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Umlaut: Change in vowel quality as in the pairs 'man-men'; 'tooth-teeth' etc.

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Editorial

Rajesh Kumar and Devaki Lakshminarayan

Language learning, from the perspective of a learner, consists of a unitary process of knowing a language, becoming a language learner, and being a language learner. Knowing, becoming and being are dynamic and mutually interactive, each fuelling the other. From the perspective of an expert, however, these are distinct processes. Consequently, language is taught as a fixed set of sound-meaning associations that learners must be skilled in; as a body of knowledge that exists 'out there' that learners have to acquire; where instructions are designed to 'give' learners opportunities to learn canonical explanations and where the idealised version of the language is presented to the learners abstracted from the historical, social and cultural contexts and language practices. Thus, a learner-perspective to teaching language is not about changing the syllabus or pedagogical practices or knowing learner's needs. It consists of questioning assumptions underlying the expert's view of language teaching, encouraging learners to direct and manage their learning by creating opportunities for them to make choices; choices of what they want to read or see, be it popular literature or films and from whom they want to learn ranging from teachers, peer groups and community of learners and from reflecting on ones experiences. In this perspective, learner's motivation, interests and attitudes all come together orchestrating learning. The learner-perspective is a common thread that runs through a majority of contributions in this issue. The significance of the contributions become evident when we see that the issue of learners taking responsibility for their learning, is addressed not as a matter of techniques, but at the conceptual level.

The three articles on reading argue for promoting reading by encouraging pleasure reading, according to which readers, voluntarily self-select books for learning a second language or a Heritage Language. Milliner, talking of the process of self-selecting books, emphasises on teacher intervention in helping students to select the books. The second article by Cho and Krashen explores the effect of voluntary self-selected reading on improving competence in Heritage Language and advocates this as a strategy for such programs. Ashtari and Krashen conclude that learners learn a language not through building skills but by understanding messages. The interview highlights the need for freedom to learn in classrooms and the need to focus on critical thinking. Tara Mohanan suggests that learners should engage in things they enjoy doing, and language learning should happen as a by-product. The implication of this thread for professional practice comes out in the book reviews as well.

The landmark article adds transcultural competence to this thread. In learning a Foreign language, learners not only discover a foreign culture but also relook at their

own culture to begin questioning their own understanding of themselves. The role of a teacher is not just to teach foreign language but be a mediator between cultures.

There are six articles in this issue that expand on the idea of meaning-making by helping learners to make connections in different ways. The use of semantic maps for connecting the unknown words or ideas to known ones, using learners' provincial form of grammar to demonstrate differences between high and provincial German in specific contexts, facilitating free and creative expressions, using mother tongue so that learners could connect learning of the school language through their mother tongue for an enhanced comprehension, using the mother tongue as a medium of education to revive endangered languages, and, an awareness of the knowledge of spelling consonant clusters. This issue of LLT also contains classroom activities and a report on online teaching for school teachers.

Articles

“Forced Pleasure Reading May Get You Neither”: A Reply to Jeff McQuillan

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Key Words: Extensive reading in L2, Pleasure reading, Learning how to read, Teacher intervention, online quizzes

Abstract

In this article, I will question some of the arguments McQuillan (2019) put forward in his critique of my article (Milliner, 2017) titled, "One Year of Extensive Reading on Smartphones: A Report". My response criticizes some of the evidence presented by McQuillan to support his claims. I contend that my application of extensive reading or ER (Milliner, 2017), and McQuillan's (2019) "pleasure reading" diverge on some points. While both approaches seek to encourage second language (L2) learners to read a substantial number of self-selected L2 texts and promote a love for reading in the L2, they deviate on how these goals can be achieved. I detail out how ER (pleasure reading) ought to be implemented in foreign language classrooms.

ER or pleasure reading in its purest form, where L2 learners are left free to read in their L2, has, as rightly shown by McQuillan, been very beneficial for some students (Krashen, 2007; Mason & Krashen, 2017). However, I feel this interpretation of ER, with its hands-off approach, no accountability and little support from the teacherwould be, as Robb (2015, p. 150) stresses, "tantamount to no reading at all". In my study, the participants were Japanese university students studying a mandatory EFL course. I cited Mori (2015) to note that most Japanese students do not like to read as their busy lives prevent them from reading outside of class. This low interest, coupled with little experience in reading in the L2 permeates my teaching context (Mori, 2015; O'Sullivan, 2012; Robb, 2002, 2015; Yoshida, 2014). Reflecting on a sustained silent reading program at her Japanese University, Yoshida (2014, p. 20) notes, "the instructor must make an intensive effort to make them [students] read willingly". While I accept that McQuillan's "forced pleasure reading" label concerning my article is perhaps appropriate, the practical reality facing teachers is that most students do not pick up a book to read, no matter how inviting the library is. For L2 readers to get onto Nuttall's (2006) virtuous cycle of the strong reader, and for the virtuous cycle to actually move, most L2 readers require unfailing support from their teacher, particularly in the initial stages of reading. In over ten years of leading extensive reading programs in Japanese universities at the class and program level, I regret to argue that very few students pick up a book to engage in "free reading". Therefore, while adhering to the assessment requirements enforced by the program I teach, I try to implement a program that aims to reach a much wider group of students, many of whom would not have experienced ER before. If McQuillan's idea of an effective ER program mirrors something like Mason and Krashen (2017), ER will only ever be a boutique, out-of-class study program for a select few.

When working with inexperienced L2 readers (as I did in my study), I found that some interventions from the teacher are essential. It is also important that students read at a level that is appropriate for them and that the teacher tries to generate excitement for reading. I empathize with Robb (2015), who states that post-reading quizzes have come under somewhat undeserved scrutiny from the ER research community. Online quiz programs such as M-Reader (mreader.org) and Xreading (xreading.com) can be a valuable control for students reading at the appropriate level. Such quizzes do not turn off readers from reading (Cheetham, Harper, Elliot, & Ito, 2016; Stoeckel, Reagan, & Hann, 2012). ER programs with quiz components have proved to be effective in promoting reading fluency (Robb & Kano, 2013). Students like to receive positive reinforcement or immediate feedback on their reading. The gamified component found in these programs, such as stamp collections (Robb, 2015), word challenges (Cheetham, Harper, Elliot, & Ito, 2016), and school-wide leaderboards (Milliner & Koby, 2019) can motivate readers to read more. For teachers, quiz programs offer a wealth of analytical information, which they can use to make more effective book recommendations. For example, if a student fails a series of quizzes for Level 4 books, the teacher could suggest he/she read books from a lower level. The book reviews recorded by these systems can be used to introduce popular titles, and the reading records reflect the different genres a student likes to read. In a free reading intervention similar to what McQuillan advocates, teachers cannot offer such informed support, particularly when there are a large number of students. For students to get lost in their books while engaging in ER, I believe that in most cases, the teacher will have played a significant role.

A second criticism that I would like to level at McQuillan's article concerns some of the research he has used to

support his argument. One such example refers to the study conducted by Mason and Krashen (2017), where they looked at the self-selected reading and TOEIC performance of Japanese learners. While I admit that I have been relaying the compelling case histories described in their paper to my Japanese students, this study fails in two of the three issues I cited as requiring refinement in ER research (Milliner, 2017). Firstly, there is limited attention to how ER has been conceptualized (Waring & McLean, 2015). All we learn from the authors is that Mason (the teacher),

> . . . helped each acquirer engage in a self-selected independent reading program, with each reader reading the books that he or she wanted to read. Readers were asked to keep a log of what was read as well as the number of pages, but were not asked to write summaries or book reports [sic] how much was read. (p. 147)

My interpretation of this intervention was that it was not a core classroom component; instead, it was an opportunity for the students to engage with ER outside of the classroom. However, it is hard to understand when and where students did the reading. Also, at which level did the participants read? Did they comprehend what they were reading? The fact is that Mason and Krashen's study reports on an extension program for a select group of motivated L2 learners. It does not reflect the practical reality of teachers trying to implement ER on a larger scale in their L2 classrooms.

Secondly, in Mason and Krashen's study, there is a lack of transparency about how much reading was done. The participants did not read under controlled conditions; they read freely and maintained logs for the number of pages and hours they read. However, there is no way to confirm the accuracy of this data. For example, as three of the participants were Mason's students, could they have inflated their results to curry favour with their teacher? How confident could one be that the participants carefully completed their logs each time they opened a book during the extended period? Further, there is no way of gauging whether the participants comprehended each text. Similarly, Krashen's (2007) meta-analysis of younger learners engaging in ER, provides a single figure to quantify the duration of ER.

I want to extend my sincere gratitude to McQuillan for his observations on my article. I am writing a rebuttal for the first time and the process has been beneficial as it has given me an opportunity to clarify my position on how I implement ER. Finally,I would like to draw a parallel between reading and running as both skills require training. When one starts training to run, there is an initial painful stage when it is hard to breathe and the legs ache and drag; at this point it is easy to give up. After one has endured this initial phase, one gradually starts to enjoy the so-called "runners-high", in which the effort is completely forgotten. Learning how to read is very similar, especially for L2 readers; initially, the reader struggles to read battling against low levels of motivation, lack of interest and time constraints. However, as their engagement with reading increases, readers begin to enjoy reading. I believe the teacher needs to be more closely involved at this initial stage. A "forced pleasure reading" program which: regulates the level of booksso that students can read more fluently; recommends appropriate titles; sets goals; allows students to feel triumphant when they pass a post-reading quiz; lets students follow their progress; and makes access to interesting books easier, will be a more successful intervention in the larger L2 classroom context.

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Free Voluntary Reading and Heritage Language Development

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Key Words: Heritage language development, Free voluntary reading

Abstract

The paper discusses a free voluntary approach to improving Heritage Language (HL)* competence. The approach includes reading self-selected books and watching TV in HL. Seven heritage language speakers of Korean living in the US were asked what they thought was the best way to improve their Korean language skills. All seven mentioned reading; five of them were dedicated readers in Korean, and three explicitly gave the credit for their proficiency in Korean to reading. The findings from the study justify the inclusion of pleasure reading in HL programs in the form of popular literature written in the students' HL.

*Heritage language is a minority language (either immigrant or indigenous) learnt by its speakers at home as children, but never fully developed because of insufficient input from the social environment: in fact, the community of speakers grows up with a dominant language in which they become more competent. (Valdés, 2000).

This definition may be regarded as a reasonably accurate definition of "heritage language" (HL) but not entirely accurate because it has not been established that heritage languages are never fully developed. We argue in this paper that there is an effective and pleasant way of developing HL that has not received sufficient attention.

We should be concerned about HL development. It is well documented that continuing the development of the HL has advantages to both the person and society, such as the development of a healthy sense of biculturalism, school success and economic advantages (Lee & Shin, 2008; Krashen, 1998; Cho & Krashen, 1998).

In this paper, we would like to focus on an approach to improving HL competence that appears to be extremely promising—free voluntary reading. There is a massive and still growing research literature to support the claim that free voluntary and self-selected reading is an important means of developing the HL. This reading largely consists of fiction and has been consistently shown to improve reading, writing, spelling, grammar and speaking ability in first and second languages, as well as in different languages (Krashen, 1989, 2004; Nell, 1990; West, Stanovich, & Mitchell, 1993; Shu, Anderson, & Zhang,1995, among others.).

McQuillan (1998) reviewed studies in which in-class, self-selected reading in the HL (Spanish) was compared with traditional approaches like sending children to community schools or parent-teachers teaching children HL at home. He reported that self-selected reading was at least as effective as traditional approaches in terms of progress in vocabulary and reading, as well as attitudes toward reading. In studies where the readers did not outperform comparisons, the study ran for a short time; teachers were less conscientious in administering the program, and/or students had negative attitudes about reading in Spanish.

According to Cho & Krashen (2000), second-generation HL speakers of Korean who reported greater proficiency in Korean said they did a lot of pleasure reading. They also reported more TV watching, greater parental use of Korean, and more trips to Korea when they were young compared to Koreans who did not speak HL much. All of these factors were independent predictors of HL proficiency.

Tse (2001) studied ten HL speakers. All of them were born in the US except for one, who moved there at the age of four. At the time Tse interviewed them, they were young adults, between the ages 18 to 24 years, and all of them had native-level competence in their HL (Spanish, Cantonese, and Japanese) as well as English, despite having done little or no study in the country where their language was spoken. All of them had "literary experience in the HL in the home and community at an early age" (p. 691). Tse concluded that "nearly all the participants developed [an] interest in reading for pleasure, which they credited for their advanced reading ability as adults." (pp. 261-262). Her participants' reading choices were mostly fiction, with some of them indulging in "light reading", such as magazines and comic books.

To summarize, previous research tells us:

1. Free voluntary reading improves the HL competence of HL speakers more than traditional instruction does (McQuillan, 1998).
2. More reported reading results in higher gains in HL competence, controlling for other factors like parental inputs and trips to Korea (Cho and Krashen, 2000).
3. Those who are successful in HL development frequently attribute their competence to pleasure reading (Tse, 2001).

Thus, whichever way we look at it—method comparison, multivariate

analysis or case histories— we arrive at similar results.

Subjects

The study presented here is similar to that of Tse (2001) as it includes interviews with HL speakers who had successfully developed their HL skills while living in a country where their language was not widely spoken.

The participants in the study were Korean-Americans that Cho met at a social gathering of family members and friends from the Korean-American community in southern California. At this gathering, the topic of conversation turned to their childrens' competence in Korean. Cho noted that all of those involved in the discussion spoke Korean well. Further, she discovered that none of them had taken any classes or gone through any schooling in Korean. Curious, she asked them how they had succeeded in developing their competence in Korean. She then invited them for a formal interview.

In contrast to Tse's subjects (Tse, 2001), the seven participants interviewed in this study were neither born in the US nor were they young arrivals. They had relocated to the US from Korea between the ages 12 to 16 years (mean = 14.4, sd = 1.4 years), and had been in the US for an average of 34 years. As was the case with Tse's subjects, all the participants were proficient in their HL (Korean). On a scale of one to five, they rated their speaking and listening ability in Korean as 5, reading as 4.7 and writing as 4.3.

In the interview (conducted in Korean), we asked the subjects what activities other than formal instruction they engaged in, to develop their HL skills. Did they listen to the radio or music, read (magazines, books, newspapers), or engage in conversations in Korean. We also asked them about what they thought was the best way to improve Korean language skills.

We will now present the relevant features of their responses (translated from Korean):

Howard, now a high school math teacher, stated,

> I read every day. When I was hooked on Chinese novels (translated into Korean), especially historical novels, I read for three to four hours a day, spent many hours trying to finish a novel in one sitting.

Among other novels, Howard had read the popular *Three Kingdom series*.

Yvonne, an optometrist, said,

> I read a lot of Korean books for pleasure. I have a great deal of exposure to the Korean language because I live near Koreatown in Los Angeles. I still read in Korean, but mostly newspapers, and occasionally some books about cooking.

Grant explicitly attributed his competence in Korean to reading:

> I came here when I was 16.I didn't have many Korean friends in high school or in graduate school. . . . I was . . . able to maintain Korean by reading Korean books. Even now I read books in Korean.

Lucas became a dedicated reader in Korean after arriving in the US; he also attributes his competence in Korean to reading:

> When I left Korea, I was too young to have read many books in Korean [he was 12 years old], and my understanding of the Korean language was limited to the elementary-school level. As the years passed, I had more far chances to read Korean books and newsletters and to interact with other Korean-speaking friends. As a result, my Korean language skills got much better, and my understanding of the Korean language improved to the college level. I read Korean fables [and] Korean historical biographies such as King Sejoing

> [founder of the Korean alphabet]. One of my favourite books was Mu So yu [not possessing anything], written by a Korean monk.

Lucas added that reading in Korean helped him develop his Korean well enough to volunteer as an interpreter for the police department.

Tony, a California state-certified professional Korean translator, stated,

> To me, Korean language classes didn't help much. . . . I think I maintained Korean from simply reading books, magazines, and newspapers and from watching Korean dramas and talking about them with church friends and teachers afterwards.

Kerry was an exception. She developed a high level of spoken competence in Korean but did not attribute this to reading. She told Cho that she had limited access to Korean books, but she had read some non-fiction books such as autobiographies. She also had little chance to socialize with other Koreans until she married a Korean man, and their language of communication was Korean. She attributed the credit for her Korean competence, especially in speaking, to her relationship with her husband.

Lisa did some reading in Korean, including reading a set of classic novels adapted for younger readers as well as biographies. She said that she also acted as a "broker" or interpreter for others and spoke a lot of Korean at home.

Summary of Interviews

It is noteworthy that all seven subjects mentioned reading as a source of input, and five of them (Howard, Yvonne, Grant, Lucas and Tony) were dedicated readers. Three of them (Grant, Lucas, and Tony) explicitly attributed the credit for their proficiency in Korean to reading. While Lisa and Kerry also appeared to be readers, they were less enthusiastic about reading than the others.

Discussion

There is evidence from various studies that a pleasant activity that is done enthusiastically and voluntarily, such as self-selected reading, has a positive effect on HL development. The results of the case histories presented here are consistent with those of earlier studies (McQuillan, 1988; Cho & Krashen, 2000). Further, they replicate the results of Tse's (2001) study on HL speakers, who arrived in their adopted country when they were much younger than our subjects.

Gaps

Two of the studies discussed here (Cho & Krashen, 2000, and our current study) used only self-reporting to measure HL competence.

None of the studies gives detailed descriptions of what was read by the participants.

None of the studies attempted to study subjects who are or were readers in the HL but did not achieve high levels of proficiency.

Of course, self-selected reading is not the only kind of comprehensible input that leads to improvement in language and literacy, as documented in Cho and Krashen (2000). A close examination of the relative efficacy of different kinds of input among HL speakers awaits the development of more precise measures of HL proficiency, and input quality and quantity.

Directions

Despite these lacunae, the case for self-selected reading is promising. There is more than enough evidence to justify the inclusion of pleasure reading in HL programs in the form of popular literature written in the students' HL. The inclusion will ensure greater access to easier reading (Guided SSR, Mason, 2019) for those who need to build more competence before reading authentic books, and above all provide access to reading material at all levels on a wide variety of topics and genres.

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Knowledge of Spelling Consonant Clusters in Young ESL Learners: A Study

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Key Words: Spelling, Consonant clusters, ESL learners, Phonological cueing, Orthographic cueing

Abstract

This study aims to examine children's knowledge of English consonant cluster in mono and disyllabic spelling skills. It looks at the development of consonant clusters across two grades in the lower primary section of an ESL school. A total of 41 subjects from Grades 2 and 3 participated in the study, with ages ranging from 7 to 9 years. A word dictation test of 30 words was used, in which the subjects had to listen to the words and write the spellings. The test took around 45 minutes. An analysis of the test results showed that the students of Grade 3 are more consistent in their knowledge of consonant clusters than the students of Grade 2. Further, students of both the grades used both phonological as well as orthographic cueing in spelling the words. Of the two cueings, orthographic cueing was more prominent in Grade 3 participants compared to Grade 2 participants.

Introduction

Knowledge of spelling is deeply rooted in the orthographic format of a language. Treiman and Bourassa (2000), speak about optimal and deep orthography. Languages with optimal orthography have transparent phoneme-grapheme relation, whereas languages with deep orthography have little transparency between the two. English, is a deep orthographic language with phonological and orthographic regularities and irregularities. The following sections will elaborate more about these properties in the context of spelling acquisition.

Phonological Knowledge

By the age of 3 to 4 years, children can distinguish writing from drawing (Lavine, 1977), but they still need to understand that alphabetic writing aims to represent the sounds of a language. Some young kids believe that the written forms of words should reflect their meanings. According to some scholars (Ferreiro & Teberosky, 1982; Levin & Korat, 1993) children think that the names of large objects such as bear, should be spelt with more letters than the names of small objects, such as fly. Children are sensitive to syllable units in their earliest attempts at writing. They tend to represent each syllable of a spoken word with a single symbol/letter. Ferriero and Teberosky (1982), found in their study that for the monosyllabic words "should" and "be", the subjects had used – "c" for "should" and "b" for "be". As phonological awareness develops, children analyse /kar/ "car" (for example) as a sequence of the phoneme /k/ followed by /ar/. At this phase, they use their knowledge of grapheme-phoneme correspondences, and may represent /k/ as "c" or "k", and /ar/ as "r". In other words, "cr" or "kr" spellings predominate for the word car. Again, in this phase, children sometimes group separate phonemes. They sometimes fail to spell the second and third consonants if they are present in these clusters, as in "pa" for "play", "bl" for "bell", "had"for"hand" and "set" for "street". These examples, especially, "hand" and "street" (spelt as "had" and "set"), demonstrate spelling patterns that can be understood from a child's point of view. Children consider the vowel /a/ and /n/ of the word "hand" as a single unit rather than as a sequence of two sound units. Similarly, they consider /s/ for the letter string "str" and /e/ for the long vowel "ee" in the word "street" as a single unit, rather than as a sequence of two sound units. Their omissions of consonants in the initial and final clusters of these words reflect their groupings of sounds (Ehri, 1986; Gentry, 1982; Treiman, 1993, 1994). Children in this early phase of writing typically fail to represent the initial consonant of a final consonant cluster, especially when there are nasals and liquids—/n/, /m/, /r/, and /l/.

Orthographic Knowledge

The ability to do phonological analysis develops further with exposure to print. Children can discern that /ar/ comprises two separate phonemes—/a/ and /r/. During this phase, they can identify that the vowel in the word /kar/ is a separate letter and positioned in relation to the two consonants. While they might not be able to produce the correct spelling with the correct vowel letter yet, they use some vowel grapheme in the middle of their spelling. Bourassa and Treiman (2007)

emphasize that the ability to identify all phonemes in a spoken word is no guarantee that the word will be spelt correctly. Children have several choices to represent the phonological structure of words. Bourassa and Treiman (2007) discuss a few salient orthographic patterns that influence spelling. One pattern is where phonemes have more than one possible spelling; the correct choice sometimes depends on the position of the phoneme in the word. For example, the consonant digraph "ck" may occur in the medial position, or at the end of English words, as in "packet" or "pack". The other orthographic patterns involve doublets, or two-letter spellings, where the two letters are identical. These typically occur in the medial position or at the ends of words as in "little" and "bell". Generally, children are not taught these patterns explicitly, but they appear to infer these patterns on their own when they come across them; for example "ck" in "sick" or "package"; and "ll" or "tt" in "bell"or "little". In this phase, they realize that each sound represents a separate phoneme and hence a separate letter needs to be positioned (Treiman, 1994).

Apart from the ability to recognize the positioning of letter strings in a word, children are also adept at dealing with more sophisticated orthographic patterns. For instance, they are sensitive to the vowel context. Children are able to spell a consonant cluster correctly depending on the preceding vowel position. They are aware that there will be a two letter consonant in the final position if there occurs a short vowel, and a one-letter consonant if there occurs a long vowel, as in "pull", "kill", and "cool", "peak". Hayes, Treiman & Kessler (2006), found in their study that children in Second, Third and Fifth Grades showed sensitivity to the preceding vowel context, and that sensitivity to these patterns increased across the age groups.

This paper aims to assess young ESL learners' knowledge of consonant clusters across five categories of words—onset, coda, rhyme, doublet and silent. As mentioned earlier, two linguistic properties—phonological and orthographic—are seen to influence spelling skills in young learners. In this study, I raise two research questions and will attempt to answer them by assessing the knowledge of the two above mentioned properties among young learners through an analysis of their spelling skills.

Research Questions

The study comprised two research questions as below:

1. Do young learners use phonological or orthographic properties in spelling words?
2. Does the learning process vary in each of the five-word categories?

Methodology

Subjects

A total of 41 subjects from Grades 2 and 3 participated in the study; 22 from Grade 2 and 19 from Grade 3. The ages of the participants ranged from 7 to 10 years. English was the second language for all of them.

Material and Tasks

A total of 30 words (monosyllabic and disyllabic) were used for the dictation test. These words fall under five consonant clusters, namely, (a) Onset, defined as the consonant preceding the vowel, (b) Coda, defined as consonants following the vowel, (c) doublets, are

words where two identical letters are repeated (eg: butter), (d) rhyming words in which the same sounds are repeated, and (e) silent words a letter that does not correspond to any sound in pronunciation. The list of words for each category is given in the following table (Table 1).

Table 1
Spread of Words for Each Word Category (Total words=30)

Onset(5)	Coda (5)	Doublet (4)	Rhyming (4)	Silent (12)	
Drop	Turn	Sorry	Sing	Knot	Comb
Swim	Jump	Carry	Ring	Knife	Thumb
Plate	Bird	Button	Bring	Talk	Wrong
Stop	Gift	Butter	String	Calf	Wrist
Frog	Hunt			What	Island
				Wheel	Sign

Procedure

All 30 words were randomized and dictated to the participants. The participants had to carefully listen to the words and write down the spellings in the answer sheet provided. Pictures of each word were simultaneously shown on the computer screen to help the participants construct the meanings of the words. This task took approximately 45 minutes from start to finish. A ratio measurement was used to assess the spellings. The participants were awarded 1 mark for each correct spelling and 0 for each incorrect spelling. In correcting the words, the focus was on whether the target consonant cluster was correctly written. For example, in the onset category, if a participant had attempted to spell the word “frog” as “frg”, it was considered to be correct, as he/she had written the consonant cluster “fr” correctly, even if the word was misspelt. However, if the participant had written the word "frog" as "fog", or completely a different word where the target consonant cluster was missing, then the word was considered incorrect. The findings were then subjected to t tests. An error analysis was also undertaken on the way the words were spelt out.

Results of the Study

Results of the dictation test were evaluated on the basis of correctness and incorrectness of the respective consonant clusters. The correct responses were collated; the mean and standard deviation for each cluster is presented in table 2.

Table 2
Mean and SD Scores of the Overall Performance by Grades

Consonant Clusters	Grade 2	Grade 3
Onset(5)	4.68 (0.78)	4.68 (0.82)
Coda(5)	4.32 (1.29)	4.84 (0.37)
Doublet(4)	3.14 (0.94)	3.74 (0.45)
Rhyming(4)	3.50 (0.91)	3.68 (0.58)
Silent(12)	3.91 (2.65)	8.37 (3.56)

Error Analysis

An analysis of the errors made by the participants shows omissions, additions and substitutions in the spelling. Now let us look at the overall error rate across the five consonant clusters in terms of percentage scores.

Table 3
Percentage (%) Scores of the Error Rates

Consonant Clusters	Grade 2	Grade 3
Onset	6.36	3.15
Coda	13.63	3.15
Doublet	21.59	6.57
Rhyming	12.5	7.89
Silent	67.42	30.26

Table 3 shows that grade 2 participants commit more mistakes in writing the consonant clusters compared to grade 3 participants. This finding is consistent across the five categories of words. The silent word category has the maximum error rate across both the grades. This finding indicates that young ESL learners are not able to represent an accurate orthographic format when spelling the words. In the remaining four-word categories, the consistency of accurate representation in terms of phoneme-grapheme is not very alarming.

The following five tables (table 4-table 8), shows the error rate for each consonant cluster. Besides the error rates, a list of incorrect words is also provided for the target word.

Table 4
Percentage (%) Scores of the Error Rates

No.	Onset Words	Grade 2	Grade 3
1	Drop	9.09	-
2	Swim	18.18	15.78
3	Plate	4.54	-
4	Stop	-	-
5	Frog	4.54	-

Table 4 shows that error rates for the word "swim" is higher than for the remaining four target onset words across both grades; the second consonant of the onset cluster has been dropped. A few examples of the erroneous spellings of the target words across both grades are "soema", "wirre", "seme", "smeen", "suwing", "wuwm", "sire"; "dot", "dat"; "peate", "forg".

Table 5
Percentage (%) Scores of the Error Rates for Coda Words

No.	Coda Words	Grade 2	Grade 3
1	Turn	13.63	15.78
2	Jump	9.09	-
3	Bird	27.27	-
4	Gift	13.63	-
5	Hunt	4.54	-

Table 5 shows that Grade 3 performed better than Grade 2 for coda words. There is only one error for the word "turn". The erroneous spellings of the target words across both grades are "ture", "trun", "tron", "town", "trun"; "jamg", "jumg"; "bead", "bod","grid", "bred", "barty", "got", "get", "gemt", "herat".

Table 6
Percentage (%) Scores of the Error Rates for Doublet Words

No.	Doublet Words	Grade 2	Grade 3
1	Sorry	22.72	10.52
2	Carry	9.09	-
3	Button	40.90	15.78
4	Butter	13.63	-

Table 6 shows that error rates of the target words for grade 2 is high. Two of the target words have been difficult for Grade 3 also. Recall that in both grades, the error rates are high in this word category when compared with the other word categories, with 21.59 percent error rate in Grade 2 and 6.57 percent error rate in Grade 3(Refer to Table 3). Only the silent letter word category has a high error rate. Learners tend to understand doublets as comprising one letter and a sound and therefore write one letter instead of two identical letters. Some of the erroneous spellings found in this word category are as follows: "samy", "sory", "soil", "sot", "soly", "sery", "sory"; "co", "sroop"; "batn", "butun", "baien", "duton", "buton", "bunten", "bunt", "batan", "bunta", 'beten"; "buther", "data".

Table 7
Percentage (%) Scores of the Error Rates on Rhyming Words

No.	Rhyming Words	Grade 2	Grade 3
1	Sing	4.54	5.26
2	Ring	13.63	5.26
3	Bring	9.09	-
4	String	22.72	21.05

The difficulty level of the words has increased in this category of words for both grades when compared with other word categories. Even though the error rates are lower than those of doublets (Grade 2), there are errors in almost every word, except for one word in Grade 2. The error rate for Grade 2 (12.5 percent) is higher than that for Grade 3 (7.89 percent). Participants from both grades tend to have problems with the cluster "ing", which they have reproduced as "en", "in", etc. The erroneous spellings in this word categories across the two grades are: "caeg", "sion"; "riga", "ran", "ren", "rino"; "baein", "bruck"; "streeg", "strmg", "sren", "sty", "staren", "stearn", "streef".

Table 8
Percentage (%) Scores of the Error Rates in Silent Words

No.	Silent Words	Grade 2	Grade 3
1	Knot	90.90	57.89
2	Knife	77.27	15.78
3	Talk	45.45	15.78
4	Calf	86.36	31.57
5	What	22.72	5.26
6	Wheel	72.72	26.31
7	Comb	36.36	10.52
8	Thumb	31.81	10.52
9	Wrong	90.90	57.89
10	Wrist	81.81	57.89
11	Island	90.90	36.84
12	Sign	81.81	36.84

Table 8 shows that while both grades have attempted to write the silent words, they have failed miserably. Notably, the words "knot", "knife", "calf", "wheel", "wrong", "wrist", "island", "sign", have the highest error rates for Grade 2 participants. The same goes for Grade 3 participants, even though their percentage error rate on the particular target words is lower than that for Grade 2. The most difficult words for Grade 3 are "knot", "wrong" and "wrist", as they have an error rate of more than 50 percent.
From the table, it is clear that the word "what" has been produced correctly and has the least error rate for both Grade 2 (22.72 percent) and Grade 3 (5.26 percent), when compared to other words. The word "knot" on the other hand is found to pose the maximum difficulty across both grades with (90.90 percent) error rate in Grade 2 and (57.89 percent) error rate in Grade 3. The participants were not able to figure out the rules for sounds becoming

silent, for example, when “k”is followed by “n” in the initial position, then “k” becomes silent, as in "knot", "knife", when “m"precedes “b”, then “b" becomes silent; Children are yet to develop the nuanced ability to spell silent letters, but they have begun using orthographic cueing as shown by the correct answers by grade 3 children. By grade 3, children have a better phonological representation of the sounds, and they are aware that for additional letters need to be inserted in the spellings silent consonant clusters.
Phonological cueing is helpful if the word has a phoneme-grapheme correspondence, which can be found in onset and coda words. Words with silent letters however lack transparency. In order to correctly use silent letters, more exposure to print is a prerequisite. For instance, even though the word “what” is a silent letter word, due to its familiarity through its frequent use as a function word, it is known to most children. However, a word such as "knot" is unfamiliar to them as it is not used very frequently; instead, it is mistaken for another frequent word “not”. Again, words such as “wrist”, “island" and “wrong”, which have silent letters at the beginning of the word, also posed difficulties across both grades. In such words, children frequently omit the first silent letter as they go by phonological cueing.
The grade-wise performance revealed that Grade 3 is more exposed to orthography, and therefore their error rate (30.26 percent) was lower for silent words than Grade 2 (67.42 percent).

Findings and Discussions

The statistical results show that the performance of Grade 3 is better than that of Grade 2 for accurate spelling knowledge (Error rate of Grade 3 is 30.26% while for Grade 2 it is 67.42%). This finding indicates that spelling skills develop as children move to higher grades. Students from both grades use phonological as well as orthographic cueing for spelling words. However, orthographic cueing seems to be more prominent for Grade 3 participants, as is evident from their accuracy in the silent word category.
Further, the higher performance of Grade 3 (69.73%) on silent letters proves that their grapho-tactic knowledge is better than that of Grade 2 (31.81%). Grade 3 students can decode words such as “comb”, "thumb", “calf”, “talk”, “knife" and "knot”,unlike Grade 2 students, who are not able to do so. It is clear that increased exposure to print leads to developing higher spelling skill. Therefore, it can be said that knowledge of grapho-tactic cueing helps students' to spell abstract and complex words better.
The consonant cluster word categories in the present study demand knowledge of both phonological and orthographic cueing to spell words correctly. If we rank the word categories in order of performance, onset and codascored the highest and second highest respectively. An explanation for this ranking is that these words have a large extent of phoneme-grapheme correspondence. Also, since children tend to apply their phonological knowledge, they find it easy to produce these words. However, when it comes to spelling words with doublets or silentletters, they require a rich exposure to orthography. Mere knowledge of phonology does not help in producing words in the doublet and silent word categories. So, children do not perform well on doublet and silent word categories.

Conclusion

To conclude, based on the findings, one can surmise that the learning process varies with the nature of the consonant clusters. Children find Coda and Onset words easier compared to doublet, rhyming or silent words. Young children can use their phonological knowledge in spelling words and find words that have phoneme-grapheme correspondences easier. As they grow older, their ability to use orthographic cueing also develops. This study has examined phonological and orthographic patterns in spelling. As a direction for future research, the study can be extended to investigate the influence of morphological patterns on spelling.

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Mother Tongue Education for Revitalising Endangered Languages: Miju and Digaru

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Key Words: Mother tongue education, Multilingual education, Endangered language, Revitalisation, Language right.

Abstract

This paper addresses the topic of multilingual education and mother tongue in the context of Miju and Digaru, two endangered Tibeto-Burman languages of Arunachal Pradesh. According to the Census (2011), in the State of Arunachal Pradesh, the three districts, Lohit, Namsai and Anjaw have more than ten languages. Of these, Miju and Digaru are dominant languages in the three districts. The multilingualism of these regions has increased, with Hindi widely used as the lingua franca. Hindi is also popularly used in day-to-day conversations irrespective of the language environment. In this light, the paper grapples with the question of revitalising the two languages. Mother tongue and multilingual education is seen as a critical way of revitalising endangered languages and bringing about a positive attitude and contributing to language revitalisation.

Introduction

UNESCO, in the Atlas of the World's Languages in Danger (2017) categorises Miju and Digaru as two endangered languages of Arunachal Pradesh. Both languages are traditionally grouped under the language subgroup Mishmi. Miju and Digaru people are concentrated in Lohit, Namsai and Anjaw districts (Census, 2011). These languages are not used in schools. The question of ways to revitalise these endangered languages comes up.

The Census of India (2011) reports Lohit district[1] as a region with eighteen mother tongues. The total population of the district is 145,726. Of these, 22,200 speak Nepali, 17,013 speak Mishmi (Idu, Miju and Digaru), 16,320 speak Assamese, 8,286 speak Hindi, 7,425 speak Bengali, 6,707 speak Miri/Mishing, 5,381 speak Chakma, amongst others. The 2011 Census also reports that Anjaw is home to three major indigenous tribes—Miju, Digaru and Meyor—without detailing the population of the said tribes. This immense language variance in the mother tongue justifies the necessity of having a link language or lingua franca in these regions, and Hindi has successfully captured that position. Apart from these languages, the official language of Arunachal Pradesh is English. As noted earlier, English is also the medium of instruction in the educational institutions in this part of Arunachal Pradesh. Hindi is taught as a language subject in the Primary schools[2] in this region. However, the indigenous languages of this part of Northeast India are yet to be introduced in the school curriculum.

Miju and Digaru tribes are natives to three districts, Lohit, Namsai and Anjaw of Arunachal Pradesh, though researchers such as Mills (1926), Bhattacharjee (1983), Barua (1960) and Blackburn (2003) have forwarded a migration theory for the Mishmis[3]. The literacy rate of Lohit is 68.2 percent, and of the Anjaw district, 56.5 percent. The district of Lohit has a total of 146 pre-primary schools, 185 primary schools, 80 middle schools, 16 secondary schools and 7 senior secondary schools, including both government and private schools in Lohit district (Namsai district included). Anjaw district has 39 pre-primary schools, 60 primary schools, 26 middle schools, 2 secondary schools and 1 senior secondary school.

Arunachal Pradesh has two boards of school education, the DSEAP (Directorate Education, Arunachal Pradesh) and the CBSE. It must be pointed out that no school is affiliated to DSEAP in any of the studied districts, which means all schools studied come under CBSE. Since all the schools in these regions are affiliated to CBSE board, there is very little scope for the inclusion of mother tongue (indigenous languages).

The question is, what can be done to revitalise Miju and Digaru? Education is the most critical means to revitalise endangered languages. These languages, however, are not used in education. There are other consequences of not using the mother tongue in education. Education through the medium of a dominant language reduces the expected cognitive growth of the children belonging to indigenous, tribal and minority communities (Skutnabb-Kangas & Heugh, 2013). To offset this, studies on multilingualism and multiliteracy emphasize the importance of mother tongue-based multilingual education (Mohanty, 2006, 2008; Panda &Mohanty, 2011, 2015; Skutnabb-Kangas & Heugh, 2013). A study conducted by Mohanty,Mishra, Reddy, and Ramesh, (2009) on ten tribal languages of Orissa, claims mother-tongue-based multilingual education as being of utmost importance for the holistic development of the children belonging to a multilingual region. Multilingual education can be

offered even in conditions where there is a lack of resources. It can be implemented successfully, even in a challenging environment as long as it is backed by a sound policy (Skutnabb-Kangas & Heugh, 2013).

Language attitude of a speaker acts as a catalyst for either maintaining a language in a wider range of domains or approving it within the boundary of a village or a home. Hinton (2001) mentions that though a mother tongue may be elaborately used in a home situation, it can still be an endangered language. The younger generation gradually becomes so inclined towards the majority language or the lingua franca spoken in the surrounding environment that they cease to use their mother tongue. Bradley and Bradley (2013) talk about the power of a government in this regard. According to them, with government initiative, a domain where a minority language could not be used earlier can be brought into existence and vice versa (Bradley & Bradley, 2013). Such influences of government policy are entirely relatable to Arunachal Pradesh. For example, a circular was passed on 5 December 2016, by the Director of Secondary education of the Arunachal Pradesh Government, directing teachers and students of government schools in Arunachal Pradesh to use only English in the classroom and on the school campus. The circular also allowed Hindi to be used in the classroom and campus, wherever necessary. The purpose of the circular was to improve fluency in English, leading to an overall improvement in the performance across all subjects, it has possibly shaped the current indifferent attitude of the native speakers of both Miju and Digaru communities towards their mother tongue. During my field visit to Lohit district, speakers of both Miju and Digaru pointed out that English and Hindi were more important to them than their mother tongues as it impacted their career and growth. This attitude towards their mother tongues has led to a decrease in its use in their daily life as well as at home, which in turn has possibly contributed to endangering them further.

When government education policies/programs do nothing to support minority language children to develop competence in the mother tongue, it devalues the culture, the language and the knowledge associated with the mother tongue of these children (Ball, 2011) and obstructs these communities from exercising their Linguistic and Cultural Rights. This disregard towards minority languages builds a negative attitude in the mind of the native speakers towards their mother tongue, which adds to its endangerment. Thus, to bring about a change in the speaker's attitude towards their mother tongue, mother tongue education has to be adopted as a means of revitalising the endangered languages.

With more planning, a multilingual education policy can be adopted in Arunachal Pradesh. The state can implement the three-language formula so that children start their education through either Miju or Digaru as their first language, apart from learning English and Hindi. However, this requires a collective effort on the part of researchers, linguists, native speakers as well as teacher trainers and policy makers, along with commendable government initiatives. The Mishmi-speaking society has taken a strong initiative in this regard. During my field visit to Lohit (as a part of my ongoing Ph.D. work in 2018), members of the NGO, Culture and Literary Society of Mishmis (CALSOM) informed me that they, in collaboration with the Linguistic Department of Gauhati University, have done some work on Miju and Digaru

orthography. They also claimed that it is due to the lack of a proper language trainer, teacher trainer and government initiatives that orthography is yet to be introduced in the schools of the discussed regions. Thus, it is quite apparent that proper planning and implementation of multilingual education by the government is required for the schools of Lohit, Anjaw and Namsai.

Further, since the curriculum development process is very important for a successful education policy, CALSOM or the community members should take the initiative to design a proper curriculum under the guidance of language trainers or teachers. The selection/appointment of teachers and providing them with adequate training is also equally important for a favourable result. This can be achieved with the support of the community members as well as the government.

Conclusion

The use of Mother-tongue multilingual education is critical to revitalising the two endangered languages, Miju and Digaru. It helps in cognitive development of children as well builds positive attitude towards these languages. To implement multilingual education, the support of the Government and proper planning are essential requirements.

Endnote

1. Includes Namsai as it became an independent district only on 15th July 2014.
2. All the schools of Lohit, Anjaw and Namsai district are affiliated to CBSE board.
3. According to the migration theory, the Mishmis have migrated from Myanmar and China.

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How do Teachers Handle Linguistic Diversity in Classrooms?

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Key Words: Linguistic diversity, Multilingual strategies, Vocabulary building, Teaching

Abstract

Linguistic diversity is both a challenge and a resource. It is a resource because children bring tacit knowledge of language to the classrooms. It is a challenge because our understanding of the different ways of using diversity as a resource is very gross. The paper tries to unpack the classroom black-box to see how teachers manage linguistic diversity. I will look at three schools, two of which are located in the Karnataka-Telangana border region and one in Bangalore city. The purpose of describing the ways these schools deal with linguistic diversity is not to tell a tale of success. Instead, it is to describe the existing situation and bring to light the struggles and reflections faced by the teachers in grappling with linguistic diversity in the classroom. The paper ends with a few suggestions for pre and in-service professional learning of teachers.

Introduction

This paper is based on the version presented at the seminar "Teachers in the Current Scenario of School Education", held at Mysore in April 2018.

Linguistic diversity is the heart of multilingualism. Schools have an essential role to play in promoting and nurturing linguistic diversity. Diversity is promoted through the use of multiple languages in education (National Council for Education Research and Training, 2005), as a medium and as subjects. While the reasons for multilingualism are many at the individual level, at a societal level, two important factors contribute to it. Linguistic diversity is characteristic of areas that share borders with neighbouring states, and those spaces where there is an influx of migrants. These facts of multilingual life make classrooms a rich source of linguistic diversity. Teachers face a here-and-now challenge of dealing with linguistic diversity in the classroom because they have to address diversity-related issues while facilitating curricular knowledge. To understand how teachers address linguistic diversity, I will take three schools as illustrative cases. The purpose of this paper is not to tell a success story. The teachers are as yet unsure whether their strategies would work or not in the long run. Instead, the paper highlights the efforts of teachers as they grapple with this challenge in their everyday teaching. It also questions the general perception that teachers are "uninterested", and teach mechanically.

Strategies for Dealing with Linguistic Diversity

As mentioned earlier, we selected two schools from the Karnataka-Telangana border region and a Learning Centre in Bangalore City. The two schools selected for the study are located in Seedam, in Gulbarga District of Karnataka. Seedam is 150 kilometers away from Gulbarga, and shares borders with Tandur Taluk of the Rangareddy and Kodangal Taluk of the Mahabubnagar Districts of Telangana. The first school is an Urdu medium school, and is located in Seedam; the second is a Kannada medium school located in Motakapalli of Seedam Taluk. The data for the case study is based on periodic observation over a period of one year to the two schools combined with talking to teachers. The data on the Learning Centre is from two sources, namely observations and talking to facilitators over a month combined with information from an unpublished report (Azim Premji Foundation, 2012).

Case Study 1: Strategy in Urdu Medium School

The Urdu medium school is located in Seedam in a predominantly Urdu speaking area. It is a higher primary school with Kannada as a second language. Officially, Kannada as a subject is introduced in Grade 3. Unofficially, however, the school teaches Kannada as a second language from Grade 1, though it is not an assessed subject. The concern of the school is to increase the Kannada competency of students in keeping with their overall competence.

To address this concern, the teachers made a list of all the problems faced by the students in learning Kannada. A root cause analysis of the problems brought to light the reason for the limited exposure of the students to Kannada. There was very little Kannada in the surrounding environment. At home, students spoke Urdu, and outside their homes, they spoke Urdu mixed with Kannada. The teachers hypothesized that if the exposure to Kannada, at least within the classroom, could be increased, then the Kannada competency of the students could be

improved. Teachers began to engage the students in a range of activities in Kannada—storytelling, singing simple rhymes, singing action songs and drawing. Some, but not all these activities were part of the textbooks. While the focus of these activities was on using Kannada, students were free to use Urdu; its equivalents in Kannada were provided by the teachers. The broader purpose of these activities was two-fold: first, these were intended to increase the motivational level of the students for learning Kannada; second, they helped to develop a nuanced awareness of Kannada.

For the older students, teachers began to vary their strategy. While teaching the lesson, teachers often stopped to show pictures connected to the situation described in the lesson. The teachers themselves drew these pictures.Teachers also prepared flash cards and word lists to consolidate the learning of students. The teachers encouraged the students to share the gist of the lesson in their own words. Initially, students used Urdu with a bit of Kannada to talk about the essence of the lesson. Then, the teacher summed up the gist in Kannada. With an increase in the competency levels of the students, their gist contained more and more Kannada words. These were extremely intensive activities; the language teachers sought the help of senior students as well as other teachers. These activities helped students to develop competencies to carry out conversations in Kannada. Their communication skills improved along with their motivation levels as reflected in increased classroom participation as well as increased use of Kannada.

The schools also focused on developing competencies in reading and writing in Kannada. Developing reading and writing Kannada competencies was extremely challenging because Urdu has a right to left script while Kannada script goes from left to right script. Teachers read out short stories in Kannada. Students listened to these stories and retold them in Kannada. They were also encouraged to write the summary of the stories in Kannada. For writing, the first step was to make the students comfortable with the left to right psychomotor movements. To do this, teachers used sand or Rangoli powder. (Rangoli powder is a powder used to make patterns on the floor). Teachers were clear that they were focusing on the skill part of writing. At the very least, the fear of Kannada reduced in the minds of these students and their exposure to Kannada increased substantially.

Case Study 2: Strategy Used in a Kannada Medium School in a Telugu Speaking Area

The second case study involved a Kannada-medium higher primary school, located in Motakapalli of Seedam Taluk. Since it is very close to the Telangana border, Telugu is the dominant language in the area. Most students speak two languages, their mother tongue and Telugu. There is more linguistic diversity in this school as compared to the school discussed in the first case study. Students speak Telugu, Urdu, Hindi, Marathi and Lambani (a scheduled tribe language; 2 percent of the population in Motakapalli belong to the Lambani tribe). Kannada is the first language in the school, but the competency of students in Kannada is far below their grades. A common strategy followed in this school is for the teachers to read out the text in Kannada and then explain it in Telugu. The students understand the text, but respond in Telugu. When they are asked to respond in Kannada, they had difficulties. In discussions where students were required to work in groups, they tended to form a group with students with whom they shared a mother tongue. Students had difficulty in reading and writing in Kannada, and this brought down their learning achievements. The teachers in this school often reflected and shared their concerns about the strategy they

were using. They questioned themselves on the appropriateness of their strategy. Were they reducing the exposure to Kannada for these students? Did explaining in Telugu help the students in developing competencies in Kannada? Was it appropriate to use Kannada along with a bit of Telugu? Would this create problems for the students? Or should Kannada be the only language used in all Kannada subject classes?

These questions are not unique in themselves. They show that teachers do keep the learning of students central to their teaching. They are concerned about using the most appropriate method for teaching Kannada. Simultaneously, they seem to be reflecting on their own beliefs about multilingual education. The teachers do see linguistic diversity as a resource but have very little knowledge of how to deal with it. They reflect that they are aware of this knowledge gap. They agonise that in a bid to reach a pragmatic solution, they are perhaps nullifying this diversity. Their reflections indicate their desire to know about other strategies for using language as resources.

Case Study 3: Multilingual Strategy for Dealing with Linguistic Diversity

The third case study is slightly different as it looks at a Learning Centre for the children of migrant families (most of whom are construction workers), located in Bangalore city. The Centre serves as a bridge to enable students to transfer to state-run primary schools or any other school chosen by the parents (Azim Premji Foundation 2012). The Centre has students from the states of Bihar, Assam, Odisha, and West Bengal, and most students speak Kannada and Urdu. The school presents a picture of diversity. Half of these students have no previous school experience, while those who have some school experience have not attained the age-appropriate competencies. To complicate the issue, these are students who belong to a wide range of ages. What is unique about this school is that they use strategies that provide a seamless learning experience that transcends language and subject boundaries. Students are encouraged to move from one language to another and from one subject to another. As a result, they are exposed to a variety of languages, and actively acquire knowledge of multiple languages in the process of acquiring subject knowledge.

The Learning Centre offers many opportunities for students to express themselves. In activities like storytelling, students are encouraged to make masks for use in storytelling. Since the Centre involves students of multiple age ranges, most of the activities are group activities. Students are encouraged to form mixed language groups, and the stress is on gaining authentic language experience. Students go on field trips, such as going to a vegetable market learning words and phrases related to vegetables and buying and selling; they also learn about other cultures by interacting with community members to know about the festivals or marriage traditions of the community. In every group, students who know the language are encouraged to help those who do not know the language. After students come back from their field trips, they share their experience using words, pictures and letters to describe their visits. In this sharing, individual students are free to speak on any subject and share their experiences in any language they are comfortable with. Students build on their experience by learning new words through the use of picture words, picture reading and similar sounding words. The objective of the activity is to immerse the students in language experience, regardless of the language. They are required to describe things, create sentences and stories using words relevant to the activity. For example, if the activity is learning another culture, students use words that are used by the community members. In an activity like a visit to the market, students use

Kannada names of vegetables, words for buyingand selling, They also learn these words in other languages. Since students come from the same neighbourhood, they are asked to study and do their homework or joint activities with other students who are not from their language background. Such peer group interactions sensitise the students to the different languages in the community, including Kannada.

In addition to encouraging students to move between languages, students are given opportunities to learn the first, second and third languages—Kannada, English and Hindi are taught in a targeted manner by integrating them. For instance, the students had to learn the names of animals and birds both in Kannada and in Hindi. The translation method is extensively used to translate from Hindi to Kannada and vice versa. The facilitators give counterexamples to show that some words cannot be translated into other languages so that students understand the limitations of translation. The emphasis was on understanding and articulating in Kannada and Hindi. The teaching of English also follows a similar multilingual pedagogy. In this process of teaching the three languages, the nouns, verbs and new words are translated from Kannada to English and Hindi to English and listed. The students are asked the meanings of these words, after which they use them in sentences and identify the grammatical category to which these words belong. If a student does not know the structure of a Kannada or English sentence, they are free to create it in their mother tongue, and then with the help of other students recreate it in Kannada or English. In this way, multilingual pedagogy is used to help the children learn Kannada, English and Hindi. Math and Environmental Science were also taught in the same way.

Besides the lessons, the Learning Centre uses a variety of supportive activities to promote these three languages. Some of these are briefly discussed as follows:

a) Experience sharing: Every Friday is allocated to experience sharing. Two students act as leaders in these sessions. Students share situations that made them happy, sad, or in which they hurt someone. Students are free to use their mother tongue to share their experiences on any subject. These experiences are translated into Kannada. Student leaders are selected in consultation with the students and on a rotation basis. Efforts are made to ensure that the two student leaders are from different language backgrounds. In this way, all students get an opportunity to lead the discussion. Such an activity helps the students to increase their language competence and also build their confidence.
b) Building vocabulary in Kannada, English and Hindi: Several strategies are used to build vocabulary in the target languages. Some of these are listed as follows:

i) Word for the day: In this activity, students state their favorite word in either Kannada, Hindi or Kannada. The facilitator then asks a few questions (for example, "Why did you choose that word? Where did you learn this word? What was your experience with the word"?). The purpose of this activity is to allow for meaningful learning. Then the student writes the word on the blackboard in either Kannada, Hindi or English. Either the same student or other students write these words in the other two languages. Where students do not know how to write the word, the facilitator writes it on the board. Then students write these words in their notebooks and read them as a group and revise them everyday for the first few days and then twice in a week. A word for the day is chosen and is used to teach phonics. Students are encouraged to think of similar sounding words and these are written

on the blackboard. The entire class reads out these words.

ii) Picture-making vocabulary: Each child has an illustrated vocabulary book for Kannada, English and Hindi. Students are encouraged to add to the book.

iii) Book-making: Students choose a topic to write a book on; for example, a book on family members. The names of the family members along with how they are related to the student is written in English, Kannada and Hindi. Students have to read the names of their family members at least a couple of times in a month. They also express their feelings towards the family members they have named, which helps them to develop the syntax across the three languages.

iv) Subject wise words: The classroom walls are divided into different subject sections; Math has one section, Science has its own section, and so on. The keywords for the subjects are written on the corresponding wall. Initially, these words are accompanied by pictures, but the pictures are gradually phased out. Students practice using these words. The words on the walls are changed regularly.

v) Library usage: Every week, students have two library classes. In these classes, teachers read out the stories and explain using pictures. Here also, the students are made to experience the story. Some words in the story are used as prompts for children to come up with examples. This process is repeated in Kannada, English and Hindi. The library is organized into three sections—storybooks in three languages, two languages and single language books. At the end of the week, the students take a favourite book of theirs, read them and share it with their classmates during the library period.

Conclusion

The three cases illustrate the efforts made by schools to deal with linguistic diversity. As pointed earlier, these are not intended to be showcased as best practices or successful attempts. It is important that teaching is adjusted to meet the needs of the students and their local context. In all the cases, there is an effort to develop the languages using the linguistic resources of the students. The teachers in these schools do not consider any language or dialect to be inferior. These cases throw up insightful direction for pre and in-service teacher learning.

If we want our teachers to deal effectively with linguistic diversity, the pre and in-service teacher learning has to focus on the following:

- Respect and use the linguistic resources of the students
- Build on their knowledge of the language
- Modify teaching, keeping the goal of nurturing linguistic diversity among students and the larger society
- Extend the process of teaching constantly to include the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing.

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Online Semantic Mapping Strategies for Augmenting Retention of Lexical Fields: Applying Theory to Online Practices

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Key Words: Vocabulary learning, Learning strategies, Semantic mapping strategy, Lexical fields, Online semantic mapping tools, MindMup 2.0

Abstract

Vocabulary learning is a prominent aspect of attaining mastery in a language. At the same time, it is a complex cognitive process (Cook, 2001), that leaves the learners, especially the weak vocabulary learners, with learning difficulties. Enabling such learners to use strategies such as semantic mapping would help them navigate this complex process more effectively. Integrating the use of certain online learning tools available with the advent of web 2.0 technology could help this process further and lead to better retention of the lexical fields. This paper attempts to analyse these possibilities by drawing a link between vocabulary learning difficulties, use of semantic mapping strategy and the use of an online tool, MindMup 2.0. The paper begins by introducing the challenges in vocabulary learning and then brings in the prominence of semantic mapping strategy in addressing them. This is followed by a discussion on the multidisciplinary perspectives of the strategy and from this an outline of its theoretical framework has been critically drawn. Finally, the paper argues in favour of implementing the essence of the theoretical underpinnings of the strategy using online tools for better lexical retention.

Vocabulary Learning

For successful language learning, vocabulary learning and the process involved in it play a prominent role. Vocabulary was a neglected domain of SLA and received attention much after the four language skills. Until then, despite adopting various methods for teaching the four language skills built on a strong theoretical base, there were still challenges in getting learners to attain the desired proficiency. Perhaps this was because the role of vocabulary was disregarded, and there was no explicit research to understand the process involved in learning it. Later research has established that vocabulary as "a core component of language proficiency and provides much of the basis for how well learners speak, listen, read and write" Richard and Renandya (2002, p. 255); also vocabulary learning involves a complex cognitive process (Cook, 2001). The traditional approach to learning vocabulary was through learning a word just by its form and its meaning and rote memorization. Such a surface approach coupled with lack of opportunities to learn and practice vocabulary results in the learners relying more on an instructional environment and traditional academic input, which in turn leads to vocabulary learning difficulties (Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Brown, 2014; Souleyman, 2009). For the last 3 years, there has been a strong opposition to the use of surface-level approaches (Khoii & Sharififar, 2013). This reluctance has favoured the argument for more constructivist and thought-oriented strategies such as semantic mapping. Therefore, researchers are inclined to move towards learning strategies to explore how these could result in effective vocabulary learning. Enabling the learners to use specific strategies may go a long way in addressing these challenges. Semantic mapping is one such strategy as it involves a more in-depth processing approach (processing of word knowledge in the context). Additionally, it can be practised outside the classroom, which in turn increases the opportunities for vocabulary learning.

Semantic Mapping Strategy

Semantic mapping strategy has been a part of almost every taxonomy of strategies that were proposed based on the cognitive mechanisms. It is treated as an important strategy in Oxford's (1990) taxonomy of strategies for language learning. Semantic mapping strategy falls under language learning strategies (LLS). LLSs are defined as "any set of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate obtaining, retaining, retrieving and using the information" (Wenden & Rubin, 1987, p. 19). Semantic mapping is the categorical structuring of information in graphic form. "It is an individualized content approach in that learners are required to relate their new words to their own experiences and prior knowledge" (Johnson & Pearson, 1984). While doing this, learners carry out particular operations and steps, thereby turning semantic mapping into a strategy. Semantic mapping strategy is a cognitive vocabulary learning strategy that maps visually and displays a set of words/phrases (that are new to the learner) and a set of related

words/concepts (already known to the learner), with underlying meaning level associations. In other words, it is a way of visually representing the semantic connections between familiar and unfamiliar words in a language while learning vocabulary.

Approaches to Semantic Mapping Strategy

There are multidisciplinary approaches to look at what necessitates the idea of bringing extensive use of semantic mapping strategy into L2 classroom practice.

Philosophical Approach

A philosophical perspective questions how anything could mean anything. For instance, how could a noun denote an animate/inanimate object? Philosophically, this implies that earlier there was just animate and inanimate reality around human beings and attributing a pattern of sound, a word or a meaning to an entity came much later. This implies that different aspects of an entity would have been attributed with words which are closely related in terms of what they mean, in order to recognize them as belonging to one collective entity. In other words, linguistically, the vocabulary of a language is not a body of isolated lexemes, but a collection of numerous interrelated lexical fields. Though while learning vocabulary, visualization of these lexical fields and an overview of their connections are necessary, it is hardly emphasized in traditional learning practices for certain practical reasons.

Although learners are taught dispersed vocabulary using different methods, they subconsciously try to integrate them with the relevant pre-existing items that they are familiar with and form a lexical network of their own. This integration implies that both the linguistic lexical system and the subconscious lexical network formed by the learner follow a lexical pattern that is governed by the internal semantic relativity of the learner. However, this pattern is never a part of the lexical input given to the learner. In such subconscious and implicit processes of forming networks, one might take a very long time to encounter a lexical item that was learnt much earlier and which is very close to the item in its lexical field. Such a process of reaching implicit learning is a convoluted one. It would be helpful if learners were explicitly instructed about pre-existing associations of the lexical items using semantic mapping strategy and trained to cognitively visualise the integral structure of the language vocabulary.

Psycholinguistic Approach

A psycholinguistic approach is concerned with certain fundamental issues related to mental processing of meaning, such as how the mind represents a meaning or how a piece of intended information can be drawn from a lexical input instantly. Addressing this to an extent, Leslie, Friedman, & German (2001) state that there is an innate theory of mind that produces cognitive representations of a person's mental attitudes or states. A biological approach further addresses this mechanism and reveals the innate nature of the brain.

Biological Approach

Hardcastle and Stewart (2002), posit, on the basis of brain imaging studies, single-cell recording and neurological studies, it

is evident that different parts of the brain carry out different activities; these activities are confined to specific processing streams. As per the current understanding of vocabulary learning, it is clear that the left half of the brain works logically, linking vocabulary to related schematic ideas; and the right half of the brain recognizes concepts by taking the image of the bigger picture into account (King, 2011). A semantic map would integrate both sides of the human brain, as it would engage the learners in establishing logical meaning level associations among the words, thereby forming a visual map. Such a map is altogether a better way of providing lexical input to the learners. Furthermore, neurological perspectives based on research in the field suggest that the closer the arrangement of input to the imprint of the lexical patterns in one's memory, the higher the chances of successful learning of vocabulary.

Theoretical Framework for Semantic Mapping

Connectionism

Since the mid-1980s, there have been a growing number of studies in language acquisition that have applied the connectionist framework. Advancement in computer technology has given a new shape to the theory of connectionism. According to this theory, information-processing in the brain is similar to that of a computer. The neural networks in the brain function just like the complex clusters of information in computer execution. Learning, therefore, occurs as an associative process. The human mind is predisposed to look for associations between elements and creates links between them just as a computer does with different commands. The links become robust as these associations keep recurring. Some aspects of this theory are closely related to the vocabulary learning process. Unlike a generative grammar that has a set of rules, connectionism has no rules. The neurons "know" how to activate patterns; after the fact that data coding provides rules as a label for the sequence (Schunk, 2012)

Cognitive Theory

The cognitive theory is not one theory but consists of the theories of Piaget, Vygotsky, Ausubel and Bruner to mention a few. Research into ESL learner strategies usually includes Piaget's cognitive perspective as a part of its theoretical framework (McLeod, 2018). Piaget argues that the way human knowledge is gradually constructed and used is similar to the nature of vocabulary building using learner strategies. This cognitive perspective has led to the emergence of a wealth of SLA studies in the recent time under cognitive psychology. The primary point of investigation for cognitivists is the processing involved and its development among the language learners. The semantic mapping strategy emphasizes on the process of analysing the lexical input, assimilating it with the existing knowledge, which in turn enhances the chances of retaining it for a longer time with the help of the semantic associations formed.

Assimilation Theory by Ausubel (1962)

Ausubel's assimilation theory is a pre-eminent basis for semantic mapping strategy as it emphasizes meaningful learning. According to Ausubel (1968), meaningful learning results from the assimilation of new words/concepts into

existing words/concepts. Prior knowledge is an essential prerequisite for learning new words and concepts. The justification for the necessity of possessing previously acquired knowledge is that it assists the learner in resolving misinterpretation of the new word as well as in retaining the newly learned lexical information. Therefore, by consciously linking new information with earlier acquired lexical knowledge, learners attempt to construct an understanding of their own (Brown, 2000). As a consequence, meaningful learning takes place, which leads to better retention of the lexical field.

Bringing Semantic Mapping Strategy into Practice

The potential of the semantic mapping strategy is immense, but its application has barely been studied. Moreover, the limited research available has been carried out in a traditional classroom setting in the Far East, the Middle East and the UK. Zahedia and Abdib (2012), in a study conducted on lower-intermediate learners in Iran, report that the strategy was successful with them. Khoii and Sharififar (2013) found in another study that learners did not prioritize semantic mapping strategy over rote memorization at Islamic Azad University, North Tehran. The reason behind this preference was shared by the learners and is most insightful. The learners in the study revealed that they tend to opt for an easy way of learning such as using an e-note book to search for meaning instead of engaging in a strategy that would demand a more cognitive process to learn a word. This finding brings up issues of perception and prior orientation to the semantic strategy and not that of strategy. Bringing the strategy into the L2 classroom would be productive, and a further investigation into the strategy may yield better insights.

Moving a step ahead of practising the strategy in the traditional classrooms using pen and paper or board and marker, technology-enhanced online tools can also be used to draw semantic maps. The idea behind propagating such online tools into L2 classrooms is that these tools have learner-friendly multimodal affordances to better facilitate the strategy and not because they are available or that they introduce new practices.

Online Tools for Semantic Mapping Strategy

There are many online mind mapping tools that can be adopted for practicing semantic mapping strategy. These include tools such as Popplet, MindMeister, Bubbl.us, MindMup2.0, Coggle, Webspiration classroom, etc. Some of these tools are freely available, others have paid access, and some others are available free for a limited time. They all function almost similarly in forming semantic maps. However, tools such as Coggle, MindMup 2.0 and Webspiration classroom have some additional learner-friendly features, such as adding visual images related to the word, adding a video clip if needed and transposing the maps formed into a hierarchical text document. The idea behind these tools is that effective integration of technology-enhanced tools makes it easier for learners to achieve their goals (learning vocabulary with a deeper approach, increasing learning opportunities outside the classroom, thereby reducing reliance

on instructional input, etc.). Research shows that this strategy was successfully explored in the traditional classrooms, to map difficult concepts in subjects such as natural and physical sciences. It was explored in traditional ESL learning spaces, and to some extent in the online learning spaces. This can perhaps be attributed to two reasons. First, that use of online tools is still in its emerging phase in many countries. Second, the available tools are not specifically designed for language learning, but for more generic purposes such as planning and organizing ideas and procedures in corporate and business sectors. Nevertheless, they can be adopted for language learning as their features and multimodal affordances are added advantages for the learners. I have attempted to use MindMup 2.0 to apply some of the theoretical underpinnings mentioned earlier and discuss how it can facilitate better retention of lexical fields.

Practical Application of the Strategy

Semantic mapping strategy can be practised in two ways: theme based semantic mapping and word based semantic mapping.

Theme Based Semantic Mapping
In theme-based semantic mapping, a selected theme acts as the core. This core theme is then associated with keywords, and these words are 'mapped' around the theme. The keywords are further associated with their related words to form a complex lexical field on the core theme.

Word Based Semantic Mapping
In word-based semantic mapping, the target word is placed at the core. Thereafter it is extended towards the periphery by associating the word to related words in two major ways. Firstly, by associating the target word with its known synonym or antonym, or an example demonstrating the use of the word; secondly by associating it with a word drawn from the personal experience of the learner for better learning (Antonacci, O'Callaghhan & Berkowitz, 2014).

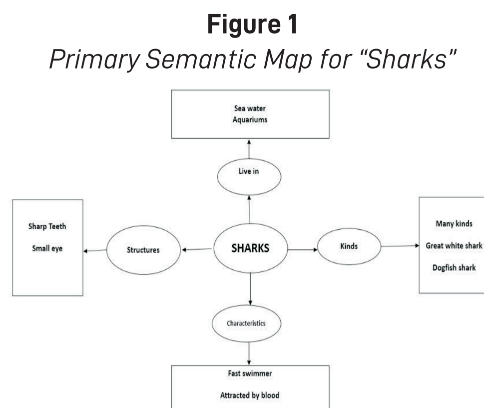
A sample lexical field has been taken and analysed to understand how these two ways of forming semantic maps facilitate better retention of the lexical field, for all learners, more so for weak vocabulary learners. (Gambrell, Wilson and Gantt, 1981). Teachers and teacher educators find enabling learners to form semantic maps by carrying out brainstorming even before exposing them to the target words in a selected text as a positive approach (Johnson, Pittelman, Bronowski & Levin, K. M. 1984). Therefore the analysis here is carried out for weak vocabulary learners and taking into account the context that they are made to form semantic maps before making them read the text with target words. An undergraduate learner sample (learning English as L2) seems to be suitable in this respect, as they are assumed to possess a minimum level of English vocabulary and technical skillset to use the online tools for forming the semantic maps. In the first example, the lexical field has been discussed in a traditional setting, and the semantic map has been formed using a pen-paper/board. In the second example, an online tool has been used to create a lexical map to demonstrate the advantages of online tools and to understand how these tools lead to better retention of the lexical field.

Sample Analysis for Theme-Based Semantic Mapping

Let us assume that the theme in a given text is "sharks". The learners have to first draw a semantic map by linking everything they know about the given theme. The teacher has to assist the learners in brainstorming so that they can recollect their prior knowledge of sharks. The learners could start with basic information about sharks: where do they live, what are the different types of sharks, how do they look, what are their characteristic features, etc., and come up with a possible semantic map as shown in figure 1.

Figure 1

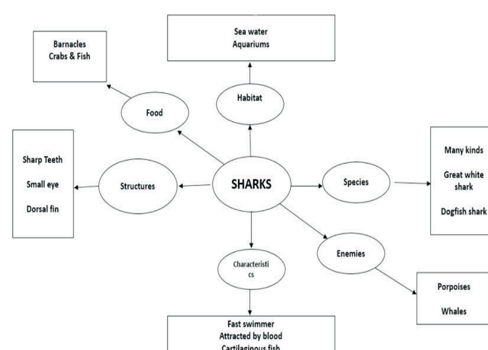
Primary Semantic Map for "Sharks"



This primary map gives the teacher an idea of the vocabulary level of the learners and hence the target vocabulary that can be associated with their prior knowledge on sharks. For instance, if they use the words "live in", in their semantic map, they could be exposed to the word "habitat" from the text and replace it in their map. Similarly, the learners could replace the word "types" with "species", when they read about the different "species" of sharks in the text. This way, the learners can replace a previously known phrase/word with a new word that is more academic and appropriate. The teacher could then add some theme-specific words that they had not thought of. For instance, if the text talks about the food habits and the enemies of sharks, these could be added as new associations to the central theme. In the end, the learners would come up with a probable semantic map as shown in figure 2. In both cases, (replacing or adding new words), learners do not just deal with words, but they go through a process of assimilating the new word knowledge with their prior knowledge.

Figure 2

Final Semantic Map for "Sharks"



Sample Analysis for Word-Based Semantic Mapping Using an Online Tool

The target word "induce" was chosen for the word-based semantic mapping. This word is drawn from the Sublist 8 of the Academic Word List (AWL). AWL consists of most frequently occurring words in the academic corpus. The list indicates the minimal word knowledge required for comprehending academic texts. The semantic map of "induce" is analysed to

show how the use of online semantic mapping strategies (such as MindMup 2.0) leads to better retention of its lexical field. These semantic mapping strategies include various other strategies such as grouping, organising, sharing in a group, etc., that interplay while practising online word-based semantic mapping. In order to learn a set of target words from AWL, learners are encouraged to form semantic maps for each word independently.

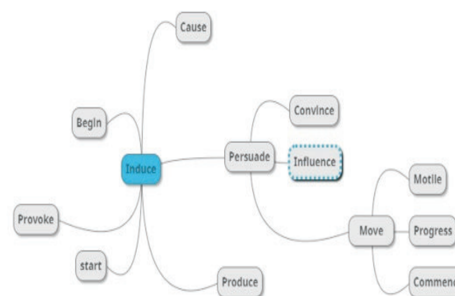
An orientation to online semantic mapping, such as MindMup 2.0, is given to explain mapping. When learners encounter a word for the first time, they are encouraged to use a lexical resource such as an online dictionary, to link the new word to the target word at the meaning level. The teacher also needs to provide an overview of the affordances of the platform to get them accustomed to drawing semantic maps. After forming the primary semantic map, the teacher gives an authentic text (created by the teacher if needed), integrating all the chosen target words to enrich the contextual word knowledge of the learners. This can be followed by an exercise to reinforce the words and so that the learners can gain mastery over the word. The online tool facilitates an easily accessible graphical interface for the learners to draw various shapes (and add the words within these shapes) that can be interconnected to represent the associations between the words.

One would think this could be done on a paper or a board as well. However, doing it using an online tool makes a difference to the learners and their active learning. The tool allows for flexibility in placing the words close to or further from the target word in the semantic map, based on the learners' prior knowledge of their relationship to the target word. Learners can alter this relationship by relocating the boxes if they find that a word is not as closely related as they had thought. They can also add a supporting image, a video or a recording to the word to enrich its meaning and improve cognition; they can add a hyperlink to gain further knowledge. Learners can take this learning outside the classroom on a mobile device and continue with the semantic mapping in their own time and at their own pace. In addition, this online semantic map can be shared with peers to ask for feedback and refine it further. Similarly, one could also comment on another learners' map, hence resulting in collaborative learning. All this is possible only because this tool can be used anywhere, even outside the classroom, and more importantly at any time. Lastly, MindMup 2.0 can be used to transform a semantic map into a hierarchical outline auto-generated by the tool. The learner can take a printout of this outline or the semantic map and use it for offline learning.

Figure 3 shows a possible semantic map drawn on MindMup 2.0 for the target word "induce". Looking at the semantic map, we see that the target word "induce" is closer to the words "cause" or "start" and comparatively farther from the word "persuade". The learner could also relate

Figure 3

Semantic Map of the Word "Induce" Using MindMup 2.0



the word "persuade" to "move" in a sense, and further relate the word "move" to "motile", with the sense of mobility. In the end, when the learner looks back at the map she/he finds "induce" at the core of the map "move" at the periphery and "motile" as a word no more related to the target word "induce". All the words and the associations around the target word "induce", right up to the periphery word "move" represents its lexical field. Moving a step ahead, the teacher can point out the beginning of a new lexical field of the word "move", which is on the periphery of the adjacent lexical field. Visualizing this, enables the learner to perceive the big picture of the complex lexical network of the lexemes, rather than looking at them as individual lexical items. The process involved in forming the map—identifying the semantically related words, grouping them under a common lexical field, organising them on the map based on the association they share, exploring a new lexical item further wherever needed, learning collaboratively through online sharing—facilitates a deep vocabulary learning approach. Following this, if the teacher introduces the authentic text of the target word to the learner, the level of comprehension of the target word would be much higher than if the learner directly accesses the text and encounters the word. Higher level of comprehension is because the learner do not just learn the new word in isolation, but assimilates the new word knowledge with the previous knowledge, thereby establishing a connection that helps to overcome misinterpretation of the new word and contributes to better retention, as Ausubel's assimilation theory argues. In such a process of assimilation, the learners relay on their innate mind mechanism (Leslie, Friedman, & German 2001) and draw a semantic map that is unique to them. Therefore there is every possibility that one learner's semantic map may not be the same as that of another. In fact, even the sample semantic maps in the article would not be the ideal or the final maps, but liable to differ slightly from learner to learner.

Despite these variations, it is still productive to encourage learners to form individual semantic maps because the group of online semantic mapping strategies that interplay together ensure that a learner's map lies closer to the lexical pattern imprint of his/her memory. Further, as neurological research suggests, the closer the input to the memory's lexical pattern, the higher the chances of effective learning and augmented retention of lexical fields of the target words for a longer time. Thus, online tools would definitely do a better job in bringing the semantic maps closer to their cognitive imprint with a prior orientation. These tools also effectively integrate the left and the right half of the brain by engaging the learners in learning logical associations of the words and forming visual maps, respectively.

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Formal Grammar? They Already Know it, so Just Show it

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Key Words: Grammar Teaching, Teacher training, Dialect, Wittgenstein's approach

Abstract

This paper discusses Wittgenstein's approach to teaching grammar to children who spoke provincial German dialect that mixed up dative and accusative cases while these are differentiated in High German. Wittgenstein showed his pupils this difference by presenting various sentences solely in the dialect form without making any reference to High German or suggesting that the dialect is an inferior form of German. He starts with the provincial form that children know and instead of moving on to teach High German, he stays where children are by demonstrating differences in specific usage in the children's own form of the language. The implications of this approach for cognitive development of children and for teacher preparation is brought out.

What can one of the greatest philosophers who ever lived tell schoolteachers? Ludwig Wittgenstein (1889-1951) is famous for giving western philosophy not one but two directions, with two mighty works, and for being noted in philosophical and other academic cultures all around the world. He is also known for being an enigmatic and often difficult, if charismatic, person. As he is a very modern though not contemporary figure, a vast amount of biographical and autobiographical material on and by him is widely available. Born into the enormously wealthy family of an Austrian industrialist, he qualified as an engineer and then went on to study logic and philosophy. In the First World War, he used neither his family's position nor a double hernia to obtain a non-combat posting. Instead, he served on Germany's Eastern Front, gaining admiration for his calmness under Russian and later, British fire. He was promoted to the rank of lieutenant (Sphinx, 2014). Sometimes in 1915, Wittgenstein had begun corresponding with Bertrand Russell and this correspondence continued when Wittgenstein was taken prisoner on the Southern—the Italian—Front late in the war, Wittgenstein continued his correspondence with Bertrand Russell in captivity, first from Como and then from Monte Cassino, the former monastery. At that time, he was working on what became his first great work, Tractatus Logico-Philosophicus.

After the war, Wittgenstein qualified as a schoolteacher, and from 1920 to 1926 he taught in three village schools in the province of Lower Austria south-west of the capital, Vienna. At the time, the Austrian education system was facing substantial calls for reform towards less formal and rigid methods, and towards what we might today call integrated content rather than the subject-based disciplines and intensive rote-learning of the kind which respectively formed the syllabus and the approach. The main figures pressing for reform were Otto Glöckel, a school reformer, and Karl Bühler, a philosopher and psychologist (Bartley, 1986, pp. 17-18). Many of the reformers were socialists or social democrats. They saw one of the main tasks of education as enabling students to be citizens of a democracy, who could weigh issues actively and decide for themselves instead of passively accepting state decrees and religious authority; some of the reforms seem to have worked well in the classroom (Bartley, 1986, p. 80).

Wittgenstein was not an uncritical supporter of the reforms and lampooned the more absurd statements made by the proponents of reform, but he got to know Glöckel well and was on good terms with him (Bartley, 1986, p. 80). Wittgenstein's time as a schoolteacher was a matter of mixed fortunes, but in the village of Puchberg and Schneeberg, where he taught from 1922 to 1924, many of his pupils and their parents remember him fondly, even decades later (Bartley, 1986, pp. 88-93). In the other two villages, Trattenbach and Otterthal, Wittgenstein's experience was more difficult. Particularly in Otterthal, where the farmers were relatively poor and deeply Catholic, Wittgenstein, known to be of a wealthy family and not Catholic (he had been baptized in a Catholic church, possibly because his mother was a Catholic, but seems never to have practised that faith), encountered enough suspicion for an episode of classroom punishment. The punishment, of a form normal for the time and apparently not very severe, was blown up into a serious allegation and even a criminal investigation into his state of mind. Moreover, the villagers needed their

children to work on the farms after school, and they bitterly resented the after-school time the children willingly spent with their teacher on things such as science experiments and nature observations (Bartley, 1986, pp. 88-93, 107-111). Wittgenstein never returned to school teaching.

Possible similarities can be seen between the respective approaches advocated by Glöckel and Bühler and those adopted by Wittgenstein in his classrooms; some of these have been noted by Bartley (Bartley, 1986, pp. 17-18, 112-114). However, one of the most striking features of Wittgenstein's methods was the way he taught formal grammar. Teaching formal grammar, as we know only too well today, is a continuing and apparently insoluble problem irrespective of the language we teach. It can be a frustrating chore for teachers, and an often incomprehensible and seemingly needless burden for pupils, as well as a constant source of worry about marks and grades. When treated as part of the 3Rs and nothing else, formal grammar can be a hindrance to the development of children's cognitive capacities. The development of cognitive capacities is currently receiving attention considering substantial evidence which confirms the poor, and possibly very poor, quality of learning—or in the current jargon, learning outcomes—in early-years education across much of India (ASER, 2019, p. 2). The draft National Education Policy 2019 is also clear about this (as cited in ASER, 2019, p. 2, fn. 4).

Wittgenstein's approach to teaching grammar, going by the examples Bartley quotes, is certainly striking. His pupils and their parents spoke a provincial German dialect, which is the local form of the language in their part of Austria. They often, as Bartley says, mixed up the dative and accusative cases, which are differentiated in formal German or, as it is more commonly known, High German or Hochdeutsch. Wittgenstein showed his pupils this difference by presenting various sentences solely in the dialect form, as follows. I have used Bartley's transliteration of the dialect (Bartley, 1986, p. 97):

1. The word "ihm" is in the dative case, and means "to him". Wittgenstein presented this as:
   "I hob eamg'sogt."
   In High German, this would be:
   "Ich habeihmgesagt."
   or in English "I said to him."
2. The word "ihn", meaning "him", is in the accusative case, and connotes a direct object; in this dialect, it is expressed as "n" or "m". Wittgenstein presented this as:
   "I hob m g'sehn."
   In High German, this would be:
   "Ich habeihngesehen."
   or in English "I saw him."
3. The word "ihnen" is in the dative plural case and means "to them". Wittgenstein presented this as:
   "I hob's eanag'sogt."
   In High German this would be:
   "Ich habe es ihnengesagt."
   or in English "I said it to them."

The point here, as Bartley notes, is that Wittgenstein uses the dialect itself to convey a significant point in German grammar. He makes no reference to High German, and he certainly seems to make no attempt to suggest that the dialect is an inferior form of German (Bartley, 1986, p. 97).

This is potentially far-reaching. Wittgenstein starts, so to speak, where the children are, using only the form of the language they themselves speak. That

by itself may be relatively commonplace in teaching and learning theory and in a lot of classroom practice today, especially in the Global North and in elite junior schools in the Global South. However, instead of moving on to teach High German, Wittgenstein stays where the children are, in the dialect form, and he conveys the substantive grammatical point by demonstrating differences in specific usage in the children's own form of the language.

This demonstrative method may or may not be what language teachers (and not only language teachers), today call an inductive approach, or possibly a constructivist one (Prince & Felder, 2006). The overall evidence for the effectiveness of this kind of approach shows that it is better than the deductive approaches which characterize teaching in several disciplines (Prince & Felder, 2006), though we must note that Prince and Felder rightly caution against dogmatism about teaching methods.

My point here, however, is that Wittgenstein's approach—as exemplified by Bartley's selection—requires and rewards careful planning by the teacher, and changes for the better the relationship between the teacher or teachers, and the learners. Particularly in severely stratified societies, taking the pupils' own form of their first language seriously as a medium for the substantive learning of formal grammar reduces the pupils and the teachers' sense of social distance or stratification between one another. It also empowers the pupils by alerting them to the knowledge they already possess, in what might be called tacit form, of features of formal grammar. Secondly, it could form part of a teaching approach which involves the development of the pupils' cognitive capacities as a necessary element. Thirdly, it changes the status of formal and informal or dialect versions of the language; those cease to be low and high forms and become instead different registers for use in different contexts and for different purposes.

For the teacher, this kind of approach clearly not only requires meticulous planning and preparation, but it also requires teachers to have extensive knowledge, even command, of the grammar of the language or languages they teach. That raises broader questions about teacher training and about the wider social contexts in which formal registers are used. Those are questions which lie outside the scope of this paper, though as an academic, a senior journalist, and then again an academic, I have always appreciated the value of the contribution my cognitive capacities (for which I make no special claims) made to the way I learnt the formal grammar which I was taught in the early years of my secondary schooling—in English as well as in Latin and French. The ASER report I have cited earlier recognizes the significance of early-years cognitive capacity, and one implication of that is that schools themselves can or should take on a more explicit role in developing pupils' cognitive capacities.

The kind of approach exemplified by Wittgenstein—and very probably already used in very many teacher-training systems, including those in India—has no doubt been adopted in many school systems around the world. However, a few examples may help us think about how we could develop some of our own materials to help develop our pupils' cognitive capacities and thereby engage more rewardingly with their school subjects.

There is no doubt that we still need formal grammar; we need to be able to use formal registers in a range of contexts, and we, therefore, need a reasonable command of the appropriate grammatical forms. This has undoubtedly been noted by millions or possibly even hundreds of millions of teachers around the world. However, it is also the case that teachers can now draw upon any number of existing resources to teach formal grammar in relatively informal ways which engage the pupils in games, songs, and other activities. For example, the Pinterest website provides several apparently freely accessible materials which can be used as games. One such game has a card with two columns, one showing informal locutions and the other the corresponding formal ones (Tulsian, n.d.). This could easily be adapted into a game, for example, one in which children have a little prior exposure to both forms of expression and then work in pairs. One child utters one set of, say, the informal locutions, one by one, and the other responds to each locution with its formal counterpart, or the other way around. This can also be done in small groups, or with the class divided into teams. As a reinforcement game or exercise, the children could even find or devise their own examples of formal or colloquial locutions for the game, or the game could involve composing, say the formal locutions in response to each informal one, and so on. Variations could involve appropriate emphases on reading, writing, listening, and speaking respectively.

Any number of these kinds of activities can be viewed on the internet, and many of them are now available in mobile-friendly forms, among others. Teachers in schools without access to the internet, or where resources are limited, might, therefore, be able to adapt ideas for classroom use without violating copyright. My point here is that of course, it is still necessary for us to teach formal grammar, but certain ways in which that can be done amount both to democratization and to empowerment—and that the children learn grammar through use. Once again, I am aware of the risk that I am telling teachers things they already know (it has been many years since I assisted in junior schools). However, part of what I am trying to show here is that Wittgenstein's approach in those schools in rural Austria nearly a century ago shows us something about the nature of language itself. That was an abiding, perhaps even obsessional, concern for Wittgenstein, and he drew on what we say and how we say it to show in his inimitable way, how our uses of language reflect and express many of the ancient concerns of philosophy. We as classroom teachers will for our part achieve a great deal if we can show, not tell, our pupils and students how their own language, however informal or colloquial, and their own use of it, are guides to formal grammar, guides they can use for themselves; and they would, if we planned our teaching appropriately, thereby learn their own language and learn about it.

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Providing Opportunities for Creative Expression in the Classroom: A Study

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Key Words: Free expression, Creative expression, National Curriculum Framework 2005, Teacher learning, Scoring guide

Abstract

Free and creative expression is vital in a child's life for it enriches language development and becomes the basis for further learning. Providing opportunities for such learning in the classroom is critical. This paper has two parts. The first part provides an understanding of free and creative expression from teachers' point of view. This understanding is gained through conversations with a handful of language teachers who teach classes five and six across three government schools. The conversations reveal two points: (a) teachers feel that providing opportunities for creative expression is essential; they do not do it for want of time, (b) teachers believe that creativity refers to uniqueness; hence only some children are capable of creative expressions. The second part of the study uses three activities to analyse free and creative expression in class six students across three government schools located north of Mandya, Karnataka. These activities are (a) blank sheet activity, (b) look at a picture and write about it, and (c) read a small script and draw a picture. Children's free and creative expression was analysed using scoring guides, and observations were made along with some reflections. The study concludes by highlighting the fears and concerns of the children with regard to creative expression, and its implications for teacher learning.

Introduction

This paper is based on the version of the presentation made at the seminar "Teachers in the Current Scenario of School Education", held at Mysore in April 2018.

As per the National Curriculum Framework (2005), one of the critical goals of education is to encourage creative and free-thinking among learners. Children come to the school with the ability to think in different ways. In schools, however, there is very little opportunity to think in different ways. In classrooms that provide opportunities for free self-expression, thinking becomes creative. However, when we tell children to write something they ask, "Sir, why do you want us to write in our own sentences? Own sentence means writing about what we know, isn't it?" This question is not surprising, because teachers provide students with readymade answers to their questions and insist that they regurgitate the same answers in their exams. This emphasis on "write what I tell you to write", kills the children's ability for natural and spontaneous expression. Children end up thinking in a very uniform manner. There is a glaring need to demonstrate to teachers how they can provide opportunities in the classroom for creative expression. This paper presents a study, based on three classroom activities intended to provide opportunities for free and creative expression among children.

The paper has two parts. In the first part, I try to understand the teachers' views on opportunities for free expression in the classroom. This broad understanding is sought through conversations with a few teachers. The second part of the paper describes three activities for promoting creative expressions in the classrooms of Class 6 students across three schools. The three schools were in rural Mandya North Block (Karnataka), and were chosen because of the rapport established with the schools, teachers and students. The observations and reflections following each of these activities have been discussed briefly.

Teachers' View of Free and Creative Expression in the Classroom

We had conversations with a handful of teachers to understand their views on free and creative expression and the opportunities for it in the classroom. Some questions around which the conversation focused were:

- Are students able to engage with their ideas in their own language (either in picture form or written form)?
- What anxieties and concerns do students experience when engaging with their ideas?
- Do students draw from their experiences within or outside the classroom?
- Does their free writing show the dominant influence of home language or school language? How is their writing structured?
- Are the students able to write what they express orally?

Observations

Notions of creative expression: Teachers held the view that creative activity means the text has to be creative in the sense of it being unique. They did not look at the concept from a language development perspective. So, they felt that creative expression is shown only by some smart children.

Importance of opportunities for Creative expression: Teachers felt it was important to provide opportunities for creative expressions. One teacher shared that the film “Taare Zameen Par” had left an impression on his mind about the importance of creative expression and providing opportunities for it in the class.

Abilities of children for free and creative expression: In one school, as part of an annual competition, students were told to draw anything they wanted, without giving them a theme (this was a departure from earlier years when they had been given a theme). Despite the absence of a theme, the drawings of the students did not show much difference when compared to the previous years. Most of the pictures were based on themes already taught in the classroom, or by their caregivers and friends. Further, when the students were asked to draw an image of their choice, or write about something they liked, they went back to the teacher, asking, "What should I do?", "I don't know". Another teacher felt that even though children had the ability for creative expression, it was difficult for them to engage in creative writing because they were unable to write grammatically correct sentences. The foundations for free expression were not yet in place. Teachers also felt that students needed clear instructions. Some teachers felt that children who come to study in government schools have no original writing skills. It is clear from this that they interpreted creativity as originality.

Opportunities for creative expression in the classroom: Some teachers felt that they gave many opportunities for free expression in the classroom. Textbooks also provide opportunities for creative writing. Most of the lessons end with activities that encourage spontaneous thinking and writing. These activities are given at the end of the lesson and are not assessed. Teachers felt that these activities could not be taken up in the classroom for want of time. Competitions conducted in schools also provide opportunities for creative thinking and writing. For example, in the “Prathibha Karanji Program" (a program organized by the Government of Karnataka, and conducted at the cluster, block, district and state level, to provide a common platform to students for various competitions), students participate in essay writing, debating, drawing, storytelling, and so on. This program also fosters free thinking. The teaching community, however, felt that these activities were led by the teachers, instead of the students engaging in them independently.

Influence of home language on free thinking: Teachers expressed the view that they encouraged the use of home language in learning. However, the writings of the children did not reflect their home language. Teachers did not find this strange, because according to them, children come to school to learn the standard language that is used in textbooks.

In a nutshell, teachers felt that nurturing free and creative expression is something desirable but not doable because of lack of time, limited abilities of children, poor knowledge of grammar, lack of originality in writing skills, and teacher's own interpretation of creative expression. These views have significant implications for teacher learning as they look at free creative expression from a language development perspective. We know that creative expression is not something special, nor are only some children capable of it. However, teachers need to interweave their lessons with opportunities for creative expression; this can be achieved by implementing the activities given at the end of the lesson, or designing some activities of their own. More importantly, the consequences of not giving such opportunities need to be highlighted when talking to teachers.

Children's Creative Writing Activities

It was essential to demonstrate to the teachers how opportunities for free and creative expression could be fashioned in the class, and also the fears and concerns of the children to engage with creativity. To this end, three activities were organized for Class 6 students in three government schools located in Mandya North Block.

Activity 1: Blank Sheet Writing

In this activity, each child was given an A4 size blank sheet and told: "Write whatever you feel like writing." Many of them asked, "Sir, what should I write?" The instruction that they should write whatever they felt like was reiterated repeatedly. Some of them continued to say, "Sir, give me something." I said again, "Write down what you want". Some children asked, "Sir, should I draw the margin?" I told them to do as they pleased. One or two children pretended to write something, but their sheets continued to be blank.

Observations and Reflections.

- Children were at a loss when they were told to draw or write whatever they wanted. This feeling of being lost is because they are used to being told what they should write about.
- Some children copied pictures from books they were familiar with (this included their textbooks). However, they still did not know what to write about. They found copying easier and more enjoyable.
- Most of them chose to draw pictures on the sheet rather than write. Among the children who had drawn pictures, very few wrote about them. They were, however, able to talk about the pictures.
- Some children drew small pictures in the corner of their sheets. When asked why they had left most of the sheet blank, they replied, "what if the whole sheet is spoilt?" Children did not value what they drew or wrote and were afraid of making mistakes.
- More than half the children drew a border on the paper and painted a picture of a house. When asked whether it was their house, they replied in the negative. A few children wrote simple sentences consisting of three to four words, such as "This is my house", "I like my house", and so on. Less than ten children wrote about their pictures, but they did not write more than four sentences.
- Five children had written poetry, (/ನಾನುಕಣ್ಣುಹೊಡೆದೆಅವಳುಮಾಡಿದಳುಕಣ್ಣುಸನ್ನೆ/'naanu kannu hoDede avaLu maDidaLu kannnu sanne' "I winked my eye and she signaled with her eye".) When I asked, "Where did you see this and what does it mean?", the student answered, "On the back of an auto", but could not say what it meant.
- Gender stereotypes manifested in the drawings as some girls drew Rangolis (decorative designs made on the floor).

So, children with some prompting, can engage in creative expression.

Activity 2: Write About a Shown picture

The second activity involved free writing and was carried out with 36 children. They were given two pictures and were asked to select one picture and write about it. Both pictures presented scenarios that were familiar to the children. A scoring guide was repared to analyse the free

Table 1
Scoring Guide for Analysis of Free Expression

Level	Nature of Free Expression
Level 1	Able to write the name of the picture in a single word. For example: ಹಸು / hasu / (cow); ಗುಡಿಸಲು / gudisalu / (hut)
Level 2	Able to describe the picture using simple sentences. For Example: ದನಕ್ಕೆಸ್ನಾನಮಾಡಿಸುತ್ತಿದಾನೆ / danakke snana baaDisuttidaane / (He is bathing the cow); ಮಕ್ಕಳುಆಟವಾಡುತ್ತಿದ್ದಾರೆ / makkaLu aatavaaduttidaare / (The children are playing.)
Level 3	Able to describe events, feelings and other emotions using compound sentences. Example: ದನಕ್ಕೆತುಂಬಾಸೆಖೆಆಗಿರುವುದರಿಂದರೈತನಿಗೆಸ್ನಾನಮಾಡಿಸಲುಹೇಳಿತು /Danakke tumb sekhe giruvudarinda raitanige sn na m disalu h litu / (Since the cow was feeling hot, it told the farmer to bathe it.) ಮಕ್ಕಳುಮಧ್ಯಾಹ್ನದಲ್ಲಿತುಂಬಖುಷಿಯಿಂದಜೋರಾಗಿಕಿರುಚಿಕೊಂಡುಆಡುತ್ತಿದ್ದಾರೆ/ makkaLu madhyaanadalli tumba khusiyinda jooraagi kirucikondu aaduttidaare / (In the afternoon, the children are playing with a lot of merriment and cheer.)
Level 4	Able to create a story based on the picture, write the theme, describe the characters and events, and summarize using complex sentences. For Example ಒಂದುಬೇಸಿಗೆಯಲ್ಲಿದನವೊಂದಕ್ಕೆತುಂಬಸೆಖೆಯಾಗಿತ್ತುಆಗಅಲ್ಲಿಗೆಬಾತುಕಕೋಳಿಯೊಂದುಬಂದಿತು. ಅದಕ್ಕೆದನಮತನ್ನಕಷ್ಟವನ್ನುಹೇಳಿಕೊಂಡು. . . .ಸ್ನಾನಮಾಡಿಸಿಕೊಂಡಿತು/ ondu beesigeyalli danavondakke tumba sekheyaagittu aga allige baatuko oliyondu banditu. Adakke danavu tanna kaddavannu heed koddu. . . . Snaana maadisikodditu / (One summer a cow was feeling very hot. At that time, a duck came there. The cow confided its problems (to the duck) . . . and took its bath. . . .)

Observations and Reflections

- Most of the children were at level 2. They restricted themselves to writing simple sentences. Although they knew the grammatical structure of Kannada their fear of written grammar stopped them from attempting longer sentences.
- About 15 percent of the children were at Level 3. They wrote five to six simple sentences.
- Only 3 percent of the children were at Level 4. They were able to write a story and use complex sentences.
- The children reported that as soon as they saw the pictures, a lot of ideas came to their mind. However, they had difficulty in framing their ideas into sentences using correct grammar.
- When the children were told to talk about the picture, they used more of their home language. The use of home language was more pronounced in the writing of the children whose free expression was at the third level compared to other levels.

In a nutshell, this activity shows that children can freely express their thoughts using simple sentences. However, their fear of making grammatical mistakes acts as a barrier to free expression in the written form.

Activity 3: Read the Passage and Draw a Picture to Convey its Message
The children were told to read the passage given in the following box and draw a picture for it.

> I saw a poster which had images of a pair of spectacles and of a woman holding a broom. When I asked my friend about the poster, he said that it stood for "Swatch Bharath" and the spectacles symbolized Gandhiji's spectacles and stood for Gandhiji's dream of Swatch Bharath.
> ನಾನು ನಿನ್ನೆ ಭಿತ್ತಿ ಪತ್ರದಲ್ಲಿ ಪೊರಕೆಯನ್ನು ಹಿಡಿದ ಮಹಿಳೆಯನ್ನು ಹಾಗು ಕನ್ನಡಕವನ್ನು ನೋಡಿದೆ. ನಾನು ನನ್ನ ಸ್ನೇಹಿತನನ್ನು ಆ ಚಿತ್ರದ ಬಗ್ಗೆ ವಿಚಾರಿಸಿದಾಗ ಅದು ಸ್ವಚ್ಛ ಭಾರತದ ಕುರಿತಾದ್ದು. ಅಂತೆಯೇ ಆ ಕನ್ನಡಕ ಗಾಂಧೀಜಿಯದ್ದು.

The expressions of children were examined using the following guide:

Table 2
Scoring Guide for Analysis of Free Expression

Level	Nature of Free Expression
Level 1	Draw a picture of spectacles or a broom.
Level 2	Convey what is written in the box by drawing a picture of a woman with a broom or spectacles, along with Gandhi.

Observations and Reflections
- Initially, some children were hesitant to draw, but they were motivated when they saw the other children drawing.
- The free expressions of most children were at Level 1. They drew a picture either of a pair of spectacles or a broom.
- Children found this activity challenging. Although they were able to read the sentences, they faced difficulties in making sense of them. Less than 5 percent of the children were able to explain what the passage meant.
- It is a bit difficult to say whether the findings would have been any different if the passage had been written in a local language.

Conclusions

The observations and reflections from the three activities lead to the following conclusions:
- Given the opportunity to engage in free expression, there seem to be three barriers that need to be addressed. The first is the fear of doing something wrong in a general sense ("what if I am writing/saying something wrong?") the second is the overwhelming fear of being grammatically incorrect, and the third is inadequate development of decoding skills in reading and writing
- Children are eager to create something new but are not very confident and need support and appreciation.
- The meaning of creative expression needs to be seen in the context of language development. Creative expression is not something that is unique in the general sense. It is unique to the child, that is, it brings forward something that may not have been expessed before by that child. For the child, expressing something creatively is a new experience. We should move away from the idea of creative expression as being something big and unique.
- Engaging children in free and creative expression activities given at the end of the lesson provides ample opportunities for facilitating free and creative expression. This is the minimum that teachers need to do. Children are creative and require to be chllenged at every stage. Activities that do not challenge them are likely to bring down their level of interest.
- That teachers encourage the use of

home language in free expression at the oral level is to be recognized and acknowledged. However, teachers need to see value in this and use it as a scaffolding for free writing.

- In conclusion, this study demonstrates the idea that all children are capable of free expression and this has to be actively encouraged in the classroom. The observations in this study act as pointers to teacher learning to enable this. It is clear that in free expression, the emphasis must be more on meaning-making rather than the correctness of grammatical structures and build on the free and creative expression of children.

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How not to Improve Heritage Language Competence: The Case of Farsi

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Key Words: Heritage language, Self-study, Wear and tear, Unobtrusive, Farsi

Abstract

Observations of "wear and tear" in books for self-study in Farsi (Persian) in a Los Angeles library revealed that few readers persevered beyond the first few pages. The library was in a neighbourhood where there were a considerable number of families from Iran, suggesting that the potential readers were interested in improving their heritage language, but found the traditional method unappealing.

As children grow older, use of competence of Heritage Language (HL) generally declines, but the attitude toward their heritage languages generally (but not always) remains positive (Cho, Shin & Krashen, 2004). We will examine here, what is probably the most frequent path to try to improve competence in the heritage language—the traditional study of the language. The specific route we will examine here is the use of self-study language books; in this case, books designed to teach basic Farsi grammar.

We have applied a method established by McQuillan (2008), who developed an interesting and unobtrusive measure (Webb et al., 2000) to determine perseverance in voluntary foreign language study; a way of determining whether library books were just taken out of the library or whether they were actually read.

McQuillan's "wear and tear index" was simple: It involved simply noting the last page on which any of the following were found:

1. Separation of pages on the binding,
2. Fingerprints or smudges on the pages or the corners,
3. Worn or wrinkled corners likely caused by page-turning.

McQuillan then applied this wear and tear index to ten self-instructional foreign language books found on the shelves of a local branch of Los Angeles Public Library. All ten books had been in circulation for at least one year, and all of them had clearly been used by the patrons of the library, judging by the covers and binding. No phrase books or books for travellers were included. McQuillan examined ten books—five for Spanish, and one each for Portuguese, German, Chinese, Italian and Cantonese. The results were quite consistent. On an average, the wear and tear index revealed that out of a total of 2836 pages, only 16.8% pages were read with the maximum being 27% for the book, *Teach yourself - Spanish* (McGraw -Hill, 2003).

In our study, the same procedure was used to measure perseverance in reading or studying entry-level Farsi in a public library located in an area populated by a substantial number of families from Iran. According to the bookstore owners we interviewed, most customers of self-instructional books in Farsi were heritage language speakers who were interested in improving their competence in the language. Some spouses, co-workers or friends of Iranians occasionally showed some interest in these books, but they were in the minority. We assume the same is true of those who attempt to read instructional books in other public libraries.

Table 1

Farsi Heritage Language Speaker's Entry-Level Reading Perseverance

Book Title (Publisher, Year)	Total Pages	Last Page Read	Percentage Read/Used
Farsi for Beginners (Tuttle Publishing, 2015)	160	12	7.5
(Hippocrene Books, 2018)	248	20	8
Basic Persian (Routledge, 2012)	304	14	5
Persian: The Complete Course for Beginners (Routledge, 2011)	288	5	2
Persian Vocabulary (Cambridge University Press, 1969)	408	11	3
Elementary Persian Grammar (Cambridge University Press, 1972)	250	18	7
		Average	5

As seen in table 1, readers appeared to have read on an average only 5% of the textbooks. Although only six books were inspected from one library, it is remarkable that there was so little variation in the wear and tear scores. This is quite similar to McQuillan's results. There seems to be no single self-instruction book in any language that holds the readers' interests, even among

readers who pick up self-instruction books voluntarily.

This is an important finding. In foreign language education, failure is generally interpreted as the fault of the student, the teacher, or the student not having a "talent" for language learning. However, when the children of immigrants do not master their heritage language to the native speaker's level of expectation, it is attributed to a lack of interest on the part of the young person, or lack of effort on the part of parents.

The results of this study as well as McQuillan's study (2008) suggest that there is another culprit—the method of instruction. All of the books used in this study were traditional, grammar-oriented books and assumed that the path to competence was through hard study and conscious learning of grammar and vocabulary. There is a good reason to suspect that the method has been the problem. The results presented here are very similar to McQuillan's 2008 results—the texts he inspected were traditional as well. They are also similar to studies showing a lack of perseverance in traditionally taught foreign language courses in the US. McQuillan (2019), gives a thorough review of perseverance in academic as well as commercial courses.

The results of this study echo the remarks of young people who have attended heritage language classes. Students feel attending the heritage language classes a chore. Interviews with bookstore owners in California also share that customers interested in Farsi typically buy only the first book in a series designed for students; they do not buy any further books.

These observations are consistent with research findings on language teaching over the past 40 years. We do not acquire language through study, but rather by understanding messages; conscious learning plays only a peripheral role. This way of developing competence through an understanding of the language has been shown to be far more effective and also far more pleasant than the traditional skill-building approach (Krashen, 1981, 1982, 2003; Mason & Krashen, 2017). It is clearly time to try something different in heritage language education.

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Call for Papers for LLT 19 (January 2021)

Language and Language Teaching (LLT) is a peer-reviewed periodical. It focuses on the theory and practice of language learning and teaching, particularly in multilingual situations. Papers are invited for the forthcoming issues of *LLT* (*LLT* 19 onwards). The references must be complete in ALL respects, and must follow the APA style sheet. All papers must include an abstract (100-150 words) and a set of key words (maximum 6 keywords). Papers MUST be written in a style that is easily accessible to school teachers, who are the primary target audience of this periodical. The articles may focus on the learner, teacher, materials, teacher training, learning environment, evaluation, or policy issues. Activities focusing on different languages are also invited. The article must be original and should not have been submitted for publication anywhere else. **A statement to this effect must be sent along with the article.**

The upper word limit (including the abstract, key words, references and a short bio-note) for each contribution in different sections of LLT is:

Article: 2000-2200 (it could be extended to 3000 words if it has some theoretical significance);
Interview: 2500-3000; Landmark: 2500-3000
Book Review: 1000-1500; Classroom Activity: 750; Report: 1000
The bio-note should not exceed 30 words.
Papers must be submitted as a word document in MS Office 7. Please send the fonts along with the paper if any special fonts are used. For images, please send jpeg files.

Last date for the submission of articles:
January Issue: August 15; July Issue: February 15
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Interview

Praveen Singh (PS) Talks to Dr. Tara Mohanan (TM)

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Praveen Singh is a trained English language teacher. His also likes to study linguistics and philosophy.

Tara Mohanan did her Ph.D. in Linguistics from Stanford University and went on to teach at the National University of Singapore (NUS), where she developed (along with K.P. Mohanan), an inquiry-oriented undergraduate programme in Linguistics. She is well known for her work in Theoretical Linguistics, through several research papers and books. She is also the co-founder of ThinQ.

PS: Could we start with your biographical journey as a linguist and an educator.

TM: I always wanted to be a doctor, but for various reasons, I couldn't do that. I ended up doing a Bachelors and a Masters in English Literature in Kerala. We had, in the M.A. programme, one paper in linguistics which I really enjoyed. Having finished M.A., I did some teaching—a year in Kerala and a year in Tamil Nadu. Being the junior-most staff member, I got to teach linguistics, which nobody liked to teach. That's how I got even more interested in it. Later, I went to CIEFL, which is now EFLU (English and Foreign Languages University) in Hyderabad and did a diploma and an MLitt. in linguistics. Later, when (K. P.) Mohanan was doing his Ph.D. at MIT, I was working, doing all kinds of odd jobs. Also, my daughter was very young, so I was away from linguistics for a while. But at MIT, I audited several courses and was part of grad[uate] student discussion groups, so I hadn't completely lost touch. It was only when I went back to linguistics at Stanford that I began to get over my disappointment of not having been able to do medicine.

PS: What were some of the things that you learnt during your Ph.D. that have stood out for you?

TM: During the Ph.D., I learnt a whole lot of things both about teaching and learning and about research. I found that we all have different paces of learning. So now at times, I feel terrible about a classroom where you have sixty children. All of them being taught the same thing, having to do the same exams in very cramped situations—intellectually, emotionally, physically cramped situations.
That was not the kind of learning we had at Stanford, partly because of the freedom to learn, where we were not pushed into anything particular, and partly because we could learn together. In our first semester, one of our professors, Joan Bresnan, told us to work in affinity groups. From the political implications of affinity groups, this became a kind of intellectual growth community. That kind of peer learning and peer support was immense.

PS: Do you think that something like the affinity groups can be made to work even in our Indian classrooms, and even at lower school levels, given the teacher-student ratio and other constraints?

TM: I think this can work from at least Class 8 onwards. It has worked for me for classes with over a hundred students. In NUS, we tried it with 400 students. We've tried it in a workshop for Class 8, 9 and 10 at a regular school in India. The class size was twenty. We got them to form groups of four and five each and gave them a problem where they had to work together. And [sic] one of the delightful surprises was that the students said, "we learnt that we are learning by ourselves and we learn much more when we learn together." So that for me is a validation that groups work.

PS: Do you think that the freedom to learn things that you are interested in is lacking in the Indian classrooms or Indian academic situations?

TM: Absolutely. I think that freedom to learn is lacking not just in schools but even in colleges, in postgraduate learning and even in the course work for Ph.D.'s.

PS: What other things impressed you and were there other instances that left an indelible impact on you that shaped the way you taught things afterwards?

TM: I heard a professor say that you could tell the quality of a department by the way

the professors talk, not about their own work but about their students' work because they are excited by it. In fact, that became part of a habit in the linguistics programme that we started and developed at the NUS.

PS: Could you elaborate for us how this thing spilt over to your programme at NUS?

TM: We started it in Singapore almost the day after I graduated. We took a year to develop the academic programme as well as the administrative aspects and the educational philosophy underlying the programme. We decided that we were not going to use any textbooks in the first two years of the four-year undergraduate programme. Linguistics has this advantage that without going to a laboratory, you have a natural laboratory right there in the classroom. This was particularly true in Singapore because you had different languages spoken around you—several varieties of Chinese, what they call dialects but are languages in their own right—Hokkien, Hakka, Mandarin, Teochew; and there was Malay and Tamil and of course English, the shared language. From day one, we got students to engage with and monkey around with data to see if they could find patterns. And [sic] those that spoke the same language, we got them to work together in what we called a "play group". We had that for phonology and for syntax, and we'd get them to bring up data and look at patterns, form their generalizations, and that was how the journey began. So for the first year, the classroom sessions were really for building the tools for doing linguistics and the tools for thinking and inquiry. We focused on things like: How do you classify these things? How do you define certain things? How do you state a generalization? Also, how do you engage with a question? One of the things we said was: first figure out what the question is asking for, figure out what is given to you by the question. What is it that you need to bring into it, and how do you formulate it. We never had a single closed-book exam for any of our courses. In the open-book exams, you can actually see how much they think, how much they can bring to bear on what they had learnt over a semester and how they unpack something that's completely new. The exams and the evaluation were geared not towards looking at how much students had mastered but what progress they had made from before. It was extremely labour-intensive, so I don't think I'd expect any faculty to invest that kind of time. But is it possible to do this in a less labour-intensive way? Definitely.

PS: Was there a certain purpose of education that you had in mind which got into the way you developed the linguistics programme at NUS?

TM: For this programme, we started out with very specific goals. But the specifics were so general, that I don't think that's the kind of goals you would normally find. We thought: of those who do a Bachelor's degree in linguistics, how many are going to go on to become linguists? Very few. Those very few need to be able to get enough content of linguistics and alongside that, the ability to go further and do linguistics on their own, do research. So, for that, you have to empower them to think about things, to be able to do things and to construct knowledge on their own.
This is true of any discipline, not just linguistics—whether it's physics or sociology or any other discipline. A physics bachelor's degree holder doesn't always become a physicist. So, what is it that those who do not wish to pursue

linguistics in the future would still take away from the program? And that was the modes [sic] of thinking that linguistics was able to give them. That was the force.

PS: What were some of the things that you initially thought would work in classrooms but somehow did not work? Were there any failures that you too faced, and how did you cope with those?

TM: The biggest obstacle I faced was people not wanting to think. I got feedback from students who said that there was too much thinking in the class and too much rigour; but that was like a failing in something like 20 percent of the students in a large class. So would I give it up? I don't think so.
I found other ways of keeping the rigour and the thinking by easing people into it rather than going full blast right from the beginning. I also realized that it's not just something having [sic] to do with students at higher levels, but that it happens because of the education at much lower levels. You need to get children to start thinking and learning on their own, and recognizing that not everything that they want to know is already out there, and somebody can tell them. They need to know that there are things that we know nothing about, and there are things that they have to find out which nobody else may know.

PS: What do you think about the overall language learning and language teaching situation as is practised globally and also locally in Indian classrooms? What do you think can be done for the teachers and also by the teachers, that will improve the situation?

TM: Well, this is something we've thought about, talked to teachers about and done workshops on. Essentially, language learning for a child should happen in a way that the child doesn't know that she is learning something. Language learning should happen as a by-product. And for that, the best way is through things that they enjoy doing. For example, watch small [sic], enjoyable movies with them in the classroom. Read to them, have them read.
Our daughter learnt to read at a very young age and one of the things that we used to do with her was to read with her. We'd read to her stories that [sic] she wanted to find out what happened afterwards, and then say that we're a bit busy and leave the storybook with her. She'd then look into the book and try to figure out herself to the best extent a child can and try to learn to read. You want to create situations in which they want to learn to read.

PS: Don't you think that this may be easier for parents to do with their children, but not for teachers in classrooms?

TM: It's possible for teachers too. One of the ways is (there may be others) if somebody can create (this would be for Grades one and two) let's say, small videos that can be shown in the class where you have the pictures, and you have the words where the children can follow them, and you also have a recording where a voice reads aloud the words on the screen. Children would learn to read. They would learn to listen and to pronounce, and they also enjoy it all. In a half-hour class, you can have ten minutes for the story; and then they talk about what they saw. That takes care of their comprehension and communication. Teachers should ask questions about what children would want to talk.
I volunteered to try teaching in a [sic] second grade at a school in Pune. For some of the activities, it was their thinking

component that was active, where they had to do things with their mind, figure out how many squares there were in a grid, and so on. They arrived at different answers. They learnt by talking and listening. One activity was in teams of four and five. Children were given some stones and seeds, and they had to separate them into groups and give names to the groups. When they were done, the teams had to give their answers. Some said "beans and rocks"; others said "seeds and stones".They debated and argued over why it should be a stone and not a rock. During the discussion, some said, rocks are big and stones are small, so these are stones. As for beads, they said people make them, seeds happen on their own. They were classifying, conceptualizing, thinking on their own, differentiating, and communicating. It involved all of these.

PS: Can all this be done only in the child's mother tongue or can this also be done in second/foreign language? How do I go about teaching a class where the majority of speakers speak some regional language and are expected to learn another language at school?

TM: Well, one could start with, say, Marathi. Give the students pictures to look at and then give the students words for creating sentences or having dialogues, and ask them: "what do you think they are saying?" So, the children are guessing the meanings and in the process they are learning the language.

And [sic] then there's the immersion kind of thing. I really don't know which one works better, but my feeling is that they both need to be tried in any situation. Even if it's a purely English classroom with every student has some basic English, it is good to occasionally give them the mother tongue word so that they know the concept and can connect it to the English word. Let's just take Hindi as the students' mother tongue and English as the target language, and this would apply to any other situation. Tell a story in Hindi and tell the same story in English and gradually build up their vocabulary; and then get to a point, in say six months, where you tell them: "No Hindi allowed. It doesn't matter if you make a mistake, just say it in English." Don't correct them every time, as long as you are getting the meaning. Their language will grow on its own at that age.

PS: It is often said that if it's two or three languages, then it is perhaps possible to manage but in a classroom with thirty or forty students where many of them speak several languages, do you think something similar could be done?

TM: That's fine. It doesn't matter if they mix up the languages. They will at some point get to where they will start separating them; and till then, as long as they are communicating, don't correct them. There's a striking example of this in my experience. This was in 1978 and this child I have in mind was five. Her family was driving me somewhere. We were six of us in the car, and this child said something to me in English. Then she turned around and said the same thing in Hindi, Telugu, Kannada and Konkani. I asked her, "Why did you do that?" She said, "Because everybody needs to know about it." She was able to do it because she spoke English at school, Hindi with her friends on the campus, she spoke to her household help in Telugu (this was in Hyderabad), and to her parents in Kannada and Konkani. Children can acquire multiple languages at the same time. We just don't use our imagination enough with children.

PS: Are there some teaching methods that you think language teachers in India, if exposed to, will benefit from? Do you think that some kind of training in linguistics could be of help to language teachers in India?

TM: For language teaching, I don't think any formal training in linguistics is going to help. Most people don't know anything about linguistics, but speak multiple languages perfectly; but what I would have them focus on, even in language learning, is on certain kind of thinking critically. I'll share something I tried with the second graders. I read out to them a version of the story of "The Three Little Pigs" (and they automatically joined me in reading a part of the story—the huffing and puffing).

At the end of it, I asked them,"how was this story different from your story?" The differences they told me were:

- the three little pigs: one is a farmer, another one a carpenter, and the third one, she is a dentist so she has a brick house. The farmer and the carpenter goto her house to be safe; and the wolf comes and huffs and puffs but cannot reach them.
- one of the pigs is a girl.

When I asked, "What does a carpenter do?", most of them said that a carpenter was one who painted. A few who knew what "carpenter" means told the others. They shared that with each other. That is also an example of peer learning and collective learning. So, it was language learning, vocabulary, and critical thinking. They were also putting their cognitive skills to use.
Another thing they said was, the pigs are very kind because when the wolf comes into the house through the chimney, they don't burn him by lighting a fire. Instead, the dentist waits with her tools and when he appears, she pulls out his teeth so that he can't eat anyone anymore; and then she brings him and heals him because he is in pain. They are kind, because they help the wolf. These were [the] thoughts of the children. So, they were engaging in critical thinking, and also visible was their ethical sensitivity. This also is an instance of literature working for language teaching; it's just that you have to find the right stories.

PS: Are you suggesting that one of the things for the language teachers would be to look for the right kind of literature—the readings, the videos, the poetry, and so on.

TM: Yes, and there's another aspect to this. I read them the book *The Giving Tree* by Shel Silverstein and at the end of my trial, I asked them what they thought of it. They said, we are cruel to trees and still the trees keep giving us so much. Something had struck them and you realise that you can teach a value system through this. It's not just language learning. We tend to compartmentalise things even in language teaching, but that doesn't have to be so.

PS: Isn't it that the same discovery procedures can be transferred to other domains such as maths, physics, sociology, literature, etc.?

TM: Yes, exactly.

PS: Do you think a similar thing can be done with young learners at primary and secondary levels to better their conceptual understanding in all subjects?

TM: Yes, it's possible, their developing tools of inquiry. That is one of our foci, and the goal is for the child to be able to discover knowledge and be able to create

his/her own knowledge. We do something we call "chalk-dropping" with the sixth graders (among other activities).You go to a class. They don't know what the object is and you drop it and you ask them:
"What did I do?" They say, "You dropped it."
"What happened?" Some might respond, "It broke into four pieces", or "It became powder."
"Imagine any piece of chalk, what would happen if you dropped it?"
When the learners respond, they're making a statement about a chalk falling in general. It becomes a generalization. What they did there was, they were reporting or describing what they saw.
"Does it always happen? If you drop a thick chalk, does it also break?"
They say, if it is of such and such thickness and so on; and if you take a long one, or you take a short one, you vary these parameters. So, at the end of it you can say, "these are the 'variables' that you were using." Write them on the board: the length of the chalk, the material of the chalk, etc. They immediately understand the notion of the word "variable". They have already got the concept, which is then useful for all kinds of things afterwards.
Now you take a thick, soft mattress instead of the floor and change the height from which to drop the chalk and so on. Here they've started thinking about the range of possibilities, the kinds of variables, what they are. Get them to form small groups of three or four. They have to talk amongst themselves, and they have to take turns. We have to hear everyone's voice separately at least once during the class. Every child gets a chance to talk. Another thing is that if one of them is speaking, the others have to listen to that person. So, this way they are respecting the speaker, and in the process, they learn to articulate these things, formalize them and acquire clarity and precision of statements. There's a certain kind of habit of mind and behaviour that comes into play here.
So in one half-hour class, you can build in a whole bunch of learning outcomes.
So if B.Ed. courses were done very differently with these things in mind, starting with the goals like what do we want to accomplish, what do we want the children to be, and what do we want them to be able to do at the end of ten years of school. We start with that in mind and work backwards and have B.Ed. courses [that] help teachers, not teach them unnecessary fancy stuff. They have to learn ways of doing the kinds of things we've talked about, and using their imagination. The hard part, unfortunately, is changing the mindsets.

PS: What would be the key things that I should keep in mind assuming that I am the teacher whose job it is to teach not only a language but also something like math, physics, geography, etc., while performing all kinds of different roles?

TM: The very first thing for the teacher to know and be able to say is "I don't know everything". The next equally important thing is respect for the students, and not ever say,"that is stupid", or "you are wrong", or "shut-up." Those two would be the most critical aspects of any teacher; part of creating the environment for learning. Beyond that, as much as possible, get them to think rather than yielding to the urge to give them answers. Be able to hold back answers so that the students use their minds to arrive at them. Teachers should develop the sense of when to offer help. The mistakes children make are natural, and there is nothing wrong with them. They shouldn't go away with a sense of guilt or inferiority. That is absolutely crucial.
Teachers should also get into the habit of

creating a sense of co-learning. If you respect the students, they will respect each other. You get them into the habit of listening to each other and learning equally from their peers as they do from the teacher. You build that habit from grade one. We've taught classes in schools where teachers sometimes sit in. They sit at the back of the class and talk amongst themselves. How do they, when they go to their class, expect the children to listen and to engage. Be role models, for the children are watching you all the time, and it matters to them how you treat them, how they see you treating other students, whether you are fair in your treatment. I think that makes a great difference.

The entire curriculum is sort of focused on content knowledge and memorizing. But you can get student sexcited about things, about how to do something in order to be able to learn something that you will never forget.

PS: Are you saying that the curriculum that the teachers have to stick to does not then become a serious issue, because you're saying that you are teaching the same curriculum, just that you have found a different way of teaching it?

TM: Let's admit that even the curriculum needs changing. The textbooks need huge amounts of changing. In fact, you have to start with the policymakers and the top educationists to change mindsets. The purpose of (formal) education should not merely be the learning of some smattering of English, or mathematical terms, or the sciences; instead, it should be a lot more. Even the cultivation of a value system should be part of education. The ability to critically understand and to inquire should be the focus.

PS: Thank you for sharing your insights and your time.

Landmark

Foreign Language Studies in India: Some Critical Observations

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Key Words: Foreign language studies, Vocational skills, Humanitarian values, Transcultural competence

Abstract

This paper is concerned with the dilemma faced by foreign language studies. On the one hand, foreign language education has humanistic leanings and on the other it is increasingly tending to vocational skills. It argues that these two positions need not be seen in opposition. Anchored in a philological perspective, the paper takes stock of foreign language studies in India to elucidate the dilemma. It looks at the narrow vocational focus and increasing corporate culture brought into foreign language curricula and universities respectively. It proposes "transcultural competence" as the "humanistic learning objective", to balance effectively the dilemma confronting foreign language learning. Given this objective, the paper talks of the identity of a foreign language teacher, who in the transcultural perspective is a mediator between cultures. In addition, the responsibility of a foreign language teacher is to help students not only to discover the foreign culture but also to look at own culture/tradition afresh and to begin questioning one's understanding of oneself all over again.

To have another language is to possess a second soul. —Charlemagne
He (Charlemagne) might have added that to teach another language is to implant a second soul. —John le Carré

While learning a professionally "useful" foreign language is becoming increasingly popular in India, foreign language studies as a philological discipline seems to be at the crossroads. It is confronted with a "curricular dilemma" (Mathachan, 2018) with foreign language study as humanistic education on one hand and foreign language learning as a vocational skill on the other. The two sides of this "dilemma" are not necessarily mutually exclusive. However, they do constitute a point of departure to reflect upon the state of this field of study in India today. The attempt here is to open up a discussion on the relevance of foreign language study from within the discipline via reflections on a few key questions, namely:

1. Who are we?
2. Where are we today?
3. What are the challenges before us?

I would like to approach these questions by first taking stock of where we are as a discipline today, identify the challenges that we face and try to reach an understanding of who we are through the way we respond to those challenges. While the discussion here addresses mainly European languages, there might be pointers for other foreign language groups as well, such as East Asian, African and Asian languages.

Foreign Language Studies in India: Where are we today?

The last available report of the Curriculum Development Committee of the UGC (UGC CDC) for Western European Languages is from the year 2000-2001 (UGC 2001). It finds that many of the problems related to the teaching of foreign languages in India enumerated in the 1990 report are still valid even in the year 2000-2001.

The primary "problem" the committee mentions in the report is the fact that foreign language studies have still "not received their due importance" as independent disciplines. The report then goes on to list other problems, which also "have not been adequately tackled". These are:

- There is no uniformity in the policies of the state education boards towards foreign languages; very few states have "provided for the teaching of foreign languages at the high school level".
- Very few universities offer graduate programmes in foreign languages; even at universities where a B.A. (Hons.) programme does exist and at other universities, which offer an advanced diploma, the facilities for further study—say at the M.A. level—are quite inadequate.
- At most Indian universities, foreign languages are bunched together in one department and/or are under the "jurisdiction" of departments of English, linguistics, etc. The report says this "impedes the growth of foreign languages" as independent disciplines.
- Finally, the grants available for technology upgradation (computers, multi-media facilities etc.), for preparation of dictionaries and textbooks and so on are "very meagre".

In the preamble of the report, the committee notes the increase in the number of foreign languages offered at Indian universities together with the introduction of postgraduate programmes in Spanish, Italian and Portuguese and the increased need of the industry, especially the Communication and the IT sectors, for expertise in foreign languages since the "opening up" of the Indian economy.

In a recent Doctoral thesis done at the Centre of German Studies at Jawaharlal Nehru University, K. J. Mathachan (2018), explores *The Effect of Globalization and IT Offshoring on German as a Foreign Language in India.* While measuring the impact of globalisation and the IT-enabled services industry on teaching and learning of German as a Foreign language in India, Mathachan, through detailed analyses of relevant data and 30 interviews with teachers of German and other foreign languages, takes stock of the overall situation of university level teaching-learning of foreign languages in India in general, and German in particular. Almost two decades after the last UGC curriculum review, Mathachan provides a critical perspective on foreign languages as philological disciplines at universities in India, considering the commodification and commoditisation of higher education that has happened in the last 3 decades, particularly since 1991. Mathachan shows how in the context of foreign languages, learner motivation has become predominantly extrinsic. Today, hardly any learner is intrinsically motivated to "study" a foreign language and its literature for its own sake, or delve deep into it to discover the nuances of an other language, literature and culture (Mathachan, 2018).

Faced with a demand from the job market for foreign language "experts" skilled in business and technological communication, foreign language departments find themselves in a curricular dilemma in terms of balancing the "older" humanistic approach to higher education on which they were founded, with the "utilitarian" demand for limited skills, which would enable the learner to get a job as quickly as possible and be of use to the industry. The UGC CDC report for Western languages argues for market needs to be incorporated while updating the syllabi of foreign languages at universities and devotes one section to possible "Syllabi for Need-Based Courses". However, its primary concern clearly seems to be the lack of recognition as independent disciplines that foreign languages in India suffer from. Mathachan (2018), drawing from an MLA report (2007) proposes "transcultural competence" as the "humanistic learning objective", to "balance effectively the current dilemma of foreign language learning". The MLA report (2007) argues:

> The idea of translingual and transcultural competence, in contrast, places value on *the ability to operate between languages*. Students are educated to function as informed and capable interlocutors with educated native speakers in the target language. They are also *trained to reflect on the world and themselves through the lens of another language and culture.*" (italics mine).

The change cannot come into effect from above alone. Alongside our role as language teachers, we need to take our role as mediators between cultures equally seriously. The basic foreign language learning situation presents us with a unique opportunity: we get a bunch of young people who have, to some extent made a conscious decision to encounter the "other". As John le Carré (2017) says in an address to teachers of German in the UK:

> The decision to learn a foreign language is to me an act of friendship. It is indeed a holding out of the hand. It's not just a route to negotiation. . . . And the decision to teach a foreign language is an act of commitment, generosity and mediation.

The educative potential of this situation is immense, and it is the responsibility of the teacher to make full use of it by at least offering possibilities of discovering the "other" through expressions of its culture

such as film and literature, for example. At departments which offer Certificate of Proficiency, Diploma of Proficiency and Advanced Diploma of Proficiency as feeder courses for postgraduate programmes, the language learning component could be accelerated, as suggested by the CDC in its 2000-2001 report, so that more can be offered in terms of exposure to literature, films and media. At universities and institutions which offer foreign languages only as optional papers, we must explore the possibility of offering courses that deal with aspects specific to cultures related to particular languages—area studies courses for example, or courses on literatures in translation. In a response to the MLA Report of 2007, Geisler (2008) emphasises the "need for specific historical, political, and institutional reference knowledge, without which cultural discourses (including literary discourse) cannot be fully understood."

To sum up this part of the discussion, one can learn more foreign languages in India today. However, departments of foreign languages have either remained static as far as curricular development is concerned or have successfully widened and deepened their curricula to enable learners to acquire a level of transcultural competence and are now faced with the dilemma of humanistic versus vocational/utilitarian education. We have a wider choice, but less willingness—on the part of learners and in many cases teachers, to go deeper into our subject.

Challenges Before Foreign Language Studies in India

Since the opening up of her economy in 1991, India has seen a surface level lateral expansion of foreign languages in India. Though we might not have reason to talk about a crisis in foreign language learning in India, it would be interesting to take a look at a few points Andrea Klaus and Nicola Reimann (2003), make in an article in *Info DaF*, on the situation of Germanistik at universities in Great Britain. Klaus and Reimann hold the spread of the so-called *enterprise culture* ushered into the field of education by the conservative government of Mrs. Thatcher as being responsible for developments which have led to the current crisis of German Studies (within foreign language studies in general) in the U.K. (Klaus & Reimann, 2003, 23) The signs of the corporate culture are seen in the university syllabi increasingly being moulded according to the needs of the industry, who are the main sponsor of higher education, which can jeopardize academic autonomy (Klaus & Reimann, 2003, 24); in imposing organisational and management structures of the industry on universities which made students as "customers" and courses as "products" which had to sell in the market. (Klaus & Reimann, 2003, 23) The very survival of many a department of foreign languages became dependent on the vagaries of the demand-supply dynamics of the Arbeitsmarkt (labour market). Needless to say, some did not survive the rigours of the quality control processes primarily because they had neither profit to show in terms of paying "customers" nor path-breaking cutting edge technological "products" (read profit-making courses and research output) (Klaus & Reimann, 2003, 23-24).

Things have not come to such a pass as far as foreign language studies in India are concerned. We are yet to hear of departments of foreign languages being closed or of permanent faculty members losing their jobs because there are few students and fewer or no publications. Although the number of jobs available at

universities has gone down and vacant posts are not being filled for years together, there are also instances of young universities introducing these disciplines into their academic programme and recruiting fresh staff.

The problem that foreign languages face in India today is that of being "degraded" from the status of philological, academic disciplines—even before being fully recognised as such!—to service departments servicing the demands of the market and the needs of industry. (See Mathachan, 2018, particularly Chapter 2). This must be resisted. It does not mean that we stop producing graduates who are good at German or Korean, who can guide foreign tourists, interpret and translate competently to earn a decent living. What it means is that in our understanding of our professional activity, we need to look beyond the immediate dictates of the market. To be sure, it is the responsibility of the educational establishment to guarantee curricular and pedagogical autonomy for academic institutions and disciplines and facilitate their development and growth. Reciprocally, it is our duty to guard and make use of such autonomy to preserve the core of foreign language studies as a discipline; its educative potential is no less and no more than that of any other academic discipline. It is in fact more conducive than many other disciplines to educating the individual to become cosmopolitan, a "world citizen". The terms "educative" and "cosmopolitan" are used here in the Goethean sense: Educative as in Goethe's understanding of Bildung—a process which leads an individual to realise his/her own potential, to realise/find him/her self; and cosmopolitan as in his understanding of Weltbürger—a person who is capable of reconciling in her lived praxis both patriotism and cosmopolitanism, is capable of belonging to a culture and transcending it at the same time.

Foreign Language Teachers in India: Who are we?

Sharmishtha Kher begins her article "Einige Bemerkungen zum Fremdsprachenunterricht und Deutschunterricht (B.A., M.A.) in Indien", published in the journal *German Studies in India: Indo German* in September 1982, with a rather matter-of-fact statement: "Ein Fremdsprachenexperte in Indien lebt ganz isoliert, identitätslos." (A foreign language expert in India lives totally isolated, devoid of any identity.) (Kher, 1982, 127). Although Kher holds the higher education establishment responsible to some extent for not giving foreign languages enough recognition, and for not having an "authentic educational policy" (authentische Bildungspolitik) with regard to foreign languages, the primary culprit according to her is the foreign language expert herself/himself, who remains content with being a language teacher instead of realising her/his role as an educator: "kaum als erzieher fungiert", meaning "hardly functions as an educator". More than three decades on, John le Carré too seems to point that way by acknowledging and at the same time reminding the foreign language teacher of her role:

> It's a promise to educate—yes—and to equip. But also to awaken; to kindle a flame that you hope will never go out; to guide your pupils towards insights, ideas and revelations that they would never have arrived at without your dedication, patience and skill. (John le Carré, 2017)

We need to ask ourselves today, how seriously we consider this when we think about who we are as foreign language educators. Mediating between languages and cultures is a hermeneutic act: understanding the other by putting oneself in the other's position, but also completing the Gadamerian "hermeneutic circle", (Gadamer, 2013, xxxii) and through the understanding of the other coming to a better, more enriched, critically enhanced understanding of oneself. This requires the foreign language teacher to fulfil her role as an educator, effecting a vital shift in her self-understanding. This shift is vital because unless she realises her role as a teacher in the educative sense and not merely the trainer-sense of the word, it would not be possible to do justice to nor to preserve the core of foreign language philologies as autonomous disciplines.

If we understand ourselves as educators, we would have to anchor our pedagogical objective beyond competent language and soft-skills training, perhaps in helping the learner of a foreign language and the students of foreign language literatures not only to discover a foreign culture/tradition but also to look at their own culture/tradition afresh and to begin questioning their understanding of themselves all over again. (See also MLA Report, 2007, 3-4). The precise articulation of such a goal will differ from individual to individual, but the ethical necessity of being a good teacher (in the sense of an educator) must and will be inherent in any such articulation. For, any learning in the true sense of the word cannot exclude the study of the self. (It is indeed a sign of the times and an irony that so many "institutions of learning" offer self-study courses in the correspondence mode.)

To end on a more practical note: as purveyors of foreign languages we will have to address these questions about how we look at ourselves. There is no choice really, because it is a matter of our survival. Interactive computer programmes will soon be (or may be already are) good enough for basic language classes to be conducted without a teacher. The human and humanising element in the foreign language studies classroom can be preserved only if the final goal is anchored beyond soft-skills training and mediation of information.

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Classroom Activities

Activities for Integrating Speaking with Reading and Writing Skills

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Speaking Activity 1

Theme: Food we eat
Skills: Speaking, Reading and Writing
Classs: 6-8
Title of the Activity: A Visit to a Restaurant
Subskills: Expressing feelings and opinions, participating in spontaneous talk, reading for comprehension, expressing information or knowledge in writing
Learning Objectives: To enable learners to:

- enhance personal function of language
- listen to comprehend
- enhance interactional function of language
- write about their personal experience

Duration*:* 25-30 minutes

Procedure: Begin with a warm-up activity Teacher poses the following questions to the class

- Have you ever visited a restaurant or a dhaba?
- Name your favourite restaurant/dhaba
- What is so special about this restaurant / dhaba?
- Which cuisine does your favourite restaurant serve?
- If you were a restaurant owner, which cuisine would you like to serve?

Main Activity 1: Speaking Task

Teacher gets students to discuss the answers among themselves.

Material: Menu Card (given below)

Hotel Royal Degchi Mussoorie Mall Road, Uttaranchal	
Starters	Price in ₹
Samosa	08.00
Paneer Tikka	25.00

Starters	Price in ₹
Bhel Puri	25.00
Pani Puri	20.00
Main Course	
Mixed Veg	40.00
Shahi Paneer	80.00
Chana Masala	60.00
Rajma	60.00
Dal Makhani	80.00
Tadka Dal	70.00
Veg Pulao	70.00
Zeera Rice	50.00
Breads	
Plain Roti	15.00
Butter Naan	25.00
Pudina Parantha	20.00
Mixed Parantha	20.00
Missi Roti	30.00
Desserts	
Ice cream vanilla/chocolate	40.00
Gulab Jamun	50.00
Ras Malai	60.00
Jalebi	30.00
Beverages	
Cold Drinks	15.00
Milk Shake	30.00
Tea	10.00
Coffee	15.00
Mineral Water	20.00

Participation: Group Activity

Procedure: The teacher creates a mock situation. The class is divided into groups. Each group is given ₹ 500.00 to spend at the restaurant. Students in the groups read the menu card and decide their order collectively within the limit of ₹ 500.00.

Each group shares their choice with the class. A few prompts for sharing are given below:

- I would like to have / order . . . because
- I prefer . .
- I am not particularly fond of . . . .
- I ate this first when . . . .

Main Activity 2: Role Play

Material : Prompts in Waiter and Customer cards

Waiter card	**Customer card**
Greeting (Good morning /Namaste)	Greets the waiter.
What would you like to have for a starter?	I would like to have . . . .
What would you prefer for the main course?	Can I have . . . plates/pieces please?
Our Dal Tadka is delicious! Can I get you a plate?	What is your specialty?
Anything else Sir/Ma'am	No Thanks, but I would prefer to have Rajma and Zeera rice.
Thank you Sir/Ma'am! Your order will be ready shortly.	Please reduce the spice level
Enjoy your lunch/dinner	That is all/I would also like . . . .
The bill comes to	That's fine.
	Thank you very much

Participation: Pairs

The students are paired. One student plays the role of a waiter and the other the role of a customer. Swap the roles to enable further practice

Follow up Activity: Integrating Speaking with Writing

Material : A table with writing prompts (given below)

	Cuisine	**Taste**	**Colour**	**Aroma**
Starter 1. 2.				
Main Course 1. 2.				
Dessert 1. 2.				

Procedure: Think of two of your favourite items that you would you like to include under each category and describe each one of them in terms of its cuisine, taste, colour and aroma.

Speaking Activity: 2

Skills: Speaking and Writing
Class: 6-8
Title of Activity: Conversation
Subskill: Expressing individual feelings and opinions, participating in spontaneous talk, expressing information or knowledge in writing
Learning Objectives: To enable learners to:
- enhance personal function of language
- enhance interactional function of language
- enhance creative writing

Materials: Any picture (for example: see below) and paper for writing

Participation: Pair Activity
Duration: 15-20 minutes

Procedure:
- Start with a warm-up activity. The teacher shows a picture and engages the whole class in a discussion asking a few questions. Examples of questions are: (a) What do you think is happening in this picture? (b) Why do you think these people have gathered and for what occasion / purpose?
- The teacher starts the main activity. The students work in pairs. Each pair choose two people in the picture who they think might be having a conversation. The pairs must not disclose their choice to anybody in the class. Each pair write a conversation between their chosen people, and then do a role play in front of the class. The class uses the picture to identify the two characters represented in the role play.
- Extension Activity: Students work in pairs and share an occasion spent with their friends or relatives that they enjoyed the most and why.

Book Review

Developing Expertise through Experience: Ideas for Continuing Professional Development

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Developing Expertise through Experience: Ideas for Continuing Professional Development

London: British Council. (241 pages).

Maley, Alan (Ed.), Foreword by N. S. Prabhu.

Paper Back ISBN: 978-0-86355-950-1

https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/sites/teacheng/files/K033_Developing_Expertise_Experience_Web_0.pdf

Reviewed by: Shreesh Chaudhary

A Different Kind of Book

In this book, quite unusually, Maley uses "non-academic", or "smart casual" language for an academic subject. Moreover, the book is organised differently as the book is available electronically, with about 260 pages of the main narrative available as a hard copy. The book is built on an idea of N. S. Prabhu, who,through his Bangalore Project, demonstrated that a language is best learnt when it is used to engage in meaningful tasks. The book thus gives "substance to Prabhu's concept of the teacher's sense of plausibility" (p. 8).

Plausibility, according to Prabhu (pp. 3-7), is ". . .a state of knowledge short of certainty ... an articulation by individuals of their personal perception of plausibility [and] can lead to a shared understanding of it in the profession." The book "explores ways in which teachers develop professionally and personally by building a personal theory of teaching action based upon their own accumulated experience" (p. 8). Maley's book tries to amplify Prabhu's notion of 'the teacher's sense of plausibility' with reference to our own histories in language and language teaching. It includes contributions from 20 practitioners from across the world, who share their own journeys as teachers, keeping in mind Prabhu's concept of plausibility.The contributors trace their

journey of how their understanding of a sense of plausibility (TSOP) developed by taking of a few key themes, namely, (a) how life's experiences influenced current beliefs and practices on language education, teaching and learning, (b) key people who influenced beliefs and practices, (c) key ideas that helped to form or change beliefs and practices, (d) important publications that contributed to personal and professional development, (e) critical incidents/epiphanies in life and work giving new insights ending with brief statements on language education. The book presents how non-native language teaching was done from 1960-2010, as seen through the eyes of these contributors and as influenced by their life's journey. The book offers several insights for teacher education and teacher development.

Developing Expertise through Experience: A Global Document

With contributions from Argentina, Brazil, Cameroon, Canada, China, Greece, Hungary, India, Ireland, Malaysia, Pakistan, Singapore, South Africa, UK, USA and Vietnam, the book speaks for the world. Many contributors had humble beginnings, but, despite their poverty and lack of facilities, they followed their sense of the plausible and rose to the highest positions in their chosen field of language teaching.

Specific threads that come out in the writings that influence the learning of students and teacher's beliefs and practices are as below:

Luck, and Some Early Experiences

In each of the contributors' journeys, from novice teacher to classroom expert, there have been many influencers. In their articles, they have thanked their teachers, their families, their professional associations, special interest groups, etc. If you are reasonably intelligent, Maley (p. 11) says, hard work and some luck will get you a long way. Chance does play a role, but history shows that luck smiles only upon those who do not wait for it. "Traveler, there is no road/ you make the road while walking it", says Antonio Machado, a Spanish poet (p. 11)."

Mothers seem to have played a particularly important role in shaping the contributors, both as people and as teachers. For example, Mukundan learnt a lot from his mother, who, in spite of running a large household, read to him daily. Similarly, helped by his mother, Medgyes learnt English and hence went places. The story of Anh Le, the seventh child of a shoemaker and a small grocery shop owner in post-war Vietnam is equally inspiring. She began helping her mother with accounts at the age of eight. Again, Shamim's (p. 150) mother was a significant early influence in her life. Papalazarou (p. 137) credits six people who influenced her.

Theories, Beliefs, Sense of Plausibility and More

In each essay, the contributors tell us how their life experiences have shaped their beliefs and value systems and how this has impacted their presence and pedagogy in the classroom. Growing up in communities, working with friends and colleagues, reading, researching and writing, travelling and presenting papers at conferences, running organisations, writing and publishing, experimenting with their time and resources, have all influenced the contributors.

Through their collective experience in the classroom, the contributors provide a

wealth of advice for young teachers. Sciamarelli (p.175) regrets that "most teachers do not encourage creativity because they believe that only special people can be creative". Sometimes teachers have a low opinion and expectations of the class. Disagreeing, Shamim (p. 185) suggests that "teachers need to have high expectations of their learners". Underhill (p. 208) advises teachers not to fear "students' mistakes";they are opportunities for learning and can be turned to their "advantage". Woodward (p. 220) subscribes to the general view that "there are many different ways to learn a language". Presenting the central theme of the book, Wright posits (p. 229), "experiencing and studying language both have their parts to play". He pleads for space for both. Mishan believes motivation to be important. Motivation refers to the preparedness of learners for learning. Teachers cannot directly motivate; they can only offer opportunities for motivation, in the form of experiences and interactions in the L2.

The Importance of Reading Books and Journals

The contributors highlight the importance of the written word in shaping them. For instance, Bellarmine recounts in his article that for him, books made up for the absence of exposure to English at home. Even in teacher training college, he got much from books. Faneslow was influenced by *The Language of the Classroom*. Reading "literature" helped him develop, "both as a professor and as a person" (p. 32). Though raised in a one-room home, Joshua's home was "print-rich". Her four older sisters had convinced the local garbage truck driver to leave some books and magazines at their doorstep whenever he came to collect their garbage. Medgyes adds, bored teachers generate bored students", (p. 111-112). Adding further he states, "There is no such thing as best method. It all depends upon what suits you and your students."

Importance of Performing Arts, Music and Culture

Highlighting the importance of using theatre, drama, music, etc., in teaching-learning, the contributors discuss their experiences. Bellarmine's understanding of sense of plausibility developed through exposure to language (through radio, films, interesting books). For Papalazarou, art, aesthetic experience, creative thinking, visual literacy, social issues are building blocks for teacher's beliefs and practices. Medgyes declares "Bored teachers generate bored students" (p. 11). He found that children enjoyed listening to a story narrated with all the associated drama such as intonation, conversation, gestures and some music, rather than simply reading it. Mukundan adds that he followed in the footsteps of his primary school teacher, Mrs. Ong, who used to gather children around her and tell them stories, sometimes with music added and with all the drama that could be packed in. Spiro (p. 191), goes to the extent of saying that "Language without meaning, music and imagination is like food without taste or texture". Bellarmine cites a critical incident in which students had gone on total boycott of classes, because the Warden was allegedly adulterating milk. The principal, on the other hand, required teachers to ensure that classes were conducted. Bellarmine said that he would be teaching modal verbs by telling students to write a brief letter on the boycott. The students attended the class and the whole class drafted a letter to the principal. A belief that took roots in Bellarmine's mind was that in order "to achieve effective learning, teaching should have 'compelling content'

connected with learners' lives" (p.22) and use it through task-based approach and not the structural, the language through literature and the dialogical lecture approaches. Farrell believes that "language learning has very little to do with learning through grammar, vocabulary or phonology; instead, it has everything to do with learning about other human beings' ways of life. The pace of how we learn a language will match the pace of how much we want to know about others". (P. 46).

Teacher Education, Teacher Development

The book is based on the belief that retrospective reflection is of immense value as a means of professional development. Malay observes in the introductory section, "I believe that there is an over-emphasis on teacher training as an algorithmic system, and that not enough attention is paid to the human, personal side of learning and teaching. Regular group sharing and discussion of individual 'senses of plausibility' can be highly rewarding as part of a teacher training or development programme." (p. 12). Prabhu observes that most of us begin our teaching career with anxiety to be right in the class, or useful in the class and we literally copy what we have been told in the teacher training college. He (p. 3) says, "In this way the learner can complete a curriculum and teachers can claim professional experience in due course, but teachers are unlikely to be aware how much is being learned, much less develop a sense of how learning happens or how it can be enhanced".

These views echo the common refrain that one hears in the field of teaching-learning that teacher education needs to change. Perhaps what it needs is more creativity by including people with experience in drama, visual aids, and singing. Goh notes that while documented knowledge is important, it is not adequate. Teachers need opportunities to develop practical knowledge, that is, knowledge co-structured with peers and teaching community. Kuchah also argues for teacher education paying attention to relationship building and creativity. For effective initial teacher education, teachers must be supported not only to be professionals but also to be humans conscious of their role in building other human beings – their students. To sum up, in the words of Underhill, "teaching is a performing art" (p. 209). Professional communities play a vital role in helping teachers grow and studying how these works could be part of the curriculum for initial teacher education.

Perceptions of Language Pedagogy

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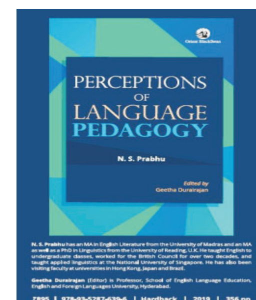
Robert Bellarmine is former English Studies Officer of the British Council (South India), Chennai. Robert took voluntary retirement from the Council, when he turned 70. Since then he has been working as a Business English and IELTS Examiner Trainer. He is now engaged as a translator and as an examination coach for IELTS. His publications include Hello English, a twenty-three-volume series for English medium students in India.



Perceptions of Language Pedagogy

Hyderabad: Orient Blackswan Private Limited. (356 pages).

Prabhu, N. S. (2019).

ISBN 978-93-5287-639-6

Reviewed by: Robert Bellarmine

This book by N. S. Prabhu is a "must read" for every L2 teacher, trainee, trainer and specialist. It includes an illuminating discussion on the key issues in language pedagogy, clarification of critical concepts both from the author as well as other specialists in the field, and profound insights into matters of ELT theory and practice. To give an example, the penultimate chapter, which is an interview, elicits in detail the author's latest ideas on language pedagogy, and in the process focuses on some recurring issues in language teaching. Similarly, the last chapter highlights the importance of the personal theory of the teachers to their practice, what the author calls "a teacher's sense of plausibility". In addition, there are several chapters which clarify key concepts and ideas of some of the foremost methodologists. What could be of even more value to the reader is that there is one whole chapter devoted to exploring the question of why there is no best method that can work in all contexts, countries and cultures.

Above all, the book sparkles with a number of the author's original thoughts on language pedagogy, which deserve careful study by teachers and specialists. An added attraction of the book is the author's brilliant use of similes, which not only adorn the statements they occur in, but also make the contents more accessible to the reader.

The First Chapter and its Promise

Titled "Rational Approach to English Teaching", this chapter presents a bold, insightful and well-argued critique of the UGC's Report of the English Review Committee. This report was the outcome of a study headed by one of the most reputable tertiary level scholars Professor C. S. Banerjee. Right at the outset, the author asserts that ELT in India of the time presented an anomalous situation: "it no longer serves the purpose which it was once designed to serve . . ." The maturity, erudition, courage of conviction, analytical skills and incisiveness that are evident in this chapter leave their mark on most of the other chapters in the book, especially the chapters titled "Alternative Strategies in Educational Reform", "Procedural Syllabuses", "Materials as Support; Materials as Constraints", "Acquisition Through Comprehension: Three Procedures", "Communicative Language Teaching: Three Perceptions", and "Teaching is at Most Hoping for the Best".

Concepts Explored

One of the key features of the book is that it offers readers access to ideas and concepts that would have otherwise remained unnoticed. To elaborate a bit more on this, although Harold Palmer, one of the first Applied Linguists, published his idea of unconscious acquisition as opposed to the conscious learning of "ergons" as early as 1922, his first reviewers, as well as other scholars, overlooked these fundamental notions. Prabhu has touched upon them in Chapter 6.

Similarly, as early as 1985, Halliday propounded the idea of the "Mathetic Function" and explained how of the four skills, writing performs this extraordinarily sophisticated function. Equally valuable ideas of ELT's best-known names such as Allwright, Brumfit, Krashen, Newmark, and Widdowson, published in almost equally obscure places would also have passed unnoticed but for the book under review. For example, the concept of "plausibility" was explored in an obscure journal titled Teachers College Record as early as 1983. It was, however, Prabhu's genius that stretched it to mean "personal theory of our professional practice"; it can now be accessed in the last chapter of the book. The concept has been so brilliantly elaborated upon that it would not be an exaggeration to say that ELT's technical lexicon would have remained the poorer but for the clarity of the explanation given in this book.

Original Ideas

The most striking example of the author's originality is his syllabus design called Procedural Syllabus, extensively treated in Chapter 4. What is so unique about this as a syllabus? The syllabi of the Structural Approach consists of grammatical structures, vocabulary items, phonemes and intonations. Similarly, the syllabi of CLT comprises notions and functions. In total contrast to this, the syllabus of the "Procedural Syllabus" consists of problem-solving activities.

To give another example of his originality, insightfully, Prabhu theorizes that language learning takes place when learners try to comprehend the given text, rather than when they mechanically repeat isolated grammatical structures or try to memorize the structures or dialogues using repetition. Prabhu believes that a text should be difficult enough to challenge the learners to put in more effort without being too difficult. This concept is very close to Vygotsky's zone of proximal development.

Equally creatively, in Chapter 3, the author proposes that educational reform can be

conceived in two contrastive ways: direct contact strategy and remote-control strategy. He claims that while the former is idealistic and is bound to fail repeatedly, the latter is pragmatic and is almost always rewarded with success. This is another example of the finer distinctions that the author of the book makes between several concepts and practices, which is very likely to help both teachers and specialists develop a nuanced approach to ELT-related issues.

In Chapter 18, Halliday's notion of "mathetic function" is applied in a very original manner to English as a "world language". To put it briefly, different nations can claim their mastery over English in performing the mathetic function in preference to the pragmatic function. In other words, their higher status as users of English as a world language will consist more in using English to learn, think and make sense of reality, rather "than doing things one wants to do, getting things one wants to have, or making others do things for one".

Enlightening Clarifications

CLT took two long decades to develop. The contributors to its development were spread across America, Britain, and Canada. Besides, it developed thanks to not only experts in L2 pedagogy, but also leaders in linguistics and applied linguistics. Therefore, the readers of the book under review may not find CLT-related issues such as the following easy to assimilate: What exactly is meant by "communicative"? What are the three perceptions of CLT? Is the long-held belief in the value of practising grammatical structures unquestionable? Luckily, Chapters 5, 17 and 26 of the book under review come to their rescue.

Some Common ELT Terms Viewed in Uncommon Ways

"Eclectic" is a very useful word for many ELT practitioners to refer to their personal classroom practices. This is because it is not always easy to taxonomically and accurately name the methodology they use in their day-to-day practice. Also, "eclectic" can sometimes have a disparaging side to its meaning as in Prabhu's 1987 book, Second Language Pedagogy. Fortunately, in Chapter 11 of this book, the term "eclectic" gets a detailed treatment and a fair hearing.

Even highly erudite scholars occasionally use the word "ideology" in a negative sense, when contrasting it with "ideation". However, in the chapter titled. "Ideation and Ideology", Prabhu clarifies that both terms refer to intellectual activities and that neither of them has a pejorative sense. Clarifying them further, the author explains, "While 'ideation' is concerned with understanding the world, 'ideology' is concerned with changing the world for the better".

To "materials", one of the most frequently used term in L2 pedagogy, this book devotes two chapters. While the author discusses critical issues concerned with producing and prescribing materials, he also discusses in ingeniously classificatory ways the four types of materials: "course materials", "source materials", "meta-materials", and "semi-materials".

The commonest terms in L2 teaching that are treated in an extraordinary way in the book are "teaching" and "learning" themselves. In the chapter titled "Teaching is at Most hoping for the Best", the author shows in a brilliant manner, how while "buying" is the obverse of

"selling", learning is not the obverse of teaching.

A Stylistic Challenge

Readers who are not used to the highly scholarly style of this book may find it a bit too erudite and heavy in parts. However, they will be richly rewarded if they adapt their reading strategy by re-reading those parts, and by using encyclopaedic dictionaries when encountering uncommon words such as "mathetic".

Chapters Some Readers Might Want to Skip

As most readers of this book are likely to be ELT professionals, and not linguists, applied linguists, dialectologists, or university level curriculum constructors, the following chapters might be of low topical interest: "Descriptive and Prescriptive Approaches to Norms of English in Singapore", "English Language as a University Discipline", "The Appropriation of ELT", and "Misapplied Linguistics".

A Chapter of Special Interest

Originally a lecture delivered at H M Patel Institute of English Training & Research (Gujarat), Chapter 19 titled" Attempting Educational Change" deals with two themes—famous large-scale reforms such as the Madras Snowball; and well-known ELT approaches, starting from the Grammar Translation Method and ending with Prabhu's own Communicational Teaching Project. Obviously, this chapter will be of special interest to most L2 trainees and their trainers.

Language and Language Teaching (LLT)

Objectives

Published twice a year in January and July, Language and Language Teaching (*LLT*) reaches out to language teachers, researchers and teacher educators on issues and practices relevant to language teaching. The primary focus of the publication is language pedagogy in elementary schools. *LLT* proposes to establish a dialogue between theory and practice so that practice contributes to theory as much as theory informs practice. The purpose is to make new ideas and insights from research on language and its pedagogy accessible to practitioners while at the same time inform theorists about the constraints of implementation of new ideas.

Guidelines for Submission of Manuscripts

1. MS word version of the manuscripts (British spellings) should be submitted to the Editors of *LLT* via email at the address(es) given below: jourllt@gmail.com.
   If need be, you may also send them by post to: Vidya Bhawan Society, Fatehpura, Udaipur 313004, Rajasthan, India.
2. Language and Language Teaching (*LLT*) welcomes original papers/articles that have not been published elsewhere and have not been submitted elsewhere for publication at the time of being sent to *LLT*. The declaration to this effect should be sent along with the contribution. Copies of letters granting permission to reproduce illustrations, tables, or lengthy quoted passages should be included with the manuscript.
3. Word limit including the reference, abstract and a short bio note is as follows: Articles: 2500; Interview: 3000; Landmark: 3000; Book Reviews: 1500; Classroom Activities: 750; Reports: 1000.
4. The first page should contain the article title, author(s) and their affiliation(s). It should also contain the abstract and keywords.
5. For correspondence, contributor should provide his/her name, phone number, complete mailing address and email address.
6. The style for writing numerical expressions should be consistent throughout the manuscript.
7. Notes should appear at the end of the text and before the references. Footnotes are not permitted. Each endnote used in the article should contain more than a mere reference.
8. Single quotes should be used throughout the article. Double quotes should be used only within single quotes.
9. All the references must be cited in text or endnotes, and follow the APA style of referencing in the text. For example: (Chomsky, 2010: p. 27) or (Labov, 2010, p. 56) or (Halliday, 2010, pp. 56-57)
10. A detailed list of references in alphabetical order must be provided at the end of the article following the endnotes. All details should be provided like: the author's name, name of the book/ name of the journal with issue number, publisher, place of publication, year and page range/ number (in the case of chapter from an edited book, journal, magazine, weekly, periodicals, newspapers).
11. Page numbers for all direct quotations should be provided. Direct quotations of 45 words or more should be indented.
12. Tables and figures should be clear, readable and comprehensible.
13. Book reviews must contain details like name of the author/editor and book reviewed, place of publication and publisher, year of publication, scanned copy of the cover page, number of pages and price.
14. *LLT* is a refereed journal. All manuscripts are subject to the usual process of anonymous review.

Report

Online Lessons: New Platforms for Teaching-Learning

Ameya M R and the ERC English Team | ameyamr000@gmail.com

Unprecedented situations demand novel responses. The Covid-19 pandemic has pushed the education sector into redefining its outlook, priorities, and modus operandi. The English language team at Vidya Bhawan Education Resource Centre (VBERC)—the academic partner of two major projects, Siksha Sambal Project (SSP) with Hindustan Zinc Ltd. and Saikshik Samvardhan Karyakram (SSK) with IndiGo Reach—has similarly been pushed into unfamiliar territory and new learning experiences.

By the end of March 2020, as physical classrooms were suspended, VBERC shifted to the online mode of teaching-learning and had to network with a maximum number of students possible through class-wise WhatsApp groups, or phone communication. The responsibility for networking was taken by the Field Personnel (FP) who had so far been working with students in several schools. In the case of SSP, 59 WhatsApp groups involving around 1800 Class X students were created. The process of creating groups for Class IX students is currently on-going. In SSK, a total of 1038 students from classes VI to IX are currently engaged. Government school teachers, principals and other officials such as the District Educational Officers (DEO) also are members of these WhatsApp groups.

Developing the FPs

The capacity of the FPs was built through daily assignments. Initially, the VBERC team worked on grammar elements and reading comprehension and shared some reading material. Regular feedback and discussions with each FP were conducted out over the phone, email or WhatsApp. This not only helped both VBERC members and the FPs to get familiar with the online mode of working, but it also strengthened communication channels

Working with Students

The ERC subject team developed daily worksheets for students. All the worksheets were first shared with the FP team, who solved them and shared their responses and feedback with the ERC team. The responses and suggestions of the FPs, in turn, helped the VBERC team to anticipate how students may receive the worksheet, and how the team should move forward. This process not only enhanced the capacity of the FPs, but it

also prepared them to administer the worksheets to students better. The FPs were given the authority to make changes to the worksheets based on the particular needs of their students.

The Materials

The first worksheets were designed around basic comprehension and writing skills. They combined some tasks which had been consciously pitched below the expected language levels of the respective classes and others that were more challenging. The difference in the pitching levels was to allow for the difference in students' learning pace, especially since most of them were engaging with online learning for the first time. Subsequent worksheets covered higher level reading comprehension and expression through writing, along with grammar.

For Class X students, based on the feedback received from FPs, we recently started sharing worksheets derived from chapters in their textbooks. These included pre-reading activities and comprehension questions to ensure that the student had understood the chapters. They also incorporated post-reading tasks which helped to summarize the chapter, and practice questions based on the examinations.

Main Stages in Process

To summarize, the process (as of now) involves three main stages which synergistically build on each other:

- The VBERC team develops and compiles study material suitable for online teaching-learning and shares it with the FPs.
- The FPs solve the questions, share their feedback, and, on its basis, the study-materials are refined.
- The FPs share materials with the team

Challenges and the Road Forward

Online teaching/learning is raising several significant questions. The issue of equitable access to learning material cannot be overlooked. Reports from the field indicate that the majority of students who had already been struggling with learning in the classroom were either unable to connect to, or were inactive on the online platform. It certainly did not help matters that direct interaction between the teacher-student/student-student was missing.

We are yet to engage in a critical self-assessment to ascertain how well we can use the digital platform to augment please reading and creative writing. Moving in this direction will help to engage children in deeper aspects of language education.

Yet, it is impossible to ignore the optimism about the road ahead. The current challenges have shaken the rusted joints of our education system. There is a shift to student-centric learning. The mainstream schooling system is now relying on technology more than ever. In the common discourse, a mobile phone in the hands of a student is being promoted from the role of a villain to that of a confidant. All these changes have broadened the scope of education, and consequently of the VBERC projects too. Our team looks forward to incorporating multimedia materials and technology into learning. Virtual learning platforms such as Blackboard, Moodle, and videoconferencing tools such as Zoom, Google Meet, Skype, etc., can be used to create online teaching-learning spaces. More resources and better content delivery can be ensured if the technical issues are resolved inequitably.

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Report

'There are many aspects of human emotions and knowledge which cannot find expression in words and must therefore get spaces in 'lines and colours, sounds and movements'.

Tagore

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