CHAPTER 5

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The actual language teaching situation at the H.S. level in the state is unique too; this is not a peculiar situation in terms of its world-wide phenomena which are diverse and widespread (Widdowson 2003:19). To repeat it, it is literature that has an overall dominance in the total syllabus (110 marks out of 200, i.e. 55%). True it is to say that the role of literature in a language teaching syllabus is still controversial despite its secured place in it at many places (Collie and Slater 1987/2003:1), particularly in West Bengal context. The English H.S. syllabus in question here is a glaring example. Conceding its status as a Language through Literature Course, the majority section of it is literary in name, but it hardly receives the treatment appropriate to it. The multiple ways of using literature in a language class are severely underutilised; the avowed course approach (Prefaces to earlier Selections starting from 1976) severely belies its concomitant classroom treatment. The multiple ways recent researches have explored of exploiting literature deserve the attention of practising teachers for their selective applications and teacher freedom (‘autonomy’). The Council has tried to make a limited use of it through the incorporation of some items like ‘textual grammar’, text-based comprehension (e.g. Helen Keller’s narrative work). The current reading theory favours the inclusion of literary texts for reading to be taught in language classes (Kramsch 1993/2001: 130). The inclusion of the autobiographical sketch of Helen Keller is an appropriate step in that direction. The syllabus is amply loaded with a variety of text types like literary pieces, newspaper articles, compositions of various sorts, advertisements, summary, etc. Such an exposure to a wide range of texts with as wide a range of apparatus as possible, paves the way to representational language study (McRae 1996: 21). The longer piece of rapid reader is most likely to offer a greater scope for exercise and activities, and the whole process can be more open (McRae 1996: 22).

The moment teachers cross the threshold of the H. S. classroom, they will have got four major types of language aspects – reading, writing, literature teaching and vocabulary development. With the RS which has added both literature and language together with a lot
of caution and care, the general methodology employed by an individual teacher usually remains content-based flooding learners only with information and knowledge. In the changed context there is hardly any sign of change in it, nor is there any discussion on it around. Further, the Council has got no such programme for teacher development on its agenda in near future. Even in the time of CLT days in the 1980s there was a strong theoretical support behind the inclusion of literature in language teaching curriculum (McRae 1996: 16). In other words, it is expressed as ‘an explosion of interest in the use of literature in ELT and a corresponding use of ELT techniques in literature teaching’ (Mackay 1992, in Carter and McRae eds. 1996: 121). The language-based approaches are essentially ‘integrative’ of both linguistic and literary components. They provide some workable framework to literary texts accessible not just to more advanced learners, but to a wider range of students from lower to upper intermediate levels (Carter 1996: 2). The current syllabus therefore at least is ready to open up a number of options for teachers as to how to manipulate the resources in the classroom context. For Carter (1996: 1-2) literary texts are used in the ESL course so as to be taught with language, as in the H. S. English course. For instance, the ‘interface approach’ (Carter 1996: xxvi) prefers an initial linguistic study of a literary piece before any received opinions, preconceived ideas or historical backdrops are brought into play. Thereon, all literary, historical, cultural criticism, psychology and philosophy would come up to send the audience back to linguistic parameters.

Literary texts may prove impervious to communicative ways of teaching. First, teachers are to train their students in the understanding of universally-shared meanings of language. Second, they have to reveal potentials of the ordinary through the particular that break with the ordinary. To break away from the traditional method in such a context, teachers are to use the story-line of narratives as springboard for written communicative activities (Collie and Slater 1987; di Pietro 1987, in Kramsch 2001: 106). They can further employ the information-processing strategies to discover literary techniques (Isenberg 1990 in Kramsch 2001: 106). This apart, there are other inherent difficulties in literary texts like additional familiarity with a particular author, genre, period or style (Kramsch 2001: 105). In a literature class, the teacher traditionally provides the text and genre schemata, i.e. the
rhetorical knowledge for the appreciation of the craft of the writer. They include data concerning author, period, genre, tone, the structural logic, the illocutionary force of the language (Cobley 2001), etc. In Fowler’s words (1986: 86, in Kramsch 2001: 125), they comprise the linguistic ‘context’; but even in a language class the contents come from both textbooks and their introducers, that is, the teachers. The referential knowledge about the author, the theme and its social and cultural value comes to the readers through those two sources. And Kramsch refers to Fowler’s (ibid.: 89) complaint about the fact that the discourse features of the context or the ‘context of culture’ and the internal context of reader and text are what the teacher and the learners miss in an L2 classes. This is what Canale (1984: 350, in Kramsch 2001: 124-5) adds to the list of Fillmore’s, the discourse dimension.

Canale sums up readers’ processes as the integration of various schemata of Fillmore if each schema is explicitly justified at the literal word-by-word, sentence-by-sentence level of a text. It is soundly based on inferences that are clearly provided for and invited at the level of cohesive groups of sentences. It is neither necessarily provided for nor invited by the text but is consistent with it, given common social and cultural knowledge. Finally, one is not motivated so much by the text as by the reader’s personal experiences. The whole thing has been very succinctly epitomised into two. The first one is about the type of the textual knowledge for the students to reconstruct the narrator’s experience of events. The second one refers to the personal knowledge or schema of the learner to draw on in reading a text. In the case of textual support it is the lexical and grammatical device of the author that invests the text with their meanings. But in case of literary texts scholars like Kramsch (2001: 126) are more for a discourse analysis than for a purely grammatical one. So, for those textual features the focus is on the grammar of written discourse rather than on the grammar itself. Incidentally, it can be stated that the teacher is not to teach about language, but teach language. The personal knowledge that can bear on their reading consists of their prior experiences of reading other texts, both inside and/or outside the school context. Along with their general knowledge of the first type, the learner also applies his/her individual experiences to the new reading context. Thus, those prior experiences
affect the way the written words are understood and integrated into the learners' current state of knowledge (Kramsch 2001: 126). For Werth (1981a: 49-50), these would comprise discourse principles like communicativeness, coherence and cooperativeness. To understand a text the readers need to explicate the structure of language, particularly that of poetry. Our teachers do sometimes use this technique of coherence to straighten or iron out the shuffled-up structure of poetry. In prose, this method may explore the messages of disjunctives like 'however', 'anyway', 'incidentally', or 'connectives' like 'further', 'therefore', etc. (Emmott 1999).

According to Widdowson (1975: 78), study of literature is a basically cultural subject. In other words, culture is understood as 'text' (Geertz 1973, in Phipps and Gonzalez 2004: 44). So, in our approach to the H. S. literary pieces we should not look upon them as purely cultural as earlier. And to counterbalance the popular trend the cultural ethos can happily be applied by a classroom teacher if it be done judiciously. For instance, in dealing some literary pieces chosen from Indian authors, amply present this time in the syllabus, the teacher can bring in some local issues in passing.

5.2 Inside the Classroom with Texts

One should begin with definitions of text and context before going into such discussion. According to Halliday and Hasan (1989: 117, quoted in Kramsch 2001: 10), text is language operative in a context of situation, whereas contexts are provided by the range of texts produced within a community. Teachers use the text as a springboard for having the students express themselves, and relate the story to their own experience (Kramsch 2001: 136). Text', in a post-structuralist context, is looked upon as such: 'work' is pages with words on them which have only a potential for meanings (R. Barthes 1977, as cited in Mao Sihui 1996:180, in Carter & McRae eds.).

The purpose of teaching literature is primarily two-fold: 'understanding' and 'enjoyment' (Richards and Renandya eds. 2003; Barbara Sinclair 1996: 142, in Carter and McRae eds.). It offers ample scope too for the exercise of language practice which can be done even within our limited means in an interesting way by a thoughtful teacher. It becomes
possible due to its bountiful and enormously varied body of written material. Apart from its chief concern with fundamental human values, literature provides more 'authentic' material, not framed for the specific purpose of teaching a language (Collie and Slater: 3; Biswas 2004:109). Following them it can be safely inferred that the literary components of the H.S. course should be appropriate for its intermediate learners after their initial ‘survival’ level. Reading literary works would expose students to various functions of the written language; literary discourses first of all cover several genres ranging from literary to several non-literary types. The latter are of as diverse types as academic one of social awareness, of a feminist interest, of actual student model, etc. By means of entertainment it leads to extensive reading which in turn would help increase the learners’ ‘receptive’ (or, as earlier called ‘active’, as against ‘passive’) (Hedge 2002: 116) vocabulary, and ‘facilitates transfer to a more active form of knowledge’. Again, it would bolster the initial focus of this paper to be cast on the classroom teacher’s manoeuvring of the situation.

5.2 Language through Literature

The ratio of literary texts and language items in the current syllabus is 57.5: 42.5. The literary texts are allotted 40 marks in Class XI and 45 marks in Class XII whereas in the language section it is 60 marks in Class XI and 55 marks in Class XII. In all, the former is allotted 115 marks, and the latter has got 85 marks (Sansad Parichiti 2005:35). Of the other items there are some non-literary discourses like newspapers, advertisements without any so-called ‘sub-literary’ genres (Cook in Carter and McRae eds. 1996: 152). Here the obvious stress is on language aspects designed for the development of reading and writing skills in learners (Revised Syllabus 2003). Even the divide between those two basic types of language aspects in the second year of study reflects a marginal swing towards linguistic aspects of the course. And despite the plan of the Council to conduct two examinations centrally to give at least apparently equal weightage to both the examinations, the decision to issue final results on the basis of the Class XII examination alone may help develop some kind of discrimination between two sets of examinations. The course is partly of semester type without equal value to both. The complete separation of the full two-year course theoretically nullifies the first-year, as it would not come into any reckoning for the overall
performance in the course. The efforts to identify the course for two classes, and hold examinations are liable to be ignored by most of the people concerned. However, the only crux would lie with teachers to finish it in time. This pattern would however lead students along with teachers to pay equal attention to the final year course than to the first year one. It would seem to be true that the Council too may be more concerned with the Class XII course than the Class XI. It is because in the general educational ambience the people concerned appear to be more result-oriented than performance-oriented.

The usual exercises for the teaching of literature in the classroom are presented here for H.S. English teachers to reflect over with regard to their respective academic context. The exercise types are such as those for prediction, cloze, ranking tasks, active comprehension techniques, etc. The rest, not mentioned here, may be very effectively supplemented by the teachers themselves from their own repertoire of strategy and experiences of classroom teaching. The list of the above-mentioned techniques and exercise types can never be exhaustive; rather it is an open-ended one, and it is to serve just as samples to start with. The practising teachers in the English classrooms have got a lot to contribute to it. Anyway, the language through literature course now basically needs two separate strategies for ‘interpretive’ and ‘inferencing’ (top-down like native speakers in comprehending) skills development in the learners. Carter (1996: 12) prefers both literature and language together in the curriculum for their mutual benefit. For instance, the teaching of literature with a small ‘l’ (rather better to be called general literature) can be pursued as a preliminary step towards and alongside more canonical literary study (Phipps and Gonzalez 2004). The current H.S. syllabus seems to reflect the principle in including both literature and language. And for Carter (1996: 12), the related pedagogic practices involve a more integrated approach to language and literature study. Teaching the text as a holistic literary artefact would be drastically ‘reductive’ (Carter 1996: 15). Because, bereft of any social, historical or biographical references the process-based interpretation can but be attenuated. Without this basic background input students will be left outside the text. On the other hand they would form a reverential attitude towards those inscrutable, sacred texts. Therewith they are to depend on their teachers for the analysis of the text, and they look upon their
teacher as a priest in their worship to the text. What our teachers now have to do in such changed context, is of course to offer their students the necessary equipment to meet the demands of their texts. And they should avoid exhausting all the resources and possible reappraisals for their students beforehand. The learners should at least be awarded that opportunity to study the text on their own with the references offered by the teacher as well as textual notes.

Of course, the inclusion of a large body of literary pieces is a part of the age-old English teaching tradition here following the British order. Yet, the target remains basically linguistic (ref. Chapter 1). For the sake of our hypothesis, vocabulary works there as the starting point for the development of the overall language skill. And all the comprehension exercises start from vocabulary work, and the majority of them are lexical. Then, literary pieces are there to provide ‘authentic’ and ‘un simplified’ material (Carter and McRae 1996: xxiv). Literature can very usefully work here as a genuine resource. Before now, literature in English had been an academic subject for over one hundred years. But now it has turned out to be a resource for language development (Carter and McRae 1996: xxii). The course under review brings in literature into the classroom not for a product-based study. The linguistic framework for the treatment of literary texts in the classroom have got some language-based principles transferred to the field of literature teaching, like cloze, rewriting, prediction activities, role-playing. What is more, such a practice encourages first student-centred, language-based activities, and the teacher-learner interaction would come in place of the single-way response (Carter and McRae 1996: xxii). Literary texts are looked upon as ‘holistic artefacts’ (Carter and McRae 1996: xxiii), rested within cultural traditions, historical progress and the author’s personal experience (Phipps and Gonzalez 2004). On the contrary, the linguistic treatment meted out to literary texts very often reduce such a ‘construct complex’ (the quote is mine), and such a tendency is termed as ‘reductive’ (Carter and McRae 1996: xxiii). Carter and McRae (ibid.) have got a suggestion for us all engaged in an imbroglio either in favour of language or that of literature to overcome this tension. They have opened up the possibility to choose a middle way.

5.3.1 Teaching Literary Texts
It is contents that can make forms meaningful and serve as the best basis for teaching skill areas, allow for authentic materials use (Phipps and Gonzalez 2004). They are also responsible for the integrated teaching of all necessary skills (Brinton, Snow and Wesche 1989; Mohan 1986, in Richards 2001: 158). The teaching of literature involves (Maley, A. 1989, in Carter, Walker, R. and Brumfit, C. J. eds. 10-24) a considerable baggage of metalanguage, critical concepts, knowledge of conventions, etc. This fact in the case of second language learners takes for granted the learners' preoccupation with the study of literature in their first language (Carter and McRae 1996: xx; Day and Bamford 1998: 16; Hill 2000L 48). Comprehension exercises for reading practice and also discourse studies in dealing with the rapid reader and newspaper articles, can be utilised by the reading teacher to help develop literary awareness in learners further (Davies 1995; Nunan 1994, referred to in Carter in Carter and McRae eds. 1996: 12). The classroom teacher would do better by asking students to bring in a copy of a newspaper of a particular day; and he/she may engage them for a short while with their own choice of a particular article for that day's comprehension exercise. It is meant to ensure learner involvement, supremacy of learner choice and the formation of a good reading habit in relation to their selection process. Usually, there are some model articles from previous sets of question paper usually available in 'Test Papers'. Such a practice to be initiated by a classroom teacher would help inculcate the growth of 'learner-based' approach in ELT (Hedge 2002: 34). For Campbell and Kryszewsha (1992: 5, in Hedge 2002: 34) too newspapers can be an easy resource for our learners.

The nature of literary texts prescribed in the syllabus may be determined with the help of the criteria set down by Carter (1996: 12). For him literary discourse is

...culturally-rooted language which is purposefully patterned and representational, which actively promotes a process of interpretation and which encourages a pleasurable interaction with and negotiation of its meanings.

According to Carter, the teaching of literature needs to be at least sensitive to such a
definition and to develop classroom procedures which foster awareness of and responses to such discourse practices. According to Rodger (cited in Basu 1989: 13),

Thus, apart from an awareness of the communicative potential of language, literature brings to the reader acute sense-making faculties that he can apply to any discoursal context.

People like Carter prefer to seize much of the mutual benefit from the practice of continuities between the study of language and the study of literature (Basu.: 12).

One problem with literary pieces lies with their appearance in the textbooks (Selections 2005). For Allright (1981, Hedge 2002: 36) the use of textbooks in the classroom would tend to stress on teaching, not on learning; and such a use of textbooks would prove as a ‘teacher overload’ and ‘learner under-involvement’.

Literature teaching styles include measures like treating texts, not as an object of study, but as to be ‘extended’, ‘re-written’, ‘lexically or grammatically altered’, literally ‘cut up’ in order to develop appropriate capacities in learners (Carter and McRae: xxi). The conventional pedagogic practice tends to view contexts as a given pre-existing reality that serves to analyse the sense of language forms (Kramsch 1993/2001: 105). The literary texts are liable to be treated and tested as product-based and ‘teacher-fronted’, and the teachers take them as a body of knowledge to be transmitted to students. What is taught is to be remembered and to be recalled at the time of examination for ‘reproduction’. This stereotype method of teaching literature does not stimulate knowledge about the text or discourse but knowledge about literature (Carter and Long 1991). For this approach students rely on authorities outside themselves, either the teacher or the books. In the 1980s McRae and Broadman’s Reading between the Lines (1984) has freshly introduced language-based approaches which are essentially ‘integrative’. That is, they seek to integrate language and literature study. This kind of approach to literary texts is meant to be accessible to the intermediate learners too. Though the activities suggested as rewriting poetry are not straightaway applicable to weak students in our ESL teaching situation. Despite the strong motivation and exposure to the target language from early childhood our
learners are very weak in dealing with the language. As for Domin, the function of poetry is not to change the world, but to speak it paradoxes (Domin, Hilde in Kramsch 1993/2001: 19).

5.2.2 Reading Poetry: A Way or Two

A different activity may be introduced to engage learners in language learning and the texts. For instance, the teacher can show the way to his/her students by putting forth questions about the change of viewpoints in a poem. The first person pronoun, for instance in Wordsworth’s The Solitary Reaper’, can be used to involve readers in selecting its third person pronoun like ‘he’ or ‘she’. It may thereupon reveal a thoroughly different viewpoint for having a look at the poem. The teacher may give his/her students a fresh poem with some blanks to be filled in by them. It may form a sort of ‘a pre-reading task’ before getting the full poem for greater comprehension (Sinclair 1996: 207). The while-reading activities may incorporate tasks like finding the distinction between the pronouns like ‘I’ and ‘She’. Or a question about rhetorical expression put forth in the poem can be used to express the speaker’s doubt. The while-reading activity may inform the classroom teaching practice for its positive outcome. Such activities may keep students more engaged with their text. The post-reading activities may be as diverse as asking students to ‘infer the voice’, to find reasons to explain their responses, or to ask them to give a title to the already read-out text(s) while the teacher would all the while try her/his best to hold back the original title(s) from learners’ notice.

Apart from this, poetry is representational due to its creative use of language. This creative use means a deviation from the regular idiom of the language (Leech; McRae 1996; Mick Short in Carter and McRae eds. 1996). The teacher has at first to present the text before the class; he/she may want to practise the initial ‘performance’ of the text either by memorizing the poem or by practising reciting the poem (Kramsch 1993/2001). It is the ‘oral’ reading that is important as one of three types of mature reading, the other two being ‘intensive’ and ‘extensive’ (Tickoo 2003: 38).

Further, John McRAE (1996: 16, in Carter & McRae eds.) referred to the post-1980s theoretical reversal of contemporary stress upon the use of literature in a language
course. The problem of including literary topics lies in the distinction of its interpretation after the event from the linguistic one of on-line processing in detail (Emmott 1997/1999: 69). Hence, our English teachers who have been exclusively nourished in the age-old literary tradition are to come out of it, irrespective of their lifelong obsession with and devotion to it. To do so, they are to pay greater attention to the demands of the syllabus. Most literary critics would be less inclined to the ‘mechanics of basic inference-making’. The reader response theory, however, upholds the fact that one reading of a text is as valid as any other (Carter and McRae 1996). In such a condition the role of a critic or a classroom teacher is nullified (Fish 1980 as cited in Emmott 1999:70). For critics like F.R. Leavis (1962) the meaning of a text lies with the author, whereas the meaning for the Russian formalists and structuralists, is associated with the text itself. The former is in general concerned with a narrative work as ‘message’ rather than as a ‘text’. First, The reader response theory looks upon a text as a framework to support diverse types of interpretation by the readers. It is then the general knowledge processing that is most likely to offer a form of unity in diversity. Second, in the light of this all, the practising teachers have got a syllabus with its own rationale. So, their literary outlook, if any, goes the traditional way. They are in need of current development in literary interpretation to address their way of teaching, especially in dealing with a communicative syllabus or something similar to it.

For McRae (1996: 24), any text that comes to hand can be turned to good use. For him, what is important is to know how and why it is used. Representational materials become part of language learning process in a more systematic and regular way.

Of the four different kinds of knowledge in reading activities (Emmott 1999:21), apart from the general knowledge, the reader needs to be introduced to the ‘text-specific’ knowledge of particular narratives s/he deals with. Here his/her personal schemata are to be available to test the truth of the content. And with this background information what our intermediate students need in addition to the four well-known skills is the ‘fifth skill’, that is, thinking (John McRae 1996:23).

Apart from prescribed literary texts, the syllabus also involves other items of language and composition. As regards their text, there is no such prescribed Selection(s)
like those literary ones. The syllabus is concerned with just the items which the Council-approved course books from private publishers are to be selected by the institutes as their classroom texts on them. As the selection of such texts is usually the responsibility of respective subject teachers, the concerned teachers are to be properly equipped for that function (Richards 2001: 258-260). While processing the selection, the teacher(s) have to keep in mind a number of things like the getup of the book, its size, its coverage of prescribed features, its approaches, aims, design and organisation, language content, skill, topics, practicalities as regards its convergence to the overall structure of the syllabus and the particularity of its over-all pattern to match the class. The last point is a vast, flexible one which subsumes many things like its appropriateness to the prescribed Selections. The materials can easily yield to proper sectioning, adapting and supplementing from classroom teachers.

As regards reading practice, the syllabus includes one item from newspaper reports. As stated in Chapter IV earlier, such materials have got a number of uses for both the teachers and learners. First of all, newspapers are easily available and accessible for learners themselves. Both linguistically and cognitively the teacher may present a learner-friendly front of newspapers with slight manoeuvering of the material and situation. Reading newspapers, which normally has a high information density can promote the causes of cognitive reading skills like ‘predicting’. Teachers can utilize such an item in a number of ways appropriate to their learners and their learning contexts or styles. Usually, it is seen that the portions selected from reports for inclusion into examinations, are from opening sections of newspaper reports (John McRae 1996: 27, in Carter & McRae eds.), not from any later chapters. This practice takes place following one of the principles for the selection of teaching and testing materials. The reason behind such an approach comes from the fact that the initial chapters do not usually presuppose the prior knowledge of the subject or topic on the part of the reader. So, the discourse trick of ‘anaphoric’ reference does not have a major role upon semi-skilled readers. Other principles like newspaper ‘headlines’ which may be very useful, are usually ignored in practice as well as in examination. This may ensure one of learning-focus areas in the H. S. curriculum.
Some of the tips for processing newspaper items can be conveniently borrowed from Shirley Rudd's *Time Manage Your Reading* (1989). First of all, newspaper articles follow an inverted pyramidal structure (ibid.: 121). That is, the very first paragraph is an epitome of the whole text with a hoard of information about events and their participants. And all these data are in the form of answers to all sorts of queries of what, who, when, where, why and how. So, in dealing with such a text learners are to be trained to 'skim' through top-down approach (Day and Bamford 1998). The later sections are just expansion of the data introduced at the onset of the article. So, the skimming skill is the first basic need for readers to develop, and to that end this practice will get ample scope even in other areas of the syllabus. The structures are so simple that the learners can find it quite easy to skim in simple 'fixation'. In that direction it will be for teachers to give them some practice in the sub-skills of taking note of topic phrases, topic sentences, etc. It is the nature of every discourse to have one or two words and/or phrases and/or sentences which are to contain the core of the topic. Adopting a model like Rudd's it can be safely applied to our situations by teachers asking their learners to give a simple look across the text in such a way so that they can at least observe a limited number of words often repeated. The frequent words, phrases do often possess the key to the work. Secondly, they must look for their meanings in stead of forms. It is a common obsession among us too with the forms of expression in place of their meanings.

However, test pieces from newspaper articles have some shortcomings. Paris et al. (1991: 633) have commented thus, “The common format of most reading tests requires the students to read brief paragraphs and answer multiple-choice questions about them”.

According to them, although decoding, vocabulary, syntax and other features of the language are often tested, comprehension scores are usually derived from reading several short paragraphs. Most of these paragraphs are dismembered, 'disembodied' prose without titles, pictures, etc. Secondly, success in comprehension does not usually ensure that much progress in language acquisition. Rather, it is criticised by lexicologists like Lewis (2000) that simple message retrieving from texts may have little effect in language development.

In reading prescribed texts the teacher has got a number of things for him-/herself as
well as for readers to practise. The reading classes (20 periods in Class XI and 25 periods in Class XII) are to be differentiated into three types, each covering the pre-reading phase, the while-reading one and the post-reading one. Pre-reading exercises include the teacher attempting to write new and/unknown words on the board, to give their English synonyms, along with sentences to illustrate their uses (Kramsch 1993:2001). First, it can be a set of questions about the would-be topic of the passage, some general type of questions relating to similar topics, their knowledge schemata, and their formal schemata. Along with this one may have one’s look for their formal structure and/or ‘brainstorming’. This stage is basically concerned with the skill of skimming the text for the formation of a general idea (Richards 2001: 272). Simultaneously, the practice of scanning is in search of particular words, names, dates, places, etc. The former skill may combine with another important skill of prediction, expectations and satisfactions. At this stage the teacher should inform their students about the use of this two-way approach of top-down and bottom-up at random whatever is feasible. Thus, the actual principle in the teaching situation is virtually no principle at all other than the learner engagement and their active cooperation with it.

Skimming is a very vital sub-skill of reading in higher studies. It is concerned with the task of browsing through the texts for the fast processing of meaning. For Meyer (1975: 165, 167, in Urquhart and Weir 1998: 137), ‘...ideas located high in the content structure are better remembered than ideas low in the structure’. And further he continued again, ‘Global comprehension of a text is superior to local comprehension’. Because, higher items are more deeply processed for the LTM than the lower ones. So, it proves more suitable with start with the practice in skimming than the other mode of scanning. For the precedence of that skill of skimming it is convenient for the teacher to ask his/her students to take up the rapid reader, i.e. The Story of My Life in Class XI before going over to any other text at first. It may be preferable to initiate students in reading newspapers in Class XII. The text pieces should in no way precede the RR or newspapers, if not taken up simultaneously. Further, the “weaker students overall do somewhat better on higher order questions than lower order questions...to measure something like cognitive skills, logic, reasoning ability and so on” (Alderson and Lukmani 1989: 269). There are some other similarly ‘explicit
discourse cues’ for the teacher to select from. Those ‘macrostructures’ (Van Dijk 1977: 79; Hyland 2002: 14) include titles, initial summaries, declaration of content and intention as an approximation of global meaning of the discourse. And skimming is to expeditiously help establish macrostructures, such as, just to ‘graze’ a text to select the part(s) for finding the macrostructural meaning quickly.

At the while-reading stage, the teacher’s role runs the risk of interfering and disrupting the smooth reading process of the learners. The tasks should hardly be simultaneous; rather the teacher can better utilize the gap with the use of the board by writing up the tasks, the cautions, the tips about the text, etc. As such, Crandal (1993 in Richards 2001: 273) has suggested tasks like filling a graphic (‘Venn diagram’) for comparing, flow-chart for process demonstration, table for classifying, for logical relations between ideas in texts. Other types might be those study skills, such as a guided writing task, note-taking skills, focussing skills, paraphrasing, summarising, timed activities for rapid reading with queries for skimming general answers, scanning key notes, etc. And at the end of reading the text piece(s) the post-reading activities that are to follow, include vocabulary expansion in the style of affixation, preparing roots, word charts, matching tables to develop word relations as a kind of game (Lewis/Conzett 2000: 83). Various other types to follow are the critical analysis, evaluation of reading, summarising and cloze (Richards 2001: 273). Reading is considered as the fastest communicative form, almost twice the speed of speaking (Richards 2001: 8), and the average speed of reading is 300 words per minute. Neither the level below the speed of 300 words p. m., nor the one above that of 600 words p.m. can be achieved without any loss of understanding. Because the basic purpose of reading is to follow the experience expressed. The starting caution against the usual harmful habit of devouring every word for its spelling, grammatical form, semantic properties, does slow down the process of reading (ibid.: 3). Reading those texts would involve the application of scanning. Scanning would require the service of Short Term Memory (STM) as it is a kind of localized reading concerned with the closed pursuing of the texts. And the text pieces are suitable for that job.

The classroom processes outlined above have got a new formulation called ‘3 T M
of Preview' for Top, Trail and Tail (Richards 2001: 54). The Top refers to the practice of
taking note of all general aspects like the titles of magazines, newspapers, and other works
for the initial setting of parameters for reading those texts. The good or ‘advanced’ readers
would browse through the title, the subtitle, the blurb, the length of the article, the foreword,
the date of publication, etc. The first look at the general getup of the text in its maximum
sense, would definitely determine the setting of ‘gear’ speed, the type of reading mode, etc.
That is a key to the optimal utilization of the instrument used for reading practice. The
second one of Trail starts working with reading the first paragraph for getting the ‘thesis’,
and then leads to the second paragraph. The third and final stage of Tail is concerned with
concluding the text, reviewing the central idea, and summarising it. Along with this the
teacher is to lead the students to look into (i) content knowledge about the topic and (ii)
schema for discourse type. The students can in this way be introduced to the process of
identifying the content cues as well as discourse or genre cues in the text. Through exposure
to the continuous practice in this art of reading the learners would systematically acquire the
necessary knowledge of discourse markers and identifiers. This skill of reading would
ultimately bear fruit in future.

5.3.2 Methods of Literature and Language Teaching

Apart from so-called literary texts, the syllabus makes room for the provision of
other variety of literature sometimes called ‘literature’ with a small ‘l’, which includes among
other things advertisements, jokes, puns, newspaper headlines, examples of verbal play
(John McRae 1991: 7, cited in Carter and McRae eds.). All these are texts which use
language of literary sort. Alongside literature per se, other items like newspaper articles,
advertisements, puns, jokes, etc. are included in the syllabus. Quite opposite to Carter’s
stating the usual pattern of English syllabus solely incorporates canonical literature to the
total exclusion of many texts like much contemporary literature, writings by women, or
literature written in English in different parts of the world (Carter 1996: 7). The reason for
such a selection for analysis and interpretation of texts are normally considered to be literary.
All this kinds of literature use language in a literary mode – these two types are placed side
by side not to highlight one variety at the expense of the other. Rather, the two together
would demonstrate the ways language is used as discourse.

The questions and the apparatus in general must be simple and clear. The questions can be simplified, but not the text. In an ‘open response’ situation, the teacher has to play the role of a referee; he/she has got to marshal the various arguments, instigate further debate, and propose a different point of view as against the house. The teacher cannot be expected to be a fountain-head of all knowledge. A teacher’s appropriate job and duty is to know where to lead the students to seek information, to develop autonomous approach in the learners, and in-house skills development. McRae (1996: 29) further stated for the target of the learners as not to learn, to repeat, but to imbibe in them their individual thinking power, decision-making skills, linguistic aptitudes, and organization quality. In McRae’s words, the target should not be ‘monochrome’ language, a language with a multiplicity of view-points, a wide range of several interpretations, a capacity to move beyond the referentiality of facts and data. Though, these are still of the primary importance, these yet remain as part of language learning rather than as the final end of learning. Grammar teaching cannot be learnt all by itself today. After Halliday (1985; in Kramsch: 1993:2001) who is against just the teaching of grammar without the support of social context, the H.S. revised syllabus has incorporated the component of the wh-questions along with the contexts given. This is termed by Gregory Bateson as ‘contextual shaping’ (1979: 17, cited in Kramsch 1993/2001: 10).

Prabhu too (1987) favours the ‘naturalistic’ teaching of grammar through ‘meaning-focus’ tasks. Krashen (1982) too has thought of teaching grammar that has a delayed effect. Rod Ellis (2002: 168, in Richards and Renandya eds.) thinks of presenting rules through their use in daily context for the learners to internalize them. The idea of internalization includes the formal rules along with their contexts in the sense of communicative competence (Hymes 1972; Verma 1988). The teacher’s duty is to provide them with enough practices so that the learners can absorb those structures adequately. But I don’t think it will be enough without an equal amount of post-learning practice. Of course, it is not for denying the importance of consciousness-raising as Ellis (2003) points out. Anyway, practice is provided to help the other to develop. The teacher here may skip the sequence, suggested
by Ur (1988: 9), of practices from (i) mechanical, which is controlled, so primary, to (ii) 'contextualized', which is less controlled, and finally to (iii) communicative, which is in actual performance. At this tertiary stage of study, the teacher can be free to pick and choose what she/he finds appropriate for the learners. In that process of progress through practice, a transfer of knowledge can take place, and that transfer takes the acquired cognition from the short-term memory (STM) to the long-term memory (LTM) of the learners (Ur 1988: 6).

Swan (in Richards and Renandya 2002: 148) is in favour of teaching only as much grammar as the learners require. But as the problem is with the learners' needs being restricted to the demands of their examinations, I feel it is a device to exploit the textual pieces for practices in voice change, narration and other exercises. The textual exercises can provide teachers with an extensive support.

5.4.0 Practice

A philosophy of language teaching which incorporates examples of text of any kind that demonstrate how language works within the rules and beyond will expose learners to the representational possibilities of all language. Soon after the referential level is passed, areas of risk open up. McRae (1996: 20) thinks of it as being still a very long way from literature. This is, however, a separate stage, rather a higher one, or a 'luxury' as he calls it. The literary texts require the readers to exercise some discretion and judgement to go through some evaluative procedures. Those procedures are concerned with how to process the text in terms of language, content, effect and impact. Referentiality is ended with language, and the interpretative space follows from it. At this point the learner might achieve an awareness of texts. This textual awareness of how single words and phrases can function within one language system or contrastively across two or more language systems now comes to the learner. This is more than just language awareness (ibid.), but rather a textual and intertextual awareness.

Following the predictions of McRae (196: 21) the H.S. language learning material incorporate representational materials as part of the awareness-building processes within language acquisition. The text pieces selected in the revised course present some sort of:
conglomeration of different narrative types ranging from 'text' fragments to the 'full, real texts' (Emmott: 1999:74). For instance, the narrative of 'Rajam and Mani' is a fragment from R.K. Narayan's *Malgudi Days*, or Jim Corbett's 'Life at Mokameh Ghat' from his *My India*.

This time the Council has prepared two well-annotated selections with biographical sketches of the authors, the textual contexts, word notes and exercises. Indeed, this is a useful and timely aid to both teachers and the taught in the course. For the teachers working in the far-flung areas of the state with limited library facilities the textbooks would serve them a lot for their classroom needs. Those notes would of course present a body of data to suitably inform the teachers for their job. Secondly, the exercises would also give enough indication of the types of questions likely to be set on the new course in the examinations. So, these additional items of the texts would of course wistfully look for the proper attention form the teachers. In the previous course books there had been no such helps for the concerned people. One instance from the prose *Selection* can show one the gap of information both the teachers and the learners had faced there. To read 'Benares' (printed as 'Beneras' in the H.S. *Selection*) by Aldous Huxley a teacher should be aware of its source, that is, *Jesting Pilate*. And the essay can be a more interesting reading if the context of Huxley's visit to India in 1926 along with a reference to another essay, that is, 'The Bose Institute in Calcutta', is given. The text of course demands that perspective to understand Huxley's standpoint on contemporary India, and it could have been easily provided through a very commonly available and reliable source book, *Modern Prose* (OUP) edited by Michael Thorpe. At least, this can dispel any misconception as regards the view expressed by the author in the essay. The teachers at large can need this background knowledge and information to deal along with the prescribed text pieces in the class with the minimum clue in the text itself. The students on their own can equally use present selections with those textual notes.

To start with Indian texts from the selections, it is better to study the pieces - poems, essays and narratives. If it comes out to be the narratives, with reasons like its easy-going style of story telling, it is R.K. Narayan's 'Rajam and Mani'. Another reason for its
choice is the Indian backdrop the text is set against. Further, the story is very brief, simple and modern, another good reason provided by Collie and Slater (1987/2003: 190).

5.4.1 Tasks and Activities in the Classroom

Reading is an endless exploration. The title of a work of art can be powerfully suggestive and definitive, as it can prescribe its theme. To utilise its potential for testing learners' reading skill the teacher may hold back the title from them for the time being. Such a practice would offer a scope to test the general skill of assumption by the learner. The learners are to read first the text without its title, and may try to follow its theme. And the task may require them to supply their own individual titles. Those suggested titles by them are roughly their versions of the text's theme (Mao Sihui 1996: 181, in Carter and McRae eds.).

For McRae (ibid.) language-teaching methodologies have developed sufficiently now to be flexible to incorporate new thinking and new areas of study. The framing of the revised H.S. syllabus does reflect the suggestions of McRae and many others. Now, it needs to be implemented into classroom teaching with the fuller integration of text into teaching, mixing of the representational with the referential, the development of language awareness concurrently with knowledge about language. This experience of learning language can be integrated into the wider language frame of reference that students acquire. Our teachers of English are fortunately familiar with this content-based language teaching in our traditional setup.

5.4.1 Cloze in Language in Language Class

Another very handy and well-known test tool is cloze. It is an exercise of filling the blanks with some missing words or phrases. In other words, gap-filling exercises with some selected items deleted, usually every nth word or sometimes the seventh. For Weston (1996: 115, in Carter and McRae eds.) it is a pure, 'objective' cloze, which is a popular teaching and testing language in the main, though increasingly also of literature. The gaps can consist of a single word, several words, or whole sentences which may be selected by the 'testees' (the quote mine) themselves, from a multiple-choice selection per gap or from a
word-bank for the whole passage. The list may have either just one solution per gap or more solutions than gaps, others being red herrings or ‘distracters’. In the distracters case and in vocabulary tests, the blanks are extensions of semantic chains existing in the passage – antonyms, synonyms, hyponyms or superordinates (Hedge 2002: 115-116), morphological variants (i.e. to select the appropriate forms of the verbs given in the brackets.) and others. In such an exercise the discussions about choices and rejections in the classroom can be very fruitful. Cloze is likely to be an extraordinarily versatile tool in ELT (Weston 1996: 166, ibid.), because it rests on a combine of comprehension and production skills. In a vocabulary task the closely-knit syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations would give contextual support in the choice of the ‘right’ word. It is stressed and used on a large scale for its ‘overall usefulness’ in covering a multitude of abilities in using lexical, semantic and syntactic interrelationships (Soudek and Soudek 1983, quoted in Carter and McRae eds. 116). For the hard-pressed examiners in educational bodies today cloze, like multiple choice tests, appears as objective and fair. It is rather a reliable, valid, highly efficient instrument for measuring readability and reading comprehension and for estimating the level of learner efficiency in a second language.

5.4.2 Cloze in Literature Class

Recently cloze is gradually gaining entry into literature testing. In literature it provides the direct experience of the literary-specific, interactive form of practical criticism. Thus, it proves to be a creative encounter with the ‘open’ text. In a literary test the cloze helps to concretize both text-external reference and text-internal relations, and so it seems to be a kind of an extension of hermeneutic gap-filling which the post-structuralist reader successfully performs and creates his/her meaning of a text (ref. to van Peer in Short ed. 1989: 281 → in Weston 1996). Being a readily wielded ‘teacherly’ tool cloze in literature test is a kind of exercise to please the literary taste of the examinees. According to Weston, it helps the learners to actively process the grammatical structures and items of vocabulary. In a literary context, cloze is called a sensitive, ‘hands-on’ approach to a literary text (Weston 1996: 117). Despite Weston’s own comment on the greater depth of a cloze gap than the ordinary lexical fill-up, it may have its distinct clue from the immediate context both for the native
speakers and non-native speakers. Too lengthy context beyond ten words does not increase predictability (Rubenstein and Sterling 1959, cited in Carter and McRae eds. 1996: 118); rather a brief context, called a ‘polo-mint’ around a ‘hole’ (the gap) may be more helpful for retrieval than a sizable chunk. It is included in the model exercises of the textbooks; those items incorporated there are gap-filling, selecting right answers from among alternatives given, etc.

In using guessing strategies for unknown words (Nation and Coady, in Carter and McCarthy eds. 1988; Carter and McRae eds. 1996: 118), it is the bilinguals here in India like the learners of English as a foreign language, who too take a ‘bottom-up’ approach in analyzing the second language. In the native English context the bilinguals adopt a ‘top-down’ approach like their native counterparts. Like the EFL students our bilinguals of English start learning the language word by word, ‘brick by lexical brick’ (Carter and McRae eds. 1996: 118). Weston would rather feel it helpful to have the opening sentence left intact in a cloze text. The teaching techniques used in teaching English as a language are different from those for teaching English as a literature. And those language teaching techniques are ‘marginal’ for literature, such as cloze, prediction, conversion, etc., and they are all good approaches to literary micro-text. Yet, Weston would like to consider them as essentially language activities. The gap-filling activities as a concrete bottom-up extension of the implicit top-down inferencing and integrating by our learners come to help the readers in supplying the missing information of ‘writerly’ world-view as a reader’s contribution to the meaning of the text (van Peer, cited in Carter and McRae: 122). For van Peer (1988: 289) cloze techniques would help develop students’ interactive reading skills.

At the same time the traditional approaches to the macro-text and context are to continue for their own relevance. To fully and properly understand the meanings of a literary text only word knowledge is not enough. It rather requires a sort of world knowledge too for the proper location of the text read in the overall context of the literary genre. But the problem with the literary cloze may seem to lie with the literature teachers who generally do not have that skill to provide the missing literary cues. They may often be unable to provide an author’s choice of words without doctoring the text (Mackay 1992: 204). Literary cloze
as close reading for critical analysis seems to provide an exciting interactivity; it is rather analyzing the effect than guessing the meaning. In the H. S. course it is mainly cloze in language testing and literary cloze in language teaching, whereas the cloze in literature teaching is used by the teacher to develop the critical competence in their students involving them into creative language production (Weston 1996: 136 in Carter and McRae eds.). Whole-sentence cloze demands an active production of a whole range of syntax, meaning and register without the single-word gaps.

5.5 Teaching Writing

The level of the intermediate students in the XI and XII classes is quite low on the scale of limited writers (Paltridge 1992, in Richards 2001: 174-175). When they set down to write, all the hell of mistakes is let loose in their write-ups. It starts with spelling, and goes through words choice, their morphological forms, grammar and above all their semantic appropriateness. Besides this, their write-ups have other discoursal and stylistic problems. Students are likely to lift words from texts themselves regardless of their contexts. For instance, they are found to use ‘chaunt’ in place of ‘chant’ while answering questions on Wordsworth’s poem, ‘The Solitary Reaper’, etc. Their writings are often very difficult for the teacher to set them right. The writers have a severe constraint in their range of ideas. Their works are limited in the use of words, grammatical rules, punctuation and spelling. Though Richards ranks higher the difficulty of punctuation, in our context it is the spelling that is given an extra weightage by classroom teachers. Many of the students are in need of much simpler texts with limited vocabulary and control in structures. The moderate students are more fluent, and find it easy to read and follow the organised texts. Their range of ideas is expressed along with the development of the topic. Their position undergoes the limitation of details, the absence of support statement. Rather they write which is coherent and cohesive; the candidates are able to convey their own meanings, though not free from errors. But this lack of hundred percent correct answers can be condoned, had they been fluent in writing. This poor skill of our learners is due to their lack of practice too. And secondly, this lack of practice is another reason for the lack of variety of responses.
According to Kramsch (2001: 107), the very act of writing is part of the process of what shapes it. Even as a pre-reading activity in an intermediate class writing, according to Schofer and Rice (1987, in Kramsch 2001: 109), the best way to see through the task of reading the texts is to have students experience writing themselves.

The writing tasks for the XI-XII classes, such as writing essays, letters, reports, etc. are to be graded from the ‘natural’, ‘unproblematic’ (Bereiter and Scadamalia 1987, in Weigle 2002: 31) to the more difficult and complex ones. Writing has its own problems from the lack of speech benefits like the direct presence of audience to get an instant feedback for necessary modulations of the topic and style. The writer can get no interlocutor(s) to generate fresh topics, no cues for further attempts to begin something new, to stop something unpleasant, etc. (Bereiter and Scadamalia 1987: 55). The penman has to select the mode of the essay depending on the topic, the attitude and audience of it. The types of essay like descriptive type, the reflective, the process descriptive type, etc. have a role in setting its pattern. Further hurdles in writing practice are very likely to come from two sources like vocabulary and syntax. Our learners get so much concerned when they start writing that they are all preoccupied with those two linguistic aspects (Kramsch 2001; Weigle 2002: 35). In that process they leave their working memory in the lurch to order to retrieve their source of message and information. So their writing suffers both from content and form. Because, language itself being heavily content-based, it suffers from malformation of structure too. So, this chronic drawback of the second language learners actually results from their obsession with accuracy instead of the native-speaker-like fluency. One of the reasons is of course the teacher the sole readers of learners’ writings. Teachers’ task is to start practice for peer group writing. Learners are to write for fellow students, and are readers in turn of each other’s write-up too.

There are a number of scopes for writing exercises always found in the syllabus without exception. The present syllabus too gives room to that practice to meet the demand of examinations. All the responses that a learner makes in the teaching curriculum are in the form of written scripts. The questions set on the texts seek written reply from the students. The other most popular and conventional exercises are the essay/paragraph and letter
writings. The paragraph writing, the most contentious of all types (Bowen, Tim and Jonathan Marks 1994: 148) is allotted 15 marks. Yet, our teachers know not how to help, but give a few models for practice, which does not prove to be that much productive. While in the L1 course the learners are to become more natural essay writers, it would not be so easy and natural in the L2 situation. Their work in the ‘unauthentic exercise’ is far removed from the real world. It is noted that some people have to take the same letter writing model or line for the exercise on essay writing (ibid. 1994: 149). Actually, for essay writing all-round language proficiency is needed. Thus circumstanced, the teacher is to teach the learners the technical terms, structures and the content of paragraphs. For the teacher can start from the very beginning by giving the students their known topics along with their accompanying structures and styles. Or, the teacher can better adopt a lexical approach to it, as the given one in a lesson plan on paragraph writing in Chapter 5. The topics can be given with his/her explicit explanations. The temporary postponement of most serious and vexed issues, instead of hampering their overall progress, may successfully help them out. The exercises on the development of cohesive devices like the tasks of reassembling and reordering jumbled sentences, otherwise called ‘unscrambling’ McDonough and Shaw (1993: 183) and then paragraphs, gap-fill, multiple-choice exercises, etc. can help learners properly (ibid. 149).

The task of composition is a common device to develop the writing skill. The practice in it helps learners to cultivate discourse skill essential for all practical purposes, like examinations and composition. The topics of the essays for H. S. examinations are ‘unauthentic’ and traditionally formal. After suggesting or even inviting topics from students themselves the teacher can take them through several phases like planning, drafting, revising, reviewing, etc. At the planning stage, he/she has to put the students to ‘brainstorming’ in case of their dearth of ideas. Apart from many advantages, writing takes its own time before its final version. And in the process of composition, the teacher will point out to the learners all the stages they themselves are at in their pursuit. In the case of any gap therein, the teacher ought to ask them to incorporate it/those by putting them to go through it/those. For instance, as the learners consciously take up the steps of planning and outlining while trying
to write an essay, they at once sit up to put pen to paper. Even the very first step is often not so systematic with writers not being so aware of it. At the second stage learners are led by the idea that their initial jottings would be the first and final draft. But a draft is just a draft to be improved upon with repeated practice of corrections, changes, revisions, etc. Hedge (1988: 21, in McDonough and Shaw 1993: 185-6) has referred to the whole process as a set of ‘composing’, ‘communicating’ and ‘crafting’, a ‘writing triangle’, etc. She has further expanded it as getting ideas together, planning and outlining, making notes, writing a first draft, revising, re-drafting and editing the final version.

Again, the process of writing itself is not just a means of putting one’s thoughts to paper, but actually using writing helps to create new knowledge. According to Weigle (2002), this kind of writing reverses a process which itself often leads to new knowledge. It may even change a writer’s view of what s/he is trying to communicate to initially (ibid.: 33). For this practice, if diary writing is not within the reach of learners in our context, then dictation may be a viable alternative. Going into actual writing the learners would improvise on the fresh topic and style quite different from the original. In the Bereiter and Scardamalia model (1987, in Weigle 2002: 34) the writer would start with problem-solving and goal setting which is to lead them to the function of content space and rhetorical space. The writing teacher can conveniently consult the above reference for detailed analysis. The Bachman and Palmer model (1996, in ibid.) and the Douglas model (Weigle 2002: 43) can conveniently be used for developing writing skill in learners. The three-term model of goal setting, assessment and planning, is very clearly illustrated by Weigle (2002: 44) through the process reporting of how a letter is composed. For writing a letter one needs knowledge about the topic, the form of such letters, the proper level of formality, etc. Many times the examinees find themselves lacking in ideational function or knowledge of topic. What they are taught instead is the form of the letter, and they finish the task just by outlining the format of it.

Hyland (2002: 78), however, comments that writing is primarily learned rather than taught. The learners would respond to specific instructional context like age, first language and their own experience, writing purposes and their target writing communities. They can
get encouragement from meaningful contexts, peer involvement, prior texts, useful feedback and teacher guidance in the writing process. It is found today that composing is non-linear and goal-driven, and it is believed in writing research that students benefit from having a range of writing and revising strategies to draw upon. Further, the teacher has to help them to organise clauses into information units for thematic development of texts. Genre analysis yields a very significant influence on teaching specialist varieties of English to non-native speakers (ibid.: 20). Genres are abstract, socially recognised ways of using language (ibid.: 16). Such a study may help to expose the learners to relevant genres through carefully selected or framed tasks. Such an exercise would be expected to yield student awareness of text features necessary for developing writing skills too. The text pieces selected for the H. S. course are indicative of that goal. This is to guide the students to a variety of texts in several particular genres which would in turn reveal the non-verbal items in texts conditioned by their structure and lexico-grammar. As separate sentences are to genres so are meanings to discourse; this fact may show writing as largely a logical construction and organisation of forms.

Writing for Byrne (1988, in McDonough and Shaw: 183) is a process of encoding, that is, of putting message into words on paper for a reader or audience. For the student writers the audience is their teacher-examiners alone (Hyland 2002: 7). This limited exposure has got its own shortcomings, not being examined by any outsiders. At least, in an effort to expand that readership of their write-ups, some people have suggested that learners themselves can be their own readers by reading and discussing over each other's work (Carter and McRae/Kramsch). And then, another word against the popular myth of writing is sounded by scholars like McDonough and Shaw (1993: 185-6), Raimes (1983). Good writing is popularly supposed to be as impromptu and spontaneous as speech. But actually it is otherwise. Even in Shakespeare's time, his fellow dramatist and critic Ben Jonson commented about Shakespeare's scribbling on his manuscripts thus: 'Had he scribbled more!' McDonough and Shaw (ibid.) looked upon writing as 'tidy notes'. Hedge (2002) appropriately called writing a 'recursive' or 'messy' process. Nunan - called it 'draft' upon 'draft'. For Byrne (1998) the process of writing includes stages like those of listing ideas,
making an outline or called 'scaffolding', writing a draft, correcting and improving before writing the final version. It would too idealistic to think that writing is as spontaneous as speech is. The teacher of writing must try to remove this misconception from the mind of learners through their practice which would reveal their own writing process. That way the students can also be convinced about it at the same time.

While dealing with text pieces, teachers should set learners to writing exercises. It is of course in some way impossible to avoid, not is it desirable for the authentic use of the language. Then, in the present case, the practice of reading should inculcate the other skill of writing. Extensive reading (ER) helps to 'develop a good writing style, an adequate vocabulary, advanced grammar, and ... become good spellers' (Krashen 1993: 23). Proper reading practices would definitely help develop the writing skill of the subjects. This progress in writing is not to come through spelling, but more so through writing itself (Cross 1992: 79, 255, and 268). Conversely, good writing practice contributes to the fixation of the already achieved reading proficiency. Whatever is read, is deeply processed in the case of encoding the message of the texts read in writing. And at the end, whatever learners read and study, has to be put down in black and white in the examinations. In the present state of our educational system it is the only means to represent the stages of learner progress, which is exclusively written.

In spite of a strong accent on writing for learners' immediate goal of 'summative' tests, our students are learners rather than writers (McDonough and Shaw 1993: Chapter 4). For the very primary objective of a learner to learn, he/she does essentially need the very opening model of writing discourse or 'metalingual mathetic' from Vähäpää's (1982) list (Weigle 2002: 8-9). With that target in view teachers may need to select tasks feasible in their respective setup. From among the suggested tasks, items like 'copying', 'taking dictations' are to be offered to learners to elicit their responses. To reorganise their work learners had better be asked to retell a story they have read or heard. This apart, they are to perform their otherwise usual tasks like note taking, writing resume, summary, the outline of an essay(s) or paraphrasing. Task no. 3 from the aforesaid list is very likely to be our learners' second need. The need to inform ('referential') has as its constituents the tasks like
filling in a form, quoting from a source for illustrations in an explanation(s). The teacher's task is to organise a class for learners to prepare a narrative report, news, instructions, or announcement. Of its total generative processes perhaps only the expository type of writing like academic essays and articles are to be set for practice. This feature may tally well with literary genres and styles included in the syllabus. And the final one for intermediate students may conveniently be the next one in the list, i.e. no. 4. This 'conative' (to convince, persuade) purpose should well be served with the exploitation of the syllabus item of writing letters of application, statements of personal views, opinions, 'Advertisement Letters', etc. The writing teacher can better think out other options to set the tone for such write-ups for their students at both the pre- and post-reading stage. For such a task teachers may point out the key to it, such as argumentation, persuasion. Such a teaching tool as setting learners to writing can be tactfully handled by bringing in items like critical essays or articles.

On the basis of Bāhāpāssi’s grid Weigle (2002) has formulated his own 11-point grid for second-language writers and their types of writing. Of his two groups of learners the adult group may subsume our intermediate-level students. Because Weigle conceive of his 'adult' students as nearing the end of compulsory education and intending to go on to higher education. So the students of Class XI and XII may be prescribed Type III writing model which represents the inventive or generative type. The writing genres can be of various types due to several sociocultural purposes; even within letters for the H.S. writing tasks, particularly those to be addressed to the newspaper editors, there are those of one type with the diversity of tenor (Hyland 2002: 61-2). Yet, there must be some unity among them. Despite those differences in content, like 'official' and 'personal' types of letter, there is a lot of similarity in letters in general. Perhaps, that may be a reason for our learners to just learn the bare structure of a letter as a monolith. Whether it is official or personal, the learners have got an idea that writing just the bare structure for a particular type of letter would fetch them some 20% marks. The teacher's duty is to make this approach flexible and open-minded to include some variations.

Writing along with reading has got a special status for some reasons. A very crucial one that marks them out from the other two skills, is their use of vocabulary. Writing makes
room for a greater number of words, even of lower-frequency, than speaking does (Weigle 202: 16). And that in turn seems to aggravate the problems of reading too, as the latter is the receptive side of the former. Hayes (1996, in Weigle 2002: 26) places writing as a central process in learning. He talks about three types of reading to that end, like reading to evaluate, for source texts and for reading instruction. The first one is to check problems, discover potentials, correct errors. In revision work, the writer may not have any good task schema. Inexpert writers tend to revise local or sentence-level errors, not global ones (say of the content and organization) due to their poor reading skills. It further makes a greater demand upon the writer's working memory to mend both the global and local errors. The writing tasks depend on the source texts for their answers; so it is inevitable to have the ability to access source texts and to use information from the text in one's writing. Further, any misunderstanding of task instructions (explain the speech, analyse the character, etc.) would lead examinees to a wrong answer, which is very common to our students' case. So, in spite of their having good task schemas (SK), the dearth of other ones, the belongings of the long-term memory (LTM), such as topic, audience, genre, and linguistic knowledge, may lead to some pitfalls in writing.

To help learners in writing it is better to utilise conventional items like topics, i.e. 'field' (Halliday 1994, Hyland 2002: 15), usually given by the teacher as an assignment. So, this common topic knowledge can be exploited to promote learning. Teachers can approach it from lexical perspectives or content-based, or both simultaneously according to convenience. Next, the discourse knowledge regarding the form or genre of writing is better made use of. For instance, while writing an essay, the learners can be given a topic to write on along with some cues about its form. In this respect the syllabus sets a model parameter for guided paragraphs. Teachers can easily use it giving learners such tips on the size (120 word limit for paragraph writing), shape of such essays, the number of paragraphs, the beginning/introduction, the elaboration, the analysis, and/or the body, the conclusion, etc. All these are there in the syllabus for the teacher to ensure their optimal use in the classroom. For better results from these the teacher can offer them details of all clues about a well-structured essay for learners' acquaintance. In an 'opinion' essay on topics like dowry evils,
unemployment, untouchability, etc., the topic may cue a writer to make a statement of opinion with one or more facts to support it. Finally, the existing texts can provide a cue for the students to generate their own accounts.

5.7 Assessment

As this dissertation is concerned with the current practice of teaching with its strengths and weaknesses, assessment can come in just in relation to the feedback it provides for the classroom teachers. Actually, methods have to be adapted to teaching materials and classroom contexts. And any testing of that skill of learners is just for class use (Weigle: 1). Another point is that our testing structure is writing-based; to test it is to set students to write (Hughes 1989: 769, ibid.: 1). James (2001: 1) has also admitted its central position in our personal experience and social identities, and there we are evaluated by our control of writing skill. This is what the H. S. curriculum holds itself up to.

However significant is the acquisition of a specific language skill, it becomes no less significant to test that skill in the subjects taught over a certain period of time. And according to Weigle (2002) writing is no exception in that frame. What is assessed is simply and solely the write-ups of learners as the end-of-the-term products. So, in the H.S. course the evaluation is only to be done on the written form of response from the students. This system is quite age-old, familiar and popular in the academic circle. The earlier model of assessing the learner response has meanwhile worn itself out by running out of its steam. With the large progress in psycholinguistics and language pedagogy, the traditional method of measuring the learner achievements has found itself inadequate and irrelevant. Still, that model has its way even today in the education system. This overall picture would be made distinct by referring to the list of contrast between the earlier and recent models. The first one has set its focus on teaching language, isolated skills, the learner product, final correction, teacher-centredness, and tests for themselves. On the other hand, the latest approach to assessment puts stress on communication, learner-centredness, integrated skills development, orientation to process learning, multiple options of correction and testing as teaching (Richards and Renandya 2003: 335). The system of assessment is to help to place the
needs of learners at the centre of the teacher's teaching programme (Penaflorida 2003: 344, in Richards and Renandya eds.). Of course, at present, it has had an effect on the classroom teaching itself, though often a negative one. It is rooted in the practice of preparing suggestions, and the teaching accordingly follow examinations, not the other way round.

Before going into the system of testing, it is essential to set parameters for that purpose, and to specify the target to be tested. Obviously, the primary purpose of a language test is to measure inferencing ability of learners in language and literature (Weigle 2002: 41). But the testing situation in our L2 teaching context means more than this. The language syllabus of the H.S. course here aims to test too the literary aptitude of the learners, apart from language ability. Anyway, before that secondary target it is essential to specify what linguistic abilities would be our criteria for marking and grading. In developing a test the key to defining the target abilities lies in determining which aspects are to be covered in real-life language use (ibid.). There are two broad types, linguistic knowledge and strategic knowledge with a number of sub-components of each. In grammatical knowledge it is vocabulary first, then morphology and syntax, textual sense of cohesion; in strategic knowledge the author has to employ a particular discourse, a language and background knowledge or organizing relevant elements of them all to produce a test response.

The present focus of assessment seeks to measure the learner's ability to use language holistically in real-life situations, and it is continuously carried on over a period of time (ibid. 336). The assessment results work out a general learner profile, formally or informally, which is to present itself as a model for the classroom approach to both teaching and assessing how teaching has gone down. That much feedback might serve the purpose of this work which is primarily concerned with the process of teaching in the classroom. The traditional way of testing obviously has a number of drawbacks to meet the goals set forth in the curriculum. First of all, the product-based approach in testing has got its inherent fault from the viewpoint of learning, not from teaching. The method to put students to tests becomes teacher-dependent, instead of being learner-dependent (Alderson 2002). The traditional all-writing base of test is a 'direct testing' (Weigle 2002) of writing, more so for large-scale assessment like the current H. S. Examination. It is 'timed' (ibid.: 3) writing on a
topic not known to test takers in advance. But it cannot be totally unfamiliar to examinees. The unwritten convention as regards this principle is that the examinees cannot be tested in areas not covered in the classroom teaching during that particular term.

The overall approach in assessment type is rather 'holistic' (ibid.) in the conventional setup, and this usual 'holistic scoring' procedures scuttle any consensus on writing quality (Hyland 2002: 9). Such a practice deceptively conceals any influence of local errors exerted on 'raters' scores' (James 2001: 9). The actual practice exercises a mixed approach of both 'holistic' and 'analytic' types (Weigle 2002); the teacher-examiners pay heed to the grammatical details of learner responses in writing while checking inculcates a 'holistic' outlook to find out the 'global' knowledge of the respondents. But the problem lies with testing comprehension tasks in the examinations. While examiners check out the comprehension skill of examinees, they do not fail to take into consideration the 'local errors' (Hamp-Lyons 1991; White 1993, in Hyland 2002: 9) along with other ones.

To frame a very sophisticated tool of test to gauge learner development in terms of the two target skills, the 'paper setter', as is the official designation, has not just to be one to jot down some questions to refer learners to their texts and prepared answers to them. In setting the target while preparing the evaluation tools, the paper setter, usually a teacher, should have some concrete ideas about the skills to be tested (Weigle 2002: 23). Such knowledge has to cover the cognitive areas involved in the skills tested, its sources that the writers (here the examinees) draw upon in writing. It is true that writing is highly valued in educational settings and it has the target for the standardization of writing through accuracy in writing. This excessive stress on it does reflect the social aspirations which often become too demanding upon the students. Our examiners follow that path all the time. This overemphasis causes harm to the development of other skills. It is due to this punctiliousness on the part of the learners while performing the most crucial act of writing for assessment. That way their simple and natural flair in using language in its spoken form is hindered greatly.

The 'exit' tests of the traditional kind are not however preferred by scholars like G. Brindley (1989, in Richards 2001: 293). Weir (1995) however thought of its 'washback'
effect on the teaching-learning setup. The H. S. test is mainly ‘quantitative’ (Kramsch 1993/2001: 19), it is both holistic and subjective (Richards 2001: 297). The assessment system is mainly marks-based. Bachman and Palmer’s (1996, in Weigle 2002: 46) model of writing assessment evaluates performance which involves either observation of behaviour in the real world or its simulation in classroom context. It means the performance of the ability to be assessed and evaluated by rates, and it differs from traditional papers-and-rates in the degree of simulation. The H.S. course assessment system has undergone a modification to that effect. Further, this language assessment is more of a communicative sort as it takes into account just the successful completion of a task that requires language use, not just a task on language use itself. For instance, the communication of a message or an invitation or a complaint against a public nuisance in a letter addressed to an authority or the editor of a daily, can meet the target even if the writing suffers from a lack of linguistic accuracy. Then, the H.S. test happens to be at the weaker end of performance continuum where ratings rest on the accuracy of language used, rather than on task fulfilment. Weigle however utters a warning against it with the statement that tasks may seem to be an elicitor of language use in real life, but may pose to display language proficiency, not its actual ability to achieve the goal.

The success of a writing test lies in its meeting the target like, say, target language use (TLU of Bachman and Palmer 1996: 23) which rests upon some criteria like reliability, validity, authenticity, interactivity, impact and practicability in the main. Though testing is not directly any part of this paper, it is necessary to have a brief look into it like this. First of all, invariably the classroom teachers themselves are the paper setters as well as examiners or testers. Obviously, they have some inkling of those criteria as part of their training and/or part of their classroom performance. Still, while setting question papers, teachers have to see to it that the tasks set do meet reliability so that test would elicit objectively valid scores, irrespective of examiners, occasions, its type variables. The second most important aspect of a valid test is its appropriateness and dependability of scores and/or ranks for social interpretation (ibid.: 21, in Weigle 2002: 49). It means that the test tasks must try to address the ability they are planned to measure. The test task characteristics are to match with the
features of TUL tasks. The H.S. curriculum has a slot for letter writing as such; a letter to an editor of a daily, a relevant authority, etc. and a letter to a friend or a close relative ('official' and 'personal' type, Samsad Parichiti August 2005: 35) are less problematic. But paragraph writing is a problematic area in this respect. This is applicable in the intermediate course, for answering the task depends on some premeditated class and home tasks. And further the writing task is judged on the basis of accuracy rather than on the organization or use of language.

5.8 Lesson plan

As the classroom teacher gets a fixed amount of time for covering ('coverage symptom' in Kramsch 2001: 139) a prescribed portion, he/she has to chalk out some sort of a plan of what to do with the 'portion' in the company of students in the class. For a greater convenience in this regard the overall work at the outset has to be built into instructional blocks (Richards 2001: 165). At first, the whole 120-hour course can better be grouped into 4 'modules' of 30 hours each, and at the next level into units. These units would be larger than an individual class, but shorter than a module. Modules, however, are the commonest to plan both courses and the teaching materials (TM). A unit is a group of lessons around a single instructional focus, say, making 'wh-' questions. Given the modules for several items to be done in the classroom, the teacher then can have her/his own space to deal with them within the given structure. For instance, the classroom teacher can take up reading materials and reading practice with the help of the RR, newspaper articles, newspaper advertisements, four textual pieces in Class XI within, say, ten classroom hours from the prose part plus all the twenty-five hours and another five/six hours from ESP. They may feel free to use around forty periods for learner reading practices. In dealing with newspaper ads the teacher may bring to the notice of her/his learners several genre structures included in the syllabus. For instance, in such an exercise type the teacher can expose before them the typical verb-phrase deletions in commercial, classified ads (Bex 1996, in Hyland 2002: 64).

In writing exercises the teacher has five periods for paragraph writing, and can take, say, some more time from ESP for the development of writing skills in Class XI. The chance
for this skill practice is very meagre in the syllabus. In Class XII the number may go up marginally. There the teacher can employ five periods from letter writing and all the twenty periods from ESP. Contrarily, there is similarly the space constraint for reading practices. Only ten periods meant for comprehension and some similar number of classes for prose can be made available to the reading teachers. Yet, the teachers are free to employ their own discretion in using the modules offered in the syllabus (August 2005: 35). It is not a hard and fast structure, but just a broad and general outline to accommodate the whole course.

The teachers of all sorts teaching English (Group B) just need to be aware of some fresh developments in terms of teacher possessions. These are such as follows. (i) The teacher has the practical knowledge with their rich repertoire of strategies and techniques. (ii) They must try to get the content knowledge like pedagogical grammar, phonology, teaching as well as learning theories, the second language acquisition, discourse and language teaching terms (Richards 2001: 210). (iii) The third is the context knowledge of teaching institutions, norms and interests of learners. (iv) The pedagogical knowledge is about how to restructure content, meaning for teaching. (v) The personal knowledge is one of the teacher’s beliefs, principles, and attitudes to teaching. (vi) The reflective knowledge enables the subjects to analyse and evaluate practice. The pedagogical knowledge (iv) includes the act of planning the course, adapting it to the total context or improvising, if needed. In this respect at least these criteria are not mutually exclusive, but rather have some overlap. The pedagogical knowledge consists of some amount of context knowledge too.

The practice of formally preparing lesson plans has hardly been realised in the actual classroom context. Yet, for the theoreticians it becomes a sense of satisfaction to think of the actual classroom teachers always entering the classroom with a clear, preplanned mental map of their lessons. What is most vital is that every teacher must try to seize the opportunity of having a plan for their work in the classroom. Because, the teaching hours are intrinsically very short; the pupils in the class are of diverse kinds. It is more so in the case of a second language classroom with the pupils having their own individual exposure; it is more exposed in terms of an additional language beyond their first language. To meet the situation
adequately and squarely the advance preparation is a must for the teacher; he/she has to
finish his day’s topic appropriately while maintaining the classroom discipline. Such a plan
prepared beforehand would facilitate its author to overcome unforeseeable eventualities,
despite a full-fledged planning. Yet a successful lesson plan, formal or informal, by an
experienced and efficient teacher, must have some flexibility and adaptability to suit the ever-
shifting state of a class. Kramsch (1993/2001: 139) suggests it would be a good idea to be
ready to switch lesson plan if the class arrives unprepared. Dropping or modifying the
planned lesson(s) the teacher can take to allotting learners ten minutes or so to read portions
of the text silently in class or selecting a passage to read together intensively.

In a story reading class the teacher can read loudly the story and/or give a paraphrase
of the content of the text (ibid.: 139). For the final goal of assessment students are to be
tested while reading and to be informed of the real target of reading (ibid.: 141; Ellis and
Sinclair: 143). They must be informed when asked to do some reading at home, of exactly
what is expected of them (ibid.: 140). The teacher may tell them of the type of understand-
ing they are expected to come to class with, whether a word-and/or sentence-level under-
standing of what a text is about or a story-level comprehension. With a narrative text like
Narayan’s the teacher has got a number of tasks to do together with students. In the class-
room the teacher may exploit the discourse potential of it, their relevance to the life of the
student readers. A useful clue to getting to the meaning conveyed by the story is the order of
events, their duration, frequency of occurrence in terms of quantity of the text space allotted
to them (ibid.: 119). The other textual supports for the readers in reading a story contain
linguistic clues, ‘deictics’, text and story time, point of departure, etc. First, to understand a
story, however attractive it may be, the reader needs some familiarity with words which are
invested with everything by the writer. The textual structure of the written medium has a
greater role to play so as to convey a unique message, otherwise non-paraphrasable.
Second, the perspectives of the author require for their expression the technique of space
and time frame through the use of pronouns and adverbs called ‘deictics’. This is necessary
to establish the speaker orientation (ibid.: 118) or the addresser-addresser relations. In
Wordsworth’s poem, for instance, the question of audience can be an interesting starting
point in a reading class. Instead of focussing solely on the mere story level of the script, it is better to shift to the discourse level of the write-up (Kramsch 2001: 129).

The study of characterization is an important aspect of reading a story or a play. The writer can draw a character either directly or indirectly through their actions, speeches, appearance, etc. Then, another useful device is to identify the point of view or the position of the narrator within the narrative, called ‘focalization’ (ibid.: 120). The title of the text(s) is a good instrument to that end. However, the prescribed text pieces lack that resource for utilization in the classroom. For the students are already familiar with text pieces prescribed in the syllabus. Once learnt, these features can be exploited in other texts, such as newspaper articles/reports for comprehension exercises in the syllabus. Rosenblatt (1978: 12) distinguishes between a ‘text’ or a ‘set or series of signs interpretable as linguistic symbols’ and a poem, as ‘an event in time ... a coming-together, a ‘compenetration’, of a reader and the text’. The writing marks a shift in voice from the social community to the particular voice of the individual. In such a situation the reader is free to read the text as s/he wishes. But the text structure is the choice of the writer preferring either an efferent or an aesthetic kind of reading. The teacher can trace these styles of writers before taking decisions in favour of either an efferent or aesthetic reading mode. In a foreign language text the learner has to explore both the personal voice of the author and the cultural one of its subjects (Kramsch 2001: 129). Kramsch (2001: 128) suggests that a pedagogy of text-in-context can allow for all these different styles of learning to flourish, thereby helping learners to approach a text with an unfamiliar style. A reader-response approach to reading relates to the cultural relevance of the reader. For Fowler (1986: 176) ‘Literary competence is not one single skill but is variable relative to cultural circumstances’.

Our L2 learners are usually found to have slow responses in reading comprehension. My survey test has proved its veracity beyond doubt (Item no. 6a. and 6b.). Weir (1983a, in Urquhart and Weir 1998: 130) too has referred to it by saying that L2 readers have a difficulty in reading quickly and efficiently even in their L1. And they were also found having a difficulty with ‘slow careful reading’. Further there is a great difference in general between the L1 and L2 readers in expeditious reading. However, their misunderstanding may not be
due to their miscomprehension of the text. Sometimes, it may result from the learners’ current interlanguage system (Carter and Nunan 2001: 26). Comprehension practice would be better to take off with lexical understanding, and it would actually do so with our classroom teaching. But this time it is for the teacher to decide which words are to be tackled and how. Even with the elementary processing of lexical items to be taken up, the teacher needs to decide not just which one(s) is to be treated as ‘passive’ or ‘receptive’ and which one to be ‘active’ or ‘productive’. But even with the active or productive vocabulary the teacher may do better to ponder over what she/he actually does in their day-to-day business. Because, even our productive vocabulary is not fully ‘productive’, as the author finds out from experience. We use many words in a limited range of ways.

Anyway, to deal with words for whatever purposes, it is basically the exercise of lexical inferencing for comprehension that our learners need. Hedge (2002) suggested a number of ways to meet that requirement; these may include the use of textual cues like keywords (Lewis 2000), contextual clues, intralingual ones provided by a knowledge of the morphology of English, or the interlingual cues across the L1 and L2 of the learners.

In summary writing an initial use of the reading skill, chiefly ‘skimming’, is necessary. Again, discourse knowledge is essential to follow the text structure, its planning and organization. Every teacher tells their students about how and where to look for cues in the texts when writing a summary. First of all, one has to locate the topic sentence or the phrase. Spotting the second one is rather tougher, as it calls for precision. Thereafter, the teachers usually offer us very little. The paragraph, the genre, the topic, etc. too can be useful for the readers to follow the text efficiently (Kramsch 2001). As a part of teaching writing, the teacher is to provide the key to the selection of connectives, contrastives, continuatives, repetitives, etc. With their help learners can make a fast, unhindered progress in the task of making summaries as well as compositions.

Above all, the overall approach in rendering the optional service to the H.S. English – ‘B’ course, may emerge from the initial hypothesis of this paper with some modifications. Our initial hypothesis taken years back at the time of the commencement of this project in 1998, as stated in Chapter I, has to make some room for its modifications for the changes
made in the interim period. With the basic support of the communicative paradigm, which is actually pro-syllabus, the project has to extend the primary emphasis on vocabulary teaching to a level one step higher, i.e. the ‘lexical’ level of Michael Lewis (1997; 2002). In place of grammar teaching, which has several, severe limitations for the growth of language in the learners, a lexical approach can be a middle path to meet the twin goals of vocabulary and grammar together. A long stretch of grammar teaching since their early days of schooling, may intimidate the learners. Hence, it is demotivating for them in their mature stage of learning. The concept of lexis refers to a larger group of words beyond the individual ones. It is mainly the phrases and idioms of a sentence that, as Lewis thinks, work as separate chunks of language and conveyors of meaning. To learn these chunks rather than the individual words is easier. And above all, these lexical phrases are quite closer to the syntax.

So, the learners at once can comfortably travel between the two levels, one upper and the other lower. For Willis (1994: 48), these ‘fixed’ phrases work as ‘extended lexical’ items in a sentence. The second reason for this modification is the development of the H.S. textbooks by the Council with a workable wordlist along with the text pieces. Anyway, this trans-lexical state as hypothesised by Lewis (1997) can look for further vindication from the ‘morpho-syntactic’ concept (Long and Robinson 2000, in Lantolf 2001: 17; DeKeyser 2001, Lantolf 2001: 57). The knowledge of language system with reference to word orders and similar other relationships at the morphological level helps language study immensely (Tickoo 2003: 23). This outlook at the way of studying English reveals the trend for a lexical approach in SL pedagogy.

Notes
1. By ‘bilingualized’ dictionary Richards & Renandya (eds. 2002) meant the type of dictionary(s) used in the SL/FL context where both TL terms along with their L1 and TL synonyms or equivalents are given. In contrast, a ‘bilingual’ dictionary uses just a one-way definition of terms from TL to L1.