve as the formal and important norms that translated into legal formalizations. Folkways are considered as behavioral patterns of a particular society that is repetitive and organize. Rituals on the other hand are those highly scripted ceremonies of interactions which follows a sequence of actions. Examples are baptism, holidays and more.

The fourth major component of culture is the Material component. This includes materials or objects created by humans for practical use or for artistic reasons. These objects are called as “material culture”. Material components serves as an expression of an individual culture.

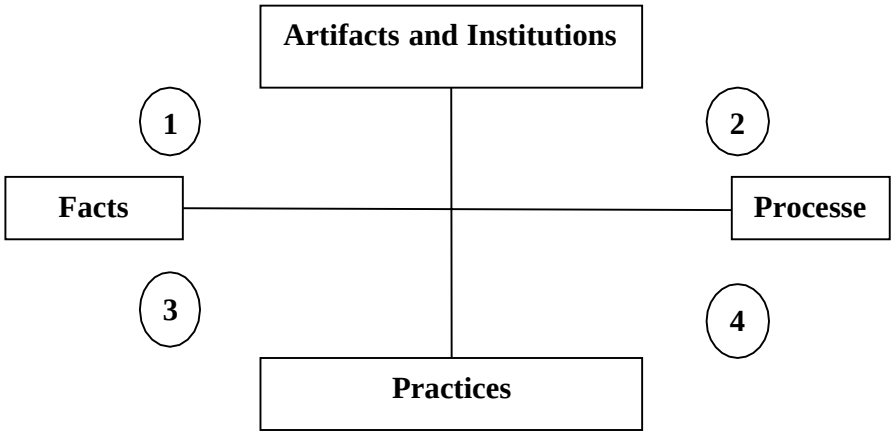
One way in which culture has often been understood is as a body of knowledge that people have about a particular society. This body of knowledge can be seen in various ways: as knowledge about cultural artifacts or works of art; as knowledge about places and institutions; as knowledge about events and symbols; or as knowledge about ways of living. It is also possible to consider this aspect of culture in terms of information and to teach the culture as if it were a set of the learnable rules which can be mastered by students. When translated into language teaching

and learning, this knowledge-based view of culture often takes the form of teaching information about another country, its people, its institutions, and so on. Culture is not, however, simply a body of knowledge but rather a framework in which people live their lives and communicate shared meanings with each other.

Static and dynamic approaches to culture

In thinking about how to teach culture in the language classroom, it is useful to consider how the ways in which culture is presented can be categorised. The diagram below (adapted from Liddicoat, 2005) is one way of thinking this through.

Approaches to teaching culture



1. Static approach to cultural learning and content.
2. Static approach to content dynamic approach to learning.
3. Static approach to learning dynamic approach to content.
4. Dynamic approach – active engagement with practices of a cultural group.

One dimension is the axis of culture as facts or as processes: that is, whether culture is seen as a static body of information about characteristics of a society or as a dynamic system through which a society constructs, represents, enacts and understands itself. The second axis represents the way in which culture is conceived in terms of educational content. It makes a

distinction between artefacts and institutions and practices: that is, whether culture is seen in terms of the things produced by a society or as the things said and done by members of a society.

The most static way to approach the teaching of a culture typically emphasizes artifacts, institutions and factual knowledge. Both the approach to culture learning and the content itself are static. The lower left quadrant adopts a static approach to the nature of learning, but a more dynamic approach to the content, whereas the top right quadrant is static in terms of its content, but dynamic in terms of its approach to learning (eg as in activities in which learners engaged with cultural artifacts in a hands on way). The most dynamic approach to culture is represented by the lower right hand quadrant, which sees learners actively engage with the practices of a cultural group.

The intercultural dimension

Knowledge of cultures is important for facilitating communication with people. Therefore learners of languages need to learn about and understand cultures. Understanding culture as practices with which people engage becomes centrally important. This means that in the language classroom it is not just a question of learners developing knowledge about another culture but of learners coming to understand themselves in relation to some other culture. This is why there is a contemporary emphasis on 'intercultural'. Learning to be intercultural involves much more than just knowing about another culture: it involves learning to understand how one's own culture shapes perceptions of oneself, of the world, and of our relationship with others. Learners need to become familiar with how they can personally engage with linguistic and cultural diversity.

There is another way to think about culture in language teaching: the distinction between a cultural perspective and an intercultural perspective (Liddicoat, 2005).

This 'cultural' pole implies the development of knowledge about culture which remains external to the learner and is not intended to confront or transform the learner's existing identity, practices, values, attitudes, beliefs and worldview. The 'intercultural' pole implies the transformational engagement of the learner in the act of learning.

The goal of learning is to decentre learners from their own culture-based assumptions and to develop an intercultural identity as a result of an engagement with an additional culture. Here the borders between self and other are explored, problematised and redrawn.

Taking an intercultural perspective in language teaching and learning involves more than developing knowledge of other people and places. It means learning that all human beings are shaped by their cultures and that communicating across cultures involves accepting both one's own culturally conditioned nature and that of others and the ways in which these are at play in communication. Learning another language can be like placing a mirror up to one's own culture and one's own assumptions about how communication happens, what particular messages mean and what assumptions one makes in one's daily life. Effective intercultural learning therefore occurs as the student engages in the relationships between the cultures that are at play in the language classroom. Such learning involves much more than just developing knowledge about some other culture and its language.

The intercultural framework proposed here, then, consists of three intersecting dimensions for understanding approaches to the teaching of culture in language learning:

- The nature of content: artifact-practice
- The nature of learning: fact-process
- The nature of the educational effect: cultural-intercultural.

In learning about culture in the language classroom, we need to draw on our own experiences of language and culture as they are encountered when trying to create and interpret meanings. The ability to learn beyond the classroom is probably more important than any particular information that students may learn about another culture during their schooling. This is because it is impossible to teach *all* of any culture because cultures are variable and diverse. As languages educators, we know that what we can teach in the classroom is inevitably only a partial picture of a language and culture. By acknowledging that limitation in our own teaching, we are less likely to develop stereotypical views of the cultures we are teaching about. Learning how to learn about culture means that, as people engage with new aspects of culture, they develop their knowledge and awareness and find ways of acting according to their new learning.

One way of developing intercultural capabilities is through an interconnected set of activities involving:

- Noticing cultural similarities and differences as they are made evident through language
- Comparing what one has noticed about another language and culture with what one already knows about other languages and cultures
- Reflecting on what one's experience of linguistic and cultural diversity means for oneself: how one reacts to diversity, how one thinks about diversity, how one feels about diversity and how one will find ways of engaging constructively with diversity
- Interacting on the basis of one's learning and experiences of diversity in order to create personal meanings about one's experiences, communicate those meanings, explore those meanings and reshape them in response to others.

A dynamic relationship between language and culture is always at play. It is through exploration of the interactions of language and culture that this awareness and the ability to act on it can be developed.

Relationship between Language and culture

Culture is a product of the human mind and it is defined, propagated and sustained through language. The relation between language and culture is indisputably symbiotic.

Language serves as an expression of culture without being entirely synonymous with it. In most cases, a language forms a basis for ethnic, regional, national or international identity.

The relationship between language and culture is deeply rooted. Language is used to maintain and convey culture and cultural ties. Different ideas stem from differing language use within one's culture and the whole intertwining of these relationships start at one's birth.

When an infant is born, it is not unlike any other infant born, in fact, quite similar. It is not until the child is exposed to their surroundings that they become individuals in and of their cultural group. This idea, which describes all people as similar at birth, has been around for thousands of years and was discussed by Confucius as recorded in the book by his followers,

Analects (Xu, 1997). From birth, the child's life, opinions, and language are shaped by what it comes in contact with. Brooks (1968) argues that physically and mentally everyone is the same, while the interactions between persons or groups vary widely from place to place. Patterns which emerge from these group behaviours and interactions will be approved of, or disapproved of. Behaviours which are acceptable will vary from location to location thus forming the basis of different cultures. It is from these differences that one's view of the world is formed. Hantrais (1989) puts forth the idea that culture is the beliefs and practices governing the life of a society for which a particular language is the vehicle of expression. Therefore, everyone's views are dependent on the culture which has influenced them, as well as being described using the language which has been shaped by that culture. The understanding of a culture and its people can be enhanced by the knowledge of their language. This brings us to an interesting point brought up by Emmitt and Pollock (1997), who argue that even though people are brought up under similar behavioural backgrounds or cultural situations but however speak different languages, their world view may be very different. As Sapir-Whorf argues, different thoughts are brought about by the use of different forms of language. One is limited by the language used to express one's ideas. Different languages will create different limitations, therefore a people who share a culture but speak different languages, will have different world views. Still, language is rooted in culture and culture is reflected and passed on by language from one generation to the next. From this, one can see that learning a new language involves the learning of a new culture. Consequently, teachers of a language are also teachers of culture.

The implications of language being completely entwined in culture, in regards for language teaching and language policy are far reaching. Language teachers must instruct their students on the cultural background of language usage, choose culturally appropriate teaching styles, and explore culturally based linguistic differences to promote understanding instead of misconceptions or prejudices. Language policy must be used to create awareness and understandings of cultural differences, and written to incorporate the cultural values of those being taught.

An understanding of the relationship between language and culture is important for language learners, users, and for all those involved in language education. For language teachers and learners in general, an appreciation for the differences in opinion regarding the relationship

between language and culture can help to illuminate the diversity of views held toward the use of language. Moreover, insight into the various views can assist not only second language learners but also first language users, as the way we choose to use language is not just important for some of us. Such insights also open the door for a consideration of how both language and culture influence people's life perceptions, and how people make use of their pre-acquainted linguistic and cultural knowledge to assess those perceptions. For all language users, the recognition of how their language affects others can greatly impact the direction and motivation for both language study and interpersonal relationships, and it can also add great insight and value to language education, program planning, and curriculum development.

Understanding the nature of the relationship between language and culture is central to the process of learning another language. In actual language use, it is not the case that it is only the forms of language that convey meaning. It is language in its cultural context that creates meaning: creating and interpreting meaning is done within a cultural framework. In language learning classrooms, learners need to engage with the ways in which context affects what is communicated and how. Both the learner's culture and the culture in which meaning is created or communicated have an influence on the ways in which possible meanings are understood. This context is not a single culture as both the target language and culture and the learner's own language and culture are simultaneously present and can be simultaneously engaged. Learning to communicate in an additional language involves developing an awareness of the ways in which culture interrelates with language whenever it is used.

According to Sapir (1921), "language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desire by means of voluntarily produced symbols." Language is a part of culture and a part of human behavior.

It is often held that the function of language is to express thought and to communicate information. Language also fulfills many other tasks such as greeting people, conducting religious service, etc.

Krech（1962）explained the major functions of language from the following three aspects:

- Language is the primary vehicle of communication;

- Language reflects both the personality of the individual and the culture of his history. In turn, it helps shape both personality and culture;
- Language makes possible the growth and transmission of culture, the continuity of societies, and the effective functioning and control of social group.

In developing a professional stance to language teaching, it is important to consider how language as code and language as social practice are balanced in the curriculum. In developing language capabilities, students need to develop their knowledge and understanding of the code and also to come to see language as a way of communicating between people. Both of these goals need to be present in language teaching and learning from the beginning.

Language is the principal means on which society resides. The relation between language and culture is deeply rooted in the way that language reflects culture of one society and its world views. In practice there is an unequivocal tendency of identifying language and culture. In order to identify culturing of language, one often encounters expressions such as: "language and culture are inseparable", "language and culture are intimately connected", "language is culture and culture is language." Language reflects and conveys culture and cultural connections. Language can be, of course, as a part of culture, simply defined as a sum of beliefs and practices in society. On the other hand, culture is the product of socially and historically situated discourse communities, created and shaped by language.

CONCLUSION

Language is a constituent element of civilization. It raised man from a savage state to the plane which he was capable of reaching. Man could not be civilized being except by language. An essential point in which man differs from animals is that man alone is the sole possessor of language. Culture is a product of the human mind and it is defined, propagated and sustained through language. The relationship between language and culture is deeply rooted. Language is used to maintain and convey culture and cultural ties.

QUESTION FOR DISCUSSION AND REFLECTION

1. Discuss meaning of language.
2. Explain concept of language.
3. Enumerate the function of language.
4. What do you mean by home language? Discuss the influence of home language on learning.
5. What is school language? Describe the influence of school language on learning.
6. Discuss the importance of understanding the language background of the learner.
7. Compare and contrast various stages of L1 and L2 acquisition.
8. Discuss the relationship between language and culture.

UNIT-II : LANGUAGE DIVERSITY IN CLASSROOMS

Course Objectives

At the end of the unit, the student – teachers will be able to

- enable the student to understand first language and second language acquisition.
- understand the relationship between language mastery and subject mastery.
- acquire the knowledge of language acquisition and development

Introduction

Language as a subject is the designation used to refer to the teaching of a national/official language (and associated literature), e.g. the teaching of French in France, Greek in Greece, etc. Language as a subject has become increasingly multi-faceted in recent years. This has affected aims and content, with the advent of new media, new technologies and new demands on young people but the way in which the subject has traditionally been conceived also needs to change. In countries with more than one national language, the conception of language as a subject has never been simple.

FIRST LANGUAGE AND SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Language and Meaning

A common starting point for talking about language is to refer to the different functions it serves to communicate ideas and to express emotion, develop understanding, cement social interaction and so on. When someone says ‘pass the salt’ and the salt gets passed at the table, this suggests a simple relationship between the word ‘salt’ and the object itself. However, a moment’s reflection reveals that this is not true of less concrete terms such as ‘intelligence’, ‘education’, ‘language’ or ‘literature’ (and many philosophers would argue that this account of meaning is not true of any type of language).

Some theorists argue that to claim that language is acquired naturally is to deny the way language has meaning in cultural contexts. Others retort that this is not what is meant by the term ‘natural’ in that context. Differences in opinion often centre on uses of terms; the different

intentions of speakers mean that communication is sometimes difficult. Attempting to communicate with another person in any context other than the highly trivial is not necessarily straightforward because people view the world from their own perspectives. Language users, who take the view that the meaning of language is fundamentally clear and transparent, may attribute difficulties to lack of clarity or obtuseness on the part of the listener. The view, therefore, that meaning is derived through tacit negotiation in social contexts has important pedagogical implications. It suggests that ambiguity and uncertainty should not be seen as strange, aberrant uses of language but are fundamental to the nature of language. On this view literature (where ambiguity is often celebrated) far from being an optional extra is central to a language curriculum because it explicitly addresses nuances and subtleties of language. This view of meaning also has implications for both the nature and importance of listening. Listening is not just a simple matter of decoding and understanding surface content but it means being sensitive to context, to non–verbal behavior, to intention and perhaps, above all, to the potential for misunderstanding. This type of intercultural sensitivity and ability to decentre required to understand a foreign language is also relevant to understand all languages, more so than is often thought of. This is a further argument for a holistic view and the value of seeing foreign language acquisition and language as school subject in relation to each other.

The idea that meaning arises through use, through agreements in culture or 'forms of life' and not just by attaching names to objects or phenomena in the world has been influential in much modern thinking about language. The idea that language has meaning in a 'form of life' is in total contrast to the idea of language simply as a system of signs. It emphasises instead that language is embedded in the significant behaviour (including non-linguistic behaviour) of human beings. It does not mean that grammatical structures are not important but the bedrock of meaning is in its use. On this view the starting point for teachers in the classroom must then be the use of language with technical terminology and study of the conventions of language playing a supportive rather than dominant role.

Language and learning

The insight that language has functions beyond communication, particularly that use of language is intricately related to the development of thought, has had important consequences for teaching, Theorists have differed on the precise relationship between language and thinking and

in the past have perhaps over-emphasized the degree to which language actually determines thought. It is perhaps more accurate to see language and thought as interdependent rather than to assert that they are identical or to try to say whether one determines the other but acknowledgement of the way they are intricately connected has underpinned important pedagogical considerations. Realization of the nature of the relationship between language and learning meant that more stress was placed on the use of exploratory talk in the classroom in order to allow the expression and development of concepts. It is through language that learners can bring to explicit awareness what formerly they only had a sense of. If language use is seen as a primary means of learning, the learner needs to be seen as an active participant, using language to explore, develop and refine concepts not just to communicate them. This, of course, is true within all subjects of the curriculum and provides a theoretical foundation for the concept of language across the curriculum. If, in contrast, language is considered solely as a system of communication, this tends to relegate the learner to a mere passive role as a receiver of knowledge.

Language also has a key role in personal development, in exploring and defining responses and feelings. This leads to the view that one key aim of language as a school subject is the personal growth of the learner. This approach has often been related to what is referred to as the more creative or expressive uses of language e.g. writing stories, poems, personal reminiscences often in response to literature. The different aims of language as a school subject can lead to unhelpful polarization, with advocates of a personal growth view opposed by those who see that the primary aim of language as a school subject is the development of functional literacy so that the learner can meet the demands of adult society. These polarized views can be avoided, to some degree, by placing theoretical perspectives on language at the fore; language is inextricably connected with the growth of learning of all kinds and this needs to be acknowledged in the way language as a school subject is conceived.

Language Acquisition

The conventions of a language are learned by interacting with experienced users, i.e. adults, of that culture. However, linguistic interchange can be false or, otherwise, deceptive without prior semantic knowledge. Humans acquire perception and comprehension of language through language acquisition. This also allows them the capability to reproduce this knowledge in conversations with others. Humans are not limited to a finite vocabulary. New words and

phrases are constantly being coined especially with regard to scientific and technological fields. What scientists still fail to pinpoint is precisely how first and second languages are acquired. All sentences are built from syntactical units that have been assigned specific places or word order in a sentence.

Language acquisition and development

There is a considerable literature dealing with how children acquire language in the process of cognitive development, much of it emphasizing the importance of active use of language. In other words the child acquires vocabulary and rules of language within situations in which language is used. Psychological perspectives on language acquisition, therefore, relate to philosophical ideas about language and meaning in that both stress the importance of social and cultural contexts. A central idea which has had a significant effect on the teaching of language as a school subject is that language develops by its active use in meaningful contexts rather than just by narrow instruction in skills. This does not mean, however, that there is an easy consensus on the precise balance between the two. Some critics have taken the view that 'language in use' approach can be taken to extremes. A traditional error in teaching language as a school subject was to concentrate on de-contextualized grammar exercises and skills at the expense of meaning; but to many critics it was equally mistaken to concentrate exclusively on the use of language without taking opportunities to focus on language itself. A Framework for Language Education would have a role in laying out the different positions and suggesting how, in practice, they can be integrated in order to inform practice.

Changing perspectives in linguistics also had a significant influence on thinking about the teaching of language. The fact that language is a rule-governed system can lead to a prescriptive view of language which seeks to lay down the rules of 'correct' usage and asserts that one type of language is superior to another. The move to more descriptive approaches aimed at not evaluating different uses of language but instead describing them, to say how people actually do speak, not how they should speak. The dismissal of prescriptivism is a standard theme in books both in linguistics and language teaching but the polarization between 'descriptive' and 'prescriptive' approaches does not necessarily resolve all the issues for the teacher of language as a school subject. The abandonment of notions of 'right' and 'wrong', 'correct' and 'incorrect'

which do not sit comfortably within a descriptive approach to language can leave the teacher feel rootless and directionless in terms of actual classroom practice where common sense suggests that notions of 'accuracy' in language use still has relevance.

Theory and pedagogy

There is unlikely to be a simple causal relationship between theory (including the results of empirical research) and practice in the classroom or the formation of policy. Many questions about the teaching of language as school subject are inextricably tied with questions of value and priorities. It is important, however, to have some understanding of the different debates and how theoretical perspectives have influenced them to ensure that thinking is broadened and judgments are appropriately formed.

There is no one correct way of describing general approaches to the teaching of language as a school subject. Broad summaries will inevitably oversimplify but may be useful in identifying patterns of practice. What might be termed a 'progressive' approach recognized the importance of emotion and subjectivity in learning but some critics erred in its overemphasis on undisciplined self expression. More traditional approaches which identified the importance of tradition, criticism and the public element in learning could be said to have placed insufficient emphasis on the importance of subjectivity and creativity. Approaches to the teaching of language as school subject which have been highly influenced by socio-linguistics recognized the importance of the active use of language and of allowing pupils to formulate their own responses but have been criticized for reducing the content of lessons to a form of social studies and neglecting the aesthetic dimensions of language. A Framework for Language Education would help the users to evaluate the type of emphasis in their own approach.

Subject skills

Aims for developing skills in language as a subject concern a balance between receptive skills (listening and reading) and productive skills (speaking and writing). Both the skills are equally important and they are interconnected. When the students read a text, they also speak or write about what they read or listen to their peers' opinions about the text. In this way, their own understanding about the text is enriched. Nevertheless, there can be different contexts of learning and different perspectives on the importance of certain skills. For example, in education systems,

which have vocational as well as academic schools, the priority given in practice to oral or written communication may differ.

Language and literature

Language can be embodied in a curriculum as 'system of language', implying a descriptive academic approach or as 'language in use', associated with a communicative perspective. Both approaches are used in different degrees in many curricula. Some knowledge of grammar and vocabulary is a necessary basis for developing linguistic competences. Reflection on language evolution or on the linguistic varieties of a language is also based on information to be analyzed and compared. To strengthen learners' linguistic competence, it is important to build on their knowledge of different languages or variety of languages and to provide a diversity of contexts in which languages are used.

Teaching approaches in language as subject: genres and tasks

The main difficulty in this field is to find an appropriate balance between competences, values and attitudes, on the one hand, and contents, on the other, bearing in mind that the process of teaching and learning is to be a formative one. Teachers have to deal with students' linguistic knowledge to develop their linguistic competences, to develop and use their textual knowledge for strengthening reading competence and to stimulate interest in cultural knowledge in order to develop students' participation in culture. They may use analytic and holistic approaches, text-oriented, process-oriented or learner-oriented strategies, formative and summative assessment.

In practical terms different broad approaches to planning of the language as subject curriculum tend to be used, based, for example, on themes, specific texts or language skills. The concept of 'genre' has also emerged as a key consideration when thinking about approaches to language as subject. At one level the term 'genre' seems straight-forward, referring to 'types' or 'kinds' of text or utterances; its appeal, therefore, as an organising principle for the curriculum is evident. Literature used to be conceived in terms of the three traditional genres: poetry, prose, drama which are sub-divided further (tragedy, comedy etc.). The teaching of writing is often conceived in terms of different genres (reports, letters, poems) or as writing for different purposes (to inform, persuade, entertain). However, the way genres are conceptualized should

not be static. Genre categories overlap and to assume that genres can be taught narrowly and explicitly as discrete entities in a linear fashion may lead to oversimplification. The coherence and specificity of genres may vary. For example, within the media there is a difference between simply reporting the news and commenting on the news. Within an approach which stresses the communicative function of language the notion of 'discourse genre' is enlightening. This moves beyond mere text types and takes into account various situations of oral and written language use where structural patterns arise. Because subjects can be conceived in terms of acquisition of 'genre competence', the concept is central to forging links between language as a subject and language in other subjects.

The domains of language as a subject

Language as a subject is usually described in terms of the different domains of writing, reading, speaking and listening and knowledge about language. In practice, these elements are often integrated, as when a text for reading is used as the basis for oral discussion which then becomes a stimulus for a writing task. When describing the language as subject curriculum, the different elements are usually addressed separately; each one raises a variety of issues. For example, the ability to write in a variety of different contexts and for different purposes does not come automatically just from being acquainted with texts through reading. There is a need for systematic approaches to the teaching of writing both at the initial stages of schooling and in later years. Language development in the early years, particularly pre-school, with emphasis on emerging reading and writing is important in providing adequate foundation for the future. Teaching programmes need to ensure progression and a broadening of scope throughout the years of school.

There has been an increasing awareness of the broad contexts of reading within life (in school and beyond) and it has become an aim of formal schooling to cover a wide range of texts. Thus, the domain of reading needs to cover an introduction to the use and understanding of various forms of texts, including expository and literary texts, the media and a wide range of genres. Reading can be described as a cognitive constructive process. It is not enough to describe making meaning when reading a text simply as text reception but it is the result of a complex

text-reader-interaction. Good readers benefit from meta-cognition which allows them to monitor their understanding.

Speaking, interacting and listening competences traditionally have little specific attention in the language as subject curriculum, although the importance of oral activity is now more widely acknowledged. All students need to develop their oral language. Being able to speak and understand a language on a basic level or in a way that indicates fluency does not mean that the student has sufficient competence to master oral genres in a broad sense. The variety of mother tongue backgrounds in many languages as subject classrooms calls for more systematic approaches to enhance proficiency of speech for various purposes and understanding of oral language.

Knowledge about language is often less explicitly distinguished in the language as subject curriculum than speaking and listening, reading and writing, particularly where a language-in-use-approach is more dominant than a focus on language as a system. Aspects of language awareness and reflection are often integrated into working with texts. However, in planning the language as subject curriculum there needs to be consideration of what aspects of knowledge about language and reflection on language need to be included.

DIFFERENCES AND SIMILARITIES BETWEEN FIRST AND SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

The crucial difference between first and second language acquisition according to many is the success of first language acquisition versus the failure of second language acquisition, summed up by Bley-Vroman (1989):

'The lack of general guaranteed success is the most striking characteristic of adult foreign language learning. Normal children inevitably achieve perfect mastery of the language; adult foreign language learners do not… one has the impression of ineluctable success on the one hand and ineluctable failure on the other' (Bley-Vroman, 1989, 42-44)

Ellis (1994, 107) summarised nine differences between L1 acquisition and L2 acquisition, using Bley-Vroman (1988):

1. overall success (L2 learners don't achieve 'perfect mastery')
2. general failure (in L2 acquisition 'complete success is very rare')
3. variation ('L2 learners vary… in success …')
4. goals ('L2 learners may be content with less than target competence …')
5. fossilisation ('L2 learners often cease to develop and also backslide …')
6. intuitions ('L2 learners are often unable to form clear grammaticality judgements …')
7. instruction ('there is a wide belief that instruction helps L2 learners'
8. negative evidence (in L2 'correction generally viewed as helpful…')
9. affective factors ('…play a major role in determining proficiency' in the L2)

Points (1)-(3) are directly concerned with the lack of success of L2 learners. (4) is about lack of 'target competence', presumably another form of failure. Success is implicitly measured in 1-6 as speaking like a native speaker – 'perfect mastery', 'complete success', 'target competence'; point (9) is about proficiency, ambiguous but likely to mean native proficiency. Five of the points boil down to the fact that L2 learners do not speak like native speakers. Incidentally, it is also moot whether the remaining categories actually represent sharp L1/L2 differences: L1 attrition also occurs in various circumstances (point 5); L2 bilingual children are better at grammaticality judgements than monolingual children (point 6); instruction is only one stream of L2 learning (point 7); L2 interactional techniques such as recasts are actually derived from L1 learning research (point 8).

Other explanations put the lack of success down to features of the environment.

- the concentration on the here and now in conversations with children is lost in adult conversation.
- Adults are more likely to be learning in formal classrooms that are less conducive to natural acquisition.

These are in principle changeable; we could treat L2 learner like L1 children linguistically and socially, reducing them to child-like dependence etc. The most extreme suggestion from McNeill (1965) was that L2 learners should memorise the two-word sentences of young L1 children like *more up* to provide them with the 'deep structure' missing in L2 learning.

Facts concerning first and second language acquisition

1. The level of competence acquired with SLA (second language acquisition) depends not so much on the time spent learning a language as the time at which one begins.
2. In general, linguists maintain that the first language is acquired, i.e. the knowledge is stored unconsciously and the second language is learned, i.e. the knowledge is gained by a conscious study of the structure of the second language. However, this distinction is not watertight and SLA can involve acquisition to a certain degree. FLA (first language acquisition) is learned without any instruction. Remember that you know your first language before you start school.
3. There is a critical period, that of puberty, around 12 or 13 years of age, after which it is difficult, if not impossible, to acquire a second language with the same degree of competence as the first language. The decline in ability to acquire a second language may also be connected with the lateralisation of the brain just before puberty, i.e. with the fixing of functions in one or the other of the two halves of the brain. The decline in acquisition ability after lateralisation/puberty is a widespread phenomenon and it affects other activities such as sports, playing music, etc.
4. Because SLA is very largely conscious, it is dependent on factors such as motivation and personality. This does not apply to FLA which is triggered by birth, i.e. it is an instinct in the biological sense of the word. Remember that no-one ever refuses to acquire one's first language and that no-one dislikes one's own first language. Because FLA is an instinct, there is no choice involved. Contrast this with the second language.
5. Note that something which is acquired does not require conscious decisions when activated. However, if you have learned something, like the rule of chess, then you must Raymond Hickey First and second language acquisition: A brief comparison Page 2 of 2 think consciously about how to move the pieces. An unconscious activity, apart from language, acquired in childhood would, for instance, be the ability to ride a bicycle.
6. Your first language is acquired without too much input from your surroundings. Furthermore, this input does not have to be ordered. Children make sense of what they hear and create the order needed to store knowledge of their first language themselves. It

is not necessary to speak to young children in a babyish way. Children do not end up speaking like this any way.

7. First language acquisition is not dependent on intelligence or special ability for languages. Everyone acquires their native language fully and properly. What is true is that some people have a greater stylistic range and larger vocabulary in their native language but that is not connected with first language acquisition. You learn style in school when you learn how to write the standard of your language and you learn specialised words consciously after childhood.
8. First language acquisition is connected to cognitive development with the latter preceding the former somewhat. With the second language (acquired after puberty) you have all the cognitive structures necessary to deal with the language.
9. You cannot forget your first language although it may become inactive if you spend many years speaking just a second language. Backsliding, reverting to a lower level of competence, making mistakes you know mistakes are features of second language acquisition only.
10. There are certain phases in first language acquisition: one-word, two-word and multi-word stages. Furthermore, in early childhood children make maximally simpler generalisations about language, e.g. that all verbs are weak. After a while they correct themselves (when they just hear the adult forms). Once they have acquired the latter, they remember them.
11. In FLA children make errors, systematic ill-formed structures based on the level of acquisition on which they happen to be. In post-puberty SLA individuals make mistakes which are often random and erratic though a degree of regularity can be recognised here. With SLA there can be interference from the first language, i.e. structures from L1 are carried over into L2 where they do not occur natively. Interference obviously does not occur in FLA.
12. FLA children build up competence, the internalised knowledge of one's native language, from the performance of others, i.e. by accepting spoken input from those people surrounding them. The parents are obviously important here but siblings and playmates can play an equally important role if they are present.

13. In a strict sense bilinguals are those individuals who have acquired two languages simultaneously in early childhood. Normally, one of these languages will be dominant, but the degree of competence in the non-dominant language is still very high and it far exceeds that of a second language learned after puberty.

USING OF FIRST AND SECOND LANGUAGES IN THE CLASSROOM

Steven Krashen, with his Natural Approach to language acquisition, proposed that students learn their second language much in the same way that they learn their first and that L2 is best learned through massive amount of exposure to the language with limited time spent using L1. Research has shown that the occasional use of L1 by both students and teachers increases both comprehension and learning of L2.

Teacher's use of L1:

Teachers often use L1 in beginning and intermediate classes to:

• give instructions
• explain meanings of words
• explain complex ideas
• explain complex grammar points

Student's use of L1

Students often use L1 when doing pair work to construct solutions to linguistic tasks and evaluate written language. The use of L1 allows them to work within their Zone of Proximal Development, as proposed by Vygotsky. By working in pairs and using L1 intermittently with L2, students may be cognitively processing at a higher level with regard to linguistic tasks than if they were limited only to communicating in the language they are trying to learn. L1 vocabulary allows learners to use language which they may not yet possess in L2 in order to process ideas and reach higher levels of understanding. This applies both to social talk between partners and private talk intended for the learner alone. Social talk, as the name implies, is talk between peers for the purpose of conversing. Private talk is when learners talk themselves through a learning process. For example, in private talk, they might utter a non-standard L2 phrase and then self-correct: "No, wait, … (L2 phrase corrected)." Private talk can also be used to deconstruct

grammar in real-time as the speaker is using it, such as: "I like the milk…the milk? No, I like milk." However, it is important to point out that students who use L1 for communicative purposes in the classroom must also be expected to use L2 in the classroom to practice its use.

Student's use first language while speaking in order to:

- ask each other clarifying questions
- express frustrations concerning their lack of understanding
- clarify meaning of words in L2
- find new words in L2 which correspond to already known words in L1
- use language to process complex concepts
- build shared meaning while evaluating written tasks through shared discussion

L1 use in written tasks is especially valuable because it helps to clarify and build meaning. It allows learners to repeatedly evaluate and clarify communication with regard to choice of content and register appropriate to the task. This re-evaluation is often done orally, in conversation with a peer or teacher or in private talk.

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN LANGUAGE AS A SCHOOL SUBJECT AND MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

Communication is any form by which two people exchange information. They could use language, but they could also use gesture, facial expressions, signals, mimicry, visual or dramatic art or any number of ways to express that information. Communication is the car and language is the road. The car can go off road or take a different road (a different language).

Meaning of Communication

Communication is the exchange of information between two or more people by speech, sign, signal or behaviour. There are always **4 important elements** in communication: transmitter, signal, channel, and receiver. **Transmitter** is the person who transmits the message and message is known as the signal. **Channel** is the medium in which the message is transmitted. Finally, **Receiver** is the one who receives the message.

Methods of Communication

- **Written communication** involves traditional pen and paper letters and documents, typed electronic documents, e-mails, SMS etc. conveyed through written symbols such as language.
- **Oral communication** involves spoken word, face-to-face or through phone, voice chat, video conferencing or any other medium.
- **Non-verbal Communication** includes facial expressions, body language and gestures as well as quality, tone, pitch of the voice etc.
- Oral and written communication can also be introduced as **linguistic communication** while non-verbal communication can be named as **non-linguistic communication**.

Main Difference – Language Vs Communication

Though communication and language are two interrelated aspects in our day to day life, it is very important to discern the difference between these two terms.

The **main difference** between language and communication is that **communication is the exchange of information** by speaking, writing or by using other medium while **language is a tool used for communication.**

Difference between Language and Communication

Language	Communication
1. Language is an abstract system of symbols and meaning governed by grammatical rules.	1. Communication is the exchange of information between two or more people by speech, sign, signal or behaviour.
2. Language can be used by just one person.	2. Communication involves interaction between two or more people.
3. Language is a method of communication.	3. Communication is a vast area.
4. Language gives more importance to signs and symbols.	4. Communication gives more priority to the message.
5. A living language does not stay static; it changes everyday.	5. The basic of communication does not change.

Definition of Mastery

Mastery is effective transfer of learning in authentic and worthy performance. Students have mastered a subject when they are fluent in using their knowledge, skills and understanding in key performance challenges and contexts.

Thus, effective transfer of learning, done with creativity, polish and grace is the essence of mastery. Mastery is not just technical knowledge. You haven't mastered a subject if you only possess skills and facts in isolation and can only produce them on demand in response to prompts. Mastery must be tested using authentic tasks and scenarios at the heart of "doing" the subject. And instruction for mastery must be designed backward from these corner stone tasks (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005).

MASTERY IN FIRST LANGUAGE AND SUBJECT

There are three main theoretical approaches to a child's first language acquisition. All of them have merit but none can fully explain the phenomenon of child language acquisition.

1. Cognitive theory-- Jean Piaget (1896-1980)

This theory views language acquisition within the context of the child's broader intellectual development. A child first becomes aware of a concept, such as relative size, and only afterwards it acquires the words and patterns to convey that concept. Simple ideas are expressed earlier than more complex ones even if they are grammatically more complicated. Conditional mood is one of the last.

There is a consistent order of mastery of the most common function morphemes in a language. Example from English: first -ing, then *in* and *on*, then the plural -s, last are the forms of the verb *to be*. Seems to be conditioned by logical complexity: plural is simple, while forms of the verb *to be* require sensitivity to both number and tense.

Pros and cons: clearly there is some link between cognitive development and language acquisition. Piaget's theory helps explain the order in which certain aspects of language are acquired. But his theory does not explain why language emerges in the first place. Apes also

develop cognitively in much the same way as young children in the first few years of life but language acquisition doesn't follow naturally from their development. Bees develop the cognitive ability to respond to many shades of colour, but bees never develop any communication signals based on shades of colour.

2. Imitation and positive reinforcement

Children learn by imitating and repeating what they hear from adults. Repetition of new words and phrases is a basic feature of children's speech. This is the behaviourist view popular in the 40's and 50's but challenged since imitation alone cannot possibly account for all language acquisition.

Con: 1) Children often make grammatical mistakes that they couldn't possibly have heard: *Cookies are gooder than bread. Bill taked the toy. We goed to the store, Don't giggle me.*

2) This hypothesis would not account for the many instances when adults do not coach their children in language skills. Positive reinforcement does not seem to speed up the language acquisition process. Children do not respond to or produce meta-language until 3 or 4, after the main portion of the grammar has been mastered. (Children don't comprehend discussions about language structure.)

3. The final theory we will discuss involves the belief in the **innateness of certain linguistic features**. This theory is connected with the writings of Noam Chomsky although it has been around for hundreds of years. Children are born with an innate capacity for learning human language. Humans are destined to speak. Children discover the grammar of their language based on their own inborn grammar. Certain aspects of language structure seem to be preordained by the cognitive structure of the human mind. This accounts for certain very basic universal features of language structure: every language has nouns/verbs, consonants and vowels. It is assumed that children are pre-programmed, hard-wired to acquire such things. (The "gavagai" experiment.)

Stages in child language acquisition -- Universal

1. Pre-speech: Much of the importance goes on even before the child utters his first word: infants learn to pay attention to speech, intonation and the rhythm of speech long before they begin to speak.

Infants respond to speech more keenly than to other sounds. Speech elicits greater electrical activity on the left side of the 2 month old infant's brain than do other sounds. Experiments with microphone and nipple showed that infants suck more vigorously if the action triggers a human voice as opposed to music or other sounds.

Children learn to recognize the distinctive sounds, the phonemes of the language they hear from birth long before they are able to pronounce them. Infants can distinguish between /p/ and /b/ at three or four months (in an experiment with /ba/ played vs. /pa/ a two month infant showed awareness of the change). But children do not learn how to use these sounds until much later -- around the second year or later -- as shown by the experiment with /pok/ and /book/. The same is true of rising vs. falling intonation which only becomes systematically functional much later. Infants know the difference between one language and another by recognition of phonological patterns.

2. Babbling stage. Begins at several months of age. Characterized by indiscriminate utterance of speech sounds, many of which may not be used in the given language but are found in other languages. clicks. Many native speech sounds may be absent -- some are naturally harder to pronounce -- /r/ /th/. Very few consonant clusters and repeated syllables are common.

3. One word (holophrastic) stage. Infants may utter their first word as early as nine months: usually mama, dada (these words resemble babbling). Deaf babies whose parents use sign language begin making their first word/gestures around eight months. This stage is characterized by the production of actual speech signs. Often the words are simplified: "du" for duck, "ba" for bottle. When the child has acquired about 50 words, he develops regular pronunciation patterns. This may even distort certain words -- turtle becomes "kurka". Incorrect pronunciations are systematic at this time: all words with /r/ are pronounced as /w/. sick -- thick, thick -- fick. Children tend to perceive more phonemic contrasts than they are able to produce themselves.

The first 50 words tend to be names of important persons, greetings, foods, highlights of the daily routine such as baths, ability to change their environment - *give, take, go, up, down, open*.

Overextension – 'dog' may mean any four legged creature. 'Apple' may mean any round object. 'Bird' may mean any flying object. A child can still distinguish between the differences, simply hasn't learned that they are linguistically meaningful. Dissimilarities linguistically redundant.

Two patterns in a child's word learning:

Referential -- names of objects. **Expressive** -- personal desires and social interactions: bye-bye, hi, good,

This is a continuum. A child's place on this continuum is partly due to parent's style: naming vs. pointing. The extra-linguistic context provides much of the speech info. Rising and falling intonation may or may not be used to distinguish questions from statements at the one-word stage. Words are left out if the contexts make them obvious. At this stage, utterances show no internal grammatical structure (much like the sentence yes in adult speech which can't be broken down into subject, predicate, etc.)

4. Combining words-- 18 months -- 2 years. By two and a half years most children speak in sentences of several words but their grammar is far from complete. This stage rapidly progresses into what has been termed a fifth and final stage of language acquisition. **All hell breaks loose stage**. By six the child's grammar approximates that of adults.

Grammar

Grammar is the study of words and their function. In its wider sense it may include phonology (pronunciation), morphology (inflectional forms), syntax (the relation of words to other words in phrases, clauses, and sentences) and semantics (meaning of words). In its narrower sense it may deal only with the uses of words.

On the other hand, grammar is the support system of communication and we learn it to communicate better. Grammar explains the why and how of language. We learn it because we

just cannot do without it. Or we can say that grammar is the rules for forming words and making sentences.

Moreover, grammar is a description of the structure of a language and the way in which linguistic units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language. For example, the English sentence: *They walk to school* would be a grammatical sentence according to a grammar of Standard English but the sentence: *They walks to school* would be considered ungrammatical according to such grammar.

UNDERSTANDING OF MULTICULTURALISM IN CLASSROOM

Nature of Multilingualism

Indian multilingualism dates back historically to ancient times when ethnic groups and races came in contact with one another through migration from one region to another. Although political compulsion and social restructuring might have contributed a little to its growth, multilingualism in India was largely a product of close contact between the four language families from the earliest recorded history. This contact had resulted in the growth of India as a linguistic area with certain common features.

Co-existence of many languages, races, cultures and religions has been the essence of Indian heritage. In contrast to this, language uniformity is considered necessary for the economic development in the west. To dissolve the linguistic diversities in the melting pot, and accepting exclusively the dominant language for all purposes such as education, law, administration and mass, communication, is not truly an Indian model.

Multilingual Communication

Globalization has thrust communities into greater contact with each other and compelled us to understand multilingual communication. Developments such as diasporas communities, trans-national relations, migration and digital communication have created more multilingual interactions. As we see the way people negotiate language relationships and develop proficiency in diverse languages, we begin to realize that traditional models of language acquisition and competence lack the capacity to explain contemporary experiences. Less known scholarship on

how language relationships and learning work in non-western communities suggests that what we see around us now is not new. Such forms of multilingual contact and acquisition are characteristic of other multilingual communities from pre-colonial and /or pre-modern times. The assumptions modern linguistics is based on reflect homogeneity and mono-lingualism, and to take account of multilingual realities in diverse contexts and communities.

CONCLUSION

This narrow conception of language as a subject is no longer tenable. Language as a subject is one dimension of the language(s) of schooling which also includes language in other subjects. The languages of education perspective is even wider and it includes the importance of regional, minority and migrant languages. In this unit highlights the first language and second language acquisition. It also signifies to mastery in first language and subject and understanding of multiculturalism in classroom.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION AND REFLECTION

1. Define the domains of language as a subject.
2. What is language acquisition?
3. Differentiate between first and second language acquisition.
4. Describe the facts concerning first and second language acquisition.
5. Discuss the relationship between language mastery and subject mastery.
6. Discuss the nature of multilingualism and describe the features of

UNIT-III POSITION OF MOTHER-TONGUE IN CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION

Course Objectives:

At the end of the unit, the student-teachers will be able to

- understand the position of Mother-Tongue in classroom Instruction.
- develop oral language in the classroom .
- recognize the tools for learning.
- Comprehend the types of questions and teacher control.

INTRODUCTION

One main reason for support of the use of Mother –Tongue as a medium of instruction in lower primary schools was also as a result of the need to preserve Indian cultural. Although Mother-Tongue has been encouraged it has been given a lukewarm reception in the post independence period. In some cases schools have decreed that children be taught in English even in areas where Mother-Tongue should be used.

There is a wonderful proverb in Swedish “Kart barn har manga namn”. The literal translation being “A beloved child has many names”, which is very true for what is generally called the “**mother-tongue**”.

THE RISK OF A FOREIGN LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION

It is not hard to grasp all that is at stake, parents not enrolling their children in school at all, children not able to engage successfully in learning task, teachers feeling overwhelmed by children’s in ability to participate, early experience of school failure and on. Some children do succeed, perhaps through a language transition programme that helps them to acquire the language of instruction. But there is the risk of negative efforts whereby children fail to become linguistically competent members of their families and communities and lose their ability to connect with their cultural heritage.

CHILDREN LEARN BETTER IN THEIR MOTHER-TONGUE

UNESCO has encouraged mother-tongue instruction in primary education since 1953 and UNESCO highlights the advantages of mother- tongue education right from start. Children are more likely to enrol and succeed in school. Parents are more likely to communicate with teachers and participate in their children's learning. Girls and rural children with less exposure to a dominant language stay in school longer and repeat grades less often. Some educators argue that only those countries where the student's first language is the language of instruction are likely to achieve the goals of Education for all.

Preserving Mother-Tongues

Many linguistic groups are becoming vocal about the need to ensure that the youngest members of their communities keep their linguistic heritage. Some governments, such as in many foreign countries have recently established language-in-Education policies that embraces children's first languages. A compendium of examples produced by UNESCO (2008b) attests to growing interest in promoting mother tongue- based education, and to the wide variety of models, tools, and resources now being developed and piloted to promote learning programs in the mother-tongue.

COMMUNICATION PROCESS IN THE CLASSROOM

Communication plays an important and essential role in any formal or informal teaching-learning process. In many ways, teaching is communication and in this sense, all good teachers are good communicators. Communication can be defined as the process of sending and receiving messages that have meaning. In the words of Broker (1949),"Communication is anything that conveys meaning that carries a messages drastically from one person to another"

The communication process

At first glance the communication process, or the steps taken to get message from one mind to another, seems enough.

The process is more complex, though. When communicating, sender encodes the message. That is, he/she chooses some tangible sign (something which can be seen, heard, felt, tasted, or smelled) to carry the message to the receiver. The receiver, in turn, decodes that

message, that is, he finds meaning in it. Yet he signs used in messages have no inherent meaning, the only meaning in the message is what the sender or receiver attributes to it.

Thus, communication is a very complex process that involves the following six elements or factors: -

1. The source or sender:
2. The sender is the person who initiates the messages. The communication process essentially begins with a source or Seder, technically known as encoder.
3. The Message or signal: the message refers to the information or meaning that is transmitted from the sender to the receiver. The message implies the contents of communication-that is the ideas and feelings conveyed to another person. These are a set of verbal or non-verbal cues sent by a sender.
4. The media or channel: The media or channel is the means or medium used to send or receive the message.
5. The Receiver: The receiver is the person who interprets a message sent by a source or sender. In other words, the receiver is the person to whom the message is targeted.
6. Noise or Interference: wherever two people interact, miscommunication can occur. Any stimulus that interferes with accurately expressing or understanding a message is termed as noise. Sources of noise include environment factors (street traffic, loud music), and physical factors (poor hearing, poor vision). Noise can also have semantic origins.

Types of Communication

There are different types of communication. The most significant types are mentioned below

1. Intra-personal and Inter-personal communication:

The dictionary meaning of the word "intra" is within. The intra -personal communication therefore, means the communication that takes place within the individual or within a group.

An individual before communicating his ideas to others must understand his own ideas and decide about those ideas that he wishes to introduce.

2. Verbal and Non-verbal communication:

Verbal communication is a form of communication in which language is used as the key base . Every society has developed one or more forms of language for communication with each other. Non-verbal communication serves a variety of purposes, including sending first impressions such as warm handshake. It also signals emotions and when one wants to either take or relinquish a turn a turn in conversation. On-Verbal signals can also signal when someone is lying; for example, when being deceptive, vocal pitch often rises.

Barriers of effective communication in the classroom:

A" communication barrier" or "a barrier to communication" is anything that interferes intended information from one sender to a receiver.

A communication barrier is anything that impedes the communication process. These barriers are inevitable. While they cannot be avoided, both the sender and receiver can work to minimize them.

Interpersonal communication barriers arise within the sender or receiver. For example, if one person has biases against the topic under discussion, anything said in the conversation will be affected by that perceptual factor.

Organizational barriers arise because of the interaction- taking place within the large work unit. The classic example is the serial transmission effect.

Ways and Means to Make Classroom Communication Effective

1. Consider circumstances: Communication should depend entirely on the situation at hand and the recipient to whom they are given.
2. Emphasize request or suggestion: To the extent possible, classroom communication should be framed as "requests" or "suggestions" rather than abrupt orders. Few students will fail to respond to a formal request from the teacher. On the other hand, suggestions play to the receiver's sense of responsibility. This style is particularly useful with the over sensitive recipient.
3. Give reasons: "selling" a request is recommended whenever feasible. If the recipient understands the reasons behind the request or suggestions, he or she is more likely to respond in the desired manner.

4. Avoid Threats: Effective communication should avoid threatening the receiver. Threats stun and confuse recipients, and are likely to cause resentment and antagonism.
5. Avoid Excessive Solicit or Excuse: Communication that smack "apple-polishing" should be avoided, since they detract from colleague's respect for the initiator.

THE NATURE OF CLASSROOM DISCOURSE, ORAL LANGUAGE IN THE CLASSROOM

The Classroom Discourse

Classroom Discourse is a special type of discourse that occurs in the classroom. Special features of classroom discourse include – unequal power relationship, turn- taking at speaking, patterns of interaction, etc. Classroom Discourse is often different in form and function from language used in other situations because of particular social role which learners and teachers have in the classroom and the kind of activities they usually carried out there.

Analysis of the patterns of interaction characteristics of most classrooms has shown that, on average, teachers talk more than two- thirds of the time, a few students contribute most of the answers, boys talk more than girls, and those sitting in the front and centre of the class are more likely to contribute than those sitting at the back and sides. Bracha Alpert (1991) has identified three different patterns of classroom discourse:

1. SILENT (the teacher talks almost all the time and asks only an occasional question),

2. CONTROLLED (as in the excerpt above), and

3. ACTIVE (the teacher facilities while the students talk primarily to each other)

Recent attempts to reform teaching based on constructivist views of learning have called for teachers to ask fewer questions and for students to learn to state and justify their beliefs and argue constructively about reasons and evidence. One fundamental aspect of classroom discourse is that the teacher talks most of the time.

TYPES OF CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

Neil Mercer (1996) identified three ways of talking and thinking in classrooms:

- Disputation talk (in which knowledge is not developed; learners dispute without seeking any consensus or understanding).
- Cumulative talk (interlocutors make attempts to establish shared frames in which knowledge is built, but unquestioning).
- Exploratory talk (partners engage critically but constructively with each other' ideas; knowledge is built through critical interrogation and reflection, in a relationship of shared power)

ORAL LANGUAGE IN THE CLASSROOM

Oral language skills make a very large contribution to literacy skill. There is a strong relationship between understanding of oral language, word knowledge and reading comprehension. The child's level of skill in producing oral language is likely to be reflected, in time, in the written work he or she is able to produce. It is not the case, though, that just any classroom talk will benefit children's literacy development. Some types of talk are more beneficial than others. Researchers interested in this area have suggested that some types of oral language are more 'literate' than others. By this, they mean that some types of oral language share more features with written language than do other types of oral language. What are these features? If we think about written texts, we can identify three important characteristics:

• Written language is always removed from the context – writing is about things that are not present in the environment. • Written language provides no opportunities for the reader to ask questions about things which may not be clear. • Written language is organised in particular ways, different ways for different types of text.

These features mean that, in writing, language has to be used in particular ways. The overall structure of the piece of writing is important, and providing enough information (using specific language) is also important. It is also true that written language often uses quite complex sentence structures. All very interesting, but how does it relate to oral language? If we think about types of talk, it is clear that some sorts of talk are more 'formal' than others, and that these more formal sorts of talk share the important characteristics of written language. Long turns at

talk, such as those found when children talk about their experiences, need to have an overall structure. The information needs to be organised in ways that make it easier to understand. Talk about things that are not present at the time of talking requires children to use more specific language, and often more complex sentences, than they do when the topic of their talk is available for all to see. In short, classroom activities that provide children with the best foundation for literacy are those that provide them with the opportunity to use long turn talk about topics that are not present in the classroom. Researchers tell us that spoken and written texts are organised in different ways in different languages, and in different dialects.

IMPORTANCE OF ORAL LANGUAGE

Oral language is important for learning a language. It is one of the skills connected with spoken skill. Oral language is the ability to speak in an appropriate way with correct pronunciation and stress. Speaking to learn orally is the vehicle of increasing knowledge. All classroom activities based on Oral language with listening capacities. If you are good at Oral skill it will help you to read well in the classroom. Oral skill pave for good extensive reading. By attainting good oral proficiency we will learn good number of active and passive vocabularies. This will also help you to develop writing skill which is high in the hierarchy of the four skills namely listening, speaking, reading and writing.

DISCUSSION AS A TOOL FOR LEARNING

Classroom discussions are important to building comprehension. Teachers use discussions to engage students and to encourage them to evaluate ideas, justify interpretations, or compare information from several sources, as well as to discuss their own ideas and feelings about what they have learned. Elementary students typically learn new vocabulary through direct experience with concrete objects and events in the environment, high-school students typically learn through verbal interaction with teachers and peers. For high- school students, new words are both the means of communication and the focus or object of communication. By providing an impetus for communication, classroom discussions create opportunities for the introduction, exploration, and use of new vocabulary.

The instructional language that the teachers use during classroom discussions include focusing (focusing on the key aspects of discussion), naming (naming ideas, strategies, or phenomena), and elaborating (elaborating on comments and questions with the intent of eliciting more complex verbal responses of reasoning). In moderating classroom discussions, teachers also use the following types of instructional language: overlapping (with the comments of others to keep conversation flowing), directing (the attention of students to preserve the instructional structure to build relationships).

THE NATURE OF QUESTIONING IN THE CLASSROOM

A question is any sentence which has an interrogative form or function. In classroom settings, teacher questions are defined as instructional cues or stimuli that convey to students the content elements to be learned and directions for what they are to do and how they are to do it. The present review focuses on the relationship between teachers' classroom questioning behaviors and a variety of student outcomes, including achievement, retention, and level of student's participation. This means that certain other subtopics within the general area of questioning are excluded from the present analysis. It does not deal, for example, with the effects of textual questions or test questions, and it is only incidentally concerned with methods used to impart study skills, including questioning strategies, to students. What are the purposes of teachers' classroom questions? A variety of purposes emerge from analysis of the literature, including:

- To develop interest and motivate students to become actively involved in lessons
- To evaluate student's preparation and check on homework or seatwork completion
- To develop critical thinking skills and inquiring attitudes
- To review and summarize previous lessons
- To nurture insights by exposing new relationships
- To assess achievement of instructional goals and objectives
- To stimulate students to pursue knowledge on their own
- These purposes are generally pursued in the context of classroom recitation, defined as a series of teacher questions, each eliciting a student response and sometimes a teacher reaction to that response. Within these recitations, students follow a series of steps

(consciously or unconsciously) in order to produce responses to the questions posed. These steps include:

- Attending to the question
- Deciphering the meaning of the question
- Generating a covert response (i.e., formulating a response in one's mind)
- Generating an overt response; and often
- Revising the response (based on teacher probing or other feedback)

TYPES OF QUESTIONING AND TEACHER CONTROL.

Question Types

The major types of questions fall into four categories:

- Managerial: questions which keep the classroom operations moving;
- Rhetorical: questions used to emphasize a point or to reinforce an idea or statement;
- Closed: questions used to check retention or to focus thinking on a particular point; and
- Open: questions used to promote discussion or student interaction.

Following is a list of question types you can use to analyze your questioning strategies and develop a variety of questions to help students think.

I. Probing Questions

Series of questions which require students to go beyond the first response. Subsequent teacher questions are formed on the basis of the student's response.

Types:

1. Clarifying

Ex: "What, exactly do you mean?"
"Will you please rephrase your statement?"
"Could you elaborate on that point?"

"What did you mean by the term. . .?"

2. Increasing Critical Awareness

Ex: "What are you assuming?"
"What are your reasons for thinking that is so?"
"Is that all there is to it?"
"How many questions are we trying to answer here?"
"How would an opponent of this point of view respond?"

3. Refocusing

Ex: "If this is true, what are the implications for . . .?"
"How does John's answer relate to . . .?"
"Can you relate this to . . .?"
"Let's analyze that answer."

4. Prompting

Ex: Teacher: "John, what's the square root of 94?"
John: "I don't know." Teacher: "Well, what's the square root of 100?"
John: "Ten." Teacher: "And the square root of 81?" John: "Nine."
Teacher: "Then what do we know about the square root of 94?"
John: "It's between nine and ten."

5. Redirecting to Another Student

Ex: Teacher: "What is the theme of Hemmingway's 'Old Man and the Sea'?"
Sam: "It's about an old man's courage in catching a fish."
Teacher: "Mary, do you agree?"
or: "Mary, do you think it's that simple?"
or: "Mary, can you elaborate on Sam's answer?"

II. Factual Questions

Questions which require the student to recall specific information s(he) has previously learned. Often these use who, what, when, where, etc.

Types:

1. Simple Bits of Information

    Ex. "Who was the leader of the Free French forces during W.W.II?"
    "Who is the main character in Margaret Mitchell's novel, Gone with The Wind?"
    "During which century did Shakespeare live?"
    "What is the Spanish verb meaning to run?"

2. Facts Organized into a Logical Order (Sequence of Events)

    Ex. "What are the steps a bill goes through before it becomes a law?"
    "How were the American and French forces able to bottle up Cornwall and the British at Yorktown?"
    "How did Robinson Crusoe react when he discovered footprints in the sand?"
    "What is the commercial method for producing hydrochloric acid?"

III. Divergent Questions

Questions with no right or wrong answers, but which encourage exploration of possibilities. Requires both concrete and abstract thinking to arrive at an appropriate response

Ex. "What might happen if Congress passes a law preventing the manufacture and sale of cigarettes in the United States?"
"How would the story have been different if John had been a tall, strong boy instead of disabled?"

"If you were stuck on a desert island and the only tool you had was a screwdriver, what use might you make of it?"

"In what ways would history have been changed had the Spanish Armada defeated the English in 1588?"

IV. Higher Order Questions

Questions which require students to figure out answers rather than remember them. Requires generalizations related to facts in meaningful patterns.

Types:

1. Evaluation: Requires judgment, value or choice based upon comparing of ideas or objects to established standards.

   Ex: "Which of the two books do you believe contributed most to an understanding of the Victorian era? Why?"

   "Assuming equal resources, who would you rate as the most skillful general, Robert E. Lee or Ulysses S. Grant? Why?

2. Inference: Requires inductive or deductive reasoning

   Inductive: Discovery of a general principle from a collection of specific facts.

   Deductive: Logical operation in which the worth of a generalization is tested with specific issues.

   Ex: "We have examined the qualities these world leaders have in common. What might we conclude, in general, about qualities necessary for leadership? Why?" (Inductive)

   "If the temperature of the gas remains the same, but gas is taken to an altitude of 4000 feet higher, what happens to the pressure of the gas? Why?" (Deductive)

3. Comparison: Requires student to determine if ideas/objects are similar, dissimilar, unrelated, or contradictory.

   Ex: "Is a mussel the same thing as a clam?"
   "What similarities and differences exist between Lincoln's Gettysburg Address and Pericles' Funeral Oration?"
   "What is the connection between Social Darwinism and the Supreme Court actions of the late nineteenth century?"

4. Application: Requires student to use a concept or principle in a context different from that in which she/he learned it.

   Concept = Classification of events/objects that have common characteristics.
   Principle = A relationship between two or more concepts.
   Ex: "How was Gresham's Law demonstrated in the Weimer Republic of Germany?"
   "Can you think of an example to fit this definition?"

5. Problem-solving: Requires a student to use previously learned knowledge to solve a problem. Students must see relationships between knowledge and the problem, diagnose materials, situations, and environments, separate problems into components parts, and relate parts to one another and the whole. This question may generate answers the teacher hasn't anticipated.

   Ex: "Suppose you grow up with the idea that dogs were bad. Out of the many dogs you came into contact with, none bit you when you were quite young. How would you react towards dogs now? Would the type, size, etc., of the dog make any difference as to how you react? Explain the notion of prejudices using this example."

V. Affective Questions

Questions which elicit expressions of attitude, values, or feelings of the student.

Ex: "How do you feel about that?"
"Is that important to you?"
"Would you like to . . .?"

VI. Structuring Questions

Questions related to the setting in which learning is occurring.

Ex: "Are there any questions?
"Any further comments?"
"Is the assignment clear?"
"Would you repeat that?"
"Are we ready to continue?"

CONCLUSION

This unit highlights the significance of the mother- tongue in classroom. It also signifies to what extent communication skill is important for the students. This unit also deals with discourse skill, oral language skill and types of questions in a vivid manner, as to enlighten the minds of the students.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION AND REFLECTION

1. Position of mother-tongue". Discuss the importance of mother-tongue in today's Classroom Instruction.
2. Briefly explain about types of questions and teacher control?
3. Explain communication process in the classroom?
4. What are the most common difficulties with Indian students in acquiring correct speech habits?

Unit IV LANGUAGE ACROSS CURRICULUM

Course Objectives

At the end of the unit, the student – teacher will be able to

- discuss about uses of language in various subjects;
- find effectiveness of medium of instruction in language across curriculum;
- find need and important of reading comprehension and comprehension strategies;
- know about Deficit Theory Discontinuity Theory and its uses;
- find uses of classroom interaction and Strategies of Promoting Classroom Interaction.

Introduction

Language is most helpful to communicate our thoughts and feelings. But educational context to understand the significant of language in a deeper way we need to examine it in a multi-dimensional space, giving due importance to its structural, literary, sociological, culture, psychological, and aesthetic aspects. This unit discuss about uses of language in various subjects, effectiveness of medium of instruction, need of reading comprehension, some language theory etc.,

Language for specific purpose:

Language for Specific Purposes has been primarily used to refer to two areas within applied linguistics

1. One focusing on the needs in education and training
2. One with a focus on research on language variation across a particular subject field

Education and training:

Language for Specific Purpose is a widely applied approach to second or foreign language teaching and training that addresses immediate and very specific needs of learners who need that language as a tool in their education, training or job.

A negotiated syllabus means that the content of a particular course is a matter of discussion between teacher and students, according to the wishes and needs of the learners in conjunction with the expertise, judgment, and advice of the teacher.

Research:

"Language for Specific Purposes" has also been used to refer to a branch of *applied linguistics* which deals with a variety of language used by members of a particular subject field, concentrating on its *genres*, *stylistic features* and *technical lexis*. This research is relevant for such problem-based areas as language education, translation and the design of specialised dictionaries. Some in the training area consider such research on Professional Communications as LSP-related research when it is paired with or applied directly to an LSP training program.

> *Applied linguistics* is an interdisciplinary field of linguistics that identifies, investigates, and offers solutions to language-related real-life problems. Some of the academic fields related to applied linguistics are education, psychology, computer science, communication research, anthropology, and sociology.

Relationship to content-based instruction:

Content-based language instruction (CBI) is also sometimes confused with ESP. At the post-secondary level it is frequently used to motivate groups of learners who may be interested in the same professional field, providing meaningful communication opportunities. However, as in their regular studies they are usually not studying through a foreign/ second language (except for sheltered courses), they do not need English as a tool in their immediate studies. "Content-based instruction (CBI) is the integration of selected content with language teaching aims".Thus, when trying to identify which approach being taken, the question is: “Is it English for Specific Purposes or English through specific content themes or content areas?"

Specific purpose of language in mathematics:

Understanding the Problem/Reading the Story. Students should be encouraged to think of word problems as short stories. Thus, they can apply the same reading strategies they use for making meaning from other texts. Engaging students in asking questions and discussing the word problems is very beneficial for English Language Learners.

Another important step is to encourage students to make connections to prior experience, to the world, and to their important mathematical ideas. After the students have made sense of the problem, they must plan how to solve it.

Guiding students to consider different representations (manipulative, pictures, graphs, written language, symbols, tables, equations, action movement, oral language, or mental images of real world situations) will be especially beneficial for English Language Leaners (Hyde, 2006).

Writing problems, giving students opportunities to write their own problems, specifically word problems, will support numerous writing skills. When students engage in writing problems, they demonstrate their understanding of the mathematics but also their understanding of sentence structure, vocabulary, grammar, and punctuation. Writing problems demands clear, concise, and complete ideas. After writing problems, their peers should read them to make sure they are complete and make sense. Students can then revise their problems based on that feedback.

Deciphering the Language of Mathematics. Language can be confusing because some words are used in both everyday English and mathematics (square, similar, range). Also, certain terms learned together can be challenging (equation and expression, hundreds and hundredths, intersect and intercept). One strategy to use with students is a partnering activity where students study the terms and uncover the differences between them. They focus on these differences and create a poster, skit, web page, or other product that highlights what each term means and how the terms are different. Some type of visual artifact may be posted on a word wall for future reference (Hunsader, Kersaint, Richards, Rubenstein, and Thompson, 2008).

Use of Graphic Organizers. Graphic organizers are an instructional tool that visually organize information so that it can be understood, remembered, and applied. These organizers aid students in reading comprehension, writing, and oral conversation. In mathematics, concepts webs, charts, and Venn diagrams are particularly useful.

Graphic organizers allow students to make sense of the important ideas of mathematics. Students make connections between existing knowledge and new concepts to be learned. They are able to organize information obtained from written or oral texts, develop and practice reading

strategies, increase retention, activate schema as a pre-reading or pre-listening activity, and organize ideas for writing or discussion. Multiple Representations Charts support students in vocabulary and language development. These charts help students develop conceptual understanding through writing by giving them an opportunity to explain and make connections among vocabulary symbols, concepts, and procedures (Hunsader, Kersaint, Richards, Rubenstein, and Thompson, 2008).

7. Modeling of Think Alouds. Teachers should use the strategy of thinking aloud as they read through a problem so students can experience the thought processes. After the teacher models it several times, students can practice a think aloud with a partner. Students will be supported not only in the problem-solving process but also in the ability to express themselves.

8. Learning Journals. Learning logs can be beneficial in helping students to explain their thinking, use new mathematical vocabulary, and demonstrate their learning. ELLs may need some scaffolding by providing them with writing frames to assist them with organization. When introducing any new tool, it is important for the teacher to model its use. If students have difficulty organizing their thoughts before writing, the teacher can initiate a talk time first. Sometimes if students discuss what they want to write first, they are more confident and successful in transferring their thoughts to paper.

9. Academic Language Scaffolding. Language Scaffolding is a step-by-step process of building student's ability to complete tasks on their own. Students identify mathematics vocabulary by participating in an introductory activity. Scaffolding consists of several strategies used in conjunction to "shelter" curriculum content for ELLs. These strategies include modeling the use of academic or technical language; contextualizing academic or technical language through the use of visuals, gestures, graphic organizers, and demonstrations; and using hands-on learning activities that involve the use of academic or technical language.

10. Directed Reading-Thinking Activity. This activity engages students in the processes of reading and is applicable when reading a mathematics textbook. Students take a quick look at the titles, captions, charts, pictures, or graphs in the lesson. Students predict what they think the main ideas of the lesson will be. Then students read the text of the lesson to determine how accurate

their predictions were. This strategy enables students to get personally involved with the text and gives them a purpose for reading.

Mathematics - A Language:

Mathematics is a language. The factors like letters, writing, reading and grammar in language can be seen in mathematics as well. Through this language, communication and translation also take place. Just like the discourse forms in language, we come across discourse forms such as figures, tables and graphs in mathematics. Therefore, the child has to use these discourse forms in order to understands mathematical ideas and communicate through them. The learner must be enabled to use mathematics to form new mathematical relations and to clarify his/her thoughts. This skill helps in problem solving.

Language skills in mathematics include the ability to perform basic computations, to use basic mathematical concepts in practical situations, to make reasonable estimates, to understand graphs, charts and numerical concepts in language, to manage data, to handle money and do stock inventories. They may, in addition, need to represent world problems mathematical concepts, evaluate or construct mathematical arguments and interpret and explain proofs.

Language and History:

History is a language rich subject. Language plays a significant role in learning and making history. Historical records are based in language and so for understanding the fellings and reasons for why thing happened in the past. Because language changes, there may also be a need for some vocabulary that captures the past meaning of words and expressions that are not in current use by students today. Language in History typically deals with recounts, accounts, explanations, exposition, rebuttal challenges and discussion.

Language outcomes in History should include explicit teaching of writing argumentative essays that draw upon historical events and evidence accurately and concisely. Linguistically, students should be able to decode concepts and vocabulary by using their understanding of word roots, prefixes, suffixes and nomenclature and common expressing. Students in History need to be able to read for context clues. Common grammatical structures include passive voice and conversions of verbs into nouns.

Science and Language development:

Language plays two crucial roles in science learning: 1. It facilitates the communication of conceptual and procedural knowledge questions, and propositions (external, public), and 2. It mediates thinking, a process necessary for understanding (internal, private).

For students, language development is intimately involved in their learning about the natural world. Science provide a real and engaging context for developing literacy, and language arts skills and strategies support conceptual development and scientific practice. For example, the skills and strategies used for reading comprehension, writing expository text, and oral discourse are applied when students are recording their observations, making sense of science content, and communication their ideas. Student's' use of language improves when they discuss, write and read about the concepts explored in each investigation. The scientific and engineering practices are listed below, along with a sample of the language functions that ate exercised when effectively engaged in that practice.

Science and Reading domain:

In the kindergarten, you can enhance science learning by using trade books and other read-aloud resources to engage students and provide topics for lively discussions. Reading aloud helps primary students understand the science content and lets you model reading comprehension strategies such as asking yourself questions and summarizing a paragraph just read.

Medium of instruction:

Medium of Instruction means the language through which all the subjects are taught. In a multilingual country like India there are various mediums of instructions used to give education. Mostly medium of instruction is either the regional language (e.g. Gujarati, Marathi, Tamil, Kannada, Kashmiri, Konkani, Maithili, Malayalam, Manipuri, Marathi, Nepali, Oriya, Punjabi, Sanskrit) & English.

Hindi is also medium of instruction at some colleges. Regional languages being mother tongues are easy to learn and learners find easy to express themselves, Whereas English language has its own advantages but sometimes learners face difficulty in learning and expressing themselves in that language.

***Mother Tongue as the Medium of Instruction*:**

India is multilingual country. In India different languages are spoken in different states. There are 22 languages recognized by the Constitution of India, of which Hindi is the official national language and a primary language of 30% of the people in the country; the other languages are Assamese, Bengali, Bodo, Dogri, Gujarati, Hindi, Kannada, Kashmiri, Konkani, Maithili, Malayalam, Manipuri, Marathi, Nepali, Oriya, Punjabi, Sanskrit, Santhali, Sindhi, Tamil, Telugu, Urdu. In addition, there are 844 different dialects used in various parts of the Country.

English often forms the most important language for national, political, and commercial communications. Every state has colleges having different medium of instructions for example, Gujarat has Gujarati, Maharashtra has Marathi, Tamil Nadu has Tamil, Kerala has Malayalam, Rajasthan, M.P, and U.P has Hindi, Assam has Assamese, Goa has Konkani, Punjab has Punjabi, and West Bengal has Bengali language as the medium of instruction. As the researchers, study center was Anand District, the Medium of Instruction in most of the colleges here is Gujarati.

English Language as the Medium of Instruction:

Colleges having English language as medium of instruction are found throughout the country. As even after independence, it was viewed by leaders and educationists that knowing and using English language will be an additional advantage for Indians in modern competitive but globalised world.

The following reasons are given by Maulana Abdul Kalam Azad (1974) that English language is an international language, link language, important for social mobility, essential for personal growth and development, essential for personality development, essential for higher studies, library language, has wide and rich literature, essential for getting better jobs. That's why there are more and more colleges having English as the medium of instruction. English is

the language of rationality not emotion. Lord Macklay has started English during (1835). Till freedom all were studying English for higher education. And even after freedom we are still using English language. The parliament has also recognized English as official language in addition to Hindi. English has become the status symbol as all desire to send the children to English medium school in order to have proficiency in English language. This language attracts people because of the wealth of literature and knowledge. People who go abroad to study can only have English as *medium of study*.

Significance of Medium of Instruction:

1. In multilingual country like India, problem of medium of instruction is major problem because every state wants to have its regional language as the medium of instruction.
2. Whereas some nationalist argues Hindi, being the national language should be the medium of instruction.
3. Educationists having faith in globalization and technical development advocate that education received through English medium can lead to faster and more rapid growth.

Reading comprehension:

Reading comprehension is a much less natural act than listening comprehension. Moreover, language use differs between oral and written language with a tendency for more complex forms to occur in writing. Therefore, while reading comprehension depends on listening comprehension ability, it also requires that additional strategies be brought to bear.

In formal terms, successful reading comprehension depends on the construction of a rich and elaborate mental model of the text that is read. This is often referred to as the situation model (Kintsch and Rawson, 2005). The situation model can be thought of as an integrated summary of the contents of the text, which can be scrutinised in response to questioning.

Factor related to the poor reading comprehension:

There are three main reasons why children will poor to progress in reading comprehension:

1. Inefficient word-level reading skills
2. Poor oral language skills

3. Lack of print experience and/or negative attitudes to reading.

When trying to understand a particular child's difficulty, teachers should ask themselves a simple set of questions, as follows. Is the child able to?

1. read the text at the independent or easy level
2. complete the task when listening but not when reading
3. understand and follow the instructions given
4. complete the task at a more simple level or with an easier text
5. demonstrate a concept or strategy but not be able to explain it adequately
6. complete part of the task but not be able to orchestrate a final full answer
7. complete the task at a slower rate
8. complete the task when provided with a model or supported step by step
9. detect where an error has been made?

Note: 'task' is used in the above list to cover a wide range of possibilities, from understanding a simple set of instructions to understanding a complex theme running through a novel. It does not imply only comprehension exercises.

More specifically, in order to set up teaching targets, the following set of questions should be applied.

1. Which part of the task is the child not able to complete accurately?
2. What are the small steps needed to complete the task: can the child complete any of the steps?
3. What vocabulary might the child need to complete the task: has the child got the appropriate vocabulary?

Teachers then need to match teaching strategies to identified areas for development. For example, a child who is failing to recognise another person's feelings in the text could be supported by completing an emotions graph for the character. In this way children can be encouraged to acquire a range of known comprehension building strategies that they can then apply when they experience a failure in comprehension. This supports them in becoming strategic and intentional learners.

The nature of the text may also affect children's comprehension:

1. Is it too dense?
2. Are there too many unknown or difficult words?
3. Is the author's style accessible?
4. Is the genre familiar?
5. More specific causes of reading comprehension failure follow from an understanding of the cognitive and experiential prerequisites of progression through the literacy framework. These are detailed in Progression incomprehension.

Comprehension strategies:

According to the USA National Reading Panel's (2000) report on the teaching of reading, five strategies should be taught to ensure good reading comprehension. These are: *prediction, questioning, clarifying ,imagining and summarisation*. To varying extents, these skills draw upon linguistic and cognitive resources. In concert they can be used to ensure that children are able to build coherent mental models of the texts they read.

***Prediction*:**

It could be argued that the ability to predict what a text entails is the first step to successful comprehension. A reader obtains the first clues to what a text is about via its title. Together with the opening sentences this can help the reader decide if the text is appropriate to their purpose (in the case of non-fiction) or to activate a story schema (in the case of fiction). The good reader then actively looks for cues to enrich their mental model of the text as reading proceeds. In turn, the developing representation of the text can be used to set up expectancies at the word, sentence and text levels. This will facilitate reading fluency and deepen understanding.

***Questioning and clarifying*:**

An actively engaged reader can use self-questioning to monitor their reading comprehension and to help clarify points that they fail to understand. Closely related to this is the use of the look back strategy to find information that is needed to resolve ambiguities. A successful comprehended knows how to generate pertinent questions, and can fall back on their mental model of the text to know where to locate relevant information.

***Imagining*:**

Imagining refers to the use of mental imagery to enhance text comprehension by enriching the mental model of a text. Many successful comprehenders translate the story they are reading into a series of images, almost like a film that can be replayed during story recall. Children who do not do this spontaneously can be taught to use the strategy to incorporate the details of what they read around a central theme.

***Summarization*:**

The process of summarization is perhaps most closely allied to the development of the situation model. Summarization involves the extraction of the gist and main themes of what is read (while putting aside their relevant details), and integrating the details into a coherent whole. Additional processes may include the evaluation of style and mood and making generalizations. Summarization depends on basic language skills, inferential abilities and knowledge and engagement with texts.

Reciprocal teaching (Brown and Palinscar, 1985) is a classic method for teaching reading comprehension strategies. Children are first shown how to apply the strategies by their teacher who models the process. Children then read a piece of text, paragraph by paragraph, and they learn to practice the strategies of:

1. generating questions
2. summarizing
3. attempting to clarify word meanings or confusing text, and
4. predicting what will happen in the next paragraph

The teacher supports the student while they practice, giving feedback and additional modeling (guiding) as necessary. Gradually it is intended that the guided practice becomes a dialogue in which groups of students work together with a text, asking questions of one another, commenting on answers, summarising and improving the summary. In a similar vein, activities can include helping one another to infer the meaning of a word or to reason about story events.

Developing skills of reading comprehensive:

Comprehension is a fundamental purpose of reading. From beginning readers who struggle to decode print to skilled readers with fluent skills, understanding the meaning motivates readers to interpret and analyze the text.

What is comprehension?

It includes making sense of words, connecting ideas between text and prior knowledge, constructing and negotiating meaning in discussions with others, and much more. Comprehension in this context is difficult to define because it involves so many aspects of thinking. According to Kintsch (1998), readers have two tasks. One is constructing a "text model" of the literal meaning of words as they read, and the other is building a broader representation, or "situation model," of the meaning implied by the text. Skilled readers learn to decode words automatically so they can devote time and thinking to these two kinds of constructive activities.

Important Key point about developing skills or reading comprehensive:

1. Conceptual knowledge. Children need familiarity with the topics they read and some understanding of the main concepts in narrative and expository texts. For example, children in K-1 who understand the ideas in narrative picture books, the story plot and characters' thoughts, develop good reading comprehension one to two years later (Paris & Paris, 2003).
2. Language skills. Effective oral language skills, both expressive and receptive, predict later reading comprehension. For example, children with good vocabulary skills who understand many words in text have better reading comprehension Dickinson & Tabors, 2001).
3. Text features. Beginning readers need to know how titles, pictures, captions, and headings relate to the meaning of text. They develop concepts about print, concepts about genres, and concepts about text structures that help them construct meaning from different types of text (Duke, 2004).
4. Strategies. Comprehending text requires readers to use a variety of strategies such as making and checking predictions, asking and answering questions, looking back in text to

monitor understanding, and occasionally stopping to paraphrase or summarize the important information (Block& Pressley, 2002).

5. Fluent decoding. Comprehension is difficult when children focus all their energy and cognitive resources on saying the words correctly. Comprehension is easier when decoding is automatic so young readers must learn to recognize words quickly and accurately(Kuhn & Stahl, 2003).

Deficit Theory

According to Otto, numerous researchers have studied language differences between economically privileged children and children who live in poverty. These researchers have described differences in terms of dialect, ways in which children use language to describe aspects of their lives and communicative patterns in the families of these children. The researchers noted that children from economically deprived communities did not succeed in school as well as the children from middle- and upper-class environments.

Linguistic deficit theories hold that certain linguistic varieties are inherently superior and that children who are raised in environments where such varieties are lacking will acqire deficient modes of thought, resulting in deficits which will have to be corrected in order for them to be able to participate fully in society.

Broughton et al. (1978) define the Deprivation Hypothesis as “the sociolingustic view that some children are linguistically handicapped because they belong to social groups which have a poor linguistic repertoire.” Similarly, Bernstin (1977) takes the deficit Theory to be “a set of propositions which attempt to account for educational failure by locating its origins solely in surface features of the child’s family and local community.”

The former definition is confined to linguistic deficiency whist the latter ascribes educational failure in general to the background of the child.

In an attempt to explain deficiencies in lower socioeconomic students’ success rate, some researchers in the 1990s began to postulate that failure among those students occurred because

there was not sufficient verbal foundation in the home for success (Eller, 1989). Eller rightly adds that all children who enter school "are highly competent language users…" but because of language and culture diversity, they may not always be in a position to demonstrate their abilities. Eller told the difficult truth, that "their language may be perceived as deficient".

Discontinuity Theory:

Both a continuity approach and a discontinuity approach exist in the debate of the origin of language. The continuity approach has a Darwinian perspective of language suggesting the potential for language to have evolved from more primitive forms of animal communication. This theory makes a connection between our human such as bird and whale songs. Experiments were conducted in chimpanzee with respect to learning of sign language. Researchers found that the chimpanzeeds were able to communicate with lab stags and fellow chimpanzees and their own off springs using sign language they taught.

However the approach of discontinuity depicts language as too complicated to have ever come from mere animals, expressing that language is unique to humans and far more complex than other forms of communication on Earth. Noam Chomsky defends this position and suggests the concept of a 'language organ' or 'language device'. Chromsky suggests that language could be due to a sporadic mutation in our species and not evolved from the lower level species and their primitive forms of animal communication. According to Chomsky (1968) 'human language appears to be a unique phenomenon, without significant analogue in the animal world. If this is so. It is quite senseless to raise the problem of explaining the evaluation of human language form more primitive systems of communication that appear at lower levels of intellectual capacity.

The essence of discontinuity theory is that the developed full-fledged language faculty of human beings are not a product of Darwinian evolution, but a unique development occurred to the human species.

The advocates of continuity claims (e.G Lock, 1980), that 'wors develop as direct transformations of gestures'. But discontinuity approach argues that gesture, as a 'primitive system plays no role in the acquisition of language.

Discontinuity theory is more discussed with respect to learning of grammar. The emphasis of continuity approach is on communication as a continuous domain of development, and little is actually claimed about where a developing language might get its grammatical structure from. Those who see language as being mostly innate, such as Steven Pinker, hold the precedents to be animal cognition, whereas those who see language as a socially learned tool of communication, such as Michael Tomasello, see it as having developed from animal communication, either primate gestural or vocal communication.

Understanding the nature classroom interaction:

The classroom interaction has three components. It provides learners with opportunities both to encounter input and to practice the L2. It also creates in the learners "a state of receptivity," defined as "an active openness, a willingness to encounter the language and the culture it represents."

Teacher-learner interaction has broad sense and narrow sense. In broad sense, teacher-learner interaction is the interaction between the teacher and learner. In narrow sense, it is the interaction between the teacher and learner or the teacher and learners in teaching situation.

Learner-learner interaction is based on peer relationships, which allows the maximum degree of Communication. Carefully structured learner-learner interactions provide a forum for extended, Meaningful exploration of ideas, which exposes learners to more varied and complex language from their peers than does traditional teacher-fronted classroom interactions. Through interaction with other learners in pairs or groups, learners can have more opportunities to make use of linguistic resources in a relaxing and uncontrolled manner and use them to complete different kinds of tasks.

According to the focus point of learner's language competence and the benefit of learner activities, there are two types of classroom interaction: language output and language input. Language output mainly concerns foreign learners' competence of using language. Language input aims to improve learners' mastering of target language and speed up their language acquisition. Classroom interaction tends to be scientific and diverse.

Strategies of Promoting Classroom Interaction:

Improving Questioning Strategies

Actually many learners are not confident of themselves in an English class and they are afraid of losing face before their peers. In such a situation, the teacher's interaction with individual learners is based on his own selection. In addition, he tends to ask active ones to answer questions. This inevitably discourages poorer or inactive learners. To activated the teacher-learner interaction and ensure all learners participate; attention should be paid to the protection of learners' self-esteem and the development of their self-confidence. It is preferable to ask learners questions that they can answer. While questioning, it is necessary for the teacher to tailor his questions to the different levels or abilities of the learners.

Attending to Learners' Linguistic Levels

One obvious difference in the way we teach different levels is language. Beginners need to be exposed to fairly simple language which they can understand. Intermediate learners know all this language already and so well not ask them to concentrate on it. The activities we offer learners often depend on their language level. For beginners, we will not suggest abstract discussions. For advanced learners, a drill focusing on simple role-play with ordinary information questions may be a good target for beginners to aim at; the focus or advanced learners will have to be richer and more subtle. Teachers react both overtly and subconsciously to different levels. The material they are use—and the activities they are get learners to engage in—reflect the unique needs of those learners at the level they have reached. Working cooperatively not only helps learners develop important social skills, it is an excellent way to help them relate appropriately to others with backgrounds different from their own. Learners with varied social backgrounds, intellectual skills, and physical capabilities work together to

learn subject matter, solve problems, and accomplish tasks. They learn to accept and value individual differences. Cooperative learning means that every member of the group is included, and differences among group members are resolved by the group members. Further, group members work toward solving problems and completing tasks within minimal teacher assistance. The social skills that group membership develops are critical to life within and beyond the classroom.

Building Positive Teacher-learner Rapport

In order to make classroom interaction more effective, the importance of the relationship between the teacher and the learners cannot be overestimated. A good teacher ought to know his learners well, for having knowledge and understanding of the learners' background provides an important basis for the teacher's planning at each steps of the teaching process. A sound relationship needs to be established on the basis of mutual respect between the teacher and the learners. Respect for people is considered as an essential part of education and the most important contributors to good rapport between the teacher and the learners. As a result, both the teacher and the learners will become equally responsible for themselves and the class. The more harmonious the relationship between the teacher and the learners grows, the more conspicuous the dynamic qualities of classroom learning become.

Reducing Classroom Anxiety

In EFL classrooms, learners are reluctant to speak out in English, and to participate in the classroom interaction with the teacher, or even with their classmates, owing to their personality types and their cultural backgrounds, their English proficiency, their interest in the teaching materials and classroom activities, to name just a few. The teacher should help learners understand that language anxiety episodes can be transient and do not inevitably develop into a lasting problem, boost the self-esteem and self-confidence of learners for whom language anxiety has already become a long-term trait by providing multiple opportunities for classroom success in the language, and encourage moderate risk-taking and tolerance of ambiguity in a comfortable, non-threatening environment.

Conclusion

After completion of content student should follow all the aspects of the Social Science, Science and Mathematics subjects in Language and also develop their comprehension skills day -by–day. By using language student improve their classroom interaction also.

QUESTION FOR DISCUSSION AND REFLECTION

1. Explain uses of language in various subjects.
2. Explain effectiveness of medium of instruction in language across curriculum.
3. Explain advantage mother language as a medium of instruction and why?
4. Discuss about need and important of reading comprehension and comprehension strategies
5. Explain about Deficit Theory Discontinuity Theory and its uses.
6. Explain uses of classroom interaction and Strategies of Promoting Classroom Interaction.

UNIT- V LANGUAGE- RELATED ISSUES

Course Objectives

At the end of the unit, the student-teacher will be able to

- spell out the concepts of bilingualism, multilingualism
- explain the strategies of developing writing skills related to school subjects
- explain the strategies writing skills to the students of secondary school
- explain Schema theory
- explain the process of writing.

INTRODUCTION

Language plays a very important role in human lives. It is a social phenomenon. One of the main goals of language is to communicate with people and to understand them. When someone speaks, he intends a specific purpose. He wants to convey a message through that language. A person uses his language to many different purposes for example, to express his feelings, to ask for help and to apologize.

BILINGUALISM

Bilingualism is commonly defined as the use of at least two languages by an individual (ASHA, 2004). It is a fluctuating system in children and adults whereby use of and proficiency in two languages may change depending on the opportunities to use the languages and exposure to other users of the languages

MULTILINGUALISM

Multilingualism is the use of two or more languages, either by an individual speaker or by a community of speakers. Multilingual speakers outnumber monolingual speakers in the world's population. Multilingualism is becoming a social phenomenon governed by the needs of globalization and cultural openness. Owing to the ease of access to information facilitated by the Internet, individuals' exposure to multiple languages is becoming increasingly frequent, thereby promoting a need to acquire additional languages. In recent years, linguistic research has

focused attention on the use of widely known world languages such as English as lingua franca, or the shared common language of professional and commercial communities. In lingua franca situations, most speakers of the common language are functionally multilingual.

The Challenges of Teaching in the Multicultural Classroom

When addressing the academic and emotional concerns of international students, it is important to consider that these two areas work in conjunction with each other as the international student struggles with emotional adjustment and academic achievement in a new and different environment.

1. International students frequently need more help understanding Carleton's specialized academic vocabulary. In particular, concepts such as distribution requirements, major requirements, and liberal arts are new to many international students.

2. Advisors may wish to double-check to make sure international students grasp fully the options they have in:

    - dropping, adding, and withdrawing from courses
    - selecting the S/CR/NC option
    - distribution requirements
    - extensions
    - independent study
    - Off Campus Study

3. Non-immigrant students must take a full course load each semester in order to comply with Immigration and Naturalization Service regulations governing their student status; it might be helpful to remind students of this.

4. International students need to be encouraged to plan a *balanced program* for themselves at Carleton:

- A ***balanced work load***, taking into consideration relative amounts of readings, writing and lab work, with particular consideration of the student's English language skills
- A balance ***among courses*** in the student's major, distribution requirements, and electives within keeping of a liberal arts education.
- Nature of Reading comprehension in the content areas

Content Area Reading and The Importance Of Skillful Reading Comprehension

What was the last thing you read before you began reading this article? Was it a chapter in a novel? A recipe? An analytical report? Your favorites blog? Though you probably didn't realize it, you used a certain reading strategy to gather meaning based on the genre of the text. For instance, reading a novel employs a different skill set than what you may use to read a technical manual.

Understanding you need to switch skills based on genre is common to all good readers. That's why it's so important for students to develop **reading comprehension** skills that will help them "switch" in various content

Reading comprehension and expository text

Whether it's science, social studies, or mathematics, all content area books are expository or informational. That means students need to use different strategies for comprehension than they would use if they were reading a story. Think about the difference between a mystery novel and a science textbook. In a novel, each page looks pretty much the same. In other words, each written page is made of paragraphs, which are made of sentences, which in turn are made of words.

Now think back to your high school biology textbook. Obviously there are chapters and paragraphs but there is much more. Content area textbooks make use of headings, subheadings, illustrations, tables and graphs, and summary sidebars. Each component of the textbook is designed to deliver important information that either summarizes, clarifies, or adds to the written content.

Not only is the layout in a textbook different from a novel or story, the purpose and method of delivery is different as well. Novels are plot and character driven and depend largely on dialogue

to get the message across. However, content area textbooks are written to inform, explain, persuade or describe. There are no cliffhangers or page-turners to keep the student engaged while reading expository texts. For that reason readers need to have specific strategies they can use to focus and comprehend meaning.

Developing content area comprehension skills

It's been said that in grades 1-4 children 'learn to read' and after that they 'read to learn.' While there may be some merit in that, actually the two are interchangeable. In other words, budding readers can learn new information as they are developing their reading skills and even skillful readers can develop new strategies to increase comprehension.

How? While all content area textbooks have content, how that content is structured and organized determines how challenging or easy it will be for students to understand. It's critical that developing readers have well structured textbooks meaning there is a logical structure at the paragraph level. One reason students often struggle with expository text is because there are many different structures involved. Some paragraphs describe while others compare and contrast. Some show cause-and-effect relationships. This is why reading comprehension in content areas relies on increasing awareness of the structure in the textbook and showing students how to use that structure to understand what the author is trying to say.

Content area reading strategies

Everyone agrees that sound reading and comprehension skills are essential for learning. However, content area textbooks often provide more of a challenge, especially as students reach middle and high school. That's when the reading volume and level of difficulty increases. The results can be a negative impact on content learning which will largely determine academic success.

One strategy for boosting reading comprehension involves helping students recognize word clues that point to a specific structure. For example, compare/contrast paragraphs may contain the words "however" and "both." This is where visual organizers such as Venn diagrams can help students compare and contrast concepts. Then students can write summaries to clarify meaning in their own minds.

Students also need comprehension skills that include learning new vocabulary prior to reading, learning how to use text clues to identify critical information (such as titles, subheadings, graphics, and summary statements), and recognizing key terms that imply relationships between ideas.

Over time, these strategies will become second nature. A good reader will use these tools subconsciously in order to understand what they're reading. However, struggling readers have to be taught what strategies to use, when to use them, and how to go about it. With practice, harnessing these strategies will become second nature for them regardless on the content area.

Developing writing skills for writing in specific content areas

Get Students Writing Right: Tips for the Content Area Classroom

Writing opportunities within the content area classroom can be exciting and motivational, but some content area teachers feel they are not up to the task of "teaching writing." The first step in assuaging this authentic concern is to let content area teachers off the hook. They are not writing teachers. Content area teachers can appreciate strongly supported arguments and easily spot a well-turned phrase, but they should not be held accountable for teaching the skills needed to accomplish these writing goals. Their field of expertise may be science or history or math, and because these teachers have done quite a bit of writing in their own academic careers, they are experts in the type of writing required in their respective disciplines. These rich backgrounds help content area teachers make indispensable contributions to the refinement of writing skills. Here are a few thoughts and suggestions that might encourage more content area teachers to infuse writing into their curriculum.

Strategies for Developing Oral Language

Oral language is not just speaking. It is a large set of skills that encompasses listening comprehension, understanding and producing complex language, vocabulary and word knowledge, grammatical knowledge, phonological skills, and so much more.

A Few Strategies for Building Oral Language Skills

1) Show and Tell: Students bring an item from home that they want to talk about and there is a precious question and answer session that ensues.

2) Daily Oral Language: Traditionally, this is an activity where each day, there is a prompt written on the board for students, such as a sentence written with incorrect grammar for students to correct individually.

For example, give the words "Since" "Robert" and "party" and have the students come up with a grammatically correct sentence and discuss as a whole group.

Another example is to pre-teach a vocabulary word that could be used that day or in the next lesson. Show the vocabulary word and have students talk about its meaning together in a small group and have them draw a group picture representing that word. Share out with the large group.

3) Dramatic Vocabulary. The students get in a circle and the teacher has a set of cards with that week's vocabulary words on them. The teacher pulls a card and gives it to one student, who must act out the vocabulary word for the other students to guess. After it is correctly guessed, the students say, spell, and write the definition of the word together on the board.

4) Word Wall: It is used in secondary classrooms with added elements, such as grouping by prefix, suffix, roots, etc. Basically, it is a wall of words that are frequently used in the classroom that are posted for easy reference. Teachers, feel free to comment on how you elaborate on the classic Word Wall.

5) Debates and "Take A Stand" activities. This can be done by making a start out by providing a prompt for a related lesson, such as "Every student should wear uniforms to school" for a lesson on persuasive writing.

Group the students to form teams for a debate on the issue From there, we can provide reading materials for the students to support their argument, or begin a research project for students to find their own material for a debate.

6) Listening Activities. For the little ones, this can be done with 'telephone" where the kids get in a circle and the teacher whispers a sentence to the first kid, and they have to whisper the sentence to the next kid. The goal is to have the sentence be in tact at the end.

For older students, teaching listening skills can be in the form of teaching good note-taking skills during lecture. Give the class a list of key phrases that they want to listen for in a lecture such as, "This is important..", "One of the main things…" "The first thing you have to do is…, etc", "You will need to know…" To begin, you could ring a little bell or something when you use the key phrase, then transfer that job to a student.

Reading in the content areas

Content area reading strategies

Everyone agrees that sound reading and comprehension skills are essential for learning. However, content area textbooks often provide more of a challenge, especially as students reach middle and high school. That's when the reading volume and level of difficulty increases. The results can be a negative impact on content learning which will largely determine academic success.

One strategy for boosting reading comprehension involves helping students recognize word clues that point to a specific structure. For example, compare/contrast paragraphs may contain the words "however" and "both." This is where visual organizers such as Venn diagrams can help students compare and contrast concepts. Then students can write summaries to clarify meaning in their own minds.

Students also need comprehension skills that include learning new vocabulary prior to reading, learning how to use text clues to identify critical information (such as titles, subheadings, graphics, and summary statements), and recognizing key terms that imply relationships between ideas.

Reading in the Content Areas : Math Science Social Studies

Develop key strategies for comprehending content-area textbooks

- Improve state test performance with questions in standardized test format
- Coordinate your reading program with content classrooms
- Build comprehension strategies to support content-area reading

Based on the best-selling *Six-Way Paragraphs* books, these individual titles help students master the essential skills needed to organize, understand, and apply information in math, science, and social studies.

Focus on nonfiction reading in the content areas

- Social Studies history, geography, anthropology
- Science biology, earth science, physics
- Mathematics consumer and computer topics, puzzles, math facts

Focus on essential skills for understanding content-area selections

Expository text Vs Narrative text

Expository (Informational) **Text** Structure: Reading for information involves the engagement of the reader with aspects of the real world and is most commonly associated with textbooks, primary and secondary sources, newspaper and magazine articles, essays and speeches

Narrative text type

Based on perception in time. Narration is the telling of a story; the succession of events is given in chronological order. Based on perception in space. *Impressionistic* of landscapes or persons are often to be found in narratives such as novels or short stories. Example: *About fifteen miles below Monterey, on the wild coast, the Sido family had their farm, a few sloping acres above the cliff that dropped to the brown reefs and to the hissing white waters of the ocean...*

Narrative form of text Tells a story

Focuses on one moment or day in time.

This is where you will see explode the moments, show not tell, etc.

The Purpose of narrative text is to entertain

Reader's Purpose is to be entertained

Transactional Vs reflective text

Transactional Texts

Transactional writing texts are either a response or an initiation of a response. As implied, these are 'transaction texts' - a friendly letter of appreciation will possible yield a response, as much as a speech will get the audience won over or yelling in disagreement

Transactional texts are divided into Longer and Shorter texts. The kinds of texts are listed and explained below:

Reflective Text

In a reflective text the writer contemplates an idea and gives his or her emotion

In a reflective essay the writer contemplates an idea and gives his or her emotional reactions and feelings. The writer could, for example, reflect on dreams or aspirations.

Types and structures with examples in brief

Schema Theory

Schema theory, one of the cognitivist learning theories, describes how knowledge is acquired, processed and organized. The starting assumption of this theory is that "*very act of comprehension involves one's knowledge of the world*".

According to this theory, knowledge is a **network of mental frames** or cognitive constructs called *schema* (pl. ***schemata***). Schemata organize knowledge stored in the long-term memory

The term **schema** is nowadays often used even outside cognitive psychology and refers to a **mental framework** humans use to represent and **organize remembered information**. Schemata present our personal simplified view over reality derived from our experience and prior knowledge, they enable us to **recall, modify our behavior**, concentrate attention on key information, or try to **predict most likely outcomes of events**.

Schemata also expand and **change in time**, due to acquisition of new information, but deeply installed schemata are inert and slow in changing.

This could provide an explanation to why some people live with incorrect or inconsistent beliefs rather then changing them. When new information is retrieved, if possible, it will be **assimilated** into existing schema(ta) or related schema(ta) will be **changed** (*accommodated*) in order to integrate the new information.

Schema theory was partly influenced by **unsuccessful attempts** in the area of artificial intelligence. Teaching a **computer** to **read natural text** or display other human-like behavior was rather unsuccessful since it has shown that it is impossible without quite an amount of information that was not directly included, but was inherently present in humans.

Schema theory emphasizes **importance** of **general knowledge and concepts** that will help forming schemata. In educational process the task of **teachers** would be to **help learners to develop new schemata** and **establish connections between them**.

Schema theory has been applied in various areas like:

Motor Learning - schema theory was extended to *schema theory of discrete motor learning* in 1975 by Richard Schmidt[13)].
Wulf has shown that developing a motor schema has resulted in better performance in children when learning a motor task.

Reading Comprehension - schema theory is often used to assist second language learning since it often contains reading a lot of texts in the target language.

Mathematical Problem Solving - Jitendra et al. conducted a research showing that 3rd-graders taught to using schemata to solve mathematical problems formulated in words performed better than their peers who were taught to solve them in four steps (*read and understand/plan to solve/solve/look back and check*).

Text structure

Common Text Structures

Compare-Contrast Structure

This type of text examines the similarities and differences between two or more people, events, concepts, ideas, etc.

Cause-Effect Structure

This structure presents the causal relationship between an specific event, idea, or concept and the events, ideas, or concept that follow.

Sequence Structure

This text structure gives readers a chronological of events or a list of steps in a procedure.

Problem-Solution Structure

This type of structure sets up a problem or problems, explains the solution, and then discusses the effects of the solution.

Descriptive Structure

This type of text structure features a detailed description of something to give the reader a mental picture.

Question-Answer Structure

This text starts by posing a question then goes on to answer that question.

Cyclical Structure

This structure starts with an event then progresses through a series until it is back to the beginning event.

Examining content areas of textbooks

Many of the attempts to address this problem have been to suggest that texts need to be adapted for students with learning difficulties or that there are special strategies and techniques that need to be used with these students which enhance their understanding of text material. One newer conclusion in this area is that features of a text that support the reading of students with learning difficulties also support those who are not having difficulties. Likewise, teaching strategies that support students having difficulty are also considered useful for all students . This is an important point since, as demographic projections indicate, we are now working with and will continue to work with more students at high risk for having learning difficulties in the future It is needed to consider effective ways to meet their needs within regular class settings .

Reading strategies for not making

Note-taking: an introduction

Here is an outline of effective note-taking strategies to help you get the most out of lectures and readings. The guide suggests procedures such as symbols and abbreviations, diagrams and note cards.

Effective note-making from written text

Make your notes count. Discover a simple method to use when you are making notes from any written sources of information.

How to make notes

- ***Heading***

  What is the main idea of the passage? Frame a heading based on the central idea and write it in the middle of the page.

- ***Subheadings***

  How has the main idea been presented and developed? Are there two or three subordinate/associated ideas? You can frame subheadings based on these.

- ***Points***

  Are there further details or points of the subtitles that you wish to keep in these notes? Indent, i.e., suitably space and number.

  All subheadings should be written at a uniform distance from the margin.

- ***Indenting***

  All points should also maintain the same distance away from the margin.

Note: Do not write full sentences. And use abbreviations wherever necessary. Read below for more help on abbreviations.

a. Capitalized first letters of words, Common abbreviations

Keep the main sounds of the word. For example, edn. (education), progm. (programme)

b. Retain the suffix so that later when you are going over the notes you may recall the full form of the word —e.g., ed'nal (educational), prog've (progressive).

c. The heading should not be abbreviated. You may use abbreviations in subheadings.

Summarizing

Summarizing is a condensed version of a passage which involves using own words and writing style to express another author's ideas.

It is an overview of the most important information form reading, lectures, or multi –media sources.

HOW TO SUMMARIZE

- A summary captures all the most important parts of the original, but expresses them in a much shorter space.
- It test how far the students understand and restate the main purpose.
- It is useful when doing research or in gathering information.
- While summarizing read the original quickly and try to understand its main subject or purpose.
- Underline or make a marginal note of the main issues. Use a highlighter.
- Work through the text to identify its main sections or arguments.
- Remember that the purpose of a paragraph is that it deals with one issue or topic.
- Draw up a list of the topics or make a diagram.
- Write a one or two-sentences which states the central ideas of the original text.
- Use this as the starting point for writing a paragraph which combines all the points .
- Finally check that your summary should capture the central meaning of the original concisely and accurately.

Making reading-writing connections

Educators often talk about the reading-writing connection. Dr. Kate Kinsella of San Francisco State University summarizes the reading-writing connection research as follows:

- Reading widely and regularly contributes to the development of writing ability.
- Good writers were read to as children.
- Increasing reading frequency has a stronger influence on improving writing than does solely increasing writing frequency.
- Developmental writers must see and analyze multiple effective examples of the various kinds of writing they are being asked to produce (as well as ineffective examples); they cannot, for example, be expected to write successful expository essays if they are } primarily reading narrative texts.

Teaching reading and writing strategies concurrently certainly does allow teachers to "kill two birds with one stone." Now this is not to say that reading or writing instruction should always be taught in tandem. There are certainly important lessons and skill development exclusive to each field. However, the following twelve tips to teach the reading-writing connection will enhance students' facility in both disciplines.

Process Writing

Process writing is an approach to incorporating writing skills from the very beginning of the English learning process. It was developed by Gail Heald-Taylor in her book *Whole Language Strategies for ESL Students*. Process writing focuses on allowing students - especially young learners - to write with plenty of room left for error. Standard correction begins slowly, and children are encouraged to communicate through writing, despite limited understanding of structure.

Stages Involved In Process Writing

Plan , Revise ,Rearrange and delete text, Re-read and produce multiple drafts

The process approach treats all writing as a creative act which requires time and positive feedback to be done well.

Role of Teachers in a Process Writing

White and **Arntd** say that focusing on language errors 'improves neither grammatical accuracy nor writing fluency' and they suggest instead that paying attention to what the students say will show an improvement in writing.

In process writing, the teacher moves away from being someone who sets students a writing topic and receives the finished product for correction without any intervention in the writing process itself.

Research also shows that feedback is more useful between drafts, not when it is done at the end of the task after the students hand in their composition to be marked. Corrections written on

compositions returned to the student after the process has finished seem to do little to improve student writing.

Stages in a Process Writing

Pre-writing

The teacher needs to stimulate students' creativity, to get them thinking how to approach a writing topic.

In this stage, the most important thing is the flow of ideas, and it is not always necessary that students actually produce much (if any) written work.

If they do, then the teacher can contribute with advice on how to improve their initial ideas.

Focusing ideas

During this stage, students write without much attention to the accuracy of their work or the organization.

The most important feature is meaning. Here, the teacher (or other students) should concentrate on the content of the writing. Is it coherent? Is there anything missing? Anything extra?

Evaluating, structuring and editing

Now the writing is adapted to a readership.

Students should focus more on form and on producing a finished piece of work. The teacher can help with error correction and give organizational advice.

Analyzing children's writing to understand their conception

Text structure (authorial): How information/ideas are organized in the text. May include features of *text types.* -

Sentence structure and grammatical features: How sentences or sentence parts are constructed. e.g simple, compound and complex sentence usage.

Vocabulary (authorial): Range and precision of word choices. e.g. everyday language, topic specific language, descriptive language.

Spelling (secretarial: Accuracy, complexity of words attempted, attempts (prephonetic or phonetic), use of orthographic patterns and spelling rules.

Punctuation (secretarial): Use of conventional and appropriate punctuation to indicate the structure and organization of the text to aid the reader.

Handwriting- Handwriting/ legibility (secretarial): Letter formation, size, spacing, position and placement; ease of reading; apparent fluency

Writing with a sense of purpose

It's important to know why the children are writing. If their purpose in writing is to please their instructor or to get a better grade, that may not be enough. Many instructors devise strategies to persuade their students to write for a larger community publishing students' best work in a newsletter or online publication, asking students to send their papers to local newspapers, putting their best papers in a collection in the college library something that allows students to feel that more than one person, sitting alone at the kitchen table, is going to read this bit of writing. Knowing that there is more than one person to please, a public "out there," is a motivation in itself to do well, to communicate clearly. It will help establish, also, that consistent sense of tone that is so important to a paper's success.

Writing to learn and understand

When using “Writing to Learn,” students focus on just thinking and organizing their thoughts. They don’t need to worry about how incomprehensible their writing may come across they can relax knowing that no one will evaluate this writing. Using this strategy teaches students that writing does not have to be publishable to be valuable.

Here are **three ideas** from writing to Learn that you can try in your classroom today:

1. **Do a warm-up writing exercise.** At 1:20 in this video, Kevin Sevin has his students answer questions about the effect of birth order. By participating in this warm-up, students have a chance to activate their background knowledge and engage with the activity before discussing their ideas with their peers.
2. Engage students in active listening.
3. Write about reflections.

Conclusion

In this unit, the issues related to the language learning were discussed in depth with aims of making the educated to multilingualism and strategies to develop writing skills of the learner related to school subjects.