Chapter 2

THEORETICAL OVERVIEW

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Chapter 2
Theoretical overview

2.1 Language development in children

Child language development has been a target of scientific inquiry for at least 200 years. Perhaps the earliest attempt to collect normative data on language acquisition was by the German philosopher Tiedemann, who published his observations in 1787, followed by physiologists in the mid nineteenth century. The first systematic and detailed chronicle of language development was published by Prayer in 1882. The subject also merited serious consideration from Darwin (1872) and other scientists concerned with the development of the human species, since understanding the nature of language development in children was seen as key to understanding the phylogeny of mankind itself. The process of language acquisition has since been studied within a wide range of disciplines, including philosophy, psychology, anthropology, education and linguistics, and from a wide range of perspectives. Language development has thus been of interest as a biological, spiritual and social phenomenon defining human existence, integrally related with cognitive development and all other aspects of each individual and with the culture that it helps to transmit from generation to generation in each society.

Observational and experimental reports in the vast literature that has accumulated reflect changing focus of interest within each of the disciplines represented, as well as shifting theoretical concepts of the nature of language, appropriate sources of data and data collection procedures, and incorporative frames. The study of language acquisition in the past few decades has focused in turn primarily on vocabulary, phonology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics and discourse corresponding to the changes of focus and paradigm shifts in the study of language more generally. Aspects of language that are not of central concern during any specific period still continue to receive at least peripheral consideration by researchers who are not primarily theorists.
2.2. Learning Conditions of Mother Tongue and Second Language

The learning conditions of mother tongue and second language differ very much. The learning process at these levels are affected and influenced by several factors and the very process of acquisition differs to a great extent. The mother tongue is picked up at home in the most natural situations, guided and controlled by those who are near and dear to the child. The second language on the other hand, is learned in the most artificial situation, usually in an atmosphere of fear, anxiety and tension. The learning of the first language takes place along with other aspects of biological growth such as walking. Learning of first language is an integral part of biological growth. It is controlled by factors that do not create much tension in the child. The second language learning takes place when the child’s attention is scattered and influenced by several unrelated forces such as peer group and rivalries.

Second language acquisition or second language learning is the process by which people learn a second language. Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is also the name of the scientific discipline devoted to studying that process. Second language refers to any language learned in addition to a person’s first language; although the concept is named second language acquisition, it can also incorporate the learning of third, fourth or subsequent languages.

Second language acquisition is closely related to psychology, cognitive psychology, and education. SLA research began as an interdisciplinary field, and because of this it is difficult to identify a precise starting date. However, it does appear to have developed a great deal since the mid-1960s. The term acquisition was originally used to emphasize the subconscious nature of the learning process, but in recent years learning and acquisition have become largely synonymous.

2.3 The social context of language teaching and learning

The social context of language learning can be regarded as a set of factors that is likely to exercise a powerful influence on language learning, and it is therefore necessary to take note of such contextual factors in analysing a given language teaching situations.
There has been a general awareness for some years of these environmental factors, and several research studies have examined some of the possible relationships. In a plan of research on language teaching, Carrol (1969) identified a number of background variables to take into account in conducting language teaching research. The factors categorized by Carrol include linguistic factors, i.e. the characteristics of the new language to be learnt in comparison with the language of origin. Sociocultural factors that bear upon motivation, such as the relative social status of the first language and the second language, the instrumental value of the second language, the cultural value of the second language, and political factors should be considered; they lead to the kind of interpretation of the relative status of the first and the second language in accordance with Schumann’s acculturation theory. Other important aspects are the social opportunities for contact with the second language and the opportunities for learning the language offered in the school.

Sometimes environmental factors declare themselves very distinctly, at other times they are much more difficult to identify. The home influences motivation and thereby indirectly affects achievement. Children with parents in higher-status occupations receives greater parental support when they approach new learning experiences than do those with parents in lower status occupations. This pattern of result is accentuated as students proceed through the educational system.

But another example from Burstall’s (1974) study shows how cautious one has to in interpreting the relationship between environmental factors and language teaching. Intuition may lead one to think that teaching languages in the more cosmopolitan atmosphere of a modern city school would lead to greater success in language learning than studying the same language in a small and often old-fashioned rural school. Yet, one of the most consistent and the most surprising finding of the British study was the higher level of achievement in French in small rural primary schools. An explanation for this unexpected finding could only be found by a close comparison of the two school environments. It was discovered that the teachers in the small country schools were, on average older and more experienced than their counterparts in larger schools and tended to live in the village in which they taught. The classroom situation in the school was much inclined to encourage co-operative behaviour and to lack the negative motivational characteristics of the compete classroom in a large city school.
In order to study these environmental influences on students of bilingual education have looked more closely at the relationships between language in school and the social environment. Two schemes have been developed; which are designed to analyse bilingual schooling in its context. A typology of bilingual education, proposed by Mackey (1970), shows the intricate varieties that may occur when the language of the school is related to home, area or nation.

Mackey identifies nine different ways of arranging the language curriculum in school leading to not less than ninety different patterns of interaction between home, school, area and nation. Mackey’s views are simple and show how different social variables interact with language teaching and learning.

Another scheme, developed by Spolsky, attempts to present a single configuration all the possible factors that have bearing on bilingual education. Placing education in the centre, Spolsky examines six factors that impinge upon it: linguistic, sociological, political, economic, cultural, religious and psychological (Figure 2.1). He shows how this model can be used, first in the analysis of a situation in which bilingual education is being considered; second, once established how it can help at the operational level to decide upon the curriculum; and lastly, how it can be used to evaluate the outcome of bilingual education.

Figure 2.1
With certain modifications these two models for analysing the context of bilingual schooling can be applied to language teaching situations generally; they constitute a useful scheme for the analysis of contextual factors. An adaptation of Mackey’s model effectively indicates the interaction of different social agencies, some close to the language teaching situation and others distant (Figure 2.2).

**Figure 2.2**

![Diagram showing various factors influencing language learning](image)

### 2.4 Second Language acquisition

Second language learning means learning another language after the first language is acquired. There exists difference between acquisition and learning. Learning is a conscious effort to master a language whereas acquisition is an automatic, subconscious process of acquiring or mastering a language. The human beings have some inborn capacity to acquire and use the highly complex system of human language and speech. The ability to acquire the first language is universally found among all the human beings; related to this is the capacity to learn a language other than one’s own.

The second language researchers have shown a lot of interest in research on languages and the brain. Language learning is a natural phenomenon which occurs even without intervention. Different areas of the brain have specialized functions. Particular areas of the brain were designed for processing certain kinds of information from the birth of a child though they are not fixed at the time of birth. Studies has shown that the specialized functions of specified areas of the brain are shaped by experience and training. The young brain is like
a computer with highly sophisticated hardware, but with no software. The software of the brain connects the exceptional processing capacity of the brain in the service of specialized functions like vision, smell and language. All individuals have to develop their own software in order to exploit the processing.

Research studies reported that there is a critical period or optimal age for second language learning. This period is around thirteen years of age. Beyond this age, individuals face difficulty in learning another language with ease. Biologists hold the view that a child’s brain is more ‘plastic’ and thus it is more receptive than the adult’s brain. But, the cognitive argument says that an adult is superior to the child when it comes to abstract thought. Learning another language involves generalization, discrimination of differences and identifying similarities and mastery of sentence structures. Since the adults seem to have an edge over children in this, language learning is easily done.

Generally, children do not have negative attitudes towards the second language, and they usually have a strong desire to learn it. The number of exposure to the second language and the starting age of the learner affect the ultimate level of success, especially regarding pronunciation. Although children learn more slowly than adults, they eventually surpass them. Both the contexts share similarities and differences. It may not be possible to replicate all the conditions of learning that a child is exposed to when learning a second language. Many attempts have been made to apply cognitive learning theory to second language acquisition. This is based on the assumption that second language acquisition is similar to any other kind of complex skill learning. Cognitive theory is the result of extensive research into the role that mental processing plays in learning.

2.5 Major issues in Second language Instruction

Since the 1960s there has been an increasing attempt in research on teaching and learning from instruction to relate the major features of teacher and student behaviour in classrooms in learning outcomes. There have been extensive investigations into the types and qualities of instructional and non-instructional tasks, the relative amounts of participation by the teacher and students, and the function and forms of language in interaction. At the same time, various personality, attitudinal, cognitive and other individual or social factors which are thought to influence observational classroom behaviours have been the object of instructional research.
The fundamental goal of most studies has been to determine which variables best, or more frequently, lead to academic achievement. Careful evaluation of results can lead to well-informed decision making at all levels of educational planning: development of the curriculum, preparation of materials, training of teachers, preference for classroom teaching activities and practices and decisions about individualization of instruction. The range of applications of classroom related research is broad and the number of factors and issues studied seems endless (Chaudron1988). While second language classroom research has ended to lag behind native language research in the topics and methods for investigation, these statements apply equally to both contexts.

In addition to the intrinsic interest that the description of classroom process has for researchers, probably the ultimate objective of classroom research is to identify those characteristics of classrooms that lead to efficient learning of the instructional content, so that empirically supported second language teacher training and programme development can be implemented. The researcher will not approach this objective with any rigid notion of the principal sources of those characteristics, for their equally as well may be other qualities of the programme responsible for learning, such as materials, classroom environment, the teacher, the students and teaching methods.

2.6 The importance of varied practices in Second language instruction

There are a number of theoretical issues relating to the teaching and learning of second languages, many of which will be brought out in the context of specific research studies and factors. One crucial issue in L2 research concerns the ultimate value of second language instruction. There is little reason to investigate which teaching behaviours might improve L2 learning slightly if, overall, instruction in an L2 is not especially productive. This issue hinges on the degree to which an L2 is acquired through natural development and exposure to it in meaningful, social interaction, compared to the degree to which a structured, formalistic environment can contribute to acquisition. The question of whether L2 instruction has an absolute positive effect on acquisition will obviously depend on particular programmes and circumstances, but in a synthesis of several studies which compared naturalistic with formal instruction shows that the outcomes favour instruction, all other factors being equal. In other
words, instructional contexts appeared to contribute more positively to acquisition of the L2 than naturalistic exposure and other factors.

2.6.1 Second Language Instruction in Kerala with reference to Hindi teaching

In Kerala, Hindi learning was made compulsory in schools since 1949. Even though the Government is providing necessary assistance to promote Hindi language education at school level, there is a general opinion among the Educationalists and public that the linguistic abilities of students in Hindi have not attained the targeted level. One of the major reasons is attributed to relying on traditional methods of language teaching like translation method. The scenario can be changed by adopting modern instructional theories and practices. The varied practices used in language instruction worldwide are applicable for teaching Hindi also. The learning theories and instructional strategies discussed here facilitate modernization of Hindi teaching to a great extent.

2.7. Theories of Learning

The history of language teaching shows that teachers had were never been their own (Mukalel, J,1998). In both informal and formal situations teachers sought directions from those who spoke authoritatively on language. The most modern linguists are not different from the earlier philosophers with regard to one aspect: the purpose of investigations into the phenomenon of language. This kind of investigations has always had two objectives. A disinterested inquiry into the nature of language for the sake of objective knowledge and on the basis of whatever knowledge is obtained the method of teaching a language is organized. The language teacher is not expected to be a theoretician and possess all insights into language and its functioning. The teacher depends on the researches undertaken and the theoretical pronouncements of language specialists such as linguists or a psycho or socio-linguists who are on the continual trail of the complex phenomenon of language. The beginning is the theoretician: the linguist, psychologist, sociologist or educationist; and the end is the teacher who functions as the actual classroom practitioner on whom the learner depends. Between the theoretician and the teacher, the theories are concretized, structured and restructured so as to give shape to various language teaching methods which will in turn yield the actual classroom techniques for the effective functioning of the teacher in the classroom.
Behaviourist theory is one of the earliest theories of language learning. Under this theory it is generally believed that the second language learner tries to imitate what he hears and practices in the second language regularly to develop habits in that language. This theory also believes that learners try to relate their knowledge of the native language to the second language and this could lead to positive as well as negative results. However the imitation of one language with the other is not appreciated as this does not help in real life situations.

Behaviourist theory forms the basis of positive and negative feedback, body language, repetition and direct teaching. The major proponent of the basis of positive and negative feedback was B.F. Skinner who stated that “Actions followed by an immediate positive effect tend to be repeated and actions followed by an immediate negative effect tend to be discontinued.”

Cognitive theory uses various techniques for language learning. Among them are Chomsky’s generative grammar, Piaget’s cognitive development theory, Krashen’s monitor model and Information processing theories. Chomsky’s generative grammar tries to define a set of rules that can predict the construction of a sentence, using a combination of words in a language. The rules will also predict the morphology of the sentence.

Noam Chomsky (1956) believes that children are born with an inherited ability to learn any human language. He claims that certain linguistic structures which children use so accurately must be already imprinted on the child’s mind. Chomsky believes that every child has a ‘Language Acquisition Device’ or LAD which encodes the major principles of a language and its grammatical structures into the child’s brain. Children have then only to learn new vocabulary and apply the syntactic structures from the LAD to form sentences. Chomsky points out that a child could not possibly learn a language through imitation alone because the language spoken around them is highly irregular-adult’s speech is often broken up and even sometimes ungrammatical. Chomsky’s theory applies to all languages as they all contain nouns, verbs, consonants and vowels and children appear to be ‘hard-wired’ to acquire the grammar. Every language is extremely complex, often with subtle distinctions which even native speakers are unaware of. However, all children, regardless of their intellectual ability, become fluent in their native language within five or six years.

Cognitive theory is concerned with the development of an individual’s thinking process. It refers to the study of the world and how it obtains, processes, and stores information.
According to cognitive theory, learners are active participants in their learning, and the mind functions like a computer processor. Information comes from various sources as input, the mind process the information for the time being and it is retrieved for later use. According to cognitivist theory, learning is shaped by acquired learning strategies, prior knowledge and activities, called schemas.

Cognitive theory considers second language acquisition as a conscious and reasoned thinking process, involving the deliberate application of learning strategies. According to this theory, learning strategies are important ways of processing information that enhance comprehension, learning or retention of subject matter. This detailed explanation of language learning contrasts strongly with the behaviourist view of language learning, which treats learning as an unconscious and automatic process.

The cognitive theory elaborates the learner’s ability to use his cognition skills in order to work out in the second language on his own. They try to notice a pattern and based on this make their own rules and if they are faulty, they change them accordingly. Here the learners are benefited in the sense that they constantly learn from their mistakes. However this theory has certain problems, one of them being that the learner not only makes use of his cognitive skills to make assumptions about the second language but are due to the rules based on the native language. Also it is not always sure what the person learning the second language meant to say, determination of error becomes slightly difficult.

The cognitive theory focuses on the mind and attempts to model how information is received, assimilated, stored and recalled. Learning occurs when learner process information. The input, processing, storage and retrieval information are the process at the heart of learning. Both Vygotsky and Bruner shared the view that learning is transaction between the learner and a more experienced member of his/or her cultural group.

Piaget’s (1969) cognitive development theory states that the children actively construct their understanding of the world and pass through different styles of cognitive development. Piaget described cognitivism in accordance with the stages of development of children when they are mentally prepared to construct the meaning of things through their own understanding. This understanding according to Piaget, starts from the simple and move to the complex. Knowledge and thinking skills are very important for cognitive problem solving. According to Piaget, organization and adaptation are the processes underlie in cognitive knowledge construction. Organization is important for the children in order to construct the meaning of
things which makes sense to them by organizing the experiences. In the case of adaptation, it is differentiated into assimilation and accommodation.

The important notion of Vygotsky (1978) is that students learn most effectively when they are given tasks which are a little difficult for a particular learner to accomplish alone but can be completed successfully through social cooperation. This according to Vygotsky is coined as teaching in the student’s Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD).

According to Vygotsky, the Zone of Proximal Development “is the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers.” (Vygotsky, 1978).

Vygotsky held the view that peer interaction was an essential part of the learning process. He suggested that in order for children to learn new skills, pairing more competent students with less competent ones will be beneficial. When a student is in this ZPD, providing him/her with proper assistance, which he referred to as scaffolding, gives the learner what they need to accomplish the new task. Gradually the scaffolding can be removed and the student will be able to complete the task independently.

The most important cognitive theory of Second language learning is that developed by Bialystok (1979). Like other cognitive psychologists who have addressed Second language learning, Bialystok explicitly affirms the principle that language is processed by the human mind in the same way as other kinds of information. Language proficiency is described with reference to two dimensions: an analysed factor and automatic factor. The analysed factor concerns the extent to which the language learner is aware of the structure of his linguistic knowledge. An unanalysed knowledge which is characterized by the early stages of Second language learning; the learner is not aware of the structure and organization of knowledge. As learning take place awareness increases, enabling the learner to identify the formal structure.

Awareness takes the form of a prepositional mental representation of linguistic knowledge which may or may not be conscious to the learner. Bialystok emphasized that the degree of analytic ability is not linked to consciousness and is not explicitly represented in the mind of
the learner. It is wrong to equate analysed knowledge with articulated knowledge or knowledge of rules. The analysed knowledge however makes articulated knowledge and meta-lingual knowledge possible. It can be operated on by the learner and is available for language uses in the formal education. Learners who have access to only the unanalysed second language will be restricted to the kinds of language use for which this is appropriate i.e. for everyday usage. This process in which knowledge gradually becomes analysed during the course of second language acquisition corresponds to the general process of cognitive restructuring.

Krashen’s monitor model (1984) states that adults have two independent systems for developing a second language. One is subconscious acquisition and conscious learning. Monitor theory claims that subconscious learning is more important than conscious learning and conscious learning is used only as a monitor. i.e. one may have fluency in a particular language based on their interactions and what they have picked up and will use the conscious learning to alter their output before or after speaking. Krashen’s theory proposes that there is a monitor which functions to help the person to filter his/her language. Conscious learning can act only as a monitor. The person uses the monitor to apply rules to already acquired knowledge.

Cummins (1984) explained language proficiency in terms of two continua – task difficulties and the context in which language occurs. Difficulty may vary from cognitively undemanding tasks to cognitively demanding tasks. The context for language use may vary from contents that are embedded or enriched with linguistic or paralinguistic cues for meaning to contexts that are reduced or absent of such cues to meaning. Academic tasks tend to be cognitively demanding and tasks outside classroom are often cognitively undemanding.

Humanistic approach takes into consideration the feelings, motivation levels and confidence of a person. It tries to in still positive emotions that help language acquisition such as self-esteem, motivation, empathy and risk taking. It also tries to lessen negative emotions such as low self-confidence, anxiety and nervousness and mental inhibition.

During 1983, Howard Gardner defined intelligence as "the capacity to solve problems or to fashion products that are valued in one or more cultural setting" (Gardner and Hatch, 1989). Using biological as well as cultural research, he formulated a list of eight intelligences. This
new outlook on intelligence differs greatly from the traditional view which usually recognizes only two intelligences, verbal and computational. The eight intelligences Gardner defines are logical-mathematical intelligence, linguistic intelligence, spatial intelligence, musical intelligence, bodily-kinesthetic intelligence, interpersonal intelligence and intra personal intelligence and natural intelligence.

Applying Multiple Intelligence Theory in a second language classroom is meaningful because it promotes a change in the methodologies of teaching languages through the use of drills, dialogue memorization and verb conjugation charts. Activities that appeal to multiple intelligence, can also promote the use of the target language as it is used in real life. For example instead of filling in a verb worksheet, students are asked to perform using the verbs in authentic tasks, that model real life situations. From role playing to journal writing, students can reflect what they know by performing in the target language.

Although the intelligences are anatomically separated from each other, Gardner claims that all the intelligences very rarely operate independently. Rather, the intelligences are used concurrently and typically complement to each other as individuals develop skills or solve problems.

Neuro-linguistic programming (NLP) is an approach to psychotherapy and organizational change based on a model of interpersonal communication chiefly concerned with the relationship between successful patterns of behaviour and the subjective experiences underlying them and a system of alternative therapy based on this which seeks to educate people in self-awareness and effective communication, and to change their patterns of mental and emotional behaviour.

The co-founders Bandler, R and linguist Grinder, J (1975), believed that NLP would be useful in finding ways to help people have better, fuller and richer lives. They coined the term "Neuro-Linguistic Programming" to emphasize their belief in a connection between the neurological processes (neuro), language (linguistic) and behavioral patterns that have been learned through experience (programming) and can be organized to achieve specific goals in life (Bandler, R. and Grinder, J. 1975).

Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP) begins with an interest in people; it’s about how one does things. NLP used in Language teaching tells about how a person thinks and learn. It does this by enabling one to explore the structure of his own subjective experience: how he
constructs his view of the world around. Used in language teaching, NLP empowers the learner to submerge into the inner, virtual-world image as a way of understanding the outside world.

NLP’s practical applications include understanding how one learn, developing strategies for both students and teachers, using the five senses, and making use of accelerated learning techniques. Through NLP, teachers and parents can gain concrete methods for helping students perform well. Instructional practitioners are incorporating key aspects of the NLP approach into their teaching and classroom management patterns.

2.8. The New Era of Language Learning

Many educators, researchers and writers have already begun to evolve visions for learning in the 21st century while those interested in the field of language education are beginning to describe a new era of language learning. The vision is articulated in contrast to the traditional approach to education or the instructional paradigm which was prevalent in the teaching-learning scenario. It is first and foremost a learner-centred education that is driven by the ‘knowledge, skills and attitudes’ of the student and which is characterized by ‘personal control of learning by students’. Under this paradigm, learners become ‘active discoverers and constructors of their own knowledge’. Knowledge construction, communities of learners, individual and collective discovery and problem solving, holistic learning: these will be important qualifiers for education in the 21st century. This new paradigm for teaching-learning process contrasts with the traditional paradigm. The following table shows the difference between the two paradigms or the conventional and reform approaches to education:
Table 2.1 Comparison of traditional and modern approaches to instruction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traditional Instruction</th>
<th>Modern Instruction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher-directed</td>
<td>Learner exploration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Didactic teaching</td>
<td>Interactive modes of instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short blocks of instruction on a single subject</td>
<td>Extended blocks of authentic and multi-disciplinary work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual learning activities</td>
<td>Collaborative learning activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as source of knowledge</td>
<td>Teacher as facilitator of learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability groupings of students</td>
<td>Heterogeneous groupings of students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment of facts, knowledge and discrete skills</td>
<td>Continuous, comprehensive and Performance-based assessment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The emphasis in the new era of language learning is on construction as opposed to transmission of knowledge. While the dominant psychology of the preceding era was that of behaviourism, constructivist psychology or philosophy has emerged as the alternative to the "instructional paradigm" and the behaviourist approach to education. Fosnot (1996) explains that, although constructivism is not a theory of teaching, it suggests taking a radically different approach to instruction from that used in most schools. A constructivist view of learning suggests an approach to teaching that gives learners the opportunity for concrete, contextually meaningful experience through which they can search for patterns, raise their own questions, and construct their own models, concepts, and strategies. The classroom in this model is seen as a mini-society, a community of learners engaged in activity, discourse and reflection.

2.9. Constructivism: The learner centred approach in language instruction

Constructivism is one of the new theories, which has very much influenced the teaching-learning scenario worldwide. The basic idea of constructivism is that the learner should
construct knowledge; the teacher cannot provide it (Bringuier, 1980). The constructivist paradigm as advocated by Piaget (1993) and Bruner (1990), stresses that whatever gets into the mind has to be constructed by the individual through discovery. Constructivism holds the view that learning is an active process where students construct new ideas or concepts based upon their current or past knowledge. According to Simons (1993), constructivism is an approach in which the learner is building an internal illustration of knowledge, a personal interpretation of his/her experiences. Constructivism emphasizes the careful study of the process by which children create and develop their ideas. Constructivists believe that learning is an interaction between the learner and the learning environment. During this interaction, prior knowledge is utilized as a basis to interpret and construct new understanding. This divergent view of learning assumes that knowledge is constructed through experience. According to constructivist theory, learning occurs only when a learner can construct his/her knowledge and apply or generalize its meaning to other situations.

Theory of constructivism takes into consideration the nature of the learner, his cultural background is considered very important. The responsibility to learn fully rests with the learner. Also the teacher is seen as a facilitator and not as an instructor. The emphasis is more on the content and the learners own understanding of the content. There is a dynamic interplay between the facilitator and learner and both are equally involved in learning from each other. It also encourages the learners to collaborate with each other to arrive at a shared understanding. This is directly opposite to traditional competitive environment. The context in which the learning process has occurred is also considered very important. The learning process is carried out in the form of a complex array of facts, problems and perceptions. That is why the selection, scope and sequencing of the learning matter are considered important. Students need to be continuously challenged just beyond their current ability. According to the Constructivist theory, the learners need to be continuously challenged beyond their current ability to handle multiple task orientations in an effective way.

The constructivist revolution in the educational scenario offers a new vision of the learner as an active sense-maker and suggests innovative strategies of instruction. It facilitates presentation of learning materials in a constructivist way and make students engaged in an active and explorative learning environment. This approach empowers the learners to have
more control over their own learning, to think analytically, critically, divergently and to work collaboratively. The constructivist approach is a revolutionary one, having immense power to reform and modernize the teaching of languages.

Constructivism can be studied under two heads: Cognitive constructivism and Social constructivism.

Cognitive constructivism is based on the work of Swiss developmental psychologist Piaget. Piaget's theory of cognitive development proposes that humans cannot be "given" information which they immediately understand and use. Instead, humans must "construct" their own knowledge. They build their knowledge through experience. Experiences enable them to create schemas - mental models in their heads. These schemas are changed, enlarged, and made more sophisticated through two complimentary processes assimilation and accommodation.

Piaget (1993) stressed that the development of knowledge representation and manipulation is not genetically programmed into the brain. He viewed children as young scientists who are driven to understand their world, and to change their understanding in the face of mistaken predictions about the world. Changes in knowledge structures drive changes in fundamental cognitive capabilities. The seemingly natural progression of cognitive capabilities emerge in an orderly way because certain ways of thinking must be mastered, and for the foundation for subsequent ones. The later ones cannot emerge until the early ones have been mastered. Cognitive constructivists believe that learning is a natural, active and conscious process. The learner creates knowledge and it is the result of the learner’s interaction with the environment. When the learner succeeds in solving the intellectual disequilibrium created during instructional practice, learning takes place. Cognitive constructivists believe that knowledge that is not related to the existing knowledge of the learner is meaningless.

Social constructivism is a sociological theory of knowledge that applies the general philosophical constructionism into social settings, wherein groups construct knowledge for one another, collaboratively creating a small culture of shared artifacts with shared meanings. When one is immersed within a culture of this sort, one is learning all the time about how to
be a part of that culture on many levels. Its origins are largely attributed to Vygotsky (1978).

A major focus of social constructivist theory is to uncover the ways in which individuals and groups participate in the construction of their perceived social reality. It involves looking at the ways social phenomena are created, institutionalized, and made into tradition by humans. The social construction of reality is an on-going, dynamic process that is reproduced by people acting on their interpretations. Because social constructs as facets of reality and objects of knowledge are not "given" by nature, they must be constantly maintained and re-affirmed in order to persist. This process also introduces the possibility of change: what "justice" is and what it means shifts from one generation to another.

2.10. Instructional Practices in Second Language Acquisition

The theories of language learning will remain ineffective and dormant so long as they are given a practical frame work and bring it into actual classroom interaction process. The language teacher has to employ the apt methods that are most suitable to achieve the objectives of second language learning. Creative imagination and resourcefulness along with a deep sense of linguistic needs of the students are highly expected from an instructional practitioner in second language, in order to make the classroom atmosphere vibrant.

Teaching methods provide guidelines for teachers that are broad and provide a framework for planning and organizing teacher’s activities in the learning space. Almost all methods give opportunities for teachers to contribute more from his side, in order to make the instructional strategy more appealing to the learners and as demanded by the curriculum planners. Hindi teachers has to internalize the essence of maximum number of modern instructional practices, that are prevalent in language education world-wide and should introduce them in the classroom, in order to modernize his way of curriculum transaction in an effective manner.
According to Hitchcock (1927) language teaching is best accomplished if student is constantly placed in situations where he/she needs to communicate with others through writing or speaking in order to accomplish his/her role. According to Di Pierto (1987) second language acquisition is an inherent ability in human beings, which requires interaction with others through the target language in order to be activated. Allwright (1984) and Breen (1985) have also stated clearly the importance of communication which has been jointly constructed by the teacher and the students. Batters (1988) suggests that “The pupil’s activity in the classroom or the extent to which they initiate or participate actively in a classroom learning strategies, and the kind of communication in which they indulge, are the two crucial factors which influence pupils in their language learning. Wardhaugh (1969) states that teachers must stimulate the learners to use the language and encourage them to make use of the innate process of language acquisition that he/she has. According to Eggen and Kauchak (1990), effective learning occur when students are actively involved in organizing and finding relationships in the information they encounter, rather than being passive recipients of teacher delivered parts of knowledge. This increases the knowledge acquisition process and helps in developing creative thinking skills. The exchanges of ideas in the classroom enable students to retrieve and interrelate a great deal of what they have encountered. So in a second language classroom, both external and internal interaction becomes essential to learn the new language. The teacher should adopt the apt methods and strategies in the classroom that foster creative and divergent thinking skills in students.

2.10.1 Instructional practices based on co-operative groups

2.10.1.1 Co-operative Learning

Co-operative learning is an instructional strategy that simultaneously addresses academic and social skill learning by students. It is a well-known instructional strategy and has been reported to be highly successful in the language classroom. Nowadays there is an ever increasing need for interdependence in all levels of the society. Providing support for students to effectively work in a collaborative environment should be given priority in teaching-learning process. Co-operative Learning is one way of providing students with a well-
defined framework from which students have to learn from each other. Students work towards fulfilling academic and social skill goals that are clearly stated.

2.10.1.2 Collaborative learning

Collaborative learning is another instructional strategy that involves groups of learners working together to solve a problem, complete a task, or create a product. It is based on the idea that learning is a naturally occurring social act occurring through active engagement among peers. Common task or activity, small group learning, co-operative learning behaviour, interdependence and individual responsibility and accountability are the salient features of collaborative learning. In cooperative learning the task is divided vertically (i.e., members work more or less concurrently on different aspects of a project), whereas in collaborative learning the task is divided horizontally (i.e., members work together more or less sequentially on different aspects of a project) (Dillenbourg, 1999).

2.10.1.3 Brainstorming

Brainstorming is considered as a combination of a relaxed and informal approach to problem-solving. Students are asked to find ideas and thoughts that can at first seem to be a bit irrelevant. The process is to use some of these ideas to form original, creative solutions to problems. The goal of brainstorming is to direct learners to new horizons of thinking and abstain from the usual way of reasoning.

The most important thing about brainstorming is that there should be no criticism of student’s ideas during the brainstorming session. Students try to project possibilities and discard wrong assumptions about the limits of the problem. Judgments and analysis of ideas are explored after the brainstorming process while focus should be on idea generation during this stage.

2.10.1.4 Buzz sessions

Buzz sessions are short participative sessions that are deliberately built into an ordinary lecture or larger group exercise in order to stimulate discussion and provide student feedback. In such sessions, small sub-groups of two to four persons spend a short period intensively discussing a topic or topics suggested by the teacher. Each sub-group after discussion reports
back on its deliberations to the group as a whole, or sometimes combines with another subgroup in order to share their findings and discuss the implications. Buzz sessions constitute an excellent method of bringing variety into conventional class rooms, and thus helpful in maintaining student attention and immediate feedback.

2.10.1.5 Seminars

Seminars are highly interactive sessions in which the presenter leads a small group of participants in a discussion about a given topic. Seminars provide an opportunity to explore topics by discussion, and to identify and sort out any problems. Often a seminar is led by a student who prepares and presents the topic and opens the discussion. Since seminar is of benefit to everyone, it is the responsibility of the other students to contribute their ideas and opinions. The participants are motivated to ask questions also. The teacher's role is as a facilitator only. At the end of the seminar the person who presents the topic may sum up and draw conclusions.

2.10.1.6 Panel Discussion

A panel discussion is designed to provide opportunity for a group to hear several people, having knowledge about a specific issue or topic present information and discuss personal views. A panel discussion may help the audience further clarify and evaluate their positions regarding specific issues or topics being discussed and increase their understanding of the positions of others. The following format is commonly used in panel discussion.

The leader or moderator introduces the topic and the panel members present their views and opinions regarding the problem or topic for a particular period of time. The participants discuss the issue or topic with each other by asking questions or reacting to the views and opinions of other panel members. The moderator closes the discussion and provides a summary of panel presentations and discussion.
2.10.2 Instructional practices based on information and communication technology

2.10.2.1 Teleconference

A teleconference is a telephone meeting among participants involving technology, more sophisticated than a simple two-way telephonic conversation. At its simplest, a teleconference can be an audio conference with one or both ends of the conference sharing a speaker phone. Modern audio teleconferences are sometimes arranged over dial-up phone lines using bridging services that provide the necessary equipments.

2.10.2.2 Video-conference

Video Conference is a live video contact between people in separate locations for the purpose of communication or interaction. Video-conferencing allows people to communicate visually from anywhere in the world. Conducting a conference between two or more participants at different places is carried out by using computer network to transmit audio and video data. Each participant has a video camera, microphone, and speakers mounted on his or her computer. As the two participants speak to one another, their voices are carried over the network and delivered to the other's speakers, and whatever images appear in front of the video camera appear in a window on the other participant's monitor.

2.10.2.3 Web based learning

Web based learning is often called online learning because it includes online course content. Discussion forums via e-mail, videoconferencing and live lectures, are all possible through the web. Web based courses may also provide static pages such as printed course material. The proliferation of personal computer combined with the internet has resulted in far-reaching changes in the society.

2.10.2.4 E-mail

Researchers are looking to email as a promising instructional and learning tool. However, its strength as an educational tool relies solely on constructing a solid email-based environment.
Email could be used as a feedback and communication tool in educational sector. E-mail is a source of more intensive student interaction that can lead to more deeper, active, and engaged learning. Email can be a wonderful tool for delivering feedback to learners.

### 2.10.2.5 Web Quest

A Web Quest," according to Bernie Dodge (2006), the originator of the Web Quest concept, "is an inquiry-oriented activity in which most or all of the information used by learners is drawn from the Web. Web Quests are designed to use learners' time well, to focus on using information rather than on looking for it, and to support learners' thinking at the levels of analysis, synthesis, and evaluation."

Web Quests provide students tasks that allow them to use their imagination and problem-solving skills in a structured manner. The answers are not predefined and therefore must be discovered or created. In web quests students must use their own creative-thinking and problem-solving skills to find solutions to problems. Web Quests are also a wonderful way of capturing students' imagination and allowing them to explore in a guided, meaningful manner.

### 2.10.2.6 Virtual Reality

Virtual reality is an upcoming technology that makes learners feel in a virtual environment by using computer hardware and software. It was originally conceived as a digitally created space which humans could access with the help of computer modelling and simulation. It enables people to deal with information more easily. Virtual reality provides a different way to see and experience information, one that is dynamic and immediate. Its applications immerse the user in a computer-generated environment that simulates reality through the use of interactive devices, which send and receive information.

### 2.10.2.7 Digital library

A digital library is a collection of documents in organized electronic form, available on the Internet or on CD-ROM (compact-disk read-only memory) disks. Depending on the specific library, a user may be able to access magazine articles, books, papers, images, sound files,
and videos. On the Internet, the use of a digital library is enhanced by a broadband connection. Internet-based digital libraries can be updated on a daily basis. This is one of the greatest contributions of emerging technology.

2.10.3 Instructional practices that emphasize reinforcement or feedback and individual pacing

2.10.3.1 Programmed Learning

The components of Skinner's programmed Instruction include: Behavioural objectives, small frames of instruction, self-pacing, active learner response to inserted question and immediate feedback. The underlying instructional principles operating Skinner's programmed instruction include: Shaping: refers "the reinforcement of successive approximations to a goal behaviour" (Driscoll, 2000). This process requires the learner to perform successive approximations of the target behaviour by changing the criterion behaviour for reinforcement to become more and more like the final performance. Chaining: Skinner proposed that the acquisition of complex behaviours is the result of the process referred to as chaining. Chaining establishes "complex behaviours made up of discrete, simpler behaviours already known to the learner" (Driscoll, 2000). Thus, in the programmed instruction, content is arranged in small steps, which progress from simple to complex and require a response from the learner to go further.

2.10.3.2 Modular instruction

Module is a unit of work in a course of instruction that is self-contained and is based on the building up of skills and knowledge in discrete units. It is a methodological development based on programmed learning; a well-established and globally recognized instructional strategy. One of the major purposes of modular instruction is to allow students to proceed at their own pace. Another one is to allow the learners to choose his/her learning mode.
2.10.3.3 Mastery Learning

Mastery learning gives opportunities for students, to work at their own pace. In mastery learning, teachers follow a sequence of concepts and skills in instructional units. Following initial instruction, teachers administer a brief formative assessment based on the unit’s learning objectives. The assessment gives students information, or feedback, which helps identify what they have learned well to that point (diagnostic) and what they need to learn better (prescriptive). Students who have learned the concepts continue their learning experience with enrichment activities, such as special projects or reports, or problem-solving tasks. Students who need more experience with the concept receive feedback paired with corrective activities, which offer guidance and direction on how to overcome their learning deficiency.

2.10.3.4 Personalized System of Instruction

Personalized System of Instruction was originally designed as a classroom-based method of instruction with the intention of improving student achievement with the use of positive consequences for learning.

In a class room, where personalized system of instruction is adopted, the instructional content is presented in written form rather than ordinary lectures. Teachers following PSI normally prepare a written study guide that is designed to assist students with learning. The study guide contains study objectives and questions that focus students’ attention on important material to be learned, and provide a clear indication of what students are expected to do. The study guide may also include instructor comments used to elucidate difficult points, exercises and practice problems to prepare students for the unit quiz, thought questions to stimulate students’ interest in the exploring the subject matter further, and a supplementary reading list.
2.10.4 Instructional practices based on multimedia

2.10.4.1 Multimedia package

Multimedia is a term frequently heard and discussed among educational circles. Unless clearly defined, the term can alternately mean a judicious mix of various mass media such as print, audio and video or it may mean the development of computer-based hardware and software packages produced on a mass scale and yet allow individualized use and learning. Multimedia merges multiple levels of learning into an educational tool that allows diversity in presenting instructional materials. Multimedia is the exciting combination of computer hardware and software that allow integrating video, animation, audio, graphics, and test resources to develop effective presentations.

2.10.4.2 Computer Assisted Instruction

Computer-assisted instruction (CAI) refers to instruction or remediation presented on a computer. Computer programs give opportunity for learners to progress at their own pace and work individually or solving problems in groups. Computers provide immediate feedback, allowing students know whether their answer is correct or not. If the answer is in correct, the program guides students to correctly answer the question. Computer-assisted instruction moves at the students’ pace and usually does not move ahead until they have mastered that particular skill.

Typically CAI programs incorporate functions such as, assessing student capabilities with a pre-test, Presenting educational materials in a navigable form providing repetitive drills to improve the student's command of knowledge, providing game-based drills to increase enjoyment of learning and assessing student progress with a post-test.

2.11. Models of teaching

Over the years a large number of learning theories have been developed by educationalists and psychologists. Such theories of learning alone do not suffice the purpose. Hence based on these theories, researchers have developed a number of teaching strategies to realise specific instructional goals. These teaching strategies show that there is no single best way to
teach everything. Different strategies are required to realise different Instructional goals. These prescriptive teaching strategies which help to realise specific instructional goals are popularly known as ‘Models of Teaching’. Joyce and Weil (1972) have transformed prevailing theories and theoretical knowledge into different ‘Models of Teaching’.

A model of teaching consists of guidelines for designing educational activities and environment. Models of teaching are meant for creating suitable learning environments. They provide specifications for constructing learning situations. Each model represents a view on what is important to learn and how it should be learnt.

Joyce and Weil describe a model of teaching as a plan or pattern that can be used to shape curricula, to design instructional material and guide instruction in the classroom and other settings. Models of teaching are really models of learning.

Models of teaching are designed for specific purposes—the teaching of information concepts, ways of thinking, the study of social values and so on by asking students to engage in particular cognitive and social tasks. Some models centre on delivery by the instructor while others develop as the learners respond to tasks. The student is regarded as a partner in the educational enterprise.

Models of teaching differ from general approaches of teaching in that they are designed to realize specific instructional objectives. General approaches of teaching are considered to be applicable to all teaching situations. These learning strategies are not applicable to all teaching situations. Models of teaching are rather prescriptive teaching strategies to realize specific instructional goals. They are designed for specific purposes—the teaching of concepts, ways of thinking, the study of social values—by asking students to engage in particular cognitive and social tasks. Some models centre on delivery by the instructor while others develop as the learners respond to different learning tasks. When Models of teaching are adopted in the classroom, students are considered as partners in the teaching-learning enterprise. Almost all models emphasize how to help students learn to construct knowledge and learning how to learn.

Models of teaching are a pattern or plan which can be used to shape a curriculum or course to select instructional material and to guide a teacher’s action. Models are primarily oriented towards a classroom teacher who is interested in increasing his instructional effectiveness in
an interactive method of teaching. A teaching model can be considered as a type of blue print for teaching. It provides structure and direction for the teacher. Models are perspective teaching-strategies designed to accomplish particular instructional goals. A good number of studies carried out in different part of the globe to test the effectiveness of ‘Models’ in teaching different subject shows that this innovation is very effective and useful.

The most comprehensive review of teaching models is that of Joyce and Weil (1980) who has identified 23 models which are classified into four basic families based on the nature, distinctive characteristics and effects of the models. These four families are:

1. Information processing models
2. Personal models
3. Social interaction models
4. Behaviour modification models

Information Processing Models

Information processing models focus on intellectual capacity of students. They are concerned with the ability of the learner to observe, organise data, understand information, form concepts and solve problems. The models which belong to this family are:

1. Concept attainment model
2. Inductive thinking model.
3. Inquiry training model.
4. Advance organiser model.
5. Memory model.
7. Biological science inquiry model.

Personal Models

Models which belong to personal family deal with individual and the development of self. The emphasis of these models is on developing an Individual into an integrated, confident and competent personality. They attempt to help students understand themselves. Many of the
Personal models of teaching have been developed by psychologists, therapists and other persons interested in stimulating creativity and Self-expression. The models belong to this family are:

1. Non-directive model.
2. Synectics model (Recently transferred to the information processing family)
3. Awareness training model.
4. Classroom meeting model.

**Social Interaction Models**

The models in this family emphasise the relationships of the individual to the society or other persons. The core objective is to help students learn to work together, to identify and solve problems, either academic or social in, nature.

The models which belong to this family are:
1. Group investigation model.
2. Role playing model.
3. Jurisprudential model.
4. Laboratory training model.
5. Social simulation model.
6. Social inquiry model.

**Behaviour Modification Model**

All the models in this family share a common theoretical base, a body of knowledge which referred to as behaviour theory. The common thrust of these models is the emphasis on changing the visible behaviour of the learner. The models belong to this family are:
1. Contingency management model.
2. Self-control model.
3. Stress reduction model.
Models of teaching selected for the Experimental study as suggestive facilitations to the modernization of Hindi teaching in the schools of Kerala

Three models i.e. Role Play, Synectics and Inquiry Training were selected for the present study.

2.11.1 Role Play Model

Role play is a teaching strategy that comes under the social family of models (Joyce and Weil, 2000). Models, that comes under this category emphasize the social nature of learning, and view cooperative behaviour as stimulating students both socially and intellectually. It is a strategy derived from socio drama that may be used to help students understand the more subtle aspects of literature and other areas of knowledge. Role play as a teaching strategy offers several advantages for both teachers and students. When role play is brought to practice in the classroom, student interest is fortified in the subject matter, thus generating interest in the subject matter. The use of role playing emphasizes personal concerns, problems, behaviour and active participation. Role play improves interpersonal skills (Tehan, 1975) and enhances communication (Ettkin and Snyder, 1972).

Role play as a teaching model was brought to contemporary prominence in large part through Fannie Shaftel and George Shaftel (1970). Fannie Shaftel described role play for development of interpersonal skills through dramatizations of ‘life-situations’. It is an effective teaching model for influencing learner attitudes and for bringing about change in group interactions and relationships (Cabral, 1987). New insights and attitudes gained from role play are easily transferable to other situations also. It is an effective teaching model for affecting individual attitudes and for bringing about change in group interactions and relationships.
Role play encourages students while participating in the activity, to reflect their knowledge regarding a particular subject area. Thus, Role play is an excellent teaching strategy for receiving or reflecting the learning content at the end of the teaching-learning activity. Students are directed to use appropriate concepts and arguments as demanded by their role. Along with the role change, naturally concepts and arguments also change. Such twists are very helpful in developing divergent thinking skills in students. Role play model can be described as a six step process.

Step 1: Identifying a problem situation; usually focused on a social or personal issue

Usually problems for Role play are generated by the teacher or initiated by the students. If students don’t have much exposure in participating in Role play activities, the teacher should probably select the problem, define the problem and develop the roles. If students are familiar with the Role play procedure, the teacher may act as a facilitator and allows students to select
the issue. In such occasions, the students would define the problem, analyse the issue and determine the roles. In both occasions, students are directed to generate possible hypotheses to be tested in the Role play in order to seek a solution to the problem.

Step 2: Choosing students to act out the roles

The second step in Role play is to choose students to act out the roles identified in the previous step. Students can volunteer for different roles or the teacher can recommend students to fulfil roles.

Step 3: Determining the line of action by students

In step three students determine the line of action of the Role Play. After the participants are selected, they analyse their roles and determine the line of action that will occur in the Role play. The students may decide to form their own hypotheses and line of action or select one presented in step one. In either case, the line of action is designed to provide a basis for resolving the problem situation.

Step 4: Appointment of observers for the Role play

In this step, the teacher assigns the rest of the students to observe the individual role players, some part of the line of action or the overall line of action. All the students who are not participating in the role play directly should be assigned to observe some part or all of the Role play. The teacher may assign some students to observe a particular role player. The students assigned this task would be required to describe the particular Role player’s actions and would be asked to decide whether or not they believed that the Role player acted just as a real person behave if this was a real situation. Learners assigned to observe the line of action would be asked to describe the line, determine if the line of action resolved the dilemma and if it reflected accurately reflected a real life situation.

Step 5: Enactment

In step V, students act out the line of action. The enactment is usually limited to 3 to 5 minutes in length. During this stage, the teacher needs to focus the students on solving the problem quickly. Testing hypotheses and solving problems is very important in Role play.
Therefore, the enactment should be completed quickly so that a number of hypotheses can be tested in one class period.

**Step 6: Follow up and discussion**

After the enactment session is over, the teacher conducts a follow up discussion. This review and analysis of the line of action is the sixth step in Role play model. This is the most important step in Role play in terms of student learning. The teacher asks some questions which relate the Role play activity to the real world like whether the students think that the Role play simulated a real world situation? How could the Role play be changed to better reflect the real world? What might happen if a role was changed or some of the facts, issues or actors were changed?

The Role play lesson may end here or the class may decide to change the original line of action and re-enact it. If it is so, steps one through six are repeated. Roles are discussed and assigned, the line of action is determined, observers are assigned, re-enactment occurs and a follow up discussion is conducted, as in the case of the initial stage. This process continues until the teacher as well as students decide that the issue has been explored and solved properly.

![Figure 2.4](image)

Role play facilitates learning across many areas of curriculum content, it involves manipulating knowledge in exciting ways and helps make abstract problems more concrete, facilitates expression of attitudes and feelings. Role play develops sympathetic understandings and motivates learners to apply their knowledge in solving problems. It demonstrates a practical integration of knowledge, skills, abilities and promotes lifelong learning.
2.11.1 Synectics Teaching Model

Gordon is credited with the development of the model called Synectics, which is derived from the Greek word ‘Synecticos’, that means “understanding together that which is apparently different.” Synectics uses group interaction to create new insight through this ‘understanding together’ process. As an instructional model, Synectics is specifically designed to enhance creativity in problem solving by having learners consciously develop analogies that allow for an emotional as well as a rational approach to solutions.

Synectics has evolved over for the years for both business and education. Specific techniques have been developed that are effective in teaching creative thinking and writing in all curriculum areas for problem-solving skills and new ways to use information. Synectics can teach learners, skills in making unique and creative connection between what they know and what they have to learn. Through the use of metaphor, connections develop or grow stronger during the Synectics process. Metaphors and analogies highlight similarities and differences. These comparisons increase student understanding and the application of new skills and information (Prince, 1970).

The Synectics process works most effectively when the object is to be looked in a different way, not connected with the reality. Objectives calling for inductive thinking and seeing wholes in relation to parts require that students juxtapose seemingly disparate facts or occurrences. As it is difficult for the learner to do this, the teacher has to help them in recognizing the analogous relationships.

Contrary to the common belief that creativity is an isolated activity that cannot really be understood or taught, Gordon maintains that it can be taught and that learners can understand how to use the process in solving the problems or in developing more insight into descriptions and analyses. Using Synectics in a group can actually enhance the creative process of many learners.
**Steps involved in Synectics Model**

**Step 1: Describe the Topic**

The teacher begins by asking learners to describe a topic, which is familiar for them (e.g., a character in a fiction, a concept, or an object). This is carried out either in small groups or individually. When the students have completed the given task, the teacher asks them to share the words they have used to describe the topic and write them on the blackboard.

**Step 2: Create Direct Analogies**

In the second step of the model, learners are asked to form a direct analogy between the descriptive words on the board from step 1 and words from an apparently unrelated category. Direct analogies are direct comparisons between two objects, ideas or concepts. The teacher adds each student’s idea to the blackboard and encourages each one to explain why he or she has chosen a particular analogy. When the teacher feels that everyone has had an opportunity
to participate and the class is ready, the teacher asks students to vote on one particular analogy that they would like to pursue in the next step of the Synectics model.

**Step 3: Describe Personal Analogies**

In the third phase of the Synectics model, students are directed to view reality from the perspective of the metaphorical object that they have just selected. After giving students a short time to think, teacher asks them to tell how it feels to be this object and express their reactions. The teacher encourages each student to explain why the learner had a particular feeling.

**Step 4: Identify Compressed Conflicts**

This step is the most important and interesting step in the Synectics model. In this step the teacher asks the students to examine the list of descriptive feelings they created in the last step and to put together pairs of words that seem to argue or fight each other. The conflict between such juxtaposed words causes a tension that is felt as each pair of disparate ideas is considered. This incompatibility invites the students to ignore the literal meaning of each word and to attend more closely to the abstract connections between the pair. The teacher welcomes all suggestions of students and encourages them to explain why they think the words fight each other. After this activity, the teacher asks the students to select the combination of words contains the best compressed conflict.

**Step 5: Create a New Direct Analogy**

Using the compressed conflict selected by the class, the teacher asks the students to create another direct analogy. After getting sufficient number of direct analogies from the learners, the teacher once again asks them to select a best analogy.

**Step 6: Re-examine the Original Topic**

In this step, teacher returns to the last direct analogy chosen by the class and compare it with the original topic. The teacher does not mention about the original subject until this step. The reason is to get away from the original topic, step by step, and then to return with all the rich imagery that has been developed during the process. An important part of this step is that each student listen the thoughts and relationships expressed by others. Asking students to
describe the original topic in writing again gives them the opportunity to use any of the images that were generated during the exercise. The list of analogies provides the students with a rich resource of words and images which are highly beneficial in language instruction.

2.11.3 Inquiry Training Model

Suchman (1962) propounded Inquiry training model. He used this model to teach learners a process how to investigate and explain unusual phenomena. In this model thinkers and scholars try to organize knowledge and make various principles. Suchman’s model was developed on the basis of analysis of different methods utilized by the creative researchers particularly in the area of physical science. Suchman identified several elements of their inquiry process. On the basis of this, he developed Inquiry training model. The theory given by Suchman indicate that people inquire naturally when they are puzzled, they can become conscious of and learn to analyse their thinking strategies, new strategies can be sought directly and added to the student’s existing ones, co-operative inquiry enriches thinking and helps students to learn about the tentative emergent nature of knowledge and to appreciate alternative explanations. Inquiry training model gives more emphasis on developing and mastering the inquiry process. Inquiry training model of teaching has five phases which are encounter with the problem of data gathering and verification, data gathering and experimentation, formulating an explanation and analysis of the inquiry process.

According to Suchman people inquire naturally when they are puzzled and they can become conscious of and learn to analyse their thinking skills. New teaching strategies can be sought directly and added to the student’s existing ones. Co-operative inquiry enriches thinking and helps students to learn about the tentative emergent nature of knowledge and to appreciate alternative explanations. Inquiry training model gives more emphasis on developing awareness of and mastering the inquiry process.

Inquiry training is a powerful teaching model for the principals to know and teachers to implement. (Ascher, 1991). Inquiry training model creates a free atmosphere in the classroom which is very much necessary for effective curriculum transaction process. According to Newman (2000), this model is ideal for learners with disabilities such as attention deficit disorder, attention deficit hyper activity disorder because it allows for active mental and physical involvement.
When immersed in the process of inquiry, learners understand the subject matter well, develop creative thinking and acquire skills for acquiring and systematically analysing information. Inquiry training works best when confrontations strong, arousing genuine puzzlement, and when materials the students use to explore the topics under considerations are especially instructional (Ivany, 1969).

Inquiry training changes the role of both teachers and learners. Learners are given the roles of researchers experiencing freedom and co-operative learning environment. The modified role of the teacher include giving opportunities for students to ask and re-frame their questions systematically, formulating theories from student questions, presenting tension free classroom climate, providing maximum assistance for the learners and encouraging peer interaction in the classroom.

![Stages of Inquiry Training Model of Teaching](image)

**Stages of Inquiry Training Model of Teaching:**

Inquiry training model of teaching has five steps:
1. Select a problem.
2. Introduce the process and present the problem.
3. Data gathering
4. Develop and explain the theory and verify
5. Analysis of the inquiry process

Step 1: Select a problem

In this phase of inquiry training model the teacher presents the problem situation in the classroom. The teacher explains the procedures of inquiry. At this phase, the teacher formulates objectives and also the procedures of ‘yes’ and ‘no’ question. On the basis of simple ideas, he makes a very simple inquiry at the initial stage. This includes logical phenomena which conflict with reality. Any subject lends itself to inquiry. All that is required is a puzzling situation for which the learners can find a logical and reasonable solution.

Once a problem has been selected, the teacher completes the necessary research on the problem and prepares a data sheet for quick reference during the questioning periods. The teacher also determines how much information should be provided to the students at the beginning of the inquiry process and what additional information could be supplied if the learners face any difficulty in testing hypotheses.

Step 2: Introduce the process and present the problem

Before starting the inquiry lesson, the teacher explains the whole process of inquiry to the class. Freedom is given to the whole class to participate in the inquiry process. The teacher is the main source of data and will respond only to questions that can be answered with a yes or no, thus placing the burden of framing questions on the students. The teacher may choose to add additional information or guide the questioning, but the responsibility for hypothesizing must remain with the students; the teacher is in control of the process but not in control of the outcome or student thinking.

Step 3: Gathering data

The duty of the teacher is to develop the inquiry process by providing chances for getting different kind of information. At the time of verification objects, conditions, events,
properties the teachers should be aware about the different kind of information sought by the learners. On the basis of this information teachers can alter the pattern of questioning. The teacher may decide to add information or expand on the problem at any time. There is freedom for the teacher to rephrase the question so that the teacher can answer the question with either yes or no. The teacher can also ask the learner to state the question in a different way.

Step 4: Develop and explain the theory and verify
When a student poses a theoretical question that seems to be an answer to the problem, the question is stated as a theory and written on the black board. After a theory has been identified, all data gathering related directly to proving or disproving this theory. Students may ask to caucus to discuss the information and frame hypothetical questions they will ask the teacher. Depending on the nature of the problem, the teacher directs the students to other sources of information. Students are encouraged to ask hypothetical questions at this point. If the students reach a point where the theory they have posed seems to be verified, then the class accepts the theory. Students are asked to explain the theory accepted as a tentative solution and state the rules associated with that theory. In addition students are also directed to determine how the theory could be tested to see if the rules can be generalized to other situations.

Step 5: Analysis of the inquiry process
Learners are asked to review the process they have just used to arrive at acceptance of the theory. At this step, it is important that the students consider how they could have expedited the process of inquiry. Learners should be motivated to analyse the type of questions they asked to see how they could have formed more effective questioning techniques. As students become more efficient in using the steps of inquiry, the teacher may relinquish some control and allow the students to set up their own inquiry processes.

Conclusion
The investigator traced the theoretical ground of language development and second language acquisition in this chapter. Learning conditions of first and second language were discussed in the first part of this chapter. The role of important modern language learning theories and
instructional strategies which have the capacity of making drastic changes in field of second language education was stressed. The chapter also highlights the suitability of the select models of teaching i.e. Role play, Synectics and Inquiry Training as suggestive facilitations to the modernization of Hindi instruction in the schools of Kerala.

Various studies and literature in support of the theoretical constructs underlying the concepts highlighted have been presented in the succeeding review of related literature chapter.