DMI - St. Eugene University

Institute of Virtual and Distance Learning

Fully Alive, Fully Human

Module Code : 770LA21

Module Name : Literacy and Languages - II

Programme : B.Sc. – Primary Education

From the desk of
Dr. T. X. A. ANANTH, BBA, MSW, MBA, MPhil, PhD
President –University Council

Dear Student Teachers,

Welcome to the second semester of the fast track learning programme at DMI – St. Eugene University!

If our IVDL semester -1 was a great success, it is because of the blessings of God the Almighty and efforts of all our stakeholders including you. Together we made it and made the programme a success.

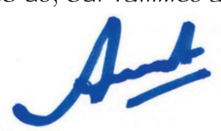
As our Chancellor, Rev.Fr. Dr.J. E. Arulraj , mentioned, it is not just the success for DMI-St. Eugene University alone, it is success for the technology, it is success for the great nation of Zambia and it is success for the continent of Africa. You all made the change in the world of education. Zambia leads the path in modern education.

In the last semester we had distributed the P.C.Tablets. I am sure you are expert in using it by now. Now your world is open to Internet and using the tablet for educational purpose. The very same book you are holding in your hand now is available in your V-Campus portal. All the teaching and learning materials are available in your portal.

You can feel the improvement in the quality of the learning materials in the printed format. Improvement is done in quality of the content and the printing. Use it extensively and preserve it for future reference. This will help you to understand the subjects in a better way. The theories of the subjects have been explained thoroughly and problems have been identified at learners' level. Every unit is mapped to the syllabus and discussed in detail.

I would like to record my sincere appreciation and gratitude to the Honorable Dr. John T N Phiri, Minister for Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education for his vision and determination in upgrading the teachers in Science and Mathematics. The officials of the Ministry and all the Provincial Education Officers and their team need a special thanks for the wonderful support.

As the year draws to a close, on behalf of our Chancellor, Members of Staff and on my own behalf, I take this opportunity to wish each of you and your family A Merry Christmas and a prosperous New Year. May the year 2015, bring Health, Wealth, Peace and Prosperity to us, our families and our nation.



Dr. T. X. A. ANANTH
President – University Council

Contents

UNIT I - Theories of language teaching and learning

Education has always been awash with new ideas on learning and teaching. Teachers andadministrators are regularly confronted with suggestions for reform with newcurricula, teaching strategies, and methods of assessment. They are directed to prepare students for new state standardised tests or to document and evaluate thework of students through portfolios and performanceassessments. They are also urged to use research-based methods to teach reading and mathematics.Among educators, there is a certain cynicism that comes with these waves of reformist exhortations.Veteran teachers often smile wryly when told to do this or that, whispering asides about anotherfad, closing their classroom doors, quietly and going about their business.

How are educators to sort the proverbial wheat from the chaff as they encounter these reform proposals?

Doing so requires a solid understanding of the foundational theories that drive teaching, including ideas about how students learn, what they should learn, and how teachers can enable student learning. A handful of significant ideas underlie most reforms of the last 20 years. Our frame includes three contemporary ideas about learning:

- that it is a process of active construction;
- thatit is a social phenomenon, as well as an individual experience; and
- that learner differences are resources, not obstacles.

In addition, we discuss one critical ideaabout what counts as knowledge and what students should learn: to develop flexible understanding, that includes both basic factual and conceptual knowledge, and must know how to use that knowledge critically.

Our frame is not dichotomous and hold that students

- have either content *or* process knowledge,
- are either passive *or* active agents in their own learning.

Rather, we argue that there are shifts in emphasis, from more traditional notions of learning and knowledge to conceptions that are broader and more nuanced. Inthe light of these shifting ideas, we then briefly examine the implications for teaching. Again, we focus on a few key ideas:

- that teaching is intellectual work;
- that teachers havea range of roles, including that of information deliverer and team coach;
- that effective teachers strategically distribute orshare work with students;
- that teachers focus on challenging content.

Contemporary Ideas about Learning

Scouring the shelves of any library or bookstore leaves one swimming is a sea of "isms"—behaviourism, constructivism, social constructivism—as well as lists of learning theories:multiple intelligences, right- and left-brain learning, activity theories, learning styles, Piaget, and communities of learners. We do not propose a comprehensive list of all contemporary ideas about learning but focus on three big ideas that underlie most of current scholarship and practice:

a. learning as a process of active engagement
b. learning as individual and social
c. learner differences as resources to be used and not obstacles to be confronted

a) Learning as a Process of Active Engagement

Perhaps the most critical shift in education in the past 20 years has been a move away from a conception of “learner as sponge” toward an image of “learner as active constructor of meaning.”Although Plato, Socrates andDewey reminded us long ago that learners were not empty vessels, blank slates, or passive observers, much of schooling has been based on this premise. Teachershave talked; students have been directed to listen (Cuban1993). The assumption has been that if teachersspeakclearly and students are motivated, learning will occur. If logical thinking instudents is not encourages, they do not learn, it is because they arenot paying attention or they do not care.

These ideas were grounded in a theory of learning thatfocussed on behaviour. One kind of behaviour leads to anotherhas been argued by behavioural-learning theorists.,Therefore,if teachers actin a certain way, students will likewise act in a certain way.Central to behaviourism was the idea of conditioning—thatis, training the individual to respond to stimuli. The mindwas a “black box” of little concern.Behavioural theoristshad to make way for the “cognitive revolution” in psychology,which involved putting the mind back into the learningequation. As Lesh and Lamon (1992, p. 18) put it,“Behavioural psychology (based on factual and proceduralrules) has given way to cognitive psychology “based onmodels for making sense of real life experiences.” In thisshift, several fields of learning theory emerged.

Skinner’s theory on teaching and learning

B.F.Skinner called his particular brand of behaviourism “Radical” behaviourism.Radical behaviourism is the philosophy of the science of behaviour. It seeks to understand behaviour as a function of environmental histories of reinforcing consequences. Such a functional analysis makes it capable of producing technologies of behaviour. This applied behaviourism lies on the opposite side of the ideological spectrum as the field of cognitive science. Unlike less austere behaviourism, it does not accept private events such as thinking, perceptions, and unobservable emotions in a causal account of an organism's behaviour.

The position can be stated as follows: what is felt or introspectively observed is not some nonphysical world of consciousness, mind, or mental life but the observer's own body. This does not mean, as I shall show later, that introspection is a kind of psychological research, nor does it mean (and this is the heart of the argument) that what are felt or introspectively observed are the causes of a particular kind of behaviour. An organism behaves as it does because of its current structure, but most of this is out of reach of introspection. At the moment we must content ourselves, as the methodological behaviourist insists, with a person's genetic and environment histories. Introspectively observed are certain collateral products of those histories.

In this way major damage wrought by mentalism is repaired.A person does what is attributed to what is happening inside him.Investigation is brought to an end. Why explain the explanation? For twenty five hundred years people have been preoccupied with feelings and mental life, but only recently has any interest been shown in a more precise analysis of the role of the environment. Ignorance of that role led in the first place to mental fictions, and it has been perpetuated by the explanatory practices to which they gave rise.

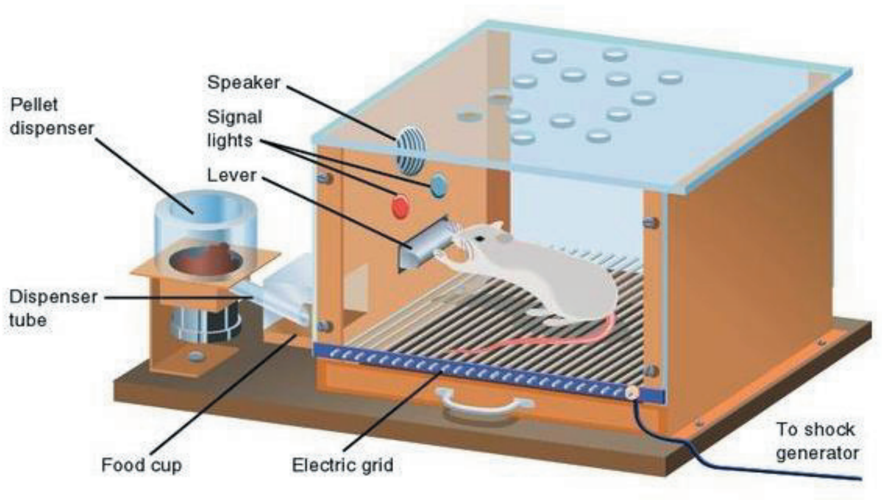
Skinner stood at the opposite position from humanistic psychology for his entire career, and denied humans possessing freedom and dignity as evidenced in his book *Beyond Freedom and Dignity*. Most of his theories were supposed to be based on self-observation, which caused him to become a supporter for behaviourism. Much of this self-observed theory stemmed from Thorndike's Puzzle Box, a direct antecedent to Skinner's Box. The psychologist further expanded on Thorndike's earlier work by introducing the concept of "Reinforcement to Thorndike's Law of Effect." Skinner was an advocate of behavioural engineering and he thought that people should be controlled through the systematic allocation of external rewards. Skinner believed that behaviour is maintained from one condition to another through similar or same consequences across these situations. In short, behaviours are causal factors that are influenced by the consequences. His contribution to the understanding of behaviour influenced many other scientists to explain social behaviour and contingencies.

Reinforcement is a central concept in Behaviourism, and was seen as a central mechanism in the shaping and control of behaviour. A common misconception is that negative reinforcement is synonymous with punishment. This misconception is rather pervasive, and is commonly found in even scholarly accounts of Skinner and his contributions. To be clear, while positive reinforcement is the strengthening of behaviour by the application of some event (e.g., praise after some action is performed), negative reinforcement is the strengthening of behaviour by the removal or avoidance of some deterringevent Both types of reinforcement strengthen behaviour, or increase the probability of a behaviour re-occurring; the difference is in whether the reinforcing event is something applied (positive reinforcement such as rewards, prizes, words of praise) or something removed or avoided (negative reinforcement such as bright light, loud noise, extreme heat or cold, electric shock). Skinner also sought to understand the application of his theory in the broadest behavioural context as it applies to living organisms, namely natural selection.

Operant Conditioning

Skinner is regarded as the father of “Operant Conditioning”, but his work was based on Thorndike’s law of effect. Skinner introduced a new term into the Law of Effect - Reinforcement. Behaviour which is reinforced tends to be repeated (i.e. strengthened); behaviour which is not reinforced tends to die outor be extinguished (i.e. weakened).

Skinner (1948) studied operant conditioning by conducting experiments using animals which he placed in a '*Skinner Box*' similar to Thorndike’s puzzle box.



Skinner (1938) coined the term operant conditioning; it means roughly changing of behaviour by using reinforcement given after the desired response. Skinner identified three types of responses or operant that can follow behaviour.

- **Neutral operants**: are responses from the environment that neither increase nor decrease the probability of a behaviour being repeated.

- **Reinforcers**: Responses from the environment that increase the probability of a behaviour being repeated. Reinforcers can be either positive or negative.

- **Punishers**: Responses from the environment that decrease the likelihood of a behaviour being repeated. Punishment weakens behaviour.

We can all think of examples of how our own behaviour has been affected by reinforcers and punishers. As a child you probably tried out different kinds of behaviour and learned from their consequences.

For example, if when you were younger you tried smoking at school, and the chief consequence was that you got in with the crowd you always wanted to hang out with, you would have been positively reinforced (i.e. rewarded) and would be likely to repeat the behaviour. If, however, the main consequence was that you were caught, caned, suspended from school and your parents involved in the situation, you would most certainly have been punished, and you would consequently be much less likely to smoke now.

PositiveReinforcement

Skinner showed how positive reinforcement worked by placing a hungry rat in his Skinner box. The box contained a lever in the side and as the rat moved about the box it would accidentally knock the lever. Immediately, a food pellet would drop into a container next to the lever. After a few times.the rats quickly learned to go straight to the lever . The consequence of receiving food if they pressed the lever ensured that they would repeat the action.

Positive reinforcement strengthens behaviour by providing a consequence an individual finds rewarding. For example, if your teacher gives you £5 each time you complete your homework as a reward you are more likely to repeat this behaviour in the future, thus strengthening the behaviour of completing your homework.

Negative Reinforcement

The removal of an unpleasant reinforcer can also strengthen behaviour. This is known as negative reinforcement because it is the removal of an adverse stimulus ‘rewarding’ to the animal. Negative reinforcement strengthens behaviour because it stops or removes an unpleasant experience.

For example, if you do not complete your homework you give your teacher £5. You will complete your homework to avoid paying £5, thus strengthening the behaviour of completing your homework. This is the equivalent of paying a fine.

Skinner showed how negative reinforcement worked by placing a rat in his Skinner box and then subjecting it to an unpleasant electric current which caused it some discomfort. As the rat moved about the box it would accidentally knock the lever. Immediately it did so the electric current would be switched off. The rats quickly learned to go straight to the lever after a few times of being put in the box. The consequence of escaping the electric current ensured that they would repeat the action.

Skinner even taught the rats to avoid the electric current by turning on a light just before the electric current came on. The rats soon learned to press the lever when the light came on because they knew that this would stop the electric current being switched on.These two learned responses are known as *Escape Learning* and *Avoidance Learning*.

Punishment (weakens behaviour)

Punishment is defined as the opposite of reinforcement since it is designed to weaken or eliminate a response rather than increase it. Like reinforcement, punishment can work either by directly applying an unpleasant stimulus like a shock after a response or by removing a potentially rewarding stimulus, for instance, deducting someone's pocket money to punish undesirable behaviour.It must be noted that it is not always easy to distinguish between punishment and negative reinforcement.

Schedules of reinforcement

Part of Skinner's analysis of behaviour involved not only the power of a single instance of reinforcement, but the effects of particular schedules of reinforcement over time.The most notable schedules of reinforcement presented by Skinner were interval and ratio both fixed or variable.

- **Continuous reinforcement** — constant delivery of reinforcement for an action; every time a specific action was performed the subject instantly and always received a reinforcement. This method is impractical to use, and the reinforced behaviour is prone to extinction.
- **Interval schedules** : based on the time intervals between reinforcements

- **Fixed Interval Schedule (FI)**: An operant conditioning principle in which reinforcements are presented at fixed time periods, provided that the appropriate response is made.
- **Variable Interval Schedule (VI)**: An operant conditioning principle in which behaviour is reinforced based on an average time that has expired since the last reinforcement.

Both FI and VI tend to produce slow, methodical responses because the reinforcements follow a time scale that is independent of how many responses occur.

- **Ratio Schedules**: based on the ratio of responses to reinforcements
- **Fixed Ratio Schedule (FR)**: An operant conditioning principle in which reinforcement is delivered after a specific number of responses have been made.
- **Variable Ratio Schedule (VR)** : An operant conditioning principle in which the delivery of reinforcement is based on a particular average number of responses (ex. slot machines).

VR produce slightly higher rates of responding than FR because organism doesnot know when the next reinforcement. The higher the ratio, the higher the response rate tends to be.

Air crib

In an effort to help his wife cope with the day-to-day tasks of child rearing due to the birth of their second child, Skinner thought he might be able to improve upon the standard. He invented the 'air-crib' to meet this challenge. Skinner designed this initial, preliminary prototype of the Air-Crib because he thought it would help parents who were awakened by their crying babies at night due to cold temperatures, and a need for essential clothing, or sheets

The crib was often compared to his operant conditioning chamber, crudely known as the “Skinner Box.” This association with a system of experimentation and pellet rewards quashed any success. It was designed to make early childcare simpler by reducing laundry, diaper rash, cradle cap, etc., while encouraging the baby to be more confident, mobile, comfortable, healthy and therefore less prone to cry. Babies sleep and will sometimes play in air cribs but apart from newborns, most of a baby’s waking hours will be spent out of the crib. Reportedly it had some success in these goals. Air-cribs were later unsuccessfully commercially manufactured by several companies.

Operant conditioning chamber

While a researcher at Harvard, Skinner invented the operant conditioning chamber, popularly referred to as the Skinner Box, to measure responses of organisms most often, rats and pigeons and their orderly interactions with the environment. The box had a lever and a food tray, and a hungry rat could get food delivered to the tray pressing the lever. Skinner observed that when a rat was put in the box, it would wander around, sniffing and exploring, and would usually press the bar by accident, at which point a food pellet would drop into the tray. After that happened, the rate of bar pressing would increase dramatically and remain high until the rat was no longer hungry.

Negative reinforcement was also exemplified by Skinner placing rats into an electrified chamber that delivered unpleasant shocks. Levers to cut the power were placed inside these boxes. By running a current through the “operant conditioning chamber,” Skinner noticed that the rats, after accidentally pressing the lever in a frantic bid to escape, quickly learned the effects of implementing the lever and consequently used this knowledge to stop the currents both during and prior to electrical shock. These two learned responses are known as **Escape Learning** and **Avoidance Learning**. The operant chamber for pigeons involves a plastic disc in which the pigeon pecks in order to open a drawer filled with grains. The Skinner box led to the principle of reinforcement, which is the probability of something occurring based on the consequences of a particularbehaviour.

This device was an example of his lifelong ability to invent useful devices, which included whimsical devices in his childhood to the *cumulative recorder* to measure the rate of response of organisms in an operant chamber. Even in old age, Skinner invented a *Thinking Aid* to assist in writing.

Cumulative recorder

The cumulative recorder is an instrument used to automatically record behaviour graphically. Its graphing mechanism consisted of a rotating drum of paper equipped with a marking needle. The needle would start at the bottom of the page and the drum would turn the roll of paper horizontally. This cumulative recorder was used for the Skinner box to record the rat's behaviour.[I] This apparatus produced consistent and accurate records of behaviour.

Teaching machine

The teaching machine is a mechanical invention to automate the task of programmed instruction.

The teaching machine was a mechanical device whose purpose was to administer a curriculum of programmed instruction. In one incarnation, it housed a list of questions, and a mechanism through which the learner could respond to each question. Upon delivering a correct answer, the learner would be rewarded.

Skinner advocated the use of teaching machines for a broad range of students e.g., preschool aged to adult and instructional purposes (e.g., reading and music). Another of the multiple machines he envisioned could teach rhythm:

> A relatively simple device supplies the necessary contingencies. The student taps a rhythmic pattern in unison with the device. "Unison" is specified very loosely at first (the student can be a little early or late at each tap) but the specifications are slowly sharpened. The process is repeated for various speeds and patterns. In another arrangement, the student echoes rhythmic patterns sounded by the machine, though not in unison, and again the specifications for an accurate reproduction are

progressively sharpened. Rhythmic patterns can also be brought under the control of a printed score. (Skinner, 1961.Teaching Machines).*Scientific American,* 205, 90-112. doi:10.2307/1926170, p. 381).

The teaching machine had such instructional potential because it provided immediate and regular reinforcement that maintained students' interest, as the "material in the machine [was] always novel" (Skinner, 1961, p. 387). In this way, a student's attention could be maintained without the use of aversive controls. The efficiency of the teaching machine resulted from its automatic provision of reinforcement, individualised pace setting, and a coherent instructional sequence for the student. It engaged students and allowed them to learn by doing.

Not only useful in teaching explicit skills, machines could also promote the development of a repertoire of behaviours,that Skinner called **self-management**. Self-management refers to

- how students think
- how they attend to the environment with the view of responding appropriately to stimuli

Machines give students the opportunity to first pay attention before receiving a reward as reinforcement. This is in stark contrast with what Skinner noticed as the classroom practice of initially capturing students' attention (e.g., with a lively video) and delivering a reward (e.g., entertainment) before they have actually attended – a practice which actually counters the development of self-management and fails to correctly apply reinforcements for correct behaviour.

What Skinner referred to as a teaching machine would probably be akin to a computer software program today that provided highly structured and incremental instruction. Skinner's influence on such machines is undeniable. He was the first to pioneer the use of machines in the classroom, especially at the primary level. Today teaching machines such as Language Labs have been incorporated into modern education. Though it was just one of a number of inventions, it embodies much of Skinner's theory of learning and has wide-reaching implications for education in general and classroom instruction in particular.

There has been a resurgence of interest in the notion of the teaching machine and its relationship to adaptive learning systems of the early 21st century.

Pigeon-guided missile

The US Navy required a weapon effective against the German *Bismarck* class battleships. Although missile and TV technology existed, the size of the primitive guidance systems available rendered any weapon ineffective. Project Pigeon was potentially an extremely simple and effective solution, but despite an effective demonstration it was abandoned when more conventional solutions became available and in particular the radar system. The project centered on dividing the nose cone of a missile into three compartments, and encasing a pigeon in each. Each compartment used a lens to project an image of what was in front of the missile onto a screen. The pigeons would peck toward the object, thereby directing the missile.

Verbal summator

A device for discovering "latent speech", Skinner experimented with a device he called the "verbal summator." Although Skinner was not a supporter of the concepts of personal assessment or projective testing, he eventually created a tool that was similar to an auditory version of the Rorschach inkblots. This was later known as the verbal summator. This invention was created in order to project subconscious thoughts, much like the inkblots have done. He used this device to create data for his verbal behaviour theory. Other researchers later saw this device as a chance to conduct research and for applied purposes for research and applied purposes. The concept of the verbal summator sparked interest within the scientific community and eventually led to other new tests: the "tautophone test, the auditory apperception test, and the Azzageddi test" and has inspired many others.

Verbal Behaviour

This was challenged by Alfred North Whitehead during a casual discussion while at Harvard, to provide an account of a randomly provided piece of verbal behaviour, where Skinner set about attempting to extend his then-new functional, inductive, approach to the complexity of human verbal behaviour. Developed over two decades, his work appeared as the culmination of the William James lectures in the book *Verbal Behaviour*. Although Noam Chomsky was highly critical of *Verbal Behaviour*, he conceded that "S-R psychology" (which Skinner's system was most certainly not: operant conditioning consists of a stimulus or antecedent (S) emitting a response (R) which then becomes more or less likely in the future dependent upon its consequence (C)) was a reason for giving it "a review."*Verbal Behaviour* had an uncharacteristically slow reception, partly as a result of Chomsky's review, paired with Skinner's neglect to address or rebut any of Chomsky's condemnations. Skinner's peers may have been slow to adopt and consider the conventions within *Verbal Behaviour* due to its lack of experimental evidence—unlike the empirical density that marked Skinner's previous work. However, Skinner's functional analysis of verbal behaviour has seen a resurgence of interest in applied settings.

Behaviour Modification

Behaviour modification is a set of therapies/techniques based on operant conditioning (Skinner, 1938, 1953). The main principle comprises changing environmental events that are related to a person's behaviour. For example, the reinforcement of desired behaviours and ignoring or punishing undesired ones.

This is not as simple as it sounds — always reinforcing desired behaviour, for example, is basically bribery.There are different types of positive reinforcements. Primary reinforcement is when a reward strengthens a behaviour by itself. Secondary reinforcement is when something strengthens behaviour because it leads to a primary reinforcer.Examples of behaviour modification therapy include token economy and behaviour shaping.

Token Economy

Token economy is a system in which targeted behaviours are reinforced with tokens or secondary reinforcers and are later exchanged for rewards (primary reinforcers). Tokens can be in the form of fake money, buttons, poker chips, stickers, etc. While rewards can range anywhere from snacks to privileges/activities, token economy has been found to be very effective in managing psychiatric patients. However, the patients can become over-reliant on the tokens, making it difficult for them once they leave prisons, hospital etc.Teachers use token economy at primary school by giving young children stickers to reward good behaviour.

Operant Conditioning in the Classroom

Behaviour modification therapy is much used in clinical and educational psychology, particularly with people with learning difficulties. In the conventional learning situation it applies largely to issues of class- and student management, rather than to learning content. It is very relevant to shaping skill performanceA simple method of positive reinforcement in behaviour modification is to provide compliments, approval, encouragement, and affirmation; a ratio of five compliments for every one criticism is generally seen as being the most effective in altering behaviour in a desired manner.

Operant Conditioning Summary

Looking at Skinner’s classic studies on pigeons’ behaviour some of the major assumptions of the behaviourist approach can be identified.

- Psychology should be seen as a science, to be studied in a scientific manner. Skinner's study of behaviour in rats was conducted under carefully controlled laboratory conditions.

- Behaviourism is primarily concerned with observable behaviour, as opposed to internal events such as thinking and emotion. Note that Skinner did not say that the rats learned to press a lever because they wanted food. He instead concentrated on describing the easily observed behaviour that the rats acquired.

- The major influence on human behaviour isto learn from our environment. In the Skinner study, because food followed a particular behavior, the rats learned to repeat that behaviour, e.g. classical and operant conditioning.

- There is little difference between the learning that takes place in humans and that in other animals. Therefore research (e.g. classical conditioning) can be carried out on animals (Pavlov’s dogs) as well as on humans (Little Albert). Skinner proposed that the way humans learn behaviour is much the same as the way the rats learned to press a lever.

Behaviourism and its offshoots tend to be among the most scientific of the psychological perspectives. The emphasis of behavioural psychology is on how we learn to behave in certain ways. We are all constantly learning new behaviours and how to modify our existing behaviour. Behavioural psychology is the psychological approach that focusses on how this learning takes place.

Critical Evaluation

Operant conditioning can be used to explain a wide variety of behaviour, from the process of learning, to addiction and language acquisition. It also has practical application such as token economy which can be applied in classrooms, prisons and psychiatric hospitals.

However, operant conditioning fails to taken into account the role of inherited and cognitive factors in learning, and thus is an incomplete explanation of the learning process in humans and animals.

For example, Kohler (1924) found that primates often seem to solve problems in a flash of insight rather than by trial and error learning. Also social learning theory(Bandura, 1977) suggests that humans can learn automatically through observation rather than through personal experience.

The use of animal research in operant conditioning studies also raises the issue of extrapolation. Some psychologists argue we cannot generalise from studies on animals to humans as their anatomy and physiology is different from humans, and they cannot think about their experiences and invoke reason, patience, memory or self-comfort.

Influence on education

Skinner influenced education as well as psychology in both his ideology and literature. In Skinner's view, education has two major purposes:

1) to teach repertoires of both verbal and nonverbal behaviour; and

2) to encourage students to display an interest in instruction.

He endeavoured to bring students' behaviour under the control of the environment by reinforcing it only when particular stimuli were present. He believed that human behaviour could be affected by small consequences, something as simple as "the opportunity to move forward after completing one stage of an activity" could prove reinforcing (Skinner, 1961, p. 380). Skinner favoured active learning in the sense that students were not merely passive recipients of information doled out by teachers. He was convinced that a student had to take action "to acquire behaviour, the student must engage in behaviour" (Skinner, 1961, p. 389).Skinner also suggests that the main thing people learn from being punished is how to avoid punishment.

In *The Technology of Teaching*, Skinner has a chapter on why teachers fail (pages 93–113): Essentially he says that teachers have not been given an in-depth understanding of teaching and learning. Without knowing the science underpinning teaching, teachers fall back on procedures that work poorly or not at all, such as:

- using aversive techniques which produce escape and avoidance and undesirable emotional effects

- relying on telling and explaining ("Unfortunately, a student does not learn simply when he is shown or told." p. 103);
- failing to adapt learning tasks to the student's current level;
- failing to provide positive reinforcement frequently enough.

Skinner suggests that any age-appropriate skill can be taught. The steps are

1. Clearly specify the action or performance the student is to learn to do.
2. Break down the task into small achievable steps, going from simple to complex.
3. Let the student perform each step, thereby reinforcing correct actions.
4. Adjust so that the student is always successful until finally the goal is reached.
5. Transfer to intermittent reinforcement to maintain the student's performance.

Skinner associated punishment with avoidance. For example, he thought a child may be forced to practice playing his instrument as a form of seemingly productive discipline. This child would then associate practicing with punishment and thus learn to hate and avoid practicing the instrument. Additionally, teachers who use educational activities to punish children could cause inclinations towards rebellious behaviour such as vandalism and opposition to education.

Subsequent research (e.g. Staddon and Simmelhag, 1971), while finding similar behaviour, failed to find support for Skinner's "adventitious reinforcement" explanation for it. By looking at the timing of different behaviours within the interval, Staddon and Simmelhag were able to distinguish two classes of behaviour: the *terminal response*, which occurred in anticipation of food, and *interim responses*, that occurred earlier in the food interval and were rarely contiguous with food.

This experiment was also repeated on humans, in a less controlled manner, on the popular British TV series *Trick or Treat*, leading to similar conclusions to Skinner.

Criticism of Skinner

J. E. R. Staddon

As understood by Skinner, ascribing *dignity* to individuals involves giving them credit for their actions. To say "Skinner is brilliant" means that Skinner is an originating force. If Skinner's determinist theory is right, he is merely the focus of his environment. He is not an originating force and he had no choice in saying the things he said or doing the things he did. Skinner's environment and genetics both allowed and compelled him to write his book. Similarly, the environment and genetic potentials of the advocates of freedom and dignity cause them to resist the reality that their own activities are deterministically grounded. J. E. R. Staddon (*The New Behaviourism*, 2001) has argued the position of compatability, that Skinner's determinism is not in any way contradictory to traditional notions of reward and punishment, as he believed.

Noam Chomsky

Perhaps Skinner's best known critic, Noam Chomsky published a review of Skinner's Behaviour two years after it was published. The 1959 review became better known than the book itself. Chomsky's review has been credited with launching the cognitive movement in psychology and other disciplines. Skinner, who rarely responded directly to critics, never formally replied to Chomsky's critique. Many years later, Kenneth MacCorquodale's reply was endorsed by Skinner.

Chomsky also reviewed Skinner's *Beyond Freedom and Dignity*, using the same basic motives as his *Verbal Behaviour* review. Among Chomsky's criticisms were that Skinner's laboratory work could not be extended to humans, that when it was extended to humans it represented 'scientist'behaviour attempting to emulate science but which was not scientific, that Skinner was not a scientist because he rejected the hypothetical-deductive model of theory testing, and that Skinner had no science of behaviour.

Psychodynamic psychology

Skinner has been repeatedly criticised for his supposed animosity towards Freud, psychoanalysis, and psychodynamic psychology. There is clear evidence, however, that Skinner shared several of Freud's assumptions, and that he was influenced by Freudian points of view in more than one field, among them the analysis of defence mechanisms, such as repression.To study such phenomena, Skinner even designed his own projective test.

In the controversial books *Beyond Freedom and Dignity* (1971) and *Walden II* (1946/1968), Skinner laid out his vision of utopian society in which behaviour was controlled by the judicious application of the principle of reinforcement. In his books, he put forth the simple but stunning claim that our subjective sense of free will is an illusion and that when we think that we are exercising free will. We are actually responding to present and past patterns of reinforcement. We do things in the present that have been rewarding in the past, and our sense of "choosing" to do them is nothing more than an illusion. Skinner argued that his insights could be used to increase human well-being and solve social problems. Not surprisingly, that claim sparked an outcry from critics who believed that Skinner was giving away one of our most cherished attributes − free will − and calling for a repressive society that manipulated people for its own ends. The criticism extended to *TV Guide*, which featured an interview with Skinner and called his ideas “the taming of mankind through a system of dog obedience schools for all.”

The Eclectic Method

The Eclectic Teaching Approach unites the theories of cognitive styles, information processing, multiple intelligences, and multisensory learning to uncover 12 diverse and unique ways of processing or encoding information. All of these learning modalities lie on a continuum and individuals have their own preferences based on their cognitive strengths as well as their exposure to each methodology. By learning about eclectic learning, teachers, therapists, parents and even employers can be more mindful of their instruction and work expectations. Then, by evaluating preferences, they can tailor instructions and assignments for optimal results.

Many theories attempt to improve on the instructional needs of students and employees. However, insufficient applications have made it very difficult to implement these theories into practice. In contrast,eclectic instruction and assignment methods can be implemented to reach specific and unique ways of processing, interpreting, and assimilating information for each participant. These 12 approaches to processing, and encoding knowledge can be explored and accommodated by using the Eclectic Learning Profile.

Teaching of speaking skill has inherent difficulties, most teachers have reported that methodology, in particular to be followed has not adequately been tapped for any level of teaching. The pedagogical approach or method of teaching and learning English is related to learning and teaching of English based on perceptions that eclectically bridges the gap between learning and teaching models. However, the theoretical roots of language learning can be more precisely traced to the natural and language experience movements. Hildreth (1965) described educators experimenting with the natural method of teaching as a process where reading and writing are used simultaneously to reinforce and supplement each other. This is how the process of listening and speaking are to be used simultaneously which is also included collaborated with writing.

There is a need for considerable amount of effort required to create an innovative approach for learning English. Nevertheless eclectic way of learning English speaking primarily involves the four skills. Several theories have been embraced more enthusiastically by EFL teachers for several years one of them is Gardener's theory of multiple intelligences is one of the major theories relevant to the present teaching methodology. Strategies and methods of instruction are included within the parameters of whole language learning and eclectic method of learning components. Waston defines that both have the same features as the personal and professional histories of the authors are different (p.132)

The framework and case study

The eclectic method of learning was advocated in the beginning of 1990s and became fashionably popular these days. Larser Freeman(2000) and Mellow (2000) both have used the term principle eclecticism to describe a desirable, coherent, pluralistic approach to language learning teaching. Eclecticism involves the use of a variety of language learning activities.Each of which may have very different characteristics and objectives. The different components of language such as pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary, etc..have no meaning when they are isolated from each other (Freeman, 1992). Language should not be separated into chunks like pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary.

The eclectic method is the method mostly used because every other theory has strength and limitations of its own. Learning of this method benefits from teaching. The eclectic method is a combination of different method of teaching and learning approaches. This method effectively works for any kind of learners irrespective of age and standard. Learning is fun and innovative due to the unique nature of the learning process.

Many learners of English can use English as a subject to pass the objective examination, especially, in rural areas because they are not exposed to the language in common use of communicative purpose. It is no wonder that successful learners can use English as a way of everyday communication and they can develop their ability of speaking regularly. In this regard Canale and Swain rightly said about the four dimensions of communicative competence

- grammar competence,
- socio-linguistic competence,
- discourse competence, and strategic competence
- communicative approach for communication serves flow learning process.

b) Approaches to learn speaking

Vocabulary

Knowledge of vocabulary is indispensible for effective verbal communication. Acquiring vocabulary strength is a primary force component in communicative build up. Speaking is the only the way to boost up one's vocabulary. It also improves better pronunciation and content of language.

Grammar

It need further be noted that without using language, as a whole it would be difficult to synchronise proficiency of the language without verbal communication. There will not be any supporting counter-evidence for one's progress. Thus, an expert, professionally speaking is never able to justify proper construction of the sentences by following rules of grammar. Non native speakers of English would find it difficult with certain expressions which of course, cannot be translated into other languages. This is how the present series of hypothesis may not be coherent with existing theory of teaching/learning English. The theory I have presented, however, is found to be relevant with a significant experiment with present day mode of learning the language. A great deal of effort has already been put for many years cultivating good method of learning and teaching of English.

Standard expressions – Problems of translation: Culture plays a vital role in language acquisition. Language has to be spoken in context. It is besides experimentation or insights. Applied research language methodology has a greater effect on heterogeneous people. Certain expressions cannot be translated into other languages in order to get the meaning.

a. It's time we left the room

b. Would you rather I did it?

The above examples of sentence patterns are to be found among native English speaking people, however, often it is a trouble analyse patterns in order to frame rules of the structure of sentence.

Pronunciation: This is a specific difficulty that people from non native speakers of English encounter when they try to speak English as the English.

a. general problems: /t/ as /d/ in water, better, Peter

/v/ vs. /w/ violin, watch

Accent reduction for non native speakers of English is one of the significant features of learners of Spoken English. Word stress plays a vital role in English language, for instance, **COM**PRESS when stress is on 'com', it refers to machine to warm or cool on the other hand COM**PRESS,** when stress is on 'press' , it refers to make smaller. Similarly '**CON**DUCT' and 'CON**DUCT'.**

c) Developing Strategies for Speaking Aptitude

Language acquisition is primary motive for sentence pattern. It is absolutely essential that the people must be able to listen and speak. Very often learners of English language believe that the ability of learning takes place by understanding every word they hear, however, they should learn to imitate accent without understanding the context of the spoken sentence. Forms and structure are yet widely being discussed in the language classroom. It is further to be noted that by paying close attention to the context and the keywords of language, people will be able to comprehend the essence of the sentence. Most often case studies of learners of language observed that by paying careful attention to the listening, learners would be able to follow communication.However, they do not reproduce because they do need rules of language as a whole way of language acquisition *per se*. When the objective is achieved, learners would strongly affirm that they can speak English well. Now, I would like to have a discussion of the actual learning activities for various stages of learners and their aptitude in the eclectic approach.

THE "ECLECTIC THEORY" OF LANGUAGE

The eclectic theory of language advocated during the year 1990s was because it was important for the educational theory of language learning. It is popular because it has the impact of good results without much pressure on the learner. The advantage of this theory is that learners have clear vision what they are learning. multiple tasks, high interaction, lively learning, objective correlative, and fast results which are the salient features of this method. Some learners go by their own way of communicating strategy, they will become more confident in writing but most often they fail in speaking. The purpose of advocating the eclectic method is to connect life experiences to the ideas presented in the learning of language. The types of learning activities teachers select are often directly related to their experiences in the real world.

Procedure

It is difficult to put this theory in one or two sentences. It is perfect that it is not a scientific drill method and it is neither a teaching tool for the teacher or a learning method for the learners. It is a whole way of doing things such as listening coordinated speaking with subsidiary elements like pronunciation and form of the language.

Learning language as a whole

Teacher of English widely using method of teaching is the deductive way of discrimination parts of language acquisition for instance, vocabulary and pronunciation are not two separate entities. All the parts of language must be put together and learnt concurrently. Each item in language teaching and learning process has to be discussed several times in due course. Learners should grasp the chance and coordinate their abilities to strengthen learning process so that the results are positive. Learners should show considerable amount of interest in learning the four skills (LSRW) of language.

Peer work/Group activity

Participants in discussion with peer, contextualize the language, present a report. Read textbooks, story books, newspapers to bring the context in the group and have a conversation. This method consequently imposes on learners' development. Create an opportunity, reinforce materials, arrange the learners balancing their abilities then they work on the activity. The comprehensibility of the input will be raised by the learners' repetition and argument. There is minimal interference of the teacher by giving maximum exploration to the learners. **Focus on Spoken English**

The spoken language allows one to locate the appropriate way to get a particular objective. The importance of introducing a cultural product is as crucial to such learning of the language as capturing and enhancing knowledge or expressing one's feelings. The problem of speaking ranges from creating a story which has to anticipate events. Eclectic way of speaking is a wonderful way of achieving objective of learning.

IV. TECHNIQUES OF TEACHING ENGLISH

Teachers of English need to focus on the special teaching techniques. There are many methods of teaching English out of which the Eclectic way of teaching include positive objectives of known methods and principles of Eclectic method which is discussed here. The Eclectic method is a popular method these days because students are heterogeneous and versatile and intelligent in the classroom. The value of teaching technique decisively suggested for these students specially. However, some teachers are very sensitive to using various methods; they find a particular method comfortable using in the classroom without taking much trouble. The teacher ought to use all the principles of language teaching including cognition and linguistic objectives.

Nature of activity

A technique of teaching through the eclectic way is a rich combination of multiple activities. The salient features of approach include

a) Participatory Approach

b) Communicative Approach

c) Situational Approach

What is the Eclectic Learning Profile (ELP)?

The ELP is an informal inventory that helps to reveal a student's best ways of encoding and retrieving knowledge. There are 12 different ways of processing investigated, and the resulting profiles demonstrate preferences at differing degrees of intensity. Specific compensatory strategies and instructional methods are recommended that guide teachers, parents, employees and students to optimal **Eclectic approach.**

In the move away from teachers following one specific methodology, the eclectic approach is the label given to a teacher's use of techniques and activities from a range of language teaching approaches and methodologies. The teacher decides on the methodology or approach to use depending on the aims of the lesson and the learners in the group. Almost all modern course books have a mixture of approaches and methodologies.

Example

The class starts with an inductive activity with learners identifying the different uses of synonyms of movement using a reading text. They then practice these using TPR. In another class the input is recycled through a task-based lesson, with learners producing the instructions for an exercise manual.

In the classroom

A typical lesson might combine elements from various sources such as TPR and TBL (the examples); the communicative approach, e.g. in communication gap activities; the lexical approach, e.g. focussing on lexical chunks in reading; and the structural-situational approach, e.g. establishing a clear context for the presentation of new structures.

V. TEACHERS ROLES AND LEARNER NEEDS

The present curriculum in engineering colleges is being focussed on low level grammar and oriental context of culture texts which may not bring out whole linguistic competence of the students if they are to be trained for global market leaders.

The text is a learning about grammatical system of English. Most of the students enjoy communicative and participatory approach of learning English. If the teacher does not pay attention to the need of the respective student, the whole teaching practice is useless. The above said approaches have to be inculcated among the learners of English language specially engineering graduates. Roles plays are the important practice of learning in the ELS classroom because participation in role-play allows students to make decisions, and through the feedback he or she receives.He sees the results of his actions, and can therefore learn how to adjust his words and actions to produce more likeable results. Because role plays can be involving, both in emotional and cognitive ways, they can also be used to help people understand others, and the positions of others.

Example:A person can role play a position with which they disagree, to better understand that position. It should be noted however that role playing does not automatically confer these benefits immediately. Another part of participatory technique is group discussion. It helps to combine individual strengths of the group members and hence has a set of varied skill sets applied in the decision-making process. It always means enhanced collective understanding of the course of action to be taken after the decision is taken.

Unlike any other influential educational theory, the "Eclectic" theory has caused sharp curves for many researchers of English Language Teaching. The development is further progressed into sharper analysis. Some people advocate it greatly and some criticise it harshly. Of course, it has its own advantages and disadvantages. The advantages are in general understanding aspects.

Firstly, with this theory, it becomes easier and more possible for the learners to understand the language of the text with the context of culture.

Secondly, it blends the practices of listening, speaking, reading and writing into an organic whole.

It is obvious that any one method does not serve the right purpose of teaching English. This is how teaching English by combination of various methods and approaches will help the teacher to teach English effectively. Teaching of English should be made easy by bringing into realistic situation, the best way of teaching English – which is by creating situations. The situation makes the language easily comprehensible. It connects a closer link between an expression and its usage by coordinating meaning. It is also important that creating situations should be appropriate to students' level and their context of culture.

Action Chain:

Through an action chain the same pattern of sentences can be drilled into the minds of learners. It is a series of continuous actions. It is also taught consequently. Conditions of learning are rather pitiable. Now the question arises why students are not interested in learning the language? Some students are careless. But the root cause behind failures of learning is that teachers of English themselves are not very efficient. The Eclectic method of learning includes several methods of teaching. It advocates that number of methods can be used based on the selection of particular method which depends on level of students. However, the basic principle of learning is simplicity.

The Eclectic method of learning is an integral part of the total learning process. Learning should be comprehensible. Merits and limitations of any method are always discussed. Taking things in the right manner and awareness of proper learning style need to be extended. The cooperative learning process should be a panacea for all ills of teaching and learning process. Students of Engineering are active participants of any interactive session of discussion. They create interest, situation, and initiation which influence other participants. They evaluate the process. They are aware of instant understanding and rapport created with points of discussion where there is unity and where there is lack of it and tries to estimate how far they are different from their own thoughts.

Documentation

Documentation means a written notation or description of any action, activity, incident or event which helps the respective team member, their supervisor, and the organisational leadership understand the team member’s work experiences, and helps all with decision making and support around the team member – in service to the mission and goals of the organisation.

Celebrating success: One of the main goals of documentation should be noting an individual’s successes on the job. No one is motivated when the only things that are remembered about them are their mistakes. People are motivated by first feeling great about what they are doing well, and repeating those behaviours again to try to get the feeling of engagement in their work. Documenting the successes of an employee can be as simple as sending the employee an e-mail about something specific and meaningful you know about that they did really well, printing it, and putting it in their file.

Example:

“Hello Jason. I understand that today you handled a difficult patient interaction with a calm, positive, and patient-centred approach. This type of interaction is not only a model for other members of the team; it is exactly the kind of patient-centred interaction which aligns with our mission. Thank you for your high quality service to our customer, and actions that show that you understand and believe in the work we are doing.”

It is important that if supervisors keep their own personnel files that they are sharing these comments with whoever is managing the permanent employee records in your organisation. If you have a recognition programme, it can be very effective to share e-mails like this one with all of the members of your team.

Creating a history:

It is valuable to build a story about an employee’s experience in your organisation. Not only does this help you reflect on individual team members themselves, this information can help an organisation to learn about their overall approaches to its team. If an employee suddenly leaves an organisation for a different opportunity and there is no story documented about that employee’s interactions, events, learning, etc. there may not be a way to piece together the reason they may have sought out an alternative. If a team member repeatedly asks for more training and doesnot receive it, this may be an indication of their feeling undervalued or ignored. Likewise, if a team member has repeated behaviour which creates difficult interactions at work, it may be difficult to understand the whole picture without a written history such as “Have there been interventions?”“Have there been improvements?”“Do improvements and lapses go in waves for this person?”.

Leadership would benefit by measuring one element of leadership effectiveness by the level at which and the quality of the way they document interactions and activities of the team members they lead. Further, supervisors and managers are well served when they are coached by their supervisors/leadership on how to note and follow up on goals, solutions, and outcomes in writing and in conversation with the individuals they are supervising.

Protecting the employee and the organisation: The primary purpose of documenting a team member’s experience should not be to anticipate legal issues, but there are legal considerations when including documentation in a team member’s file as the information in personnel files is “discoverable” should you be faced with a wrongful termination suit. The best way to avoid legal issues in documentation is to train your leadership teams to include the following in their writings:

State the facts

Leave behind personal judgement or generalisation.

- Include specific organisational policy and procedural information which has lead to the documentation.
- Include ways in which the supervisor, manager, or other leader is supporting the team member to make a change which should align with the organisation’s policies and procedures.
- Obtain the employee’s signature for understanding (not necessarily agreement) and offer them the opportunity for written comment.

- Include recognitions for team member's contributions as well as areas for growth.
- Always "check your intention" when writing the documentation. "Is the author angry or frustrated?" "Is there personal or other bias?" "Is the ultimate goal skill building and improvement?"

These questions should help the writer stay on track.It is beneficial for leadership to strike a balance in their writing, both protecting the team member as well as the organisation. This is less likely to happen if the leader is emotionally charged or feels pressure from leadership or other team members to take a specific action (such as discipline or termination). An unbiased, fact-based, solution/goal oriented document is the best practice.

Check for Understanding:

It is a good idea for the supervisor to enlist the help of an appropriate coach, perhaps their own supervisor or someone who is trusted to protect confidentiality and has a stake in the success of the event surrounding documentation. Another pair of eyes helps the supervisor or leader to make sure the message is understood, and that the above best practices for the team member and organisational protection are included.

Individuals should never be left out of the documentation going into their personnel file. A conversation should always accompany any notes if your intention and goal is truly improvement and success based. An employee should not be surprised by what is in the personnel file.

Road map for Improvement and Success:

In most cases, employees want to do a good job, feel engaged in their work, feel valued, and work toward something "bigger" than themselves. Sometimes, they just need the faith of their leadership, a road map to follow, and the space to do a good job in order to let their motivation shine. Most of today's successful, forward moving organisational leaders will agree that a positive rather than a punitive based organisational culture will serve all its members and stakeholders best. If you view documentation as a road map for improvement and eventually a success, you will be providing your employees with skills that will last a lifetime. If they can SEE where they have come from, and where they are on the road to, you will likely have a very strong and sustainable team where fear of conversations and records dissolve because fear has been replaced by trust. From a utility standpoint, if supervision changes hands, the new leader will have a better understanding of the individuals on their team if they are armed with good documentation. Training supervisors and leaders on how to create good team member documents creates sustainability of culture and stability for your team.

Tradition and culture in Zambia

An American woman was a foreign aid worker in a near East Asian country in the 1970s. Both the indigenous local aid employees and their foreign counterparts were holding a workshop at a local hotel. They were all taking a break, by relaxing and swimming in the hotel pool when the American woman dove into the pool. As if a dangerous shark had just been spotted in the pool, everyone instantly scrambled out of the pool to the amazement and embarrassment of the American woman. It turned out that the etiquette of this country did not allow men and women to do practically anything together in public, let alone swim. The men had to scramble out of the pool because a woman had jumped into it.

A young African-American graduate female student was conducting research field work in the West African country of Ghana in the 1960s. After boarding a crowded public city local bus, she handed the driver her fare with her left hand. The driver angrily berated her for the insult, gross disrespect, and her impudence. The stunned student later learned that in Ghanaian etiquette and custom, it was an insult to hand anyone anything with your left hand. You cannot even wave good bye using your left hand.

A young white middle class college American graduate from the Midwest, Joe Stevenson, was participating in a life-long dream: volunteer service abroad in a Third World country. He was stationed in *Chipata,*a rural provincial town in the Eastern Province of Zambia. One day, Joe was a lunch guest of a rural African family. His host, Mr. Banda, was a schoolteacher. Mrs. Banda prepared the *nshima*a dish that is close to the consistency of mashed potatoes but cooked with cornmeal. It is a Zambian traditional meal served with chicken and collard greens or what is known as *repu* in Zambia. Knowing that the special guest was white, she also served the lunch with hot black tea with milk, sugar, and slices of bread spread with sweet jam. After serving the meal on the dining room table, the wife retreated into the small kitchen to eat with the children.

Mr. Banda asked Joe to wash his hands in the basin of water. Joe barely immersed the tips of his fingers in the water in a straight perpendicular fashion for a few seconds and pulled them out. This both surprised and appalled the host because it meant Joe was going to eat *nshima* with essentially dirty or less than clean hands. When Joe tried to get a small lump of *nshima* with his right hand, it was so hot he dropped it as he stood up and desperately licked his fingers swiftly. He tried again to get a lump of the *nshima*, it was so hot that he had to use both hands and dropped it again. This time, Joe quickly dipped both hands into the basin of cold water to cool them. Mr. Banda offered Joe a fork and knife. Joe refused, insisting he wanted to try eating the Zambian traditional meal in a traditional way. Mr. Banda was flustered. There was a visible awkwardness between host and guest as they both tried to maintain some dignity.

After eating as much *nshima* with chicken as he could, Joe declared he was so full he could only drink a cup of hot black tea but without the sugar, milk or even a bite of the bread. As Mrs. Banda was clearing the dishes after the meal, Joe thanked Mr. And Mrs. Banda profusely for the delicious meal. The hosts felt so embarrassed and awkward. First, Joe should not have thanked the hosts directly for the meal he had just eaten. Most Zambian families expect their guests to drink the tea with milk and sugar. Even if a guest is full, they are expected just to eat a little of the meal out of respect and being polite. Joe should have accepted the use of a knife and fork to maintain decorum.

Importance of Etiquette

These are classic cases of two sets of people from two different cultures trying to share experiences. But the experiences were rather marred and ended up not being completely gratifying for both of them because, for example, Joe as a guest was not familiar with the Zambian etiquette and so were the two other Americans unfamiliar with the nuances of the etiquette of their host societies. There are rules of good behaviour and following customs expected and specific to each culture. If you are going to be a guest in any culture, knowing the basic rules of etiquette goes a long way in smoothing the social interactions such that your hosts will not think you are arrogant, uncouth, disrespectful, and contemptuous of them. You do not want your hosts to make unpleasant or negative assumptions about you.

If you were ever to visit the African country of Zambia, there are basic rules of etiquette and other customs that you have to practice or have to be aware of. Some element of the etiquette may have some variations if one is visiting someone in the urban area or the rural traditional environment. The Zambian etiquette applies to such issues as greetings, food and eating habits, gift giving, and conversation.

Greetings

- Greetings always start with a handshake with the customary: "How are you?" "How did you leave your family or how was your journey?" Kissing and hugging a Zambian in public, as a form of greeting, especially by a total stranger creates obvious embarrassment and awkwardness.
- When you are in Zambia be as patient as you can. For example, if you are visiting a home, you will receive a quick verbal greeting at the door as you walk in or arrive. Then the hosts will take time to find a chair, clear a couch, or send a child to get a stool, reed mat, or chair. Wait until you will be directed to a chair. Once you are seated, that is when you will be given a proper greeting starting with a handshake.

Food and the Nshima Staple Meal

- The Zambian staple meal of *Nshima*, which is cooked out of corn meal or mealie-meal. It is eaten in virtually all homes twice a day; for lunch and dinner. The *nshima* and the second smaller dish, relish, *ndiwo*, *ndiyo,* or *umunani* are always served together and placed in the middle of the table. The *ndiwo* can be fish, beans, chicken, beef, vegetables. The diners sit around the table. Zambians traditionally use hands when eating *nshima*. The diners will first wash their hands from a dish of clean water. The custom is that the guests, elders, older adults, younger people and children wash their hands in a pecking order. It is considered rude for a young person to wash their hands first before the adults, older siblings and guests have done so. Young people help to serve the adults and guests at the table in passing the dish of water to wash the hands. A younger person or child should not stop eating and wash hands first, let alone leave the dining table, before adults do. However, if an adult sees a younger person or guest who has obviously stopped eating because they are full, the adults or the host will graciously grant “permission” to the child to wash his or her hands. It is considered good behaviour for everyone to wait seated at the table until everyone has finished eating and washed their hands.

- Eating is always done with only the right hand. Both hands are never used when eating *nshima*. Only small children and perhaps strangers unfamiliar with the culture will use both hands at the same time when eating *nshima*. Eating with both hands is regarded as highly insulting and shows utter disrespect for the hosts, the people, and the culture. Westerners and other foreign visitors will be given forks and knives if the host notices that the guest is facing difficulties as fresh cooked *nshima* is always sizzling hot. The right hand will get a lump of *nshima*, gently mold it with the one hand into a beautiful ball, and dip it into the *ndiwo* or relish before eating it. It is considered very dignified and enjoyable to eat *nshima* slowly while making and smoothening the lump carefully before eating it; making good casual and relaxed conversation in the process. Young people eat and listen and can participate in the conversation when asked a question. But generally a well-behaved young person is expected to listen and gain wisdom from the elders during these meal times.
- Zambians ordinarily will not ask you if you want to eat something especially if you are visiting a home. The educated elite and the well off

might ask if you want to eat or drink something and might give you a variety of choices. But generally a host family will offer you snacks and tea, soft drinks, beer and even a main meal of *nshima*, without asking for your permission. Traditionally, it is considered rude and perhaps even selfish and cruel if you ask your guests: “Are you hungry and should we cook *nshima* for you?” According to custom, a guest who might be really hungry will say “No” out of formality, shyness and embarrassment and they will then expect to leave. It is assumed that as long as you are staying and having conversation, it is considered courteous to offer you anything that the family may have for you to eat. Refusing to eat completely is considered rude unless you are close acquaintances or good friends with your hosts. Even if you are full, you can always eat a little. This is a mark of politeness.

Avoid asking the host the ingredients that make up the food just before you start eating at the table. Although your intentions may be innocent and normal in Western society, this may sound like you are questioning the host woman’s ability to cook, or worse that you suspect the host is serving you poison; at least this is what it might sound like to your host. If you would like to know how to cook the food, the recipe, what type of food it is, or what ingredients are in it, ask at an appropriate time may be towards the end or after the meal. Make sure you mention that you are just curious or you liked the meal so much. Most Zambian food is bland not spicy at all, will not make you fat, or kill you unless of course you have some serious medical allergies to some foods like peanuts which are often an important common ingredient in most Zambia relishes.

Language testing

Language assessment or language testing is a field of study under the umbrella of applied linguistics. Its main focus is the assessment of first, second or other language in the school, college, or university context; assessment of language use in the workplace; and assessment of language in the immigration, citizenship, and asylum contexts. The assessment may include listening, speaking, reading, writing, an integration of two or more of these skills, or other constructs of language ability. Equal weight may be placed on knowledge (understanding how the language works theoretically) and proficiency (ability to use the language practically), or greater weight may be given to one aspect or the other.

UNIT II

Morphology of Zambian languages

Who among 13 million Zambians today will land the best job in Lusaka, Kitwe, Johannesburg in South Africa, in London in UK, Tokyo in Japan, or the United Nations in New York because they are fluent in *Bemba, Nyanja, Tonga,* or *Lozi* and dozens of other Zambian languages? The answer is no one will be able to find a job in any of these places. In introducing compulsory learning of Zambians languages in schools, is the Ministry of Education wasting time and money? Will this policy encourage and create a resurgence of separatism, disunity, and tribalism which the founders of Zambia tried hard to eliminate? After all, a Zambian will communicate with more people in Zambia and the global world if they concentrate on knowing to read and speak English well as it is official language of Zambia.

These arguments have been very common since independence in 1964. This article discusses some of the advantages of learning Zambian languages that many Zambians may not have been previously aware of. Some of the major reasons and advantages of being bilingual and multilingual are very important in today's world in spite of globalisation. Our history as Zambians started a long time ago from two hundred thousand years ago when we were the first humans in East Africa and Ethiopia. We spread all over the world. The evidence of us having been all over the world is all over the world right now. We just need to have the courage and conviction to find it and interpret it to the world.

After early humans lived and migrated in small bands and communities for thousands of years, We Zambians and Africans created the Egyptian civilisation. The arguments as to whether Egypt had white or black people may be irrelevant and it is a deliberate distraction, *mifulungenye* (Bemba), *msokonezo*(Nyanja) *kutangwaniska* and *kujalizgha* (Tumbuka), or obfuscation that Europeans cherish which they introduced to justify the beginning of the Atlantic Slave Trade and later European colonialism in Africa. Europeans love to inject race into everything with whites always being superior somehow. African Egyptians in the north were olive skinned and those further south towards the equator were darker skinned.

The Egyptian civilisation occurred from 3100 B.C.E to 1090 B.C.E and spanned nearly 2000 years. This was about 760 years before the ancient Greeks. The great Ancient Egyptian Civilisation which Africans established was 2,460 years before the very young European Industrial Revolution of the 1700s and 1800s. The 1090 B.C.E to 2013 is 3, 013 years ago. Dr. Chisanga Siame's article brought to light the fact that using linguistic analysis known as *philology, etymology,* and then the *morphology, phonology, semantics and syntax* of language you can trace the "Siame" *Namwanga* Zambian name to the Pharaohs of ancient Egypt three thousand years ago. Zambian languages are very important, as going back thousands of years we Africans have used the Niger-Congo Bantu languages.

Introducing Zambian languages will help us understand our real wider history in the origin of human civilisation as our 72 tribes are part of the earlier African civilisation going back thousands of years. The deeper meanings in traditional Zambian languages in *Bemba, Nyanja*, *ChiChewa*, *Tonga*, and *Lozi* have buried within them our true history going back perhaps to two hundred thousand years.

The learning, knowledge of and deeper proficiency in Zambian languages among Zambians also improves and widens our knowledge or world view known as cognition in psychology. For example, among the *Nyanja* or *ChiChewa* speaking people in the Eastern Province they have more than a dozen words to describe maize, mealie-meal and *nshima*-related terms. Because the *Lozi* in the Zambezi flood plain are a fishing culture, they probably have dozens of words related to fishing and fish related food. The Tonga people have a culture of raising cattle. They probably have dozens of terms that are cattle-related. English language may have no equivalent terms from these Zambian languages which limits cognition. Zambian languages are not just simple words for which we should create English equivalents, but reflect a much deeper epistemology and world view which may provide an advantage in the contemporary global world.

Zambian languages are spoken by us as babies and children in families, the languages are called mother tongue. They play a special role in our lives as they reinforce and express a certain emotional intimacy among Zambian families. These languages reinforce very important bonds as children and as adults.

Speaking and understanding Zambian languages creates and reinforces national unity and patriotism. There is nothing as heartwarming when as a

Zambian you are away from home for many years living in distant lands. When you meet a Zambian you experience a special joy when they speak *Bemba, Nyanja, Tonga, Lozi, Lunda or Kaonde*. Although we would communicate in English if we do not know each other's traditional languages, we often use the much more intimate town *lingua franca* such as town *Nyanja* or *Bemba*, *Lozi*, or *Tonga* to express national unity and patriotism. These are some factors as to why implementing compulsory teaching of Zambian languages in schools is the best decision the Ministry of Education has made.

The most prominent grammatical characteristic of Bantu languages is the extensive use of affixes. Each noun belongs to a class, and each language may have several numbered classes, somewhat like gender in European languages. The class is indicated by a prefix that is part of the noun, as well as agreement markers on verb and qualifying roots connected with the noun. Plural is indicated by a change of class, with a resulting change of prefix.

The verb has a number of prefixes, though in western languages these are often treated as independent words. In Swahili, for example, *Mtoto mdogo amekisoma*, (also *Kamwana kadoko kariverenga* in Shona language) means 'The small child has read it [a book]'. *Mtoto*'child' governs the adjective prefix *m-* and the verb subject prefix *a-*. Then comes perfect tense *-me-* and an object marker *-ki-* agreeing with implicit *kitabu*'book'. Pluralising to 'children' gives *Watoto wadogo wamekisoma* (*Vana vadoko variverenga* in Shona), and pluralising to 'books' (*vitabu*) gives *Watoto wadogo wamevisoma*.

Bantu words are typically made up of open syllables of the type CV (Consonant-Vowel) with most languages having syllables exclusively of this type. The Bushong language recorded by Vansina, however, has final consonants, while slurring of the final syllable (though written) is reported as common among the Tonga of Malawi. The morphological shape of Bantu words is typically CV, VCV, CVCV, VCVCV, etc.; that is, any combination of CV (with possibly a V-syllable at the start). In other words, a strong claim for this language family is that almost all words end in a vowel, precisely because closed syllables (CVC) are not permissible in most of the documented languages, as far as is understood. This tendency to avoid consonant clusters in some positions is important when words are imported from English or other non-Bantu languages. An example from Chewa: the word “school”, borrowed from English, and then transformed to fit the sound patterns of this language, is *sukulu*. Another example is *buledi* for “bread”. Similar effects are seen in loanwords for other non-African CV languages like Japanese. However, a clustering of sounds at the beginning of a syllable can be readily observed in such languages as Shona, and the Makua variants.

Reduplication is a common morphological phenomenon in Bantu languages and is usually used to indicate frequency or intensity of the action signalled by the (unreduplicated) verb stem.

- **Example:** in Swahili *piga* means “strike”, *pigapiga* means “strike repeatedly”.

Well-known words and names that have reduplication include

- Bafana Bafana, a football team
- Chipolopolo, a football team
- Eric Djemba-Djemba, a footballer
- Lualua, a footballer
- Ngorongoro, a conservation area

Repetition emphasises the repeated word in the context that it is used. For instance,“Mwenda pole hajikwai,” while “Pole pole ndio mwendo,” has two to emphasise the consistency of slowness of the pace. The meaning of the former in translation is, “He who goes slowly doesnot trip,” and that of the latter is, “A slow but steady pace wins the race.”“Haraka haraka” would mean hurrying just for the sake of hurrying, reckless hurry, as in “Njoo! Haraka haraka” [Come here! Hurry, hurry].

Contrary to the above definition, there are some words in some of the languages in which reduplication has the opposite meaning. It usually denotes short durations and or lower intensity of the action and also means a few repetitions or a little bit more.

- **Example 1:** In Xitsonga and related, “famba” means to “walk” while “famba-famb”" means to “walk around”.
- **Example 2:**In Isizulu and SiSwati *hamba* means “go”, *hambahamba* means “ meaning go a little bit, but not much”.
- **Example 3:**In both of the above languages *shaya* means “strike”, *shayashaya* means “strike-strike, meaning strike a few more times lightly, but not heavy strikes and not too many times.”
- **Example 4:** In Xitsonga, “hasahasa” means “chaos”. “Hasa” does not have a meaning.

Notable Bantu languages

Following are the principal Bantu languages of each country. Included are those languages that constitute at least 1% of the population and have at least 10% the number of speakers of the largest Bantu language in the country.

Most languages are best known in English without the class prefix (*Swahili*, *Tswana*, *Ndebele*), but are sometimes seen with the (language-specific) prefix (*Kiswahili*, *Setswana*, *Sindebele*). In a few cases prefixes are used to distinguish languages with the same root in their name, such as Tshiluba and Kiluba (both *Luba*), Umbundu and Kimbundu (both *Mbundu*). The bare (prefixless) form typically does not occur in the language itself, but is the basis for other words based on the ethnicity.

Therefore, in the country of Botswana the people are the *Batswana*, one person is a *Motswana*, and the language is *Setswana*; and in Uganda, centred in the kingdom of *Buganda*, the dominant ethnicity are the *Baganda* (*Muganda*), whose language is *Luganda*.

Zambia

- Bemba (3.3 million)
- Tonga (1.0 million)
- Chewa or Nyanja(Chichewa) (800,000)
- Lozi (Silozi) (600,000)
- Lala-Bisa (600,000)
- Nsenga (550,000)
- Tumbuka (Chitumbuka) (500,000)
- Lunda (450,000)
- neyiha (400,000+)
- Mambwe-Lungu (400,000)

The **Bemba language**, *ChiBemba* (also *Cibemba, Ichibemba, Icibemba* and *Chiwemba*), is a major Bantu language spoken primarily in north-eastern Zambia by the Bemba people and as a lingua franca by about 18 related ethnic groups, including the Bisa people of Mpika and Lake Bangweulu, and to a lesser extent in Katanga in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Tanzania, and Botswana. Including all its dialects, Bemba is the most spoken indigenous language in Zambia. The Lamba language is closely related, some people consider it a dialect of Bemba.

History

The Bemba people are descendants of inhabitants of the Luba kingdom, which existed in what is now the Katanga province of the Democratic Republic of Congo, and in north-eastern Zambia.

Bemba is one of the most widely spoken languages in Zambia, spoken by many people who live in urban areas, and is one of Zambia's seven recognised regional languages. Zambia's first president, Kenneth Kaunda, though Malawian by descent, was raised in a Bemba-speaking community, and two of the four Zambian presidents since have beenBembaspeakers. The third president, Levi Mwanawassa, was a Lenje, who belong to the Bantu Botatwe [three people] ethnic grouping that comprises the Tonga-Lenje-Ila peoples. The Fourth President, Rupiah Bwezani Banda was a Chewa from the Eastern Province. In the years after the MMD took power in 1991, it was accused numerous times of promoting Bemba over other regional languages in the country. Although the lingua franca of the Zambian capital Lusaka is a dialect of Nyanja language, it incorporates numerous Bemba words and expressions.

Dialects

Bemba has several dialects, many being varieties of Bemba spoken by other tribes which have historically fallen under Bemba influence. They include Chishinga, Lomotwa, Ngoma, Nwesi, Kabende, Luunda, Mukulu, Ng'umbo, and Unga, which is spoken by Twa pygmies and sometimes considered a separate language (Nurse 2003). The Twa of Bangweulu speak another dialect of Bemba, and a Bemba-English Creole, known as Town Bemba, used in the major cities of the Copperbelt.

Phonology and orthography

The orthographical system in common use, originally introduced by Edward Steere, is quite phonetic. Its letters, with their approximate phonetic values, are given below.

Letter:	A	B	Ch/C	D	E	F	G	I	J	K	L	M	N	Ng'	O	P	S	Sh	T	U	V	W	Y
Value:	a	b/ɓ~w/β	tʃ/tj	d	e	f~v	ɡ	i	dʒ/dj	k	l	m	n	ŋʰ	ɔ	p	s	ʃ	t	u	f~v	w	j

It has become increasingly common to use ‘c’ in place of ‘ch’. In common with other Bantu languages, as affixes are added, combinations of vowels may contract and consonants may change. For example, ‘aa’ changes to a long ‘a’, ‘ae’ and ‘ai’ change to ‘e’, and ‘ao’ and ‘au’ change to ‘o’ (in other cases, a ‘y’ is often used to separate other combinations of vowels). The nasal ‘n’ changes to ‘m’ before ‘b’ or ‘p’, and is pronounced ŋ before ‘k’ or ‘g’; after ‘n’, ‘l’ changes to ‘d’. These rules will all becomeexplicit in the tables given below.

Like many Bantu languages, Bemba is tonal, with two tones; however, tone has a limited effect on meaning as the number of words that would otherwise be confused is small. Stress tends to fall on the prefix, when it exists, and can lead to subtle differences of meaning as given in the verb forms below.

Grammar

Many of the main features of Bemba grammar are fairly typical of Bantu languages: it is agglutinative, depends mainly on prefixes, has a system of several noun classes, a large set of verbal aspects and tenses, very few actual adjectives, and, like English, uses subject-verb-object word order.

Nouns

Bemba nouns are divided into several partially semantic classes. These are indicated by their prefixes and are generally similar, but not always identical, to the *concord prefixes* attached to verbs they govern, adjectives qualifying them, and pronouns standing for them. By one convention, based on the plural, these are arranged as follows (most alternate forms are due to phonetic considerations):

Class	Singular prefix	Concordprefix(singular)	Plural prefix	Concord prefix (plural)	Notes
1	mu-, mw-, m-	a (verbs), mu (adjectives), u/w (pronouns)	ba-	ba-	persons, and several inanimate nouns
2	mu-	u- (sometimes mu- for adjectives)	mi-	i- (sometimes mi- for adjectives)	generally inanimate nouns, and most trees and fruit
3	n-, lu-	i (sometimes n- for adjectives), lu-	n-	shi-	generally not human nouns
4	chi-/ch- (ichi-)	chi-/ch-	fi-/fy- /f- (ifi-)	fi-/fy-/f-	augmentatives, kinds, languages

5	li-, ku-, bu-, lu-	same as noun prefix	ma-	ya- (sometimes ma-for adjectives)	Plural can be used for singulars of class 3 to emphasise larger number or size
6	ka-	Ka	tu-	tu-	
7	bu-	bu-	none	none	abstract nouns
8	ku-	ku-			infinitives
9	ku-, mu-, pa-	same as noun prefix			not strictly a noun class (see below)

The prefixes in class 9 essentially indicate case: ‘ku'' corresponds to ‘to’ or ‘from’, ‘mu’- to ‘in’, ‘into’, or ‘out of’, and ‘pa-‘ to‘at’.

Adjectives

As is common in Bantu languages, adjectives follow the words they qualify, and take the adjectival concord prefixes, but there are not many of them in the strictest sense. Adverbs, relative clauses, or ‘descriptors’, often fulfil their function instead. Descriptors are placed after the noun, with the particle ‘-a’, and the relevant pronoun prefix between them: *chintu cha nomba*, ‘new thing’.

Numerals

The numbers from 1 to 10 are:

English:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Bemba:	mo	bili	tatu	ne	sano	mutanda	chine lubali	chine konse konse	pabula	ikumi

The numerals 1-5 take adjectival concord prefixes (except for class 1 singular: *muntu umo,*'one person'). The numerals 6-10 are left unchanged. 'Ikumi' has the plural 'makumi', which can be used as a noun with 'na' (and, with) to form all numbers up to 99: for example, *makumi yatatu na pabula*, 'thirty nine'. 100 is'mwanda', with plural 'myanda'.

Pronouns

The class-independent personal pronouns are: 'ine' (1st person sing.), 'iwe' (2nd person sing.), 'ifwe' (1st person pl.), 'imwe' (2nd person pl.). These are absolute, in the sense that they stand alone, and cannot appear as subjects or objects as they are. There are separate possessive pronouns, and the third person pronouns depend on class. There are also demonstrative pronouns, divided both by class and into three kinds by deixis which means to point out, and relative pronouns are formed from these.

Verbs

Verbs have simple forms, usually ending in '-a' (everything before the 'a' being the 'stem', 'root' or 'radical', and are agglutinated according to person, number and class of subject and object, tense, mood, voice, aspect and whether they are affirmative or negative. Further, their stems change to indicate various other shades of meaning. The following rules can all be combined in a mostly straightforward manner, Bemba being agglutinative and not inflective, but there are still some exceptions.

Subject and object prefixes

The subject prefixes and objectinfixes for the personal pronouns are given below. These can vary slightly according to mood, and the subject prefixes change for negative verbs. Where they are different, object prefixes are given in brackets.

Person	**1st sing.**	**2nd sing.**	**3rd sing.**	**1st pl.**	**2nd pl.**	**3rd pl.**
Affirmative	n-	u- (ku-)	a- (mu-)	tu-	mu-	ba-
Negative	nshi-, shi-	tau-	taa-, ta-	tatu-	tamu-	taba-

The subject prefix is placed first, and then the object infix. When the subject or object is a specific noun in a given class, the verbal concord prefix of this class is used, and the negative form adds the prefix 'ta'- before this.

Tenses and Aspects

The classification given here is that presented by Schoeffer.

Some of these require a modified stem, changing final 'a' to 'ile' if the preceding vowel is 'a', '" or 'u', and to 'ele' if it is 'e' or 'o', or, if the last consonant is nasal, changing the 'a' to 'ine' or 'ene' accordingly. There are irregularities in several verbs.

The tense infixes are given below. They come after the subject and object prefixes, and before the verb stem, except for the recent, completed or historic past in ‘na’-, which appears at the very beginning. Stress is marked with an acute (´) accent.

Tense/aspect	**Infix**	**Stem**	**Notes**
Present continuative	le	unmodified	Used for verbs of action to indicate a progressive action; can be used adjectivally, and even as an immediate future (especially when used with verbs of state).
Present definite	a	unmodified	Used for verbs of state, and intransitive verbs
Stative, necessary habitual	Ordinary form; no infix	unmodified	Indicates a state that is always true, or a habitual action; connotes necessity of the action
Voluntary habitual	la	unmodified	For habitual actions, connoting that they are voluntary, or may otherwise not be necessary; used only for verbs of state; can be used in subordinate clauses
Immediate past	a	unmodified	For actions occurring 'today', or 'nowadays'

Recent, completed or historic past	na- (prefix)	unmodified	For actions completed today; can be used in a historic sense, but does not emphasise a distant past
Specific past	No infix	modified	Also used for actions done 'today' or 'nowadays', but emphasising more distance in time than the previous two; used in relative clauses
Simple past of yesterday (1)	ali	unmodified	The stress must not be on the 'a' of the infix
Simple past of yesterday (2)	a	modified	The stress must not be on the infix
Remote past simple	á	modified	
Remote past of duration	ali	modified	For remote actions whose effects are still present, or for states established in the remote past which have not changed
Remote past definite, past perfect	áli	unmodified	A remote past further distant than some other relevant time
Past imperfect or habitual	ale	unmodified	Used for actions once, but no longer, habitual

Immediate future	ala	unmodified	Immediate future
Immediate progressive or habitual future	akula	unmodified	Immediate progressive or habitual future
Proximal future	le	unmodified	For future states and conditions to be established shortly, but not necessarily immediately
Future indefinite	ka	unmodified	For actions and states at some unknown time in the future
Future indefinite habitual	kala	unmodified	For habitual actions and states at some unknown time in the future

Moods

The moods correspond closely to the Bantu norms.

Imperative

The simple singular imperative is identical to the 'dictionary' form of the verb consisting of the stem and the suffix '-a', changing to an '-e' if an object prefix is used - there is no subject prefix. The simple plural imperative changes '-a' to '-eni'. Prefixing 'aku-' or'uka'-, adds a sense of instruction to resume or continue an action. An emphatic form can be given by using the subject pronoun prefix (generally of class 1) and following this by the infix '-inda'-.

Subjunctive

The subjunctive is used hypothetically, as an indirect imperative, in exhortations, and in subordinate clauses, similarly but not identically to the subjunctive of many European languages. The common feature is a change of the final '-a' of the verb to '-e'. Its forms are given below. Here V stands for the verb stem, and P for any pronoun prefixes (infixes). The usual phonological rules apply.

Tense/aspect	**Infix**	**Notes**
Simple present	P-V-e	Used for the present and for verbs for which time is not specified
Present of movement	ka-P-V-e	Expresses a change in position, state or mental attitude
Present of insistence, exhortative	na-P-V-e	Similar to a first-person plural imperative
Future immediate	P-le-V-a	Same as the indicative
Future immediate of insistence	na-P-le-V-a	Also used as an exhortative, or indirect imperative; can take plural in -eni when used imperatively
Future remote momentary	P-ka-V-e	Used for a single action in the remote future
Future remote continuous	P-kale-V-a	Used for a progressive or habitual action in the remote future
Future remote of insistence	shina-P-V-e	Used as an indirect imperative for some unknown remote future time

The infinitive, strictly a verbal noun, has two forms. The simple form has prefix ‘ku’- added to the simple form, as mentioned above, and the habitual infinitive has prefix ‘kula-‘

Voices

The passive is formed by placing the infix ‘-w’- before the last vowel of the verb, but it is not frequently used. A 'neutral' voice can be formed by using ‘-ik’-instead if the preceding vowel is a, i or u, and ‘-ek’- if the preceding vowel is e or o. This form is differs in meaning from the passive in that it emphasises the state resulting from an action rather than the action itself (cf. English ‘the pot is broken’, as opposed to ‘the ball is kicked’).

Negation

Generally, the indicative prefixes ‘ta’- to the subject prefix except for the first person singular which changes to ‘nshi’ or ‘shi’. Generally, the subjunctive adds ‘i'’ after the pronoun prefixes and in most cases changes a final ‘e’ to ‘a’. The infinitive occasionally uses the negative ‘te’. However, the precise rules are more complex, and the forms depend more finely on tense, aspect and mood. When the negative is used with the imperfect ‘le’, it is often in the sense of action not yet done, and is referred to by Schoeffer as a separate ‘deferred tense’.

Other forms

There are several other verb forms which change the stem by adding an extra syllable before the final ‘a’. These are given below.

Tense/aspect	Form	Notes
Applied	The modified stem, with ‘a’ (instead of ‘e’ for the specific past).	Used to make an object indirect, usually translated by adding a preposition like 'for' after the verb
Completive	Doubles vowel-consonant pair of the applied stem (e.g., *fikila* becomes *fikilila*, from *fika*, 'to arrive')	Expresses completion or finality of an action
Reciprocal	V-na (or V-nya if V ends in y)	Expressing actions done to 'each other'
Causative	Softens the last consonant accordingly: 'ba', 'pa' to 'fya'; 'nda', 'ka' 'la', 'sa', 'ta', to 'shya' or 'ishya', 'ushya'; adds 'y' before the 'a' of 'ema', 'ima', 'uma', 'ana'; adds 'ik' before the 'a' of 'ala', 'ama', 'ana'	Several exceptions exist; 'ishya' and 'ushya' is particularly common for verbs of colour
Intensive	Changes 'a' to 'ishya' if preceding vowel is 'a', 'i', 'u'; changes 'a' to 'eshya' if 'e', 'o'	Adds emphasis or a sense of energy to the verb
Intensive	Changes 'a' to 'ishya' if preceding vowel is 'a', 'i', 'u'; changes 'a' to 'eshya' if 'e', 'o'	Adds emphasis or a sense of energy to the verb
Reversive	Changes 'a' to 'ula' or 'ulula' if preceding vowel is 'a', 'i', 'u'; changes 'a' to 'ola' or 'olola' if 'e', 'o'	Expresses a reversal of an action (cf. English 'do', 'undo')
Frequentative	Changes 'a' to 'ula'	Expresses frequent repetition of an action; translatable by the adverb 'repeatedly'
Reflexive	Prefixes 'i' to the verb stem	Expresses doing 'to oneself'

There are also several compound tenses, many using the copula ‘kuli’ and ‘kuba’.

Conjunctions

These are used to introduce coordinating or subordinate clauses, similar to their use in English.

Basic Vocabulary and Phrases

- ee – yes
- awe – no
- ulishani – hello (informal)
- Mulishani – hello (formal)
- shalenipo – goodbye
- Ishina lyandi ni... – My name is...
- umuntu – person
- umunandi – friend
- umwana – child
- chiBemba – the Bemba language
- na – and, with
- nga – like, as
- suma (adj.) – good
- onse (adj.) – all
- uluchelo (adj) – morning
- Natotela – Thank you
- Sana – A lot
- Natotela sana – Thanks a lot

Sample Text

Abantu bonse bafyalwa abalubuka nokulingana mu mucinshi nensambu. Balikwata amano nokutontonkanya, eico bafwile ukulacita ifintu ku banabo mu mutima wa bwananyina.

Translation: All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood. (First Article of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.)

Literature in Bemba

There is a sizeable amount of literature in Bemba. There are narratives, poems and plays. Some of the notable writers in Bemba include: Stephen Mpashi, Chongo Kasonkomona,Chishimba, Paul Mushindo, Bwalya Chilangwa, Mwila Launshi and Kambole, among others.

A lot of the novels and narratives in Bemba were written between the period 1950 and 1980. Recently, very few creative works are published in Zambia mainly due to two reasons: the readership is generally poor and secondly, because of the first reason, publishers tend hesitate to publish creative works, especially novels of substantial thickness in Bemba due to economical reasons. Apparently, these books cannot bring them the profits that they need. As a result, there are many short stories and novellas in Bemba literature.

Despite poor readership and lack of publishing, the quality of the works published in Bemba is generally high. Moreover, there seems to be many talented writers who would like to write in this language but could not because of the reasons that have been given above and that are related.

In terms of literally criticism, a lot of the works in the Bemba language have not been reviewed and criticised. This is because there are very few literally critics in Bemba. Some of these include Lutato and Shadreck Kondala, among others.

Tonga

The Tonga language, *Chitonga* of Zambia and Zimbabwe, also known as *Zambezi*, is a Bantu Language primarily spoken by the Tonga people in those countries who live mainly in the Southern and Western provinces of Zambia, and in northern Zimbabwe, with a few in Mozambique. The language is also spoken by the Iwe, Toka and Leya people, perhaps by the Kafwe Twa (if that is not Ila), as well as many bilingual Zambians and Zimbabweans. It is one of the major lingua francas in Zambia, together with Bemba, Lozi and Nyanja. The Tonga of Malawi is not particularly close.

The Tonga speaking inhabitants are the oldest Bantu settlers, with the Tumbuka, a small tribe in the east, in what is known as Zambia. There are two distinctive dialects of the Tonga, Valley Tonga and Plateau Tonga. Valley Tonga is mostly spoken in the Zambezi valley and southern areas of the Batonga (Tonga People) while Plateau Tonga is spoken more around Monze district and the northern areas of the Batonga.

Tonga (Chitonga or iciTonga) developed as a spoken language and was not put into written form until missionaries arrived in the area. The language is not standardized, and speakers of the same dialect may have different spellings for the same words once put into written text.

At least some speakers have a bilabial nasal click where neighboring dialects have /mw/, as in *mwana*'child' and *kumwa*'to drink'.Maho (2009) removes Shanjo as a separate, and not very closely related, language.

Language structure

Tonga follows the standard Bantu language structure. One word may consist of a verb, a direct object, a tense marker and even an indirect object.

Tense	Tense marker	Example
	Subject-(tense marker)-verb root-(ending)	First person "ndi" doing something s/he shouldn't be doing "kuputa"
Present Simple	-(verb root)	Ndiputa
Present Perfect	-a-(verb root)-ide	Ndaputide
Present Continuous	-la-	Ndilaputa
Habitual Present Tense	-la-(verb root)-a	Ndilaputa
Recent Past (Past of Today)	-ali-(verb root)-ide	ndaliputide
Simple Past	-aka-	ndakaputa
Recent Past Continuous	-ali-ku-(verb root)	ndalikuputa
Habitual Past Continuous	-akali-ku-(verb root)	Ndakalikupua
Remote Past	-aka-	ndakaputa
Near Future	-la-	Ndilaputa
Simple Future	-ya-ku-(verb root)-a	Ndiyakuputa

Future Habitual	-niku-(verb root)-a	ndinikupua
Extended Future (Tomorrow or after tomorrow)	-yaku-(verb)-a	ndiyakuputa

Expressions

How are you? *Mwapona*

Good, Fine. *kabotu*

Thank You. *Twalumba*

Left. "Chimwenhi'

Right. "Lulyo"

Chewa

Chewa, also known as **Nyanja**, is a language of the Bantu language family. The gender prefix *chi-* is used for languages so the language is also known as **Chichewa** and **Chinyanja** (spelled *Cinyanja* in Zambia), and locally *Nyasa* in Mozambique.

Distribution

Chewa is the national language of Malawi. It is also one of the seven official African languages of Zambia, where it is spoken mostly in the Eastern Province. It is also spoken in Mozambique, especially in the provinces of Tete and Niassa, as well as in Zimbabwe where, according to some estimates, it ranks as the third-most widely used local language, after Shona and Northern Ndebele. It was one of the 55 languages featured on the Voyager.

Town Nyanja

An urban variety of Nyanja, sometimes called Town Nyanja, is the lingua franca of the Zambian capital Lusaka and is widely spoken as a second language throughout Zambia. This is a distinctive Nyanja dialect with some features of Nsenga, although the language also incorporates large numbers of English-derived words, as well as showing influence from other Zambian languages such as Bemba. Town Nyanja has no official status, and the presence of large numbers of loanwords and colloquial expressions has given rise to the misconception that it is an unstructured mixture of languages or a form of slang.

The fact that the standard Nyanja used in schools differs dramatically from the variety actually spoken in Lusaka has been identified as a barrier to the acquisition of literacy among Zambian children. iSchool.zm, which develops online educational content in Zambian languages, has begun making ‘Lusaka Nyanja’ available as a separate language of instruction after finding that schoolchildren in Lusaka do not understand standard Nyanja.

History

Chinyanja has its origin in the Eastern Province of Zambia from the 15th century to the 18th century. The language remained dominant despite the breakup of the empire and the Nguni invasions and was adopted by Christian missionaries at the beginning of the colonial period.

In Zambia, Chewa is spoken by other peoples like the Ngoni and the Kunda, so a more neutral name, *Chinyanja*“(language) of the lake” (referring to Lake Malawi), is used instead of Chewa.

The first grammar, *A grammar of the Chinyanja language as spoken at Lake Nyasa with Chinyanja–English and English–Chinyanja vocabulary*, was written by Alexander in 1880 and partial translations of the Bible were made at the end of 19th century. Further early grammars and vocabularies include *Avocabulary of English–Chinyanja and Chinyanja–English: as spoken at Likoma, Lake Nyasa* and *A grammar of Chinyanja, a language spoken in British Central Africa, on and near the shores of Lake Nyasa*, by George Henry (1891). The whole Bible was translated by William Percival Johnson and published as *Buku Lopatulika ndilo Mau a Mulungu* in 1912.

A strong historical link of the Nyanja, Bemba and Yao people to the Shona Empire, who can point their earlier origins to Mashonaland, proves linguistically evident today. The ancient Shonas who temporarily dwelt in Malambo, a place in the DRC, eventually shifted into northern Zambia, and then south and east into the highlands of Malawi.

Sample phrases

English	**Chewa (Malawi)**	**Town Nyanja (Lusaka)**
How are you?	Muli bwanji?	Muli bwanji?
I'm fine	Ndili bwino	Nili bwino / Nili mushe
Thank you	Dzikomo	Zikomo
Yes	Inde	Ee
No	Ai	Iyai
What's your name?	Dzina lanu ndani?	Zina yanu ndimwe bandani?
My name is...	Dzina langa ndine...	Zina yanga ndine...

How many children do you have?	Muli ndi ana angati?	Muli na bana bangati?
I have two children	Ndili ndi ana awiri	Nili na bana babili
I want...	Ndifuna...	Nifuna...
Food	Chakudya	Vakudya
Water	Madzi	Manzi
How much is it?	Ndi zingati?	Ni zingati?
How much is it?	Mukuchita bwanji?	How much is it?
See you tomorrow	Tidzaonana mawa	Tizaonana mailo

Lozi

Lozi, also known as **siLozi** and **Rozi**, is a Bantu language of the Niger-Congo language family within the Sotho languages branch of Zone S (S.30), that is spoken by the Lozi people, primarily in southwestern Zambia and surrounding countries. This language is most closely related to Northern Sotho (*Sesotho sa Leboa*), Tswana (*Setswana*), Kgalagari (*SheKgalagari*) and Sotho (*Sesotho*/Southern Sotho). Lozi and its dialects are spoken and understood by approximately six percent of the population of Zambia. *Silozi* is the autoglottonym or name of the language used by its native speakers as defined by the United Nations. *Lozi* is the heteroglottonym.

The Lozi language developed from a mixture of two languages: Luyana and Kololo. The Luyana people originally migrated south from the Luba-Lunda empire in the Katanga area of the Congo River basin, either late in the 17th century or early in the 18th century. The language they spoke, therefore, was closely related to Luba and Lunda. They settled on the floodplains of the upper Zambezi River in what is now western Zambia and developed a kingdom, Barotseland, and also gave their name to the Barotse Floodplain or *Bulozi*.

The Kololo were a Sotho people who used to live in present day Lesotho. The Kololo were forced to flee from Shaka Zulu's Mfecane during the 1830s. Using tactics copied from the Zulu armies, the Kololo conquered the Luyana on the Zambezi floodplains and imposed their rule and language. However, by 1864 the indigenous population revolted and overthrew the Kololo. The Luyana language had been largely forgotten; the new hybrid language is called Lozi or Silozi and is closer to Sesotho than to any other neighbouring languages in Zambia.Lozi is also spoken in Zimbabwe, Botswana, and Namibia (Zambezi Region).

Vocabulary

Names of month

English	**Lozi**
January	Sope
February	Yowa
March	Liatamanyi
April	Lungu
May	Kandao
June	Mbuwana
July	Sikulu
August	Muyana
September	Muimunene
October	Yenda
November	Njimwana
December	Ñulule

A **writing system** is an organised, regular method (typically standardised) of information storage and transfer for the communication of messages (expressing thoughts or ideas) in a language by visually (or possibly tactilely) encoding and decoding (known as writing and reading) with a set of signs or symbols, both known generally as characters (with the set collectively referred to as 'script'). These characters, often including letters and numbers, are usually recorded onto a durable medium such as paper or electronic storage/display, although non-durable methods may also be used, such as writing in sand or skywriting.

The general attributes of writing systems can be placed into broad categories such as alphabets, syllabaries, or logographies. Any particular system can have attributes of more than one category. In the alphabetic category, there is a standard set of letters basic written symbols or graphemes of consonants and vowels that are encoded based on the general principle that the letters (or letter pair/groups) represent phonemes (basic significant sounds) of the spoken language. A syllabary typically correlates a symbol to a syllable (which can be a pairing or group of phonemes, and are considered building blocks of words). In a logography, each character represents a word, morpheme or semantic unit (which themselves can be pairings or groups of syllables). Other categories include abjads which is an alphabet where vowels are not indicated at all and abugidas, also called alphasyllabaries where vowels are shown by diacritics or other modification of consonants. A system's category can often be determined just by identifying the number of symbols used within the system. Alphabets typically use a set of 20-to-35 symbols to fully express a language, whereas syllabaries can have 80-to-100, and logographies can have several hundreds of symbols.

Most systems will typically have an ordering of its symbol elements so that groups of them can be coded into larger clusters such as words or acronyms (generally lexemes), giving rise to many more possibilities (permutations) in meanings than the symbols can convey by themselves. Systems will also enable the concatenation (a "stringing together") of these smaller groupings (sometimes referred to by the generic term 'character strings') in order to enable a full expression of the language. The reading step can be accomplished by the reader purely in the mind as an internal process, or expressed verbally (typically, 'reading aloud'). Historically, writing systems have developed after a spoken language has been established, although the individual symbols used (typically an ideogram) may have preceded the spoken word. A special set of symbols known as punctuation is used to aid in structure and organisation of many writing systems and can be used to help capture nuances and variations in the message's meaning that are communicated verbally by cues in timing, tone, accent, inflection or intonation.

A writing system will also typically have a method to format recorded messages that follows the rules like its grammar and syntax of the spoken version so that the reader will have the meaning of the intended message accurately preserved. Writing systems were preceded by proto-writing, which used pictograms, ideograms and other mnemonic symbols. Proto-writing lacked the ability to capture and express a full range of thoughts and ideas. The invention of writing systems, which dates back to the beginning of the Bronze Age in the late Neolithic Era of the late 4th millennium BCE, enabled the accurate durable recording of human history in a manner that was not prone to the same types of error to which oral history is vulnerable. Soon after, it provided a reliable form of long distance communication. With the advent of publishing, it provided the medium for an early form of mass communication.

Secure written communications were also made more reliable with the invention of encryption.

Sentences, Utterances, and PropositionsPresentation Transcript

Definition of an Utterance: An UTTERANCE is any stretch of speech, by one person, before and after which there is silence on the part of that person.An utterance has time, place, speaker, language, but no special form or content. It is a piece of language, such as a sequence of sentences, or a single phrase, or even a single word.

The Characteristics of an Utterance: It is spoken It is a piece of language (a single phrase or even a single word). It is identified by a specific time or on particular occasion by a specific person (in particular accent).

A SENTENCE: It is neither a physical event nor a physical object. It is conceived abstractly, a string of words put together by the grammatical rules of a language. A sentence can be thought of as the ideal string of words behind various realisations in utterances and inscriptions. A sentence has no time or place etc. but it has a definite linguistic form.

CONVENTION IN SEMANTICS: A book such as this contains no utterances (since books donot talk) or sentences (since sentences are abstract ideals). In semantics it is necessary to make a careful distinction between utterances and sentences.

- A- John announced “Mary’s here”
- B- Mary thought how nice John was
- Tom: “Mary thought how nice John was”

Rule: A given sentence always consists of the same words, and in the same order. Any change in the words, or in their order, makes a different sentence, for our purposes.

.

SUMMARISING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEENTHE 3 NOTIONS

- A proposition is an abstraction that can be grasped by the mind of an individual person. In this sense, a proposition is an object of thought.Thoughts are usually held to be private, personal, mental processes, whereas propositions are public in the sense that the same proposition is accessible to different persons: different individuals can grasp the same proposition. A proposition is not a process, whereas a thought can be seen as a process going on in an individual's mind.

Sentences: Simple, Compound, and Complex

Experienced writers use a variety of sentences to make their writing interesting and lively. Too many simple sentences, for example, will sound choppy and immature while too many long sentences will be difficult to read and hard to understand.

Simple Sentence

A simple sentence, also called an independent clause, contains a subject and a verb, and it expresses a complete thought. In the following simple sentences, subjects are in yellow, and verbs are in green.

1.Some studentslike to study in the mornings.

2.Juan and Arturoplay football every afternoon.

3.Aliciagoes to the library and studies every day.

The three examples above are all simple sentences. Note that sentence 2 contains a compound subject, and sentence 3 contains a compound verb. Simple sentences, therefore, contain a subject and verb and express a complete thought, but they can also contain compound subjects or verbs.

Compound Sentence

A compound sentence contains two independent clauses joined by a coordinator. The coordinators are as follows: for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so. (Helpful hint: The first letter of each of the coordinators spells FANBOYS.) Except for very short sentences, coordinators are always preceded by a comma. In the following compound sentences, subjects are in yellow, verbs are in green, and the coordinators and the commas that precede them are in red.

1.Itried to speak Spanish, and my friendtried to speak English.

2.Alejandroplayed football, soMariawent shopping.

3.Alejandroplayed football, forMariawent shopping.

The above three sentences are compound sentences. Each sentence contains two independent clauses, and they are joined by a coordinator with a comma preceding it. Note how the conscious use of coordinators can change the meaningof the sentences. Sentences 2 and 3, for example, are identical except for the coordinators. In sentence 2, which action occurred first? Obviously, "Alejandro played football" first, and as a consequence, "Maria went shopping." In sentence 3, "Maria went shopping" first. In sentence 3, "Alejandro played football" because, possibly, he didn't have anything else to do, *for* or *because*"Maria went shopping." How can the use of other coordinators change the relationship between the two clauses? What implications would the use of "yet" or "but" have on the meaning of the sentence?

Complex Sentence

A True Story

Some students believe it is possible to identify simple, compound, and complex sentences by looking at the *complexity* of the ideas in a sentence. Is the idea in the sentence simple, or is it complex? Does one idea in a sentence make it simple? Do two ideas make it compound? **However, sentence identification does not work that way.**

Please take the time to identify the subjects and verbs in a sentence. Then identify coordinators and subordinators when they exist. With these two steps, sentence identification not only becomes easy, but it also provides the foundation for understanding and writing all other kinds of more complicated sentences.

A complex sentence has an independent clause joined by one or more dependent clauses. A complex sentence always has a subordinator such as *because*, *since*, *after*, *although*, or *when* (and many others) or a relative pronoun such as *that*, *who*, or *which*. In the following complex sentences, subjects are in yellow, verbs are in green, and the subordinators and their commas (when required) are in red.

1. When he handed in his homework, he forgot to give the teacher the last page.
2. The teacher returned the homework after she noticed the error.
3. The students are studying because they have a test tomorrow.
4. After they finished studying, Juan and Maria went to the movies
5. Juan and Maria went to the movies after they finished studying.

When a complex sentence begins with a subordinator such as sentences 1 and 4, a comma is required at the end of the dependent clause. When the independent clause begins the sentence with subordinators in the middle as in sentences 2, 3, and 5, no comma is required. If a comma is placed before the subordinators in sentences 2, 3, and 5, it is wrong.

Note that sentences 4 and 5 are the same except sentence 4 begins with the dependent clause which is followed by a comma, and sentence 5 begins with the independent clause which contains no comma. The comma after the dependent clause in sentence 4 is required, and experienced listeners of English will often *hear* a slight pause there. In sentence 5, however, there will be no pause when the independent clause begins the sentence.

Complex Sentences / Adjective Clauses

Finally, sentences containing adjective clauses (or dependent clauses) are also complex because they contain an independent clause and a dependent clause.

The subjects, verbs, and subordinators are marked as in the previous sentences, and in these sentences, the independent clauses are also underlined.

1. The womanwho called my mom sells cosmetics.
2. The bookthat Jonathan read is on the shelf.
3. The housewhich Abraham Lincoln was born in is still standing.
4. The townwhere I grew up is in the United States.

Adjective Clauses are studied in this site separately, but for now it is important to know that sentences containing adjective clauses are complex.

Reference and sense

Frege's distinction rejects a view put forward by John Stuart Mill, according to which a proper name has no meaning above and beyond the object to which it refers (its *referent* or *reference*). That is, the word "Aristotle" just means that person, and no more. It does not mean "The writer of *De Anima*." Hence, the sentence *Aristotle was Greek* says only that *that person* was Greek. It does not say that *the writer of De Anima was Greek*.It permits that Aristotle might not have written *De Anima*. More generally, for any given proposition about Aristotle, one can use the name without believing that proposition to be true of Aristotle.

Frege's central objection to the view that a name's meaning is no more than its referent is that, if a and$b$ are names of the same object, then the identity statement $a = b$ must mean the same as $a = a$. Yet clearly the first can convey information in a way that the second cannot; that *Samuel Clemens is Samuel Clemens* is just trivial, but that *Samuel Clemens is Mark Twain* is interesting. Why? Or, why is *Cicero is Tully* more significant than *Cicero is Cicero*? And, by the same token, *Samuel Clemens wrote novels* and *Mark Twain wrote novels* would have to mean the same thing but, again, the two sentences seem to convey different information.

Frege's distinction is meant to make sense of these phenomena. He postulates that, in addition to a reference (*Bedeutung*), a proper name possesses what he calls a *sense* (*Sinn*), some aspect of the way its reference is thought of that *can* differ, even between two names that refer to the same object. The important difference between *Mark Twain* and *Samuel Clemens*, for example, is a "difference in the mode of presentation of that which is designated". The sense of an expression is "that wherein the mode of presentation is contained". Thus, one can know both the names *Mark Twain* and *Samuel Clemens* without realising that they are about the same object, because they present that object in different ways, that is, they have different senses. Another demonstrative example for this is the following: "*The Leader of the Labour Party in October, 2006*" and "*the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom in October, 2006*." These two linguistic expressions differ in sense, but they do have the same referent, that is Tony Blair.

Summarising:

- The *reference* is the object that the expression refers to. For instance, the name *Mark Twain* refers to Mark Twain, i.e. Samuel Clemens, the man who lived in the U.S. and wrote satires. The name *Samuel Clemens* also refers to that man. Hence the two have the same reference.
- The *sense* is the "cognitive significance" or "mode of presentation" of the referent.

- Linguistic Expressions with the same reference may have different senses.

Frege uses the following example to illustrate this view. Let a, b, and c be three lines, each of which joins one vertex of a triangle to the midpoint of the opposite side (each of a, b and c is thus a median). Then it is a theorem that

[t]he point of intersection of a and b is then the same as the point of intersection of b and c. So we have different designations for the same point, and these names (‘point of intersection of a and b’, ‘point of intersection of b and c’) likewise indicate the mode of presentation; and hence the statement contains actual knowledge.

At one time, it was common to identify the sense of a name with an identifying description, which would put Frege’s view close to the later Russell’s description theory of names. For example, the name “Mark Twain” might just mean: The man who wrote *Tom Sawyer*, and *Samuel Clemens* might mean: The eldest son of John and Jane Clemens. Thus the reference would be determined as whatever fit the description. This interpretation is now almost unanimously rejected by scholars. Unfortunately, however, a detailed replacement has not been forthcoming. But what is clear is that Frege certainly did *not* mean that the sense of a name is merely a collection of ideas a particular user of a name happens to associate with it.

Terminology

Broadly speaking, the **reference** (or **referent**) of a proper name is the object it denotes or indicates. The **sense** of a proper name is whatever meaning it has, when there is no object to be indicated.

What this article has called *sense* and *reference* are what Frege calls *Sinn* and *Bedeutung*, respectively, in the original German. Sometimes the pair of terms is translated as *sense* and *meaning* or as *sense* and *nominatum*. The precise meaning of these terms can vary quite significantly from writer to writer, so some caution is due.

For *Sinn*, writers have used the terms *sense*, *meaning*, *intension*, *connotation*, *case*, and *content*.For *Bedeutung*, writers have used the terms *reference*, *referent*, *meaning*, *extension*, *denotation*, *nominatum*, and *designatum*.

Note that (confusingly) *each* expression has been translated as *meaning* by someone.

An expression's relation to sense or reference

Terminology has also been applied to capture the relation between

1. an expression and its sense
2. an expression and its reference

Frege is typically translated as saying that an expression "*expresses* its sense" and "*stands for* or *designates* its reference". Yet earlier in the essay he offers another verb, *refers*, writing of "that to which the sign *refers*, which may be called the reference of the sign". Since then writers have variously said that an expression *stands for*, *designates*, *refers to*, or *denotes* its reference. We can also say that an expression *picks out* its reference, or (alternatively) that the sense of an expression is what picks out its reference.

Sense without reference

One application Frege saw for the distinction concerns what are called *nonreferring*, *nondenoting*, or *empty*, expressions. These expressions do not have a reference, for example “the greatest integer.” Since there is not a greatest integer, the expression doesn't refer to anything. But it seems perfectly meaningful, since we seem to understand claims like “The greatest integer is larger than one million.” Employing the sense-reference distinction, it can be said that the expression has sense but lacks a reference.

Although the term “the greatest integer” has no reference in the conventional arithmetic, in the ultra-intuitionistic arithmetic suggested by Alexander Esenin-Volpin (1960), it has a reference because one of the axioms of this arithmetic is that there is “the greatest integer.” So, in one universe, an expression can have sense without reference, while in another universe, the same expression can have both sense and reference.

Another example is Odysseus. Since he is a fictional character, the name *Odysseus* does not appear to *mean* anyone at all; yet sentences like “Odysseus was set down on the beach at Ithaca” are meaningful, in that they can be true or false. If a sentence's meaning is a function of the meanings of its parts, then parts of the sentence, such as *Odysseus*, seemingly do have meaning.

Whether this solution works, and whether it was even seriously intended by Frege, is disputed. In order for it to work, it must be possible for a term to have a sense without a reference, and this requires that *sense* cannot be defined simply as the mode of presentation of the reference, since sometimes there is no reference being presented. Thus the view that the sense-reference distinction solves the problem of empty names encourages the view that a sense is an individuating description which could be understood with or without a reference satisfying it. This makes a sense equivalent to a Russellian description (see below), and makes Frege's position "descriptivist," leaving it prey to a number of difficulties raised against that view.

Other philosophers have argued that Frege is not a descriptivist, and hence that the sense-reference distinction does not solve the problem of fictional names. Proponents of this view often claim that sentences using empty names do not in fact express propositions, hence are not literally meaningful, despite appearances. They face the difficulty of explaining the apparent meaningfulness of sentences using the word *Odysseus*. On one view, fictional names merely *pretend* to express propositions. Our understanding of sentences about Odysseus consists then in our "playing along"

Propositions and senses

Bertrand Russell famously rejected Frege's sense-reference distinction, though there is some possibility that the two were misinterpreting and arguing past one another: Frege talks about (for example) sentences, which have both a sense (a proposition) and a reference (a truth value); Russell on the other hand deals directly with propositions, but construes these not as abstract para-linguistic items but as tuples, or sets, of objects and concepts.

For Russell, sense is wholly semantic. Reference by contrast is intimately connected with the named object. Mont Blanc is the referent of the name "Mont Blanc." Frege argues that the thought "Mont Blanc with its snowfields" cannot be a *component* of the thought that "Mont Blanc is more than 4,000 meters high" If the same expression "Mont Blanc" is in both sentences then there is something common to each thought, and therefore *something* corresponding to the name "Mont Blanc." This common element, which cannot be the referent, must be the meaning or "sense."

Senses and descriptions

Russell held the view that most of the apparent proper names in English are in fact "disguised definite descriptions". So "Aristotle" is understood as "The pupil of Plato and teacher of Alexander," or by some other unique description. Although Russell explicitly rejected Frege's notion of sense, he rejected it just for proper names. Russell also held the view (not evident in the Mont Blanc example) that most of the "proper names" in English are not names at all, but descriptions in disguise. Possibly the *only* real proper names were demonstrative pronouns like *this* and *that* (directed at an object that can be immediately perceived). So in fact if Frege's view was "descriptivist," then he effectively agrees with Russell on most of the apparent "proper names" of ordinary language: Frege thinks that "Aristotle" is a name, with a sense, which is equivalent to some description. Russell thinks that Aristotle is *not* really a name, but *is* (in disguised form) just such a description.

Thus for most of the twentieth century the "Frege-Russell" descriptivist view was taken as something of an orthodoxy. In Saul Kripke's famous Naming and Necessity lectures, which largely turned the tide against descriptivism, he treats both Russell and Frege as opposed to Mill's view in the same way. Thus Kripke's argument that names are not equivalent to descriptions was widely construed as the view that names do not have senses; or as a rejection of the sense-reference distinction.

This reading of Frege has been rejected by many scholars, most strongly by Gareth Evans in *The Varieties of Reference* and by John McDowell in "The Sense and Reference of a Proper Name," following lines developed by Michael Dummett. Dummett argues that Frege's notion of sense should not be equated with a description. Evans further developed this line, arguing that a sense without a referent was not possible. He and McDowell both take the line that Frege's discussion of empty names, and of the idea of sense without reference, is inconsistent, and that his apparent endorsement of descriptivism rests only on a small number of imprecise and perhaps offhand remarks. And both point to the power that the sense-reference distinction 'does' have (i.e., to solve at least the first two problems), even if it is not given a descriptivist reading.

Relation to connotation and denotation

The sense-reference distinction is commonly confused with that between connotation and denotation, which predates Frege and is famously interpreted by Mill. This distinction is applied mainly to words (particularly predicates) expressing properties (e.g., *red*, *dog*, *bachelor*), rather than naming individuals, so the difference between the two distinctions can be hard to see. The connotation of a predicate is the concept it expresses, or more often, the set of properties that determine whether an individual falls under it. The denotation of a concept is the actual collection of entities that *do* fall under it. Thus the connotation of *bachelor*is perhaps "unmarried adult male human" and its denotation is all the bachelors in the world.

Under a descriptivist reading of Frege, sense and reference are probably the same as connotation and denotation.

Under a non-descriptivist reading, they are probably not. It is always possible to have a connotation without a denotation, which may not be the case with sense and reference. A given sense always determines the same reference, which might not be the case with connotation and denotation.

Most clearly, a single conceptwhich by definition has only one connotation and denotation (at a time), might be expressed by terms of having different senses. For example, *cat* and *feline* have precisely the same connotation (member of the Felidae family of carnivorous mammals), and obviously the same denotation (all the cats; that is, all the felines), but it is perfectly intelligible that someone should fail to realise that *cat* and *feline* mean the same—perhaps they have only heard one word applied to housecats, the other to tigers and lions. In that case, the words have different senses.

two distinct ways of talking about themeaning of words

1. talking of **SENSE** = dealing with relationships inside language
2. talking of **REFERENCE**=dealing with relationships between l and the worldby means of reference a speaker indicates which things (including persons) are beingtalked about

e.g. **My son** is in **the beech tree**.

Identifies persons andidentifies things

REFERENCE: It is the relationship between theEnglish expression 'this page' and the thingyou can hold between your finger andthumb (part of the world)

Many expressions can have **VARIABLEREFERENCE**

There are cases of expressions which in normaleveryday conversation never refer to differentthings, i.e. which in most everyday situations thatone can envisage have **CONSTANTREFERENCE**.

However, there is very little constancy ofreference in l. Almost all of the fixing of referencecomes from the context in which expressions areused.

Two different expressions can have thesame referent

Classical example: ‘the Morning Star’and ‘the Evening Star’ to refer to theplanet Venus

SENSE of an expression is its place in asystem of semantic relationships with otherexpressions in l.

One of such semantic relationships is the sameness of meaning

We can talk about the sense, not only ofwords, but also of longer expressions such as phrases and sentences., which in some cases, the same word can have more thanone sense

We use the term ‘word’ in the sense of ‘wordform’.(convenient to treat anything spelled withthe same sequence of letters and pronouncedwith the same sequence of phonemes as beingthe same word). Some semanticists would regard‘bank’ as several different words (different entriesin dictionaries).

One sentence can have different senses as well

Comparing sense and reference

- REFERENT of an expression is a thing ora person in the world
- SENSE of an expression is not a thing atall, but an abstraction
- difficult to say what sort of entity thesense of an expression is; intuitively- thatpart of the meaning of an exp. that is leftwhen reference is factored out

Every expression that has meaninghas sense, but not every expressionhas reference!

- Proposition is complete independent thought
- No direct relationship between referenceand utterance, but both referring anduttering are acts performed by particularspeakers on

particular occasions. Most utterances are accompanied by oneor more acts of referring.

- Act of referring – picking out of a particularreferent by a speaker in the course of asingle utterance
- Mean/meaning/means/meant-sometimesused to indicate reference and sometimesto indicate sense

- **Reference**

Reference is a part of meaning. Assume that there are three trees in a field. Each tree has a unique reference. Each branch on each tree has a unique reference. And each leaf and the field have a unique reference. There are two ways reference can be viewed.

- The first is physical in that each atom and electron has reference whether it can be seen or not.
- The second is perceptual: this means how we see objects – do we see them as an object or not? We will take the latter approach.

Reference also includes imaginary objects: unicorns, leprechauns, Santa Claus, Hades, elves, eternal bliss, and so forth. This would also include objects which currently do not exist but could exist: a King of France, dinosaurs, a five-cent ice-cream cone, and so forth.

- **Sense**

Sense is the more interesting part meaning. Sense refers to how we see an object or the amount of information given about an object.The classic example cited showing the distinction is the planet Venus. As a planet it has reference arbitrarily given the name Venus. It is often called the morning star when seen in the morning, and the evening star when seen in the evening. Thus, it has two senses, depending on the time of day the object is seen. The planet itself is the referent, the morning star is one sense, the evening star the other sense. It could have other senses.

In another example suppose John has two sons, Bill and Henry; one nephew, Pete; and one grandson, Dave. When we refer to John as such, there is no sense. *John* is the arbitrary name given to the referent. Consider the following phrases:

Bill's father

Henry's father

Pete's uncle

Dave's grandfather.

Each phrase either refers to John (X's father), or it may refer to John: Pete may have more than one uncle and Dave has a second grandfather. In these cases the addressee does not know which of the possible referents is the intended referentuntil it is clear from the context.The four phrases listed above represent a different sense of the intended referent. Virtually every object can have several senses.

Names are referential. They have little or no sense. Lexical nouns each denote a sense. The term *father* refers to anyone who is a male parent (another sense). As a rule all dictionary definitions define sense, not reference. Only names in a dictionary reference and no sense. Technically, this is not a definition.

Verbs, like nouns, have sense, not reference. Events rarely have names, though it is possible: the Holocaust, World War II, the Big Bang, and so forth.

- **Operators**

Operators have no sense; they are referential in nature. This is not self-evident. Let us start with the operator [DEFINITE [+Def]]. [+Def] is a marker of existence. [+Def] works in two ways in English:.

In discourse linking the definite determiner links the noun it modifies to a noun that occurs earlier in the discourse.

E.g. This morning a package arrived. We were anxious to open the package.

The package in the second sentence is linked to *a package* in the first sentence. This linkage has no sense. Its function is to mark the package as existential and linking helps find its referent. In this [+Def] is referential in the first case.

In the second case [+Def] is use to mark a referent already known to exist – pragmatics:

E.g. Mary, do you know where the kid is?

If John and Mary have one kid, the kid is known to exist. Since there is no problem in identifying him, the simple determiner will do. Marking existence has nothing to do with sense. However, it does have referential properties. In this way the definite determiners are operators.

- **Tense**

Tense is the temporal relation between the speech event (the event of the speaker talking) and the narrated event. Both the speech event and the narrated event are referents; each speech event and narrated event are a unique referent, which could label as R1, R2, R3 and N1, N2, N3, and so forth.

Let the following represent the past tense:

1. N1, R1

The comma marks the sequential order; the item to the left precedes the item to the right, temporally. Therefore, the relation of N1 to R1 is the past tense. If N1 and R1 are each referents with no sense, then it follows that N1, R1 is a referent with no sense. Since N1,R1 is a temporal relation called the past tense, then tense is an operator.

Interpersonal

Interpersonal refers to something involving, or occurring among several people. *Interpersonal* skills refer to our ability to get along with others.

The adjective *interpersonal* really only has one meaning, so when you hear this word, you know you are hearing about interactions between people. Sometimes corporations find it useful to train their employees on any interpersonal skills they may be lacking, especially if they have a group of really socially awkward people, because it really does make the work environment a lot easier if your coworkers all get along with one another.

Definition of 'Interpersonal Skills'

The skills used by a person to properly interact with others. In the business domain, the term generally refers to an employee's ability to get along with others while getting the job done. Interpersonal skills include everything from communication and listening skills to attitude and deportment. Good interpersonal skills are a prerequisite for many positions in an organisation.

The term "interpersonal skills" is somewhat of a misnomer, because it refers to character traits possessed by an individual rather than skills that can be taught in a classroom. Within an organisation, employees with good interpersonal skills are likely be more productive than those with poor interpersonal skills, because of their propensity to project a positive attitude and look for solutions to problems.

Discourse analysis (DA), or **discourse studies**, is a general term for a number of approaches to analyse written, vocal, or sign language use or any significant semiotic event.

The objects of discourse analysis—discourse, writing, conversation, communicative event—are variously defined in terms of coherent sequences of sentences, propositions, speech, or turns-at-talk. Contrary to much of traditional linguistics, discourse analysts not only study language use 'beyond the sentence boundary', but also prefer to analyse 'naturally occurring' language use, and not invented examples. Text linguistics is related. The essential difference between discourse analysis and text linguistics is that it aims at revealing socio-psychological characteristics of a person/persons rather than text structure.

Discourse analysis has been taken up in a variety of social science disciplines, including linguistics, education, sociology, anthropology, social work, cognitive psychology, social psychology, area studies, cultural studies, international relations, human geography, communication studies, and translation studies, each of which is subject to its own assumptions, dimensions of analysis, and methodologies.

Although the ancient Greeks (among others) had much to say on discourse, some scholars consider the Austrian emigre Leo Spitzer's *Stilstudien* [Style Studies] of 1928 the earliest example of *discourse analysis* (DA). It was translated into French by Michel Foucault.

However, the term first came into general use following the publication of a series of papers by Zellig Harris beginning in 1952 and reporting on work from which he developed transformational grammar in the late 1930s. Formal equivalence relations among the sentences of a coherent discourse are made explicit by using sentence transformations to put the text in a canonical form. Words and sentences with equivalent information then appear in the same column of an array. This work progressed over the next four decades into a science of sublanguage analysis (Kittredge & Lehrberger 1982). This culminated in a demonstration of the informational structures in texts of a sublanguage of science, that of immunology, (Harris et al. 1989) and a fully articulated theory of linguistic informational content (Harris 1991). During this time, however, most linguists ignored these developments in favour of a succession of elaborate theories of sentence-level syntax and semantics.

In January, 1953, a linguist working for the American Bible Society, James A. Lauriault/Loriot, needed to find answers to some fundamental errors in translating Quechua, in the Cuzco area of Peru. Following Harris' 1952 publications, he worked over the meaning and placement of each word in a collection of Quechua legends with a native speaker of Quechua and was able to formulate discourse rules that transcended the simple sentence structure. He then applied the process to Shipibo, another language of Eastern Peru. He taught the theory at the Summer Institute of Linguistics in Norman, Oklahoma, in the summers of 1956 and 1957 and entered the University of Pennsylvania to study with Harris in the interim year. He tried to publish a paper *Shipibo Paragraph Structure*, but it was delayed until 1970 (Loriot & Hollenbach 1970). In the meantime, Dr. Kenneth Lee Pike, a professor at University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, taught the theory, and one of his students, Robert E. Longacre developed it inhis writings.

Harris' methodology disclosing the correlation of form with meaning was developed into a system for the computer-aided analysis of natural language by a team led by Naomi Sager at NYU, which has been applied to a number of sublanguage domains, most notably to medical informatics. The software for the Medical Language Processor is publicly available on SourceForge.

In the late 1960s and 1970s, and without reference to this prior work, a variety of other approaches to a new cross-discipline of DA began to develop in most of the humanities and social sciences concurrently with, and related to, other disciplines, such as semiotics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, and pragmatics. Many of these approaches, especially those influenced by the social sciences, favor a more dynamic study of oral talk-in-interaction. An example is "conversational analysis", which was influenced by the Sociologist Harold Garfinkel, the founder of Ethnomethodology.

In Europe, Michel Foucault became one of the key theorists of the subject, especially of discourse, and wrote The Archaeology of Knowledge. In this context, the term 'discourse' no longer refers to formal linguistic aspects, but to institutionalised patterns of knowledge that become manifest in disciplinary structures and operate by the connection of knowledge and power. Since the 1970s, Foucault's works have had an increasing impact especially on discourse analysis in the social sciences. Thus, in modern European social sciences, one can find a wide range of different approaches working with Foucault's definition of discourse and his theoretical concepts.

Apart from the original context in France, there is, at least since 2005, a broad discussion on socio-scientific discourse analysis in Germany. Here, for example, the sociologistReiner Keller developed his widely recognised 'Sociology of Knowledge Approach to Discourse (SKAD)' Following the sociology of knowledge by Peter L. Berger and Thomas Luckmann, Keller argues, that our sense of reality in everyday life and thus the meaning of every objects, actions and events are the product of a permanent, routinised interaction. In this context, SKAD has been developed as a scientific perspective that is able to understand the processes of 'The Social Construction of Reality'on all levels of social life by combining Michel Foucault's theories of discourse and power with the theory of knowledge by Berger/Luckmann. Whereas the latter primarily focus on the constitution and stabilisation of knowledge on the level of interaction, Foucault's perspective concentrates on institutional contexts of the production and integration of knowledge, where the subject mainly appears to be determined by knowledge and power. Therefore, the 'Sociology of Knowledge Approach to Discourse' can also be seen as an approach to deal with the vividly discussed micro-macro problem in sociology.

What is Discourse Analysis?

Discourse can be defined in three ways:

- Language beyond the level of a sentence
- Language behaviours linked to social practices

- Language as a system of thought

Discourse Analysis (DA) is a modern discipline of the social sciences that covers a wide variety of differentsociolinguisticapproaches. It aims to study and analyse the use of discourse in at least one of the three ways stated above, and more often than not, all of them at once. Analysis of discourse looks not only at the basic level of what is said, but takes into consideration the surrounding social and historical contexts. As Sam Kirkham mentions making the distinction between whether a person is described as a 'terrorist' or a 'freedom fighter' is something DA would look at, whilst considering the implications of each term. To expand, 'terrorist' is a term that brings negative connotations of evil and violence, whereas 'freedom fighter' has positive connotations of fighting towards political upheaval of dictatorships. So, one term is looked upon a lot more favourably than the other, and this is what a Discourse Analyst would consider, as well as looking at the relationship of these terms with a widely used term such as 'Muslim'. Discourse analysts will look at any given text, and this just means anything that communicates a message, and particularly, how that message constructs a social reality or view of the world.

A sub-discipline of DA is 'Critical Discourse Analysis' (CDA), and this looks at discourse from a politically motivated level. An analyst in this field will identify a topic for analysis, and then collect a corpus of texts, before finally analysing it to identify how language is used to reproduce ideologies in the text. A corpus is large, structured electronic database of texts, often used in linguistics. Using a corpus isnot the only method of analysis in CDA, as any method which provides an insight into ideology in discourse is accepted by researchers. CDA will look at the different levels of a text; the macro, meso and micro levels, but this is discussed more in depth in the Example Researchsection.

How is Discourse Analysis studied?

There are many ways to conduct a discourse analysis study, some of which are listed here:

- **ConversationAnalysis**
- The study of social interaction. This can encompass both verbal language and non-verbal language such as body language.

- **Interactional Sociolinguistics**
  A subdiscipline of sociolinguistics that takes interaction into account when studying the meaning created by language users.

- **Critical Discourse Analysis (Example Research)**
  An interdisciplinary of discourse analysis that views language in terms of its social practices; considering how social and political powers are represented in speech.

- **Stylistics**
  A practice of linguistics that studies and interprets texts. It links literary criticism and linguistics together, but remains descriptive (i.e. it isnot judgemental).

However, a discourse analysis is not limited to these methods. At risk of sounding repetitive, it must once more be stressed that a discourse analysis concerns practically any form of text; be it written, spoken or visual etc.

Conversation Analysis

Language is a wonderful thing. It is essentially what separates human beings from the world's plethora of cohabiting species. We, as humans, have the ability to communicate with one another using any of the world's languages; assuming that your communicator is a speaker of the same language.

Conversation is important to us as human beings. We can convey our thoughts and desires to others, influence and entertain through speech. Without it, we certainly wouldnot be the evolved species we are today, and you probably wouldnot be reading this right now!

As linguistics has evolved and become an entirely independent social science, so too has our interest into just how humans interact and the implications of the types of conversation we use.

Conversation Analysis arose as a discipline that helps us to delve deeper into the intricacies of conversation. A lot of it might seem common sense but remember this; you are aware of what conversation implies but could you explicitly state why certain things are funny, rude or sarcastic? Conversation Analysis aims to explain these ideas through the analysis of real life conversations.

How is Conversation Analysis studied?

Here is an example of a fairly standard everyday conversation between two students. Always remember though, it is best to analyse natural, unrehearsed conversation if you are then basing any work around the analysis itself. But since we are not going that far, let us have a look at an example conversation:

The options below are not exhaustive, but just show examples of how conversation might be analysed.

1) Simple transcription - by this we mean we are going to transcribe is the basic pattern of speech, focussing on little more than what was said and when. This approach might be useful if you have got a lot of data to transcribe and your focus doesnot really necessitate going any further in terms of IPA transcriptions or paralinguistic features.

Simple Transcription

E.g. of a conversation

1 F: so how was your day?

2 M: yeah it's been alright, had a couple of lectures, they were a bit boring (.) I did a bit of work inbetween but I have still got loads to do (1.0) like I'm gonna have to spend all weekend doing my essay and my report

6 F: really? I don't have much at all

7 M: (1.0) Yeah well (.) I hate you

8 F: uhuhhuhuh

9 M: huhh

10 F: thanks erm (.) so what we gonna do tonight?

11 M: (1.0) I dunno, I need to do my work and I might go see a film

13 F: (1.0) ohhh okay

Hopefully there shouldnot be anything too difficult to grasp about this transcription. Brackets denote pauses, numbers within a bracket denoting how long the pauses was in seconds, with full stops within a bracket generally meaning the pause was less than a second in length but still significant enough to warrant noting. The numbers down the side simply add line numbers for referencing! Importantly though, we can still see conversational features such as **turn-taking,** and points where **laughing occurs**. These might be important features to help analyse a conversation.

2) Phonetic Transcription–given below is a phonetic transcription of the conversation using the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). This sort of transcription might be helpful if one wanted to look at how accentual or phonetic features might affect conversation. For example, if you look at line 12 and see [fɪləm], this is a Newcastle variant on the pronunciation of the word 'film' - pronounced with an extra syllable in the coda of the word. Transcribing a conversation in this way then can help linguists research different varieties of a language and how they might affect conversation.

Phonetic Transcription

1 F: sə haʊw wʊz yə deɪ

2 M: yeə ɪtz bi:n ʊəlraɪʔ hæd ə kʊpəl lektʃəs θə wə ə bɪʔ bʊəriŋ (.) ɪ dɪd ə bɪʔ əv wɜ:k ɪnbətwi:n but æv stɪl gɒt ləʊds tə du: (1.0) laɪk æm gʊnnə æv tə spend ʊəl wi:kend du:ɪn mæ eseɪ ænd rəpʊəʔ

6 F: rɪəli: aɪ dəʊnt hæv mʊtʃ æt æl

7 M: (1.0) yeə wel (.) ə heɪt yu:

8 F: uhuhhuhuh

9 M: huhh

10 F: ðænks ɜ:m (.) səʊ wɒt wə gʊna du: tənaɪʔ

11 M: (1.0) aɪ dʊnəʊ

12 aɪ ni:d du: mæ wɜ:k ænd aɪ maɪt gəʊ si: æ fɪləm

13 F: (1.0) əʊ əʊkeɪ

If you have never seen or studied the IPA before, this might all look very confusing. Donot worry though, the IPA just takes some getting used to and once you've learned the basic vowels and consonants, you'd be able to read this without any hesitation. But as previously stated, this sort of transcription can be very useful for people who want to analyse conversation at a phonetic level.

There are many ways to analyse conversation using all sorts of confusing looking symbols called **diacritics.** These symbols can denote features such as word stress (') for example denotes primary stress for a syllable in a word), speaker intonation and even things such as false starts or unintelligible utterances. These are all tools used by academics to study and analyse conversation, but for us at the moment, are probably not worth delving into at such a level. It is all about choosing the correct transcription that will help you to analyse more effectively for your chosen focus.

History of foreign language education

Although the need to learn foreign languages is almost as old as human history itself, the origins of modern language education are in the study and teaching of Latin in the 17th century. Latin had for many centuries been the dominant language of education, commerce, religion, and government in much of the Western world, but it was displaced by French, Italian, and English by the end of the 16th century. John Amos Comenius was one of many people who tried to reverse this trend. He composed a complete course for learning Latin, covering the entire school curriculum, culminating in his *Opera Didactica Omnia*, 1657.

In this work, Comenius also outlined his theory of language acquisition. He is one of the first theorists to write systematically about how languages are learned and about pedagogical methodology for language acquisition. He held that language acquisition must be allied with sensation and experience. Teaching must be oral. The schoolroom should have models of things, and failing that, pictures of them. As a result, he also published the world's first illustrated children's book, *Orbis Sensualium Pictus*. The study of Latin diminished from the study of a living language to be used in the real world to a subject in the school curriculum. Such decline brought about a new justification for its study. It was then claimed that its study developed intellectual abilities, and the study of Latin grammar became an end in and of itself."Grammar schools" from the 16th to 18th centuries focused on teaching the grammatical aspects of Classical Latin. Advanced students continued grammar study with the addition of rhetoric.

18th century

The study of modern languages did not become part of the curriculum of European schools until the 18th century. Based on the purely academic study of Latin, students of modern languages did much of the same exercises, studying grammatical rules and translating abstract sentences. Oral work was minimal, and students were instead required to memorise grammatical rules and apply these to decode written texts in the target language. This tradition-inspired method became known as the grammar-translation method.

Innovation in foreign language teaching began in the 19th century and became very rapid in the 20th century. It led to a number of different and sometimes conflicting methods, each trying to be a major improvement over the previous or contemporary methods. The earliest applied linguists included Jean Manesca, Heinrich Gottfried Ollendorff (1803–1865), Henry Sweet (1845–1912), Otto Jespersen (1860–1943), and Harold Palmer (1877–1949). They worked on setting language teaching principles and approaches based on linguistic and psychological theories, but they left many of the specific practical details for others to devise.

Those looking at the history of foreign-language education in the 20th century and the methods of teaching might be tempted to think that it is a history of failure. Very few students in U.S. universities who have a foreign language as a major manage to reach something called “minimum professional proficiency”. Even the “reading knowledge” required for a PhD degree is comparable only to what second-year language students read and only very few researchers who are native English speakers can read and assess information written in languages other than English. Even a number of famous linguists are monolingual.

However, anecdotal evidence for successful second or foreign language learning is easy to find, leading to a discrepancy between these cases and the failure of most language programs, which helps make the research of second language acquisition emotionally charged. Older methods and approaches such as the grammar translation method or the direct method are dismissed and even ridiculed as newer methods and approaches are invented and promoted as the only and complete solution to the problem of the high failure rates of foreign language students.

Most books on language teaching list the various methods that have been used in the past, often ending with the author's new method. These new methods are usually presented as coming only from the author's mind, as the authors generally give no credence to what was done before and do not explain how it relates to the new method. For example, descriptive linguists seem to claim unhesitatingly that there were no scientifically based language teaching methods before their work which led to the audio-lingual method developed for the U.S. Army in World War II. However, there is significant evidence to the contrary. It is also often inferred or even stated that older methods were completely ineffective or have died out completely when even the oldest methods are still used e.g. the Berlitz version of the direct method. One reason for this situation is that proponents of new methods have been so sure that their ideas are so new and so correct that they could not conceive that the older ones have enough validity to cause controversy. This was in turn caused by emphasis on new scientific advances, which has tended to blind researchers to precedents in older work

There have been two major branches in the field of language learning, the empirical and theoretical, and these have almost completely separate histories, with each gaining ground over the other at one point in time or another. Examples of researchers on the empiricist side are Jesperson, Palmer, and Leonard Bloomfield, who promote mimicry and memorisation with pattern drills. These methods follow from the basic empiricist position that language acquisition basically results from habits formed by conditioning and drilling. In its most extreme form, language learning is seen as basically the same as any other learning in any other species, human language being essentially the same as communication behaviours seen in other species.

On the theoretical side are, for example, Francois Gouin, M.D. Berlitz, and Elime de Sauzé, whose rationalist theories of language acquisition dovetail with linguistic work done by Noam Chomsky and others. These have led to a wider variety of teaching methods ranging from the grammar-translation method to Gouin's "series method" to the direct methods of Berlitz and de Sauzé. With these methods, students generate original and meaningful sentences to gain a functional knowledge of the rules of grammar. This follows from the rationalist position that man is born to think and that language use is a uniquely human trait impossible in other species.

Given that human languages share many common traits, the idea is that humans share a universal grammar which is built into our brain structure. This allows us to create sentences that we have never heard before but that can still be immediately understood by anyone who understands the specific language being spoken. The rivalry of the two camps is intense, with little communication or cooperation between them.

Teaching foreign language in classrooms

Language education may take place as a general school subject or in a specialised **language school**. There are many methods of teaching languages. Some have fallen into relative obscurity and others are widely used; still others have a small following, but offer useful insights.While sometimes confused, the terms "approach", "method" and "technique" are hierarchical concepts.

An **approach** is a set of assumptions about the nature of language and language learning, but does not involve procedure or provide any details about how such assumptions should be implemented into the classroom setting. Such can be related to second language acquisition theory.

There are three principal "approaches":

1. The structural view treats language as a system of structurally related elements to code meaning (e.g. grammar).
2. The functional view sees language as a vehicle to express or accomplish a certain function, such as requesting something.

3. The interactive view sees language as a vehicle for the creation and maintenance of social relations, focusing on patterns of moves, acts, negotiation and interaction found in conversational exchanges. This approach has been fairly dominant since the 1980s.
4. A **method** is a plan for presenting the language material to be learned, and should be based upon a selected approach. In order for an approach to be translated into a method, an instructional system must be designed considering the objectives of the teaching/learning, how the content is to be selected and organised, the types of tasks to be performed, the roles of students, and the roles of teachers.

1. Examples of structural methods are grammar translation and the audio-lingual method.
2. Examples of functional methods include the oral approach / situational language teaching.
3. Examples of interactive methods include the direct method, the series method, communicative language teaching, language immersion, the Silent Way, Suggestopedia, the Natural Approach, Total Physical Response, Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling and Dogme language teaching.

A **technique** or strategy is a very specific, concrete stratagem or trick designed to accomplish an immediate objective. Such are derived from the controlling method, and less directly, from the approach.

Audio recordings and books

Audio **recordings** use native speakers, and onestrength is to help learners improve their accent. Some recordings have pauses for the learner to speak.

Others are continuous so the learner speaks along with the recorded voice, similar to learning a song.

Audio recordings for self-study use many of the methods used in classroom teaching, and have been produced on records, tapes, CDs, DVDs and websites.

Most audio recordings teach words in the target language by using explanations in the learner's own language. An alternative is to use sound effects to show meaning of words in the target language. The only language in such recordings is the target language, and they are comprehensible regardless of the learner's native language.

Language **books** have been published for centuries, teaching vocabulary and grammar. The simplest books are phrasebooks to give useful short phrases for travelers, cooks, receptionists, or others who need specific vocabulary. More complete books include more vocabulary, grammar, exercises, translation, and writing practice.

Learning strategies

Language learning strategies have attracted increasing focus as a way of understanding the process of language acquisition.

Listening as a way of learning

Clearly listening is used to learn, but not all language learners employ it consciously. Listening to understand is one level of listening but focused listeningis not something that most learners employ as a strategy.

Reading as a way to learn

Many people read to understand but the strategy of reading a text to learn grammar and discourse styles can also be employed.

Learning vocabulary

Translation and rote memorisation have been the two strategies that have been employed traditionally. There are other strategies that also can be used such as guessing, based on looking for contextual clues. Knowledge about how the brain works can be utilised in creating strategies for how to remember words.

Code switching

Code switching, that is, changing between languages at some point in a sentence or utterance, is a commonly used communication strategy among language learners and bilinguals. While traditional methods of formal instruction often discourage code switching, students, especially those placed in a language immersion situation, often use it. If viewed as a learning strategy, wherein the student uses the target language as much as possible but reverts to their native language for any element of an utterance that they are unable to produce in the target language as, in Wolfgang Butzkamm's concept of enlightened monolingualism, then it has the advantages that it encourages fluency development and motivation and a sense of accomplishment by enabling the student to discuss topics of interest to him or her early in the learning process—before requisite vocabulary has been memorised. It is particularly effective for students whose native language is English, due to the high probability of a simple English word or short phrase being understood by the conversational partner.

Teaching strategies

Blended learning

Blended learning combines face-to-face teaching with distance education, frequently electronic, either computer-based or web-based. It has been a major growth point in the ELT (English Language Teaching) industry over the last ten years.

Some people, though, use the phrase 'Blended Learning' to refer to learning taking place while the focus is on other activities. For example, playing a card game that requires calling for cards may allow blended learning of numbers (1 to 10).

Skills teaching

When talking about language skills, the four basic ones are: listening, speaking, reading and writing. However, other, more socially based skills have been identified more recently such as summarizing, describing, narrating etc. In addition, more general learning skills such as study skills and knowing how one learns have been applied to language classrooms.

In the 1970s and 1980s, the four basic skills were generally taught in isolation in a very rigid order, such as listening before speaking. However, since then, it has been recognised that we generally use more than one skill at a time, leading to more integrated exercises. Speaking is a skill that often is under-represented in the traditional classroom. This is due to the fact that it is considered harder to teach and test. There are numerous texts on teaching and testing writing but relatively few on speaking.

More recent textbooks stress the importance of students working with other students in pairs and groups, sometimes the entire class. Pair and group work give opportunities for more students to participate more actively. However, supervision of pairs and groups is important to make sure everyone participates as equally as possible. Such activities also provide opportunities for peer teaching, where weaker learners can find support from stronger classmates.

Sandwich technique

In foreign language teaching, the **sandwich technique** is the oral insertion of an idiomatic translation in the mother tongue between an unknown phrase in the learned language and its repetition, in order to convey meaning as rapidly and completely as possible. The mother tongue equivalent can be given almost as an aside, with a slight break in the flow of speech to mark it as an intruder.

When modeling a dialogue sentence for students to repeat, the teacher not only gives an oral mother tongue equivalent for unknown words or phrases, but repeats the foreign language phrase before students imitate it: L2 => L1 => L2. For example, a German teacher of English might engage in the following exchange with the students:

Teacher: "Let me try - lass mich versuchen - let me try."

Students: "Let me try."

Mother tongue mirroring

Mother tongue mirroring is the adaptation of the time-honoured technique of literal translation or word-for word translation for pedagogical purposes. The aim is to make foreign constructions salient and transparent to learners and, in many cases, spare them the technical jargon of grammatical analysis. It differs from literal translation and interlinear text as used in the past since it takes the progress learners have made into account and only focuses upon a specific structure at a time. As a didactic device, it can only be used to the extent that it remains intelligible to the learner, unless it is combined with a normal idiomatic translation. This technique is seldom referred to or used these days.

Back-chaining

Back-chaining is a technique used in teaching oral language skills, especially with polysyllabic or difficult words. The teacher pronounces the last syllable, the student repeats, and then the teacher continues working in reverse from the end of the word to the beginning.

For example, to teach the name 'Mussorgsky' a teacher will pronounce the last syllable: *-sky,* and have the student repeat it. Then the teacher will repeat it with *-sorg-* attached before: *-sorg-sky,* and all that remains is the first syllable: *Mus-sorg-sky*.

Semantics Concept

Semantics (from Ancient Greek: sēmantikós,meaning "significant") is the study of meaning. It focusses on the relation between *signifiers*, like words, phrases, signs, and symbols, and what they stand for, their denotation. Linguistic semantics is the study of meaning that is used for understanding human expression through language. Other forms of semantics include the semantics of programming languages, formal logics, and semiotics. In international scientific vocabulary semantics is also called *semasiology*.

Semantics is the subfield that is devoted to the study of meaning, as inherent at the levels of words, phrases, sentences, and larger units of discourse (termed *texts*, or *narratives*). The study of semantics is also closely linked to the subjects of representation, reference and denotation. The basic study of semantics is oriented to the examination of the meaning of signs, and the study of relations between different linguistic units and compounds: homonymy, synonymy, antonymy, hypernymy, hyponymy, meronymy, metonymy, holonymy, paronyms.

Semantics is the study of meaning, usually in language. The word "semantics" itself denotes a range of ideas, from the popular to the highly technical. It is often used in ordinary language to denote a problem of understanding that comes down to word selection or connotation.Semantics is sometimes contrasted with *syntax*, the study of the symbols of a language (without reference to their meaning), and *pragmatics*, the study of the relationships between the symbols of a language, their meaning, and the users of the language.

Some fundamental concepts for semantics

All science, all significant inquiry, is a web with indefinite frontiers.

1.1 Where we are heading

Here are some fundamental concepts for semantics, that will bereferred to either explicitly or implicitly throughout the rest of the book. Here, andthroughout the book, key words and concepts are introduced in small capitals and alsolisted in the summary section.In doing semantics it is essential to define the terms used in discussion. For instance:

Definition 1.1SEMANTICS: It is the study of meaning in human languages.To begin with, interpret the word meaning as anyone who knows English might reasonably do.. Note that within the discipline oflinguistics the term semantics is not in the least bit pejorative as it is in the colloquialacquisition That is just semantics! which means "You're just quibbling and prevaricating."The definition of semantics refers to human languages.

If I ask you to construct a meaningful sentence using all the words in Textbox 1, youcan do so because meaning is composition. Because semantics is about meaning in human languages, the objectlanguage will be a human language. But what form does the language of semantic theorykilled, crocodile, hunter, the,

2Natural Language Semantics

Like any theory, a semantic theory is developed by applying the analyst's experience andintuition to inferences drawn from occurrences of actual speech events.

INFERENCE

1 Last night the King of France fell off her bike while playing polo.

I expect you to be surprised by 1 and to recognise it as nonsense. This does not depend onthat which is explicit in 1 but on knowledge that I expect you to have, namely: that there is nolonger a King of France; that polo is played on horseback not bikes; and that 'her' cannotnormally refer to a king. Every language user relies on nonlinguistic as well as linguisticknowledge when speaking and understanding language.

Human language and semantics

Human languages are important because of the meanings they convey. It is a bonus thatthe sound of a human voice is comforting, or that beautiful calligraphy delights us: theseare by-products of the main function. Therefore, semantics studies the essential propertyof language.Human language can be investigated from at least four different perspectives.

(a) Language is manifest as a PHYSICAL object or physical event. Right now, you cansee language in the print before your eyes. You see people signing in ASL, andother languages for the deaf; you hear language spoken, even feel the air pressure changingif you are close enough to someone's mouth when they speak. Language as a physicalobject or physical event is language uttered at a particular time in a particular place –giving it spatial-temporal coordinates.

Definition 1.2 In the CANONICAL SPEECH EVENT, the Speaker makes an utteranceto Hearer at a certain time and place.

The physical attributes of language are only relevant to semantics with respect to forms andmodulations on them which give rise to meaningful effects, e.g. the sound symbolism which links the meanings of bash, crash, flash, smash, splash, etc.; the stressdifferences between 2 and 3 (where BOLD SMALL CAPITALS identify the stressed syllable);and the tone differences that distinguish the statement in 4 (final fall tone) from thequestion in 5 (final rise tone).

Some fundamental concepts for semantics 3

2 Maisie didn't SHOOT her husband, she KNIFED him.

3 Maisie didn't shoot her HUSband, it was her ex-LOVer.

4 Maisie spoke to Jòe.

5 Maisie spoke to Jóe?

(b) Ask yourself what the are the manifestations for thephysical manifestations of language

The answer: something ABSTRACT and intangible. English, for instance, is not just all thatis written and spoken in English; it is also something abstracted from people and times andplaces, it is something that speakers of English are able to use in order to say somethingthat has never ever been said before – consequently it must exist independently of anyparticular speakers. Most semantic analysis approaches language as something abstractedfrom the spoken and written texts that people like you and I actually produce whencommunicating with others.

(c) **To use a language, you must know it:**Therefore, language is also a COGNITIVE orpsychological entity. Exemplified and discussed in terms of functional, conceptual, andcognitive semantics is plenty of evidence that the cognitive aspectsof language are of immense importance to the construction of meaning. This gives rise to:**Assumption 1.1** Meaning in natural languages is very responsive to, and often areflex of human perception and conception.

(d) Language exists as a vehicle for communication between people; in other words,language is a manifestation of SOCIAL INTERACTIVE behaviour. Social interaction includesflirting and passing the time of day, but also the exchange of information and theexpression of arguments. It involves the use of language for entertainment in factualhistorical anecdotes as well as in fictional narrative. Social interaction is of primaryimportance within human communities, and language is the principal means of socialinteraction; (cf. Clark 1996). Whether or not language was motivated and developed for thispurpose, its grammar is certainly influenced by the fact that it is a means of socialinteraction, a means of revealing one's thoughts and perceptions to others.

Assumption 1.2 The expression of meaning through language is an essentialmeans of cementing human bonding and of displaying it to others, both at theindividual and the community level.

Assumption 1.2 does not conflict with the view that language is a system for the expressionof thought.Some people think in visual images, so language is not a prerequisite forsolipsistic thinking. Beyond the simplest level, it is absolutely essential for theexpression of thought to others. Whether and how one expresses a particular thought to aparticular other is determined, more often than not, by a judgment of the desired effect onthe hearer or reader.

4 Natural Language Semantics

Because of the dominant social interactive function of language, weshall find that it is impracticable (if not impossible) to discuss semantics without makingfrequent reference to aspects of pragmatics.

Definition 1.3 PRAGMATICS is the context-dependent assignment of meaningto language expressions used in acts of speaking and writing.by the needs of human beings when seeking to communicate with one another.

Assumption 1.3 At the simplest level of analysis, any language is a system offorms paired with meanings.This is most obvious in dictionaries where forms are listed and their meanings given

e.g.bonza/bonzer

excellent; terrific; very goodsigns are referred to in nostrums like those in 6.

(*The Dinkum Dictionary: A Ripper Guide to Aussie English* 1988)

6 (a) Where there’s smoke, there’s fire.

(b) Those clouds mean rain.

(c) Red sky at night, shepherds’ delight; red sky in the morning, shepherds’ warning.

Natural signs neednot involve language at all: a wet pathway outside your house means thatit has been raining. The study of non-natural signs is SEMIOTICS. Within human society,the kind of food you eat, the clothes you wear, the things people know that you own, yourreligion and ideology are components of cultural expression that communicate informationto others about you and are therefore of potential interest to semioticians.

We speak of‘natural language’ because human language has evolved with the species and not beenconsciously constructed. Nevertheless, natural language uses non-natural signs in the sensethat there is no natural connection between form and meaning . For example, none of the translation equivalents ájá (Yoruba), cane (Italian),dog (English), Hund (German), kare (Hausa), mbwa (Swahili), pies (Polish) is naturallyrepresentative of dogs or of their distinctive properties. Thus Grice 1957 refers to languagemeaning as ‘non-natural meaning’ or ‘meaning’. Many people believe that linguistics isa part of semiotics (presumably Chomsky and many of his followers would either disagreeor regard the point as trivial; cf. Chomsky 1975:57). This book assumes that language isan aspect of culture and cultural transmission. On many occasions it is also best interpretedin the context of the speaker’s (or writer’s) cultural background, i.e. in the light of his orher belief system and probable assumptions.[3] The physical and social distance maintainedbetween interlocutors, where their gaze is directed, the management of terms of addressand reference to others, notions of appropriate discourse, the perception of silence, theindicators of intention to speak, voice quality – all these are (sub)culturally conditioned.

In this section we have discussed different perspectives on human language that affectthe assumptions we make about what semantics should investigate and the scope of thatinvestigation. In §1.3 we look at the way that meaning is structured in a human language.

Exercises

1.2.1 Identify some languages that are not natural human languages.

1.2.2 Can you think of any supporting evidence for the assumption that meaning in naturallanguages is very responsive to, and often a reflex of, human perception andconception?

1.2.3 A whistle is used in different semiotic systems by a football referee, a policemandirecting traffic, the doorman at a five-star hotel, and once upon a time by a workmanon a building site when a young woman walks by. Comment on what all these systemshave in common and yet how in each one the whistle has a distinct purpose. What is/arethe language counterparts to the whistle?

1.2.4 Discuss why it is that human languages are regularly referred to as 'naturallanguages' yet Grice referred to their meanings as 'meaningNN'.

1.2.5 Just what difference can you detect between language as an abstract entity on theone hand, and language as either a physical or psychological object?

1.3 Meaning is compositional

[E]very sentence, no matter how complicated, can be seen as the result of a systematicconstruction process which adds logical words one by one.(Frege's principle of compositionality, Gamut 1991 I:15)

Most people in our community hold two true beliefs:

(a) Meanings are a property of words.

(b) Word meanings are stored in dictionaries.

6 Natural Language Semantics

of every kind of constituent and expression in language, and also of themeaning relationships between them.The popular notion that words (the vocabulary of the language) are the basic buildingblocks for language construction is not precise enough. meaning pairs (Assumption 1.3) but theirmeaning is not determinable from any meaning that can be assigned to their constituentforms – e.g. the meaning of paddle cannot be correctly computed from the meaning of padandthe meaning of -dle. So, the language user must memorize each basic building blockindividually, as a form paired with its meaning. All that a grammar can do is list them inthe lexicon (= dictionary).

LISTEMES.

Definition 1.4 A Listeme is a language expression whose meaning is notdeterminable from the meanings (if any) of its constituent forms and which,therefore, a language user must memorise as a combination of form andmeaning.

We language users combine listemes into words, phrases, sentences, and longer texts.At each level we construct meanings. The meaning of the word ‘bachelors’ is composedfrom at least the listemes bachelor and -s and also the morphosyntactic relationshipbetween the two listemes. The semantics of the combination of the listemes is just asimportant as the semantics of the listemes themselves and is part of the reason thatdictionaries usually specify the morphosyntactic class (also referred to as ‘lexical class’) of each entry. The noun phrase young bachelors is composed from the meaningof the adjective listeme young, the compound meaning of the word bachelors, and thesyntactic relationship between the two words that is roughly captured by saying that youngrestricts the reference of the head noun bachelors to a subset ofbachelors. A clause such as young bachelors are often irresponsible is composed of themeaning of young bachelors and the meaning of the other phrases, words, and listemes inthe clause, as well as the various relationships between the constituent listemes and theircombinations indicated by the syntactic structure. In case the importance of structuralmeaning is not already obvious to you, look at the difference in meaning between twosentences containing identical listemes but different structural relations:

7 Everyone loves someone.

8 Someone loves everyone.

The principle we have been describing is ‘compositionality’. Many semanticists believethat the meanings of listemes can themselves be decomposed into SEMANTIC COMPONENTS e.g. that kill has cause and die as semantic components.

Definition 1.5 COMPOSITIONALITY: any complex language expression can beanalysed in terms of simpler constituent expressions down to the semanticcomponents of listemes and the structures that combine them (cf. Kamp andPartee 1995:135).

Some fundamental concepts for semantics 7

The flip-side of compositionality is generativity.

Definition 1.6 GENERATIVITY: language has a structure that permitsboundless meanings to be created from a finite set of listemes.Compositionality is a guiding principle for all kinds of semantics. The program forsemantic theory includes:

(a) Specify the rules for translating sentences of the object language into ametalanguage that captures their proper semantic components.

(b) Identify the rules for combining these components in such a way as to interpret theinput sentences of the object language.In the course of this book we review hypotheses about what counts as a semanticcomponent, and ways in which the systematic construction process is to be represented.If you asked me how a motor car worked you would think me somewhat pompous if Ianswered in terms of Newton's laws and the laws of thermodynamics, and downrightobscurantist if I answered in terms of fundamental particles. It is doubtless true that the behaviourof a motor car is to be explained in terms of interactions betweenfundamental particles. But it is much more useful to explain it in terms of interactionsbetween pistons, cylinders and sparking plugs.(Richard Dawkins The Blind Watchmaker 1988:12)

It is important to recognize that any explanation is directed to an audience; thus,presentationof the theory and its components should make the commonplace assumptionsabout the level of knowledge and understanding of its anticipated audience – i.e. build on common ground . For reasons discussed in the next section, formalisms within atheory are no excuse for obscurity.

8 Natural Language Semantics

1.4 The metalanguage: the language of the semantic theory. Human languages are the objects that we study in semantics. For that reason, the languageunder investigation is known as the OBJECT LANGUAGE. The language which a linguist usesto describe and analyse the object language is called the METALANGUAGE. The basicrequirement for a metalanguage is to satisfactorily communicate the meaning of item eOL– that is, any expression in the object language, whether it is a word, a phrase, or asentence – in terms of an expression "eM" in the metalanguage. A metalanguage is justanother language, often an artificial and not a natural one.

One important practical constraint on a metalanguage is that (mostly) it needs to beunderstood by human beings who normally communicate in a natural language of whichthey have fluent command. If you understood neither Polish nor Swahili there is little pointin my using Swahili as a metalanguage for the semantic analysis of Polish (or vice versa):

e.g. to say To jest pies means "Ni mbwa" will not help you at all.

Readers of this bookmust perforce, know English, so English can be used as a metalanguage and say

To jestpies (in Polish) means "It's a dog"; or

we can say To jest pies means "Ni mbwa" inSwahili, which means "It's a dog" (here using English as a meta-metalanguage).

To ensurethat readers understand the semantic metalanguage used in this book, it is often translatedinto English – i.e. English is used as either a metalanguage or a meta-metalanguage. Inpractice, every scholar does exactly this either by explicitly providing natural languageglosses for exotic metalanguage expressions, or by assuming that the reader has someexisting knowledge of the semantics of the symbols and expressions being used: e.g. that'~' means "for all", '' means "if and only if", 'Y' means "logical and".

Ideally, a semantic metalanguage would be a FORMAL LANGUAGE. A formal language has a fully defined vocabulary and syntax. Ideally, thevocabulary would be a specified set of symbols whose forms and correlated meanings arefully defined; all possible combinations of vocabulary items in the metalanguage wouldbe generated from fully specified syntactic axioms and rules of syntax; and the meaningsof syntactically well formed structures would be fully specified by semantic axioms andrules for the metalanguage.

All systems of FORMAL SEMANTICS attempt to create exactly such formal languageswhether they be couched in terms of propositional logic, predicate logic, truth-conditionalsemantics, possible worlds semantics, intentional logic, model theoretic semantics,situation semantics, dynamic semantics and discourse representation theory, or whatever.

Some fundamental concepts for semantics

However, defining a formal metalanguage for natural language semantics requires that ithave the same expressive power as a natural language because:

(a) The metalanguage is in effect a translation of the object language (cf. Carnap1937:228), and the object language is a natural language.

(b) In order for the metalanguage to be understood and used by human beings itmustbe communicable, and hence translate into a natural language.

The ideal formal semantic metalanguage would have to be at least as comprehensive as anatural language (and to date no formal system achieves this goal). In other words, it wouldbe a deliberately contrived artificial language of the same notational class as a naturallanguage and, like a natural language, would reflect genuine properties of humanperceptions of the real world as well as other aspects of human cognition. Contriving sucha metalanguage would be a triumph for human ingenuity and might, as a by-product, revealsomething about the nature of human languages. However, it will not in other respects besuperior to a natural language used as a semantic metalanguage. We must conclude:

Assumption 1.4 A metalanguage expression "eM" used in the semantic definitionof a natural language expression eOL will always be equivalent to the naturallanguage expression through which it is interpreted.The advantages of a formal semantic metalanguage are the explicit definition ofprimitives and standards of rigour and exactitude that tend to be ignored when using aninformal metalanguage such as a natural language. Furthermore, proper formalisation ofthe metalanguage should permit proofs of particular conclusions about semantic structureand so prevent mistaken conclusions being derived from faulty assumptions and/or inferenceprocedures. However, none of these advantages of a formal system is necessarilyunobtainable using an informal system like a natural language metalanguage for semantics.

Given two metalanguages which apparently have the same descriptive and explanatorycapacities, the only way to choose between them is to be guided by your gut feeling: favourthe one you are happier with. Never forget that a metalanguage is the product of ananalyst's mind; the analyst not being God, every metalanguage is limited by the beliefs,perspectives, and purposes of its creator.

The metalanguage is the language of semantic theory. The principal function of thetheory is to explain data (words, sentences) from natural language. The goal of the theoryis to explain all the data that it was constructed to explain; therefore, limitations on itsrange need to be clearly stated. A theory should have predictive power insofar as it raisesexpectations about data that have not yet come to light. It is absolutely necessary that attheory be internally consistent. What about its external relations?No theory of semantics can completely ignore syntax and phonology, and the idealsemantic theory will integrate with theories of both these components of a grammar.

Semantic theory should also integrate with theories of pragmatics which seek to explainmeaning in social and cultural contextsand with theories of discourse structure.Semantic theory should not only make useful revelations about the nature of humanlanguage but also about human cognition because, as stated in Assumption 1.1, meaningis often a reflex of human perception and conception. All theories, without exception, areabstractions from reality; so the relation of theory to reality 'is not analogous to that of10 Natural Language Semanticssoup to beef but rather of check number and overcoat' (Einstein 1973:294). Like any otherkind of theory, semantic theory is developed by applying the analyst's experience andintuitions to inferences drawn from occurrences of actual speech events to create ademonstrably rational account of their structures and causes. What, exactly, areinferences? They are defined and examined in the next section.

Exercises

1.4.1 What is meant by 'all possible combinations of vocabulary items in themetalanguage would be generated from fully specified syntactic axioms and rules ofsyntax; and the meanings of syntactically well formed structures would be fullyspecified by semantic rules and axioms for the metalanguage'?

1.4.2 Sometimes, in kin term semantics for example, we find the symbols used in the metalanguage expression. What do you understand by them? Are theyequivalent in meaning to some natural language expression? Do you think they can beunderstood without reference to a natural language?

1.4.3 To get a machine to understand human language and to respond with humanlanguage as another person would, is it necessary for the semantic metalanguage to beequivalent to a natural language?

1.4.4 What is the difference between knowing a language and knowing about a language?

1.5 Three kinds of inference

Logic: The art of thinking and reasoning in strict accordance with the limitations andincapacities of the human misunderstanding. The basic of logic is the syllogism, consistingof a major and a minor premise and a conclusion – thus:

Major premise: Sixty men can do a piece of work sixty times as quickly as one man.

Minor premise: One man can dig a post hole in sixty seconds; therefore –

Conclusion: Sixty men can dig a post hole in one second.

This may be called the syllogism arithmetical, in which, by combining logic andmathematics, we obtain a double certainty and are twice blessed.(Bierce 1971:211f)

ABDUCTIVE REASONING was championed by the early pragmatist Charles Peirce as anempirically focused procedure for the construction of classes and categories from observeddata.Abduction does not really require that the fact observed be surprising. Peirce's definitionof abductive reasoning is presented as a syllogism (a form of argumentation developed byAristotle in the 4th century BCE).

METHODS OF LANGUAGE TEACHING according to Kiarie Wa'Njogu

Methods of language teaching include:

1) Grammar-translation approach

2) Direct approach

3) Reading approach

4) Audiolingual method

5) Community language learning

6) Suggestopedia

7) The silent way

8) Total Physical Response

9) The natural way

10) Communicative language teaching

Grammar-Translation Approach

- In this method, classes are taught in the students' mother tongue, with little active use of the target language.
- Vocabulary is taught in the form of isolated word lists.
- Elaborate explanations of grammar are always provided.

- Grammar instruction provides the rules for putting words together;instruction focuses on the form and inflection of words.
- Little attention is paid to the content of texts.
- Drills are exercises in translating disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue, and vice versa.
- Little or no attention is given to pronunciation.
- *Direct Approach*
- This approach was developed initially as a reaction to the grammar-translation approach in an attempt to integrate more use of the target language in instruction.
- Lessons begin with a dialogue using a modern conversational style in the target language.
- Material is first presented orally with actions or pictures.
- The mother tongue is NEVER used. There is no translation.
- The preferred type of exercise is a series of questions in the target language based on the dialogue or an anecdotal narrative.
- Questions are answered in the target language.
- Grammar is taught inductively--rules are generalised from the practice and experience with the target language.
- Verbs are used first and systematically conjugated much later after some oral mastery of the target language.

- Advanced students read literature for comprehension and pleasure.
- Literary texts are not analyzed grammatically.
- The culture associated with the target language is also taught inductively.
- Culture is considered an important aspect of learning the language.

Reading Approach

- The approach is mostly for people who do not travel abroad for whom reading is the one usable skill in a foreign language.
- The priority in studying the target language is first, reading ability and second, current and/or historical knowledge of the country where the target language is spoken.
- Only the grammar necessary for reading comprehension and fluency is taught.
- Minimal attention is paid to pronunciation or gaining conversational skills in the target language.
- From the beginning, a great amount of reading is done in L2.
- The vocabulary of the early reading passages and texts is strictly controlled for difficulty.

- Vocabulary is expanded as quickly as possible, since the acquisition of vocabulary is considered more important that grammatical skill.
- Translation reappears in this approach as a respectable classroom procedure related to comprehension of the written text.

Audiolingual Method

- This method is based on the principles of behaviour psychology.
- It adapted many of the principles and procedures of the direct method, in part as a reaction to the lack of speaking skills of the Reading Approach.
- New material is presented in the form of a dialogue.
- Based on the principle that language learning is habit formation, the method fosters dependence on mimicry, memorization of set phrases and over-learning.
- Structures are sequenced and taught one at a time. Structural patterns are taught using repetitive drills.
- Little or no grammatical explanations are provided; grammar is taught inductively.
- Skills are sequenced: Listening, speaking, reading and writing are developed in order.
- Vocabulary is strictly limited and learned in context.
- Teaching points are determined by contrastive analysis between L1 and L2.

- There is abundant use of language laboratories, tapes and visual aids.
- There is an extended pre-reading period at the beginning of the course.
- Great importance is given to precise native-like pronunciation.
- Use of the mother tongue by the teacher is permitted, but discouraged among and by the students.
- Successful responses are reinforced; great care is taken to prevent learner errors.
- There is a tendency to focus on manipulation of the target language and to disregard content and meaning.

Hints for Using Audiolingual Drills in L2 Teaching

1. The teacher must be careful to insure that all of the utterances which students will make are actually within the practiced pattern.

2. Drills should be conducted as rapidly as possibly so as to insure automaticity and to establish a system.

3. Ignore all but gross errors of pronunciation when drilling for grammar practice.

4. Use of shortcuts to keep the pace of drills at a maximum. Use hand motions, signal cards, notes, etc. to cue response.

5. Drill material should always be meaningful. If the content words are not known, teach their meanings.

6. Intersperse short periods of drill (about 10 minutes) with very brief alternative activities to avoid fatigue and boredom.

7. Don't stand in one place; move about the room standing next to as many different students as possible to check their production. Thus you will know who to give more practice to during individual drilling.

Community Language Learning (CLL)

- This approach is patterned upon counseling techniques and adapted to the peculiar anxiety and threat as well as the personal and language problems a person encounters in the learning of foreign languages.
- The learner is not thought of as a student but as a client.
- The instructors are not considered teachers but, rather are trained in counseling skills adapted to their roles as language counselors.
- The language-counseling relationship begins with the client's linguistic confusion and conflict.
- The aim of the language counselor's skill is first to communicate empathy for the client's threatened inadequate state and to aid him linguistically.
- Then slowly the teacher-counselor strives to enable him to arrive at his own increasingly independent language adequacy.
- This process is furthered by the language counselor's ability to establish a warm, understanding, and accepting relationship, thus becoming an "other-language self" for the client.
- The process involves five stages of adaptation:
- STAGE 1

- The client is completely dependent on the language counsellor.
- 1. First, he expresses only to the counselor and in English what he wishes to say to the group. Each group member overhears this English exchange but no other members of the group are involved in the interaction.
- 2. The counselor then reflects these ideas back to the client in the foreign language in a warm, accepting tone, in simple language in phrases of five or six words.
- 3. The client turns to the group and presents his ideas in the foreign language. He has the counselor’s aid if he mispronounces or hesitates on a word or phrase. This is the client's maximum security stage.
- STAGE 2
- 1. Same as above.
- 2. The client turns and begins to speak the foreign language directly to the group.
- 3. The counselor aids only as the client hesitates or turns for help. These small independent steps are signs of positive confidence and hope.
- STAGE 3
- 1. The client speaks directly to the group in the foreign language. This presumes that the group has now acquired the ability to understand his simple phrases.

- 2. Same as 3 above. This presumes the client's greater confidence, independence, and proportionate insight into the relationship of phrases, grammar, and ideas. Translation is given only when a group member desires it.
- STAGE 4
- 1. The client is now speaking freely and complexly in the foreign language. Presumes group's understanding.
- 2. The counselor directly intervenes in grammatical error, mispronunciation, or where aid in complex expression is needed. The client is sufficiently secure to take correction.
- STAGE 5
- 1. Same as stage 4.
- 2. The counselor intervenes not only to offer correction but to add idioms and more elegant constructions.
- 3. At this stage the client can become counsellor to the group in stages 1, 2, and 3.

Suggestopedia

-This method developed out of believe that human brain could process great quantities of material given the right conditions of learning like relaxation.

- music was central to this method.

- Soft music led to increase in alpha brain wave and a decrease in blood pressure and pulse rate resulting in high intake of large quantities of materials.
- Learners were encouraged to be as "childlike" as possible.
- Apart from soft, comfortable seats in a relaxed setting, everything else remained the same.

The natural approach

- This method emphasised development of basic personal communication skills
- Delay production until speech emerge i.e learners donot say anything until they are ready to do so
- Learners should be as relaxed a possible
- Advocate use of TPR at beginning level
- Comprehensible input is essential for acquisition to take place.

The Silent Way

- This method begins by using a set of coloured wooden rods and verbal commands in order to achieve the following:

1) To avoid the use of the vernacular.

2) To create simple linguistic situations that remain under the complete control of the teacher .

3) To pass on to the learners the responsibility for the utterances of the descriptions of the objects shown or the actions performed.

4) To let the teacher concentrate on what the students say and how they are saying it, drawing their attention to the differences in pronunciation and the flow of words.

5) To generate a serious game-like situation in which the rules are implicitly agreed upon by giving meaning to the gestures of the teacher and his mime.

6) To permit almost from the start a switch from the lone voice of the teacher using the foreign language to a number of voices using it.

7) To provide the support of perception and action to the intellectual guess of what the noises mean, thus bring in the arsenal of the usual criteria of experience already developed and automatic in one's use of the mother tongue.

8) To provide a duration of spontaneous speech upon which the teacher and the students can work to obtain a similarity of melody to the one heard.

Materials

- The materials utilised as the language learning progresses include:

1) A set of coloured wooden rods
2) A set of wall charts containing words of a “functional” vocabulary and some additional ones
3) A pointer for use with the charts in Visual Dictation
4) A color coded phonic chart(s) tapes or discs
5) films, drawings and pictures, and

6) A set of accompanying worksheets transparencies, texts, a Book of Stories.

Total Physical Response (TPR)

Total Physical Response (TPR) method is one that combines information and skills through the use of the kinesthetic sensory system.

- This combination of skills allows the student to assimilate information and skills at a rapid rate. The basic tenets are:

  1) Understanding the spoken language before developing the skills of speaking.
  2) Imperatives are the main structures to transfer or communicate information.
  3) The student is not forced to speak, but is allowed an individual readiness period and allowed to spontaneously begin to speak when the he/she feels comfortable and confident in understanding and producing the utterances.
  4) Procedure:
  5) **Step I** The teacher says the commands as he himself
  6) performs the action.
  7) **Step 2** The teacher says the command as both the
  8) teacher and the students then perform the action.
  9) **Step 3** The teacher says the command but only
  10) Students perform the action

11) **Step 4** The teacher tells one student at a time to do

12) commands

13) **Step 5** The roles of teacher and student are reversed.

14) Students give commands to teacher and to otherstudents.

15) **Step 6** The teacher and student allow for command

16) Expansion or produces new sentences.

Communicative Language Teaching

The method stresses a means of organising a language syllabus. The emphasis is on breaking down the global concept of language into units of analysis in terms of communicative situations in which they are used.

- There is negotiation of meaning.
- A variety of language skills are involved
- Material is presented in context
- It pays attention to registers and styles in terms of situation and participants.
- Fluency and accuracy (different competencies)
- Form and functions
- Development of autonomous learners

Unit III

Research project in literature

How to Write a Research Paper in Literature

Literature review is a process of looking at what research has been done in a specific field of study. In this lesson, we will explore how to work through the process of performing and writing a literature review.

Purpose

Do you realise how much information is out there? You may have an original and brilliant idea that can be researched, but you have to know what is out there before you start something, because your original and brilliant idea may have already been done!

Literature review is the process and product of examining published material. The term is applied to both the act of reviewing published literature and the section of your own written work that discusses the research you did. Typically, this is the second section in a research article or book, after the introduction but before the methodology. This means that when a study is published, the literature review section will be included. The basic idea is you will review the literature in the field ('process') and then write a brief summary of the article and their findings ('product').

There are two reasons to perform a literature review. The first is found in the process of reading what is present in the field. You need to be familiar with the terminology of a field and what prior research and experiments relate to your own work. Maybe you can adapt your study to answer questions that others are having trouble with. The second reason is that writing down what is happening in the field gives readers a basic understanding of current research and points out the gap your research is going to fill.

Process

Literature reviews are simultaneously the easiest and most frustrating part of a research study to complete. The process is collecting professional information (easy) and then sifting through dozens or hundreds of articles to find a few dozen good ones (frustrating). We will get into some tricks on how to cut down on the useless articles a little later.

Most literature reviews are done using online services, such as PsycInfo or ScienceDirect. At the top are search bars allowing you to search topics as broad as 'Psychology' or as specific as 'Lysergic Acid Diethylamide Effects on Prenatal Rats.' Obviously, the more specific you get, the fewer articles you will find, but the percentage of useful articles will be higher.

You collect some relevant articles and kick out some of the useless ones. Now you have to write your literature review. You will read, not skim, your chosen articles and look for relevant information to your study in the article's methods, results, and discussion. In your literature review, you'll include a very brief summary of the most relevant and interesting parts of the research you read about. Sometimes you will focus only on the results, sometimes it will be on the study's participants, and sometimes it will just be what the researchers missed or didnot look at.

Tricks

In case you ever have to do a literature review, there are a couple of tricks that come with experience. These are a few things to keep in mind if you plan on earning an advanced degree in psychology (masters or higher) because you will likely write a dissertation or thesis in graduate school:

Look for alternate ways to say the same thing.

Donot be afraid to expand your search – a paper focussed on learning may need information on topics relating vision as well.

Use multiple databases.

It is easy to burn out, so pace yourself with one to three articles a day. In one week, that's 7-21.

Lesson Summary

A literature review is a process and product of examining published material. It is typically the second section in a research article or project. It involves locating articles and information relevant to your topic and then summarizing what you've found.

The difference between a research paper and a paper for which no research is done is both simple(in that one uses research, while the other doesnot) and complex. A non-research paper is about a text and you, the writer and your skills as a reader of a text. A research paper, on the other hand, can be about that and something larger. Critic Kenneth Burke describes it as an engagement in a conversation that may stretch back thousands of years and include any number of other scholarly voices. You contribute to that conversation by making yourself an informed participant in it. You become not just a careful reader of the text in question, but a historian of that text's life. Youknow when it was born, who its friends and enemies were, what it accomplished for better or forworse, and how it has been remembered by those who came after it. In knowing those things andcontributing to the conversation about the text, you keep it alive—not just the text, but theconversation, which is probably even more important. This conversation is never really justabout the text. It's also always about what we read, how we read, why we read, and what wevalue.

Step 1: Select a field of inquiry and develop a working hypothesis

If you read carefully, you will notice things in a text: a recurring theme or style of writingor structure that seems to ask to be explained. Pick a text that interests you, or a themethat you see operating in more than one text. What is it about this theme that seemsimportant to the text? In what ways does understanding this one particular theme allow usto explain other, perhaps even larger, issues in the text? For the purposes of this exercise,we will use the example of the theme of social mobility in Honoré de Balzac's *Père Goriot*.

The novel is chock full of social climbers. Why? How is social climbing used in theResearch Paper strategies? How is it described? Who tries to climb, and what does the novel do to those who try to climb? Before you look at what others have said about it, you will have your own ideas, your own working hypothesis. You may have noticed that social climbing is often compared to very violent acts, even murder. You may also have noticed that nothing good happens to the social climbers—they end up broke and scandalised. Based on those observations about the depiction of social mobility in the novel, we can generate a hypothesis.

Let us say we believe that: by using the vocabulary of violence and imperialism to describe upward mobility in *Père Goriot*, and by showing the horrible fates of upwardly mobile characters like Goriot and Anastasie, Balzac asks his reader to be judgmental ofthose who would climb the social ladder. There is our thesis, but it is just a working hypothesis for now.

Step 2: Gather your sources

A. What else has been written about the theme of social mobility in Honoré deBalzac's *Père Goriot*?On social mobility in Balzac's work in general? If no onehas written on this particular theme, either in *Père Goriot* or in Balzac's otherworks, are there critical essays or books that *do* discuss this theme as it appears intexts by other authors, or discuss this theme in general? Do scholars from otherfields—history, anthropology, economics, political science—have anything tocontribute to this debate?

Step 3: Do your research.

A. Read through the sources you've collected. Pay attention to interesting arguments,especially as they relate to your project or where they seem to offer competingideas about Balzac's novel. Pay special attention to moments of close reading bythese other critics, above all close readings of the same passages or chapters orcharacters you hope to address in the novel.

B. Take notes in a way that feels comfortable and thorough to you. Use this as achance to begin your conversation with the authors you're reading. Here's anexample of some notes I took on Carlo Ginzburg's essay on *Goriot*. Anything outof brackets is a quote from Ginzburg; anything in brackets is my paraphrasing ofGinzburg or my preliminary questions about his take on the novel. Where I amquoting Ginzburg quoting someone else, I try to note whose words are whose,because I will need to know, if I plan to use this in my paper.

Ginzburg, Carlo. "To Kill a Chinese Mandarin: The Moral Implications of Distance."

Wooden Eyes: Nine Reflections on Distance. Trans. Martin Ryle and Kate Soper.

New York: Columbia UP, 2001. 157-72.

[quotes Aristotle's Rhetoric on the "chronological and geographical limits of pityand envy" (159, G's words)]

[Diderot's Entretien d'un père avec ses enfants is quoted: "The murderertransported to the coast of China is too far away to make out the corpse he has leftbleeding on the banks of the Seine" (161, D's words)]

"This turning inward takes place across a geographical space—the distance fromFrance to China—infinitely wider than the Mediterranean world Aristotle wrote of.

But why China?" (162) [G does not really ever give us an answer. Why?]

Of course, you donot have to be this thorough, but it is helpful. If you will beable to keep the materials from the library for the duration of your paper-writing,you can bookmark the relevant passages (in a non-destructive way, like with aPost-It). The advantage of writing them down, though, is that you will alwayshave them, and if you type them into a computer they are also searchable.

C. Be alert for patterns in the *reception* (the critical appraisals) of the work you arewriting on. Does everybody tend to see certain aspects of *Père Goriot* the sameway you do? Who agrees with you, and who doesn't? Are there dissenting casescompelling enough to make you re-think parts of your hypothesis?

Research Paper strategies

If you come across a consistent pattern of reception, and your take on the textchallenges that pattern or even just highlights inadequacies in it, you havesomething even more substantial to contribute to the debate: You have anargument that could change how this text is viewed by future scholars.

D. You should know, too, that sifting through other scholars' work is scholarship allthe same, **even if you find nothing that you feel is related to your thesis.** Part of thework of research is confronting dead ends, just like in the laboratory; if anexperiment doesnot work, you've eliminated a possibility, and that is a job welldone. Much of what you look at might not help your case, but knowing that fact is

also useful information. It allows you to say things like "Scholars have largelyneglected the manner in which Balzac's novel does blah blah blah…" You knowof a certainty that you have something new to contribute.

Step 4: Make a mental map

A. What's the map?

We have already mentioned, in our thesis above, a few things we'll need todiscuss in order to demonstrate it effectively:

1. the vocab of violence and how it relates to upward mobility;
2. the vocab of imperialism and how it relates to upward mobility;
3. the fate of the upwardly-mobile Goriot;
4. and the fate of the upwardly-mobile Anastasie.

We can begin by listing those four subtopics as areas we will have to develop.

B. Types of maps

I prefer to use an outline, but other ways of visualizing the relationship and orderof these parts to each other—and to your argument's whole—can work just aswell. If this were an outline, under each of the subtopics we could list the relevantquotes from the novel *and from the reception*, so that we can begin creating ourown discussion of the topic. Our discussion of the topic will demonstrate anawareness not just of how the topic is treated in the novel but also of how otherscholars have treated the topic or the passages that we'll be reading closely.

C. Why the map?

This mental map is not just for you, because this paper is not just for you. Whileoutlines can be particularly useful for us as writers as we approach the writing ofthe paper, they're probably even more helpful for the reader who will have tocome along and read our paper; the more clearly you write, and the moreorganised your argument is, the easier a time your audience will have followingit, and the more persuasive and productive it can be.

Research Paper Strategies

Think of your audience as afriend you've sent into your room to find a sock for you. If your room is messyand things are all over the place, Good luck. You will never see your sock. If yourroom is organized and uncluttered—if it's well outlined—your friend andaudience will see what you want them to, and your sock will be found.

Step 5: Start writing

A. Begin by writing your intro, and then move through your outline. Donot be afraid,as you move through your writing, to jump back and re-develop earlierparagraphs if you uncover connections you didn't see previously that can supportyour case. Donot be afraid to present views of critics who disagree with you;explain very diplomatically why your reading of the novel is more accurate thantheirs or what their reading might overlook or conceal. You can also simply agreeto disagree, and this is typically done in a footnote or endnote: "So-and-so offers adifferent reading of this passage by arguing that blah blah blah." You have doneyour due diligence in reporting the difference of opinion, and you can leave it toyour reader to look at the other side of it, if she or he is curious.

B. The paragraph is a perfect piece of technology, beautifully developed overmillennia to package one important point supported by a few persuasive momentsof close reading or argument. Ask yourself, as you move through your supportingparagraphs, which main point each paragraph is making. If you can't answer thatquestion—the question of what each paragraph contributes to the movement ofyour argument—then a reader will likely not be able to answer it either. Andwhen you lose your reader, you have lost your case.

Be attentive, too, to moments of possible connective thought between and acrossparagraphs. Does something you're arguing about Anastasie's upward mobilityrelate to that of Goriot? Mention it. This might be the start of seeing a largerpattern, and it might further allow you to show your audience that there issomething consistent and systematic in Balzac's larger picture of Paris. If the goal
of a critic/scholar is to point to some interesting coherence in a text (or, in thecase of some avant-garde authors, to show the purpose of incoherence), then all of
these possible patterns might be useful.

Step 6: Once Again, with Feeling

In "Little Gidding," T.S. Eliot writes: "We shall not cease from exploration,/and the endof all our exploring/will be to arrive where we started/and know the place for the firsttime."
The introductory paragraphs should be the first thing we start writing and the last thingwe finish. By the end of our paper, we certainly will have strayed a bit from our original**working**hypothesis. Because our introduction is meant to introduce what follows, we willneed to re-work it to make sure that it ably and accurately announces what we have done.
Research Paper strategies
We may also have better perspective on our argument now, and thus a better awarenessof how to prepare a reader for that argument with a clear introduction.
Step 7: Give It a Name

Your title can be clever or straightforward—that's totally up to you, the author—but itshould, at the very least, give us an indication of what the paper is about. If you arefocussing on a particular author, name her in the title. If you are focusing on one or twotexts, name them and their authors in the title. If, by the end of your introduction, yourreader should have a thumbnail sketch of your larger argument, then your reader shouldsimilarly be able to glean from the title a sense of the paper's main interests.

Sample Proposal

Name

Date

Course

PROPOSAL: "Violence and Social Climbing in Honoré de Balzac's *Père Goriot*"

In this paper, I want to examine Honoré de Balzac's depiction of upward mobility in his novel,*Père Goriot*. It is obviously a major preoccupation of the novel, because the plot focuses on theprotagonist Rastignac's desire to move up in Parisian society. As Brodsky Lacour argues in herarticle, Rastignac's quest is motivated both by romantic desire and by his being easily seducedby ideas of money and power in the city, but Balzac's narrative continually chooses disturbing

words to describe this quest.

The criminal Vautrin's parable of the "Chinese mandarin" (109)offers an idea of upward mobility as a zero-sum game; for one person to rise, Vautrin implies,another must suffer. Ginzburg's essay explores this but does not connect it thoroughly to othermoments in the novel that are clearly related. Elsewhere, too, Balzac uses images of violence(the duel with Taillefer, for example) to paint upward mobility in a negative light. Vautrin'sattitude toward slavery (which had already been abolished in the French empire by the time thenovel takes place) adds, to the general vocabulary of violence, the more specific idea ofimperialism, which is critiqued elsewhere in the novel.

In addition, Balzac portrays for uscharacters who have already attempted upward mobility and failed. In the case of Goriot, he ispunished when his daughters turn their backs on him; Anastasie is similarly duped when herhusband leaves her bankrupt. By depicting upward mobility as a violent and imperialistic act,and by showing its effects on people who have tried it before, Balzac questions the attemptedrise of the protagonist, Rastignac. In so doing, Balzac suggests a more rigid understanding ofsocial class and of the boundaries between the classes.

Review of Literature for Research

Examining a body of literature toward the answer to a research question

Literature means writings and a body of literature refers to all the published writings in a particular style on a particular subject.

In research, a body of literature is a collection of published information and data relevant to a research question.

The research question. Often referred to as the research problem, the research question provides the context for the research study and reveals what the researcher is trying to answer.

The paper must answer clearly, “What is the problem?” and “Why do I care?” At the same time, stating the problem precisely limits the scope of the research project by focusing on certain elements. It lets you show why those variables are important.

The statement of the problem is the first part of the paper to be read after the title and abstract. It's like a lead on a newspaper story. It hooks the reader and gives context to what follows.

The literature review. A review of the literature is an essential part of your academic research project. The review is a careful examination of a body of literature pointing toward the answer to your research question.

Literature reviewed typically includes scholarly journals, scholarly books, authoritative databases and primary sources. Sometimes it includes newspapers, magazines, other books, films, and audio and video tapes, and other secondary sources.

Primary sources are the origin of information under study, fundamental documents relating to a particular subject or idea. Often they are first hand accounts written by a witness or researcher at the time of an event or discovery. These may be accessible as physical publications, as publications in electronic databases, or on the Internet.

Secondary sources are documents or recordings that relate to or discuss information originally presented elsewhere. These, too, may be accessible as physical objects or electronically in databases or on the Internet.

All good research and writing is guided by a review of the relevant literature. Your literature review will be the mechanism by which your research is viewed as a cumulative process. That makes it an integral component of the scientific process.

Why do it? The purpose of the literature review remains the same regardless of the research method you use. It tests your research question against what already is known about your subject.

Through the literature review you will discover whether your research question already has been answered by someone else. If it has, you must change or modify your question.

Considering your question. If you find that your research question has not been answered satisfactorily by someone else, then search for these answers:

What is known about my subject?

What is the chronology of the development of knowledge about my subject?

Are there any gaps in knowledge of my subject? Which openings for research have been identified by other researchers? How do I intend to bridge the gaps?

Is there a consensus on relevant issues? Or is there significant debate on issues? What are the various positions?

What is the most fruitful direction I can see for my research as a result of my literature review? What directions are indicated by the work of other researchers?

Remember that nothing is completely black or white. Only you can determine what is satisfactory, relevant, significant or important in the context of your own research.

Mechanics of a Literature Review

Your literature review will have two components:

A search through the literature

Writing of the review

Obviously, the search is the first step. However, you must remember that you love knowledge and that academic databases can be seductive. You could spend untold hours clicking around the bibliographies of your favorite collections. You may have fun, but you might not advance your literature review.

The solution? Have your research question written down and at hand when you arrive at the computer to search databases or a library catalog. Prepare in advance a plan and a preset time limit.

Finding too much? If you find so many citations that there is no end in sight to the number of references you could use, its time to re-evaluate your question. It's too broad.

Finding too little? On the other hand, if you can't find much of anything, ask yourself if you're looking in the right area. Your topic is too narrow.

Leading edge research. What if you are trying to research an area that seems never to have been examined before? Be systematic. Look at journals that print abstracts in that subject area to get an overview of the scope of the available literature. Then, your search could start from a general source, such as a book, and work its way from those references to the specific topic you want. Or, you could start with a specific source, such as a research paper, and work from that author's references. There is no one single best approach.

Take thorough notes. Be sure to write copious notes on everything as you proceed through your research. It's very frustrating when you can't find a reference found earlier that now you want to read in full.

It is not hard to open up a blank text document in WordPad (Windows) or TextEdit (Macintosh) to keep a running set of notes during a computer search session. Just jump back and forth between the Web browser screen and the notepad screen.

Using resources wisely. Practice makes perfect. Learn how and then use the available computer resources properly and efficiently. Log onto the Internet frequently. Visit your research resources regularly. Play with the discipline resources. Enter the databases. Scope out the reference desk materials.

Identify publications. Which print abstracts of articles and books in your subject area. Look for references to papers from which you can identify the most useful journals. Identify those authors who seem to be important in your subject area. Identify keywords in your area of interest to help when you need to narrow and refine database searches. Read online library catalogs to find available holdings. Be sure to write copious notes on everything.

Getting ready to write. Eventually, a broad picture of the literature in your subject area – an overview – will begin to emerge. Then it is time to review your notes and begin to draft your literature review. But, where to start?

Suppose you have several WordPad or TextEdit files full of notes you've written. And a dozen real books and copies of three dozen journal articles. Pile them on a table and sit down. Turn to your research question. Write it out again at the head of a list of the various keywords and authors that you have uncovered in your search. Do any pairings or groupings pop out at you? You now are structuring or sketching out the literature review which is the first step in writing a research paper, thesis or dissertation.

Writing the lit review. One draft won't cut it. Plan from the outset to write and rewrite. Naturally, you will crave a sense of forward momentum, so don't get bogged down. Don't restrict yourself to writing the review in a linear fashion from start to finish. If one area of the writing is proving difficult, jump to another part.

Edit and rewrite. Your goal is to communicate effectively and efficiently the answer you found to your research question in the literature. Edit your work so it is clear and concise. If you will be writing an abstract and introduction, leave them for the last.

Communicating ideas is the objective of your writing, so make it clear, concise and consistent. Big words and technical terms are not clear to everyone. They make it hard for all readers to understand your writing. Consider their use very carefully and substitute a 50-cent word for a $5 word wherever possible.

Style and writing guides are worth browsing if you are unsure how to approach writing. Always re-read what you have written. Get someone else to read it. Read it aloud to see how it sounds to your ear. Then revise and rewrite.

Writing the conclusion. Throughout your written review, you should communicate your new knowledge by combining the research question you asked with the literature you reviewed. End your writing with a conclusion that wraps up what you learned in the literature review process.

While the interaction between the research question and the relevant literature is foreshadowed throughout the review, it usually is written at the very end. The interaction itself is a learning process that gives researchers new insight into their area of research. The conclusion should reflect this.

Project Writing

Practice and experience are probably the most essential factors. During the making ofone's first project, it is particularly important to gain some practical experience in how towork in a group, how to search for literature and find the necessary material, how to workwhile being pressed for time, and how to take an exam. For example, one will probablyexperience that is important to begin the search for literature early on in the process; thatone works better with some fellow students and not so well with others; that it is crucial tohave a schedule for the completion of the project, and so on. Upon the completion of thefirst project, one is now able to focus increasingly on academic and methodologicaldemands.

The Phases of the Project

Project work is characterized by being a problem-oriented process of realization ratherthan being purely a knowledge acquisition. Usually, the process of realization consists oftwo parts. The first part takes its point of departure in a lack of knowledge in relation toone's surroundings, that is, one wonders about something, which is different from whatone expected, or, which turns out to be different from what one would expect. Thiswondering may result in the formulation of a problem that is to be dealt with. The secondpart consists of thinking through the steps that are needed to take in order to investigateand potentially 'solve' the problem. The realization, then, occurs in the interplay betweenactions and thought, where one carefully considers one's actions and acts according toone's thought process.

As a result of this interaction between action and thought, a number of processes usuallyoccur in project work, which correlate in certain ways. The succession of the processesreflects that they enter into an overall process of realization. The project's different phasesmay, thus, be compared to a spiral, inasmuch as understandings gained during the processmay prompt the re-evaluation of previous understandings.

Here it must be emphasized that the phases should not be perceived as a cooking recipefrom which one cannot diverge. Rather, they should be regarded as guidelines forunderstanding the processes one passes through in the course of writing a project, and theyshould provide an indication of where the student is situated in the process at a givenmoment. In general terms, the different phases are described as follows:

Introduction and Choosing a Topic

The group is formed, and each group member presents their knowledge and interests.Potential project topics are discussed. The topic should, of course, be relevant to thestudent's academic program and must fall inside the framework of the curriculum. It maysometimes be tempting to choose a topic, which is cutting-edge and therefore interesting. Itis important, however, to keep in mind that an interesting or cutting-edge topic does notnecessarily prompt a good problem formulation.

When the group has decided on a topic, the students start putting together their firstmaterials. In this initial phase, one should try to find material, which bears an overallrelevance to the topic. The main purpose of finding and reading the initial material is toacquire a general understanding of the topic and to think up interesting questions inrelation to it. If the student discovers at an early point in the process that material relatingto his or her topic is difficult to come by, a reconsideration of the topic may be necessary.

Choosing a Problem

Based on the collected information and material, this provides a general understanding ofthe chosen topic, which one then is able to formulate a 'problem'. Often, this formulationoccurs through a process during which the individual group members discuss whichaspects of the topic they are interested in and what they find to be 'problematic' aboutthem in connection with the project. The 'problem' is, in other words, the identifiedaspects of the topic that the group wants to investigate and account for in their projectreport. Furthermore, a 'good' problem points to contradictions in the group's surroundings– contradictions that cause one to 'wonder'.

Problem Formulation

The chosen problem is formulated in writing in a manner which makes it possible to workwith it in the context of the project. Here, it is important to limit the problem as much aspossible. The formulation of the problem should be as precise as it can possible be at thisstage. The group should make it clear from which point of view the investigation of theproblem is going to be conducted.

The Planning Phase

The rest of the project is planned. The group decides on a methodology and a theoreticalframework and finds more specific material that is directly related to the 'problem'. Thegroup makes an outline of the structure of the project, that is, which themes, questions andsub-questions they think should be part of the project. The group draws up a workschedule and specifically agrees on "who does what and when?"

The Completion Phase

In the completion phase, the group tries to analyse its material in relation to the 'problem'.This means, among other things, that it should try to summarise the arguments anddocumentation found in the material. The group also considers whether the material isreliable and relevant in relation to the problem. In other words, the group attempts to relatecritically to the material in an objective manner and perhaps combine it in new ways thanpreviously. There should be a continuous evaluation of what the members of the group doand why (cf. the problem formulation). The group should meet regularly and draw upworking papers and presentations to be discussed – both internally in the group and/or withthe group's adviser. If the group should encounter something unforeseen and/orcompletely unknown, it might be necessary to return to the problem formulation phase orthe planning phase.

The Presentation Phase

In this phase, the group presents its achieved realization in the shape of the project report.Clear and coherent argumentation and satisfying documentation are emphasized asimportant features. A 'good' report is characterised, among other things, by the logicalcoherence of the text, that is: basic knowledge before the discussion, clarifications andprerequisites before subordinate aspects. It is crucial to argue and document one'sconclusions and results. This can be done, for example, by including examples from thematerial, using references, make comparisons, or draw up tables and graphsthat illustrate one's points. If it turns out that some parts of the problem analysis do notcontribute in any substantial manner to the overall realization, it is important to state thisexplicitly such as to demonstrate that one, through analysis, have gained new insights andknowledge. This type of realisation is typically placed in a preliminary conclusion, in thefinal conclusion, or in a section at the end of the report, which puts the overall realisationin perspective.

The Evaluation Phase

Since as the evaluation of a project in most cases is conducted in the form of an oralproject exam this will most likely be perceived as a form of control than as an actualproject phase. Ideally, however, this final phase of the project should occasion newquestions and problems, as well as identify where it is considered proper to institute newinvestigations.

The Problem Formulation

Metaphorically speaking, working with the problem formulation might be described as afunnel. Beginning at the top with a general idea about what one's wants to engage in, thisidea is then narrowed down to a topic, which is finally specified as a concrete problem anda problem formulation.However simple this may sound, it is in fact a rather complicated process, in which thegroup argues for and against different ideas and topics and different ways of solving agiven problem. Mostly all members of a group have innumerable ideas as to what thegroup can write about. The most difficult part is often to agree on a topic and a problem.Sometimes, however, it may be difficult for the group to think of a topic, which mightconclude in a problem. In such cases it may be worthwhile to try brainstorming.Brainstorming means that the students set aside time (for example 20 minutes) duringwhich they write down all ideas and thoughts which might be relevant to the topic.

Corrections and deletions in connection with brainstorming are banned. It is often easiest ifone member of the group writes everything down on the chalkboard such that the wholegroup can be continuously inspired by new ideas.This method may also be used if it is difficult to start writing. In this connection,brain storming should be less focused on thinking up brilliant ideas, and more focused onwriting something down on paper which can be corrected or used as a starting point for awell-structured and well-thought-out text.At any rate, it is important to spend quite some time on the problem formulation. Often, the case is that groups that do not spend enough time on the problem formulation, whichresults in problems such as disagreements between the group members as to where theproject is going or how to 'substantialize' it. However, if the problem formulation is clear,the group will know where the project is going and how group members' individualcontributions are to fit into the project at large. Thus, there is a unifying principle in thework.

Topic or Problem

When beginning the writing of the actual problem formulation, it is important to distinguish between topic and problem, or *topic-orientation* and *problem-orientation*.Simply put, topic-orientation is descriptive, and one will typically work based onformulations such as "write about" or "describe." Problem-orientation, on the other hand,is pointed toward identifying and solving a problem, and here the work is based typicallyon questions such as "how" and "why." One identifies a problem and decides on differentapproaches and possible ways of tackling the problem and (hopefully) reaching realisation or solution to the problem. The student establishes connections, produce newknowledge or new questions – he or she transgresses, so to speak, existing knowledge.

In order to write a good problem-oriented project, it is crucial to think of a problemformulation that is transparent and unambiguous, or, in other words, it is crucial to knowwhich problem one wants to solve and how it is going to be solved. It is important todelimit the problem formulation to the extend that it functions as a navigation tool for theselection of relevant material. Otherwise, far too much time will be spend locating andacquiring knowledge which then later on might prove to be of little or no relevance to theproject.It is important to remember that, no matter how ambitious one is or how much time one iswilling to spend on the project, only a small part of the selected problem will be clarified.Therefore, the problem formulation should specify which point of view the group is goingto take. For example, should a project about Denmark's export to Germany be writtenfrom a socio-economic, an intercultural, or a market-oriented point of view?

Unit IV

Language teaching methods

To presume to define *language* adequately would be a folly. A definition is really a condensed version of a theory, and a theory is simply – or not so simply – an extended definition. Consider the following definitions of *language* found in dictionaries and introductory textbooks:

- Language is a system of arbitrary, vocal symbols which permit all people in a given culture, or other people who have learned the system of that culture, to communicate or interact (Finocchario 1964:8)
- Language is a system of communication by sound, operating through the organs of speech and hearing, among members of a given community, and using vocal symbols possessing arbitrary conventional meanings (Pei 1966:141)
- Language is any set or symbols of linguistic symbols as used in a more or less uniform fashion by a number of people who are thus enabled to communicate intelligibly with one another (Random House Dictionary of the English Language 1966:806).
- Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for human communication (Wardhaugh 1972:3).
- [Language is] any means, vocal or other, of expressing or communicating feeling or thought ... a system of conventionalized signs, especially words or gestures having fixed meanings. (Webster's New International Dictionary of the English Language 1934:1390).
- [Language is] a systematic means of communicating ideas or feelings by the use of conventionalized signs, sounds, gestures, or marks having

understood meanings (Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language 1961:1270)

Still other common definitions found in introductory textbooks on linguistics include the concepts of:

1. the generativity or creativity of language
2. the presumed primacy of speech over writing
3. the universality of language among human beings

Many of the significant characteristics of language are capsulized in these definitions. Some of the controversies about the nature of language are also illustrated through the limitations that are implied in certain definitions.

A consolidation of the definitions of language yields the following composite definition:

1. Language is systematic and generative.
2. Language is a set of arbitrary symbols.
3. Those symbols are primarily vocal, but may also be visual.
4. The symbols have conventionalized meanings to which they refer.
5. Language is used for communication.
6. Language operates in a speech community or culture.
7. Language is essentially human, although possibly not limited to humans.
8. Language is acquired by all people in much the same way - language and language learning both have universal characteristics.

Enormous fields and subfields, year-long university courses, are suggested in each of the eight categories. Consider some of these possible areas:

1. Explicit and formal accounts of the system of language on several possible levels (most commonly syntactic, semantic, and phonological).
2. The symbolic nature of language; the relationship between language and reality; the philosophy of language; the history of language.
3. Phonetics; phonology; writing systems; kinesics; proxemics; and other "paralinguistic" features of language.
4. Semantic; language and cognition; psycholinguistics.
5. Communication systems; speaker-hearer interaction; sentence processing.
6. Dialectology; sociolinguistics; language and culture; bilingualism and second language acquisition.
7. Human language and nonhuman communication; the physiology of language.
8. Language universals; first language acquisition.

Can foreign language teachers effectively teach a language if they do not know, even generally, something about the relationship between language and cognition, writing systems, nonverbal communication, sociolinguistics, and first language acquisition, just to name a few items at random? The **TESOL** (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) organisation, in its *Guidelines for the Certification and Preparation of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages in the United States* (1975), cited the necessity for the teacher to "understand the nature of language, the fact of language varieties - social, regional, and functional, the structure and development of the English language system".

Learning and Teaching

What is *learning* and what is *teaching* and how do they interact? A search in contemporary dictionaries reveals that **learning** is "acquiring or getting of knowledge of a subject or a skill by study, experience, or instruction." A more specialised definition might read as follows: "**Learning**, is relatively permanent change in behavioural tendency and is the result of reinforced practice" (Kimble and Garmezy 1963:133). **Teaching** may be defined as "showing or helping someone to learn how to do something, giving instructions, guiding in the study of something, providing with knowledge, causing to know or understand." Breaking down the components of the definition of learning, we can extract, as we did with language, domains of research and inquiry:

1. Learning is acquiring or "getting."
2. Learning is retention of information or skill.
3. Retention implies storage systems, memory, cognitive organisation.
4. Learning involves active, conscious focus on and acting upon events outside or inside the organism.
5. Learning is relatively permanent but subject to forgetting.
6. Learning involves some form of practice, perhaps reinforced practice.
7. Learning is a change in behaviour.

Teaching cannot be defined apart from learning.Nathan Gage(1964:269) noted that "to satisfy the practical demands of education, theories of learning must be 'stood on their head' so as to yield theories of teaching." Teaching is guiding and facilitating learning, enabling the learner to learn, setting the conditions for learning. If, like B.F. Skinner, you look at learning as a process of operant conditioning through a carefully paced program of reinforcement,

you will teach accordingly. If you view second language learning basically as a deductive rather than an inductive process, you will probably to choose present copious rules and paradigms to your students rather than let them "discover" those rules inductively.
Jerome Bruner(1966b:40-41) noted that a theory of instruction should specify the following features:

1. The experiences which most effectively implant in the individual a predisposition toward learning,
2. The ways in which a body of knowledge should be structured so that it can be most readily grasped by learner
3. The most effective sequences in which to present the materials to be learned
4. The nature and pacing rewards and punishments in the process of learning and teaching.

Trends in Linguistics and Psychology

While the general definitions of language, learning, and teaching offered here might meet with the approval of most linguists, psychologists, and educators, you can find point of vast disagreement upon a little probing of the components of each definition. For example, is language a "set of habits" or a "system of internalised rules?" Differing viewpoints emerge from equally knowledgeable linguists and psychologists.

Yet with all the possible disagreements among linguists and among psychologists, the two disciplines themselves are not that far apart. A historical glance back through the last few decades of linguistic and psychological research reveals some rather striking parallels in the philosophies and approaches of the two disciplines. Psychologists in the 1940s and 1950s were predominantly committed to a *behaviouristic* mode of thinking - or even "neo-behaviouristic" - while more recent decades have brought increasing attention to *cognitive* psychology.

In 1940s and 1950s the *structural*, or *descriptive* schools of linguistics, with its advocates –Leonard Bloomfield, Edward Sapir, Charles Hockett, Charles Fries,and others – prided itself in a rigorous application of the scientific principle of *observation* of human languages. The linguist's task, according to the structuralist, was to describe human led to the unchecked rush of linguists to the far reaches of the earth to write grammars of exotic languages.Freeman Twaddell(1935:57) stated this principle in perhaps its most extreme terms.

"Whatever our attitude toward mind, spirit, soul, etc., as realities, we must agree that the scientist proceeds as though there were no such things, as though all his information were acquired through processes of his physiological nervous system. Insofar as he occupies himself with physical, nonmaterial forces, the scientist is not scientist. The scientific method is quite simply the convention that mind does not exist..."

Such attitudes prevail in Skinner'sthought, particularly in *Verbal Behaviour* (1957), in which he says that any notion of "idea" or "meaning" is explanatory fiction, and that the speaker is merely the locus of verbal behaviour, not the cause.Charles Osgoodreinstated meaning in verbal behaviour, explaining it as a representational mediation process," but still did not depart from a generally nonmentalistic view of language.

In 1960s the generative-transformational school of linguistics emerged through the influence ofNoam Chomsky. What Chomsky was trying to show is that language (not language) cannot be scrutinized simply in terms of observable stimuli and responses or the volumes of raw data gathered by field linguists. The generative linguist is interested not only in describing language or achieving the level of *descriptive* adequacy but also in arriving at an *explanatory* level of adequacy in the study of language – that is, a “principled basis, independent of any particular language, for the selection of the descriptively adequate grammar of each language” (Chomsky, 1964:63)

The “scientific method” was rigorously adhered to, and therefore such concepts as consciousness and intuition were reagrded as “mentalistic,” illegitimate domains of inquiry. The unreliability of observation of states of consciousness, thinking, concept of formation, or the acquisition of knowledge made such topics impossible to examine in a behavourisitc framework. Typical behaviouristic models were classical and operant conditioning, rote verbal learning, instrumental learning, and discrimination learning. You are familiar with the classical experiments with Pavlov's dog and Skinne’'s boxes - these too typify the position that organisms can be conditioned to respond in desired ways, given the correct degree and scheduling of reinforcement.

Cognitive psychologists, on the other hand, take a contrasting theoretical stance. Meaning, understanding, and knowing are significant data for psychological study. Instead of focusing rather mechanistically on stimulus-response connections, cognitivist try to discover psychological *principles* of organization and functioning.David Ausubel(1965:4) noted: “From the standpoint of cognitive theorists, that attempt to ignore conscious states or to reduce cognition to mediational processes reflective of implicit behaviour not only removes from the field of psychology what is most worth of studying but also dangerously oversimplifies highly complex psychological phonomena.” By using a *rationalistic* approach instead of a strictly *empirical* approach, cognitive psychologists, like generative linguists, have sought to discover underlying motivations and deeper structures of human behaviour; going beyond descriptive to explanatory power has taken on utmost importance.

Table 1-1 summarises concepts and approaches germane to each of the two polarised theories that have been presented here. The table may help to pinpoint certain broad ideas that are associated with the respective positions.

TABLE 1-1 Linguistic-Psychological Parallels

SCHOOLS OF PSYCHOLOGY	**SCHOOLS OF LINGUISTICS**	**CHARACTERISTICS**
Behaviouristic	**Structural** **Descriptive**	Repetition and reinforcement Learning, conditioning Stimulus - response Publicly observable responses Empiricism Scientific method Performance Surface structure Description - "what"

Cognitive	**Generative** **Transformational**	Analysis and insight Acquisition and insight Acquisition, innateness States of consciousness Rationalism Process Mentalism, intuition Competence Deep structure Explanation - "why"

Applied Linguistics

Applied linguistics has been considered a subset of linguistics for several decades, and it has been interpreted to mean the applications of linguistics principles or theories to certain more or less practical matters (Brown 1976b, Kaplan, et al. 1981).

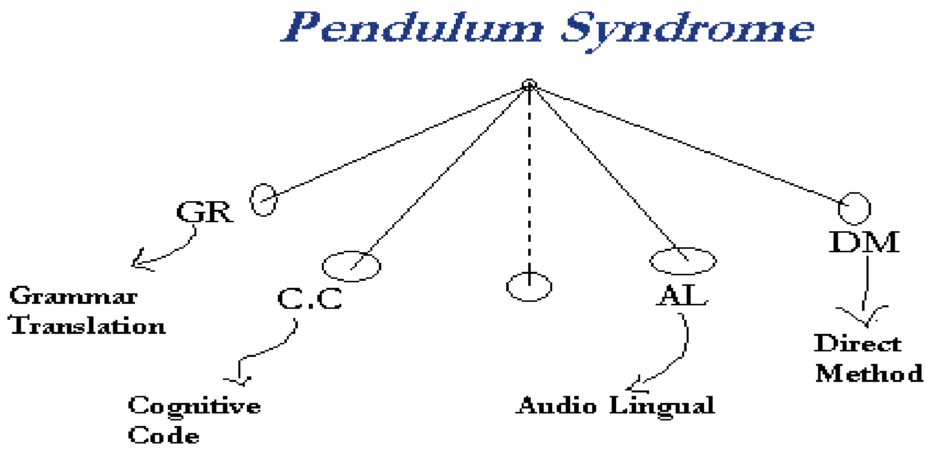
Second language teaching and teaching of reading, composition, and language arts in the native language are typical areas of practical application. In studies of phonetics, nonverbal, communication, and semantics, dialectology, first language acquisition, the psychology of language, and second language acquisition, there is much that is theoretical – that is, much that bears on seeking an extended definition of language. Some might argue that the devising of explicit and formal accounts of linguistic systems is surely theoretical; however, semantics, speaker-hearer interaction, and communication system are important in any consideration of the nature of the linguistic system.

Reacting to the common British usage of the term “applied linguistics” (in which case the term is almost synonymous with “language teaching’),Corder(1973:10) differentiated applied linguistics and language teaching, and went on to note that “the applied linguist is a consumer, or user, not a producer, of theories.” Psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics, once very clearly considered to be “applied” areas, now just as clearly overlap both the applied and theoretical domains.

Theory and Methods

Teaching methods are the application of theoretical finding and positions. They may be thought of as “theories in practice.”

Albert Marckwardt(1972:5) saw these "changing winds and shifting sands" as a cyclical pattern in which a new paradigm (to useKuhn’s term) of teaching methodology emerged about every quarter of a century, with each new method breaking from the old but at the same time taking with it some of the positive aspects of the previous paradigm. One of the best examples of the cyclical nature of methods is seen in the revolutionary Audiolingual Method (**ALM**) of the late 1940s and 1950s. The **ALM** borrowed tenets from its predecessor by almost half a century, the Direct Method, While breaking away entirely from the Grammar-Translation paradigm. Within a short time, however, **ALM** critics were advocating more attention to rules and to the “cognitive code” of language, which, to some, echoed of a return to Grammar Translation.



The same era has seen linguists searching ever more deeply for the answers to the nature of communication and communicative competence and for explanations of the interactive process of language. The language teaching profession has responded to these theoretical trends with methods that stress the importance of self-esteem, of students cooperatively learning together, of developing individual strategies for success, and above all of focusing on the *communicative* process is language learning.

In The Classroom: The Grammar Translation Method

Latin was taught by means of what has been called the **Classical Method**: focus on grammatical rules, memorization of vocabulary and of various declensions and conjugations, translation of texts, doing written exercise. Languages were not being taught primarily to learn oral/aural communication but to learn for the sake of being "scholarly" or, in some instances, for gaining a reading proficiency in a foreign language.

In the 19th century the **Classical Methods** came to be known as the **Grammar Translation Method**. Prator and Celce-Murcia(1979:3) list the major characteristics of Grammar Translation:

1. Classes are taught in the mother tongue, with little active use of the target language.
2. Much vocabulary is taught in the form of lists of isolated words.
3. Long elaborate explanations of the intricacies of grammar are given.
4. Grammar provides the rules for putting words together, and instruction often focuses on the form and inflection of words.
5. Reading of difficult classical texts in begun early.
6. Little attention is paid to the content of texts, which are treated as exercise in grammatical analysis.
7. Often the only drills are exercises in translating disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue.
8. Little or no attention is given to pronunciation.

It is remarkable, in one sense, that this method has been so stalwart among many competing models. It does virtually nothing to enhance a student's communicative ability in the language. It is “remembered with distaste by thousands of school learners, for whom foreign language learning meant a tedious experience of memorizing endless lists of unusable grammar rules and vocabulary and attempting to produce perfect translation of stilted or literary prose” (Richards and Rodgers 1986:4). However, in another sense, one can understand why **Grammar Translation** is so popular. It requires few specialized skills on the part of teachers. Test of grammar rules and of translations are easy to construct and can be objectively scored. Many standardised tests of foreign languages still do not attempt to tap into communicative abilities, so students have little motivations to go beyond grammar analogies, translations, and rote exercise. And it is sometimes successful in leading a student toward a *reading* knowledge of a second language. But, as Richards and Rodgers(1986:5) point out, “it has no advocates, it is a method for which there is no theory. There is no literature that offers a psychology, or educational theory.”

UNIT V

Novels and short stories (African and Western)

Bury Me at Zibalwe Village

I feel deeply grateful, Lord
To have been born when I was
Caring loving parents
Never experienced starvation
Never felt cold and hungry
Never experienced colonialism
Nor harsh pangs of slavery
Bury me at Zibalwe
In the cool swaying breeze
On the banks of the gorgeous Lundazi river

Feel deeply grateful to Zambia
The sweet country of my ancestors
Who paved the way
Endured pain and humiliation
The pangs of colonialism
Brutal Arab slave trade
Bury me at Zibalwe
Swift running fresh water
On the banks of the beautiful Lundazi river

Feel grateful to be
Riding through precarious
Manenekela steep escarpment

The chugging persistent sound
The melodic whistle of the steam engine
The Njanje train from Broken Hill to Bancroft
From Kabwe to Chililabombwe
Bury me at Zibalwe
In the sweet breeze of
Savannah grassland Zambia
The swift current of fresh water
ON the bank of the Lundazi river
Feel deeply grateful to friends
Made life in precious Zambia
The best it could be
The majestic Lusaka Cathedral
Delicious nshima at Luburma
Ice cream at Zambu snack Bar
The live music at Zanimuone
Mimba tiye in Chipata
Golden Peacock in Kitwe
Throbbing dancers at Barn Motel
Bury me at Zibalwe Village
In the pleasant breeze
The swift current of fresh water
Dancing and shaking matete reeds
On the banks of the beautiful Lundazi river
Feel deeply grateful to teachers
Opened a world never imagined
The dignity of knowledge
Significance of discipline

The inevitability of waking up
At the crack of dawn in boarding school
Amidst a thousand snores
Yet another day of learning
The joy and comfort of
Togetherness in hunger,
Disease, pain, suffering and joy
Bury me at Zibalwe Village
In sweet soothing breeze
Fresh grass and tall green trees
Swift currents of fresh water
On the bank of the Lundazi
Feel deeply grateful
For delicious Zambian food
Hot nshima slowly dipped
Into the red chicken soup
Nshima with litapi – Mongu
Nshima with Kariba fish
Nshima with Kafue Bream
Nshima with Luangwa fish
Nshima with chekwechekwe
Nshima with delicious
Relishes of a thousand types
Oh, how happy I am
To be a Zambian
Swift currents of fresh water
Bury me at Zibalwe Village

On the banks of the beautiful
Lundazi river

Romantic Love among the Tumbuka People

If you live in the Western world, you have seen many Hollywood romantic movies and read romantic novels, you probably believe one thing: the best way to express love and romantic feelings is through flowers, kisses, a card, a letter, very expensive ring, and especially a romantic dinner by candle light. You might also believe that love and romance may not exist in other non-Western cultures. After all, aren't marriages in these non-Western cultures miserable and practically between strangers since they are arranged? Nothing could be further from the truth. Not only do single young men and women have choices, romantic love often blooms. The only exception might be that the romantic love starts and is expressed differently from the West.

Take, for example, among the *Tumbuka* tribe of Eastern Zambia in Southern Africa. The single young women in the village are known as *mbeta* and they all sleep in the *nthanganeni*; a house or hut for young single women. On the other hand, young single men are known as *jaha* and they sleep in the *mphala*; a hut for single young men. When the time to seek a marriage partner comes, a *jaha* (young man) will dress at his best and walk often for miles to a village where he knows there is a particular *mbeta*; young woman he either knows or has heard about through the grape vine to be attractive and eligible for marriage. Once he arrives at the village, he is shown *nthanganeni* (single women's hut) and word quickly travels around that he has come, say for Jane. There is tremendous excitement in the village as children are sent and gleefully scramble to fetch Jane who might be bathing and drawing water at the river.

Once Jane learns that there is a *Jaha* waiting for her in the *nthanganeni*, she goes bonkers with sheer excitement and anticipation. How is she going to do her hair? What dress will she wear? Is he handsome? Will she like him?

Once the two see each other and if their chemistry is just right, it might be love at first sight in which case electrical sparks will fly. But quite often they may find there is no mutual attraction and either one of them could back off. But if there is attraction and she accepts the proposal, the period of romantic love and courtship begins. This is the period of romantic love which is full of drama and has many legendary stories among the *Tumbuka* people.

Because the two lovers cannot stand being away from each other, there have been *kusomphola* (elopements). Depending on the distance between the villages, he might visit her practically everyday. The two of them are allowed to spend hours alone in the *nthanganeni* (single young women's hut). They enjoy and experience *kufwasa*. Meals, often of delicious chicken, are served to the two lovers by the woman's family. Since any sex is traditionally taboo before marriage, the romance is even more intense and blissful. Stories say that lovers stare and gaze into each other's eyes lovingly, smile, act silly with one another, and playfully feed each other.

Passers-by can hear loud hearty laughter, conversations in low tones, giggling, and silence. Giggling, noisy, and snoopy kids are shooed away from outside the hut so that the couple can have privacy and *kufwasa*. When the man departs later in the evening, she escorts him. The lovers might exchange *chikole*; a personal possession as a symbol of commitment and love for one another. The woman might give him her bangle, bracelet, her ear ring, her scarf, and perhaps traditionally most intimate, one strand of brightly colored beads from inside her waist or *mkanda*. The man might give her his white well pressed handkerchief, or a *chithumwa* (small charm or love object he made he might always carry in his pocket)

Among the *Tumbuka*, romantically involved young women are known to become absent minded, to stare blankly into space as they go about doing chores, to lose appetite, to be tearful and lonesome. Some young women compose songs dedicated to their lover. The women sing the song while pounding corn with a pestle and mortar. Young men in love might sing the composed song during the traditional dance such as *mganda* and *fwemba*. One such a song by a young man is featured in my novel *The Bridge* when two romantic characters visit the village. Young men in love might be miserable and restless everyday and can't wait to travel to the other village to visit their lover. They might persuade their lover to skip the stalled wedding arrangements and instead elope in defiance of custom, elders, and community. The romantic lovers are constantly teased by their friends and relatives.

The *Tumbuka* language poem below is dedicated to such romantic encounters:

Kanakazi Kotowa:*Beautiful dainty woman*

Kanakazi kabvwala
Diresi ya cikasu
Na maluba ba swesi
Kanakazi kageza
Cisko cili bilibili
Sisi lili ng'ani ng'ani
Kanakazi kayaya

Kanakazi kakwenda mnthowa
Koluta ku ungano

Na Agogo bake banakazi
Kanakazi kabvwala
Tenesi zituba
Kanakazi kanibeka
Maso bithu bakumana
Kamwetuka Namwetuka
Cimwemwe ca soni
Karabiska kunyake

Mtima wane wagunda
Makongono ghazizila
Thukutila paka paka
Kanakazi kanimwetukila
Agogo bake badangila
Wauka uli Tiyezghe
Mazgho ghane ghanjenjema
Nauka makora a Goodson
Kanakazi kayaya
Kanakazi kotowa

Kanakazi nkhakumana nako
Kumise usiku kuvimbuza
Kukhonde kwa nyumba
Zanga kuno Tiyezghe
Mupenja vici aGoodson?
Nikoleko bele
Kanakazi kayaya kotowa
Kanakazi kafika pafupi
Nakakola pawoko

Cikumba ciri tofutofu

Ciuta wopanga uli kanthu kawemi?

Mazgho koyoboya mobelebeska

Ghakunifundiska mumtima

Imwe a Goodson nilekeni ine

Nkhupenja yayi

Zanga kuno nikoleko bele nawe

Ine nkhopa nthumbo

Nthumbo ungatola kukolako

Waka bele na lubunda

Kanakazi kayaya kotowa

Kanakazi kayimilila

Nakakola mulubunda

Iwe Tiyezghe nkhukutemwa

Ndiwe wotowa

Kanakazi kabelebeska

Imwe aGoodson kuyoboya

Nthana yayi

Kanakazi kayaya kotowa

Kanakazi Kotowa English: ***Beautiful dainty woman***

The dainty woman

Is wearing a yellow dress

With red flowers

Dainty woman bathed

Her face is beautiful

Her hair is shinny
Beautiful dainty woman

Dainty woman is walking in a path
She is going to church
With her grandmother
Dainty woman is wearing
White tennis shoes
Dainty woman looked at me
Our eyes met
She smiled I smiled
The smile of shyness
She looked away

My heart pounded
My knees feel weak
I sweat
Dainty woman has smiled at me
Her grandmother walked a few yards ahead
Good morning Tiyezghe
My voice is trembling
Good morning Goodson
Dainty woman
Dainty woman is beautiful

I met the dainty woman
At night at Vimbuza dance
Behind the house
Come here Tiyezghe

What do you want Goodson?
I want to touch you
Dainty woman is beautiful
She walked closer to me
I held her by her wrist
She has soft skin
How does God make such a good thing?
She talks to me in whispers
My heart is warming
Goodson would you leave me alone?
I do not want
Draw closer I want to hold you
I am afraid
How can you be afraid
From my merely touching you
Dainty woman is beautiful
Dainty woman stood there

I held her
Tiyezghe I love you
You are so beautiful
She whispered softly
Oh, please Goodson,
Don't talk to me this way
Dainty woman is beautiful

Kufwasa and Serenity as Philosophy of Life

Life in America is probably the fastest, producing the largest volume ever of movies, fast food, sporting activity, entertainment, pharmaceutical drugs, books, alcohol, college graduates, automobiles, divorces, levels of anxiety and stress, attention deficit disorders, and electronic communication. Most citizens live the so-called fast paced life in which they are multitasking; talking on the cell phone, driving, attending to five open windows on the computer, instant messaging, listening to the I-Pod, all at the same time. On top of all of this most citizens run around all day at a hectic pace from one activity to another. Reports suggest that most Americans do not get the full eight hours of sleep.

Contrast this so-called cutting edge fast paced style with life in most of the Third World including villages such as the one in Lundazi district in the remote Eastern Province of Zambia in Southern Africa. Most people plan one activity per day. They walk, ride bicycles, and if they are lucky and can afford it will ride a vehicle to perform whatever activity. Women take a long time to prepare delicious meals and meals take equally a long time to eat together with members of the whole family. After the meal they linger and hold more conversation and laugh or just sit. Going to town thirty miles away with the local grocer's old beat up pickup truck takes all day because you wait for people, talk, and sit while the driver and his assistant stop to tighten something under the hood. Life is such a full joyful experience while you do less. Remember the common expression among young Americans and hippies in the 1960s? "Stop the world I want to get off." The feeling was that life was moving so fast you had no time to enjoy it.

Life in the village in Lundazi can be best summarized as influenced by the experience of the Tumbuka term "kufwasa". Fwasa is a verb that can be translated as to be calm, to be patient, quiet, to focus or concentrate one hundred percent, to be serene, to take your time. "Kufwasa" is the state of being or experiencing this condition. Some words and their deeper philosophical meanings in one culture are rarely easily accurately translatable say into English or another language. Kufwasa is such a term in the Tumbuka language.

Women experience kufwasa when they prepare and cook meals, mould clay pots, sit down to breast feed the baby. Men experience kufwasa when they build structures in the village, carry a hundred pound bag of maize on a bike to another village, fixing the bike or the pickup truck. Most of these activities are not just performed carefully but with kufwasa otherwise whatever you are doing will be ruined, not just done right, or you will not get the full experience of it.

The ultimate in the experience of kufwasa is when men and women are making or doing something creative; carving a drum, sewing a reed mat, weaving a basket, slinging colorful beads together, and holding deep conversations with another person. Children experience kufwasa when for hours they will make their own toys and play with them in the dirt undistracted.

Married couples experience the most kufwasa at night in Tumbuka traditional culture. This is because in Savannah tropical Africa, the night is always twelve hours of darkness starting at 6:00 PM. Children sleep soon after supper at 6:00 pm as they are dog tired as they play hard during the day. The customs also have all older children sleep in another house or location with their peers and other older siblings. Couples can experience kufwasa as they can talk, laugh, sleep, wake up again later and do what intimate couples do all without distractions for twelve hours.

One cannot experience kufwasa around loud music, traffic, sharp sounds, while drunk or high, hastily rushing to finish five tasks within a matter of minutes, making hasty conversations or simply saying "hi", or while producing many widgets in a noisy factory, or workshop. Perhaps the worst anti-kufwasa in the West is when people play loud video games, zap microwave meals, go through a fast food drive-by window, pick up food and eat while they talk on the cell phone and drive. Another anti-kufwasa is when people have loud TV on, the radio, and five other distracting gadgets and then place the child in front of the TV.

My suspicion is that even though people in America today are immersed in the distractions of technology, ultimately what we all need or yearn for is the kufwasa experience. Most of us don't even know what it is and it scares us if we begin to experience it. Some of us experience some of it when we go hunting, fishing, when we paint, write letters, make or fix things with our hands, or take time to prepare a meal from a scratch in a quiet kitchen, or when we take time to marinate the food in a special source, and fire that grill on Saturday afternoon in the backyard in the summer.

Forms of Drama

Opera

Western opera is a dramatic art form, which arose during the Renaissance in an attempt to revive the classical Greek drama tradition in which both music and theatre were combined. Being strongly intertwined with western classical music, the opera has undergone enormous changes in the past four centuries and it is an important form of theatre until this day. Noteworthy is the huge influence of the German 19th-century composer Richard Wagner on the opera tradition. In his view, there was no proper balance between music and theatre in the operas of his time, because the music seemed to be more important than the dramatic aspects in these works. To restore the connection with the traditional Greek drama, he entirely renewed the operatic format, and to emphasise the equal importance of music and drama in these new works, he called them “music dramas”.

Chinese opera has seen a more conservative development over a somewhat longer period of time.

Pantomime

These stories follow in the tradition of fables and folk tales. Usually there is a lesson learned, and with some help from the audience, the hero/heroine saves the day. This kind of play uses stock characters seen in masque and again commedia dell'arte, these characters include the villain (doctore), the clown/servant (Arlechino/Harlequin/buttons), the lovers etc. These plays usually have an emphasis on moral dilemmas, and good always triumphs over evil, this kind of play is also very entertaining making it a very effective way of reaching many people.

Creative drama

Creative drama includes dramatic activities and games used primarily in educational settings with children. Its roots in the United States began in the early 1900s. Winifred Ward is considered to be the founder of creative drama in education, establishing the first academic use of drama in Evanston, Illinois[citation needed].Folk play

A Mummers play in Poland

Folk plays such as Hoodening, Guising, Mummers Play and Soul Caking are generally verse sketches performed in countryside pubs in European countries, private houses or the open air, at set times of the year such as the Winter or Summer solstices or Christmas and New Year. Many have long traditions, although they are frequently updated to retain their relevance for modern audiences.

Stories

Children

The Real Story of the Three Little Pigs

A new musical version of the classic tale in which the three pigs are irresponsible adults who still live with their long-suffering mother and the Wolf is the good guy.

King Arthur and the Rectangular Table

How did King Arthur really get the round table? It was of course the brilliance of the women. A fun, short musical for children from 2nd to 6th grade. This is the piano book to accompany the scripts and is spiral bound.

Behold The Emperor's New Clothes

A fun retelling of the Hans Christian Anderson Tale

Christmas

The Three Gifts

Justin, Tom, and Sam are convicted of stealing children's Halloween candy at Halloween. Instead of sending them to jail the judge sentences them to 100 hours babysitting.

The Christmas Truce

During World War I, at Christmas time in 1914, for a brief moment, the two sides laid down their arms and celebrated Christmas together.

No Christmas This Year

A story about a man who cancels Christmas for his family because everything goes wrong.

Comedies

The Mail-Order Bride

A touching, but humorous story of a young man who works to bring his fiancé to Newfoundland. Unknown to him she has married and sends a mail-order bride in her place. One of the most popular plays.

Pride And Prejudice (Musical)

A musical version of Jane Austen's beloved classic tale of the five Bennett sisters and their loves and woes. Set in Regency England, the charming script and haunting melodies are full of some of literature's most memorable characters.

Fairy Tale Justice

Goldilocks, the Big Bad Wolf and the Troll from "Three Billy Goats Gruff" are on trial in three separate cases.

Dramas

The Four Gifts of Christmas

Four stories about Christmas with great messages.

Can You Hear Me Now

Fairy Tale/Spoof

Cinderella and the Seven Dwarfs

Snow White goes to the wrong house,

Cinderella falls in love with the wrong prince?

Forget the Fairy God Mother!

Brawl At The Ball

This is a fun fairy tale twist with Cinderella taking her stepmother to court address the wrongs she has faced. Many fairy tale people are witnesses.

The White Cat

This play follows the fairy tale by the same name.

Halloween

Ichabod Crane and the Headless Horseman

Washington Irving's familiar Halloween classic comes to life in this charming musical adaptation.

The Curse of the Prom

A group of misfit, trouble-making high school students find themselves in hot water for yet another school prank. The school has declared that the senior prom that was scheduled to be held outside the school has been canceled. In order for there to be any

Buyer, Beware Darling?

When Harry buys his girlfriend, Errin, a ghost from Ebay as an exotic gift, a humorous time results when the ghost doesn't want to leave.

Melodrama

Love, Sick, and Montezuma's Gold

The evil Bartholomew Blackburn and his sister Priscilla have tricked the Mr. Giving into mortgaging the deed to his ranch for an old cave that is supposed to be full of gold. This is one of the funnest and most popular melodramas ever.

Show Down At Bitter Creek

The villain has plans to take over the town and the only man that can save everyone, the sheriff, has left town, or has he?

Railroad John And The Red Rock Run

A fun musical melodrama.

Musicals

Coming Home (The Musical)

Shauna, Susan, and Sally Smith, and Susan's fiance, Tom, find themselves in a small town for Memorial Day weekend when their car breaks down. It isn't just any town and fun things begin to happen.

The Christmas Santa Almost Missed

Santa has broken his leg and prospects for Christmas are looking bleak. His best hope lies in a boy who doesn't believe in him.

Mrs. Scrooge

A charming musical adaptation of the Dickens' classic "A Christmas Carol" but since the genders are reversed, most of the major and minor leads are for females. There are also many supporting roles/chorus parts for children, teens & adults.

Mysteries

Marreu and the Chocolate Policeman

Detective Comedy; machinations, mayhem and muddle in 1930s England country house.

This Old Haunted House

Brad Naylor agrees to renovate a house once belonging to reputed mob boss, Vito Govanni. But there are those who don't want him too, maybe even a ghost.

The Curse of the Prom

A group of misfit, trouble-making high school students find themselves in hot water for yet another school prank. The school has declared that the senior prom that was scheduled to be held outside the school has been canceled. In order for there to be any.

Religious

The Three Gifts

Justin, Tom, and Sam are convicted of stealing children's Halloween candy at Halloween. Instead of sending them to jail the judge sentences them to 100 hours babysitting.

A Christmas Carol

In this adaption of the story by Charles Dickens, the playwright has used his skills as a playwright, as well researching both the time period and the life of Dickens, to bring an understanding of who Scrooge was, why he was the way he was, and what Dick

A Visit From Saint Nick

A divorced mother is not in the mood for Christmas until some magic comes into her life.

Royalty Free

Short Skits From Other Plays

This is a collection of some of the best and most humorous scenes from the plays and musicals by Daris Howard. They are meant to stand alone and be fun to perform in about 15 minutes. Royalty is free if enough scripts are ordered.

Saint Fred

The story of a man that becomes a Christian, joins the Promise Keepers, and helps his friend.

Bigfoot, Campers, Cheerleaders, Nerds, and the Three Wise Guys

A few fun, short plays that are fun to perform.

Short Plays

Short Skits From Other Plays

This is a collection of some of the best and most humorous scenes from the plays and musicals by Daris Howard. They are meant to stand alone and be fun to perform in about 15 minutes. Royalty is free if enough scripts are ordered.

Tech No Christmas

Santa is having trouble with technology. Kids want more tech items, but is that always best.

The Legacy

This 15 minute fun comedy tells of a widow who cashs in her LEGACY of beer cans to bury her pickled spouse.

Youth/Teen

The Mail-Order Bride

A touching, but humorous story of a young man who works to bring his fiancé to Newfoundland. Unknown to him she has married and sends a mail-order bride in her place. One of the most popular plays.

Home Town Summer

A man returns to his home town after years away

The Red Cat Of Chiang Mai

The old farmer and his wife have a cat that got into red paint. A businessman mistakes it as unusual and wants to buy it.

READING SKILLS

The following advice may seem obvious, but is important.

- Consider where you read. Always read in a well-lit and quiet place that is free ofdistractions, and don't get into the habit of reading materials in bed! (unless you want to go to sleep).
- Donot vocalise as you read. This will slow you down, it will not help concentration, and it will lead to bad reading approaches.
- Read at times when you can concentrate, and maintain concentration by taking regular short breaks, perhaps every 30 or 45 minutes.
- Set yourself reading tasks.
- Remember that reading often takes longer than you expect and you often need to go beyond set texts. Give yourself enough time!

Scanning is reading quickly to search for specific information. You may not realise it, but you are already good at scanning. You scan, for example, when checking a TV guide or a phone book. Scanning may allow you to 'read' up to 1,500 words a minute.

One reason to scan an academic text that you have found while researching is to locate key terms as a means to assess the text's relevance.

Skimming is reading quickly to gain a general idea. Skimming may allow you to 'read' up to 1000 words a minute.

Skimming helps you identify whether or not to continue reading, what to read carefully, and where the best place is to begin. Skimming an academic text immediately before you read it carefully can help you consider what you already know and can help you develop a purpose for reading. An initial skim can also help maximise your interest in the text and your understanding and reflection on the material.

As with scanning, skimming does not involve reading every word. Instead, you may skim by reading:

- titles
- subheadings

- words in that are in **bold**, in *italics* or underlined
- diagrams
- a report's abstract, introduction or conclusion
- the first sentence of every paragraph
- chapter questions
- chapter objectives
- chapter summaries

There will be times when you need to do more than skim a text in the way described above, but still need to read quickly. This may require ability to conduct "surface reading".

It is worth remembering that no more than 50% of the words in an average textbook are "information" words. The other words are like glue and paint: they are there to provide connections and add interest, but are not essential for meaning. If you concentrate on information words, you can read faster and with better comprehension.

But, how do you learn to pick out the important information words? A large part of the trick involves paying attention to what the author is trying to say. Look for the message, and the information words will emerge naturally.

Watch the eyes of a friend or a member of your family while he or she is reading. You will see that they move along each line of print in a series of jerks. The pauses between the jerks are known as fixations. It is during the fixations that your eyes take in words.

Poor readers take in only one or two words in each fixation.

| This is | how a | poor | reader's| eyes move | along | lines| of print. |

A good reader, on the other hand, takes in several words in each fixation

| This is how | a better reader's | eyes move along | lines of print.|

Analytical reading (or study reading) is needed when you want to make sure that you fully grasp and appreciate what you are reading. You may have to read statements more than once, stop to think about them, or jot down key words when using this style. As a result, your reading rate can easily drop to below 100 words a minute.

If the text you are reading is your own copy, you could also underline key words, highlight with a marker, or make notes in margins, or alternatively, if you don't own the text, you could use little 'post-it' labels.

This process of marking texts can help you concentrate (and keep reading!) and can help you identify key points and make the book easier to survey later when you need to use it again for your assignment or to revise for an exam. revise effectively later.If you donot take notes well, or don't take them at all, now is the time to develop this essential skill! Note-taking can help you gain deeper understanding and reflection, a better ability to remember and good exam preparation materials for later.

1. Record publication details

Always note publication details of any text you may use. Specifically, record such things as the title, author, date, publisher, place of publication, URL, and page numbers.

2. Preview the text before you take notes

As mentioned earlier, scan, skim and 'surface read' the text before noting to help you develop understanding of the text and awareness of what is important to note. Taking notes of everything is a slow, boring, ineffective exercise.

3. Maintain a central place for your notes.

Where record your notes is up to you. Some people prefer using a computer, while others use flash cards, folders, or exercise books. What is important is that you will be able to find the notes and understand their layout and content a few weeks or months later.

4. Paraphrase and summarise ideas

Writing out sentences word for word is probably even less useful than just highlighting sentences with a marker. Sure, they will be times you need write things word for word (use quotation marks when you do this!) but better understanding will come through putting things in your own words. Not sure how to do this? Say the key points in your own words out loud and then write them down. Finish by checking your paraphrase is clear and accurate.

5. Note your thoughts

Don't forget the great value of noting beyond just what is said in the text. Note down such things as your ideas, points you agree or disagree with, relevant experiences, questions, examples, and relationships with other texts. Those initial thoughts you have as you read may be of great use later, and it is a mistake to risk forgetting them.

6. Be creative

Consider how you should note different parts of texts as well as just what you should note. The process of thinking about how to note can aid understanding as well as ability to remember information and reflect. Depending on the nature of the information you wish to note, you may choose to use spider diagrams, concept maps, titles, columns, dot points, numbers, symbols, colours, pictures or columns for your reflections.

7. Review your notes

Once you have completed some notes, always look back at them and check: 1. they are accurate, 2. they are readable, 3. you will be able to use them later and 4. they contain full reference details.

8. Managing vocabulary

Even if you are a native English speaker, you may at times feel overwhelmed by the amount of unfamiliar vocabulary you encounter. Of course, as a university student, you have a great opportunity and need to build you vocabulary (discipline specific and general), so consult glossaries and use a dictionary. Keep a list of new words: record their definitions and write example sentences which show meaning and usage.

When using your dictionary, be discerning. Know which words can be ignored, and see if it is possible to guess the meanings of words. You may be able do this if you:

1. Guess using context:

The patient suffered from respiratory ailments, skin problems, *anacritis*, and hypertension

What could anacritis mean? (NB. Not a real word!)

2. Guess using prefixes, suffixes and word stems

- *Antichocoflavourism*
- *Aquaengineacousticology*

What could these words mean? (NB. Not real words!)

Reading with others

Consider getting a "study buddy" or study group. Be careful to keep focused on what you need to do and you may find that by sharing notes, explaining, asking and quizzing each other, you can increase you ability to understand, reflect upon and remember key points in texts.

Oral communication

Speech is one type of composing in a language a type that is swift, complicated, frequent, and primary. Its swiftness is twofold: the swift, unpremeditated manner in which oral phrasing, facial expression, gestures, and other bodily motion follow the origination of a thought; and the swiftness with it reaches the listener's mind. All happen so quickly that the process of thinking, uttering, and hearing seem fused into one.

Speech is complicated. In some respect it is more complicated than writing. Though not demanding the kind of muscular coordination needed in writing, or the skills of spelling and written punctuation, it requires coordination of breathing, tongue and lip movements, facial expression, and gesture. It may also entail emotional strain when the speaker is before an audience or in some other situation that causes tension. Thought, breathing, articulation, and neurons must coordinate.

Speech is conspicuous for its frequency, too. People surprise themselves when they note how often they speak and listen in several hours of a normal day. Children, in school or out, maintain a perpetual flow of talk and gesture. A teacher's problem is less one of finding opportunities for children to speak or listen than of discovering how to use the abundant occasions wisely.

Speech is the primary form of verbal language. In each pupil it dates from the first half year of life when, as an infant, he began to babble a variety of sounds (in patterns that apparently are stereotyped among infants the world around). Then gradually he learned the thirty six or forty phonemes employed in his parents' language and put those phonemes into combinations and sequences meaning something in the English or Zambian Language code.

As a listener he responds first to intonation signals rather than to words-to speech rhythms, stress patterns, and tones of people around him. His personal use of recognisable words come some months later. It has been estimated that even for a two year old child there is a lag of several months from the child's first hearing of a word until his first meaningful use of it. Two to seven moths being needed to make neural records of the concept named and of the word, and to establish an automatic reflex connection between the two. When his speech has become well developed and he has mastered the basic phonemic and grammatical patterns of English or any Zambian language, the child's first experiences in writing are still to come.

So, too, speech antedated writing in the history of the human race, and the differences between the spoken, or primary, form of language, and written language, a secondary, derived from, are key items for teachers to remember when planning their pedagogy. Speech, as Cherry says, 'is not spoken writing'; it is 'bound to the time continuum; we must receive it as it comes, instant by instant.' It is, as viewed in structural linguistics, a stream or continuum of organized sound that is punctuated (one could say orchestrated) by breaks or junctures of various lengths, stresses, pitches, and gestures. Teachers who understand this basic fact are prepared to teach more than merely 'speech'; they can teach spoken language.

Unlike listening, talking is something most people need little encouragement to do. But promoting free speaking in our pupils in our classrooms and especially in the second language can be difficult. What then should we do? As teachers we needto provide pupils with an interesting stimulus that will give them a natural purpose forspeaking. We said that oral communication is a two way process, between the speaker and the listener.

References

Skinner, B. F 1961.Teaching machines).*Scientific American,* 205, 90-112. doi:10.2307/1926170, p. 381).

Barlow, A.R. (1960) *Studies in Kikuyu Grammar and Idiom*. Edinburgh: Blackwood.

Bennett, P.R. (1969) *A Comparative study of four Thagicu verbal systems*. London: SOAS. PhD thesis.

Bybee, J.L., Perkins, R.D., & W. Pagliuca. (1994) *The Evolution of Grammar, Tense, Aspect and Modality in the Languages of the World*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Cammenga, J. (2002) *Phonology and Morphology of Ekegusii, a Bantu Language of Kenya*. Cologne: Rüdiger Köppe Verlag.

---- (2004) *Igikuria Phonology and Morphology - A Bantu Language of South-West Kenya and North-West Tanzania*. Cologne: Rüdiger Köppe Verlag.

Comrie, B. (1985). *Tense*. Cambridge: CUP.

Creissels, D. (1996) Disjunctive and conjunctive verb forms in Setswana.*SAJAL* 16, 4: 109-15.

Dalgish, G.M. (1979) *Morphophonemics of the OluTsootso dialect of OluLuyia: Issues and implications*. Urbana: University of Illinois. PhD thesis.

de Blois, K.F. (1970) The augment in the Bantu languages. *Africana Linguistica* 4: 85-165.

De Clercq, L. (1912) *Grammaire du Kiyombe*. Brussels: Goemare, Imprimeur du Roi.

Dik, S.C. [ed. by Hengeveld, K.) (1997) *The Theory of Functional Grammar. Part 1: The Structure of the Clause*. Berlin/New York: Mouton de Gruyter. (Originally 1989)

Dimmendaal, G. (1995) Metatony in Benue-Congo. In: E.N. Emenanjo & O.-M. Ndimele (eds.), 30-8.

Emenanjo, E.N. & O.-M. Ndimele (eds.) (1995) *Issues in African Languages and Linguistics: Essays in Honour of Kay Williamson*. Aba: National Institute for Nigerian Languages.

Guarisma, G. (2003) Kpa/ (A53). In: Nurse & Philippson (eds.), *The Bantu Languages*. London: Curzon Press. 307-34.

Güldemann, T. (1996) *Verbalmorphologie und Nebenprädikation im Bantu*. Bochum: Universitätsverlag Dr. N. Brockmeyer.

---- (2003) Present progressive vis-a-vis predication focus in Bantu, a verbal category between semantics and pragmatics.*Studies in Language* 27,2: 323-60.

Hadermann, P. (1996) Les marques -yo- et -to- dans quelques langues bantoues de zone C. *Afrikanistische Arbeitspapiere* 38: 163-80.

Harjula, L. (2004) *Kiha Grammar*. Helsinki: University of Helsinki, Institute for Asian and African Studies. PhD thesis.

Harries, L. (1950) *A Grammar of Mwera*. Johannesburg: Witwatersrand University.

Heine, B. & T. Kuteva. (2002) *World Lexicon of Grammaticalization*. Cambridge: CUP.

205 Derek Nurse Hyman, L.M. (1999) The interaction between focus and tone in Bantu. In: G. Rebuschi & L. Tuller (eds.). *The Grammar of Focus*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 151-77.

---- 2003. Basaa (A43). In: D. Nurse & G. Philippson (eds.), 257-82.

Hyman, L.M. & F.X. Katamba. (1993) The augment in Luganda: syntax or pragmatics? In: S. Mchombo (ed.) *Theoretical Aspects of Bantu Grammar*. Stanford: CSLI, 209-56.

Hyman, L.M. & J.R. Watters.(1984) Auxiliary focus.*Studies in African Linguistics* 15: 233-73.

Kisseberth, C.W. (2003) Makhuwa (P30). In Nurse & Philippson (eds), *The Bantu Languages*. London: Curzon Press. 546-65.

Maho, J. (2003). A Classification of the Bantu Languages. In: D. Nurse and G. Philippson (eds.). *The Bantu Languages*. London: Curzon Press. 630-51.

McWhorter, J.H. (1992). *Ni* and the copula system in Swahili: a diachronic approach.

Diachronica 9,1: 15-46.

Meeussen, A.E. (1967). Bantu grammatical reconstructions.*Africana Linguistica* 3: 80-121.

Moshi, L. (1988) A functional typology of ni in Kivunjo (Chaga). *Studies in the Linguistic*

Sciences 18: 105-34.

Muriungi, P. & K. Abels (2005) *The focus particle in Kitharaka*. Paper presented at the Conference on Focus in African Languages, ZAS, Berlin.

Mutaka, N.M. (1994) *The Lexical Tonology of Kinande*. Munich: Lincom Europa.

Ndolo, P. (1972) *Essai sur la tonalité et la flexion verbale du Gimbala*. Tervuren: MRAC.

Ngonyani, D. (2001) *A descriptive grammar of Kindendeuli*. East Lansing: Michigan State University.Ms.

---- (2003) *A Grammar of Chingoni*. Munich: Lincom Europa.

Nurse, D. (2000) *Inheritance, Contact, and Change in Two East African Languages*. Cologne:

Rüdiger Köppe Verlag.

---- (in progress) *Tense and Aspect in Bantu*.

Nurse, D. & G. Philippson (1977) Tone in Old Moshi. *Studies in African Linguistics* 8,1: 49-80.

Odden, D. (1996) *The Phonology and Morphology of Kimatuumbi*. Oxford: OUP.

Philippson, G. & M.L. Montlahuc.(2003) Kilimanjaro Bantu (E60 and E74). In: Nurse & Philippson (eds), *The Bantu Languages*. London: Curzon Press. 475-500.

Schadeberg, T.C. (1995) Object diagnostics. In: Emenanjo & Ndimele (eds.), 173-80.

Schadeberg, T.C. & F.U. Mucanheia. (2000) *EKoti: The Maka or Swahili language of Angoche*. Cologne: Rüdiger Köppe Verlag.

Takizala, A. (1972) Focus and relativization: the case of Kihung'an. *Studies in African Linguistics* 3,2: 259-84.

206 Focus in Bantu Wald, B. (1997) The 0 tense marker in the decline of the Swahili auxiliary focus system. *Afrikanistische Arbeitspapiere* 51: 55-82.

Watters, J.R. (1979) Focus in Aghem. In: L. Hyman (ed.). *Aghem Grammatical Structure*. Los Angeles: University of Southern California. Southern California Publications in Linguistics 7, 137-98.

---- (2003) Grassfields Bantu. In: Nurse and Philippson (eds.), *The Bantu Languages*. London: Curzon Press. 225-56.

Whiteley, W.H. (1960) *The Tense System of Gusii*. Kampala: East African Institute of Social Research.

Whiteley, W.H., & M.G. Muli.(1962) *Practical Introduction to Kamba*.

London: OUP.

Allen, James Smith. "Obedience, Struggle, and Revolt: The Historical Vision

of Balzac's *Father*

Goriot."*CLIO* 16.2 (1987): 103-119.

Research Paper strategies – 8

Brodsky Lacour, Claudia. “Narrate or Educate: *Le Père Goriot* and the Realist Bildungsroman.”

Approaches to Teaching Balzac’s Old Goriot.Ed. Michal Peled Ginsburg. New York:

MLA, 2000.32-44.

Fischler, Alexander. “Rastignac-Télémaque: The Epic Scale in ‘Le Père Goriot.’” *Modern*

Language Review 63 (1968): 840-848.

Ginzburg, Carlo. “To Kill a Chinese Mandarin: The Moral Implications of Distance.” *Wooden Eyes: Nine Reflections on Distance*. Trans. Martin Ryle and Kate Soper. New York: Columbia UP, 2001.157-72.

Glauser, Alfred. “Balzac/Vautrin.”*Romanic Review* 79.4 (November 1988): 585-610.

Prendergast, Christopher. *Paris and the Nineteenth Century*. Oxford: Blackwell, 1992.

Pugh, Anthony R. “The Complexity of *Le Père Goriot*.” *L’Esprit créateur* 7.1 (Spring 1967): 25- 35.

Robbins, Bruce. *Upward Mobility and the Common Good: Toward a Literary History of the Welfare State*. Princeton: Princeton UP, 2007.