CHAPTER 6

TEACHER METHODOLOGY: PROPOSAL FOR A NEW ORIENTATION
CHAPTER 6

TEACHER METHODOLOGY: PROPOSAL FOR A NEW ORIENTATION

6 Lexical Approach: Proposal for A New Orientation

The approach in the Revised Syllabus is found to be of a ‘multi-syllabus’ type in the sense Lewis (2000: 171) used it. It takes into consideration several sorts of tasks, teaching materials and skills development for learners. Just one or two approaches like CLT and/or language through literature (LTL) cannot address all those issues adequately. It is however not so desired by the Council in suggesting any particular approach or two. Rather it openly accedes to the use of some convenient ones as and when needed to fit the situations:

The teachers who handle this course therefore present a greater variety in their methods and approaches. ... We have therefore, indicated here more than one approach; we do not claim any of these to be the approach. (An Approach 1989 WECHSE)

While such a stand is likely to invite some unwelcome anomaly in the classroom, the need for a very useful approach may be felt all the more urgently. Meanwhile, the Lexical Approach (LA) has grown to such proportions now that it now occupies a middle position between two distinct studies of vocabulary and grammar. While dealing with the ways larger 'chunks' of fixed or semi-fixed expressions are getting integrated into sentences, LA also pays attention to the way individual words come together in some particular patterns or 'chunks' in a language. It has now been generally agreed that language is fundamentally lexical, and the dichotomy between grammar and lexis is neither valid for proper language analysis nor for language understanding (Lewis 2000: 142). The traditional approach to language on the basis of single word units and their structural relationships has not been helping much in its understanding and its due perception by learners. A language learner uses language in chunks as s/he learns it that very way in the main. It is said that even the native
speakers perceive their L1 more in terms of word-chunks which are realized in terms of phrases, idioms, collocations and fixed expressions (Hill 2000: 54). In between the word and sentence LA seeks to notch up a middle path, that is, the phrasal level (Sökmen 1997).

The earlier grammar models highlight rules as being the foremost in language study, and vocabulary just functions as illustrations of those abstract rules. As such, most of those rules often have to reserve some room for several exceptions to themselves, or just ignore them. The traditional grammar which chiefly works at the sentence level, aims at framing a finite number of general rules to cover the whole language. In most cases it leads to the error of over-generalization. Whenever they are brought in to explain a particular language item, it is found that they are not adequate to meet the demands of language. For instance, traditional grammar does not permit a sentence to end with a preposition (Palmer 1978: 14) while in actual usage it is quite regular to encounter such a structure like ‘Where are you leading us to?’. Another such case is the use of wh-word (e.g. ‘who’) as an object to a preposition in a sentence like ‘Who are you speaking to?’. The rule that this sentence does not apparently abide by is that the object of a preposition has to be in its objective case, here ‘whom’. Though ‘whom’ is also acceptable in an extremely formal situation, ‘who’ is more common in everyday use. The former is extremely formal. Thus, this practice of over-generalization is liable to miss actualities of the language in many cases. This approach of the traditionalists has earned them a nickname, ‘reductionist’ (Larsen-Freeman 1997), which denotes their practice as an effort to reduce the language to the next minimum unit of word for the purpose of explaining it. They had of course preoccupied themselves with the study of ‘words’, but in a discrete and philosophical way.

During the heyday of communicative approach in the 1970s and 1980s the importance of individual word study mostly diminished. The Communicative Approach focuses on language in use (Conzett 2000: 71), and attaches great importance to meaning only. Still in the 1980s itself a great progress in corpus study like Collins COBUILD project\(^1\) (Carter 1991: 89, in Brumfit and Bowers eds.) freshly revived a lot of interest in words among researchers. The application of state-of-the-art computer technology to word study at Birmingham University helped to develop a huge body of language corpus which offered
some valuable insights into the nature of language, mainly its lexis. It ultimately led to the emergence of LA in 1993.

The newly proposed LA (1993) as well as its latest revised version (2000) takes up words in their usual relationships in language use. This is because a learner learns a language not by words only, but by multi-word chunks, and this is equally applicable to native-speakers too. It is easier to learn lexical chunks before breaking them up into individual words than to learn single words first and then to join them into units. This lexical study starts with one of the basic premises that language is first and foremost concerned with meaning (Firth, in Smith 1999; Lewis 2000: 147), and that meaning is conveyed by lexis—words, collocations and fixed expressions in a text. In the field of pedagogy, it implies that for the acquisition of language the meaning of the text must be, at least partly, understood (Lewis 2000: 180). The traditionalists’ way of separating grammar from vocabulary violates the nature of language as it obstructs the conversion of input into intake (Lewis 2000: 139-140) in pedagogical contexts. According to Lewis, the purpose of language input is to turn itself to intake, which in turn is to be its output (ibid.: 180). Further, it is true that LA does not analyse language word-by-word, but by ‘chunks’ and even ‘chunks-by-chunks’ (quote mine) which are not quite context-free as individual words are.

Unlike the traditional grammar LA looks upon lexis as being more grammatical than grammar itself. For lexicologists words are now seen as more ‘generative’ than ever realised (Lewis 1997; 2000: 149). Extending his lexical theory up to the level of collocation, Lewis postulates another kind of multi-word relationship at the phrasal level. This level of collocation reveals several internal patterns dwelling inside the vocabulary of a language. It is assumed that it reveals many more patterns around a word than a traditional structural syllabus does (Lewis 2000: 150). Plainly, it can be said that language is ‘lexis grammaticalised, not grammar lexicalised’ (Lewis 2000: 137). Jimmie Hill (2000: 53) has pointed it out thus:

Two, three, four and even five-word collocations make up a huge percentage of all naturally-occurring text, spoken or written. Estimates vary, but it is possible that up to 70% of everything we say, hear, read or write is to be
found in some form of fixed expression.
It thus means that collocations are fundamental to all language use.

Before going into any further discussion on the nature of LA and its advantages to language teaching-learning context, it would not be out of place to see if there is any unfavourable reaction against it. The only prominent response one can find, comes from Scott Thornbury (1998) who has initially pointed out some of the limitations of LA for being too nascent. Yes, it is at least true in the sense that so far LA has not been able to be very eminent in mainstream pedagogical practice. Perhaps, LA needs to grow up further through research pursuits and classroom applications. Yet, LA has been able to inspire fresh thinking in the line our learners and teachers think of their jobs. In applications it is evident LA proves to be more successful to meet some pedagogical targets than any other studies of the sort. Some of the insights derived from LA appear to be a kind of a compromise between vocabulary and grammar teaching.

For the lexicologists lexical units have grammar contextualized. LA brings the two together. It is the word-grammar which can offer students the concrete samples of language in use for them to learn. Structures are more specific than grammar rules. Larger and higher units a language contains are known as phrases and/or idioms. Thereupon, Lewis (2000) extended it to collocations, that is, particular word groups, and then further up to ‘colligation’ or word + pattern or pattern + pattern relations’.

6.1 LA and Traditional Grammar: A Contrast

The traditional grammar values grammar rules and accuracy which are thought to lead to fluency. For traditionalists fluency comes from ability to construct first the language accurately, then both accurately and fluently. But the lexicologists believe that fluency is prompted by a large lexicon, i.e. a large stock of words and larger ‘chunks’ (Lewis 2000: 175), and grammar rules as well. These rules emerge from ‘language used’ (Morgan Lewis 2000: ) in the process of LA. Earlier, it is the grammar-first approach which ruled, to be followed by words (Lewis 173); the result is that often a grammatically well-formed sentence may not be considered by native speakers as being acceptable. Accuracy does not
guarantee fluency, but rather fluency generates accuracy (Lewis: 174).

6.2 LA and CLT: A Contrast

The communicative approach to language teaching brings into focus the purpose of communication, i.e. ‘meaning’ instead of ‘form’. Despite all reforms in the RS to meet that goal, the initial apprehension of the present researcher is to be found in the first set of questions for class XI from the Council. The patterns of questions are of course reset and reshuffled, but the intrinsic spirit is still fact-based and content-oriented in relation to select literary pieces. In the question paper mentioned above there is no question from poems on text-based grammar. Among prose pieces, ‘Packing’ is used for lexical testing, whereas the communicative approach or CLT in the present situation requires no factual or comprehension questions, like ‘who was to help Helen at Cambridge School?’ or for re-arranging jumbled-up sentences. Comprehension focuses on receptive knowledge alone, and responses if made on the basis of guessing and inferencing are not always trouble-free. Guesses made there may be wrong, the rate of reading and acquisition may be slow. CLT tends to disregard individual learner abilities and learning styles, especially, the lack of retention of new lexical items (Sökmen 1997, in Conzett 2000: 71-72). This can be covered up with lexical questions given in the lesson plans below (LP1 and LP2). It has been further proved that the earlier approach to language teaching through the explicit definition of words (or paraphrases), like traditional dictionaries, is not valid any more. Neither is the translation mode acceptable, because an L1 word cannot have its exact counterpart in another language, however close they may be (Conzett 2000: 83).

As stated earlier, the initial proposal of Michael Lewis (1993) for a lexis-based approach to language analysis was further elaborated for its implementation (Lewis 1997) in language teaching situation. In its further extended approach (2000) LA incorporates collocation, both fixed and semi-fixed. For lexicologists language is assumed to have got a large store of words along a cline or ‘spectrum’ from flexibility at one end and fixedness at the other. The distance from one end to the other contains several points representing different degrees of fixedness from ‘weak’ to ‘strong’, ‘variant’ to ‘invariant’, or from ‘flexibility’ to ‘fixedness’, of collocations (Lewis 2000: 142). The reason for this develop-
ment in lexical approach is that LA has possessed a number of advantages over earlier linguistic approaches starting from Structural way of language teaching to the CLT. First, it gets words contextualized. The traditional grammar takes the help of isolated sentences as particular instances to illustrate its general rules. And sentences are mainly analysed in terms of single word items. Grammar in LA is word-bound, however. Learners get both meanings and their forms almost together. Second, lexis is more learner-oriented. As grammar rules offer one ‘declarative knowledge’ (DK) of the language, it is hard put to pedagogical use. For linguistic acquisition learners need to obtain ‘procedural knowledge’ (PK), and lexis takes up idiomatic relations which reveal the process of language building, thereby becoming more amenable to language pedagogy. Third, DK can hardly be an integral part of a learner, and so cannot be readily available for automatic interaction in language use. It would rather put forth regular hurdles in automatic language production. PK, on the other hand, stresses on acquisition through language use which prepares the subjects or learners for automatic responses. That is what we can set forth as the aim of a communicative language teaching programme like the current H. S. English course. In other words, DK is rather an ‘additive’ process, whereas PK is an ‘integrative’ one (Lewis 2000: 157). In the same spirit Woolard (2000: 43) writes that learning vocabulary is an ongoing and organic process. Learning sentence grammar or so-called grammar atrophies, and it resists realistic language development in learners. Fourth, through frequent and fruitful references to dictionaries, mainly for collocations, students develop a habit of monolingual dictionary use. Having started with stronger collocations first, learners had better proceed towards other associated practice with weaker and ‘open’ collocations. And finally, the process of writing practice in the lexical mode, as will be demonstrated in one of the lesson plans, will help dispel habitual intimidation about writing from learners’ mind.

6.3 Lexical Approach: Collocation

In this position it is collocation which is expected to harness both lexis and sentence together. For Sökmen (1997), it helps to swing the pendulum of teaching in the middle of ‘implicit and explicit learning’. Collocation has proved to be a very powerful force in cre-
ation and comprehension of a naturally occurring text (Jennie Hill 2000: 49). It facilitates fluency and accuracy in the learners. Because, it is collocation that forms the major part of the native speakers’ ‘mental lexicon’ (Jennie Hill 2000: 49), whereas non-native speakers’ performance suffers from their dependence on discrete language items. They apply their descriptive knowledge of SL rules to their limited stock of words, and this process proves very costly for their performance in speech as well as writing.

This dissertation had initially started with a hypothesis that prospective ESL learners face a host of meaning-based problems stemming from unknown or partly known words. So, the initial assumption of learner difficulty in the H. S. English (Group B) course was concerned with her/his lexical problem. At first, the classroom-based survey reports have provided substantial proof as to the validity of the initial hypothesis. Secondly, the post-communicative pedagogical studies have shifted attention to the significance of the so-far neglected vocabulary in language teaching. The exponents of LA have believed that learners could learn vocabulary implicitly through guessing and inferring from contexts (Conzett 2000: 71). And thirdly, the Council’s attitude and approach, as reflected in the syllabus and the TM prepared by the Council itself, seems to move in that direction. It may be taken to vindicate the initial hypothetical needs for the growth of sufficient learner vocabulary in the SL. With a good store of words associated with sufficient word-knowledge the SL learners are better able to control their working situation. And a better learner must possess a good stock of words as a precondition for mastery over her/his TL. Vocabulary is considered to be the building blocks of language learning (Leaver, Ehrman and Shekhtman 2005: 162).

In Natural Approach (NA) vocabulary is equally regarded as primary in language acquisition (Lewis 2000). The model exercises which follow ‘Notes’ (mostly word-based) given after the text pieces vindicate a strong lexical orientation. At the same time, as a ‘multi-syllabus’, the RS has conceded some room to earlier grammar study too. For instance, exercises on the use of some word forms given against a set of words in a grid prove that structural tendencies exist even without their collocational relations. This is further evident in the English question paper for Class XI Examination, 2006 (e. g. Question no. 8.a, p4).

Yet, the Council’s lexical approach is mainly communicative, and it focuses on
individual word teaching for the communication of message. The difference from the previous syllabus however lies in the use of contexts to illustrate them. If we look into the nature of exercises in Selections, together with the model question paper and the question paper in the first annual examination in Class XI (2006), the lexical bias is clearly perceptible. Questions on the use of phrasal verbs, antonyms, synonyms in context points out to this bias. The focus of the earlier syllabus was on the teaching and learning of explicit words through glosses, paraphrases, translation, etc. Long after that time, it is only now that we are able to give some attention to the LA of Michael Lewis and others in relation to our pedagogical context. We have to reiterate that the LA theory is yet to receive any kind of outright rejection anywhere in the academic world. At the same time it is right to say that it has not yet turned into a full-fledged methodology in teaching English as an SL in a non-native environment.

That is why this dissertation does not want to go all-out to implement the collocational approach in toto in the initial stages of a newly reformed syllabus. The application of such a fresh theory to a context where the teaching of ESL is purely experimental, would entail a few risks. At the same time, it has got a further chance to give a lead in the application of the LA in which the Council is still conservative and conformist in preserving some of the established modes in teaching some grammar and lexis with a few innovations. Actually, those lexical innovations demonstrated in the question paper reveals a moderate progress from earlier positions. The stress on using phrasal verbs or antonyms, synonyms, etc. is a continuation of the previous system of teaching how to use idioms, phrasal verbs (a verb + a particle), etc. Only some of their contextual applications are demonstrated with some connotational implications attached. It however leaves little room for the teaching of other idiomatic expressions or connotations like the relations between a noun and a verb, an adjective and a noun, a verb and a noun or a verb and an adverb. There are other larger collocational units uncared for, like a verb + a preposition + a noun (e.g. ‘...come into contact...’), a noun + a verb + a particle (e.g. The bird homes in.), etc. It would rather be too risky to fully embark on such a project armed with such a newly fledged approach as LA. At least, the teachers can adopt that practice on a limited scale by introducing some of
the samples of lexical units in the company of traditional lexical practices. That would rather be a trial case for that theory with some reasonable guarantee for success. If otherwise, they may come up with some suggestions for improvement in LA. Teachers may be free to extend the syllabus-ordained lexical components to the level of collocation at a higher level using a trial and error method with some caution. And the proponents of LA like other pedagogical theorists approve of some teacher autonomy in the classroom. There are two model lessons given below, one on a poem from the textbook, the other on writing for an essay, which are expected to meet some set target. There the teachers' activity would be some sort of an action research for the improvement of ELT methodology in a typically Indian context (Hill, Lewis and Lewis 2000: 97; Richards and Renandya 2002: 386).

Apart from some well-established practices and approaches employed in dealing with some aspects of the syllabus like two integrated skills of reading and writing, one can be inspired to think of applying the newly emerging LA to classroom teaching. The already introduced communicative means already introduced in the Secondary English course are yet to be fully implemented in our classes, and the teachers are also acquainted with it in relation to their teaching at that level too. The preceding two chapters have given due importance to them for the H. S. syllabus. But, the situation is not yet ripe for any such drastic change to go over to the LA or collocational approach overnight. For instance, despite the use of communicative method of teaching in the Secondary English course for over two decades, the situation has improved only partially. The rate of success in the Secondary English course has been showing an upward curve, but the actual learner performance outside or beyond has not been very positive. The successive H. S. Examinations over the years have not been producing any pro rata success in English. The vast majority of learners passing out of the Madhyamik Examinations with a good score in English are not able to maintain a matching scale of success in their H. S. English results. So, the new LA approach can be tested along with the existing communicative ways of teaching.

6.4.0 Model Lesson Plans

The exercises provided in the textbooks show a leaning towards vocabulary teach-
ing. The models are based on the mode of teaching vocabulary items as distinct, individual grammatical units, like grids for different vocabulary forms, use of synonyms, antonyms in contexts, etc. (Harmer: 160; Selections). Simultaneously, it is suggested through the given lesson plans (LP) that some amount of LA can be incorporated to keep a balance between innovations and conventions. LP1 is for a poem from the Class XII syllabus, 'The Moon' by P. B. Shelley, and the LP2 is on composition assigned to Class XI, that is, writing an essay.

6.4.1 LP1

1. Topic: Reading Poetry
2. Level: Class XII (Intermediate)
3. Objective(s): A Vocabulary-based Approach to Reading a Poem
   (A Language through Literature Approach)
4. Teaching Time: Period 1 (30 to 35 minutes)
5. The Text

‘The Moon’

_by P. B. Shelley_

I

And, like a dying lady lean and pale,
Who totters forth, wrapped in a gauzy veil,
Out of her chamber, led by the insane
And feeble wanderings of her fading brain,
The moon arose up in the murky east
A white and shapeless mass.

II

Art thou pale for weariness
Of climbing heaven and gazing on the earth,
Wandering companionless
Among the stars that have a different birth,
And ever changing, like a joyless eye
That finds no object worth its constancy?
A. Pre-Reading Activities:

I. (Learners are to guess or infer the meanings of two important lexical items left out of glossary)

a. Find out the odd one for the gaps below in each of the following.

[Clue: The school has got a/an ________ (gong/few blackboards/globe/watchman).
Answer: a watchman.]

i. An/a ________ (insane/mad/wild/eccentric) person.

ii. We on earth are ________ (blanketed/wrapped/steeped/lapped) in air.

b. Fill in the blanks following the bracketed instructions.

i. An insane person may sometimes be better than a ________ one. (Use the opposite of ‘insane’ in the blank).

ii. If an ‘insane’ man means a man without the soundness of mind, then a sane man is one ________ a sound mind.

iii. A mad man has a/an ________ (sound/insane) mind.

c. Fill in the blanks with antonyms of underlined words adding appropriate prefixes to them.

i. If you ________ get it complete, you will leave it ________.

ii. If you take a direct route, I will take rather an ________ route.

iii. One cannot be correct without being ________.

d. Fill in the gaps with appropriate choices from the words given in brackets.

i. The ________ (full/new/crescent/half) moon rises in the east.

ii. The moon is a ________ (planet/satellite/comet/star) as it moves round the earth.

iii. A satellite moves round ________ (a star/a planet/a comet/meteor).

B. While-Reading Activities: Vocabulary Exercises

a. Match the following nouns to the appropriate groups of verbs. The collocational relation followed is one between a noun + a verb.

The moon; the sun

Group A: sets, rises, shines, sinks, moves.

Group B: wanes, moves, climbs, descends.
b. Find the odd one out:

[Clue: A joyless: (a) face, (b) dinner, (c) mind, (d) job. {Adj. + Noun}. Answer: (b) dinner.]

i. The dying lady: (a) totters, (b) suffers, (c) shivers, (d) jumps. (Noun + Verb)

ii. The moon: (a) rises, (b) changes, (c) climbs, (d) sets. (Noun + Verb)

iii. The lean: (a) tower, (b) tree, (c) boy, (d) table. (Adj. + Noun)

iv. The moon is (a) colourless, (b) dim, (c) bloodless, (d) white.

c. Find the odd one out for the gaps (an adjective + a noun collocation).

i. The ______, (lanky/trim/thin/slim) dying lady.

ii. The fading ______ (light/colour/hunger/distance).

iii. The feeble ______ (body/mind/flow/reason).

d. Fill in the gaps with appropriate phrasal verbs: gaze on, totter forth, rise up.

i. The old man ______ _____ on the lawn before falling down.

ii. He ______ _____ early at dawn and goes for a walk.

iii. The boy ______ _____ the little bird as it twitters from the branch of a tree.

e. Complete the sentence:

Whereas there is no joy, it is joyless,

without shape shapeless,

without companion companionless,

without the moon is ____________.

f. Find a single word for each of the following phrases underlined. [The suffix ‘-less’ is used in words like ‘mindless’, ‘jobless’, ‘treeless’, etc. in the sense of something absent.]

[Clue: The service the caterer rendered was without worth.

Answer: worthless.]

i. ‘Where the mind is without fear...’

ii. After the accident, the car went out of shape.

iii. The factory declared a lockout; two hundred workers became out of job.

g. Fill in the gaps as directed.

i. It’s a/an ______ (wrong/incorrect as opposite to correct here) copy of the book.
ii. _______ (Sound/sane as opposite to ‘insane’) people are rare today.

6.4.2 LP2

1. Topic: Writing a Paragraph

2. Level/Class: Class XI

3. Objective(s): To improve writing skill along with reading skills through process writing in
   the form of collocational input (Hill, Lewis and Lewis 2000: 97); also learners’ ‘overall
   English’ (Hill, Lewis and Lewis 2000: 94-6).

4. Teaching Time: Period 1 (30 to 35 minutes)

A. Pre-Writing Activities

1. Following the last Class XI question the writing teacher can choose a text from outside,
   for instance, newspaper articles (Hill, Lewis and Lewis 2000: 94), or s/he her-/himself can
   prepare a convenient text offering ample opportunities for adequate classroom exploitation.
   The following text is of the second category.

   Trees grow on earth’s surface, and give it a green look. Together they form a kind of
green blanket to cover its surface. They give us fruit to eat, green shades to sit under. They
give us flowers to decorate our gardens and houses. Several creatures like birds, some
other animals and insects depend upon them for food and shelter.

   Today these trees face a great danger from man. People cut down trees and build
town and cities. To meet man’s needs factories come up and pollute air at the cost of trees.
Greedy people feel trees in the forest and smuggle wood for a profit. The lack of trees leads
to a rise in air pollution, and makes the land arid and deserted.

   To bring a halt to it governments as well as NGOs are taking steps. Reckless feeling
of trees are now prohibited, and attempts are being made for afforestation. Trees are being
planted alongside streets, fields, highways, railways, etc. Still, it is not adequate for the
threat. Several measures are now taken up to make people conscious about the whole
picture, such as international forest week, compulsory education in schools and colleges.

2.a Read the text and underscore some recurrent terms not more than 15 in number (Hill,

b. List them in a copybook according to their frequency of occurrence in the given text.

c. Match words under A with their antonyms under B.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plantation</td>
<td>Drought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forestry</td>
<td>Urbanization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planting</td>
<td>Deforestation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rain</td>
<td>Felling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afforestation</td>
<td>Desert</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

d. Find the odd one out from each of the following.

cover: a face/hole/height/distance.

deserted: house/village/habit/name.

pollute: air/sound/soil/water.

e. Fill in the gaps with proper words.

Trees are _______ and smuggled.

Smuggling of _______ is a very profitable business.

f. Find the ode one out.

i. Trees _______ (rise/grow/develop/spread).

ii. Trees are _______ (cut, felled, smuggled, planted, lifted).

iii. They give us _______ (shadows, fruit, flowers, wood, bridge course).

iv. Cities _______ (run, spread, thrive, grow fast).

v. People _______ (fell, cut, plant, wound) trees.

vi. Lack of trees leads to air _______ (pollution, purification, change, poisoning).

g. In the following structure of Adj.+ Noun, the first element is dropped. Fill them up with some context-specific nouns to make them meaningful.

The _______ cover of the earth fast disappears. (Adj. + Noun)

The _______ earth is a dream now. (Adj. + Noun)

The _______ trees delight our eyes. (Adj. + Noun)

Tress bear _______ and fruit. (Noun + Conj. + Noun)
The ______ leaves also look charming. (Adj. + Noun)

h. Give a single word each for the phrases underscored.
   i. They cut down trees for petty profits.
   ii. They build up houses.

3. Students may be asked to prepare an initial draft on the basis of the sentences used above.

Step I: Initial Draft
   Teacher (To students severally as well as together): Please patch above sentences used in the exercises, which you will find, loaded with information and/or meanings. You are just to jot them down for a meaningful whole.

(The teacher must read the write-ups only for the messages the learners wish to express for their teacher-reader. The teacher’s intention is to note how students expose their natural writing flair without bothering about their accuracy of expression.)

Step II.
   The teacher is to look for how learners try to avoid any communicative hassles in the content part of the text. The teachers are not to look for ‘surface errors’ in it.

Step III.
   After the ‘reformulation’ of the text by students the teacher would do better to look for both meaning and their expression (Lewis 2000: 95). In case of learner problem(s) in their write-ups, they may now provide complete help to students with necessary collocation, concrete suggestions, but without any supra-sentential problems.

Step IV:
   It is the final ‘perfect’ version through such a serious pursuit of the process of writing practice.

6.4.3 LP and Some Problems with Syllabus

   For writing practices the time limit is severely restricted to just 5 periods assigned in the syllabus. A single essay task would require at least 1 to 2 or even 3 periods. The marks allotted for this are not commensurate with the periods assigned to cover them. This is a problem inherent in the module of the syllabus, and to overcome this the classroom teacher
should be allowed to re-arrange the number of classes to suit the needs of the learners.

6.5 LA: Some Future Prospects

LA has thus a fresh learner-oriented look as it concentrates on the process of reading, writing and vocabulary learning activities, as shown above. The stress on process-oriented teaching which lies at the core of language learning brings learners into the vortex of teaching-learning activities. The process teaching offers them enough opportunities to equip themselves with some practical strategies of learning. Further, ‘process writing’ puts both process and products (Hill, Lewis and Lewis 2000: 94-95) together, not just ‘product’ as CLT does (Lewis 2000: 183). Then, it includes not just a care for writing, but also some reading activities in a ‘cyclical’ way (Hill, Lewis and Lewis 2000: 95). So, the ‘collocational competence’, a phrase coined by Jinnie Hill (2000: 49), scores over ‘communicative competence’, according to lexicologists. The comprehension skill may make learners to slip what they have encountered (Lewis 2000: 177) in their reading activities. Thus, the process teaching which is learner-centric, unlike product teaching as teacher-fronted, offers learners enough vocabulary learning ‘techniques’, rather than actual words (Hill 2000: 61). This learner involvement in the learning process would ensure learner autonomy. However, its success ultimately rests on the teacher approach.

NOTES

1. The acronym ‘COBUILD’ stands for the full expression, Collins Birmingham University International Language Database’, set up at the University of Birmingham in 1980 and funded by Collins publishers for compiling a largest ever English language corpus with the help of advanced technology.

2. In LA language is looked upon as a ‘spectrum’ or sometimes cline on which the whole lexicon range from ‘fixed’ idioms at one end to ‘free’ ones at the other with several degrees of variables in between. Some collocational expressions are almost fixed and strong, and they would not normally allow any break-up in its use, such as the collocation of ‘break’ (verb) + ‘news’ (noun, meaning a bad one). It cannot permit the replacement of ‘break’ with ‘give’ here. And there are others which are not so rigid to disallow any permutations and/combinations of some words in a phrasal, such as both the verbs,
‘start’ and ‘open’ can occur alternatively in combinations like ‘The evening session opens at 5 P.M.’ and ‘The session starts at 5 P.M.’.

3. The actual use of a language either in short phrases, idioms or shortened expressions, may include one or more of words in chunk(s), such as ‘See you again’ or ‘Meet me at the earliest’.

4. Lexicologists like Michael Lewis (2000: 115), Conzett (2000: 18) suggest such collocational exercises through matching word groups like the ones given here.

5. Paragraph writing is meant for Class XI students in the syllabus.