FEATURES OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

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A sophisticated adult leaner can control his performance accordingly. He acquires great sophistication and understanding by being taught about the mechanism of the language he is learning. Teaching about languages is relatively easy to carry out. The use of a grammar book turns a skill subject' into a content subject, one in which the teacher can teach facts instead of impart skills.

Teaching a Language involves two Essential Features

1. The learner must experience the language being used in meaningful ways
2. The learner must himself have the opportunity of performing, of trying out his own skills, of making mistakes and being corrected foreign language can be learnt effectively up to a certain level without the course of learning about a language. This has been demonstrated beyond doubt in the audio-visual courses in French and in English for adult beginners devised by the Ecole Normale superior at St. Cloud. The courses had been extremely rapid and effective. Thus, knowledge about a language is valuable for advanced learners who had firm command learning other languages also. The whole course in an intellectual exercise rather than performance of a skill.

Halliday holds that there is no justification to think that the foreign language is important only for a reading knowledge and therefore the priority of spoken skill over reading need not be emphasized. He argues that the specialist group of scientists, engineers and all others, are a small section who genuinely need to be able to read special literature in a foreign language. The foreign language courses designed and conducted for sophisticated adults are not to be confused with the kind of language instructions given in schools. It would be contrary to educational practice to give as the standard course something that related to an unusual and highly restricted objective. Teaching the foreign language in the normal case should be for the widest communicational needs of the average citizen who successfully complete the educational ladder to the top of the school.

Maxims of Foreign Language Teaching

1. Maintain naturalness: The mother-tongue is learnt more easily because a natural environment exists for learning it. It is spoken in family and in neighborhood. But this is not true for a foreign language. The child encounters with a foreign language in his class for about six periods a week and so it becomes difficult for him to learn it. An effort can be made to provide the child with natural environment for learning this foreign language. For this following points are important:

- Talking to the student in foreign languages in the class, playground etc.
- Encouraging students to converse only in this language.
- Arranging for group discussion.

2. Keep Exposure: A child learns his mother-tongue more rapidly because there is exposed to it. As it is spoken around him so he listens to it and he tries to speak it. For teaching foreign language teacher should try to expose students to be environment loaded with the foreign language. For this he can take the following steps:

- Distribute pamphlets in foreign language
- Form a foreign language speaking club in the school.
- Display charts with slogans written in English on wall etc.
- Show slides in English
- Take students to watch English movies.
- Use Mother-tongue in class-room be minimized to give students maximum exposure to English.
- He can also make use of the technique of advance organizer. For this he should write some sentence on the black board before the students enter the class. When they come they will interestingly read what has been written on the blackboard.

3. Develop Habit Formation: Language learning cycling swimming etc. as the instrument of all subjects, Language learning should be automatic i.e., a habit. It should be learnt to the point that little or no effort is made to speak it. As Palmer says, "Language learning is essentially a habit forming process, a process during which we acquire new habits. "Thompson and Wyatt call it "unreflective right utterance".

In the learning of mother-tongue we form speech habits. In learning a foreign language speech habits are to be formed consciously. As indicated by Bruce Pattison, "Habit have to be established; the operation of the system has to become fairly automatic".

Besides speech habits, a language learner has to form habits of reading and writing. Following habits should be formulated in students:

1. Listening to sounds and distinguishing between sounds;
2. Speaking with proper intonation and accent.
3. Imitating
4. Repeating
5. Spelling
6. Reading aloud with exact articulation
7. Silent reading
8. Using words in their proper context
9. Correct pronunciation
10. Consulting dictionary
11. Going to library

4. Use Mother-tongue: In his book understanding English. Roberts Paul writes, when we learnt first language, we face the universe directly and learn to clothe it with speech; when we learn a second language, we tend to filter to universe through the language already known," some one can use mother-tongue in teaching a second language. To quote P.Gurrey, "The teaching of mother –tongue and the teaching of a foreign language can support and assist each other."

5. Emphasise Proper order and Proportion: Natural order of learning is made up of learning the four basic language Skills: Listening, speaking, reading and writing. The classical order involved in teaching these kills is the following:

- Understanding (listening)
- Speaking,
- Reading
- Writing

J.A. Bright found by a experiment that reading become easy writing is learnt before reading, because in this way associations between symbols and sounds can be made.

6. Insist on Proper Proportion: In the words of Palmer, "It simply means that all items in whole range of the subject and aspects must receive an appropriate degree of attention so that the students, knowledge of them may ultimately form a harmonious whole" while teaching a language due and equal emphasis should be laid on each aspect. No skill should be over emphasized or neglected.

7. Practice both Passive and Active Vocabulary: There are two kinds of vocabulary; Passive Vocabulary: It consists of those words which are recognized and understood but seldom used in speaking and writing. Active vocabulary: It consists of those words which are understood and constantly used by the learner while speaking and writing.

Teacher should make a conscious effort to bring the words from passive vocabulary to active vocabulary of the child.

8. Enhance Motivation: Motivation plays very important role in learning language. It is the more of learning. To motivate the student to learn for language is an uphill task as there is no internal force for learning this language. Therefore, special techniques are required to motivate students to learn the for language. These are the following:

- **Arousing Techniques:** These include techniques that arouses students to a state of sleepiness, inducing, frustration, curiosity are some of such techniques.
- **Expectancy Techniques:** There should be some clear cut goal to achieve an expectancy to achieve them. It is desirable for teachers to formulate clear goals before students.
- **Incentive Techniques:** In this category are included techniques such prize, Praise, Punishment, completion, etc.

9. Make Selection: As only limited things can be taught within a limitation period so the teacher matter has to be selected. Following points be kept in make while selecting the teaching matter.

Every individual learner comes to learning with different personality traits. These include differing learning styles and strategies, varying aptitudes for acquisition and dissimilar motivation. All this makes heterogeneity true of every class. In a majority of schools several socio-cultural factors may add to this heterogeneity. A few of these are:

- (that) pupils come froth dissimilar socioeconomic backgrounds;
- the school and society prefer certain forms of classroom interaction to others;
- with fixed beliefs and expectations on what constitutes good teaching, both parents and pupils value teacher-led classrooms.

Forms of Classroom Interaction

'Working in large and highly heterogeneous classes a language teacher often faces problems whose answers are not readily available in the do's and don'ts of any known method of teaching. He must look elsewhere for ways that can help him engage every pupil's attention. However, even when he does so, fie often experiences varying degrees of success or failure. Some questions decd to be addressed in trying to understand what happens and why:

1. What do experienced teachers do to maximize the value of their- inputs or interventions?
2. What accounts for differences in their success rates?

In seeking answers to 1) and 2) above we first of all need to know what goes on in a language classroom. One way to gain that knowledge is by a careful study of the interaction that takes place in it. Looked at thus, much of what happens in a productive class hour can be captured under the following heads:

- The teacher interacts with the whole class.
- The teacher interacts with a group, a pair or an individual pupil.
- Pupils interact with each other: in groups, in pairs, as individuals or as a class.
- Pupils work with materials or aids and attempt tasks once again individually, in groups and so on.
- Pupils work on their own with or without teacher's guidance.

     Some other forms of classroom interaction that form part of observed common knowledge among experienced teachers are as follows:

- The teacher demands chorus responses, drills, repetitions.
- Groups or pairs can sometimes work in competition or are sometimes happier working in cooperation.
- (Adult) learners choose their own learning tasks or materials and work more or less independently, this is called self-access learning.
- Pupils are facilitated or encouraged to ask questions or raise problems to which the teacher or other pupils give or find answers.

Some Basic Tools and Techniques
Questions

Questions are a basic instructional tool in the hands of every teacher. In language teaching they rightly occupy a central place. Teachers use them for many purposes including: (1) to elicit learner responses, (2) to provide opportunities for learner–teacher and learner-learner interaction, (3) to serve as starting points for explanations, (4) to assist in classroom management and (5) for seeking confirmation that something presented taught has been understood.

For several important aspects of language teaching the quality and character of questions often marks the difference between success and failure. However, teachers differ on how much they depend on questioning, on the type of questions they ask, who they ask ahem and where and when in a lesson they ask them.

A whole-hour presentation (e.g. a long lecture) that allows for no give-and-take (no questions and no responses) normally suggests poor teaching. To sustain learner interest it always pays to give the class opportunities to participate by responding to or asking questions, seeking clarifications or raising doubts. On most such occasions it is the teacher's questions that serve pivotal functions.

However, much more than the number of such questions or their frequency; it is often their quality that makes a difference. A possible way of bringing out the important qualitative differences between them is by placing them in binary groups. Teachers' questions may be:

- display or genuine,' referential
- closed or open ended
- Factual or evaluative (higher-order).

A word on Each Follows

A display question is one to which the teacher already knows the answer. In most cases, the learner too knows that but: she answers it to satisfy the teacher. Are you in class 8 or class -7?' or 'is our school in Delhi or in Jaipur? or, pointing to a chair, 'Is that a chair or a desk?' are three such questions.

Display questions do not normally generate new information. They demand little thinking. However, they may serve either linguistic (e.g. articulating a just acquired sound or word or repeating a newly learnt sentence pattern) or classroom management (e.g. maintaining control) purposes.

Referential (genuine) questions demand real answers; often they also require thought and effort. Such a question may ask the pupil to infer a meaning, to evaluate a statement or to separate fact from fiction. 'What makes swimming a more or less satisfying exercise than jogging?' In what ways do dogs make easier pets than monkeys?' are questions that seek real answers. They demand an explanation, often generate new thinking and can elicit individual answers.

A closed question has a single, correct answer. 'Is Mumbai the capital of Maharashtra or of Gujarat?' or 'Is Kuala Lumpur part of Singapore or Malaysia?', are two Such questions.

An open-ended question allows for opinion as it has more than one correct answer. Questions such as all banks in the city provide the same quality of service. Discuss and 'When is it better to travel by rail or road than by air?' allow for different answers based on differing experience.

Factual questions help determine if students know some required facts or information. They may not normally call for reflection on events, attitudes or beliefs. How far is Bangkok from Jakarta?' or 'Who is the Prime Minister of Bangladesh?% are factual questions. They differ from 'Do you think women always make better leaders than men? Defend your answer.' or 'What makes village life better or worse than town life?' which encourage thinking, evaluation and reflection.

There are some other ways of looking at questions and what they are meant to do in classrooms. About 50 years ago, Benjamin Bloom at the University of Chicago developed it taxonomy of questions (see Bloom 1956). He divided them into six types and defined what each does. They are:

1. Knowledge questions that ask students to get at information given in their book or in any other source of knowledge. Example: Where is the Gir Forest?
2. Comprehension questions that ask for Understanding. Example: What does the author mean by 'surrender value?'
3. Application questions that involve using one's understanding. Example: 'How does yoga help build concentration?'
4. Analysis questions that ask for looking at parts of a situation. Example: 'In what ways is a solar heater better or worse than an electric heater?'
5. Synthesis questions which ask students to combine their skills to create new ideas. Example: 'What can we do to make roads safe for visually handicapped people?'
6. Evaluation questions which ask people to make judgments. Example: Are large dams the best answers to water and power shortages?'

Studies done in language and also other (subject) classrooms have highlighted the need for teachers to be aware of the type of questions they ask of the type of questions they ask, when they ask them and why and; importantly what impact each may have on learner behaviour and learning. Several studies have shown, for example, that in most language classrooms,

1. The display question predominates and
2. A majority of questions are factual and closed rather than referential, evaluative or open-ended.

To improve the quality of teaching, a majority of questions that language teachers ask should demand efforts at meaning-making. Display questions have their place in classroom management and, to some extent, in providing opportunities for limited language

use (e.g. repeating new sounds, words or structures). However, because such questions are rarely asked in life outside the classroom, their use in teaching has to be justified by some special teaching-learning or classroom management purposes that they may serve in the lesson.

Two other important research findings on classroom questions also apply to most language classrooms. First, very often questions are unevenly distributed. A teacher who restricts her questions to one section of the class (e.g. front benchers or the more articulate or intelligent pupils) may often fail to involve the rest. Although learners' learning is not always relatable to their observable participation in classroom interaction, opportunities for answering questions or even initiating them, should be given to every section of the class.

A second finding of value to foreign-language teachers is the one on wait time. Studies have shown that pupils are often given insufficient time to process a teacher's question before answering it. This often results in responses that are far from full and in most cases without adequate thought. Studies show too that increase in wait time from, say, one second to three or four seconds, brings about greater pupil participation and significant, contributes to higher-quality classroom discourse. Specifically such an addition to wait time results in an increase in:

- the average length of student responses
- the number of speculative responses
- student-initiated questions
- student—student interaction and
- Statements and responses based on inference.

Explanations

In the extract below the late H V George, a veteran teacher-educator, refers back to something lie observed in an EFL classroom, Study it to answer the following questions:

- What means did the teacher use to explain obstacle?
- Why do you think he failed? How would a teacher with a 'defining vocabulary' explain the meaning?
- What would you do?

Extract

I now describe .I witnessed classroom occurrence. A teacher had to deal with a text sentence: His family became an obstacle in his path to enlightenment'. 'You know obstacle? No? Obstacle is... hindrance... (No class reaction). is barrier, no? (Frustrated) ... obstruction.... impediment, (has done his best, gives up) let's go, on...,

A colleague who had a 'defining vocabulary' would think of something in his way, something which stopped him going where he wanted to go. And she would. gesture the 'stopping.' (George 1993: 10)

One way to define a new word is use of simpler equivalents. Dictionary makers - more particularly those who currently produce learner's dictionaries (LDs) or dictionaries for children - do so all the tithe. However, they do not succeed in all cases. Why? Because the equivalents provided may also not belong to the pupils' vocabulary. This is what happened above when the teacher replaced obstacle with 'hindrance', 'obstruction' and `impediment'. Not knowing any of them, the class failed to get at the meaning with their help.

Simpler equivalents often prove more useful. However, they may not always be the best way to explain word, phrase or sentence meanings. Teachers, as George points out, sometimes use paraphrase to explain the meaning. 'Something in his way' or 'something which stopped him going where he wanted to go' were two instances of that. Both depended on the teacher's knowledge of a definition vocabulary: a vocabulary of words which serve to define other words.

There are some other means too. For one of these I now go back to art event in my days oil tine academic staff of a teachers' college in Kashmir. Mr Abdul Karim (AK), our training college methods lecturer, was in ardent believer in the direct method of teaching. He always warned his trainees against using any other language in the English classroom. He decided to demonstrate his English-only principle in a model lesson. The word to teach was 'dew'; the class was in their third year of English in a non-English-medium school in Srinagar.

The-end-of-the-lesson doubts raised by trainee teachers included the following: 'Was a lot of time lost in unsuccessfully eliciting the meaning of clew?' `Did the teacher succeed in "keeping out" the mother tongue?' 'What would have happened if the teacher had given the pupils the mother tongue. in the first instance?' However, AK was fully satisfied with what he had done and achieved. I-le had:

- succeeded in preserving the English-only environment;
- engaged the pupils' minds in some give-and-take, all in English:
- Helped them arrive at the right mother tongue equivalent of dew.

The learner's language may conic in handy when other means fail. Used in combination with paraphrase, gestures, definition or regalia, it also often proves economical. The best means are those that lead to successful learner efforts to find personal meanings.

Instructions

A good task becomes useless where instructions make no sense to the class.

1. Wherever appropriate replace the active verbs in this passage by verbs in their passive forms in order to avoid vague references to unknown people:

In a burglary in Maharaja Clinic last night, someone smashed a side window and did considerable damage to interior fittings and decorations. They had drugged the Alsatian

guard dog with 'doctored' meat... The intruders made off with a number of important documents, some cash and several items of hi-fi laboratory equipment.

2. Substitute appropriate words or phrases for the italicised ones and make your own meaningful sentences using each such substitute word:

When the sniper reached the street, he felt a sudden curiosity as to the identity of the enemy sniper whom he had shot dead. He concluded that he was a good shot whoever he was. He then decided to go over to have a look at him. He peered around the corner into Oxford Street...

Unable to grasp what was expected of them, most pupils in an above-average class failed to do the tasks. The teacher intervened by

- rewriting the instructions in simple sentences and
- where necessary, using the learners' first language.

The question has value because both linguistic (maintaining the English-only environment) and psychological (making the tasks challenging) reasons allow only a minimal use of other languages. However, where unclear or difficult instructions stand in the way of pupils' attempting the task or where the mother tongue helps crown their efforts with success, it may be wrong to avoid its use to uphold a theory-driven but as yet unproven thesis.

Pair and Group Work

Its language is most often used by two, three (or four?) individuals to exchange greetings or share ideas, emotions or experiences. Language-acquisition research (Long and Porter 1985, Pica and Doughty 1985) has also shown that it is in small group interaction that rich opportunities for negotiating meanings become available.

All this makes group work (GW) an obvious source of rich and rewarding learning encounters. Teachers of different subjects including languages have used GW for longs many have found in it a valuable ally.

But GW has not found acceptance in every classroom, nor does it produce results in every environment. Many teachers' use of GW suggests a lack of faith in its being a productive alternative.

There thus arc opposing views and findings and also insightful observations about groups in action. A brief reference to relevant parts of both follows:

Size and composition: Some classrooms make it difficult to organise GW Where rooms are small (and ill-shaped), the benches fixed to the ground and student numbers large, and putting pupils into groups may not work. GW requires larger space besides suitable furniture and seating arrangements. But even when group's are formed, the give-and-take in them does not always serve the aims of every possible language lesson. Some basic factors require focused attention.

The most obvious is group size. 'The most appropriate size is four,' says one researcher based on 'observation and manipulation of group size froze three to seven' (Ngoh

1991). Not everyone agrees. Here, for example, are the ten conclusions that another researcher drew based on studies done over a long period:

1. There is not conclusive evidence from research which can tell us how big small groups should be in the language classroom, or what other criteria we, should follow in allocating students to groups.
2. It seems likely that the smaller the groups are, the more 'talking time' there is for each participant.
3. Some theories of second language learning seem compatible with the idea that quantity of talk (which can be thought of as 'input' or 'output') is important 1'()r learning. This argument could be used to favour smaller groups, especially pairs.
4. On the other hand, having, say, four learners in a group may make group tasks more complex (e.g. because of more opinions being expressed), and therefore more interesting. In any case, varying the size of groups from time to time could in itself help make lessons less monotonous.
5. There is some evidence from general education and social science research to suggest that groups beyond six members in size change their character. Some of the changes may not be helpful for learning.
6. The ideas set out in 2-5 above suggest that the size of small groups in the language classroom should normally range between two and six members.
7. It seems likely that many types of group tasks can be adapted for groups of varying size. Some 'real-world' task-, that may be needed in ESP courses are exceptions to this, with group size depending on participation patterns in real life.
8. Language teaching methodologists (at least those working in a 'communicative' tradition) currently favour mixed-proficiency-level grouping, but suggest that this can generally be at-rived at by allocating students to groups on a random basis.
9. There is a limited amount of research evidence that lends some support to the idea of having mixed-proficiency-level groups.
10. Sonic reasons can be given to support the allocation of students to groups on the basis of other differences (e.g. mother tongue, ethnic origin), but this too can probably be achieved by random grouping. (Honeyfield 1991: 16)

Two views on GW: In EFL contexts some teacher's sec reasons for not using group work. Two of these views may be of interest. The Bangalore Project'(BP) team's findings represent such a view:

In group work

*   pupils use mainly their mother tongue;
*   they often learn each other's mistakes-,
*   repeated use of shared errors engenders fossilisation;
*   one or two pupils dominate and steal most turns;
*   pupils dislike being corrected by group-mates.

However, a different set of findings has support in empirical studies, and one of them is as follows:

First, ruling out use of the mother tongue in the FL classroom is not justified. Where its use builds greater learner involvement, helps clear doubts on the what or how of a task, and brings about greater interaction, it may in fact acid a lot niore than it takes away.

Second, learners do not learn incorrect forms in groups any more than the), do in teacher-directed classroom activities.

Third successful group work demands careful planning. How groups are set up, tasks defined and interactions monitored matters a lot. So do ways to equip and enable every group men-thee to engage in and contribute to task completion. Building awareness of what is required of the group and of how each member can contribute to that, is a basic requirement at the start of every group task. Ensuring and rewarding team effort and recognising individual participation, requires attention as the task proceeds. Opportunities for presenting individual and group contributions must precede the completion of a task. What must be clearly understood by every teacher is that far front being a methodological soft option, organising group work in a language classroom makes considerably higher demands on the teacher's time, initiative and involvement.

Finally, when to use group work as against individual or pair work or teacher-directed-whole-class activity, is a decision for the teacher alone. This is because what works when or how well is best judged in full view of the facts in the class. The variables that matter are not just the shape of the room and class sizes but learner backgrounds, social expectations, socially valued ways of classroom interaction, the nature of tasks to be undertaken, learner preparedness for undertaking them, and so on. In Fix group work is a relatively unexplored but potentially rich resource. However, it is no more a proven solution for everything than any other form of classroom organisation.

Classroom Interaction

The teacher follows his plan of action and acts, according to plan, upon the class. He gets them to repeat, makes them do exercises, organizes them for a game-type activity. The class reacts to the teacher's actions in different ways. They repeat some things well, some things badly; they give some answers correctly, and make mistakes with others; they follow the teacher's instructions with some answers correctly, and make mistakes with others; they follows the teacher's instructions with some activities, and fail to do so with others; at times they sit silently, demonstrating no apparent reaction.

The teacher, however, fails to respond to these reactions. He does not probe the silence to see if it indicates understanding or confusion. He does not pick up the mistakes to see how he can iron them out. He does not notice the confusion when he leaves the students to work in pairs. He forges ahead with his prepared plan of action regardless of class reaction, and he seems to be acting in complete isolation from the class.

Interaction is more than this, more than action followed by reaction. Interaction means acting reciprocally, acting upon each other.

The teacher acts upon the class, but the class reaction subsequently modifies his next action, and so on. The class reaction becomes in itself an action, evoking a reaction in the teacher, which influences his subsequence action. There is a constant pattern of mutual influence and adjustment. How does this work out in practice in the classroom?

Co-operation and Conflict

Interaction is a two-way process. It can proceed harmoniously, as in the lesson scenario in Task 3 above, or it can be fraught with tensions. It can be a positive state, where interact ants feel that something worthwhile is being achieved as a result of the interaction, or it can be a negative one. Every interaction situation has the potential for co-operation or conflict. How the situation actually develops depends on the attitudes and intentions of the people involved, and on their interpretations of each other's attitudes and intentions.

Interaction Analysis

The basis of the 'interaction analysis' tradition, established with Flanders' categories of description for classroom verbal behaviour (1970), is to look at classroom language to see what it can reveal about the teaching and learning processes. Use of language is, after all, highly observable, whereas learning is not.

Moreover, in Western culture at least, language is widely used for pedagogic purposes. Talking is almost equated with teaching in many situations. There is, therefore, a large amount of language use to observe, particularly on the teacher's part.

There are in existence many hundreds of classroom observation instruments in this tradition. All of them are essentially adaptations, extensions, or simplifications of Flander's original categories. These comprise two main categories, teacher talk, with a third category to cover other types of verbal behaviour, or lack of it.

Teacher Talk

1. Accepts feeling: Accepts and clarifies an attitude or the feelings tone of a pupil in a non-threatening manner. Feelings may be positive or negative. Predicting and recalling feelings are included.
2. Praises or encourages: Praises or encourages pupil action or behaviour. Makes jokes that release tension, but not at the expense of another individual. Nodding head or saying 'Umhm?' or 'Go on' are included.
3. Accepts or uses ideas of pupils: Clarifying, building, or developing ideas suggested by a pupil. Teacher extensions of pupil ideas are included, but as the teacher brings more of his or her own ideas into play, shift to category five.

4. Asks questions: Asking a question about content or procedure, based on teacher ideas, with the intent that a pupil will answer.
5. Lecturing: Giving facts or opinions about content or procedures; expressing own ideas, giving own explanation, or citing an authority other than a pupil.
6. Giving directions: Directions, commands, or orders with which a pupil is expected to comply.
7. Criticizing or justifying authority: Statements intended to change pupil behaviour from non-acceptable to acceptable pattern; bawling someone out; stating why the teacher is doing what he or she is doing; extreme self-reference.

Pupil talk

8. Pupil talk: response: Talk by pupils in response to teacher. Teacher initiates the contact, or solicits pupil statement, or structures the situation. Freedom to express own ideas is limited.
9. Pupil talk: initiation: Talk by pupils which they initiate. Expressing own ideas; initiating a new topic; freedom to develop opinions and a line of thought, like asking thoughtful questions; going beyond the existing structure.
    Silence
10. Silence or confusion: Pauses, short periods of silence and periods of confusion in which communication cannot be understood by the observer.

Analysing Language in the Language Classroom

A more recent, and less cumbersome, instrument in the interaction analysis tradition is Bowers' Categories of verbal behaviour in the Language Classroom (1980). Bowers identifies from his classroom language data seven categories of 'move' within a lesson, a 'move' being the smallest unit in his particular system of description.

His categories make far clearer than FLINT the distinction between language used directly in connection with teaching and learning, and language used for normal social or organizational purposes (although there are still some grey areas).

Responding: any act directly sought by the utterance of another speaker, such as answering a question.

Sociating: any act not contributing directly to the teacher leaning task, but rather to the establishment or maintenance of interpersonal relationships.

Organizing: any act which serves to structure the leaning task or environment without contributing to the teaching/learning task itself.

Directing: any encouraging non-verbal activity as an integral part of the teaching/learning task.

Presenting: any act presenting information of direct relevance to the leaning task.

Evaluating: any act which rates another verbal act positively or negatively.

Eliciting: any act designed to produce a verbal response from another person.[56]

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