



Foundations in Language Teaching - I

Paper Code: DTISL P1

Marks: 200

Hours: 300

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REHABILITATION COUNCIL OF INDIA

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FOUNDATIONS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING - I

Course Code: DTISL P1

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OBJECTIVES

After learning this practicum, the learners will be able to:

- Display basic understanding of the teaching-learning process and roles of teachers and learners
- Explain the learner related factors that have an impact on language learning
- Demonstrate skills in lesson planning and incorporating teaching strategies in lesson plans
- Elucidate the various hypotheses in language teaching and their application to sign language teaching
- Demonstrate ability to teach vocabulary, grammar, communication and composition

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UNIT 1

TEACHING AND LEARNING

Total hours: 30

This unit introduces the basic concepts of teaching and learning, what being a teacher means and what makes a good and effective teacher. Trainees understand what the learners do and what the teachers do and their roles. The various contexts and situations in which learners learn languages, including sign languages, and the aims and purposes of learning the languages are discussed.

1.1 Contexts of teaching and learning sign languages

- Situations in which learners learn sign languages – geographical context, global, social context, background, etc.
- Purposes for learning and what learners aim to do after learning the language
- Sociocultural context of sign language instruction
- Sign language as a skill subject rather than a knowledge subject

1.2 Role of teacher and role of learners

- Role of a teacher – needs to be an analyst, planner, learning facilitator, material developer, classroom manager and organizer, motivator, evaluator, mentor, participant, etc.
- Role of a sign language teacher – representative of a minority language community and culture
- Role of a learner

1.3 Teachers as professionals: Knowledge and skills required

- Language proficiency
- Knowledge about language
- Knowledge about teaching and learning
- Teaching skills
- Socio-psychological skills – flexibility, judgment skill, creative thinking, planning, adaptability, etc.

1.4 Characteristics of a good teacher

- How would learners define a good teacher?

UNIT 1 - TEACHING AND LEARNING

1.0 Introduction to Unit

What is teaching?

What is learning?

What is the relation between teaching and learning?



Look at the following picture:

On first look, you may think it is obvious what this picture is showing: Learning is a reflection of Teaching.

Like the reflection of a tree on the water, if the tree did not exist then the reflection would also not exist. Without a teacher, there would be no learning.

This is a very traditional, and a very teacher-centric, way of seeing the picture: Students learn what the teacher teaches.

But, this is obviously not literally true. We learn all the time without teachers. We also learn from our own experiences, we learn from “life”, we learn from observation, we learn from trial and error, we learn from our friends and families.

And, in fact, children learn their first language “naturally”, without being taught. They learn their first language “by themselves”. Yes, it is true, they learn their first language from the model of those around them speaking, but the people around them do not actually actively teach. They just do. They just speak. And the child, by observing, and by internalising, and by unconscious analysis, and by trial and error, learns to speak.

Secondly, and equally simplistically, one could say that the above picture shows that the student is a reflection of the teacher.

The teacher is the model. If the teacher is a good teacher, then the students will be good learners, and they will learn well. If the teacher is a poor teacher, the students will learn poorly.

But this metaphor is also not exactly true. All of us have probably had experiences where we learned even from bad teachers. We learned despite the teacher, and despite the bad teaching.

And, while I, the author of this unit, am actively writing what you are reading, and I am thinking about how to help you learn, these materials are “self-learning modules”. YOU will be doing the learning.

Returning to our “Teach/Learn” picture again, there are also other ways to see this picture. There are other ways in which this picture can serve as a *metaphor* for the relationship between teaching and learning.

And one of these is to see this picture in an upside-down way. Rather than the image in the water being a reflection of the tree, perhaps the tree is a reflection of the image in the water.

Okay, you may laugh. Perhaps this is not a normal way to understand the universe. Perhaps the physics of light and reflection is more accurate.

But *AS A METAPHOR*, as a way to help us understand and think about what the relationship is between teaching and learning, and as a way to look at that relationship from a new perspective, this view may be helpful.

Rather than seeing the word “Learn” as a reflection of the word “Teach”, perhaps in a deeper reality it is the word “Teach” which is the reflection of “Learn”.

Perhaps this metaphor says to us that *IF* the student *DOES NOT* learn, then it is also true that the teacher *CANNOT* be said to have *REALLY* taught. It is the learning process which is the best gauge, the best test of the teaching process. If the students learn well, then the teaching has been as it should be. If the students do NOT learn, then there is something wrong with the teaching as well.

If nothing else, this way of seeing the teaching-learning relationship shows that when the students have not learned, if they have not understood a topic well, then the teacher needs to adjust their teaching method in some way so that the students can learn better.

If the student is not learning as they should, then the teacher needs to:

- TRY AGAIN
- TRY HARDER

but most of all they need to:

- TRY SOMETHING DIFFERENT!

Metaphors are, in the end, *JUST* metaphors. They are useful, not because they are realistic (they often aren't!), they are useful because they help us understand. And they are useful in that they can often help us see things in a way we do not normally see. This new way of “seeing” often leads to new perspectives, and this often leads to better understanding and insight.

And understanding is what learning (and teaching!) is all about.

In the end, perhaps, the best way to look at our “Teach/Learn” picture is to take all the metaphors together. Each shows us PART of what the Teaching-Learning relationship is. However, to understand the relationship fully, we must accept all the metaphors as partly true, then add up those “part truths” to form a bigger, better understanding.

Note: It may seem strange to some to begin this unit with a metaphor. Aren't metaphors a bit too “deep”? Aren't they too difficult to understand? Aren't they too “complicated”?

But experience shows that one way that Deaf Indians learn best is through metaphors. Just as Deaf see the world a bit differently from hearing people, so too metaphors look at the world (and help *US* look at the world) a bit differently. And so, metaphors have become a part of Indian Deaf education culture.

In order to help sign language interpreting students learn to communicate and understand the Deaf whom they will work with better, they need to look at the world through different eyes... through Deaf eyes. And so, perhaps metaphor is also a useful tool.

And so, we start this unit and this module off with this metaphor.

In this unit we will discuss what teaching is, and what learning is, and what the relationship is between the two.

5.0.1 Unit Learning Outcomes

When they have completed this unit, the students will:

- be able to discuss the various contexts and situations in which Indian Sign Language is taught and learnt
- be able to reflect on how differences in contexts and situations might affect how the language is taught and how it is learnt
- be able to list a number of possible reasons students might have for wanting to learn Indian Sign Language
- be able to discuss a variety of ways in which what being a “good teacher” means depends on one's perspective
- be able to list a variety of knowledge and skill sets which a good teacher is expected to possess

1.1 Contexts of Teaching and Learning Sign Languages

1.1.1 Introduction to Section

This Diploma in Teaching Indian Sign Language course aims to help you learn how to be a good sign language teacher. Although until the present day, most ISL teaching has been conducted in places like National Institute of the Hearing Handicapped (NIHH) ISL cells, or at the Indian Sign Language Research and Training Centre (ISLRTC) or in similar settings, you may in fact end up doing your teaching in a variety of different settings, some of them very different from these.

And while up until the present day, most students taught in these courses have aimed, or at least been thought to be aiming, to become sign language interpreters (SLIs), you may end up teaching a diversity of types of students. Therefore, it might be useful first to examine the situations in which learners learn sign languages – the geographical context, the global context, the social context, etc.

Part of your job as a teacher is to better motivate your students to learn, and in order to do this it is important to understand why the students want to learn sign language in the first place. Therefore, we will also examine some of the purposes for learning and what learners aim to do after learning the language.

Note:

It must be noted that this curriculum is expressly *NOT* developed to train teachers to teach sign language to Deaf children (or, indeed, to Deaf adults). Although there is also a great (perhaps even greater) need for such trained teachers, such teachers require a different set of skills and abilities that are (mostly) not addressed herein. And this is because acquiring a second language (which is what hearing people do when they learn sign language) is almost entirely a different process than acquiring a first language (which is what Deaf children do when they start Deaf school).

1.1.2 Content of Section

In order to better understand the present-day social context for teaching and learning Indian Sign Language, it is important to understand an outline of the history, and what India was like up until the very recent past (and in many parts of India, what India still is like).

- Historically medical professionals, educational professionals, and government institutions (such as National Institute for the Hearing Handicapped, NIHH) dealing with the Deaf in India have discouraged the use of sign language in communicating with the deaf.

Parents of children who are deaf typically get their first and only information about deafness, and how to deal with it, from these same medical, government, and educational professionals and institutions, and so they have been discouraged from learning sign language to communicate with the Deaf child.

- As a result, the teaching and learning of ISL was extremely limited in India until very recently (until the beginning of the 21st century).

- The first government ISL courses were established only in 2001 at AYJNIHH-Mumbai, and these courses have since gradually been taught at other centres as well. At this same time, this same institute also established the first government courses to train Deaf to teach sign language as well.

Indian Sign Language Cells existed in five regional centres of NIHH.

- Prior to this, the largest projects involving Indian Sign Language were undertaken by Ramakrishna Mission Vivekananda Educational and Research Institute in Coimbatore (Tamil Nadu), which undertook, with German financial support, the compilation of the first large-scale

dictionary of Indian Sign Language (Ramakrishna Mission Vivekananda Educational and Research Institute), and by scholars from Gallaudet University in the United States of America (Vasishta et al. 1978, 1980, 1985, 1986, 1987) whose interest was primarily scholarly.

- Occasionally NIHH sign language teachers were also dispatched to non-NIHH institutions and organisations, and ISL certificate and shorter non-certificate training courses have been taught in a variety of venues across India. In addition, ISL training centres have also been set up by NIHH-certified ISL teachers at a number of outside institutions (for example, Indore Deaf Bilingual Academy has one such centre), and ISL certificate courses have been taught in these places on a regular basis.
- Historically government sign language courses have been expressly aimed at training sign language interpreters only. As Schools for the Deaf generally forbade the use of sign language, teachers of the Deaf did not learn sign language. Although there were a few exceptions, this was the case for all but a few of India's hundreds of schools for the Deaf.
- A B.A. course in Applied Sign Language Studies (BAASLS) was established jointly by the University of Central Lancashire (UCLAN) in the UK and Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) in New Delhi as a pilot course and with the expressed purpose of training Deaf sign language teachers and other Deaf sign language specialists. However, the pilot was terminated by IGNOU after four or five cohorts of students, and no such course has been established elsewhere to replace it.
- Very recently NIOS has started developing and broadcasting informal teaching material for learning ISL to the general open school population, as well as materials for teaching Deaf regular school subjects through the medium of Indian Sign Language. These materials, however, are as yet limited in scope, and also still of limited quantity and quality, and it remains to be seen what impact they may have on the field.
- Teaching sign language is unlike teaching most other academic subjects. Mathematics and science teachers will not need to take on the additional burden of teaching their students about their own culture, and the social issues which impact on their community and its members; while it is true that teachers of foreign languages will also teach their students about the cultures in which those languages are used. The teaching of other minority vernacular languages may even require a certain degree of re-education of learners to rid them of whatever prejudices and pre-conceived notions prevalent in society at large about the minority cultures which uses those languages. As Quinto-Pozos (2011) points out, teaching sign language differs in that it cannot be taught or learned independent of the social situation of audism and oppression, and attitudes towards Deaf persons as “disabled” or “handicapped”. The fact that sign language is the language of a community of persons with disabilities, and the fact that Indian society has traditionally had, and to a large extent still has, overwhelmingly negative attitudes towards the “handicapped” puts an additional burden on the teacher of ISL to “enlighten” students, to change, or at least affect in a positive way, the typically paternalistic attitudes which one might expect beginning learners of sign language to have inherited from the general Hearing society. This is more than merely teaching about Deaf culture (which, of course, also must be taught).

The teacher of SL must not only be a language teacher, they must also be a cultural ambassador, an advocate for social justice, and perhaps also practitioner of behaviour and attitude modification.

Although the above outlined history is rather bleak when it comes to the teaching and learning of sign language, there are some signs that things may be changing a bit.

While the traditional ISL student has been a future sign language interpreter, and indeed many of your students may aim to be sign language interpreters, perhaps not all of them will.

In addition, ISL is being used, to some degree at least, in a growing number of schools for the Deaf, which – in theory at least – means that a growing number of teachers at these schools must be learning ISL as well. If this trend continues, one can ultimately expect that parents of Deaf children (or at least the mothers, who tend to be the main caretakers) will also be motivated to learn ISL.

Eventually, as the social and educational situation in India changes, more and more people learning sign language might also be government and other workers providing services for the Deaf. In fact, perhaps even some might just be average citizens, learning the language “just because”.

1.1.3 Summary of Section

In this section we learned:

- A brief history of the situation for teaching and learning sign language in India
- A brief list of some of the organisations which have been involved in teaching sign language in India
- A brief discussion of some of the ways in which the special social situation of the Deaf community as a historically oppressed, and largely disempowered minority, will influence the role of the Deaf sign language teacher as cultural ambassador and advocate
- A brief discussion of the traditional student of SL, that is, sign language interpreters (SLIs)
- A brief overview of some of the other types of potential students of ISL

1.1.4 Exercises

Give short answers to the following questions:

1. Why is an understanding of metaphor useful for teaching sign language?
2. List at least five different types of people who potentially might want or need to learn ISL.
3. List at least five institutions which have been involved in the teaching of sign language in India.
4. In addition to teaching sign language, what important areas must a sign language teacher teach their students?
5. What does “an advocate for social justice” mean?

1.1.5 Suggested readings

Zeshan, Z., Vasishta, M.M., & Sethna, M. (2005). Implementation of Indian Sign Language in Educational Settings, *Asia Pacific Disability and Rehabilitation Journal* 16/1, 16-40. Accessed on 5 February 2019 at: english.aifo.it/disability/apdrj/apdrj105/indian-sign.pdf

1.1.6 References

Quinto-Pozos, D. (2011). Teaching American Sign Language to hearing adult learners. *Annual Review of Linguistics* 31, 137-158.

Ramakrishna Mission Vivekananda Educational and Research Institute, Coimbatore, India
<http://www.vivekanandauniversity-cbe.org/site/faculties/faculty-of-disability-management-and-special-education-fdmse/vocational-training-centre/sign-language-unit/>

Vasishta, M., Woodward, J., & de Santis, S. (1986). *An introduction to the Bombay variety of Indian Sign Language*. Washington, D.C.: Gallaudet University Press (Gallaudet Research Institute Monograph, No. 4)

Vasishta, M., Woodward, J., & de Santis, S. (1987). *An introduction to the Calcutta variety of Indian Sign Language*. Washington, D.C.: Gallaudet University Press (Gallaudet Research Institute Monograph, No. 4)

Vasishta, M., Woodward, J., & de Santis, S. (1985). *An introduction to the Bangalore variety of Indian Sign Language*. Washington, D.C.: Gallaudet University Press (Gallaudet Research Institute Monograph, No. 4).

Vasishta, M., Woodward, J., & de Santis, S. (1980). *An introduction to Indian Sign Language (focus on Delhi)*. New Delhi: All India Federation of the Deaf.

Vasishta, M., Woodward, J., & Wilson, K. (1978). Sign language in India: Regional variation within the deaf population, *Indian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 4(2), 66-74.

1.1.7 Model answers

For Exercise 1.1.4

1. Metaphors help us see reality in a different way. Gaining a new and different perspective is important when teaching sign language.
2. (1) Sign language interpreters, (2) teachers of the Deaf, (3) parents (and families) of the Deaf, (4) government workers (especially those working in offices which provide services to the Deaf), (5) anyone who comes into regular contact with Deaf people, or regularly provides goods and services to Deaf people.
3. (1) Ramakrishna Mission Vivekananda Educational and Research Institute, (2) NIHH, (3) IGNOU, (4) UCLAN, (5) ISLRTC, etc. (plus any of the Deaf schools, such as Indore Bilingual Deaf Academy (IBDA) or Bajaj Institute of Learning (BIL) in Dehradun which

have used ISL as a medium of instruction for Deaf children).

4. A sign language teacher must teach about the social situation in which deaf students live. In other words, they must become aware of prejudicial attitudes against the Deaf.
5. An advocate for social justice means someone who fights for the rights of those who have been and are oppressed by society.

1.2 Role of Teacher and Role of Learners

"I never teach my pupils; I only attempt to provide the conditions in which they can learn." (Albert Einstein)

1.2.1 Introduction to Section

The role of a teacher, regardless of what subject they teach, includes that of analyst, planner, learning facilitator, material developer, classroom manager and organizer, administrator, motivator, evaluator, mentor The number of roles seems almost endless.

As we discussed briefly in the previous section, the role of a sign language teacher also includes that of being a representative of a minority language community and culture, as well as an educator on what “disability” and “inclusion” mean. And this role is especially important in a country like India where, traditionally, the two words “disability” and “inclusion” *never* went together.

The role of a learner has been traditionally much more limited, and much more passive. Learners were expected to be “sponges”, soaking up whatever it was that the teacher was teaching. “Active learning” was traditionally not a concept. The most active part of a student's body was their hand, busily copying down whatever the teacher had just said, or written on the blackboard (or more recently whiteboard). Students did not ask questions, they only answered them (and that usually by simply parroting what the teacher had just said, or what was written in the textbook). They did not think, and most especially they did not think for themselves. Sometimes it has almost seemed that the role of student could be summed up as, “Sit down and Shut up!”

In this section we shall see how the notion of both what a teacher does and what a learner “does” (and what they are supposed to be doing) has evolved, and will examine a more modern view of the Teach-Learn relationship.

1.2.2 Content of Section

Most of us are familiar with traditional education and teaching:

The teacher stands at the front of the class, textbook open in front of him/her on his/her desk, and s/he “teaches” (often this means “reads”!) what is written there to the students, sometimes copying out important passages on to the blackboard nowadays, white board), which then the students faithfully copy into their books.

Traditionally teaching has been teacher-centred rather than learner-centred. Teachers do all the talking (lecturing!), students are not asked to discuss; in the very best case, they are allowed to

ask questions (which the teacher quite often derides or “puts down” as “silly questions” or “stupid questions”... especially, one suspects, when they themselves are not confident that they can provide a convincing answer.)

This also means that “learning” has mostly meant “rote learning” (mere memorisation) and has mostly been a passive activity. Traditionally teaching has been result-focused rather than process-focused. And at the end of the class, or the end of the course, there is an examination of what knowledge the students have *managed* to memorise. Whether a student has learned anything or not is judged based on scores on a test. And these examinations are typically composed solely of objective, true-or-false questions, multiple-choice questions, or short answer questions, where there is *ONE* right answer and all others are wrong. This is because traditionally in India, all subjects, including languages, have been taught as knowledge rather than as skills.

However, in reality, language learning is not the sort of subject which is well suited for the above types of teaching. Because to really learn a language, means to be able to use it. And while this does require certain knowledge, even more than that, it requires a lot of skill. And skills cannot be acquired in the traditional way described above because skills are acquired by doing as much as by “learning” in the traditional sense of the word. Skills are acquired by being guided by the teacher through the steps of the process at the early stages of education, then by gaining experience and confidence through practice, and finally by internalising and become “expert” through feedback from teacher and peers, as well as self-reflection throughout the whole process. Skills can only be acquired when learning is active learning not passive learning. And active learning is only really possible when the classroom is student-centred not teacher-centred.

☐ *Characteristics of student-centred classrooms/teaching*

Instead of the teacher having complete control over the content, methods, and pace of teaching (as in a traditional teacher-centred classroom with the student being a mere passive recipient of knowledge) in student-centred learning the students are more active and empowered, and have a greater degree of control, or at least influence, over the pace of learning, over the content of learning, and over how learning takes place.

As the TEAL Centre staff (2010) have summarised, the benefits of such an approach for the learner include:

- They are more active participants in their own learning, and due to this agency tend to have greater motivation, which is a proven factor in greater learning outcomes.
- They make many of the decisions about what and how they will learn.
- They themselves acquire new knowledge and skills by building on their own current knowledge and skills.
- They better understand what the learning goals are, and are encouraged to assess progress themselves.
- They monitor their own learning and develop their own strategies for learning.
- They work in cooperation and collaboration with other learners.

- They demonstrate performance-based knowledge and skills which show a deeper understanding and thus authentic learning.

In addition, while traditionally the focus in learning has been on individual learning, it has been shown that many (if not all!) students learn better socially. This is why peer tutoring works so well (and often better than traditional teaching). And this is especially true of language learning. Language is after all used for communication, and communication is something which you cannot do alone!

Some of the non-traditional approaches to making the environment more learner-centred and also to include more social learning include:

- Less lecture time and more discussion time
- Less discussion time and more activities
- More “active” activities, such as student-created skits and competitive team games
- Pair work and small group work (ideally ending with each group sharing what they have learned with all the other groups)
- When the teacher does have to explain something new, make sure that one or more of the students follows up by re-explaining what has been taught in their own “words”
- Starting off each class with a student, or, if possible, students summarising what was learned in the last lesson
- Rather than having teacher lead question-and-answer exercises (where the teacher asks all the students questions in sequence) have students ask each other questions.
- Teachers can create student-centred projects where the students do most of the work while the teacher is used simply as a resource (providing the necessary vocabulary, helping with logistics, and giving support and advice when needed). There are many possibilities for student-centred projects: a) the students write a script for a skit, then practice it, and finally film it. b) The students select a holiday, such as Christmas, Holi, Eid, etc., and then they take on different roles (such as family members, friends, neighbours, etc.) and act out the preparations for the event, giving and receiving gifts, and acting out other rituals.

1.2.3 Summary of Section

In this section the student has learned:

- The characteristics of a traditional teacher-centred and result-driven learning environment
- A number of reasons why a teacher-centred approach is less effective for language learning
- Some of the many benefits of a learner-centred approach to language learning and teaching
- A number of ways to create such a learner-centred classroom

1.2.4 Exercise

Give short answers to the following questions:

1. Give a brief description of the traditional teacher-centred approach to teaching.
2. What is the difference between passive learning and active learning?
3. What are the benefits of a learner-centred approach over the traditional teacher-centred

approach to learning?

4. When learning a sign language, which is more important: learning knowledge or skills? Explain why.
5. What is the difference between a results-focused and process-focused approach to teaching and learning?

1.2.5 Suggested readings

Jony, M.S. (2016). Student centered instruction for interactive and effective teaching learning: perceptions of teachers in Bangladesh. *International Journal of Advanced Research in Education & Technology (IJARET)* 172/3, 172-178. Accessed on 5 May 2019 at: <http://ijaret.com/wp-content/themes/felicity/issues/vol3issue3/mdsolaiman.pdf>

1.2.6 References

TEAL Center Staff (2010). TEAL Center Fact Sheet No. 6: Student-Centered Learning. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Vocational and Adult Education (OVAE), Teaching Excellence in Adult Literacy (TEAL) Center. Accessed on 10 March 2019 at: [https://lincs.ed.gov/sites/default/files/6%20 TEAL Student-Centered.pdf](https://lincs.ed.gov/sites/default/files/6%20TEAL%20Student-Centered.pdf)

1.2.7 Model answers

For exercise 1.2.4

1. A teacher-centred approach to teaching means that the teacher uses a textbook and the blackboard while the students copy what they hear and see. The teacher talks and the students listen. The teacher gives examinations with questions which have only one correct answer, and this means students must memorise information.
2. In passive learning students mostly listen, copy and memorise, while in active learning students participate much more during lessons. They ask and answer questions; they are encouraged to make decisions about what they will learn; they have opportunities to work in pairs and groups; they can have discussions in class; and they review and explain what was learned in the previous lessons.
3. When a learner-centred approach is used, the students are more active during the lessons. They become more empowered, and, as a result, they are more motivated. They can influence the content of the lesson, and they can then assess their own progress.
4. Although gaining some knowledge is needed when learning sign language, acquiring skills is much more important. The reason is that to learn sign language, students must use it. They must constantly be 'doing'. Signing involves movement and action, and, thus, communicating effectively requires good skills.
5. In a results-focused approach to teaching and learning the teacher controls what will be

taught, and then students must demonstrate that they have learned what was taught. The results of examinations should show what was learned. In contrast, in the process-focused approach the teacher acts as a guide supporting what students will learn. As the students gain more experience, they gain more confidence and expertise. Teachers and students provide feedback which aids in the learning process.

[NOTE: Your answer to this last question should have included at least three ways in which a teacher-centred and result-driven approach is less effective for language learning, and also six of the benefits which the learner obtains from a learner-centred approach as listed in the bullet points in the above section.]

1.3 Teachers as Professionals: Knowledge and Skills Required

1.3.1 Introduction to Section

When we think of teaching and learning, we tend to think of the transfer of knowledge. What the teacher gives, and the student gets is new knowledge. Therefore, we often think primarily of the teacher as being a source of knowledge, knowledge which they can then “give” the students through classroom teaching.

However, as we shall see in this section, teaching is not a simple process of dropping the knowledge into the student’s brain. A teacher must know *how* to present the knowledge; that is, they must be a master of methodologies of teaching. Teachers must be critical thinkers, able to observe the classroom situation and then decide which is the best methodology to use in a particular situation for these particular students to help them to most effectively and efficiently learn the topic being taught. They must be able to decide how much to teach at a time, not too much (the students might get overwhelmed and give up), and not too little (the students might get bored, and give up).

This section will focus on what knowledge, and which skills are most important for sign language teachers to possess.

1.3.2 Content of Section

As we start to discuss how to become a teacher, the first questions are:

- What knowledge should a teacher possess?

In other words: What must a teacher know?

- What skills must a teacher possess?

In other words: What must a teacher be able to do?

Some basic general answers to the first question might include:

- Language proficiency
- Knowledge about language
- Knowledge about teaching and learning

And some basic general answers to the second question might include:

- Teaching skills
- Socio-psychological skills

Among the required socio-psychological skills are:

- skill at planning
- skill of being flexible and ability to adapt
- skill at time management

Teachers must also possess:

- Interpersonal skills
- Communication skills
- Intercultural skills

As we can see, the list of types of required skills is much longer than the list of types of required knowledge. Teaching is clearly a skill profession.

- A teacher must *be a caring person*.

In order for the students to be receptive to the teacher and what they are teaching, students must feel they can trust the teacher. They must be able to trust both the teacher's expertise in the subject matter (that is, their knowledge of ISL and how to teach), but they must also trust the teacher as a human being (that is, trust that the teacher will be fair, trust that the teacher will care enough to help the student when needed, etc.).

- A teacher must *be a good manager of instruction*.

Since students cannot absorb or digest everything at once, the teacher must know what to teach when (easier things first, more difficult things later). They must also be able to judge how much to teach at a time. They must know when the students have mastered a topic and then the class can move on to a new topic, and they must know when a topic needs to be repeated or revised and taught in a new and different way. They must know how much and what kind of practice the students need. And above all, they must present the material in an organised way so it is easier for the students to steadily progress through the learning process.

- A teacher must *be an expert learner*.

Think back on the image at the beginning of this unit; teaching and learning are reflections of each other. Sometimes students ask questions for which the teacher has no answer. They must be able to go find the answer... or else risk suffering a loss of students' trust in the teacher's expertise. All teachers must be good learners, but especially ISL teachers must be good learners. The teaching of ISL has a relatively short history, and the resource materials as yet undeveloped, so in order to find the answers the students need, often the teacher must do the research themselves.

- A teacher must *be a social, a cultural and civic person*.

Teachers must work well with others. This means working well with their students; it also means working well with their fellow teachers. Teaching is not something one does alone. Teaching involves collaboration.

Sign language is not only a language, it is also a culture (Deaf culture). This means that teachers of ISL must also be able to teach their students about Deaf culture. And since the students are

learning ISL in order to interact with Deaf people (either just to be able to communicate with them, or to be interpreters and a bridge between Deaf and Hearing people), the ISL teacher must be able to not only inform the students about Deaf Culture (that is, give them theoretical knowledge), s/he must also be able to help them acquire the necessary behaviour and attitudes to be able to “fit in” with Deaf Culture, and to be trusted by Deaf people (that is, help them acquire practical skills).

And finally the ISL teacher is often the first Deaf person the students meets, and certainly the first Deaf person they have meaningful communication with, so the ISL teacher has a responsibility to represent their community, the Deaf community, in such a way that the students will have a positive attitude towards all Deaf people and to the Deaf community as a whole.

Let us now return to the above list, and examine in a bit of detail what exactly each type of knowledge and each skill includes:

1. REQUIRED SET of KNOWLEDGE for a good teacher:

- Language proficiency

Often it is assumed that the ONLY requirement for being a language teacher is a good command and proficiency in the language being taught. While this is definitely not true, it IS true that a language teacher must be proficient in the language s/he is teaching.

- Knowledge about language

This sort of knowledge is sometimes call “metalinguistic” knowledge. This includes knowledge about what “language” is, how people use language, and how language functions.

It also includes language-specific knowledge, that is, knowledge about the specifics of ISL, about how ISL is used and how it functions.

Since ISL will be the L1 (first language) for the teacher, but the L2 (second – or possibly third or fourth – language) of the student, a good teacher must have a reasonable knowledge not only of ISL, but also of the language(s) the students already have. That is, the teacher must have some knowledge of/about the L1 of the students. This does not mean that the teacher must “know” the spoken or written language of each student; certainly, it does not mean that they need to be proficient in using those language(s). However, the teacher must at least have a good idea of the ways in which the L1 of the students is different from his/her own L1, that is, is different from ISL.

- Knowledge about teaching and learning

First, this includes a clear and detailed knowledge about the contents of the curriculum and syllabus of the course being taught. And especially clear and detailed knowledge of what the goals of the course are, and the content of whatever evaluation method (for example, exam) there will be at the end of the course to determine whether the student has been successful or not. In other words, the teacher must know what items (what topics, what vocabulary, what grammar points, etc.) are listed in the syllabus and what the student will be expected to know and be tested on.

In addition, a good teacher must know not only what is to be taught (a list) but also the relative importance of each of these (a ranked list). That is, they must know whether all items in the list

to be taught are equally important, or whether perhaps some are more important, and therefore deserving of more classroom teaching and discussion time.

Related to this is the fact that the teacher must have knowledge of the time frame for the course. A good teacher needs to know the schedule of the course and, even more importantly, how much time can and should be devoted to each topic.

In addition, the teacher must possess knowledge of what is expected, as well as what is permitted or not forbidden, with regards to how the language is taught. If the teacher knows that the student will be expected to be able to translate/interpret from one language into another for the final test/evaluation, then the teacher will know that they need to teach in such a way that the students will be able, by the end of the course, to do so.

As we mentioned in the introduction of this section, in addition to the knowledge set, a good teacher must also possess a series of skills.

2. REQUIRED SET OF SKILLS for a good teacher:

- Teaching skills
- Socio-psychological skills
 - Planning skills
 - Time-management skills
 - Skill at flexibility and adaptability
- People skills
 - Interpersonal skills
 - Communication skills
 - Intercultural skills

We will not be able to discuss all of these in detail, and some of them may in fact already be apparent to the student. So instead we will focus on a few which are most important

☐ Skill at Planning

One part of the skill of planning which a teacher must be very good at--because it is a planning activity which they must do before every class--is LESSON PLANNING.

• What is Lesson Planning?

There are, in fact, many different models for how a lesson plan can be designed and what it must contain. Here we will present one such model which the student teacher can easily use, the “Triple Lesson Plan Model”.

Triple A Lesson Plan Model: A Brief Guide

Grade and Subject
Unit Title
Length of Lesson
Specific Learning Outcome (Curriculum)
Behavioural Objective(s)

Materials Required

Activate	Hook	Assess Prior Knowledge	Tell students what they'll learn
Acquire	Share new information		Activity to check for understanding
Apply	Graded second activity for students to demonstrate mastery of the learned information		



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A brief guide to what such a “Triple Lesson Plan” includes is seen in this diagram:

The “Triple A” in the name of the model apply to the three stages of: Activate, Acquire and Apply.

⌘ ACTIVATE

In this stage the teacher prepares the students and gets them ready to learn whatever topic is being taught.

⌘ ACQUIRE

This is the traditional “teaching” stage. The new material (vocabulary, grammar rule, or whatever the new information being taught is) is presented to the students, along with activities which will help the teacher evaluate the students' level(s) of understanding of the new material.

⌘ APPLY

At this stage, which in many ways is the main and most important stage of the lesson, the activities focus on helping the students to:

- > practice
- > internalise
- and
- > master

all the new material, as well as integrating this new material with what they have previously learned.

Good lesson planning should, of course, also include a plan on how the lesson will, overall, fulfill the criteria of R.A.V.E. (which will be discussed below in Section 1.4.2.).

☐ Skill at Planning evaluation

It is also very important that a good teacher be able to critically evaluate both the students' learning and their own teaching.

Evaluating the students' learning means several things:

- 1. Evaluating whether the students have learned the material taught.

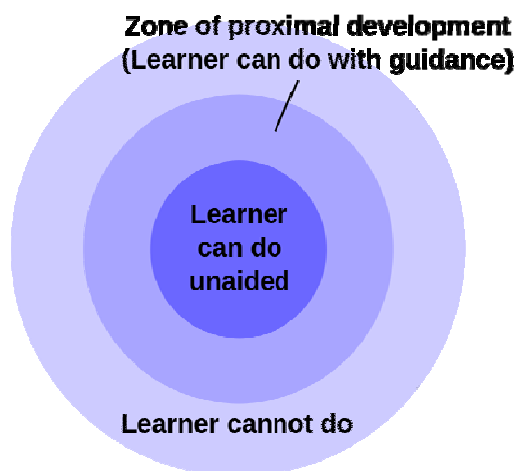
This kind of evaluation is perhaps the main form of evaluation in a traditional approach to education, and is usually performed by giving students tests/exams.

Tests, whether small tests (quizzes) or large tests (examinations), can indeed be an effective way to evaluate the students' degree of success, and how much they have learned (or failed to learn).

However, tests are certainly not the only way to evaluate students' learning, and often are not even the best way to evaluate students. Tests, because of the stress placed on students, often results in some students experiencing anxiety and negative experiences and for many students this can negatively impact on their motivation to learn. In addition, stress and anxiety often result in the student performing more poorly on the test than their actual level of knowledge and understanding.

- 2. Evaluation of students' mastery of what has been taught is not necessarily an all-or-nothing thing. Perhaps the students have understood 60% of the material taught, perhaps 30%. Therefore, it is important for the teacher to evaluate whether the degree of learning is sufficient to move on to the next topic (proceed as planned), or whether review and revision is necessary, or else also possibly whether the subject needs to be taught again, but in a different way.

One important model, developed first by Russian pedagogue Vygotsky, is that of the “Zone of Proximal Development, often abbreviated ZPD (Vygotsky 1929, 1930, 1931). This model illustrates the readiness of students to learn a given thing or skill, and is thus a guide for the sequence in which a teacher should teach topics, and also an aid in evaluating when students fail to learn a topic which has been taught.

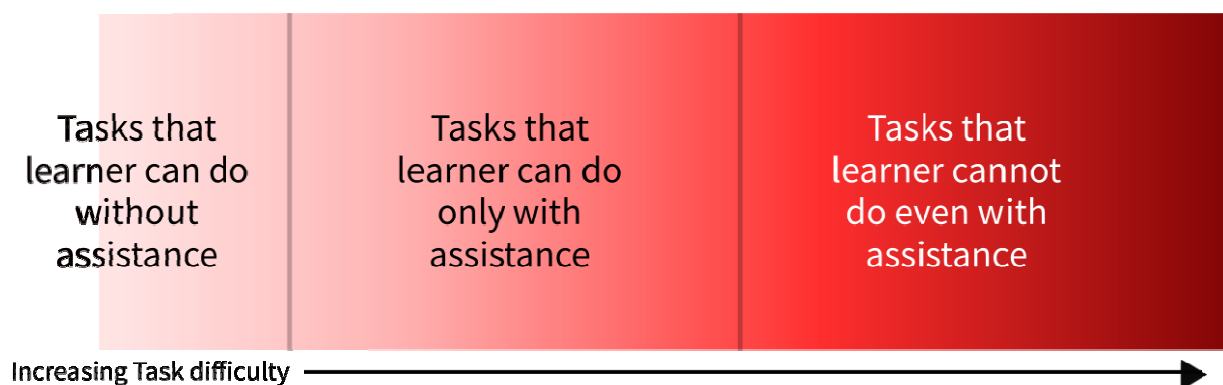


The core knowledge, the centre of the above diagram, is the knowledge and skill topics which have already been mastered, and which learners can do well by themselves without any help from the teacher or others. These topics do not need to be taught, as they have already been fully learned.

At the other extreme, on the outside layer of the above diagram is the knowledge and skill topics which are simply too difficult for the students at this time. They are not yet ready to be taught these topics.

The focus of the teacher – and the day's lesson plan -- then should be the middle area. This represents the knowledge and skill topics which the students have not mastered yet, but which, with the help of the teacher (or of each other in team learning) they are capable of learning, and eventually, with practice, mastering.

This model can be redrawn in terms of sequence:



The arrow which represents the increase in difficulty is also a teaching timeline. The curriculum and syllabus and the series of lesson plans used should all proceed according to the sequence of how difficult the topics are for students to learn and master.

The section on the left are topics which have already been taught and learned, or topics which students already know and which do not need to be taught. The middle section is what can be

taught now, and the section to the right are topics which the teacher should wait to teach until the students are ready.

A similar useful idea developed from this model is the idea of “Scaffolding” (Peters, 2019). Scaffolding is another name for the support the teacher gives to the individual student to help them learn. Effective scaffolding must possess three features. Firstly, the interaction between teacher and student should be a collaborative, two-way process. Secondly, learning must take place within the student's ZPD (see above). For this to happen, the teacher needs to be aware of the student's current level of knowledge and skill. Lastly, the support and guidance provided by the teacher should be gradually removed as the student gains more and more mastery over the knowledge or skill topic. In the end of the learning process the student should be able to know and do things on their own.

- 3. If the students have failed to learn, or learn sufficiently well, the teacher must also be able to evaluate *why* this is the case.

Did the students fail to learn because they are stupid? No, this is almost never the case. Did they fail to learn because the material was too difficult? Because too much material was taught at a time? Because the students had not yet learned other prerequisite knowledge that would allow them to learn the topic taught? Did they fail to learn because they did not have enough practice? Or the right kind of practice? Did they fail to learn because the teacher was not able to explain the topic in a way they could access? Or perhaps the teacher used a teaching method which was not particularly well-suited for teaching this particular topic?

- 4. Lastly, the teacher must evaluate what possibly different teaching strategies will produce a better result (and which strategies are the best). This involves creative and imaginative planning. It also involves flexibility and adaptability, skill at being able to change and adapt the lesson plan to better fulfill the teaching task.

Evaluating their own teaching performance is much harder than evaluating students' performance. It involves both positive and negative critical evaluation:

1. What parts of the recent teaching performance have contributed positively to the students' learning success?
2. What parts of the recent teaching performance have not produced the desired effect of enhancing students' learning?

And finally, sometimes no matter how hard you try, you cannot discover what can be improved. At those times, it should be remembered that teaching is not something you do alone. Be ready to ask the students, if necessary, what they think about why they could not master the topic taught. And be ready to ask your colleagues, your fellow teachers, for their ideas and suggestions – and sometimes ask them to observe how you teach and give you critical feedback which can help you grow as a teacher.

1.3.3 Summary of Section

In this section the student learned:

- A teacher must possess certain knowledge (such as, the subject matter itself and knowledge about how to teach it, knowledge of the curriculum, knowledge about the educational sciences, knowledge of psychology, knowledge about assessment and evaluation, etc.)
- A teacher must also possess certain craft skills (such as, lesson planning, using teaching technologies, managing students and groups, monitoring and assessing learning, etc.).
- A teacher must possess certain dispositions (such as, essential values and attitudes, beliefs and commitment, flexibility and adaptability).

In addition, at a practical level, the student learned about:

- The Three Lesson Plan model
- The Zone of Proximal Development and Scaffolding, and how to use these concepts to help plan what to teach and when.

1.3.4 Exercise

1. Decide if the following sentences are true or false. If the statement is true, write 'true' and then provide more details. If it is false, write 'false' and correct the statement giving reasons.
 - (a) A good language teacher needs many more skills, not just language proficiency.
 - (b) A good language teacher needs to know the first languages of their students.
 - (c) Metalinguistic knowledge refers to information about grammar points.
 - (d) A good teacher should know that not all teaching points are of equal value.
2. List three socio-psychological skills that a good teacher should have. Explain each.
3. List three personal attributes of a good teacher. Explain each.
4. A teacher should be a caring person. Do you agree or disagree? Explain your reasoning.
5. Why should a good teacher also be a learner?
6. Explain what is meant by: Sign language is not only a language, but it is also a culture.
7. What are the three stages of the Triple A Lesson Plan Model? Explain each.
8. Why are tests not always the best way to evaluate students?
9. What is ZPD? Draw the linear model.
10. According to the ZPD model, where and when should the teachers focus their attention?

1.3.5 Suggested readings

Fani, T., & Ghaemi, F. (2011). Implications of Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) in teacher education: ZPTD and self-scaffolding. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 29, 1549-1554. 10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.11.396.

Peters, G. (2019). Advantages & disadvantages of scaffolding in the classroom.
<https://www.theclassroom.com/advantages-disadvantages-scaffolding-classroom-8008434.html>

Wikipedia contributors (2019, 1 October) Instructional Scaffolding. Retrieved on 20 September 2019 from https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Instructional_scaffolding

Wikipedia contributors (2019, 17 October) Zone of Proximal Development. Retrieved on 20 September 2019 from https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Zone_of_proximal_development

1.3.6 References

McDermid, C. (2009). The ontological beliefs and curriculum design of Canadian interpreter and ASL educators. *International Journal of Interpreter Education* 1, 7-32.

Vygotsky, L. (1929, 1930, 1931) = , . . (1929, 1930 1931).
:
2 (. 1 2) (. 3)

1.3.7 Model answers

For exercise 1.3.4

2. (a) True. A good language teacher not only needs language proficiency, but also many other skills and knowledge. A few examples of these other skills include knowledge of methodology, lesson planning, evaluation and syllabus design.
(b) False. The teacher does not need to 'know' their students' first languages, but they should at least 'know about' these languages. For example, they should be aware of how their students' first languages differ from the language being taught. This awareness might make it easier for teachers to help their students.
(c) False. Metalinguistic knowledge means to know what a language is, how it functions and how it is used. It also means knowledge of specific languages.
(d) True. Some teaching points are more important and perhaps more difficult than others. Thus, some teaching topics will require more classroom time than others.
3. Socio-psychological skills include:
 - ✓ Planning skills—the teacher has to make lesson plans and make decisions about what to teach, when to teach and how to teach.
 - ✓ Time management skills—the teacher has to be aware of how much time to spend on different topics during the lesson. The teacher also needs to be aware of how much time to spend preparing effective lessons.
 - ✓ Flexibility and adaptability skills—The teacher needs to make changes when necessary. If a lesson does not work or if students are not making progress, the teacher needs to adapt the lesson and change their responses to improve the situation.
4. Personal attributes of a good teacher include:
 - ✓ Interpersonal skills—a good teacher needs to know how to get along with other people and be able to cooperate.
 - ✓ Communication skills—a good teacher needs to be able to speak (sign) with others effectively. Good teachers need to understand others and make sure others understand them.
 - ✓ Intercultural skills—A good teacher knows that people may have different backgrounds or come from different cultures. Good teachers take into account differences and

similarities and treat others with respect.

5. I agree that a good teacher should be a caring person. The teacher should be concerned about the students and always try to help them. If a teacher shows care for students, the students will trust their teacher, and they will be able to learn better.
6. A good teacher should always continue to learn. When the teacher cannot answer student questions, then that teacher needs to try to find the answer. It is good when students see that their teacher is also learning, and this helps to build trust. A good teacher is always trying to become a better teacher.
7. Sign language is not only a language, but it is also Deaf culture. Deaf culture is about both theoretical and practical knowledge and skills about the Deaf community. Since Deaf culture is very different from Hearing culture, it is important to know the behavior and attitudes that are part of Deaf culture. A person learning sign language needs to learn how to 'fit in' in Deaf culture and behave appropriately.
8. The Triple A Lesson Plan Model has three stages:
 - ✓ Activate—the teacher prepares the students for the next topic of learning
 - ✓ Achieve—the teacher teaches the main point of the lesson by presenting the new material along with related activities
 - ✓ Apply—the students understand the new material, internalise it, and integrate it with what they have learned in previously.
9. Tests can often create stress and anxiety which can decrease student motivation. Because of anxiety, sometimes students do not perform at their actual level, so the evaluation is not accurate.
10. ZPD means Zone of Proximal Development. It is a model of learning developed by Vygotsky, which shows the part that a student already knows, then the part which the student can learn with the help of a teacher or fellow student, and then the part that is too difficult for a student to learn at that point.

-----→-----→-----

learner knows already learner can learn with help learner cannot learn yet

The teacher should focus on the part where the student can learn with assistance from the teacher or from other classmates. They do not need to focus on the part that the student has already mastered, nor should they focus on the part that the student cannot learn because it is too difficult.

1.4 Characteristics of a Good Teacher

1.4.1 Introduction to Section

In this section, we will discuss what it means to be a good teacher. As with most things, there is no single one answer to this question. Different people will have different answers, depending on

their role in the teaching/learning dialogue, and their expectations. In addition, what it means to be a good teacher will depend on whether we focus on process or on results.

1.4.2 Content of Section

A good mnemonic for what a good teacher *does*, which we have perhaps seen before, is R.A.V.E.

R is for Relevant

A good teacher does things in class which are:

- relevant to the goals and objectives of the course
- relevant to the subject matter, in this case, Indian Sign Language
- relevant to the student, in terms of age, background, interests

A is for Active

Traditional school education has been (and in many schools still is) mostly passive. The teacher stands at the front of the room talking, and the students passively listen (if they are hearing!) and watch (especially if they are Deaf), and copy down what the teacher says and writes on the board.

At the very most, the teacher may ask questions and the student stands up and gives the answer or writes it on the board (often copying from their notebook or textbook). And that is all the students do during class. In such a system the student's body is not active, nor is the student's brain active.

Therefore, a good teacher does things which promote *active learners*.

So, what is an active learner?

Some people (but hearing people only!) learn by hearing. Such people are called audial learners.

Some people (including all Deaf!) learn by seeing. Such people are called visual learners.

But, in fact, everyone learns *BEST* by doing. Learning is a process of doing what you are learning. And this is especially true for language learning. Without practice, language learning is almost impossible.

So, the best teaching practices are those which make your students active learners.

V is for Visual

If we remember that Deaf students generally learn in two, and only two ways – either by *DOING* or by *SEEING* – we can easily understand what this V stands for.

DOING is being Active, SEEING is being Visual.

And although we might think that people are divided into:

1) Hearing people who are audial learners

and

2) Deaf people who are visual learners,

in fact, Hearing people are also visual (as well as audial). And some hearing people are more visual than others, and they learn better visually.

In addition, since ISL is a visual language, the job of an ISL teacher involves teaching Hearing students to *SEE* in the same way that Deaf people do. And since learning to speak a new language also means learning to think in a new way, the ISL teacher's job involves teaching students to think like Deaf people think (or at the very least understand how Deaf people think). Therefore, a good sign language teacher needs to help the learners learn how to be *more visual*.

Finally,

E is for Enjoyable

Games are a very effective means of teaching and learning... provided that the activity involved in the game is closely related to the subject of study. Competition can be a strong motivator, and increased motivation has been shown to improve learning results. In addition, team activities (one team competing against another) can be a good way to encourage cooperative learning... students helping each other learn. (We shall examine games as a teaching/learning tool in Unit 5 of this module.)

R.A.V.E. is a useful mnemonic for creating a good teaching and learning environment.

But there are other ways to look at what a good teacher does.

Is a teacher primarily a(n):

Administrator?

Authority figure?

Advisor?

Advocate?

Guide?

Game organiser?

Resource?

Role model?

Referee?

Enforcer?

Encourager?

Expert?

Empower-er?

Entertainer?

The answer is ... *YES!* In fact, a good teacher is often expected to be (Cortazzi and Jin, 1999, pp. 167-172), and sometimes probably needs to be, *ALL* these things.... and sometimes a good teacher is expected to be all of them at the same time!

Clearly, the job of teaching is not a single activity; it involves a combination of activities. Which activity is most important depends on the immediate task at hand.

As we have mentioned, different people will have different definitions of what a “good teacher” is (and does). The learners will have one perspective. Those who set up training programmes and

those who administer them will perhaps have a different perspective. Teachers will have their own perspective.

Therefore, let us look at the question from a few of these perspectives.

- How would an administrator (your boss) define a good teacher?

Administrators are mostly like the rest of us. They do their job as best they can and are happy when others make their job easier, but unhappy when others make their job more difficult.

A large part of an administrator's job involves paperwork. Reports have to be submitted. Grades have to be submitted. And they have to be submitted on time.

And since many of the numbers which have to go into those reports depend on you, being a “good teacher” means submitting attendance rosters, grades, and whatever other documents are required on time.

Sometimes the administrator's main focus will be to make the programme (and also themselves and their staff!) “look good”. And “looking good” means having “good numbers”, which is to say, a high number of students who pass.

Therefore, to meet your administrator-boss' expectation, to be a “good teacher” you have to pass students.

However, for the most part, HOW you pass students is not an issue which the administrator worries about. As long as enough of them pass so that the numbers look good, administrators are usually happy.

SO, you can pass them by making tests easy, and if students still have problems passing, then by adjusting final grades.

OR, you can pass them by making sure that you teach as best you are able, and by making sure you help them learn as best they are able, and when they learn sufficiently well, they will pass.

- How would learners define a good teacher?

Students of ISL will have gone to Indian schools. Their experiences learning English and other languages in school will influence what they expect from a language teacher and from a language class. In Indian schools, languages are usually taught using outdated language teaching methods. Such methods include grammar-translation and rote repetition. When they start learning ISL they may expect that it will be taught in the same way. And they may react negatively to any other teaching method... at least until they understand that the traditional methods are often ineffective – in addition to being tedious and boring!

- How would a teacher define a good teacher?

This last – how a teacher defines what a “good teacher” is – is ultimately the perspective which we will take here, for you yourself, as teacher, will decide how you act in the classroom (and out).

To develop a sense of what defines a good teacher in your own mind, we need to look at teaching both in terms of results and in terms of process.

☐ When good teaching is examined in terms of process:

A good teacher DOES certain things

When good teaching is examined in terms of results:

A good teacher ACHIEVES certain things.

Learning to be a good teacher involves learning both:

☐ What you (and your students) need to do to help your students learn and also

☐ What you (and your students) need to achieve to be successful.

- A good teacher LETS the student learn
- A good teacher ENCOURAGES the student to learn
- A good teacher MOTIVATES the student to learn
- A good teacher HELPS the student learn

Let us look at some of these things:

☐ *Motivation*

Since we all probably attended more or less traditional schools where teachers were rather authoritarian and disciplinarians, we all have experienced what *negative* motivation is: the teacher says “No, that is wrong”; the teacher uses a red pen and marks all the mistakes (and none of the things we have done right!); the teacher gets mad at us when we do certain things or don't do other things the way they want.

Negative motivation is *not* good motivation.

The more a student hears that they are wrong, the less likely they are going to feel that they *CAN*. And if a student doesn't *think* they can, then chances are pretty good that they will fail because feeling that one can, feeling capable, is one of the most important criteria for successful learning. So, rather than always correcting students' mistakes, it's best to find other positive ways.

When the student answers correctly or does something the way it is supposed to be done, it is good to say, “Very good, that is right!”. And when the student is wrong, rather than saying, “No, that is not right!”, it is better to be less negative, and maybe say something like, “Well, I think it might be better to say XXX”, and then suggest other correct ways. That is, it is better to provide good models rather than to tear down bad ones.

And, never forget to encourage them, praise their successes.

To briefly list other things which affect good learning, learning can also be positively influenced by having a good teacher who:

- is able to answer questions and clarify doubts
- is able to teach the student “how to” rather than just “facts”
- is able to provide a good example/model of the language being learned
- is able to be a good guide
- is able to teach the difficult topics in a variety of different ways in the event that the student does not learn it the first time

- is able to come up with applicable metaphors, mnemonics and other tools to help the student understand, learn, and remember
- is able to inspire and motivate

1.4.3 Summary of Section

In this section we looked at what good teaching is from a variety of perspectives. Students will have learned about:

- R.A.V.E. as a model for good classroom teaching
- Teaching both in terms of process and results
- Some of the things a good teacher is
- Some of the things a good teacher does
- The differing perspectives of administrators, of students and of teachers themselves on what a good teacher is
- The importance of motivation and positive reinforcement to promote learning

1.4.4 Exercise

1. What is R.A.V.E? Explain what each letter stands for.
2. Of the list of different roles of a good teacher, choose three that you think you will be your strong points.
3. Based on the different roles of a good teacher, complete the following sentences, choosing the most appropriate one:
bookkeeper expert planner policeman resource person
 - (a) When a teacher tells a student to pay attention, or to stop talking to their neighbour, s/he is being a _____.
 - (b) When a teacher plans what topics will be taught in class today, and how they will be taught, s/he is being a _____.
 - (c) When a teacher answers student questions about the topic being taught, s/he is being a _____.
 - (d) When a teacher takes attendance, s/he is being a _____.
 - (e) When a teacher gives students a list of ISL YouTube videos they can watch to practice their comprehension, s/he is being _____.
 - (f) When a teacher answers student questions about the Deaf community, s/he is being a _____.
4. List three ways a teacher can positively influence students to learn.
5. What is negative motivation?

1.4.5 Suggested readings

Wikipedia contributors (2019, 6 October) *Teacher*. Retrieved on 1 September from <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Teacher>

1.4.6. References

Cortazzi, M., & Jin, L. (1999). Bridges to learning: Metaphors of teaching, learning and language, Chapter 8 in L. Cameron & G. Low, *Researching and Applying Metaphor* (pp. 149-176). Cambridge UK: Cambridge University Press.

1.4.7. Model answers

For Exercise 1.4.4

1. R.A.V.E. is a mnemonic for what makes good teaching. R means relevant; A refers to Active; V is Visual; and E stands for Enjoyable.
2. Any three of the following: Administrator; Authority figure; Advisor; Advocate; Guide; Game organiser; Resource; Role model; Referee; Enforcer; Encourager; Expert; Empower-er; Entertainer
3. (a) policeman
(b) planner
(c) expert
(d) bookkeeper
(e) resource person
(f) expert
4. Any three of the following: answer questions clearly; show students 'how to' not just facts; be a good model; be a good guide; teach difficult material in different ways; use metaphors, mnemonics and other tools for learning; inspire and motivate
5. Negative motivation is the opposite of motivation. Students can lose their positive feelings to study and learn if teachers only focus on what students have done wrong. Negative motivation can lead to student failure.

1.5 Unit Summary

To summarise, in this unit we have discussed:

- The history, background and context of sign language teaching and learning in India
- The roles of teacher and learner
- The knowledge and skills required to be a good language teacher
- Some of the many characteristics of a good language teacher

UNIT 3

LESSON PLANNING AND TEACHING STRATEGIES

Total Hours: 50

Designing lesson plans is an essential skill that teachers need to know. This unit talks about Gagne's 9 stages of instruction applied to lesson planning as well as strategies that can be used at each stage. In this context, Bloom's taxonomy and macro strategies outlined by Kumaravadivellu are also discussed and their application and incorporation in lesson planning.

3.1 Overall steps in implementing teaching – assessment / needs analysis, planning teaching, implementation, recapitulation, evaluation

3.2 Gagne's 9 events of instruction for lesson planning – steps involved in lesson planning

3.3 Bloom's taxonomy and its applications in lesson planning

3.4 Teaching strategies - Kumaravadivelu's 10 macro strategies

OBJECTIVES

After learning this course, the learners will be able to –

1. Understand the essential stages of planning a lesson
2. Understand the important elements in a lesson plan
3. Devise strategies and pen them down systematically in lesson plan sheets, within a stipulated time-frame
4. Devise learning objectives with the help of Bloom's Taxonomy

INTRODUCTION TO THE UNIT

Lesson plans are a set of elements that a teacher needs to plan before her class. This unit explains the important elements of a lesson plan and the steps required to plan each element. The unit also explains macrostrategies for teaching, as proposed by Kumaravadivelu. Sample lesson plans at the end of the unit will help the trainers choose or create a lesson plan template that suits them the best.

The unit has been divided into five sub-units –

3.1 The Overall Teaching Process

(8 hours)

The focus of this sub-unit is broad in scope. It explains the important stages of planning teaching. For a teacher to be effective, it is important for her to think not only about finishing maximum curriculum in a given period of time, but also to ensure maximum learning within the same time

constraints. The stages of planning mentioned in this sub-unit help the teachers in understanding ways to prepare themselves to achieve optimum results so that the needs of the learners and the curriculum are met to the maximum possible extent.

3.2 Ten Macro-strategies of Instructional Design (10 hours)

The sub-unit explains the ten macro-strategies of teaching-learning process as described by Kumaravadivelu (2003). According to Kumaravadivelu, classroom discourse is a two-way process. For this process to be effective, it is important for a teacher to be reflective of her practice. To make a teacher reflective and to help her divert her teaching discourse from the traditional method-centric strategies, Kumaravadivelu has shown ten strategies in a broader context. These can be modified at micro-level and implemented by the teachers for improving the over-all teaching learning process in a classroom.

3.3 Elements of Lesson Plans (12 hours)

This sub-unit explains what a lesson plan is, why is it needed and how can it be prepared and used in a classroom. The teacher learners will learn the elements of a lesson plan that are important for them to prepare themselves for their sessions. Every element of a lesson plan requires the teachers to have a certain degree of knowledge about the students, and the context and content of the syllabus. This sub-unit will explain what the teachers must know, beforehand, in order to prepare an effective lesson plan.

3.4 Planning the LO and the Instructions (10 hours)

This sub-unit focuses upon only two aspects of the lesson plans – learning outcomes and instructional discourse. Both of these elements need thorough deliberation and planning for a lesson plan to be efficient. In this sub-unit, the teacher learners can learn how to prepare –

- a. Learning outcomes using Bloom's Taxonomy and
- b. Clear instructions using Gagne's 9 stages of instructional discourse

3.5 Making Lesson Plans (10 hours)

After studying about lesson plans and how they can be prepared, the teacher learners will now focus on preparing lesson plans. This sub-unit contains some sample lesson plans and lesson plan templates for the perusal of the teacher learners. It will provide hands-on experience for preparing lesson plans and implementing them in classrooms.

Note – The order of sub-units mentioned in this document is different from the one mentioned in the DTISL syllabus. This is because, after understanding about the stages of instructional design, it is important for the teachers to understand more about teaching in general terms. Kumaravadivelu's

10 macrostrategies will help the teachers understand how the stages can be implemented. Hence the 10 macrostrategies by Kumaravadivelu have been moved up and explained directly after the stages of instructional design.

The next three sub-units – 3.3, 3.4 and 3.5 – focus exclusively on lesson plans. To be able to teach the teachers the process of lesson plans, it is first important to introduce them to the elements contained in a lesson plan (Sub-unit 3.3).

Bloom's taxonomy helps a teacher identify learning objectives, while Gagne's 9 stages explain how teachers can plan their steps involved in lesson planning. Both of these – learning outcomes and steps – are two of the many elements of lesson plans. As such, students will find it easy to understand Bloom's taxonomy tables and Gagne's stages, if they are clear about the elements of lesson plans. Hence, the two topics have been combined and put into sub-unit 3.4. It is only after the students being absolutely clear about various elements of lesson plans and the process of their preparation, that whole lesson plans templates can be introduced to them. Hence, the last sub-unit consists of a short revision on how lesson plans should be devised, some sample lesson plans and some templates for their perusal.

3.1 The Overall Teaching Process

INTRODUCTION

This sub-unit takes the teachers through the overall teaching-learning process that happens inside a classroom. A broad outline of the general teaching process is mentioned in this sub-unit. Some of the questions that this sub-unit answers are –

1. What is instructional design and instructional system design?
2. What is a teacher required to do before starting teaching?
3. How can she teach effectively?
4. How can a teacher be sure of the effectiveness of her/his sessions?

Instructional System Design and Instructional Design

To teach is not only to impart instructions, but to understand what kind of instructions will be appropriate for a specific class. It is important for a teacher to prepare for her class well in advance. Planning a class beforehand may not always lead to a perfect session, but it could certainly help in improving the instruction discourse in class ultimately. An instructional system design (referred to as ISD hereafter) and an instructional design (referred to as ID hereafter) can help us create an effective teaching plan.

ISD is a step-by-step process of planning a training program and assessing its overall impact. It is used in a variety of settings. In companies, ISD is used to assess and plan skill development training programs for employees. In military and police forces, ISD is used to device training modules to make soldiers tough. In educational setup, ISD not only helps in planning coursework and overall teaching module for the students, but also in preparing teacher training programs at local and national levels. Thus, ISD can be used at both micro and macro levels.

A systematic plan to deliver a certain lesson effectively in a class is known as ID. Preparing a lesson plan to teach action verbs in a classroom is an example of ID. Another example of ID is

training a team of management interns a few days before an event. ID can only be applied at micro levels.

This sub-unit explains the steps in which overall teaching needs to be planned by a teacher. There are 5 main stages that constitute teaching practice of an effective teacher –

I. Analysis

Analysis of a situation is the most important part of any work. To be effective, it is important for a teacher to first know what the work involves and what are the expectations out of her. Understanding this will help the teacher plan her sessions effectively.

Analysis is an umbrella term. To be a good teacher, a teacher needs to analyze more than just the curriculum. Following are some of the important aspects of analysis that the teachers must not overlook while preparing to teach –

a. Analysis of Students –

- Identify the areas that need development
- Identify the pre-learned (baseline) skills that the students have

b. Analysis of Teaching Learning Material (TLM)

- Identify the time available for each topic with regard to overall syllabus
- Identify the goals of the context and the resources
- Understand whether the level (linguistic, cognitive etc.) of the material matches the level of the students

Exercise for Practice –

Use the NCERT website (<http://epathshala.nic.in/e-pathshala-4/flipbook/>) to get the English textbook for Class V. Enter the following details in the spaces provided on the webpage –

1. Enter Class – Class V
2. Select Subject – English
3. Select Book Title - Marigold

Now, analyse the Chapter 3 and find out the following points –

1. Aim of the chapter
2. Language level of the chapter

You may add your own ideas and points to the points mentioned above.

II. Planning

Planning is an important part of a teaching process. Without planning, no course can ever be effective. A teacher may go unplanned to a class and get some good results at the end. But she will not be able to recreate/reproduce the same results again since the teacher herself is unaware of what happened in a class. Planning the session in advance helps the teacher get a clear picture of what she expects her students to go home with.

It is, however, important to remember that planning a lesson beforehand does not bind the teacher to that lesson plan. She does not need to follow the entire plan. Having a lesson plan helps her easily adapt an alternative course of action in the class if she sees that the students have been unable to produce the desired outcome. The main aim of planning is to help the teacher get a clear idea of the expected output and the relevant input.

Planning can be divided into many sub-categories –

a. Designing goals

- Break the overall learning goals into several smaller chunks –
 - a. Target language that should be taught to the children
 - b. Learning outcomes that are expected at the end of every class, every unit and at the end of the course
 - c. Major course objectives that need to be met every month or quarter

b. Designing timelines

- Determine the instructional topics or units to be covered, and how much time will be spent on each (micro-scale planning).
- Design a timeline required to achieve the course objectives (macro-scale planning)

c. Sequencing

- Check if the sequence of the chapters will help you in achieving the desired outcome.
- Rearrange the chapters, if necessary, and teach them as per your pre-planned objectives.
- Prepare timed sequence (steps) to be followed while teaching
- Assemble the material needed for teaching

d. Lessons and learning activities

- Plan timed activities for each lesson in every unit
- Some lessons may require multiple activities
- Ensure that the activities are goal oriented and enhance class-participation

Exercise for Practice –

You want to discuss about Indian Deaf Role Models in your session. How will you plan for it?

III. Implementation

Even after a lot of research and planning, a teacher may not be ready for the unexpected surprises that she comes across in class. As such, teacher needs to keep herself composed while implementing her teaching plan. She may have to think of spontaneous activities or answers to satisfy the queries asked by the students. She may also have to move away from the planned course of action to maintain an evocative flow of the session. However, a good teacher will be

able to skillfully dodge the questions and the conversation of her students, maintain interest in the topic and still be able to achieve the expected output of her plan. As such, the skill lies not in following a pre-set lesson plan, but in skillfully adapting to the classroom needs without compromising on the planned outcome.

Here some of the important aspects that could help in effective implementation of planned discourse –

- a. *Appropriate sequencing*
 - Start with an interesting activity (called warm-up). The activity should be such that it will introduce the main theme of the chapter
 - Introduce the main topic and teach the chapter
 - Revise and/or ask questions intermittently to make sure that students are following up with teacher's instructions
- b. *Use appropriate examples*
 - Use the examples that your students can relate to. For this, understand your students and their needs w.r.t.
 - a. Strengths and weaknesses
 - b. Likes and dislikes
 - c. Previous experiences
 - d. Future aspirations
- c. *Maintain composed environment*
 - Keep the classroom atmosphere calm and friendly yet controlled
 - Give students autonomy, but the authority should be in a teacher's hand
 - Know when the conversation goes off the track and bring it back to the topic in question without disappointing the students
- d. *Provide precise and clear instructions*
 - Be specific
 - Use simple and short sentences
 - Use examples that may have been experienced by the students
- e. *Interact, don't just teach*
 - To grab attention of the students, start the class with an interesting prompt that can be related to the students as well as the teaching topic
 - Encourage students to share their doubts and thoughts
 - Ensure that the whole class participates
- f. *Delegate the responsibility*
 - Encourage peer-to-peer teaching and group discussions
 - Use the *gradual responsibility release* scale to assess the level of the students. On the basis of this, divide the activities of the lesson between the teacher and the students

Exercise for Practice –

Plan an activity for the topic in the above question. Give a demo of the above planned activity in your class for not more than 15 mins. Take feedback from the teacher and classmates to identify the strengths and weaknesses of your planning and implementation.

IV. Recapitulation

A recapitulation in every session is as necessary as the warm-up session. Do not end a session without revisiting the concepts learnt. An effective teacher will assess her students after every class to see how much they have learnt. Revision at the end of the class can be done in many different ways, such as role plays, group discussions, questions and answers, either the teacher or the students summarizing the chapter etc.

Getting into a habit of revisiting the learnt concepts every now and then can also help in reducing the burden of learning during the exams. For an effective recapitulation, ask questions at the end of every session. The question could be simple text-based questions or questions based on analytical/cognitive aspects of the chapter. Alternatively, try to make the students implement the learnt concepts in their daily lives. This could help in ingrain of the learnt topic into the long-term memories.

V. Assessment

Assessments serve a vital role in providing information to help students, parents, teachers, administrators and policy makers to reach [certain] decisions (Pelligrino et al, 2001). They provide feedback not only on what the child is learning and her/his ability to learn but also on what the curriculum is exposing her/him to and how the teachers are teaching it. However, assessment does not only mean examinations; it can also be in the form of activities and exercises implemented by the teachers in the classrooms on regular basis to check how well the students have learnt.

In India, two most common forms of assessments that are used in schools are –

- a. *Formative Assessment* – It is the unit tests that are taken between the semesters. The aim of these assessments is to help the teachers understand how they should plan the upcoming classes and what is amiss in the child's learning. This helps in procuring better results in summative assessment.
- b. *Summative Assessment*– This is the yearly and half-yearly assessment that tests how much have the students been able to learn by the end of the term.

The summative and formative assessments are usually prepared by the administrative authorities, in which teachers have little or no say. However, the teachers can prepare their own assessments to test the effectivity of the teaching-learning process of her class. The assessments could be simple activities that would encourage the students to recall and apply their learnt knowledge.

Exercise for Practice –

Think about your own school days. Do you think assessments helped you in anyway? Explain how they helped and/or hindered your learning process.

Here are some of the important points to remember while preparing an assessment –

a. Drafting an assessment –

- Identify the concepts that need to be assessed
- Identify the aim of the assessment, such as recalling previous teachings, analyzing the concepts, applying concepts learnt in newer contexts etc.
- Prepare a time-frame and appropriate questions

b. Preparing reports -

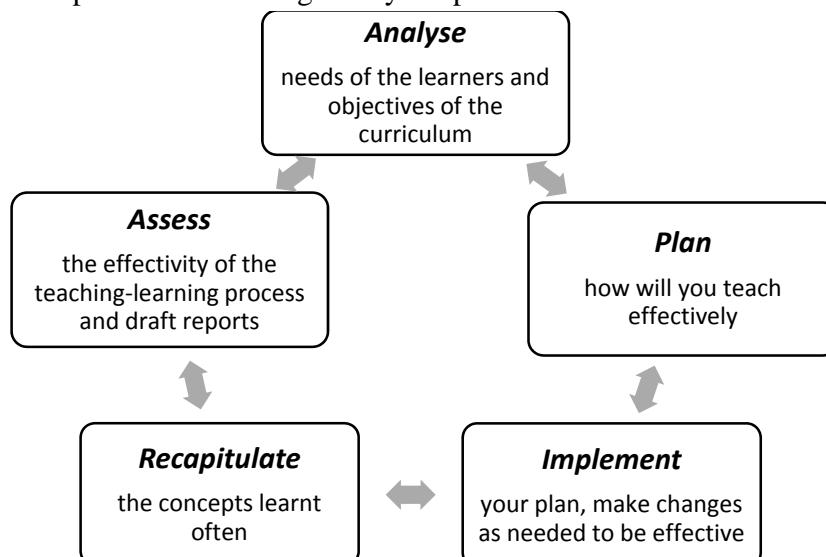
- Draft and save the progress reports (reports can be simple and short or lengthy and descriptive. For example, a teacher can save the progress of her students in a diary or in an excel sheet with comments such as ‘*Behavior improved*’, ‘*More interested in real life examples*’, ‘*[student name] finds it easy to remember concepts but difficult to apply them*’ etc.)
- Analyze the reports and compare them with the previous performance

c. Plan ahead

- Identify the needs of the learners (on the basis of the assessment)
- Plan your next steps for teaching

SUMMARY:

1. Instructional System Design is a step-by-step process of planning a training program and assessing its overall impact.
2. A systematic plan to deliver a certain lesson effectively in a class is known as instructional design.
3. The overall process of teaching is a cyclic process –



EXERCISES –

Q1. Match the following –

A	B
Assessment	helps in recall of important information
Recapitulation	tests effectivity of teaching-learning process
Planning	orients teaching and learning to needs of learners
Analysis	ensures effective implementation

Q2. Answer the following briefly –

1. What are the steps that a teacher must understand to teach effectively?
2. Why is it necessary to summarize/recapitulate every chapter?
3. Name the types of assessments mentioned in this sub-unit. Which kind of assessment was given to you in your school days?

Q3. Complete the table below with points in short. Along with the points mentioned in the sub-unit, you may also add your own ideas.

Sr. No.	Steps in teaching	3 points to remember while working on the steps
	Analysis of students' needs	1.
		2.
		3.
	Analysis of TLM	1.
		2.
		3.
	Planning your session	1.
		2.
		3.
	Teaching in class	1.
		2.
		3.

Q4. Case Studies –

1. Observe a class and notice how the teacher implements her lesson. Write your observation in about 100 words.

2. You have been asked to teach 'History of Sign Language in India' to your class. Explain how you will prepare for your session/sessions using each of the stages of ISD mentioned in this sub-unit.

SUGGESTED READINGS

Explore the internet –

1. How to make your classes interactive and interesting?
2. How to recapitulate?
3. Planning activities
4. 6 Savory ESL Food Activities to Sweeten you Students' English Skills (apply to learning ISL Skills)
5. Difference between authority and autonomy

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MODEL ANSWERS

Q1. Match the following –

A	B
Assessment	tests effectivity of teaching-learning process
Recapitulation	helps in recall of important information
Planning	ensures effective implementation

Analysis

orients teaching and learning to needs of learners

Q2. Answer the following briefly –

1. The steps that a teacher must understand to teach effectively are –
 - a. Analysis of students and TLM
 - b. Planning the goals, timelines, learning activities and the sequence in which chapters need to be taught
 - c. Implementation using appropriate examples, maintaining a composed environment, providing clear instructions, keeping the session interactive and delegating the responsibilities
 - d. Recapitulating the taught concepts
 - e. Assessing the effectivity of her session intermittently
2. Recapitulation helps in ingraining the learnt concepts in the long-term memories of the students. It also helps the teacher understand the effectivity of her teaching. This can help the teacher in planning better for the next session.
3. Types of assessments mentioned in the sub-unit are – formative assessments and summative assessment.

Q3. Complete the table below with points in short. Along with the points mentioned in the sub-unit, you may also add your own ideas.

Sr. No.	Steps in teaching	3 points to remember while working on the steps
	Analysis of students' needs	1. Identification of weaker areas of students
		2. Identification of what they already know
		3. Identification of their interests
	Analysis of TLM	1. Time availability
		2. Identification of goals of the curriculum and the chapter
		3. Checking to see if the level of the content matches the level of the students
	Planning learning activities	1. Plan timed activities
		2. Ensuring that the activities are goal oriented and enhance class-participation
		3. Identification the areas of interest of the students
	Keeping the sessions interactive (implementation)	1. Starting a class with an interactive prompt
		2. Encouraging students to share doubts
		3. Encouraging peer teaching and group discussions

Q4. Case Studies –

1. Some important points to be covered in the answer –

1. Time management for the whole session
2. Was the class interactive?
3. How effectively did the teacher manage the class?
4. Did the teacher use examples to match the needs of the learners?
5. Was peer engagement encouraged?
6. Did the teacher recapitulate at the end?

2. Important points to remember while writing your answer

1. **Analysis**– Identify the goal of the lesson
2. **Planning** – Prepare interactive activities. Keep the following points in mind while preparing the activities – time limits, aim of the activity (it should be relevant to the topic being taught), ensuring that the whole class can engaged
3. **Recapitulating** – Questions to revise the important points of the chapter at the end.
4. **Assessing**–2-3 questions about the chapter to see how well the students have understood and remember the main points/concepts.

3.2 - Ten Macrostrategies for Teaching

INTRODUCTION

The aim of this sub-unit is to help the teachers understand that teaching a language is a many-dimensional work. It has to focus upon not only upon the learners and the teacher, but also on the over-reaching questions of curriculum's relevance to the social context in which the students grow, the learning goals, learning needs and prior knowledge base of the children and the strategies used by teachers for teaching. By bringing these areas to light of the teacher, the sub-unit tries to make teachers reflective of their practice and tread on the path of self-improvisation. The questions answered by this sub-unit are –

1. What are the 10 macro-strategies put forward by Kumaravadivelu?
2. How can these strategies help the teacher in optimizing the teaching-learning process?
3. How can the teachers use the strategies in their classrooms?

After every session, a teacher must take some time to think about what worked well in class and what didn't. She should also try to identify why it worked well or why it didn't. This process is known as reflection. Reflecting on her practice can help a teacher improve her teaching skills. She can also resort to better ways of teaching. This sub-unit will explain how a teacher can decide upon a course of action for teaching in her classroom.

To teach a second language, teachers often resort to specific methods and strategies based on the theories put forward by researchers and education theorists. Kumaravadivelu (2003) has explained that there is often a gap between the theories put forward by the theorists and their implementation in classrooms. It's the teachers who get stuck between these theories and their

personal opinions and their experiences based on their practice. If teachers form their own personal and professional opinions, teachers may be able to bridge this gap. Teachers can also make sure that the teaching-learning process in her classroom is an effective one. This reflection is known as post-method pedagogic practice and was first coined by B. Kumaravadivelu.

He also stated that teaching a language is social processes. It involves many dimensions of society, experiences, and perceptions. As such, despite having a standardized curriculum, teaching methods can never be standardized. Every classroom will have its own diversities and needs. The method that may have worked in a previous class may not work in another class, for the same topic. There are many teaching methods available in the books in the market. A teacher can refer to them. However, it would be a folly for the teacher to consider any of these methods as the ‘*ideal one*’ for a given topic.

THE THREE POST-METHOD PEDAGOGIC PARAMETERS

Kumaravadivelu(*ibid.*) was the first one to suggest that in order to ensure optimum learning, teachers need to find an ‘*alternative to method*’ instead of an ‘*alternative method*’. This approach is called as post-method pedagogy and consists of three pedagogic parameters that can help the teachers find an alternative to method by reflecting and improvising on their teaching practice –

1. *Parameter of Particularity* – This parameter demands particular attention to every dimension of the classroom –
 - a. the curriculum (its goals, relevance etc.),
 - b. the teacher (her knowledge-base, her teaching capabilities etc.),
 - c. the learners (their capabilities, prior knowledge-base, socio-cultural context etc.)
2. *Parameter of Practicality* – This parameter empowers the teachers to create their own theories based on their practice. It recognizes that every theory has to pass the test of effective application to be effective and useful.
3. *Parameter of Possibility* – Language learning is a contextual process. No language can be learnt without context. As pointed out by Kumaravadivelu, language education provides its participants with challenges and opportunities for a continual quest for subjectivity and self-identity. As such, the parameter of possibility asks the teachers to teach their students to enquire regarding the possibilities that lay beyond the contexts presented to them.

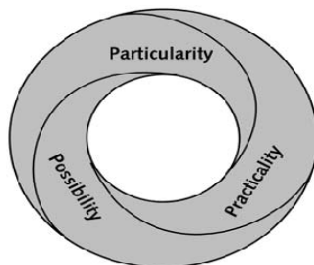


Figure 1 - Parameters of post-method pedagogy as presented by Kumaravadivelu

A good teacher can be particular when she has put into practice her teachings and ideas and taught her students to create possibilities beyond the contexts presented to them. As such, the three parameters are intertwined. These three parameters combine together and give rise to a macro-strategic framework for teaching language. This framework (developed

by Kumaravadivelu) consists of ten macrostrategies which the teachers can implement in their classrooms to get rid of the traditional method-based pedagogy.

Exercise for Practice –

Do you think the three parameters of post-method pedagogy can help you enhance your teaching? Explain how?

THE TEN MACROSTRATEGIES

Kumaravadivelu has described macrostrategies as “guiding principles derived from historical, theoretical, empirical, and experiential insights related to L2 learning and teaching. A macrostrategy is thus a general plan, a broad guideline based on which teachers will be able to generate their own situation-specific, need-based microstrategies or classroom techniques.” The strategies can help the teachers immensely in implementing their ideas and theories and verifying them first-hand.

The macrostrategies are –

1. Maximize learning opportunities

While it is in the hands of a teacher to teach in an effective manner, it is not really in her hands as to what her students learn. Though a teacher cannot totally control the learning process of the students, she can optimize the conditions in the classroom to ensure that students learn to the maximum possible extent. Some of the ways in which learning opportunities can be maximized are –

- a. *Learner Involvement* – Give chances to the learners to express themselves and ask doubts. This will keep the learners actively engaged; alongside, it will also provide the learners with chances to use the learnt language with others. Repetitive use of language will help the students develop confidence in themselves and their language capabilities.
- b. *Asking questions* – Asking question and eliciting meaningful responses can help the learner in using the learnt language and thinking cognitively. Teachers can ask simple questions with answers to choose from, or questions that require analytical thinking.

For example, consider a teacher teaching ‘Rules of Interpreting’. One of the rules is – *Interpreters are strongly advised to avoid patterned designs and, instead, wear colours contrasting their skin colours.* Instead of explaining this rule, teachers can show the rule on the black-board and ask their students to try and sign it. Teacher can then also ask questions such as, ‘*Why should patterned designs be avoided?*’ and ‘*What do you mean by the term ‘colours contrasting their skin colours’?*’ Group discussions controlled by teachers are another example of providing engaging learning opportunities.

2. Minimize perceptual mismatches

There is often a huge gap in the ways in which teacher perceives a class and the way in which students perceive a class. There are also gaps in the ways in which each student perceives a class. This can lead to transfer to unwanted information; and in some cases, loss of expected information or learning. This is defined by Kumaravadivelu as perceptual mismatch. Common causes of perceptual mismatches are - varying cognitive abilities of teachers and students, inappropriate communication (such as confusing instructions, information overload, use of language that students are unable to understand etc.), inefficient pedagogy.

Exercise for Practice –

At the end of any one class, note down the target language and the learning outcome of the session. Go to the teacher and get it verified. Was the target language and the learning outcome written by you the same as that of the teacher? Think of the possible reasons for the mismatch and discuss with your class.

To minimize the perceptual mismatches,

- a. Give clear instructions
- b. Ask questions intermittently to make sure that both the teachers and students are on the same page
- c. Encourage peer interaction
- d. Introduce the learners to the possible causes of mismatches and ask them to be wary of them

3. Facilitate negotiated learner interaction

Providing opportunities to the students to interact helps in many ways. It keeps the students engaged, opens doors to new ideas and enhances the learning process within the learners. Some of the common examples of interactional activities are group discussions, peer-to-peer learning, questions and answers (teacher-to-student or student-to-student or student-to-teacher).

Students may not always be on the right track – both linguistically and contextually. In such situations, a teacher can negotiate with the students and give them proper vocabulary and context to continue with the activity.

Consider the following example – The teacher shows a sentence on the board and asks the students to sign it – ‘*The secret to success is constant practice.*’ Some students might try to sign the sentence in the order of English, while some students may try to rearrange the word order to match the syntax of the sentence to that of ISL. Some ISL interpretations may be –

ISL Gloss 1 – SECRET SUCCESS REPEAT PRACTICE

ISL Gloss 2 – REPEAT PRACTICE SUCCESS SECRET

ISL Gloss 3 – PRACTICE PRACTICE PRACTICE SUCCESS

While the second sentence may be syntactically correct, it is inappropriate in terms of the context of sign language. The last interpretation (ISL Gloss 3) is the most appropriate one. If the students are unable to produce the third sentence on their own, it is the responsibility of the teacher to ask questions and elicit responses until one of the students comes up with a correct sign.

Exercise for Practice –

Do you agree that negotiated learner interaction can facilitate good learning outcome? Can you think of any drawbacks of this method?

4. Promote learner autonomy

To produce better learning, it is important for the teacher to give authority creating a sense of responsibility among the learners. To create a sense of responsibility, it is important for a teacher to make the students psychologically and attitudinally aware of the importance of learning. To promote autonomy amongst learners, it is important for the teachers to help the students -

- a. Think critically and make decisions after careful deliberation
- b. Discover their learning potential
- c. Take learning as a responsibility and fulfill it on their own
- d. Face failures, accept their flaws and learn from their mistakes
- e. Develop self-control and self-discipline, which can lead to self-esteem and self-confidence
- f. Try first instead of depending upon the teacher and the educational system
- g. Understand that autonomy is a complex process of interacting with one's self, the teacher, the task, and the educational environment (that is, make decisions, but discuss them; ask doubts; identify mistakes and discuss solutions)

5. Foster language awareness

Language awareness is the awareness about the way the language is used. Only a linguistically aware teacher can make her students aware of the language that they are learning. As such, it is important for the teachers to know how the language (that they teach) works. To create language awareness among students, a teacher must ask the students questions to critique on the morphological structures of language elements. Slowly students can start thinking in those lines and start analysing language and be more aware of it. When students are shown a passage, the teacher should encourage the students to recognize language morphology along with context. This would keep a balance between the contextuality and language awareness. Teachers should also encourage the learners to accept variety of view-points with an open mind.

Exercise for Practice –

Recall your childhood days. Do you remember asking some questions to the teachers that they couldn't explain and labelled as weird? What was your question? Why do you think the teacher wasn't able to answer?

6. Activate intuitive heuristics

Have you ever read a sentence and found yourself thinking how the sentence can be signed appropriately in sign language? You may come up with three or four different kinds of sentence structures in sign language and then decide upon the one that, according to you, fits the best. How do you validate the authenticity of your preferred structure? There is no specific process to this. When you sign, you think intuitively and prefer a structure that seems best to your intuition. This process of creating language based on intuition is known as intuitive heuristics.

Many linguists believe that language can never be learnt. It can only be acquired intuitively through continual exposure and usage. Renowned linguist Noam Chomsky defines language learning as a complex and an intuitive process. While learning a language, we learn its vocabulary and grammatical structures of sentences and phrases. When we express ourselves, we intuitively use these grammatical structures and vocabularies to create sentences that we may never have heard of in our lives.

As such, in order to make her students fluent, it is important for a teacher to develop intuitive heuristics amongst her students. This can be done by exposing the students to a language with appropriate context and fostering language awareness, i.e., a mixture of bottom-up and top-down approaches.

Exercise for Practice –

1. Did you ever give a consideration to your ability to identify language structures intuitively before?
2. Do you agree that intuitive heuristics actually come into play while to determine the correctness of a sentence?
3. Recall and discuss with your classmates one instance when you might have used intuitive heuristics to determine the correct grammatical structure of a sentence in sign language.

7. Contextualize linguistic input

As stated in the above macrostrategies, for effective language learning to take place, it is important to expose the learners to a language in appropriate contexts. Contexts help the learners understand the bigger picture. This helps the learners to make sense of various grammatical elements present within the context and create a meaningful correlation of ideas and language structures. For example, instead of teaching five random adjectives to a class, it would be more helpful if a teacher showed a text to the students with the five desired adjectives in it. Not only will the students be able to learn something new, but

they will also be able to produce meaningful signs for the new adjectives based on the overall meaning of the context.

Exercise for Practice –

Attend any one language class. Did it have any context or was it totally grammar based? Ask the learners and the teachers how they would feel if context was removed for the next session.

Came back to your class and debate on the responses collected.

8. Integrate language skills

Every language learning process consists four important skills namely –

- a. reading,
- b. writing,
- c. listening,
- d. speaking

In case of sign language, the skills would be –

- a. reading (or understanding) the signs, signed by other
- b. interpreting (in spoken or written) and reverse-interpreting appropriately
- c. expressing oneself in appropriate signs

All the skills are essential and go hand in hand. Language acquisition is incomplete if a student doesn't acquire all of the above-mentioned skills. For example. it would be impossible for a teacher to teach a student to express himself/herself without understanding the signs. As such, it is necessary – and credible – for the teachers to integrate two or more skills in a same chapter.

9. Ensure social relevance

Language learning helps in formation of an identity within an individual (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). It is necessary for the teacher to ensure that the learnt language is relevant to the social and the cultural context in which the learners live. For example, while teaching, instead of exposing the students to passages on achievements made by deaf leaders across the world, it would help the learners more to learn about the work done by the Deaf leaders of India. On the same note, care should be taken to see that the topic being taught would be useful to the learners in their future. In the above example, it would be helpful to teach a batch of interpreters about the Deaf leaders, but it may not be very relevant for the interpreters to learn about anthropological aspects of Indian Deaf Community (unless the interpreters want to specialize in these courses).

However, this does not mean that the learners should be kept away from global knowledge. They should be exposed to facts seen across the world, but impetus should be given to the culture where the learner grows.

10. Raise cultural consciousness

It is important for the teachers to expose the learners to cultural contexts of deaf community. Kumaravadivelu (2003) has quoted the author Stern HH (1992) to emphasize on the cultural consciousness. Stern states that “One of the most important aims of culture teaching is to help the learner gain an understanding of the native speaker’s perspective” (p. 216). “It is a matter of the L2 learner “becoming sensitive to the state of mind of individuals and groups within the target language community”(p. 217). Raising cultural awareness among the learners of sign language can help them understand the social model of deafness and thus bypass or question the prevalent medical model. This could help in further inclination towards understanding of deaf culture and its heterogenic needs.

SUMMARY –

1. The three parameters of post-method pedagogy are – parameter of particularity, parameter of possibility and parameter of practicality. Considering these three parameters can help teacher in identifying ‘alternatives to method’ instead of ‘alternative methods’.
2. The ten macrostrategies can be summarized in form of a figure formulated by Kumaravadivelu (2003) –

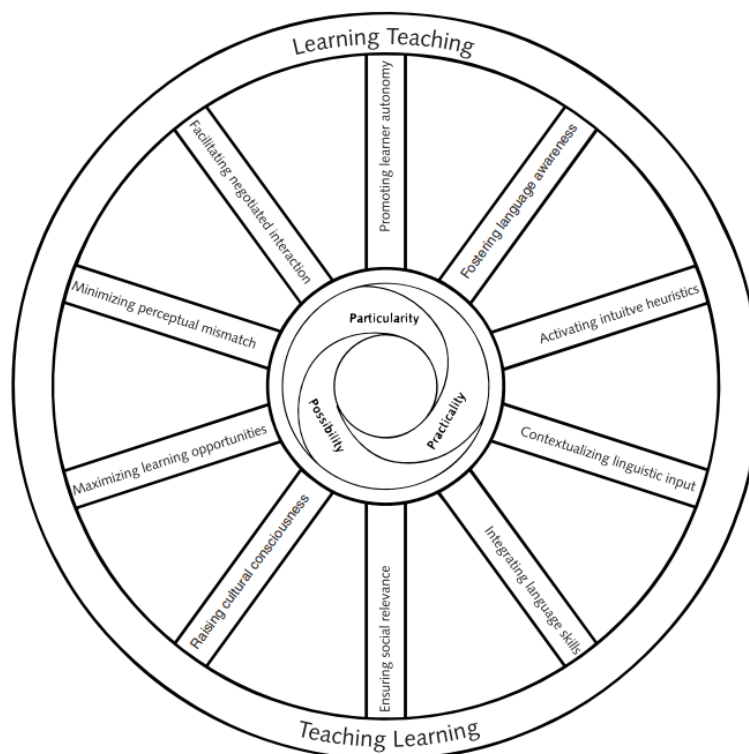


Figure 2 - Pedagogic wheel as suggested by Kumaravadivelu (2003)

EXERCISES

Q1. State whether the following are true or false –

1. Cultural awareness can help in developing intuitive heuristics.
2. Context is not very important while teaching language.
3. Helping the students to think critically promotes learner autonomy.
4. Encouraging the students to ask questions is a way of promoting learner autonomy.

Q2. Answer the following in brief –

1. Name any 3 important factors that can help in promoting learner autonomy in classrooms.
2. Why is it important to add context to a language teaching class?
3. How can perceptual mismatches be minimized in class?

Q3. Case Studies –

1. You want to teach the following text to your class –

<http://deafrolemodels.blogspot.com/2017/08/sibaji-panda.html>

Which language skills can you integrate in your class while teaching the above passage?

2. Use the following questionnaire (adapted from Kumaravadivelu (2003), pp 153-154) to survey your classmates and understand the level of their autonomy. You may add or delete or modify some questions to suit your needs. Ask the participants to choose A if their answer is YES, B if their answer is NO and C if they are unsure.

Aims of Learning			
I want to improve my reading and writing skills	A	B	C
I want to improve my critical thinking skills	A	B	C
I want to improve my grammar	A	B	C
I want to improve my vocabulary	A	B	C
I want to improve my class participation	A	B	C
Strategies			
I compare grammar rules of my L1 with L2	A	B	C
When I read, I focus on pictures, subtitles, and key words	A	B	C
I associate new information with images and pictures	A	B	C
I monitor and judge my progress in language learning	A	B	C
When I read, I use a dictionary to understand new words	A	B	C
I identify the problems that slow down my progress	A	B	C
I like to find out grammar rules myself	A	B	C
I don't think I can evaluate my own learning	A	B	C
Styles			

I like working with a partner in class	A	B	C
learn best when my teachers explain grammar rules	A	B	C
I like to learn from my teachers, not from my classmates	A	B	C
I hesitate to participate because I fear I'll make mistakes	A	B	C
I feel frustrated when I work with classmates	A	B	C
I participate actively in a small group	A	B	C
I don't like to participate in large groups	A	B	C

Collate the responses and discuss them with your class. Based on the data, write how you can use the points mentioned above to promote autonomy amongst your learners.

SUGGESTED READINGS –

1. Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003), *Beyond Methods: Macrostrategies for Language Teaching*, Chapter 1 & 2; Yale University Press, New Haven and London
2. Explore the internet –
 - a. The Pedagogy Wheel
 - b. Second language teaching methods
3. The NCF, 2005; Sub-unit 2.4 Implications for Curriculum and Practice (pp. 17-23)
4. The NCF, 2005; Sub-unit 3.1 Language (pp. 35-41)

REFERENCES –

1. Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003), *Beyond Methods: Macrostrategies for Language Teaching*; Yale University Press, New Haven and London
2. National Council for Educational Research and Training; *National Curriculum Framework* 2005, <http://www.ncert.nic.in/rightside/links/pdf/framework/english/nf2005.pdf>

MODEL ANSWERS

Q1. State whether the following are true or false –

1. Cultural awareness can help in developing intuitive heuristic. – False
2. Context is not very important while teaching language. - False
3. Helping the students to think critically promotes learner autonomy. - True
4. Encouraging the students to ask questions is a way of promoting learner autonomy. – True

Q2. Answer the following in brief –

1. Learner autonomy can be promoted by encouraging the students to –
 - a. Think critically
 - b. Develop self-control and self-discipline, which can lead to self-esteem and self-confidence

- c. Try first instead of depending upon the teacher and the educational system
2. Contexts help the learners understand the bigger picture. This helps the learners to make sense of various grammatical elements present within the context and create a meaningful correlation of ideas and language structures.
3. To minimize the perceptual mismatches,
 - a. Give clear instructions
 - b. Ask questions intermittently to make sure that both the teachers and students are on the same page
 - c. Encourage peer interaction
 - d. Introduce the learners to the possible causes of mismatches and ask them to be wary of them

Q3. Case Studies –

1. Reading and understanding signs, and interpreting.
2. Understanding the responses –

Students with maximum As have maximum learner autonomy. It would be seen that such students are often class/team leaders and/or top ten rankers in exams.

Students with maximum no. of Bs have least autonomy. These kinds of students need to start being more proactive in class.

Students with maximum Cs are a confused lot. They need to ask themselves why they are studying here. They need to reflect upon their own priorities to be more effective in their future.

3.3 Elements of Lesson Plans

INTRODUCTION –

Lesson plans are important part of every teacher's planning for her classes. This sub-unit will introduce the learners to the concept of lesson plans for effective instructional discourse. The sub-unit will address the following questions –

1. What is a lesson plan?
2. Why is it necessary for teachers to make a lesson plan?
3. When should a lesson plan be made?
4. How should a lesson plan be made?
5. Some sample lesson plan templates.

LESSON PLANS AND THEIR NEED

Imagine a teacher coming to classroom where she is about to start a topic. The students may have heard about the topic but were never able to make sense of it. Now, it is up to the teacher to make sure that she explains to her students in a manner that students get a clear picture of the

situation and are also able to learn something new from the class? Do you think a teacher can achieve so many things all at once in just one lecture? Yes, she can - if not completely, then at least partially. She can do this by penning down her plan in a step-by-step manner. This document that contains the general plan for a class is called as a lesson plan.

Every teaching session needs careful deliberation and planning. The document which helps a teacher monitor her planning is known as a lesson plan. Lesson plans are an important part of a teacher's sessions. Teachers should never skip preparing a lesson plan. A lesson plan gives the teacher a brief idea about what she expects herself and the students to do during the session. In the absence of a lesson plan, a teacher may still be able to teach and may still know what she is teaching; but she will not be able to ensure whether or not her students are learning the topics that she actually expects them to learn.

Lesson plans are a step-by-step plan of what is going to happen in the class. For the instructions to be effective, it is important for a teacher to know what outcome she expects from the students at the end of the class. A lesson plan gives an idea to the teacher about how a lesson should be started and how it should end. This helps the teachers in planning the instructions for the class.

Having a lesson plan can help the teacher in –

1. Knowing what is to be taught and why it is to be taught
2. Time management
3. Identifying context-appropriate and class-appropriate learning outcomes
4. Planning what material would be needed to teach the lesson effectively
5. Planning the instructions
6. Keeping records of performances in the past, so that better plans can be created for the future.

HOW TO MAKE A LESSON PLAN

Preparing a lesson plan is a skill that can be developed with practice. In order to make an effective lesson plan, the teacher must first get a clear idea about the important elements of a lesson plan –

1. **Topic to be taught** – This is the topic that the teacher needs to cover. For effective delivery of a lesson, the teacher should know what the exact content and the context of the chapter is.
2. **Target Language (TL)**– In a language teaching class, a target language is a certain set of words (new/important vocab) or grammar concepts (such as subject-verb-object, pronouns, conjunctions, morphology of signs etc.) that the teacher wants the students to focus upon. Knowledge of the content of the chapter and the level of the students can help the teacher in identifying the target language easily.

All the students may not be able to get the entire content right in one class. It is impossible for a teacher to try and ingrain the entire content and context of a chapter into

the students' minds at once. If a teacher has a pre-defined target language, she will be able to provide a more coherent input during the session.

TL could be grammatical concepts like 'he, she, him, her', phrases like 'keep up, as soon as, interested in' or new vocabulary like 'commend, command, comment, review'.

3. **Learning Outcome (LO)** – A learning outcome is the ability of the students to reproduce what they have learnt in the class. Learning outcomes can be divided in several categories. For a language teaching class, the learning outcome is mostly associated with the target language.

Having a pre-defined learning outcome greatly helps a teacher maintain appropriate flexibility while teaching. If the teacher finds that the progress of the class is not as per the lesson plan, she can resort to an alternative course of action so that she is able to achieve the learning outcome successfully.

Some examples of learning objectives are –

1. 'Students will learn how to compare and contrast sentence structures of sign language and English'
2. 'Students will be able to use the learned vocabulary to sign appropriate sentences in appropriate context'
3. 'Students will be able to understand and create appropriate visual spaces to express the content/context in sign language'

It must be noted that one lesson plan can have more than just one LO. What is important is not how many LOs are put in a lesson plan, but how well they are connected to each other.

Exercise for Practice –

You are teaching two classes – A new batch who just enrolled in their first year and the senior batch studying in their final year. The topic for both the classes is – Deaf Etiquettes. Can you frame two distinct learning objectives as per the levels and needs of the students in the two batches?

4. **Activities**–Activities are an important tool as they engage the students and promote active learning. A well-planned activity will engage all the students (ranging from good to below average students) effectively. Activities should be planned so as to achieve the learning outcome of the session. Most common examples of activities are – group discussions, competitions amongst teams, Pictionary, planning a drama on a given topic etc.

Exercise for Practice –

You want to teach Adjectives relating to emotions and feelings. Think and discuss an activity to teach your topic in a more engaging manner.

5. **Material**– It helps the teacher if all the material required for teaching and activities is planned and assembled in advance. It enhances the effectivity of teaching and creates a

positive impression on the students (despite being such a simple and mundane act). *Textbook, reading paragraph, presentation and white board* are the most common materials that every teacher uses. Based on the activities, every teacher needs to assemble corresponding material before the class.

Exercise for Practice –

For the above activity, what will be the material that you will need to carry to your class?

6. **Teaching Instructions**– The teacher should have a clear picture of the kind of teaching instructions that she is going to convey to a class. Ambiguity of instructions is one of the biggest causes of poor or failed learning outcomes. Planning precise and clear instructions in a lesson plan can help the teachers deliver an effective lesson in class. All the instructions should be timed as per their importance to the topic being taught.

The instructional discourse can be divided into 9 stages, as proposed by Gagne (1985). We will study about these nine stages in the next sub-unit.

Some examples of good instructions –

1. Go to page 9. Read the first paragraph. Identify the difficult vocab and discuss it with your partner.
2. (before an activity) – Ask 5 questions to your partner. Write down their responses. Create a story based on the responses.... (after the activity is over) Now, I will select people one by one. They must sign the stories to the class.

Exercise for Practice –

You have to implement the above planned activity in your class. Plan precise and clear instructions for your activity and give a demo to your class.

Teaching instructions can be divided into many sub-stages. We will study about them in-depth in the next sub-unit.

7. **Time available for the topic** – It is important for the teacher to know how much time can she devote to a certain topic in the overall curriculum. At macro-level, knowledge of time can help her in deciding upon activities and teaching strategies to grasp the attention of the students better. At micro-level (that is, planning teaching steps for every teaching session), knowledge of time can help in deciding upon the time that a teacher can devote to each step (instructional discourse, activities, recapitulation etc.) while teaching.

WHEN SHOULD A LESSON PLAN BE MADE?

A lesson plan should be made well before the class. It can be made at any time before the class. However, according to some educationists the best timing to prepare a lesson plan for an upcoming class is *after completion of the current class*. After every class, the teacher should take time and reflect back on the session completed. Since the events of the class would be fresh in her mind, reflecting upon the class and her own practice would be easier and would produce

the best reflections. This can help her in identifying all the missing elements in her class that day. Thus, the teacher can plan the next class more effectively to improvise on her teaching practice. The teacher may think of activities later and add them or change them if she has some better ideas. However, putting the target language and expected outcome after the previous class can really help in achieving continuously and appropriately progressive results.

SUMMARY

1. Lesson plans help in better instructional discourse as well as enhanced teaching outcome
2. A good lesson plan will consist of a TL, LO, precise instructions planned in appropriate order
3. LO can be of different types. They should be chosen carefully on the basis of the current level of the students
4. Session can be made effective by dividing the instructional discourse into 9 events.
5. Table summarizing the important features of a lesson plan –

Elements of Lesson Planning	Knowledge required by the teacher
Topic to be taught	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Content and Context of the topic
Target Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Level of language and vocabulary used in the chapter • Level of the students and their knowledge base
Learning Outcomes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overall course objectives • Types of learning outcomes • Level of the students
Activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Level of the students • Interests of the students • Aim of the session • Time available
Material	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Topic to be taught • Activity planned • Time available
Teaching Instructions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 9 stages of instructions by Gagne et al (1988) • Past experiences of the students • Time available • Whether LO is being achieved or not

EXERCISE –

Q1. Answer the following in one to two sentences –

1. What are the important elements of a lesson plan?
2. Define –
 - a. Learning Outcome

- b. Target Language
3. Why is it necessary to have a target language in every lesson plan?
4. What is the importance of activities in a classroom?
5. According to you, what is the best time to prepare a lesson plan? Give reasons for your answer.

Q2. State whether the following are true or false. Give reasons for your answers –

1. It is important to have interactive activities in class.
2. Every class should have a clear learning outcome planned.
3. A teacher should always have a pre-planned lesson plan for her classes.

Q3. Complete the following table using your own experiences –

Elements of a lesson plan	Things a teacher should know to plan the elements of the LP
Learning Outcome	
Activities	
Target Language	
Material	

Q4. Case Studies –

1. You need to take a session on ‘Deaf Spaces’. Describe an activity that you can use to engage your whole class.
2. For the above activity, design step-by-step and clear instructions to explain the activity to your class.
3. Observe a class taken by one of your teachers. Identify the LO for the class. Meet the teacher after the class and get your answer verified.

SUGGESTED READINGS –

Google –

1. Why is target language necessary?

2. How to frame learning outcomes?
3. Examples of activities for L2

REFERENCES –

1. Anderson, A. W., Krathwohl B.R. et al (2001), *A Taxonomy for Learning, Teaching and Assessing*, The Taxonomy Table, Chapter 3, pp 27-37
2. Courey S J et al (2012), *Improved Lesson Planning with Universal Design for Learning (UDL)*; Journal: Teacher Education and Special Education, Vol. 36, No. 1, pp 7-27
3. Gagne, R. et al (1985); *Principles of Instructional Design*; Fifth Edition, Publisher: Wadsworth Publishing, Belmont
4. John, P. (2006), Lesson Planning and the Student Teacher: Re-thinking the Dominant Model; Publisher: J. CURRICULUM STUDIES, 2006, Vol. 38, No. 4, pp 483–498
5. Julie N. et al (2008); *Teaching Pre-Service Teachers to Design Instructions: A Lesson Planning Template*; International Journal of Inclusive Education, Vol. 12, No. 4, pp. 282-299

MODEL ANSWERS –

Q1. Answer the following in one to two sentences –

1. Important elements of a lesson plan – Time available. Learning objective, Target Language, collecting material for session, Activities (planning and collecting material for activities), Teaching Instructions.
2.
 - a. **Learning Outcome** - A learning outcome is the ability of the students to reproduce what they have learnt in the class.
 - b. **Target Language** -In a language teaching class, a target language is a certain set of words or grammar concepts that the teacher wants the students to focus upon.
3. It is impossible for a teacher to try and ingrain the entire content and context of a chapter into the students' minds at once. If a teacher has a pre-defined target language, she can focus on teaching the context of the target language.
4. Activities are an important tool as they engage the students and promote active learning. A well-planned activity will engage all the students
5. (*Answers need not be the same for all students*) The best time to prepare a lesson plan for the next session would be after finishing the current session.

Q2. State whether the following are true or false. Give reasons for your answers –

1. It is important to have interactive activities in class. – True. Activities make classes engaging.
2. Every class should have a clear learning outcome planned. – True. LO helps a teacher maintain appropriate flexibility while teaching.
3. A teacher should always have a pre-planned lesson plan for her classes. – True. It helps her know what the students are expected to achieve in a session.

Q4. Case Studies –

1. Points to be included – Explanation about activity, Instructions to students for activity (in short), Time management, material required
2. Points to be covered – How will you begin, steps that you will sign for clear explanation, how will you guide/help the students, how will you ensure that aim of the activity has been achieved?

3.4 Planning Learning Outcomes and Instructional Design

INTRODUCTION

This sub-unit provide in-depth knowledge on the concepts on which planning of learning outcomes and instructions is based. It will help the teachers understand how to plan learning outcomes and instructions while preparing a lesson plan. Some of the questions that this sub-unit answers, are –

1. What are the frameworks put forward by Bloom to identify learning objectives for a session?
2. How can instructions be planned by using Gagne’s nine events of instruction?

Two of the most important elements of lesson planning are *learning outcomes* and *planning the steps for instructions*. This subunit will focus on understanding how these two can be prepared effectively.

BLOOM’S TAXONOMY TABLE

There are many ways of identifying learning objectives while formulating a lesson plan. Taxonomy table created by Benjamin Bloom is one of the most convenient and famous models for identifying suitable learning objectives in a lesson plan. He has emphasized that it is necessary to keep the goals realistic and well suited to the students’ learning ability. Bloom’s Taxonomy Table helps in identifying if the goals set forth by the teacher are realistic enough and whether they match the needs of the learners or not.

In 1956, Benjamin Bloom prepared a table to identify learning goals in sub-categories. According to Bloom, the learning process can be divided into 4 types of knowledge dimensions and 5 types of cognitive processes. He created a 2-dimensional table to categorize the learning objectives.

The Knowledge Dimension	The Cognitive Process Dimension					
	Remember	Understand	Apply	Analyze	Evaluate	Create
Factual Knowledge						
Conceptual Knowledge						

Procedural Knowledge						
Meta-cognitive Knowledge						

Table 1.1 - Bloom's Taxonomy Table

The four categories of knowledge dimensions can be explained in the order of their occurrence in human mind as follows –

1. Factual knowledge –

- a. Factual knowledge consists of knowledge related to facts about the topic in question.
- b. Example – knowledge of the exact definition and sign for the word '*climate*' and the understanding of how water vaporizes and condenses during a '*water-cycle*'

2. Conceptual knowledge –

- a. Conceptual knowledge consists of knowledge related to the concepts.
- b. It entails understanding and/or identification of categories, principles, theories, formulae, models and structures.
- c. Conceptual knowledge often co-relates different facts and enables understanding of the process as a whole.
- d. Example – knowledge of why certain words such as vaporization, condensation etc. are signed in a specific manner (morphology of the signs) while explaining the '*water-cycle*'

3. Procedural knowledge –

- a. Procedural knowledge consists of steps involved in a task.
- b. A person possessing procedural knowledge would know where to start to be able to finish a task successfully.
- c. This kind of knowledge can help in determining which method or technique should be used for a certain problem or situation.
- d. Example – in the '*water-cycle*' the knowledge of the step-by-step procedure to sign the explanation effectively

4. Metacognitive knowledge –

- a. Meta-cognitive knowledge consists of cognitive knowledge about a particular task. This kind of knowledge is also known as self-knowledge.
- b. Example – for '*water-cycle*' knowing how to express the whole water-cycle in a visual manner would be considered as meta-cognitive knowledge.

The six categories of cognitive process dimension can be explained as follows –

1. Remember –

- a. Remembering entails information storage in and recall from long-term memory
- b. Processes that can be included in this category are – Recognizing, Recalling
- c. Example – Recalling signs for words like vaporization, condensation etc.

2. Understand –

- a. Understanding involves construction of meaning to the facts learnt
- b. Processes that can be included in this category are – Infer, Exemplify, Classify, Summarize, Compare, Explain
- c. Example – A person who has understood the reasons behind the signs for ‘condensation’ and ‘vaporization’ will be able to explain the logic behind these signs

3. Apply –

- a. Applying involves usage of the knowledge learnt in a larger context
- b. Processes that can be included in this category are – Implement
- c. Example – Once a learner knows the signs for the words like vaporization, condensation etc., s/he would be able to explain the whole water-cycle or any other process that involves these terminologies.

4. Analyze –

- a. Analyzing is a cognitive skill that will help the learner in comparing and contrasting the principles behind the knowledge learnt
- b. Processes that can be included in this category are – Identify, Differentiate, Organize, Attribute
- c. Example – Analysis would involve comparing the morphological aspects of signs of vaporization and condensation.

5. Evaluate –

- a. Evaluation includes deciding upon the accuracy of something on the basis of standard criteria
- b. Processes that can be included in this category are – Cross-check, Critique
- c. Example – Only some skilled interpreters may be able to evaluate the signs for the words like vaporization, condensation etc. to determine if the signs is accurate or why the sign looks different from a standard one.

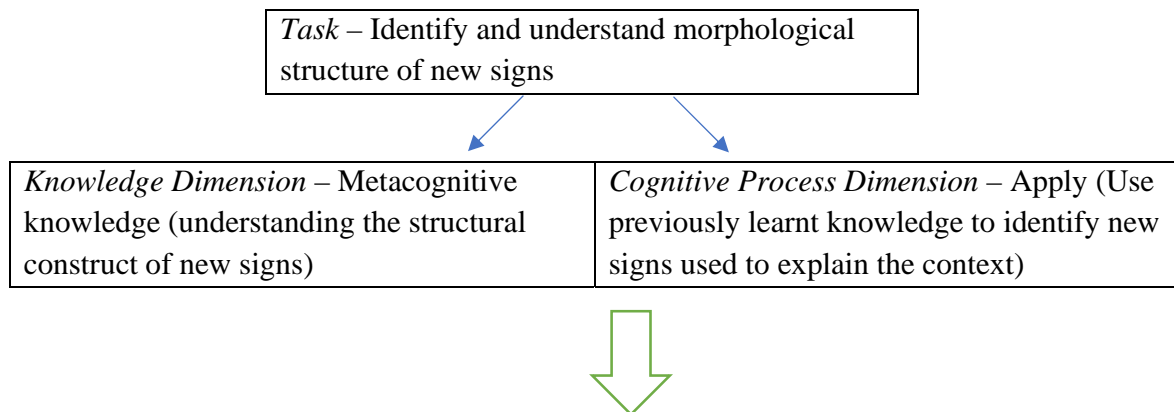
6. Create –

- a. Creating involves production of a new design or structure, based on the previous learnings.
- b. Processes that can be included in this category are – Plan, Produce, Research
- c. Example – Creating visual signs for new vocabulary, based on the context in which the vocabulary is being used

USAGE OF BLOOM’S TAXONOMY TABLE IN IDENTIFYING LEARNING OUTCOMES –

Let us consider an example of a batch of students who have been learning sign language for one year now. The teacher comes to class today and signs the process of water cycle. There is an extensive vocabulary involved in the signed process, which the students have never encountered before. The teacher explains that the students are required to understand the context and identify

the signs for the new words that they come across. What would be the learning objective of this activity?



The Knowledge Dimension	The Cognitive Process Dimension					
	<i>Remember</i>	<i>Understand</i>	<i>Apply</i>	<i>Analyze</i>	<i>Evaluate</i>	<i>Create</i>
<i>Factual Knowledge</i>						
<i>Conceptual Knowledge</i>						
<i>Procedural Knowledge</i>						
<i>Meta-cognitive Knowledge</i>			X			

Table 2.2 - Bloom's Taxonomy Table - Usage

Therefore, the learning objective of this session is that the students will be able to apply their meta-cognitive knowledge to identify the signs.

Exercise for Practice –

Recall one of your own classroom experiences as a learner from your childhood days. Discuss the experience with your class.
Now, discuss and identify the learning objective of your experience (shared with the class) using Bloom's Taxonomy Table.

PLANNING INSTRUCTIONS USING GAGNE'S 9 EVENTS OF INSTRUCTIONS

Once the LO of the session has been decided, the teachers should focus on planning an activity and the steps for teaching so as to achieve the desired LO.

The nine stages of instruction, as proposed by Gagne are –

1. **Gaining Attention** – A teacher can gain attention of her students by calling attention of the students and having light talk. Once she has the students' attention, she can brainstorm the class with an engaging prompt (questions or activities). This will make sure that the entire class is thinking in similar lines.
2. **Introducing the topic** – Before the teacher starts teaching the topic, students should know what they are about to learn. As such, the teacher should give a short background about the topic that she is about to teach. She may also expose the LO and TL if she thinks it would help. Some teachers call this stage as '*warm-up stage*'.
3. **Recalling Prior Information** – The teacher should quickly revisit the old concepts and try to relate them to the current topic. This ensures continuous and consistent flow of the teaching sessions.
4. **Presenting the Material** – Once the teacher has introduced the new topic and revised the old one, she should expose the students to the material to be used for teaching the new topic. Having a visual demonstration in front of the eyes can help in better learning. If it helps, the teacher can pre-teach the TL so that the main teaching is quicker.
5. **Guiding the Practice** – Aid your teaching with examples. Examples, especially previously experienced ones, make learning easier for the students. Show demo of exercises that students are expected to do. Provide prompts and hints to help easy recall of the concepts previously learnt.
6. **Response Generation** – Ask questions while teaching, to ensure that students have caught up with the teacher's teachings. Take recapitulation session to give students chances to reproduce what they have just learnt. Give them homework such that they will be able to apply the learnt knowledge.
7. **Provide Feedback** – Provide feedback to the students to help them improve. Encourage students to take peer feedback and improve themselves.
8. **Assess Performance** – Assess the students frequently to make sure that the teaching-learning process is on track. The frequent assessments can also help the teachers in identifying the next steps to achieve the overall course objectives.
9. **Apply Learnt Knowledge** – Give chances to the students to apply the learnt knowledge in their lives. Application of learnt theories helps in better and quicker grasp of the learnt knowledge.

Table 3 – Table explaining the 9 events of instructions as stated by Gagne (1985)

Events of instructions	Explanation
Gaining Attention	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Light talk • Orderliness in class • Mention of a specific situation/event (prompt), so that all the students start thinking in similar context

Introducing the Topic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduction to what the students are going to learn in the session • Exposure to the expected LO and the TL (in some cases)
Recalling prior information	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recall of what was learnt in previous session • Relate it to the topic of the current session
Presenting the material	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pre-teach the TL • Teach the main material
Guiding the practice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Show examples or demo • Provide prompts and hints for easy memorization
Response Generation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Make students reproduce what they just learnt • Give homework assignment to ensure practice
Providing feedback	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide feedback on the responses • Encourage for peer feedback
Assessing performance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decide on criteria and take periodic tests • Encourage students for self-assessment and peer-assessment
Applying the learnt knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduce the students to situations where they can recall and apply the knowledge learnt

An example on how specific instructions can be planned as per the 9 events of instructions proposed by Gagne -

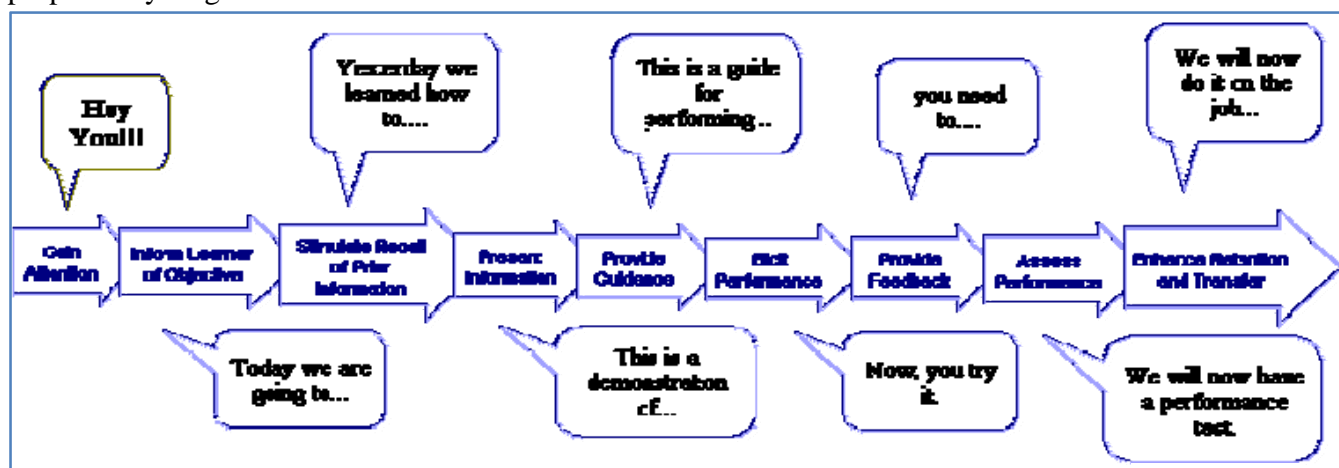


Figure 3 - Example for Gagne's 9 events of instructions.

Source: http://www.nwlink.com/~donclark/hrd/learning/id/nine_step_id.html

Exercise for Practice –

You have to teach verbs to your class today. Plan an activity and design precise and clear instructions using Gagne's 9 events.

EXERCISES

Q1. Answer the following.

1. State the nouns of Bloom's Taxonomy Table.
2. State the verbs of Bloom's Taxonomy Table.
3. Consider that you are teaching water cycle to your students. Locate the following LOs on the Bloom's Taxonomy Table –
 - a. Explanation of concept of water cycle and the underlying signs used to express the processes of vaporization, condensation etc.
 - b. Explaining the process of water cycle in a visual and step-by-step manner
 - c. Analysis of the visual aspects of signs for words like vaporization, condensation etc.
 - d. Defining the concepts like vaporization, condensation etc.
4. Explain the first stage of instructional design as mentioned by Gagne. Why do you think is it important?
5. After finishing her lesson, how can a teacher assess whether the students have grasped the important concept or not?
6. Mention Gagne's nine stages of instructional design in the exact sequence as mentioned by him.

SUGGESTED READINGS

1. Explore the internet –
 - i. Types of learning outcomes
 - ii. How to gain attention of learners
 - iii. Strategies to pre-teach vocabulary
2. Gagne, R. et al (1985); *Principles of Instructional Design*; Fifth Edition, Publisher: Wadsworth Publishing, Belmont

REFERENCES

- 1 Anderson, A. W., Krathwohl B.R. et al (2001), *A Taxonomy for Learning, Teaching and Assessing*, The Taxonomy Table, Chapter 3, pp 27-37
- 2 Examples for Gagne's 9 stages of instructional design –
http://www.nwlink.com/~donclark/hrd/learning/id/nine_step_id.html
- 3 Gagne, R. et al (1985); *Principles of Instructional Design*; Fifth Edition, Publisher: Wadsworth Publishing, Belmont

MODEL ANSWERS

1. Nouns of Bloom's Taxonomy Table – Factual Knowledge, Conceptual Knowledge, Procedural Knowledge, Meta-cognitive Knowledge.
2. Verbs of Bloom's Taxonomy Table – Remember, Understand, Apply, Analyze, Evaluate, Create

3.

- a. CONCEPTUAL KNOWLEDGE – Concept of water cycle

APPLY – Applying the learnt signs to express the processes of vaporization, condensation etc.

- b. PROCEDURAL KNOWLEDGE – Step-by-step process of water cycle

UNDERSTAND – Understand the process

- c. CONCEPTUAL KNOWLEDGE – Visual concepts of sign language

Analyze – Analyze the signs and comment on their visual aspect

- d. FACTUAL KNOWLEDGE – Knowledge of facts (condensation, vaporization etc.)

REMEMBER – Remember and recall of definitions

The Knowledge Dimension	The Cognitive Process Dimension					
	Remember	Understand	Apply	Analyze	Evaluate	Create
Factual Knowledge	d					
Conceptual Knowledge			A	C		
Procedural Knowledge		b				
Meta-cognitive Knowledge						

4. The first stage of instruction, as proposed by Gagne–
Gaining Attention – A teacher can gain attention of her students by calling attention of the students and having light talk. Once she has the students' attention, she can brainstorm the class with an engaging prompt. This will make sure that the entire class is thinking in similar lines.
5. After a class, a teacher can ask quick questions to her students. She can also give some activities to the students and monitor their performance. If the students have understood her instructions well, they would be able to give an outcome with accuracy above 60%.
6. The nine stages of instruction, as proposed by Gagne are –
 - a. Gaining Attention

- b. Introducing the topic
- c. Recalling Prior Information
- d. Presenting the Material
- e. Guiding the Practice
- f. Response Generation
- g. Provide Feedback
- h. Assess Performance
- i. Apply Learnt Knowledge

3.5 Making a Lesson Plan

INTRODUCTION –

The sub-unit will explain the necessary steps for making a lesson plan. It will also show some sample lesson plans that the students can use for their reference.

Now that we have understood all the important elements of a lesson plan and how each one can be framed, let us see how an entire lesson plan can be made. Steps for making a lesson plan are –

1. Understand the content and the context of topic that needs to be taught.
2. Choose an appropriate TL.
3. Using Bloom's Taxonomy Table, decide on a specific LO based on the topic and the level of the students. The learning outcome should act as a stepping stone in achieving the overall course objective.
4. Once the TL and LO are framed, decide upon the activities for the class. The activities could be group activities or individual activities.
5. Design specific instructions and questions for effective teaching discourse using Gagne's nine stages. You may remove or rearrange some of the stages to suit the needs of your class.
6. Divide the time between activities, teaching and practice based on needs of the students.
7. Pay attention and identify how much engagement your lesson plan provides to your learners.
8. Summarize the chapter once again to check if the students have learnt the TL or not. The revision could be a 15-minute activity or 2-3 questions lasting for less than 5 mins.

SAMPLE LESSON PLAN TEMPLATES

TEACHERS NAME / 8/15/2016	
Single Subject Lesson Plan	
SUBJECT: _____	SPECIAL ACTIVITIES Early Release: Friday 1:00 PM Birthdays: Sam Smith
LESSON: _____	
STANDARDS ADDRESSED: _____	

OBJECTIVES: _____	

MATERIALS NEEDED: _____	

OUTLINE:	
RESOURCES: _____	

ACTIVITY: _____	

ASSIGNMENT: _____	
EVALUATION: _____	
NOTES:	

Lesson Plan Template 1 – Source: <https://www.lucidpress.com/pages/templates/education/table-lesson-plan-template>

Sample Lesson Plan

Date	
Trainer and Batch Name	
Topic	
LO	Students will be able to ...
TL	
Material Used	

Stage	Time	T Activity	S Activity
Warm-up			
Main Activity			
Review			



Notes –



Lesson plan

Name:

The theme of the lesson:

Date:

Grade:

Aims (by the end of the lesson Ss will get):

Stage	Procedure	Interaction	Time
warmer			
Pre-reading			
Vocabulary			
Reading (extensive)			
Post-reading			
The results of the lesson			
Giving marks			

Lesson Plan Template 3 - Source: Anonymous

SAMPLE LESSON PLANS

Sample 1 -



Sample Lesson Plan

Date	30 August, 2018
Trainer and Batch Name	
Topic	Global Warming
LO	Students will be able to read passage and explain about temperature and global warming
TL	Global warming, temperature, emissions, greenhouse gases
Material Used	Text passage, picture, black-board

Stage	Time	T Activity	S Activity
Warm-up	20 min	Ask- 1. What is temperature? 2. Do you know what happens in atmosphere when temperature increases or decreases? 3. Show a pic* and ask students what they think about it	Respond to questions, add opinions and experiences
Main Activity	10 mins	1. Explain about temp in short.	Read in pairs. Help each other with difficult vocab
	20 mins	2. Explain difficult vocab	
	20 mins	3. Divide Ss in pairs and ask them to read the paragraph.	
Review	20 mins	1. Ask Ss to come out and sign sentence.	Sign sentence
	5 mins	2. Summarise in last 5 mins.	

Notes –

1. Link for the pic to be used during Warm up-

https://www.google.com/url?sa=i&source=images&cd=&cad=rja&uact=8&ved=2ahUKEwif4aXNzqThAhUcTo8KHxhHBjMQjRx6BAGBEAU&url=https%3A%2F%2Fwww.livescience.com%2F55632-deadly-diseases-emerge-from-global-warming.html&psig=AOvVaw1wP0e55DDpzjl24C7_23iE&ust=1553854771998008

2. Passage used for teaching (Source: <https://www.bartleby.com/essay/Global-Warming-PKCT3ESZTC>) –

Global warming is the process in which the Earth's temperature starts increasing. This happens because industry, fossil fuels, agricultural processes caused by human, natural, and other gas emissions, this factors increase greenhouse gases, greenhouse gases are made up of carbon dioxide, methane and nitrous oxide. The greenhouse gases stay in the atmosphere and prevent the sun's warming rays to leave the Earth. So the sun's warming rays stay inside the Earth increasing its average temperature.

The above lesson plan is an extract from the training material used by v-shesh Learning Services for their Bridge English Curriculum being taught to students studying in class 9.

The Science of Verbs

The student will connect science to everyday, unusual, or rare actions carried out by people.

Grade Level: 8 - 10th | **Subject:** Science | **Length of Time:** About 2 Class Periods

Objectives & Outcomes

The students will be able to identify the science involved with common actions and behaviors of the human race.

Materials Needed

Internet access or other resources

Prepare ahead of time: A method of displaying students' responses during the opening of the lesson, which can be saved and referred to if necessary.

Procedure

Opening to Lesson

- Teacher will tell students: Today we will be starting class with a writing lesson.
- Ask students: How many action verbs can each of you name?
- Accept all responses and list the actual action verbs using the display method (Defining action verb may be necessary for some students.)

Body of Lesson

Modeling

- Ask students: How do you think these action verbs are related to science? Or, how is science related to each action/behavior?
- Encourage students to think about the science behind each action/behavior (Example: Walking: How many muscles are involved? How do joints allow people to move? The list could be endless.)
- Encourage students to go beyond the usual and think outside the box for each action

P.T.O.

Guided Practice

- Assign 3 to 5 actions to each student from the generated list (Keep track of the actions/students)
- Tell students they are responsible for identifying the science behind the action
- Remind them to think about: How? Why? What? Comparing/Contrasting and more
- Students may create their own questions to answer about the action as well
- Once completed with the research, have students write an essay (pre-determined length) about each of the actions and the science involved
- Share a suggested starting point for the essay: For example, "Eating is an action a person takes part in every day. There are numerous science concepts related to eating..."
- Once completed with each essay the students will turn them in to be evaluated for accuracy, effective communication, and writing style
-

Independent Practice

- For homework, assign one more action verb to each student to research, but also have the students interview five adults, asking the question: What does science have to do with (verb)? Write one more essay and the responses to the interview question.

Closing

Discuss the responses from the students' interview question. Ask: Why is it important to understand the science of everyday actions/behaviors? Finally, write the word "noun" on the board, and ask students to name some persons, places, and things. End the lesson.

Assessment & Evaluation

Assess the completed written reports based on pre-determined rubrics

Modification & Differentiation

Students may work in pairs. Prepare a list of action verbs to use ahead of time instead of allowing students to create the list. Instead of written reports, students give oral presentations. Assign more or less action verbs to each student.

A sample lesson plan used by ----- organization for teaching science

EXERCISES

Q1. Choose a template and prepare appropriate lesson plans for the following topics –

Sr. No.	Text Title	Webpage link
1.	Deaf History	https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Deaf_history
2.	Sign Language Interpreter Guidelines (choose any 3 questions from the link provided)	https://www.eud.eu/news/sign-language-interpreter-guidelines/
3.	The First Hundred Years (of Gallaudet University)	https://www.gallaudet.edu/academic-catalog/about-gallaudet/history-of-gallaudet
4.	Impact of strict oralism on deaf children	-
5.	Audism	-

SUGGESTED READINGS

1. Courey, S. J. et al (2012), *Improved Lesson Planning with Universal Design for Learning (UDL)*; Journal: Teacher Education and Special Education, Vol. 36, No. 1, pp 7-27
2. Joyce, B. R. and Harootunian, B. (1964) Teaching as Problem Solving; Publisher: Journal of Teacher Education, Vol. 15, No. 4, pp. 240-427
3. Google – Lesson Plan Templates

REFERENCES

1. Anderson, A. W., Krathwohl B.R. et al (2001), *A Taxonomy for Learning, Teaching and Assessing*, The Taxonomy Table, Chapter 3, pp 27-37
2. Courey S J et al (2012), *Improved Lesson Planning with Universal Design for Learning (UDL)*; Journal: Teacher Education and Special Education, Vol. 36, No. 1, pp 7-27
3. Gagne, R. et al (1985); *Principles of Instructional Design*; Fifth Edition, Publisher: Wadsworth Publishing, Belmont
4. John, P. (2006), Lesson Planning and the Student Teacher: Re-thinking the Dominant Model; Publisher: J. CURRICULUM STUDIES, 2006, Vol. 38, No. 4, pp 483–498
5. Julie N. et al (2008); *Teaching Pre-Service Teachers to Design Instructions: A Lesson Planning Template*; International Journal of Inclusive Education, Vol. 12, No. 4, pp. 282-299

UNIT 5

TEACHING LANGUAGE SKILLS

Total hours: 80

This unit focuses on understanding what it means to know vocabulary and grammar and what being able to communicate means, and how to teach these specific language abilities.

5.1 Teaching vocabulary

- What does it mean to know a word?
- Types of vocabulary
- Ways to improve vocabulary

5.2 Teaching grammar

- Types of grammar (functional vs formal)
- Discovering grammatical structures
- Teaching aspects of sign language grammar that are different from spoken languages

5.3 Teaching communication and narration

- Importance of developing communicative skills
- Ways to develop communicative skills
- Ways to develop fluency
- Guided and free narration

5.4 Teaching production and comprehension

- Aspects of overall production and comprehension
- Ways to teach production and comprehension
- Issues due to lack of written form of sign languages and solutions

5.0 Introduction to this Unit

Imagine you want to hang a picture on the wall.

Now imagine that this is what you have available to use for this purpose.



You open your toolbox, and see the following tools there:



Which one are you going to use?

The saw? No. That tool will not help at all to do what you want to do.

The wrench? No. I think everyone knows that a wrench is definitely the wrong tool for driving a screw into the wall.

What about the hammer?



No again! You might be able to bang the screw into the wall with a hammer, but you certainly would not be able to do a good job.

To put a flat-headed metal screw into the wall in order to hang a picture, the best tool to use is a screwdriver.

And we all (or most of us) know this.

In this unit we will look at teaching skills. Skills are a lot like tools.

For each individual task to be performed, there is a best tool – or maybe a choice of more than one “best” tool. Likewise, in teaching, there are certain teaching skills and teaching methods which are “best” for teaching vocabulary. But those same skills might *not* be good for teaching grammar... just like the hammer is good for putting *nails* in the wall, but *not* for putting in *screws*.

Since language teaching – like language learning – actually involves being able to do a wide range of tasks, it is important for a good teacher to have a wide range of skills.



Although language learning (and therefore also language teaching) involves many many other things, in this unit we will be focusing on:

- understanding what it means to know vocabulary
- understanding what it means to know grammar
- understanding what being able to communicate means

and, of course, on:

- how to teach these specific language abilities (that is, how to teach vocabulary, how to teach grammar, and how to teach communication skills.)

TWO CAUTIONS are needed here:

1) For many Deaf people in India, *any* hearing person who “knows” sign language is, by definition, “an interpreter”. While this is definitely wrong – and a serious mistake – it is an expectation which needs to be understood by Deaf and hearing alike.

“Knowing a language” involves one particular knowledge and skill set; “being an interpreter” involves an additional knowledge and skill set. Although an interpreter also needs to “know a language” (in fact, *two* languages) in order to “be an interpreter”, just knowing a language is *clearly not enough*. Being an interpreter also involves having other skills, in addition to “simply” knowing a language. It involves having language skills AND also having interpreter skills.

This module, however, focuses *only* on the knowledge and skills needed for teaching students (or helping them learn) what it means to “know a language”. You will learn the knowledge and skills needed to teach students (and help them learn) how to “be interpreters” in a later module.

2) As should be obvious, this course (and therefore also this module) focuses on teaching *hearing adults* sign language as a *second language*. Therefore, it has little to say about teaching *deaf children* sign language as their first language. The skills and knowledge required and the teaching methods used for the latter are almost entirely different from those required for the former.

5.0.1 Unit Learning Outcomes:

Having studied this unit the student will:

- be able to discuss what all language learning (and language teaching) involves in terms of requisite knowledge and skills
- be able to list some traditional teaching habits (that is, teaching behaviour typically seen in schools, both those for the Deaf and those for the hearing, across India) which have proven *ineffective* in promoting students' learning, and to list what the more effective alternative habits are
- be able to discuss different ways in which vocabulary is “known”
- be able to list a variety of skills and techniques which can effectively be used to teach ISL vocabulary
- be able to discuss different ways in which grammar is “known”
- be able to list a variety of skills and techniques which can effectively be used to teach ISL grammar
- be able to explain various ways in which knowing vocabulary and grammar is NOT enough for “knowing a language”
- be able to list a variety of skills and techniques which can effectively be used to teach students how to communicate in ISL

5.1 Teaching vocabulary

1. Introduction to Section

It goes without saying that vocabulary learning is a major part of the process of language learning. And knowing a sufficient vocabulary is an important requirement for being able to communicate, and also for being a good interpreter.

5.1.2 Content of Section

Later in this section we will look at some of the knowledge and skills needed to teach sign language vocabulary, but to start this section let us look at the issue of vocabulary selection. This really involves *three* questions:

- 1) How much vocabulary to teach?
- 2) What vocabulary to teach?
- 3) When to teach vocabulary?

Let us examine each of these questions in turn:

- 1) How much vocabulary to teach?

This question must actually be answered twice: first, how much vocabulary to teach in a single lesson? and then secondly, how much vocabulary to teach overall in the entire course.

The answer to the first question depends, for the most part, on two things: (a) the minimum vocabulary which is required in order to teach and discuss whatever topic is being taught, and (b) the maximum amount of vocabulary that the students are capable of effectively learning at one time. The answer to the question of how much vocabulary to teach then is somewhere between these two. And hopefully the minimum which is required to teach the lesson is not greater than the students' maximum learning capacity!

The answer to the second question is largely determined by the curriculum set for the course (which is something that individual teachers rarely determine on their own), and will be, at minimum, whatever level of vocabulary the student is expected to have attained by the end of the course.

In addition, the overall vocabulary should ideally include at least whatever vocabulary will be required by the student for the level of communication needed for their own personal aims. This will be somewhat different for students who have learned ISL in order to be able to informally communicate with (“talk with”) Deaf friends and family members and for those who have learned ISL to become sign language interpreters.

As for what number this may be, there has, unfortunately, been insufficient research on ISL, or indeed on any sign language, to say exactly. However, for spoken languages, if we use English as a guide, very basic conversation is possible with only 1,000 words, but around 3,000 words is need to be sufficient for most normal conversation needs. To read normal texts (something which ISL learners will never be required to do, since ISL is not a written language) requires around 10,000 words, while an “average” adult native speaker actually knows 20,000 words actively (and maybe twice that number passively).

As sign languages work differently from English and other spoken languages, and since sign language vocabulary tends to be much more adaptable to a wider range of usage, if one had to guess, then perhaps somewhere around 2,000 signs should be considered as a minimum for a basic diploma course aiming to produce graduates capable of normal sign language conversation, and between 3,000 and 5,000 signs would suffice for competent beginning sign language interpreters. (Note: these numbers include only signs which the learner has *full* active command of, not all of those which they simply understand when they see them but are not actually able to use correctly themselves.)

- 2) What vocabulary to teach?

Again, the list of required vocabulary will to a large degree be set by the curriculum. However, as such lists are usually a minimum, and often focus only on a subset of the actual vocabulary

which is required by the course, individual teachers typically must supplement this vocabulary in the classroom as they teach.

In addition, students themselves will often ask “How do you sign X?” sorts of questions, which then will present the teacher with the question of whether or not to teach the additional vocabulary the student desires to learn, and indeed the question of what additional related vocabulary can be taught as well.

Although there is no set rule for how to select vocabulary, Genç (2004, pp. 119-120) summarises some of the principles of vocabulary selection. Some of the more important of these principles include:

frequency

Sign Language learners will benefit most by learning sign vocabulary which is used more frequently by Deaf people. Since there have been no studies on relative frequencies of various signs in normal ISL conversation, the Deaf teacher is left to their own intuition as to whether a given sign is common or rare. The general rule for basic courses then is: teach common/frequency signs; don't teach rare/infrequent signs.

range

Some word and some signs have broader meanings, or in fact a range of meanings, which also means that they can be used in a wider variety of situations and thus are potentially more “useful” for learners to know.

For example, the English word “table” has a range of meaning which includes not only the piece of furniture which we might use to eat off of, or to use as a desk, but also a “table of contents” and a “spreadsheet table”. In fact, it is also used as a verb, as in to “table a motion”.

defining power

Especially for beginning learners and learners with a smaller vocabulary, it is helpful if they have “replacement words”, or words they can use to explain (“define”) what they mean. Thus, in English, a student may not know the word “cobbler”. If, however, they already know the three words “man”, “repair” (or “fix”) and “shoes”, then they can use the explanation, “the man who fixes shoes” as a replacement for the vocabulary item “cobbler” (“I took my old shoes with the hole in the sole to the man who fixes shoes.” = “I took my old shoes with the hole in the sole to the cobbler.”).

learnability

The learnability of a vocabulary item is in turn based on a number of factors:

- Whether the new sign is similar to signs which the student already knows, without being easily confused with these signs
- How easily and clearly the meaning and usage of the new sign can be demonstrated,
- How complex is the sign and how regular is its form(s),

- How much effort is required of the student to learn the new sign,
 - Whether the new sign falls in a “centre of interest” (that is, how motivated the student is to learn the new sign, based on their desire to talk about topics where the new sign might be useful)
- Thus, for example, if the students already know the sign BOSS, then the new compound signs CAPTAIN and PRESIDENT are easily learnable.

On the other hand, beginning students who have just learned the sign MAHARASHTRA* might be confused if they are taught the sign for RIGHTS* too soon because the two signs are produced in very similar ways, with the only difference being the orientation of the palm up versus down (of all the parameters HOLME we will look at below, (palm) orientation may be the hardest one for beginning students to remember).

* (see below, as there are at least two different signs used for both MAHARASTHRA and RIGHTS in India, depending on region and on individual)

Other issues in choosing which vocabulary to teach

Although there is a large amount of sign language vocabulary which every Indian signer would agree should be taught and learned by students, there are also a number of types of signs about which there is disagreement as to whether they should be taught or not.

-a) Whether to teach slang, and especially signs which are socially restricted (including those which are considered by some as “vulgar” or swear words).

-b) Whether to teach language variety, and especially regional and non-standard vocabulary.

It has been common, unfortunately, for some teachers of ISL, and so-called experts in ISL to denounce some Indian Deaf signers’ language as “non-ISL”. This same trend applies to varieties of vocabulary and to varieties of manual-alphabet/fingerspelling used.

The problem is:

1) the people who pronounce and denounce often themselves commonly use forms which they themselves say should not be used.

So, part of deciding what vocabulary should or should not be taught depends on how one answers the question: “What is ISL”?

The only realistic answer which makes sense is that ISL is the language, including all the vocabulary and grammar variation, which typical Indian Deaf signers use and understand in everyday discourse. If ISL is to be an inclusive language, that is, the language of ALL of India's Deaf, then it must also accept the variation which occurs both within and between various locales across India.

For example, the sign variety used widely by Deaf in Bengaluru is sometimes called ASL, and many Bangalore Deaf themselves refer to it in this way. However, anyone who knows and uses American Sign Language would never call it American Sign Language! A look at its grammar, and at a large majority of its vocabulary, and it becomes clear that it is simply the Bengaluru variety of ISL. Yes, it incorporates a higher percentage of ASL signs than does ISL of, for example, Deaf in Delhi. But this is no more reason to call their sign language ASL than the fact

that educated Indian Deaf wherever they live tend also to use a higher percentage of ASL signs than their lesser educated Deaf co-citizens.

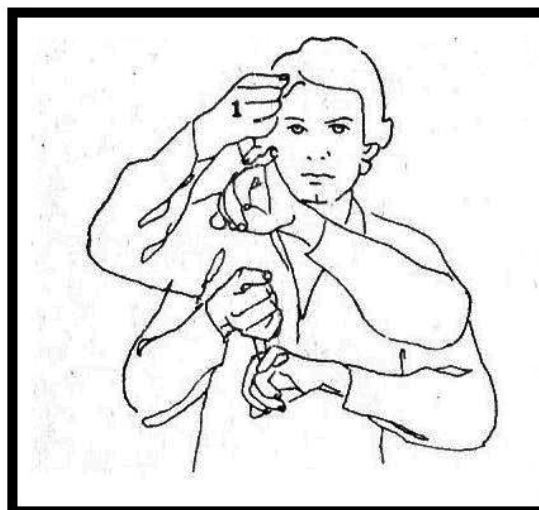
2) Likewise, when you train hearing people from across India to go back to their own communities and serve as Indian Sign Language interpreters there, this means that they NEED TO learn the variety of ISL which is used BY THEIR community. Otherwise they will FAIL at their jobs.

An ISL interpreter in Mumbai MUST know the Mumbai signs for the days of the week. It is okay if they also know the “standard” ISL signs, but for their job, in order to communicate with local Mumbai Deaf people, they MUST learn the Mumbai signs for MONDAY, TUESDAY, WEDNESDAY, etc.

Practically, of course, an ISL teacher at a national level institute (such as, for example, ISLRTC) teaching a class of future ISL interpreters with students from Delhi, Mumbai, Chennai, Lucknow and Kolkata CANNOT be expected to know all the signs used by Deaf in all these communities. So, what should they do? Perhaps the most practical answer is that they can teach examples used in the locale where the class is being taught first, but then, as the course progresses, and before the students return to their homes to be sign language interpreters, teach whatever additional regional varieties they know, but more importantly they can at the very least be more tolerant, and less judgmental as to “pure” ISL versus “bad” ISL (which in reality is determined in Deaf communities, not in research and teaching institutions).

And it must be remembered that what usually the people who preach about “right” and “wrong” ISL are actually saying is, in effect: “MY ISL is GOOD; your ISL is WRONG!”

Additionally, although “Standard” ISL is based largely on the Delhi and Mumbai varieties, this “dialect” itself has a certain degree of variation, including variation based on how old you are. For example, what is the meaning of the following ISL sign?



If you are a young Deaf person from Delhi, and use the modern “Standard” ISL vocabulary, which is most commonly taught, this sign means SOUTH. However, in the dictionary based on

Delhi variety just 40 years ago (Vasishta et al., 1980), this sign meant EVERY-SUNDAY. If we look at the ISL used today in Delhi by older Deaf, we can expect that some of them at least will sometimes (or maybe even normally) use this sign in this meaning, rather than in the meaning it normally has in the new “standard” ISL.

- 3) When to teach vocabulary?

This is a question of sequencing, and the general principle is that one teaches signs first which are most needed and useful for classroom use, but also those signs which will be the most helpful in the learning of other signs later on.

Thus, for example, the sign for WOMAN/FEMALE should be taught very early on because of its general usefulness in classroom conversation, and also because of its usefulness later on in learning a large group of complex signs all of which include the sign WOMAN/FEMALE as one of their parts (for example, MOTHER, DAUGHTER, GIRL, WIFE, SISTER, etc.).

What does it mean to know a word?

In learning vocabulary, “to know” a word means:

- to pronounce the word correctly; and to be able to spell it correctly. Especially in a school setting to “know a word” means to “know how to correctly spell the word”. (And, of course, while the pronunciation of spoken languages is of little importance to Deaf people themselves, interpreters who help them communicate with other hearing people must know and have good pronunciation.)

Such a definition, of course, works best for spoken and written languages, but in fact can also be applied to “knowing a sign”.

“Pronunciation” is usually understood as having to do with voice, however, in fact it means being able to articulate (or “form”) the word correctly (whether with the mouth or with the hand is less important), and also to be able to recognise the word (again, whether with ear or with eye is also less important).

So, for the learner of sign language the important things are:

- How to recognise (and understand) the sign when they see it, and
- How to produce the sign so that a Deaf person will recognise (and understand) it

To illustrate what pronunciation means for ISL, we will use the widespread “HOLME” model.

Signs are formed using the following components (“parameters”):

H = Handshape

O = Orientation

L = Location

M = Movement

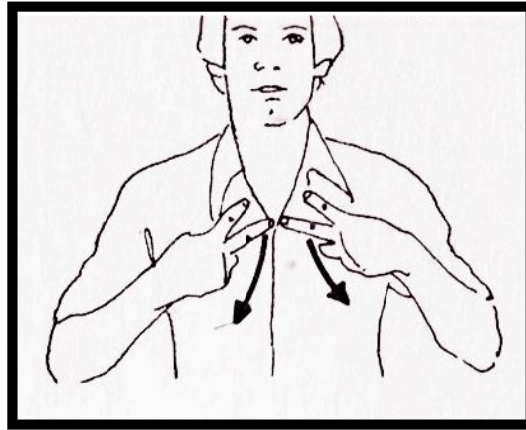
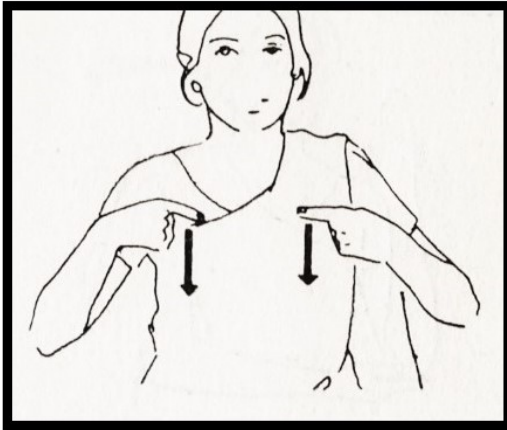
E = Everything Else (including especially facial expression, but also head nods and shakes, shifts in orientation of upper torso, etc.)

Let us look briefly at each of these. (More detail and examples will be given in a later unit on the

“Linguistics of Indian Sign Language”.)

Handshape

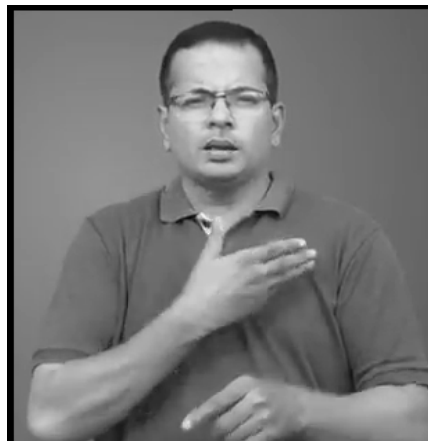
Compare the following two signs:



The sign on the left means BODY, while the sign on the right means LAWYER. The main thing which distinguishes them, one from the other, is the difference in handshape. Sometimes there is also a slight difference in location, orientation or movement, with the fingers in the sign for LAWYER being closer to the centre of the chest, and the fingers in the sign for BODY being a bit out from centre. This difference, however, is not always present, and thus is less important. Therefore, of course, the correct understanding of handshape is crucial for understanding and being understood.

Orientation

Compare the following two signs:

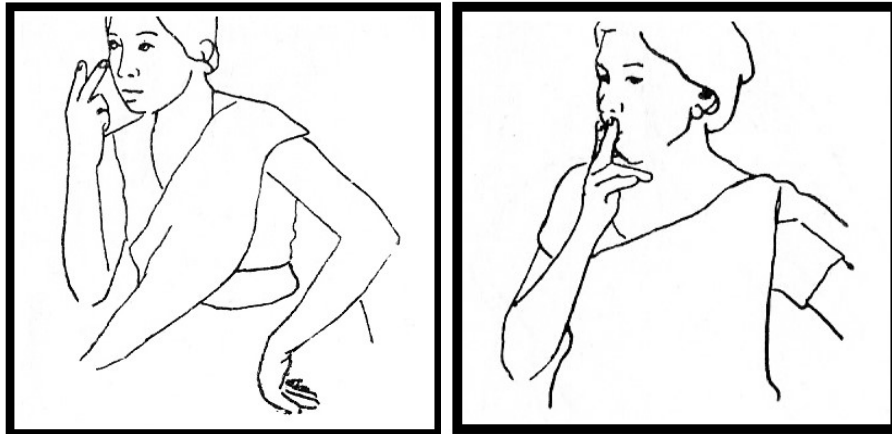


The handshape, location, and motion are the same; all that is different is the orientation: in the ISL sign MAHARASTHRA*, the palm is oriented facing downwards; in the ISL sign for (HUMAN) RIGHTS(S)*, the palm is oriented facing upwards.

* (as above when we referred to these same signs, both MAHARASTHRA and (HUMAN) RIGHTS are signed in at least two different ways by different signers in India. Here we refer *only* to the forms illustrated in the photos.)

Location

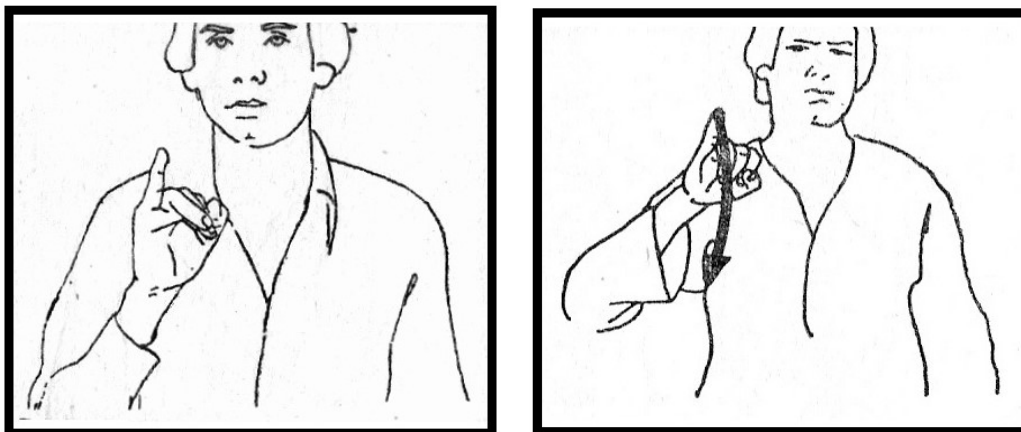
Compare the following two signs:



The one on the left means WATCH or LOOK-AT, while the one on the right means SMOKE or CIGARETTE. The only essential difference between the two signs is the location of the fingers. This shows that location is an essential component of the correct “pronunciation” of signs in ISL.

Movement

To see how movement is important for distinguishing signs, look at these two signs:



Here the first sign (TOILET, URINATE) is “pronounced” with either no movement (as depicted) or else with a slight side-to-side movement, whereas the second sign (BAD) is signs with a large outward movement (alternately, a large movement towards whatever is bad).

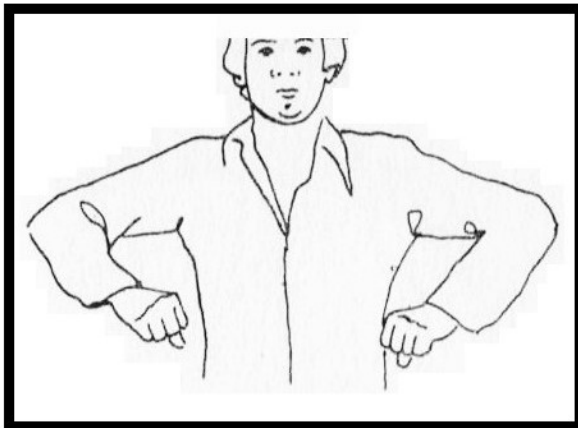
As a further example take the sign HELP:



The direction of the movement, either towards the signer (YOU-HELP-ME), or away from the signer (I-HELP-YOU), or in some other direction (HE-HELPS-YOU), is grammatically extremely important. Thus, movement can be important not only at the level of vocabulary but also at the level of grammar.

Everything Else

Although this parameter includes a lot (in fact, everything except the fingers and hands), we will give a single example here. Take the following sign:



If this sign is accompanied by puffed cheeks, a slight sagging of the shoulders, and a puffing out of the stomach, then the meaning is **FAT**.

If, however, this sign is accompanied by a “firm” and tense facial expression, a broadening of the shoulders and a puffing out of the chest, then it means **STRONG**.

To go back to our question of what it means to “know a word/sign”:

- to know the word's meaning;

Frequently when people ask if you “know a word”, what they mean is whether you can “give a definition of the word”. Such an understanding of “know a word” means that to “know a language” also means that you have a dictionary of that language in your head, with a list of definitions of each word.

Related to this sense of to “know a word/sign” are:

- to know its connotations;

A word/sign, in addition to its literal meaning, also brings up related or secondary meanings. For example, to really know and understand the English word “black”, the learner must know that it (often) carries a negative (bad) connotation. For example, “Black Friday”, “a black mark against his name”.

- to be able to use it in a sentence; and

For example, for the English word “care”, and to be able to use it, you have to know that it goes with the verb “take” and the preposition “of” before the object. So, for example, “Please take care of my bike while I am gone.”

- to know its idiomaticity

Some words are used in unusual ways which are called “idioms”. For example, the word “broke” has two meanings: 1) it is the past tense of “break” (“He broke my pencil.”), and 2) an adjective meaning “having no money” (“I want to buy a new shirt, but today I am broke.”).

In addition to these two meanings of the word it is also used in the idiom “go for broke”, which means “to risk everything in an all-out effort to achieve success” (“Rahul really wanted to be an artist so he went for broke, quit his job and devoted all his time and money to painting.”)

Another idiom with this very same meaning is “to put everything on the line” (where the word “line” is used in an abnormal, idiomatic way.)

To summarise, to know the word “box” in English means to know

- that it is pronounced /boks/ but spelled “box”
- that in fact there are TWO different words “box”

A. a verb, meaning to engage in the sport where two people punch at each other, usually wearing



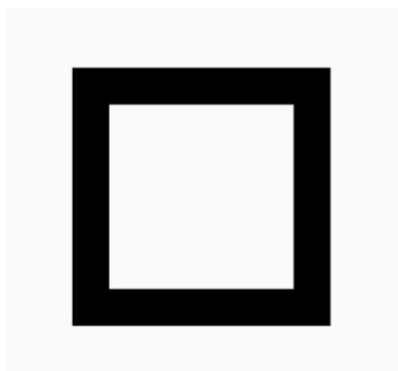
gloves:

B1. a noun, designating a 3-dimensional rectangular cubical container, often made of cardboard or wood:



and also

B2. a noun designating a two-dimensional square, especially one printed on a paper document:



and also



B3. a verb meaning to put things in such a container

- that the plural of the noun, and the third personal singular present tense form of the verb(s) is “boxes” (not “boxs”), the past tense of the verb is “boxed”, and the present participle, and action noun for the verb is “boxing” (which also serves as a noun for the name of the sport in A).
- that “to box someone on the ears” means “to strike a someone on or around the ear, usually as a punishment or reprimand for some behaviour”.

For example:

“Mom gave me a *box on the ear* when I arrived home late.”

- that “to put someone in a box” does not (necessarily) literally mean to put them in a container, but rather usually (and idiomatically) means “to categorise a person as being a certain type”, “to stereotype a person”.

In addition to knowing meanings, connotations, usage, and idioms, for sign language interpreters, knowing a sign (“word”) is often also thought of as meaning to “be able to give a spoken word equivalent for the sign”.

Take for example the following sign:



If the student sees this sign and thinks CAR, then they know part of the meaning and usage of the sign. However, in addition to this usage as a noun, this same sign can be used as a verb to mean DRIVE. In addition, this verbal usage can be inflected in a number of ways, each one producing a slightly different “meaning”.

- to be able to recognize a word's category (or categories),

Since the usage as a verb DRIVE is perhaps just as common as the noun usage CAR, to really know this sign, the student must know that the sign means both CAR (noun) and DRIVE (verb), and, in addition and perhaps just as importantly, they must also be able to recognise from the sentence/context which of the two is meant.

Also, since signs in ISL can frequently be modulated according to context, thereby changing the “meaning”, the student needs to be able to recognise at least the most common of these modulations. Thus, for example, the two hands can be moved forward to mean DRIVE-THERE, or moved forward and then back towards the signer to mean DRIVE-THERE-AND-BACK, and this can be repeated to mean COMMUTE-BY-DRIVING. If the sign DRIVE is accompanied by a puffing of the cheeks and the sign is articulated more tensely and usually with the hands held further forward from the body, the meaning becomes DRIVE-FAST, etc.

To summarize, *real* “knowledge” of the meaning of a sign (or a word in spoken/written language) is knowing HOW to use it, and understanding how it is used when you see others using it.

Meaning IS Usage.

- *Ways to improve students' vocabulary*

Aside from normal classroom teaching of vocabulary, it is also important for sign language teachers to know how the teacher can help students to improve their ISL vocabulary.

There is really only one answer to this question: students will improve their vocabulary only by practice. Therefore, the teacher must design activities and problems (and homework!) for the students which will get them to practice (rather than just memorise).

Even when the students are in the classroom and the teacher is “making” them practice, the degree to which they are actively engaged with that practice is largely determined by their motivation ... and by how much they are enjoying the learning process. An effective tool for getting students to practice in class is to incorporate vocabulary games regularly into the teaching/learning routine. The more the students enjoy the classroom activities (and everybody enjoys games!), the more involved they will be, and the harder they will try. While there is no limit to the variety of games which can be effectively used in class to help students learn and use vocabulary, and no doubt each teacher will be able easily to come up with many of their own games, here are a couple examples of games which focus on vocabulary learning followed by a game-like classroom activity.

Example Game #1. The Teacher's Cat

Any number of people can play. The teacher or student who is leading the game chooses a handshape. The player has to make a sentence of the form:

“The teacher's cat is (appropriate handshape) cat.

and each student in turn must include in the sentence an adjective sign which uses the chosen handshape.

A time limit for thinking time can be decided beforehand. If at the end of the time limit the student whose turn it is cannot come up with a sentence including an adjective with the chosen selected handshape, then they have to sit down. The game proceeds around the room with each student in turn having to complete the sentence including a sign which has not yet been used by a previous student. The last person left standing is the winner.

This game can also be played in teams rather than with individuals, where team members can work together to think of a sign that fits the requirement. Team play is especially appropriate at the beginning level where individual students may have smaller vocabularies to choose from.

Example Game #2. Unending Sentence Game

To start the game the teacher or student leader gives a sentence of the form:

The *motor scooter* is red.

After the first sentence, each student in turn as the game goes around the room must repeat the sentence and add an adjective. Thus, the next student might sign:

The motor scooter is red and fast.

The next student then must add another adjective:

The motor scooter is red, fast and expensive.

Each student in turn must remember (exactly!) the adjectives used before, and the order in which they were used. At the beginning of the game the sentences are quite short, but as the game goes on and more and more adjectives are added, the sentences get quite long, and each student is having to remember and practice a larger number of vocabulary items.

The teacher can require that the sentence be a sentence which would be used in real life (for example, if the noun is *girl* then the adjective cannot be green, because girls in the real world are never green), but it is often more fun (and funny!) if nonsense sentences are also allowed.

A time limit can be set for each student to complete the task correctly, or else a limit to the number of times each student can try to correctly remember all the previous adjectives in the correct order. Or students can be required to repeat and repeat again until they can complete the task correctly. To choose which rules to follow, the teacher can consider the level and ability of the students in the class, and how hard the task might be for them. All exercises and activities should be challenging and not too easy for students, but it should not be so hard that it is impossible for them to do correctly.

Example Class Activity: Word Web #1

Begin with the ISL sign for ZERO, NOTHING using the “F” handshape. Then add around this, other signs with the same handshape.



You might end up with something like this:



Note: There are various signs used for ZERO/NOTHING in ISL. Here we have used the sign with the American Manual Alphabet “F” handshape. (Vasishta et al, 1980, p. 175).

Example Class Activity: Word Web #2

Construct a SEMANTIC Word/Sign Web for the sign ZERO/NOTHING, this time based on MEANING. This Web should be, and will contain *ALL NEGATIVE SIGNS* in ISL.

Since ZERO is a negative concept, the sign for NOT, the sign for DON'T! and all other negative signs can be included in the Web. Likewise, since ZERO is a number, all other signs for numbers (1,2,3,4, etc.), as well as the sign for NUMBER, signs for arithmetic and mathematical operations (ADD, SUBTRACT, MULTIPLY, DIVIDE, etc.), can be included (since number is used in arithmetic/mathematics).

Since the number of related signs is very large, you COULD give enough time and large enough paper to draw and construct a huge semantic net for this answer. However, as that takes a lot of time, you could ask for a MINIMUM of 15 signs.

Encouraging usage and practice

A common occurrence in language classes is that although the students may be actively engaged in sign language during the class period, during class breaks, during lunch periods, and as soon as they leave the building after class, all sign language ceases and they return entirely to the hearing world. Although to a certain extent a teacher can make students practice inside the classroom, the only way to make them practice outside the classroom is to motivate them to *want to practice more*. The problem is how to promote interaction by the learners with Deaf outside of the classroom. This can be done by bringing outside Deaf into the classroom from time to time, or if this is not possible, to introduce the students to outside Deaf outside of class hours (for example, have an outside Deaf person come to the class at the very end of class).

Students can also be encouraged to practice outside of class when the teacher informs them about, or, even better, accompanies them on field trips to places and events where sign language will be used and where Deaf people will be present. (It is, of course, important to suggest that they attend events only if hearing people and especially if sign language learners will be welcomed by the Deaf at the event. Some events are best “Deaf only” events.)

5.1.3 Summary of Section

In this section we have looked at a wide range of issues concerning teaching and learning vocabulary, and the student will have learned:

- That “knowing a sign” in fact entails a number of things, including its articulation, meaning, and usage
- About the issue of selection of vocabulary to be taught, and how it is important to consider not only what vocabulary to teach, but also how much vocabulary to teach, and when to teach it
- The HOLME model of sign language “pronunciation” (articulation)
- About issues of language standardisation, and about how important it is to also teach variation in sign vocabulary, so that the students will be able to better communicate with the Deaf people wherever they are
- Language games, two non-traditional methods of teaching vocabulary
- Class activities, two Word/Sign Webs
and
- The importance of increasing students' motivation for vocabulary learning and practice

5.1.4 Exercises

1. Explain the metaphor of the correct tools (“toolkit”) for language teaching/learning.
2. True or false. If the sentence below is true, give more details. If it is false, correct the sentence.
 - a) “Teaching children sign language as their first language requires different skills than for teaching adults sign language as their second language.”
 - b) “A hearing person who is good at sign language can be an interpreter.”
3. According to the text, approximately how many signs should a student know? And how many should an interpreter know?
4. What are the principles for selecting vocabulary to teach and then explain each briefly.
5. Explain in general what it means to ‘know a word’.
6. What is a good sequence to teach vocabulary?
7. What does HOLME refer to?
8. Select two of the above (HOLME) and give examples of contrasting signs.
9. Explain *connotation* and give an example.
10. Explain *idiomatic expression* and give an example.

5.1.5 Suggested readings

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5.1.7 Model answers

For Exercise 5.1.4

1. The metaphor of a toolkit shows that there are different tools for different tasks. If we teach vocabulary, there are better or different tools (or methods) for that than teaching grammar. A good teacher needs to have many different skills (many tools in their toolkit) in order to teach well.
2. (a) “A hearing person who is good at sign language cannot automatically become an interpreter.”

This is TRUE.

It is a mistaken idea. Interpreters need to have skills beyond just knowing the language. They need many more skills than an average signer usually does not have.

2. (b) “Teaching children sign language as their first language requires the same skills as teaching adults sign language as their second language.”

This is FALSE.

For children it is enough to teach so that children will ‘know’ the language because children learn more or less automatically through games and from models. For teaching adults who are learning sign language as their second language, however, teachers need to have additional skills, not just knowing sign language. Adults often learn a second language analytically, so teachers who teach sign language to adults must also be able to analyse their own language, and to explain grammar structures and the mechanics of how sign language works.

3. After completing a basic sequence of courses, a student should know approximately 2000 signs, which will allow them to converse in sign language in everyday settings. A beginning sign language interpreter must have a deeper, and broader command of the language, and should know from 3000 to 5000 signs.

4. The principles for selecting vocabulary to teach are:

- ✓ frequency—signs that are used most often
- ✓ range—signs that have several meanings in different situations
- ✓ defining power—signs that can be used to explain new vocabulary
- ✓ learnability—signs that are easy to learn because they are similar to other known signs, are easy to demonstrate, are simple, and are regular. Also if students want to use them, they will be easier and faster to learn.

5. “To know a word” means to be able to understand the meaning of the sign when students see it and to be able to produce the sign such that a Deaf person will know what is meant by it.

6. Generally the decision for the sequence in teaching vocabulary should be based on the need and usefulness to the students. Also, it is good to teach signs that are related to other signs that will be learned later.

7. HOLME refers to the different components that are part of a sign: H = handshape, O = Orientation, L = Location, M = Movement, and E = everything else.

8. Students can select any two components of HOLME and show contrasts either from the examples given in this text or others that they are familiar with.

9. Connotation refers to a related or secondary meaning of a word/sign. For example, ‘black’ gives a meaning of ‘bad’ or ‘negative’.

10. An idiomatic expression is a phrase made of several words/signs, but the overall meaning of the phrase cannot be gained by knowing the meaning of the individual words/signs. Examples are, ‘go for broke’ or ‘to be broke’. (Encourage students to think of others they have seen or used themselves.)

5.2 Teaching grammar

5.2.1 Introduction

While even “poor” language learners often have an easy time learning vocabulary, learning “grammar” is more difficult.

Three special problems arise when teaching grammar:

1) Firstly, time and time again it has been observed that explicit teaching of grammar often provides little benefit to the learner. Language learning research over the past 40 years has confirmed this observation with hard data.

Explicit teaching of grammar does not only fail to improve the competence of learners, but it often actually has a negative effect. For example, students of English as a foreign language often make *more* grammar mistakes after taking a course in grammar.

Part of the problem is that explicit teaching of grammar focuses on grammar as grammar, not grammar as part of communication. Often it is taught simply as rules to learn, and tested based on rote memory, where the student mechanically answers based on “knowing the rules by heart”, rather than answers based on thinking and understanding how grammar works.

2) Secondly, and this is a problem specific to teaching sign languages, many people have the (wrong!) idea that sign language has no grammar.

And because there has been relatively little research or publication on Indian Sign Language grammar, ISL instructors and teachers have often not been trained about the grammar of their language and so, even though they use the grammar rules correctly they are not aware enough of what the rules are to teach them effectively. In addition, because there is no comprehensive ISL grammar book (or video) for learners, it is often hard for the teacher to decide what must be taught, and also it is hard to decide how to teach it.

3) Thirdly, although we as language researchers know that explicitly teaching grammar is often of little value, nonetheless, students *expect* teachers to teach grammar. And if teachers do not teach grammar, students often will feel that the teacher is not a good teacher and are unsatisfied in the teaching.

So, the question is, how to teach grammar in a way which is most effective and beneficial to the students. That will be the focus of this section.

5.2.2 Content of Section

When we say “grammar”, probably most of us think we have a pretty good understanding of what “grammar” is. And probably most of us think “grammar” is the mechanical rules we learn (or rather, memorise!) in school to help us pass language tests. Rules such as “*Add -s to the end of nouns in English to form the plural*” or “*Words ending in -s, -ch, -x form their plurals by adding -es rather than -s.*” Or rules like “*Never begin a sentence with the word “but”.*”

Yes, that *is* grammar. *But*, it is only a small part of grammar, and only one type of grammar.

Types of grammar (functional versus formal)

The grammar described above, and what is meant by grammar in traditionally taught language classes is *formal grammar*. That is, the focus is on teaching the forms (plural suffix -s, or past tense -ed in English) and rules of their use. This type of grammar is not wrong, because, yes, students do need to learn the forms of grammar, but it is more useful for helping students pass exams than it is helping them learn how to communicate.

Another type of grammar, and one which is more useful to learners who want to actually use the language is *functional grammar*. Understanding grammar from a functional point of view helps students understand (and accept!) why some people say “*The army is...*” and some people say “*The army are...*”, and the different ways available in whatever language they are learning to perform different communicative tasks, and which one is appropriate for which situation.

To illustrate this last point, let us look, again in English, at the various ways to ask to borrow a pencil.

a. Give me a pencil! – This is quite rude.

b. Your pencil? – This isn't even a full sentence (and so would not be acceptable on a grammar exam probably), but in real everyday conversation, it is a very informal way – when accompanied by the appropriate facial expression – of asking a friend, for example, whether you can use their pencil.

c. Can I borrow your pencil, please? – This is a form which is polite (even without the word *please*), without being too formal.

d. Could I borrow your pencil? – This form is a bit more polite than (c). It illustrates the fact that in English (and many other languages, using the past tense (*could* is the past tense of *can*, just as *would* in the next example is the past tense of *will*) is also a way to add a degree of politeness.

e. Would it be possible to borrow your pencil for a moment? – This is quite polite (and is actually more likely to result in the person happily loaning you their pencil!)

And, of course, there are even more ways in which English grammar can be used to perform this task.

Discovering grammatical structures

One of the difficulties of both teaching and learning Indian Sign Language is that nobody has written a good reference grammar of ISL which the teacher and student could use to look up the various grammar points of the language.

To a certain degree this problem will be lessened by the material in a future module on Sign Language Linguistics, and by other course material, but to a large degree the teacher has to become a linguistic researcher and discover what the grammatical forms of ISL are, and the different ways that grammar is used to perform communicative functions.

Although you all are not trained linguists, one of the basic methods of linguistic discovery is something you all already do quite well. Deaf people are skilled observers; you will best be able to discover by observing, both observing yourself (the various ways you would ask to borrow a pencil, for example), and observing other Deaf people.

But remember, you need to observe not only with open eyes, but also with an open mind!

Language teachers too often teach with closed minds, telling their students, “This is correct grammar! THAT is wrong!” even when in fact what they say is “wrong” is used by native speakers (and signers) in normal conversation. Sometimes, in fact, maybe most times, the teacher themselves will sometimes use the grammar forms which they themselves say are “wrong”. The important thing is to teach your students the grammar that Deaf people themselves *actually* use, not the grammar which someone has told you is the “right” grammar. And also when there is more than one way to say the same thing, sometimes there is a difference as to the nuance (differing levels of politeness, for example, in the English example above), or else a difference in context (for example, one kind of grammar might be more usual among close friends in informal conversation, but a very different form might be usual in formal lectures). As a teacher of ISL, you have to observe not only what the grammar of ISL is, but also how and when it is used.

Teaching aspects of sign language grammar that are different from spoken languages

There are many aspects of sign language grammar that Hearing people have problems learning to use correctly. Generally speaking, these are aspects of ISL which are not found at all in spoken language, or else aspects which look and function very differently in signed and spoken/written language.

We cannot discuss all such aspects here (and more of them will be discussed in the module specifically on the linguistics of ISL), but a few of the more important ones (that is, the ones which tend to give learners the most problem) include:

- *The use of space for different functions*

Signing space – that is the space in front of and around the signer in which they articulate signs when they are signing – are used in a number of ways in sign language. Most important of these for the language learner, and thus for the language teacher are the following:

1) Real-world space and the widespread use of pointing

A common feature of sign languages, including ISL, is the use of pointing whenever an object is physically present rather than using a noun sign to refer to it.

Thus, whereas a speaker of English, when asking for a book which is on the table by the person they are speaking to would most likely say:

“Give me that book.” (or some other more polite form of the same basic sentence)

In ISL a Deaf person would as often as not sign simply:

THAT GIVE.

Where THAT is pointing at the book itself, and the sign GIVE moves in a direction from where the book is towards the signer (thereby representing the indirect object “me” in the English sentence).

(It might be pointed out here that this same phenomenon is possibly the reason why there are not any “real” signs for many body parts in ISL; since the signer has eyes and nose and arms, etc., than needing a separate sign EYE, or NOSE, or ARM, the signer can simply point to -- or tap with their hand -- the body part being spoken about.)

2) *Use of space for representing actors (subjects and objects)*

As we have just seen in the way that the direction of the verb was modified in the sign GIVE in the example above (“Give me that book.”), there are very many verb SIGNS whose movement parameters are modified to indicate subject and/or object. Such verbs include verbs like GIVE and verbs like GO-TO.

This use of space is a part of grammar.

• *The possibility of variable word (that is, sign) order*

Languages spoken in India, including English, tend to have fairly strict and inflexible basic word order. For vernacular languages like Hindi or Gujarati, or Tamil, this is:

Subject Object Verb (abbreviated, SOV)

For English the basic word order is

Subject Verb Object (abbreviated SVO)

Thus, in English we cannot normally say any of the following:

“Eats the boy the Apple.”

“The apple eats the boy.”

“The boy the apple eats.”

Instead we must say:

“The boy eats the apple.”

However, in ISL (and also in other sign languages), where the order SOV is quite frequent, and is considered basic by some linguists, in fact, ISL has two important processes which affect word order, and which, to a large extent override any basic SOV word order there might otherwise be. These two processes are:

1) *Ellipsis*

This is a fancy word for saying that whenever a word (especially a noun or noun phrase) is not absolutely necessary for the correct comprehension of the sentence, it is deleted (left out).

And because in ISL the verb and the use of space often indicate who or what are being talked about, it is, at least in normal conversation, rare for an ISL “sentence” to include signs for both subject and object. Instead the subject and object are either indicated by the verbal morphology (subject-object agreement and/or incorporation). In this way, for example, in a story about a ball, if Ram gave Sita the ball, we might simply sign GIVE, but have the direction of movement be from the place in space which we have previously identified with Ram to the place in space we have identified with Sita, and the handshape used will be that of holding a ball. Thus, one sign in

ISL will represent a complete sentence. And, in terms of ISL, that one-sign sentence will be completely grammatically correct, while a verb-only sentence would never be correct in English.

2) *Topicalisation*

Topicalisation is a process by which the sign which refers to the topic (“what is being talked about”, or the main focus of the sentence) is “moved” to the beginning of the sentence.

Thus, in ISL if someone asks you “Where is the apple?” your reply might be:

“Apple, ate it” while in English we would say “I ate it”.

• *Facial and Other Non-Manual elements of Sign*

Another very difficult aspect of sign language grammar for hearing people to understand is the lexical grammatical, as opposed to affective, use of facial expression (and other non-manuals).

For example, we can all understand that using a sad face when signing GRANDFATHER DIED (= “My grandfather died.”) is most appropriate. The death of a grandfather is a sad event and therefore one's face will show sadness. This is an affective use of facial expression.

It should be noted, however, that although this is perhaps the most NORMAL affective facial expression to accompany such a message, it is NOT the only possible one.

For example, suppose that I am a very greedy person, in love with money. And suppose my grandfather was very rich, and that I am his only surviving heir. Now imagine, in such a situation, what facial expression would best express how I am feeling at the event of my grandfather's death.

This may seem a strange (even morbid!) example, but what is important is that in teaching students to understand and use ISL effectively, we must also teach them what role various affective facial expressions can have on the interpretation of meaning.

Another type of facial expression common in Deaf sign language use is lexical facial expression. To understand what this means, think of the ISL sign for FAT.

Of course, this sign does not simply mean the same thing as the English word “fat”. Given the right context (and facial expression!) it might also mean “stout and strong”.

Now imagine what facial expression normally accompanies this sign. Puffed cheeks, right? Normally, when we sign the sign FAT, we accompany it by the appropriate facial expression of puffed cheeks. This is called lexical facial expression, as the facial expression is normally a part of the way the lexical sign is expressed.

If a person were to produce the manual sign FAT, but without any facial expression, it would probably look quite odd. Or if they produce the same sign FAT but with sucked-in cheeks? Very odd indeed.

(Remember though, as we saw above with the SIGN GRANDFATHER DIE but with a happy face, even if this is odd, it does not mean that there might not be a meaning being expressed behind the oddness. For example, FAT with sucked-in cheeks might mean #trying to act like one is stout and strong, while in fact being quite weak”. YES, sign language expression can be quite

complex and complicated and hard to learn. It is your job as sign language instructor to find ways to help your students understand how this complicated language works.)

Now let us turn to the other type of facial expression: facial expression which is “grammatical” not merely affective (or emotional).

There are many examples of this, and we shall see them when we come to the module on the “Linguistics of Indian Sign Language”, but for now we will stick to one, easy example: the example of “statement” versus “question”.

We will take as the manual signs for our example the signed sentence:

TEACHER IS-NOT

With different facial expressions, this sentence produced changes in grammatical meaning:

With negative head shake (and often drawn, flattened lips):

“The teacher is not here.” / “The teacher is absent.” (statement)

But, with raised eyebrows (and often chin tuck and also possibly negative headshake)

“Is the teacher not here?” / “Is the teacher absent?” (yes/no question)

In fact, with other facial expression we can further modify the meaning: “I’m not the teacher”, etc.

☐ Verb Sign Inflection

Here we are concerned both with modification of the movement component of verb signs to indicate “agreement” as well as the incorporation of modified handshapes to indicate (in)direct object.

- Directional agreement for person to indicate subject and indirect (or sometimes direct) objectives Also directional agreement to indicate motion.
- Handshape incorporation to indicate direct object

To illustrate both these types of verb inflection look at the following two “sentences”

A)



B)



In both A) and B) the handshape of the manual alphabet “A” are incorporated into the verb, with the “A” representing the English word “answer”. In A) the direction is from signer to the side, and thus represents, “I answered him.” In B) the motion is from the other side towards the signer, and thus represents, “She answered me.” (In this case I have used him and her to indicate that since in A) the motion is toward one side and in B) it is from the other side, then as we saw above in the discussion of how space is used in ISL, the two sentences involve different people. Whether one is a woman and the other a man, or whether one is Ram and the other Ravana, this will have been established previously in the discourse based on who each space is associated with.)

- Modulation for aspectual differences

To understand this, think of how you would sign the following things:

RAIN

RAIN-hard

RAIN-sudden-downpour

RAIN-drizzle

RAIN-continually-for-a-long-time

RAIN-again-and-again/off-and-on

In each case the sign for RAIN would be modified, most commonly by changing the nature (speed, intensity, etc.) of the movement component. Thus, the movement in RAIN-hard will be more forceful, and the movement in RAIN-continually-for-a-long-time will be repeated more times than normal and extended over time. Sometimes signs are also modulated by modifying other parameters. For example, RAIN-drizzle might be produced with only the index fingers extended to indicate that not many rain drops are falling.

☐ Having focused on some of the difficult aspects of ISL for students to learn, we must now address the topic of how these grammar aspects should be taught. Since research has shown that explicit grammar teaching is not very productive or effective or helpful to students learning a language for communicative purposes, and yet since grammar must somehow be taught since

without understandable grammar, the students will never be able to communicate effectively, how should the teacher teach grammar?

The answer to this question, although perhaps not obvious because most of the grammar teaching that all of us have experienced has been explicit teaching of grammar, the answer is simple: rather than teaching ISL grammar explicitly, the ISL teacher should, as much as possible, teach grammar implicitly.

That is, the ISL teacher must develop activities and exercises (and games, of course!) which will create a situation in which the grammar point can be acquired through practice in as natural a setting as possible... without the grammar actually having to be explained, or rules memorised.

Hearing children, after all, acquire the grammar of their mother tongue not through being taught the rules of grammar in school, but through listening to their parents, and playing with their brothers and sisters and neighbours... they learn grammar naturally.

And most Deaf people, because Sign Language grammar has not been taught in schools for the Deaf, also have acquired their ISL grammar NATURALLY.

Natural learning, using a natural approach, has proven to be a very effective and productive way for students to learn grammar... to “teach” grammar WITHOUT teaching grammar (not explicitly anyway).

5.3.3 Summary of Section

In this section the student learned about:

- Different approaches to teaching grammar, and in particular the difference between a functional approach versus a formal approach to grammar teaching
- A number of aspects of ISL grammar which differ greatly from anything in spoken languages and which therefore might present a problem to students learning ISL. Included here are: the use of space in signing, variability (flexibility) in word order in ISL sentences (especially arising due to ellipsis and topicalisation), verbal morphology (especially agreement and incorporation, and also aspectual modulation), and non-manual elements of ISL.
- The importance of implicit language teaching

5.3.4. Exercises

In the above section we saw how the sign ANSWER is modified (“inflected”) according to the grammar of what is being said. The sign moves from whoever is the subject of the sentence and towards whoever is the receiver of the answer.

Exercise 1

In this exercise, explain the various ways in which the sign GIVE can be grammatically inflected, or otherwise modulated, giving examples of each possibility.

Exercise 2

Do the same for the sign WALK.

5.3.5 Suggested readings

- Morgan, M.W. (2009). Typology of Indian Sign Language verbs from a comparative perspective. In R. Singh, (Ed.), *Annual Review of South Asian Language and Linguistics*. (pp. 101-132) De Gruyter Mouton. Accessed on 10 March 2019 at: https://www.academia.edu/735569/Typology_of_Indian_Sign_Language_ISL_Verbs_from_a_Comparative_Perspective
- Quinto-Pozos, D. (2011). Teaching American Sign Language to hearing adult learners. *Annual Review of Linguistics*, 31, 137-158.
- Zeshan, U. (2003). Indo-Pakistani Sign Language grammar: A typological outline, *Sign Language Studies* 3/2, 157-212.

5.3.6 References

- Quinto-Pozos, D. (2011). Teaching American Sign Language to hearing adult learners. *Annual Review of Linguistics*, 31, 137-158.

5.3.7 Model answers

For Exercise 5.3.4

Exercise 1

As with ANSWER, the movement of the sign GIVE is modified to “agree” with the subject (the person giving) and the indirect object (the person receiving whatever is being given). As with ANSWER, the movement is from the subject and towards the indirect object.

In addition, with the sign GIVE the handshape may also be modified in “agreement” with what is being given. Thus an “F” handshape might be used if a pencil is being given, a “C” handshape” if a fat book is being given. In addition, the sign may even become two-handed if what is being given is very large.

In addition, you could mention many different ways in which the sign can be modulated, thereby adding nuance to the meaning. For example, with added reluctant face expression as well as tension, reduced speed, and hesitant “give, not give” elements, the sign can be modified to mean RELUCTANTLY-GIVE.

Exercise 2

Your answer should contain a variety of different forms. Among those different forms are the following:

- One person walking normally (and in a straight line)*
- One person walking towards the signer
- One person walking away from the signer
- One person walking quickly
- One person walking leisurely
- One person walking tiredly (as if after many many miles)
- One person walking in a drunken manner

* Note: for all these signs either the “V” handshape, fingers pointing down (representing the two legs of a person) may be used (the “standard” sign for WALK), or else the “1” handshape, finger pointing up (representing an upright person) may be used. In addition, the standard sign for WALK with the “V” handshape may be signed, and then the second form with the “1” handshape” may be signed, incorporating the “adverbial” aspects of the path, distance, manner, etc.

Furthermore, when teaching the sign WALK, you would want, at some point, to teach the students other possibilities:

Two people walking next to each other

Two people walking towards each other

etc.

Many other forms are also possible.

5.3 Teaching communication and narration

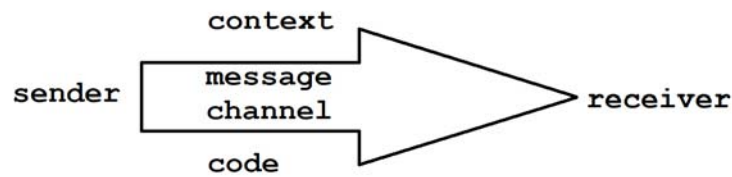
5.3.1 Introduction to Section

For traditional language teaching – and teaching of ISL under earlier curricula – there has been a limited understanding of what language is, what language learning is, and what language competence is. Although, yes, one **MUST** know vocabulary and grammar in order to learn a language and competently use that language. However, vocabulary and grammar are not enough. And they are not the main thing. This is evident when we examine the competence of students who have been taught using traditional grammar-translation methods. Grammar-translation methods focus on vocabulary and grammar, and only vocabulary and grammar. And students who have been “taught” a language using these methods are often incapable of communication in the language they have supposedly “learned”.

In this section we will examine what “else” the student needs to learn, and be taught, in addition to (or rather, even more than) vocabulary and grammar: they need to be taught how to use the language, and use it to communicate.

5.3.2. Content of Section

Let us start by looking at a famous description of the six factors necessary for communication. This description was made by the famous Russian-American linguist Roman Jakobson (Jakobson, 1960):



The code is the language itself, including its grammar and vocabulary.

All the other five functions are also important (though perhaps not always in the same way).

The Message is what is being said

The Sender is the person talking (signing)

The Receiver is the person(s) being talked (signed) to

The Context is the situation in which it is being said

The Channel is the medium of communication. In the case of sign language, this is a visual-spatial gestural channel.

It is also important that we understand that all six of the functions interact.

For example, suppose that a fire has just broken out in a school for the Deaf

The message will be “There is a fire!”

But the context is that this is a school for the Deaf, so the channel will have to be visual. The audial channel might be fine for a school for hearing children, but in a school for Deaf children this will not work. The code will also be sign language, but perhaps it might be exactly the same sign language as taught in ISL class. The school might use a regional variant of the sign language, or in some cases, a mix of ISL and foreign signs. Also, the younger children may not yet have had time to acquire ISL fully. (And if the school for the Deaf is a strictly oral school, perhaps no sign language has been taught, and another visual code would have to be used (including perhaps written language).

And the receivers of the message are children, so perhaps how one “talks” to a child in such a situation might well be different from how one talks to an adult.

Therefore, we see that in any communication situation a number of factors must be kept in mind, not *just* the language (the “code”) alone.

And because of this fact, when we teach a language, ISL or any language, just teaching students the rules of grammar and a list of vocabulary will not be enough. We also have to help the students learn how to USE the language in any communication situation they might face.

Importance of developing communicative skills

Imagine that you have just landed in a country where you do not speak nor read the language. Your friend said she would meet you there, and you have waited for two hours and she has not

arrived. You realize you can no longer just wait—you have to do something! It is in an emergency situation like this that you realize that you had never before thought about how exactly you communicate to others. We all have different strategies, and this language class can raise our awareness about communication, and hopefully, this awareness can push us to improve and increase our ability to communicate.

Ways to develop communicative skills

The best way to develop these skills is to ‘practice’. The practice can be in common, everyday situations, but also in unusual or imagined situations. We need to practice in as many different contexts as possible. When faced with particular problems, we can see for ourselves what resources we already have and what we still need. The best way to practice is to work with other people, in pairs or in groups. It is also important to know what skills, and what vocabulary or grammar that we still need in order to communicate more effectively.

Ways to develop fluency

Fluency is the ability to communicate smoothly. The only way for students to develop language fluency is by actually using the language a lot! Fluency comes with a lot of repetition. It also means making mistakes, which is a usual part of all language learning. When we are successful, we should repeat. And when we make mistakes, we should correct them and then repeat the correct way.

Guided and free narration

In everyday conversation people often tell stories. For example, we might talk about something that happened to us yesterday which was funny or surprising. We may decide we need to give our friend advice by explaining a related incident involving a family member. Being able to tell a story is important not only for improving language proficiency, but it is also crucial for building good relationships.

The classroom is a good place to practice narrative skills. In teacher-centred classrooms, language practice is often set in a question-answer pattern with the teacher always leading. But this does not help students learn to be fluent. In a more student-centred class, the teacher can create opportunities for students to speak for an extended period of time. In some cases, the teacher can support students by giving more guidance; however, as students become more proficient, they can be expected to produce freer narration.

☐ Creating and evaluating the example activity using the R.A.V.E. mnemonic.

In teaching communication skills, and in creating various activities to encourage and facilitate the students to learn how to communicate using ISL, it is useful to apply the mnemonic R.A.V.E. which we learned in Unit 1 of this module.

1. R

Relevant

Think of a relevant situation to the topics you might be teaching. For example, if you have been teaching vocabulary related to numbers and money, and grammar related to asking questions, you can now imagine a situation where your students might regularly have experience of asking questions about money.

For example:

Situation 1 (if the students have already learned the ISL signs for relatives and for names of various countries):

Student A is working at a post office window selling stamps; Student B has a letter they want to send to a friend in China and a package they want to send to an uncle who works in the United States.

2. A

Active

This language usage exercise is a skit, so of course it will be active! Don't let the students be lazy! Or go through the dialogue mechanically. Make sure that they ACT OUT the parts. (And since teaching language is also teaching how to communicate, even if their vocabulary and grammar were right, if they “acted like hearing people do” make sure that you show them how a Deaf person would communicate in the same situation. Not only do Deaf people use a different language, they also use gesture a bit differently, stand in line a bit differently, and interact with people differently. Your students need to learn this in order to really “know ISL”.)

3. V

Visual

Sign Language itself is visual, however, it is important to add other visual effects: a real envelope with an address, postage stamps with the (correct!) amounts written on them, etc. (Remember, REALISTIC is another R, just as important as RELEVANT!)

Many students have visual memory and will remember a sign better by also remembering the visual context in which they have used a sign, or seen it used.

4. E

Enjoyable!

When students are enjoying the class activities, motivation tends to increase. Any language use exercise which includes skits performed by the students in ISL will be enjoyable, both for the performers and also for the other students who will be watching (and laughing!)

5.3.3 Summary of Section

In this section students learned:

- The six factors in the Jakobson model of communication
- Importance of developing communicative skills
- Raising awareness of already acquired communicative abilities and those still needed

- Ways to develop communicative skills
- Ways to develop fluency
- Importance of developing narrative skills
- Using the mnemonic, R.A.V.E. to create class activities

5.3.4. Exercises

1. Explain briefly the model of communication developed by Jakobson.
2. Why is it important for students to know about the communicative skills they already have in addition to the communicative skills that they still need to develop.
3. What is fluency? How can students improve their fluency?
4. Is learning how to tell stories a useful skill? Explain.
5. Using R.A.V.E. explain two communicative activities of your own.

5.3.5. Suggested readings

Usher, A., & Kober, N. (2012). *Student motivation – An overlooked piece of school reform*. George Washington University, Center on Education Policy Graduate School of Education and Human Development. Accessed on 15 March 2019 at: <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED532666.pdf>

5.3.6. References

Jakobson, R.O. (1960). Closing statements: Linguistics and poetics. In T.A. Sebeok, *Style in Language*, (pp. 350–377). Cambridge, Massachusetts: MIT Press. Accessed on 10 April 2019 at: https://monoskop.org/images/8/84/Jakobson_Roman_1960_Closing_statement_Linguistics_and_Poetics.pdf

5.3.7. Model answers For exercise 5.3.4

1. In Jakobson's model of communication there are six components: a) the code is the language being used; b) the message is what is being delivered; c) the sender is the person who is signing; d) the receiver is the person who is being signed to; e) the context is the situation where the communication is taking place; and f) the channel is the means of communication; in this case, signing.
2. Most of the time we do not realize what communicative skills we already have. So, it is good to realise in class that there are skills which we can already use, but there are others that we do not have yet and we need to develop them.
3. Fluency means to be able to communicate smoothly. Students can develop fluency by practicing a lot. They have to repeat a lot, and when they make mistakes, they should correct the mistakes and repeat the corrected version.
4. Learning to tell stories is a very useful skill. The reason is because it is very common in our everyday conversation, and it is quite important in being able to communicate in many different situations. It is part of developing our communicative skills.

5. Students must give two of their own activities.

5.4 Teaching production and comprehension

5.4.1 Introduction to Section

As we have seen language learning is about more than vocabulary and grammar. It is also about communication, which is a more holistic concept. Communication is also a two-way street. And successful learners, and especially interpreters, need to navigate successfully going both ways on this street. That is, they need to develop skills in both directions of the communication process:

1) *production* (that is, using sign language to communicate with Deaf people)

2) *comprehension* (that is, understanding what Deaf people are saying when they communicate in sign language)

Therefore, in this section we will discuss various aspects of the overall production and comprehension process. We will then discuss ways to teach production and comprehension.

And finally, although this is somewhat of an unrelated topic, we will briefly discuss issues which arise in language teaching and language learning due to the lack of a written form of sign languages.

5.4.2 Content of Section

Often production and comprehension are described as being opposites of each other, with production being an active language skill and comprehension being a passive language skill. However, both skills must be operating at the same time in order for communication and understanding to take place. When communication stalls, the teacher must quickly analyse the situation to see where the problem lies. It could be an error in the sign production or it could be a lack of knowledge of the sign/s that were produced which resulted in misunderstanding. Students should also develop an awareness to detect problems because from their vantage point they can sometimes see more easily than the teacher where the miscommunication or lack of communication came about. In student-centred classes students can take an active part in detecting difficulties and to actively work to resolve them.

• Ways to teach production and comprehension

Since practice makes perfect, especially in language learning, all effective methods of teaching production and comprehension skills involve practice by students. Thus, in the simplest way every time you as an ISL teacher use ISL in class and the students must understand what you say, that is practice in comprehension skills. And every time you ask a question that they must answer, or give them an exercise where they must perform, that is production practice.

And it is important that the two -- comprehension and production -- are linked for balanced development. Generally speaking, first the teacher models vocabulary, grammar structures, and communication models, and then the students, at first by copying, then by adapting, and finally by independently creating and producing language (ISL).

Sometimes, particularly before the students have well developed skills, the ISL used and the

content itself may be somewhat artificial. And generally speaking, until students reach the intermediate level, a student's production of ISL need not be corrected if it is a bit artificial. It needs to be corrected only if it is incomprehensible (that is, only if a Deaf person would not be able to understand what they are signing). The goal of class will be that, as soon as possible, the language used in class is natural language (that is, ISL as a Deaf person would really sign it). And as the level of the class progresses, students can start to experiment, and the teacher does not have to be a model as often. They only have to monitor what the students produce and provide models only when the students have problems.

In addition to these general methods, there are a number of specific student-centred approaches to learning which can be used to help students develop production and comprehension skills. Here since this is an introductory unit and not one focussing on methodologies, we will introduce just one of these approaches, albeit one which is very effective.

- *Problem-based learning*

In such an approach rather than the teacher “spoon feeding” bits of knowledge (vocabulary items, grammar rules, bits of language structure, etc.) for the students to acquire one by one, students are given a problem to solve. And in order to solve the problem, the students must draw on their own language knowledge and communication skills, and also on the knowledge and skills of their classmates (problem-based learning is often implemented in a team- or group-based social-learning approach).

Such an approach is more holistic (that is, it does not rely on any specific pieces of knowledge or individual skills, but rather on the student's ability to muster whatever parts of the totality of the language knowledge and skill sets they have--all of it--to analyse which knowledge and skill might be most useful in addressing the problem, and then to apply this knowledge and skill/s to solving the problem.

By way of example, suppose the learning goals of the day's lesson was vocabulary terms for family members:

Traditionally, the teacher would list the items, then teach them one by one, and then (time permitting) go around the room asking the students (or, if the teacher is more familiar with student-centred learning, have the students ask each other) about their families.

A problem-based approach to achieving the same learning goal (in this case, combined with a social-learning approach) would be for the teacher to assign the class as a whole the day's problem: Construct the teacher's family tree. The students then would, individually and collectively, have to find ways to ask the teacher about their family, perhaps discussing with each other the ways they can do this, and in the process acquire (with the teacher's cooperation but on their own) the required vocabulary. The teacher is there as a language resource for the students to consult, but does not actively provide information unless asked.

Among the benefits which such an approach fosters, it:

- Fosters student-centred learning

- Promotes a self-motivated attitude
 - Reinforces interpersonal skills and teamwork
 - Enriches the teacher-student relationship
 - Focuses attention on comprehension not facts
 - Fosters in-depth rather than surface learning
 - Leads to better understanding and adeptness
 - Achieves a higher level of learning
- (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Problem-based_learning)

• *Issues due to the lack of a written form of sign languages and solutions*

Some people think that learning a language requires learning how to read and write the language. BUT the simple fact is, ALL hearing children learn their language without learning to read and write... and then learn to read and write AFTER they have already learned the language.

In addition, there are hundreds, if not thousands of spoken languages in the world that are not written languages. India itself has many such languages.

And yet, people DO learn these languages. Not just children learning their own vernacular mother tongues, but also adults

Students who are used to learning a foreign language through its written form (and most ISL students will be such students) may feel they NEED to be able to write down the language in order to remember it.

And so, it might be useful to demonstrate to them how this can be done (and also explain to them why it doesn't HAVE TO be done). Several systems of writing down sign languages have in fact been invented, and some of them are actually used not only by linguists, but in schools for the Deaf in some countries when the children study their own sign language AS A SUBJECT. (ALAS! In India NO school for the Deaf teaches ISL as a subject equal to other language subjects like Hindi or English.)

As for ISL

take the question, used above as an example, "Is the teacher not here?" (or "Is there no teacher? / "Is the teacher absent?")

we can use a shorthand form of writing that ISL sentence as follows:

TEACHER IS-NOT

in such a system (widely used by sign language linguists when publishing articles on sign language), words represented in all capital letters represent signs. Multiple words written together connected by a dash (-) also represent single signs. Thus, "IS-NOT" represents a single sign (which is also often transcribed as NOT), and "TEACHER IS-NOT" is a sentence with just two signs.

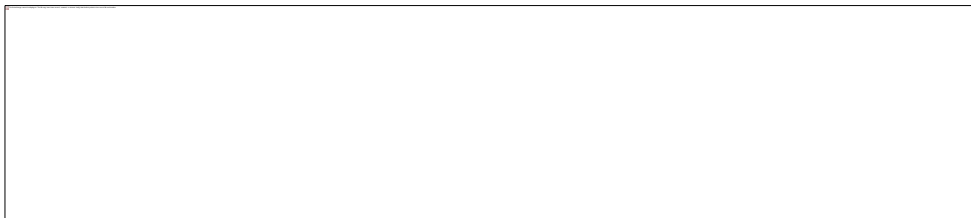
However, as we saw above, in order for it to be interpreted (and in fact in order for it to be a fully-formed ISL sentence), it must also have non-manuals represented (facial expression, for example).

In this form of writing sign language, such non-manuals are written above the signs. Therefore:

-----y/n-q
TEACHER IS-NOT

y/n-q is an abbreviated for “yes/no question” and serves to represent the non-manuals which indicate a yes/no (or polar) question in ISL. The line under this row of transcription (and above the capitalised manual signs) indicates the so-extension of the non-manual. The fact that, in this example, the solid underline extends completely over IS-NOT means that the non-manual (yes/no question facial expression) **MUST** be co-extensive with the production of that sign. The dotted (or dashed) underline before this means that the non-manual may also extend all the way over the entire sentence, but that it is optional with TEACHER.

This, of course, is not the only way to write ISL; however, perhaps since no Deaf Indian themselves use any of the other systems, there is little point in going into detail (and any example would have to be fully contrived since it is not in fact used in practice.) Instead, since writing sign language IS a practice used in some other countries (in Deaf schools, for example, when teaching Deaf children about their first language), I will give one example here, taken from Wikipedia. The American Sign Language sign for HOUSE can be written using at least five systems of transcription (Wikipedia contributors, 2018):



5.4.3 Summary of Section

In this section the student will have learned about a number of topics:

- General aspects of language production and language comprehension skills.
- Ways to teach and promote development of both production and comprehension skills/
- Problem-based learning approach, and how it might be applied in class to develop language skills, and what the benefits of such an approach are.
- The issues involved in teaching a language such as ISL which is not (normally) written down, and how such issues can be dealt with.

5.4.4 Exercises

1. Are production and comprehension opposites? Explain.
2. When students make mistakes in production, should teachers always correct them?
3. State a teaching point and then create your own problem-solving activity. Remember that it should be a student-centred activity.
4. List at least five benefits of a good problem-solving class activity.
5. Is it necessary to have a written form for sign language? Explain why some groups want a written form and why others do not need it.

5.4.5 Suggested readings

Kato, M. (2008). A study of notation and sign writing systems for the Deaf. *Intercultural Communication Studies*, 17,4, 97-114. Accessed on 10 February 2019 at: <https://web.uri.edu/iaics/files/08-Mihoko-Kato.pdf>

Quinto-Pozos, D. (2011). Teaching American Sign Language to hearing adult learners. *Annual Review of Linguistics*, 31, 137-158.

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Wikipedia contributors (27 March 2019). Problem-based learning. In *Wikipedia, The Free Encyclopedia*. Retrieved 5 April 2019 from https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Problem-based_learning

5.4.6 References

Quinto-Pozos, D. (2011). Teaching American Sign Language to hearing adult learners. *Annual Review of Linguistics*, 31, 137-158.

Wikipedia contributors (20 December 2018). ASL-phabet. In *Wikipedia, The Free Encyclopedia*. Retrieved 5 April 2019 from <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/ASL-phabet>

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5.4.7 Model answers

For Exercise 5.4.4

1. Production and comprehension are NOT opposites. While it has been said that production is active and comprehension is passive, in fact, both need to be operating at the same time. Both are active.

2. If students are at the beginning level, it is expected that teacher will correct mistakes; however, as students become more proficient, teachers should make corrections only when a Deaf person would not be able to understand. In student-centred classrooms allowing errors creates an atmosphere where students feel freer, allowing them to experiment with the language. This promotes learning.
3. This should be a problem-solving class activity created by the student.
4. Any five of the following: a) fosters student-centred learning; b) promotes self-motivated learning; c) helps interpersonal skills and teamwork; d) enriches teacher-student relationship; e) focuses on comprehension, not facts; f) promotes in-depth rather than surface-learning; g) leads to better understanding and adeptness; and h) achieves a higher level of learning
5. People who are used to the traditional way of learning language expect/ want to be able to write down the language. However, others such as Deaf people and most other people have no need to write the language. Linguists and researchers use a written form in their work.

5.5 Unit Summary

To summarise, in this unit the student learned:

- The concept that teachers need to have a toolbox of different approaches to language teaching
- What it means to know vocabulary
- Approaches to teaching vocabulary, and the various connected issues of: selection of which vocabulary to teach, how much vocabulary to teach, and when (in what sequence) to teach vocabulary
- The HOLME model of sign language formation (“pronunciation”)
- The usefulness of games in promoting language acquisition
- Different approaches to grammar, and how grammar can be taught. These include formal versus functional grammar and explicit versus implicit grammar teaching
- Various issues which arise in teaching sign language grammar, and especially aspects of ISL which might be difficult for Hearing students to master because ISL works very differently from any spoken language.
- Production and comprehension skills and how to “teach” these skills.
- Issues and problems which arise when teaching ISL because it is not a written language.

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