
Unit 1- A Critical Analysis of the Evaluation of Language Teaching Methodologies

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Objective
- 1.3 Method and Approach
- 1.4 Methods of English teaching
 - 1.4.1 Grammar- translation method
 - 1.4.2 Direct Method
 - 1.4.3 Audio-Lingual Method
 - 1.4.4 Bilingual Method
- 1.5 Approach of English Teaching
 - 1.5.1 Communicative Approach
 - 1.5.2 Structural Approach
 - 1.5.3 Whole language Approach
 - 1.5.4 Task based Approach
 - 1.5.5 Thematic Approach
 - 1.5.6 Eclectic Approach
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 Glossary
- 1.8 Suggested Reading
- 1.9 Essay type question

pramod

1.1 Introduction

English language teaching has become very important because of the global status of English and people all over the world are learning this language. Nowadays, teachers are free to choose other supplementary materials; they can also choose

methods or activities they want to use in their lessons. It is a big advantages but also a big challenge. In this unit you will be able to learn different methods techniques and approaches of English language teaching.

1.2 Objective

After reading this unit you will be able to

5. Students will be able tell the difference between approach, method and technique.
6. Students will be able to understand the different methods of teaching of English.
7. Students will be able to understand the different approaches of teaching of English.
8. Students will be able to understand the various advantages and disadvantages of methods and approaches of English language teaching.

1.3 Approach, Method and technique

When the linguists found that the grammar- translation method and Direct Method lacked the scientific and vigorous basics, it becomes necessary on the part of the linguists to formulate the set of systematic principles that can guide language teaching. An American applied linguist, Edward Anthony proposed a three level difference in 1963 between approach, method and technique. According to him:

- a. **Approach:** An approach is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. An approach is axiomatic. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught.
- b. **Method:** Method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic, a method is procedural.
- c. **Technique:** A technique represents implementation; it is the actual implementation of a method in the classroom. It is a particular thing of doing things to accomplish an immediate objective. Techniques must be

consistent with a method which in turn must be in harmony with an approach.

Different methods have given rise to different practices over the years. Drawbacks in one method have led to the development of another method or approach. In order to achieve the objective of teaching- learning of English, teachers must be familiar with different methods so that they can choose a particular method or approach according to their needs. The teachers of English should be able to weigh methods against each other and choose the one which they find most appropriate in their respective situations.

Practice Questions

1. What do you mean by method?
2. What do you mean by approach?
3. What is the difference between method and approach?

1.4 Methods of Teaching English

1.4.1 Grammar-translation Method

Grammar- translation method is also known as traditional method. It is known as the traditional method because it is one of the most conventional methods, which has a long history. This method was emerged when people of west wanted to learn foreign language such as Latin and Greek. This method has also got a fair amount of success especially in the hands of practitioners like Franz Ahn (1796-1865) and HG Ollendorff (1803-1865).

The major characteristic of grammar- translation method is

- a. the teaching of the second language grammar, and
- b. the practice of translating passage from one language into the other.

This method is a way of studying a language that approaches the language first through detailed analysis of its grammar rules, application of that knowledge to the task of translating sentences and texts into and out of the target language necessarily brings in memorization of rules. Vocabulary selection in this method is

solely based upon the reading texts used. Words are taught through bilingual word list. Sentence is the basic unit of teaching as that can be translated. Students' native language is the medium of instruction in this case. Theoretical assumption behind this method is rather narrow because the rationale or justification for it not supported by any linguistic or educational theory.

Advantage

1. The method makes extensive use of the student's knowledge of the mother tongue. English was taught with the help of the mother tongue. Teachers and students felt at home and comfortable.
2. The method saved time and trouble of teachers.
3. The students learnt the meaning of a large number of English words.
4. Even an average teacher could follow the method confidently.

Disadvantage

1. The students learnt the theory but could not use the language as a tool of communication.
2. The natural way of learning the mother tongue or any other language is by listening , speaking, reading and writing in that order. But this method starts with reading.
3. Learning a language involves habit formation and habits are formed through intensive practice. In this method the patterns of English were not practised.
4. If we translate English sentences into the mother tongue all the time, it leads to artificial sentences.
5. The method seeks to teach English through rules and not through current usage.

With all the disadvantages, the grammar – translation method is still popular with many teachers and pupils due to its easy mechanism.

1.4.2 Direct Method

The direct method, sometimes also called as the ‘reform’ method, ‘natural’ method, ‘psychological’ method, ‘phonetic’ method, and ‘anti- grammatical’ method, was established in France and Germany around 1900, and introduced in India in the early 20th century as a reform which was needed in the methods of teaching English. The major assumptions of this method were in opposition to the grammar-translation method. Hence, it is considered as a reaction against the grammar-translation method. It is also an offshoot of the Behaviourist school of psychology. It insists that the key to all language learning lies in association. It stresses the need for direct association between experience and expression in the foreign language. The aim is to enable the learner to think in foreign language and to cultivate an unerring language sense. It recognises that language sense has its roots in the spoken language and lays stress on the oral approach. This Method is based on the direct involvement of the student when speaking, and listening to, the foreign language in common everyday situations. Consequently, there is lots of oral interaction, spontaneous use of the language, no translation, and little if any analysis of grammar rules and syntax. The focus of the lessons is on good pronunciation, often introducing learners to phonetic symbols before they see standard writing examples.

The Direct Method continues to provoke interest and enthusiasm today, but it is not an easy methodology to use in a classroom situation. It requires small classes and high student motivation, and in the artificial environment of a classroom it is difficult to generate natural situations of understanding and guarantee sufficient practice for every student.

The following principles are used in the direct method

- i. All instructions are to be given only in the target language.
- ii. Grammar is to be taught inductively.
- iii. Teaching points are to be introduced orally.
- iv. Speech and listening comprehension both are to be taught
- v. Correct pronunciation is to be emphasized.
- vi. Concrete vocabulary is to be taught through demonstration
- vii. Oral communication is to be built up in a carefully graded position.

Advantage

1. In this method, the students learn English language in the same way as he learnt his mother tongue.
2. Since learning begins with speech, students can read and write better later.
3. The Direct Method, with its emphasis on speech practice, helps correction of mistakes the moment they are made.
4. Direct association between word and meanings tends to improve expression in speech and expression in writing.
5. It follows the principle of “proceed from particular to general”, “proceed from concrete to abstract”. It bridges the gap between the practice and the theory.

Disadvantage

1. This method promotes the oral aspect of language learning and undermines the significance of reading and written work.
2. This method aims at the active command of a language. This makes it learning more difficult.
3. Since the method aims at the directly associating word with meaning, it restricts the scope of vocabulary as all words cannot be directly associated with their meaning.
4. The success of this method is dependent upon the proper atmosphere conducive for learning English.
5. Lack of linguistically useful material and equipment because of its prohibitive cost hampers the progress of this method.

1.4.3 Audio-Lingual Method

During the World War II, American soldiers had an urgent need to learn languages like-German, French, Chinese or Japanese to communicate effectively when posted in various countries. The Army Specialised Training Programme (ASTP) was established in 1942 by American linguists to meet this urgent need. 55 American Universities were involved in the programme by the beginning of 1943. This

technique of teaching was initially called the ‘Army Method’ and was the first to be based on linguistic theory and behavioural psychology.

The Audio-lingual method has a lot of similarities with the [Direct Method](#). Both were considered as a reaction against the shortcomings of the [Grammar Translation method](#), both reject the use of the mother tongue and both stress that speaking and listening competences preceded reading and writing competences. But there are also some differences. The direct method highlighted the teaching of vocabulary while the audio-lingual method focus on grammar drills. The main activities include reading aloud dialogues, repetitions of model sentences, and drilling. Key structures from the dialogue serve as the basis for pattern drills of different kinds. Lessons in the classroom focus on the correct imitation of the teacher by the students. Not only are the students expected to produce the correct output, but attention is also paid to correct pronunciation. Although correct grammar is expected in usage, no explicit grammatical instruction is given. It is taught inductively. Furthermore, the target language is the only language to be used in the classroom.

The salient features of the audio- lingual method are as following

- i. Language teaching begins with the spoken language.
- ii. The target language is the only language of the classroom.
- iii. New language items are practised as per the situation.
- iv. Vocabulary selection is based on an essential service vocabulary
- v. Reading and writing are introduced once a sufficient lexical and grammatical basis is established.
- vi. The teacher plays the role of role-model for drill and practice.

Steps involved in Audio-lingual Method

- i. **Dialogue Memorisation-** Short pieces of conversation between two people are used. Student memorise the dialogue through mimicry. Certain sentence patterns and grammar points are included within the dialogue.
- ii. **Repetition Drill-**Students are asked to repeat the teachers’ model as accurately as possible.

- iii. **Chain drill**-The teacher begins the chain of asking and answering; the students responds; then turns to the next student, greets and asks; the chain continues.
- iv. **Substitution drill**- The teacher says a line, usually from the dialogue leaving out something and gives a word or a phrase as the cue. The student fills in the slot, fitting the cue where it belongs. The number of slots may be increased progressively.
- v. **Question-answer drill, transformation drill**- Students are asked to give answers to questions or transform sentences.

Advantages

- i. It aims at developing listening and speaking skills which is a step away from the Grammar translation method
- ii. The use of visual aids has proven its effectiveness in vocabulary teaching.

Disadvantages

- The method is based on false assumptions about language. The study of language doesn't amount to studying the "parole", the observable data. Mastering a language relies on acquiring the rules underlying language performance. That is, the linguistic, sociolinguistic, and discourse competences.

1.4.4 Bilingual Method

CJ Dodson of the University of Wales wrote a pamphlet *The Bilingual Method* in 1962 in which he argued that the amount of time required learning a language naturally is of necessity, large and our present school curriculum does not allow the time requirement for such a learning process. He further also added that in natural method a teacher employs a technique that waste time. Dodson advocated that a method should be within the capabilities of all teachers, it should be simple and balanced between the spoken and the written word. In practice, most teachers in India use only the Bilingual method to teach English and other subjects in English

medium classes. Some kind of English is used even in teaching of modern Indian languages and a classical language like Sanskrit.

There are certain disadvantages associated with this method. They are as follows:

- i. Since many teachers are not well-versed in the features of the students' mother-tongue and the foreign language, they may create a muddle.
- ii. A contrast between the features of the two languages, viz., English and the mother-tongue, may confuse the students to a great extent.
- iii. The Bilingual Method is not suitable at higher secondary stage.
- iv. There is always a strong possibility of reducing the teaching to mechanical translation exercise in the classroom. If the teacher fails in handling the Bilingual Method properly he may degenerate it into the Translation Method.

Despite all these drawbacks, one may not say that the Bilingual Method is just another attempt for the backdoor entry of the Grammar- Translation Method

Practice Question

4. What are the advantages and disadvantages of audio-lingual method?
5. Write a note on bilingual method
6. What are the advantages and disadvantages of grammar- cum translation method?

1.5 Approach of teaching English

1.5.1 The Communicative Approach

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is a very exciting development in the field of language teaching. In the recent past, language teaching seems to have shifted the emphasis away from 'accuracy' to 'fluency' and from 'structural competence' to 'communicative competence'. Since it is the latest and obviously the most popular and widely used approach, we are going to discuss it here in detail. In this approach the

aim is to build up the learner's communicative competence. A distinction is made between the grammatical rules of usage that enable users to construct correct sentences and the use of language to accomplish some kind of communicative purpose. CLT aims broadly at applying the theoretical perspectives of the communicative approach by making communicative competence the goal of language teaching. According to D.L. Freeman in CLT, "almost everything that is done is done with a communicative intent; students use the language a great deal through communicative activities such as games, role plays, and problem solving tasks". It is noteworthy that CLT is not averse to the use of mother tongue in teaching. D.L. Freeman who is regarded as one of the exponents of CLT spells out the role of the mother-tongue of students and writes that the first language, that is, mother-tongue, "should be used not only during communicative activities, but also, for example, in explaining the activities to the students or in assigning homework. The students learn from these classroom management exchanges, too, and realize that the target language is a vehicle for communication, not just an object to be studied. T.W. Littlewood discusses the aims of CLT and writes, "the CLT pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language, combining these into a more fully communicative view." He further adds that the CLT, "encourages us to go beyond structures and take account of other aspects of communication. It can therefore help us to match the content more closely with the actual communicative uses that the learners will have to make of the foreign language". Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) Principles the CLT principles discussed by D.L. Freeman (1986) are as follows:

- i. Whenever possible, 'authentic language' as it is used in real context should be introduced.
- ii. Being able to figure out the speaker's or writer's intention is part of being communicatively competent.
- iii. The target language is a vehicle for classroom communication, not just the object of study.
- iv. One function can have many different linguistic forms. Since the focus of the course is on real language use, a variety of linguistic forms are presented together.
- v. Games are important because they have certain features in common. In real communicative events there is a purpose of the exchange.

- vi. Errors are tolerated and seen as a natural outcome of the development of communication skills.
- vii. One of the teacher's major responsibilities is to establish situations likely to promote communication.
- viii. The social context of the communicative event is essential in giving meaning to the utterance.
- ix. The grammar and vocabulary that the students learn follow the function, situational context, and the roles of the interlocutors..."

Drawbacks of CLT in Indian situation: There are following drawback of CLT particularly in Indian situation

- i. To plan and conduct CLT activities, teachers of English must be fully competent and highly resourceful.
- ii. Conducting task based activities in classes with a large, almost unmanageable number of students may be difficult and time consuming.
- iii. It needs professional commitment on the parts of teachers.
- iv. The compulsions of the syllabus and the examination system may not allow the use of authentic English.

1.5.2 The Structural Approach

Pedagogically speaking, the Structural Approach (SA) stresses the importance of structures which are carefully selected and graded. Structural grading consists of arranging the structural items or patterns into a suitable order. In this approach the basis of teaching is structures and patterns of English. The selected and graded structures are presented in a text book and taught through classroom situations, actions, gestures, pictures, blackboard drawings, etc. The teacher is expected to give choral, group and individual oral drills based on certain structural patterns in order to reinforce and consolidate the language items taught. The SA has certain inherent weaknesses; for instance, it is more concerned with the selection and gradation of language items to be taught than with the presentation of the same in the classroom. It just helps in course-designing. The drills presented through this approach are not only generally meaningless but also lawfully boring and mechanical. Conclusively speaking, the SA develops learner's structural competence to some extent but fails

miserably in developing their communicative competence. The principle of Structural Approach:

The principles underlying the structural approach are as following:

1. Language is primarily speech
2. Learning a language is learning a set of habits.
3. We should teach the language, not about the language
4. Language (English and Indian Language) are different.

The structural approach is usually connected with the oral approach. The best way to learn a language, even if the main aims are the skills of reading and writing, is through the oral presentation of the new material by the teacher. The structural approach is linked with the repetitive drill method. People believe that through drills, a new word or structure gets fixed in the students mind. By miming and memorisation of set phrases and sentences used by the teacher, pupils form the correct language habits. Importance is given to pronunciation through the use of tapes and the visual aids. There is a very little or no explanation of grammar of the language. Drills are varied by using new objects, but keeping the basic structure unchanged.

Advantage

Most of the allegations against structural approach are because of mixing it up as a method. Structural approach is not a method. It is a view point, a matter of principle involved in the teaching of a language. Approach therefore, is more pragmatic in its outlook and may go with any method.

1. Structural approach can be easily adopted at all stages.
2. It emphasise the equal importance of the fourfold linguistic aims of listening, speaking, reading and writing.
3. Structural approach rightly assigns primacy to speech and also called aural-oral approach.
4. It is based on the principle of simple to complex.
5. This approach junctions by developing learning situations for pushing desired structure.

Disadvantage

1. It is not very useful for Indian setting.
2. It becomes very difficult to cover the whole syllabus.

3. Average teacher will not be able to cope up with the structural approach.

1.5.3 Whole language Approach

In the simplest [terms](#), the “[whole language](#) approach” is an approach of teaching children to read by recognizing words as whole pieces of language. Proponents of the whole language philosophy believe that language should not be broken down into letters and combinations of letters and “decoded.” Instead, they believe that language is a complete system of making meaning, with words functioning in relation to each other in context. The philosophy of whole language is complex and draws from education, linguistics, psychology, sociology, and anthropology. Whole language is a constructivist approach to education; constructivist teachers emphasize that students create (construct) their own knowledge from what they encounter. Using a holistic approach to teaching, constructivist teachers do not believe that students learn effectively by analyzing small chunks of a system, such as learning the letters of the alphabet in order to learn language. Constructivist instructors see learning as a cognitive experience unique to each learner’s own perspective and prior knowledge, which forms the framework for new knowledge.

Whole language approach is based on the belief that children learn to read by writing, and vice versa. This approach encourages children to read and write for “real purposes,” with nonfiction texts and interpretation of what they read forming much of the basis of their assignments. The whole language approach to reading also stresses the love of literature and the use of engaging texts to help children develop that love. Teachers who use this approach exclusively do not place heavy emphasis in the early grades on spelling and grammar, which can make some parents uncomfortable. The whole language philosophy emphasizes children’s efforts to make meaning and seek meaning in language; therefore, correcting errors places the focus on technical correctness, which is not where whole language teachers believe it should be. The effective whole language teacher “hears and sees through” the child’s error, using the information gained for formative assessment, and then creates experiences that help the child to acquire the correct structure and form.

1.5.4 Task based Approach

Task-based teaching offers an alternative for language teachers. In a task-based lesson the teacher doesn't pre-determine what language will be studied, the lesson is based around the completion of a central task and the language studied is determined by what happens as the students complete it.

1.5.5 Thematic Approach

Under this approach a proper theme is identified and after that further course of action is taken. Thematic approach is an approach of exploration development of the language to be mastered with the reality of the people's environment. This approach offers continuity from lesson to lesson as well as the flexibility in structure, implementation and the individual outcomes. This approach avoids the compartmentalisation of English teaching lessons.

A teacher can identify a theme, somehow randomly out of the classroom discussion by focusing particular topic of interest. In this way a teacher can take the themes from the interest of the students. There is no structured plan for the identifying the theme of the classroom discussion. A structured programme may hinder the natural inhibitions of the students. A student may take some story from some television programme or from some road side incident. After that a teacher may arrange some resources and material for the students.

1.5.6 Eclectic Approach

Larsen-Freeman (2000) and Mellow (2000) both have used the term principled eclecticism to describe a desirable, coherent, pluralistic approach to language teaching. Eclecticism means the use of a variety of language learning activities, each of which may have very different characteristics and may be motivated by different underlying assumptions. The use eclecticism is due to the fact that there are strengths as well as weaknesses of single theory based methods. Reliance upon a single theory of teaching has been criticized because the use of a limited number of techniques can become mechanic. The students, thus, cannot get benefits of learning. The use of eclecticism does not mean to mix up different approaches randomly. There must have some philosophical backgrounds and some systematic

relation among different activities. Usually it is recommended to mix structural approaches with communicative use of language.

Practice Questions

7. What do you mean by communicative language teaching approach?
8. What do you mean by thematic approach?
9. Explain the whole language approach.
10. What is structural approach? Explain this approach in detail by mentioning the advantages as well as disadvantages.

1.6 Summary

In this chapter we have studied about the difference between approach, method and technique by discussing the various methods and approaches of English language teaching. The methods and approaches studied are as following: Grammar translation method, Direct method, Audio-lingual method; Communicative approach, Whole language approaches, Task based approach, Thematic Approach, Structural approach, Eclectic approach

1.7 Glossary

1. **Approach:** An approach is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. An approach is axiomatic. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught.
2. **Method:** Method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic, a method is procedural.
3. **Technique:** A technique represents implementation; it is the actual implementation of a method in the classroom. It is a particular thing of doing things to accomplish an immediate objective.

1.8 Suggested Reading

15. Abercrombie, D. (1967). *Elements of General Phonetics*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
16. Britton, J. (1975). Teaching Writing. In A. Davies (Ed.), *Problems of Language and Learning*. London: Heinemann.
17. Byrne, D. (1979). *Teaching Writing Skills*. London: Longman.
18. Cook, V. (1991). *Second Language Learning and Language Teaching*. London: Edward Arnold.
19. Crystal, D. (1986). *Listen to Your Child: A Parents' Guide to Children's Language*. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.
20. Doff, A. (1988). *Teaching English. A Training Course for Teachers. Trainer's Handbook*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
21. Field, J. (1983). *Listening Comprehension*. London: Macmillan.
22. Freeman, A. (1991). *Mastering Study Skills*. London: The Macmillan Press Ltd.
23. Howatt. (1984). *A History of English Language Teaching*. OUP.
24. Howatt. (1984). *The History of Language Teaching*. OUP.
25. Howatt, A. P. (1984). *A History of English Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
26. Hutchinson, T., & Alan, W. (1987). *English for Specific Purposes: A Learner-centred Approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
27. Krashen, S. (1981). *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. New York: Pergamon Press.
28. McLaughlin, B. (1987). *Theories of Second Language Learning*. London: Edward Arnold.
29. O'Connor, J. (1970). *Better English Pronunciation*. London: ELBS.
30. Prabhu, N. S. *Second Language Pedagogy*. ELBS with OUP.

31. Richards, J. C. (1985). *The Context of Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
32. Richards, J. C. (1985). *The Context of Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
33. Richards, J. C. (1990). *The Language Teaching Matrix*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
34. Rivers, W. M. (1980). Foreign Language Acquisition: Where the real problems lie. *Applied Linguistics*, 1, 48-59.
35. Scarborough, D. (1984). *Reasons for Listening*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
36. Stern, H. H. (1983). *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching*. OUP.
37. Verma, S. K. (1994). Teaching English as a second language in India. In R. K. Agnihotri, & A. L. Khanna, *Second Language Acquisition*. New Delhi: Sage.
38. White, R. (1980). *Teaching Written English*. London: George Allen and Unwin.
39. Widdowson, H. G. (1990). *Aspects of Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
40. Williams, E. (1984). *Reading in the Language Classroom*. Hongkong: Modern English Publications

1.9 Essay Type Question

1. What is the concept of method, approach and technique? Explain
2. Why translation cum grammar method is still a popular method in India? Explain.
3. What is direct method? How it is beneficial for the English language learners?
4. Write a detail note on communicative language teaching.

Unit 2- Listening Skill

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Objective
- 2.3 The concept of Listening
- 2.4 Sub skills of listening
- 2.5 Materials and resources for developing listening skill
 - 2.5.1 Story telling
 - 2.5.2 Situational Conversation
 - 2.5.3 Role Plays
 - 2.5.4 Simulations
 - 2.5.5 Speech Games and Contexts
- 2.6 Language laboratory
- 2.7 Multimedia material and assessing listening
- 2.8 Summary
- 2.9 Glossary
- 2.10 Suggested Reading
- 2.11 Essay Type Question

2.1 Introduction

Listening is the one of the important language skill yet the most neglected skill in classroom setting. It is a neglected skill not because we do not recognise the importance of listening but because we take it for granted that learners automatically acquire this skill with any special training. We think we give students enough practice in listening in our classroom through our expository methods of teaching. But the matter is not as simple as it appears to be. Listening involves various aspects in it. In this unit you will be able to learn different aspects of listening.

2.2 Objective

After studying this unit you will be able to

9. Students will be able tell the meaning listening comprehension.
10. Students will be able to understand the importance of language lab in enhancing listening skill.
11. Students will be able to understand the importance of sub- skills of listening.
12. Students will be able to use the material and resources for listening skill.
13. Students will be able to assess the listening skill.

2.3 The Concept of Listening

Listening is an active process. It can be depicted as follows.

Input-----Processing-----Output

By input, we simply mean the words spoken by the speaker and by the output the listeners' response. The listener processes the input before coming out with his/her output. Now we will understand that what happens during the processes stage? The input could be processed in the following way.

A. Bottom up processing

B. Top up Processing

In bottom up processing, the listener depends solely upon the incoming input for the meaning of the message. The input is received and analysed at different levels of organisation. The sound signals are organised into words, the words into phrases, phrases into clauses, and the clauses into whole sentence. In bottom up processing, listener uses their lexical and grammatical competence in the language for getting the intended meaning of the message.

In top down processing listeners rely on their background knowledge for understanding the message. So, input is not the only source of meaning. Listeners through their knowledge of the world make guesses of the intended meaning of the message and approach the input to confirm them and fill out the specific details.

However, good listeners know when to use which type of processing and when to use both types of processing, and the choice usually depends upon the listeners' purpose of listening, their familiarity with topic and their background knowledge.

Let us take an utterance from a conversation and look at the process which we go through before we understand its intended meaning.

Input: Ram is fond of fruits

The input is first organised into words.

Ram/ is/ fond/ of/ fruits

Then it is organised into sense groups.

Ram/ is fond of/ fruits.

Our knowledge of grammar helps us in this process.

With the help of our mental dictionary, we arrive at the propositional meaning of the utterance. The propositional meaning attributes a certain quality to Ram. Until now we have used bottom up strategies.

We may on the other hand use a top down strategy. An utterance can have many meanings depending on the context in which it is used and usually we get the clue to the intended meaning when we look at the utterance(s) which precede(s) or follow(s) it.

Ram is conscious about his health. Ram is fond of sweets.

With the help of the underlined utterance we can infer that the speaker is attributing a quality to Ram for being conscious of his health. The tone of the speaker also helps us in understanding the meaning. It tells us about the attitude of the speaker. We can know from the tone whether s/he approves or not.

Discourse markers and cohesive devices also help us in interpreting the message. Listeners can also know the attitude of the speaker to preceding and subsequent propositions with the help of proposition markers such as of course, really, and establish continuity between one utterance and another with the help of discourse markers such as actually well anyway and now. We can also use cues such as talking about that reminds you of by the way to identify directions in topic development.

So the following process is involved in comprehension.

1. The type of interactional act or speech event in which the listener is involved is determined (e.g. conversation, lecture, discussion, debate).
2. Scripts related to particular situations are recalled.
3. The goals of the speaker are inferred through reference to the situation, the script, and the sequential position of the utterance.
4. The propositional meaning of the utterance is determined.
5. An illocutionary meaning is assigned to the message.
6. This information is retained and acted upon, and the form in which it was originally received is deleted.

Types of Listening

Adrian Doff (1988) talks about the following types of listening:

1. **Casual Listening:** Many times we listen to someone or something without any particular purpose. At such times, we often do not listen to them with much concentration, unless we hear something which interests us. This type of listening is often found in social contexts when we interact with others.
2. **Focussed listening:** it is 'intensive listening' for information or for transacting business. The listener is attentive and concentrates on what the speaker is saying.

Listening involves processing the data, reconstructing the data and giving meaning to the data. But hearing is just letting the sound signals bombard your eardrum. The signals are received and recorded but they are not processed. Listening thus is an active process whereas hearing is passive.

When we go out into the street, we hear many sounds but when we switch on the radio for the news, we listen to the news.

Barriers to Listening

Some of the reasons of unsuccessful listening are:

1. The listener may not have listened to something properly.

2. S/he may have listened to it properly but may not have comprehended the message because of the difficult words or the sentence patterns used.
3. S/he may have heard the speaker but may not have listened to him/her because of the pre- occupation of his/her mind with something else.
4. S/he may have listened to and understood the speaker but may have succeeded in interpreting the message because of lack of previous knowledge. Sometimes listeners can make sense of what they hear only when they interpret the spoken language with the help of their previous knowledge or the knowledge of the world. A lack of background knowledge can lead to serious problem of comprehension.

Questions for Exercise

1. What do you mean by listening?
2. Write about the different types of listening?
3. Write about the process involved in comprehension?
4. Write the barriers to listening?

2.4 Sub Skills of Listening

Sub- skills can be understood as the pupil's competencies expressed in behavioural term. They are also known as enabling skills. Pupils acquire these skills when they are provided with ample opportunities to listen to good models of spoken English.

Richards (1983) identified as many as 50 micro- level sub-skills in listening that the students of English, in a second language situation, are expected to master to understand the day to day conversational discourse. These skills are indispensable to develop listening for comprehension and listening for conversation.

The following are some of the sub-skills of listening

The students

- i. Understand the meanings of words, phrases and sentences
- ii. Follow directions and commands given by the speaker

- iii. Understand intonation patterns, pauses in speech, stress etc which provide clues to understand the speakers tone and intention.
- iv. Understand simple descriptions and narrations
- v. Understand the meaning of inverted statements
- vi. Understand questions and respond to them suitably
- vii. Recognise cohesive devices like ‘such as’, ‘in addition to’, ‘in fact’ ‘in tune with’, etc., used by the speaker

What are the sub skills of listening?

By sub- skills we mean the students’ competences written in behavioural terms. They are: students

- i. Understand the meanings of words
- ii. Follow commands/ directions given orally
- iii. Interpret elementary intonation patterns
- iv. Understand questions
- v. Understand simple narration/descriptions
- vi. To help students acquire these skills, teachers should ensure that students
- vii. Realise the need for listening to English in the classroom attentively (as they did, to learn their mother tongue, as babies).
- viii. Realise that they can speak English words only after listening to those words intensively.
- ix. Listen to (or get exposed to) good English
- x. Enjoy listening to the English language.
- xi. Understand what the teachers says through the technique used, namely teaching aids, gestures, students’ activities, blackboard drawings etc
- xii. Are not laughed at or made fun of when they make errors in any manner.

These sub-skills in listening can be learnt by the students effectively when they practise them keeping in mind the purpose of listening, namely, listening for perception, listening for comprehension and listening for conversation. Towards these objectives, teachers can follow some technique. Some of them are described here. They must not forget that if students acquire the listening skill properly, they will find the learning of other language skills fairly easy. The teacher should do this

to brush up their English usage, improve their pronunciation and provide a good model of spoken English to their students.

Question for Exercise

5. What are the sub skills of listening?
6. What do you mean by sub - skills of listening?

2.5 Materials and Resources for Developing the Listening Skill

Many teachers admit that they do not teach English through English. They often say that if they did that their learner should not be able to follow them. They also say that they are forced to use regional language much against their wish. When a teacher uses English in the classroom s/he makes listening demand on the learner. When s/he explains, they should understand it; when s/he praises or rebukes someone, they should know it. But listening in a foreign language is not an easy task. It needs training. The teacher has to prepare the students for understanding him/her and other teachers in the school/college and also comprehend the message of others outside the classroom, in real-life settings. Only then, can s/he expect the learners to respond to the demands of listening.

2.5.1 Story Telling Method

A teacher can think of many other ways of teaching listening. S/he can come out with his/her own listening activities if the textbook does not have enough of them.

For example, the teacher can tell the learners a story, real or imaginary and pause frequently while narrating the story and ask them to guess what is going to happen next.

“A, few nights ago, I was asleep at home as usual. At about three o’clock in the morning.....(what happened?)....I was suddenly awakened by a noise....(what noise)of rushing water....(what was it) . It came from the bathroom, so I got up and went to investigate.(what was it?). I found to my dismay that the cold water pipe

burst and the water was pouring all over the floor...(so what did I do?) So I got a bucket and put it underneath...(what should I have done?) Then I realised what I should have done. I went out into the hall and turned off the main tap.” (Doff,1988)

When we listen to a story, we want to know what happens next. So the use of these questions is natural. However, the teacher should see to it that all the learners take part in discussions. S/he should try to get as many answers as possible. This technique will help the learners in developing their ability to predict, which is an important sub skill of listening.

2.5.2 Situational Conversation

In real-life listening situations, most of the spoken language we listen to is informal, spontaneous and can contain many features like slurred speech, colloquial vocabulary and incorrect grammar. Listeners usually know in advance something about what is going to be said as they expect to hear something relevant to the context in which they find themselves. Speakers usually direct what they are saying at the listener and take the listener's character and intentions into account when speaking. Naturally, listeners are normally speakers as well as we usually respond to what we are listening to by taking part in the conversation or by answering questions.

A small amount of the listening we do is done blindly through listening to the radio or talking on the phone. However, most of the time, there is something or someone to look at that is linked to what is being said.

2.5.3 Role Plays

Role-playing takes place between two or more people, who act out roles to explore a particular scenario. By preparing for a situation using role-play, you build up experience and self-confidence with handling the situation in real life, and you can develop quick and instinctively correct reactions to situations. This means that you'll react effectively as situations evolve, rather than making mistakes or becoming overwhelmed by events.

To role-play:

- i. Identify the situation.

- ii. Add details.
- iii. Assign roles.
- iv. Act out the scenario.
- v. Discuss what you have learned.

2.5.4 Simulations

Listening activities based on simulated real-life situations are more motivating and interesting to do than working through textbook comprehension exercises, which quickly becomes boring. Try some of the following listening texts and tasks that are likely to grab your student's attention.

Formal talk: Listening texts should be based on discourse that is genuine, improvised or spontaneous speech. Written text simply read aloud is likely to be stilted and won't incorporate characteristics of informal speech such as spontaneity.

- Direct speaker-listener interaction: Instead of the conventional use of audio recordings, try to write some of the texts yourself or use a video as a positive contribution to effective listening practice.
- Single exposure: In real-life listening situations, discourse can't be exactly repeated. So, try to encourage students to develop the ability of extracting the information they need from a single hearing. For students to master this ability, information can be provided more than once within the original listening text. As in real-life situations, students can ask for a repeat or explanation of what was said but the discourse should not automatically be played through several times if students do not ask for repeats.
- Expectations: Giving students an idea of what they are going to hear is the same as putting them in a real-life context where they will know what to expect due to the context they find themselves in.
- Purpose: Explain what the purpose of the listening exercise is as this helps students to listen selectively for significant information.

2.5.5 Speech Games and Contexts

Using games to teach effective listening to children is a fun way to develop auditory skills and social development. Listening is key to following directions and developing the ability to remember concepts taught in the classroom. Games serve as repetitive activities that enhance these skills and cultivate auditory and literacy development. You can even use games as a way to exercise the brain and promote retention of academic content. Listening activities condition children to develop new vocabulary and recognize appropriate grammar. For this purpose following game may be very helpful.

The teacher says two sentences

They must leave.

They must live.

Students should say whether the sentences are the same or different and award points to one of the groups. They respond by raising their hands if the sentences are the same and keep quiet if they are different. Those who make a mistake are out of the game.

The teacher shows an object or draws a picture on the blackboard and says a sentence is relevant students should respond, say by raising their hands or else they should keep quiet. These games enhance the students' listening comprehension.

Guess Who Game

Playing games with varying sounds helps children learn to identify and connect sounds with objects. This promotes perception and language development. Try making animal sounds or use a recording and ask your child to identify the corresponding animal. If they identify the animal, show them a picture to reinforce their learning. This listening and identification activity will reinforce the connection between sounds and symbols. Share 10 key concepts with a group of older children and ask them to write down five of them. Repeat these three or four times and give a prize to the child that recalls the most. This game connects listening with memory and content retention.

Hide and Seek

Following directions is a beginning listening concept that is critical for young children. Try hiding a small toy or treat and use verbal cues to help your child find the item. Use simple directions but emphasize that finding the treasure hinges on their ability to listen to you. Older children can hone their listening skills by working together to decipher a verbal puzzle. For example, pick a famous person and tell the group they can ask 20 questions to figure out the name of the person. Impress upon the children that listening and connecting the information shared is the key to success.

Questions for Exercise

7. What do you understand by speech games? How speech games help in developing listening skill.
8. What is simulation?
9. What is a role play?
10. Explain in detail about the story- telling methods.

2.6 Language Laboratory

Language Laboratory: A Language laboratory is a room designed for learning language (especially second/foreign language) and equipped with tape recorders, video cassette recorders, or computers connected to monitoring devices enabling the instructor to listen and speak to the students individually or as a group. A teacher can use varied materials in a language laboratory with individual tape recorders for each pupil and with facilities for the teacher to check learners' work. Most of the suggestion for exercises can also be used with a simple tape recorder in class, but listening practice is often more effective when the learner has his own machine and can listen to the same piece many times. Tape recorders can be used to help the pupil both to understand and to speak the language he is studying. Computer has brought about a revolution in the field of language laboratory. Firstly, the most effective use of the laboratory is likely to be in the training and

development of listening skills. A very simple analysis of listening would give it four headings: understanding a speaker's accent or pronunciation, understanding his grammar, recognizing his vocabulary and being able to grasp the meaning of what he says. As teachers of a foreign/second language we may then construct exercises to practice each of these aspects of listening one by one. However, effective comprehension depends on our being able to do everything at once and so the learner must also have some chance of natural listening practice that is not directed towards any particular aspect of listening skill but involves them all. Secondly, the language laboratory can also be used in a more limited way to train speech habits. The language laboratory is not as suitable for speaking practice as it is for listening practice. You can listen to and learn from a tape/computer, but you cannot really talk to one. You can only simulate talking.

Listening in the language lab can therefore be a real language experience, whereas talking in the lab is only a rehearsal for real conversation. We can discuss speaking exercises in the lab under two headings-intuition and manipulation. Dialogue exchanges can be recorded to practice the pronunciation of particular sounds, stress, rhythm patterns and intonation. The learner can repeat these models in the privacy of the laboratory as many times as he wants to. The learner cannot, practice speaking in a language laboratory, but he can practice using the rules of the language that he will need when he speaks. Exercises or drills for those purposes can be divided into two type exercises that require substitution and those which require transformation. To be effective, language laboratory lessons need to be carefully planned and integrated with classroom. Laboratory materials also need to be interesting as well as relevant, if possible amusing as well as systematic.

2.7 Multimedia Material and Assessing Learning

Multi-Media Resource- For recent pedagogical instruction of listening, multi-media materials surely present a significant resource of input. Various multimedia resources may be used in the following manner:

- i. **Audio Resources-** Teacher can teach listening skills through audio segments of radio programs, online podcasts, instructional lectures and other

audio messages. You should model this interactive listening process in class with your students, and then instruct them to repeat the exercise on their own. First, instruct students to prepare for listening by considering anything that they will want to learn from the content of the audio segment. Once they have written down or shared these ideas, then play the audio segment, allowing the students to take notes if helpful. Once they have gained confidence and experience, repeat this activity but instruct students to not take notes until the completion of the audio segment. You can use shorter or longer audio segments, and you can choose more accessible or more challenging material for this type of exercise.

- ii. **Video Resources** -Another helpful resource for teaching listening skills are video resources, including short sketches, news programs, documentary films, interview segments, and dramatic and comedic material. As with audio resources, select the portion and length of the video segment based on the skill level of your students. With your students, first watch the segment without any sound and discuss it together. Encourage the students to identify what they think will be the content of the segment. Then, watch the segment again, this time with sound, allowing students to take notes if helpful for their skill level. After the completion of the video segment, you can have students write a brief summary of the segment, or you can take time to discuss as a group how the segment compares with the students' expectations.

Assessing Listening Skill

In order to provide authentic assessment of students' listening proficiency, a post-listening activity must reflect the real-life uses to which students might put information they have gained through listening.

- It must have a purpose other than assessment
- It must require students to demonstrate their level of listening comprehension by completing some task.

To develop authentic assessment activities, consider the type of response that listening to a particular selection would elicit in a non-classroom situation. For

example, after listening to a weather report one might decide what to wear the next day; after listening to a set of instructions, one might repeat them to someone else; after watching and listening to a play or video, one might discuss the story line with friends.

Use this response type as a base for selecting appropriate post-listening tasks. You can then develop a checklist or rubric that will allow you to evaluate each student's comprehension of specific parts of the aural text.

For example, for listening practice you have students listen to a weather report. Their purpose for listening is to be able to advise a friend what to wear the next day. As a post-listening activity, teacher should ask students to select appropriate items of clothing from a collection you have assembled, or write a note telling the friend what to wear, or provide oral advice to another student (who has not heard the weather report). To evaluate listening comprehension, teacher may use a checklist containing specific features of the forecast, marking those that are reflected in the student's clothing recommendations.

Question for Exercise

11. Write a note on language laboratory?
12. What do you mean by multi- media resources? How a multi- media resource can be useful in enhancing listening skill?
13. How can a teacher assess the listening skill of a student?

2.8 Summary

In this unit we have discussed about the listening. There are various types of listening primarily casual listening, focused listening. There are various techniques and methods of teaching English such as story-telling method, situational conversations method; role plays method, simulations method, speech method, games method. There are various barriers to listening also. Multimedia resources may prove quite helpful in addressing listening skill.

2.9 Glossary

1. **Casual Listening:** Many times we listen to someone or something without any particular purpose. At such times, we often do not listen to them with much concentration, unless we hear something which interests us.
2. **Focussed listening:** It is 'intensive listening' for information or for transacting business. The listener is attentive and concentrates on what the speaker is saying.
3. **Story telling Method:** The teacher can tell the learners a story, real or imaginary and pause frequently while narrating the story and ask them to guess what is going to happen next.

2.10 Suggested Reading

1. Abercrombie, D. (1967). *Elements of General Phonetics*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
2. Britton, J. (1975). *Teaching Writing*. In A. Davies (Ed.), *Problems of Language and Learning*. London: Heinemann.
3. Byrne, D. (1979). *Teaching Writing Skills*. London: Longman.
4. Cook, V. (1991). *Second Language Learning and Language Teaching*. London: Edward Arnold.
5. Crystal, D. (1986). *Listen to Your Child: A Parents' Guide to Children's Language*. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.
6. Doff, A. (1988). *Teaching English. A Training Course for Teachers. Trainer's Handbook*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
7. Field, J. (1983). *Listening Comprehension*. London: Macmillan.
8. Freeman, A. (1991). *Mastering Study Skills*. London: The Macmillan Press Ltd.
9. Geddes, M. (1988). *How to Listen*. London: BBC.
10. Grellet, F. (1981). *Developing Reading Skills*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

11. Harris, M., & Colthart, M. (1990). *Language Processing in Children and Adults*. London: Routledge.
12. Hedge, T. (1988). *Writing: Resource Book for Teachers*. (A. Maley, Ed.) Oxford: Oxford University Press.
13. Howatt. (1984). *A History of English Language Teaching*. OUP.
14. Howatt. (1984). *The History of Language Teaching*. OUP.
15. Howatt, A. P. (1984). *A History of English Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
16. Hutchinson, T., & Alan, W. (1987). *English for Specific Purposes: A Learner-centred Approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
17. Krashen, S. (1981). *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. New York: Pergamon Press.
18. Labov, W. (1963). Social motivation of a second change. *Word*, 19 (3), 273-309.
19. Lott, B. (1986). *A Course in English Language and Literature*. London: Edward Arnold.
20. McLaughlin, B. (1987). *Theories of Second Language Learning*. London: Edward Arnold.
21. O'Connor, J. (1970). *Better English Pronunciation*. London: ELBS.
22. Prabhu, N. S. *Second Language Pedagogy*. ELBS with OUP.
23. Richards, J. C. (1985). *The Context of Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
24. Richards, J. C. (1985). *The Context of Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
25. Richards, J. C. (1990). *The Language Teaching Matrix*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
26. Rivers, W. M. (1980). Foreign Language Acquisition: Where the real problems lie. *Applied Linguistics*, 1, 48-59.

27. Scarborough, D. (1984). *Reasons for Listening*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
28. Stern, H. H. (1983). *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching*. OUP.
29. Verma, S. K. (1994). Teaching English as a second language in India. In R. K. Agnihotri, & A. L. Khanna, *Second Language Acquisition*. New Delhi: Sage.
30. White, R. (1980). *Teaching Written English*. London: George Allen and Unwin.
31. Widdowson, H. G. (1990). *Aspects of Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
32. Williams, E. (1984). *Reading in the Language Classroom*. Hongkong: Modern English Publications.

2.11 Essay Type Question

1. What do you mean by listening? Explain the different sub- skills of listening.
2. What method may be opted for assessing the listening skill? Explain
3. Explain various methods of listening skill.
4. Write about the different speech games for enhancing listening skill.

Unit 3 - Speaking Skill

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Objective
- 3.3 The concept of Phonetics
 - 3.3.1 Stress
 - 3.3.2 Pitch
 - 3.3.3 Intonation
- 3.4 Material and resources for developing Speaking Skill
 - 3.4.1 Story telling Method
 - 3.4.2 Dialogue Method
 - 3.4.3 Situational conversation
 - 3.4.4 Role Plays
 - 3.4.5 Simulations
 - 3.4.6 Speech games and Contexts
- 3.5 Language Laboratory
 - 3.5.1 Multimedia Resources
- 3.6 Summary
- 3.7 Glossary
- 3.8 Suggested Reading
- 3.9 Essay Type Question

3.1 Introduction

Speaking skills is the ability to express opinions or thoughts and feelings to a person or group verbally, whether face or by distance. Alternatively speech is a natural means of communication between members of the public to express their

thoughts and as a form of social behaviour. In this unit we will study about various dimensions of speaking skill.

3.2 Objective

After reading this unit you will be able to

1. Students will be able to know about the basic concepts of phonetics.
2. Students will be able to know the importance of speaking skill.
3. Students will be able to know about the role of language laboratory in language learning.
4. Students will be oriented towards the use of various resources and teaching learning material.
5. Students will be able to use the different speech games for language learning.

3.3 The Concept of Phonetics

Phonetics is that branch of linguistics which deals with sound and speech sounds. It may be divided into three categories:

- a. Articulatory Phonetics: That deals with the production of sound by the organ of speech.
- b. Acoustic Phonetics: that deals with sound waves and the transmission of sound.
- c. Auditory phonetics: That deals with the reception of sound.

An understanding of the organs of speech is useful in the study of speech sounds. Study the following diagram and note the organs of speech.

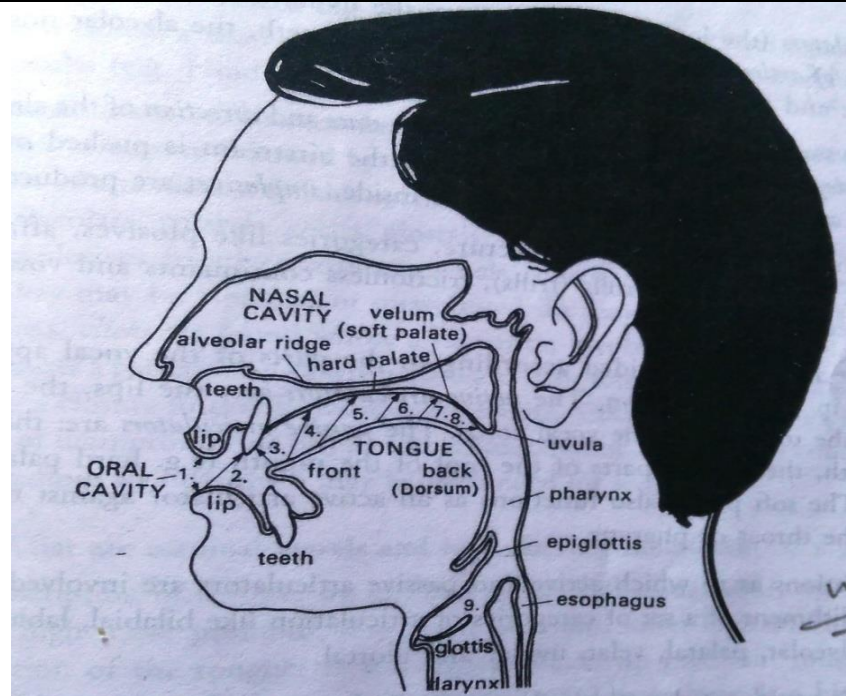


Figure 2.1

Figure 1.1: The vocal tract, places of articulation: 1. Bilabial 2. Labio- dental 3. Dental or interdental 4. Alveolar, 5. Palate- alveolar, 6. Palatal, 7. Velar, 8. Uvular, 9. Glottal

- I. The way speech sounds are produced can be divided into three categories depending upon the part the speech organs play in the production of speech:
 - a. Initiation- Generally the process of getting the airstream moving is initiated in the lungs. This is known as the *pulmonic* airstream. The other two are the *glottalic* airstream in which the larynx with the glottis firmly closed is the *initiator* and the *velaric* air stream where only the air in the mouth is set in motion.
 - b. Phonation- This refers to the part played by the vocal cords in the production of speech.

The opening between the vocal cords or bands is called glottis. If the glottis is wide enough to permit the air to pass through without any obstruction, a voiceless sound is produced (p, t, k). If the glottis is completely closed, a glottal stop is produced. If the glottis is half-open, the vocal cords vibrate and the sound produced is a voiced sound (b, d, g, m, n).

- c. Articulation-The parts which are involved in articulation may be divided into three groups – reasoning cavities or chambers (oral, nasal and pharyngeal), articulators (the lower lip, the tongue, the uvula and the lower jaw) and points of articulation (the upper lip, the upper teeth, the alveolar ridge, the palate and the velum)
- II. Speech sounds are classified according to the state and direction of the airstream and the degree of stricture of air passage. If the airstream is pushed outside, explosive are produced and if it is pushed inside, implosive are produced. On the basis of the degree of stricture, categories like plosive, affricates, fricatives, nasals, laterals, rolls(trills), frictionless continuants and vowels are established.

These are further subdivided according to the parts of the vocal apparatus involved in the articulation. The active articulators are: the lips, the various parts of the tongue and the vocal cords. The passive articulators are: the upper front teeth, the various parts of the roof of the mouth (e.g. hard palate, soft palate). The soft palate also functions as an active articulator against the back wall of the throat or pharynx.

Considerations as to which active and passive articulators are involved lead to the establishment of a set of categories of articulation like bilabial, labio-dental, dental, alveolar, palatal, velar, uvular and glottal.

- III. While vowels are characterised acoustically by the absence of audible friction and, from the articulatory point of view, by a free passage of air, consonants are noises that are pronounced with a stricture of the air stream. A distinction is made between momentary consonants (a complete closing followed by an abrupt opening) and continuous consonants. If a consonant is characterised by an exhalation of breath, an unvoiced noise, which is heard after the abrupt opening or explosion, it is aspirated; otherwise, it is unaspirated. The following chart shows the distinction:

	Aspirated	Unaspirated
Voiceless	Ph	p
Voiced	Bh	b

The tongue is divided into three parts: the extreme front (called the tip) , the next half inch (called the blade), and the back or dorsum. The tip and the blade together are called the apex.

The consonant and vowel system: A vowel is a sound produced by the unobstructed passage of the air stream without the oral cavity being constricted enough to cause audible friction. Vowels are generally voiced but there are also vowels (e.g. Hindi) if the oral exit is closed, a nasal vowel results; if the oral exit is partly closed, a nasalised vowel results (e.g. Hindi).

A consonant is a sound characterised by constriction accompanied by some measure of friction or closure followed by release. Consonants are classified according to the point of articulation (bilabials, labio-dentals, dentals, inter-dentals, alveolar, palato-alveolars, palatals, velars, glottals, etc) and the manner of articulation (stops or plosives, fricatives, affricates, nasals, laterals, trills, flaps, retroflex sounds etc.). They may be aspirated or unaspirated. In some South African languages like Xhosa, clicks are found whose articulation involves making a velar closure which causes a partial vacuum when the back of the tongue is lowered and abruptly releasing a closure further forward in the mouth. Clicks occur in other languages as signs of disapproval or to encourage animals. The term continuant is used for those sounds which may be prolonged for some time.

3.3.1 Stress

Stress is a vital element in correct pronunciations and a great attention to it is essential. Stress means emphasis. If we make a sound with more energy, the sound will come out with force. If we make sound with less energy, the sound will come with less force. This indicates that there are degrees of stress.

Kinds of Stress: There are three kind of stress

1. Syllable Stress
2. Word Stress
3. Sentence Stress

Syllable Stress: There is a variation in stress on syllable in English. The main points concerning it are as follows:

- a. There are words of two syllables with stress on the first

- b. There are words of two syllables with stress on the second
- c. There are words of two syllables with stress on both
- d. There are words of three syllables with stress on first.
- e. There are words of three syllables with stress on second.
- f. There are words of three syllables with stress on third.
- g. Word of four syllables have usually the stress on the last but one.
- h. If a word of two syllables is used as a noun and a verb, the noun will have stress on the first syllable and the verb on the second syllable.

Word Stress:

- a. Content words are stressed and structural words are not stressed.
- b. Nouns, adjectives, main verbs and adverbs are stressed, whereas articles, auxiliary verbs, prepositions and conjunctions are not stressed.

Sentence Stress:

In a sentence some words are more important than others and this is indicated by stressing the words. Difference in stress leads to difference in the meaning, for instance:

- A. 'He is my brother. (Not anyone else)
- B. He is 'my brother. (Not anybody else)
- C. He 'is my brother. (Why do you doubt?)
- D. He is my 'brother. (Not sister)

3.3.2 Pitch

Pitch is the degree of highness or lowness with which one speaks. For example, some people naturally have a high-pitched voice. Emotional factors can also affect the pitch of someone's voice. For example, people may speak in a lower pitch when they are tired. Surprise may make them speak in a higher pitch than usual.

3.3.3 Intonation

Stannard Allen says, By intonation is meant the melody of speech, the changing pitch of the voice. It is to a certain extent controlled by stress, because important changes in pitch occur only on stressed syllable.

FW Frisby says, “Much of the meaning of spoken language is conveyed by the tune to which it is set.”

There are two main tunes used in appropriate contexts according to the emphasis which is required on certain words to bring out the required meaning. The teacher can practice the two types of tunes, which are common and frequent in speech.

The Falling Tune: This tune starts with the first stressed syllable fairly high and falls step by step, from stress to stress until the last significant (meaningful) stress is reached. The falling tune is indicated by a symbol in front of the last stressed syllable.

The Rising Tone: This tune starts with the first stressed syllable fairly low and rises step by step until the last stressed syllable. The rising tune is used for Yes-No questions, requests, doubtful remarks with mental reservations, and carries a sense of incompleteness. It is indicated by a mark before the syllable concerned.

Questions for exercise

1. What do you mean by stress?
2. What do you mean by intonation?
3. What do you mean by phonetics?

3.4 Methods for Enhancing Speaking Skill

Story- telling, dialogues, situational conversations, role plays, simulations, speech games and contexts

Though listening and speaking go together, it is the latter which makes the learner more active in learning process. Therefore, it is necessary to provide maximum opportunity to the pupils to speak the language. As a matter of fact in various developed countries the effectiveness of a lesson is judged by the ratio of the pupil speaking time (PST) to the teacher speaking time (TST) in a lesson period. The greater the PST the more effective the lesson is likely to be.

Chorus drills are often suggested as an effective technique providing oral practice in over- crowded class. This has both advantages and disadvantages. The advantages lies in the fact that chorus drills do give some opportunity for imitative repetition and to the extent such repetition is necessary, they have a place in language teaching. Chorus drills are also encouraging for the shy pupils; and because of their ritualistic nature, they can be very motivating in the lower classes.

3.4.1 Story Telling Method

When teaching speaking English for the students, it constantly have to keep in mind the fact that what we have in front of us is admixed class with expectations, motivation level, knowledge and last but not least, different learning styles. Thus, we need to vary our approaches and offer as much opportunity as possible to make the whole class find a little something to hold on too, expand and grow. A teacher can think of many other ways of teaching speaking. S/he can come out with his/her own speaking activities if the textbook does not have enough of them.

For example, the teacher can ask the learners to tell a story, real or imaginary and ask him to pause frequently while narrating the story and ask other students to guess what is going to happen next. Storytelling, the art of narrating a tale from memory rather than reading is one of the oldest of all art forms. Storytelling is the original form of teaching and has the potential of fostering emotional intelligence and helps the child gain insight into human behavior. Storytelling is an activity that enables the students to understand the story and able to tell the story with their own language development.

For speaking class teacher who wishes to use storytelling, it is best to begin by choosing a simple story with only a few characters and an uncomplicated plot. The story should have action, the plot should be understandable to the students, and the events of the story should have a definite climax that leads to a conclusion the students will find satisfactory. In the classroom following activities may be conducted:

Activity 1

Divide the students into groups and each group prepares a story. Each member of the group tells two to three sentences and the next one continues until the end of the story could gradually increase from two or three minutes. Before the lesson, the students could divide their tasks in advance and practice their own parts. They could also be given a few minutes to practice in class the whole story if necessary. The teacher moves among the groups and chooses two or three groups to present their stories before the class. Because the students have enough time to prepare and they are working together, this helps them build confidence and create a lively and brisk atmosphere.

Activity 2

Divide the students into four to five groups and each group is given an opening of a story and asked to finish the story in about 20 minutes. Then select one student from each group to tell their story in the class and the best one wins 10 points for their group. To get everyone fully involved and avoid the liability that each group just asks their best storyteller to do the job, the storyteller are selected by drawing lots instead of being chosen by them. This is also helps enliven the atmosphere of the classroom. So each group must work together to make the story as interesting as they can. An alternative way is to ask each member of the group to tell a part of the story and make a whole.

Activity 3

Ask each group to hand in an incomplete story and redistribute them among the groups. Give the students 20 minutes to read their stories and finish them. After each group presents their story, compare it with the original one. The most interesting one and the one closest to the original win.

Activity 4

The teacher gives the first sentence to the class and then each student adds one more sentence to make a whole story impromptu. Because there is no preparation and nobody has an idea about what the next person will say and where the story is going, there are often lots of fun and surprise in the game.

3.4.2 Dialogue Method

Dialogue method is also quite helping in enhancing the speaking skill of students. A teacher can create various situations for utilising the dialogue method. In this method small dialogues may be given to student as the starting of the conversation and later on the whole conversation may be built up.

3.4.3 Situational Conversation

In real-life situations, most of the spoken language is informal, spontaneous and can contain many features like slurred speech, colloquial vocabulary and incorrect grammar. Speakers usually know in advance something about what is going to be said as they expect to hear something relevant to the context in which they find themselves. In the classroom situation also some situation may be created for the students and they will be asked to talk in that situation.

3.4.4 Role Plays

Role-play is commonly regarded as a useful activity for developing oral skills. Role-playing takes place between two or more people, who act out roles to explore a particular scenario. By preparing for a situation using role-play, you build up experience and self-confidence with handling the situation in real life, and you can develop quick and instinctively correct reactions to situations. This means that you'll react effectively as situations evolve, rather than making mistakes or becoming overwhelmed by events. Role play has high appeal for students because it allows them to be creative and to put themselves in another person's place for a while

To role-play

- vi. Identify the situation.
- vii. Add details.
- viii. Assign roles.
- ix. Act out the scenario.
- x. Discuss what you have learned.

3.4.5 Simulations

Simulation is a technique of teaching learning that is based on an actual situation. Simulation is designed to replicate a real life situation. Students can participate in the simple system and learn how the real system operates without spending the days, weeks, or years to do this experience in the real world. Furthermore, the students can bring prop to create the real situation. Through simulation technique, there are so many advantages for students in learning process. Simulation can bring fun for students and the teacher. Simulation is very useful to improve students' speaking skill, where the emphasis is on fluency and not so much on accuracy. The most important thing in simulation, namely; the students imagine themselves in a situation outside the classroom and use language appropriate to this new context. It means that the students are not acting as themselves, but they are someone else. So it can develop the imagination and self-confidence of the students. Therefore, it can inspire and motivate the student to be more active, creative, and brave to speak when teaching learning process. As a result, simulation can improve students' speaking skill.

Simulation is very similar to role-plays but what makes simulation different than role plays is that they are more complex. In simulation, students can bring items to the class to create a realistic environment. For instance, if a student is acting as a singer, he brings a microphone to sing. Simulation encourages students to actively participate in the teaching learning process because this activity provides a way of creating a rich communicative environment where students actively become part of some real world systems and functions according to the predetermined roles as members of that group. Simulation increases students' self-confidence because in simulation activities, students have different roles and do not speak themselves. It means that they do not have to take the same responsibility. By using simulation, students expected to be able to speak English actively, creatively and confidently.

The student activities is so dynamic in the learning process because the students are involved directly and the student can make the student accustomed to understand the story or the real problem and this case called learning implementation based on

contextual learning. By grouping learning can make personal relationship well and also can increase their imagination.

3.4.6 Speech Games and Contexts

Games are quite helpful in developing speaking skill among small children. Games offer students a fun-filled and relaxing learning atmosphere. After learning and practicing new vocabulary, students have the opportunity to use language in a non-stressful way. While playing games, the learners' attention is on the message, not on the language. Rather than pay attention to the correctness of linguistic forms, most participants will do all they can to win. This eases the fear of negative evaluation, the concern of being negatively judged in public, and which is one of the main factors inhibiting language learners from using the target language in front of other people. In a game-oriented context, anxiety is reduced and speech fluency is generated, thus communicative competence is achieved. There may be various games, but here we will learn about few of them.

I. Story Starters

Prepare a list of opening sentences or phrases. For example: 'It was a dark and stormy night', 'In 20 years time I will be ...', 'It made me yell', 'Something is terribly wrong ...', 'This is the secret I've never shared before', 'I never knew what happened ...', 'Sometimes I just want to ...', 'You know it's Summer when ...', 'Happy birthday to you, happy birthday to you',

II. Continuous Story

This is best done with a group of people. Each person gets up and might speak for anywhere from 20 seconds to a minute and they start telling a story. And when their time is up, the next person has to get up and they have to continue the story.

So, obviously each person doesn't know what the person before them is going to say and so they have to continue the story.

The goal of this is to make the story make sense. This game helps people engage in listening and learn to be creative enough to make the story continue on and make sense.

Ask the students to begin their story with the given opener, building a story and extending it however they wish. This will help them in thinking creatively and give them fluency in language speaking. Question for exercise

1. How story telling method helps in developing speaking skill? Explain
2. What is the role of role play in enhancing speaking skill of students
3. How role play is different from simulation? Explain.

3.5 Language Laboratory

A Language laboratory is a room designed for learning language (especially second/foreign language) and equipped with tape recorders, video cassette recorders, or computers connected to monitoring devices enabling the instructor to listen and speak to the students individually or as a group. A teacher can use varied materials in a language laboratory with individual tape recorders for each pupil and with facilities for the teacher to check learners' work. Most of the suggestion for exercises can also be used with a simple tape recorder in class, but listening practice is often more effective when the learner has his own machine and can listen to the same piece many times. Tape recorders can be used to help the pupil both to understand and to speak the language he is studying. Computer has brought about a revolution in the field of language laboratory. Firstly, the most effective use of the laboratory is likely to be in the training and development of listening skills. A very simple analysis of listening would give it four headings: understanding a speaker's accent or pronunciation, understanding his grammar, recognizing his vocabulary and being able to grasp the meaning of what he says. As teachers of a foreign/second language we may then construct exercises to practice each of these aspects of listening one by one. However, effective comprehension depends on our being able to do everything at once and so the learner must also have some chance of natural listening practice that is not directed towards any particular aspect of listening skill but involves them all. Secondly, the language laboratory can also be used in a more limited way to train speech habits. The language laboratory is not as suitable for speaking practice as it is for listening practice. You can listen to and

learn from a tape/computer, but you cannot really talk to one. You can only simulate talking.

Listening in the language lab can therefore be a real language experience, whereas talking in the lab is only a rehearsal for real conversation. We can discuss speaking exercises in the lab under two headings-intuition and manipulation. Dialogue exchanges can be recorded to practice the pronunciation of particular sounds, stress, rhythm patterns and intonation. The learner can repeat these models in the privacy of the laboratory as many times as he wants to. The learner cannot, practice speaking in a language laboratory, but he can practice using the rules of the language that he will need when he speaks. Exercises or drills for those purposes can be divided into two type's exercises that require substitution and those which require transformation. To be effective, language laboratory lessons need to be carefully planned and integrated with classroom. Laboratory materials also need to be interesting as well as relevant, if possible amusing as well as systematic

Multi Media Resources: Multimedia is the combination of various digital media types, such as text, images, sound, and video, into an integrated multi-sensory interactive application or presentation to convey a message or information to an audience. It provides a complex multi-sensory experience in exploring our world through the presentation of information through text, graphics, images, audio and video. Nowadays multi- media classrooms are making the process of teaching English much easier and smoother. The availability of internet, computer, projector and various software makes teachers' task easier and simple. Multimedia activities encourage students to work in groups, express their knowledge in multiple ways, solve problems, revise their own work, and construct knowledge. The advantages of integrating multimedia in the classroom are many. Through participation in multimedia activities, students can learn:

- The challenges of communicating to different audiences
- How to present information in compelling ways
- Techniques for synthesizing and analyzing complex content
- The importance of research, planning, and organization skills

- The significance of presentation and speaking skills
- How to accept and provide constructive feedback
- How to express their ideas creatively

Questions for Exercise

4. Write a note on language laboratory?
5. What multimedia resources may be used for language teaching in Indian context?
6. What is the role of multi-media resources in enhancing the speaking skill of a student?
7. How multimedia resources are helpful in classroom teaching? Explain

3.6 Summary

Speaking skills is the ability to express opinions or thoughts and feelings to a person or group verbally, whether face or by distance. Alternatively speech is a natural means of communication between members of the public to express their thoughts and as a form of social behaviour.

3.7 Glossary

1. Speaking Skill: Speaking skills is the ability to express opinions or thoughts and feelings to a person or group verbally, whether face or by distance.
2. Phonetics: Phonetics is that branch of linguistics which deals with sound and speech sounds.
3. Stress: Stress is a vital element in correct pronunciations and a great attention to it is essential. Stress means emphasis. If we make a sound with more energy, the sound will come out with force.
4. Pitch: Pitch is the degree of highness or lowness with which one speaks.

5. Intonation: Intonation is means the melody of speech, the changing pitch of the voice. It is to a certain extent controlled by stress, because important changes in pitch occur only on stressed syllable.
6. Multimedia: Multimedia is the combination of various digital media types, such as text, images, sound, and video, into an integrated multi-sensory interactive application or presentation to convey a message or information to an audience.

3.8 Suggested Reading

1. Abercrombie, D. (1967). *Elements of General Phonetics*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
2. Britton, J. (1975). Teaching Writing. In A. Davies (Ed.), *Problems of Language and Learning*. London: Heinemann.
3. Byrne, D. (1979). *Teaching Writing Skills*. London: Longman.
4. Cook, V. (1991). *Second Language Learning and Language Teaching*. London: Edward Arnold.
5. Crystal, D. (1986). *Listen to Your Child: A Parents' Guide to Children's Language*. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.
6. Doff, A. (1988). *Teaching English. A Training Course for Teachers. Trainer's Handbook*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
7. Field, J. (1983). *Listening Comprehension*. London: Macmillan.
8. Freeman, A. (1991). *Mastering Study Skills*. London: The Macmillan Press Ltd.
9. Geddes, M. (1988). *How to Listen*. London: BBC.
10. Grellet, F. (1981). *Developing Reading Skills*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
11. Harris, M., & Colthart, M. (1990). *Language Processing in Children and Adults*. London: Routledge.

12. Hedge, T. (1988). *Writing: Resource Book for Teachers*. (A. Maley, Ed.) Oxford: Oxford University Press.
13. Howatt. (1984). *A History of English Language Teaching*. OUP.
14. 4Howatt. (1984). *The History of Language Teaching*. OUP.
15. Howatt, A. P. (1984). *A History of English Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
16. Hutchinson, T., & Alan, W. (1987). *English for Specific Purposes: A Learner-centred Approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
17. Krashen, S. (1981). *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. New York: Pergamon Press.
18. Labov, W. (1963). Social motivation of a second change. *Word*, 19 (3), 273-309.
19. Lott, B. (1986). *A Course in English Language and Literature*. London: Edward Arnold.
20. McLaughlin, B. (1987). *Theories of Second Language Learning*. London: Edward Arnold.
21. O'Connor, J. (1970). *Better English Pronunciation*. London: ELBS.
22. Prabhu, N. S. *Second Language Pedagogy*. ELBS with OUP.
23. Richards, J. C. (1985). *The Context of Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
24. Richards, J. C. (1985). *The Context of Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
25. Richards, J. C. (1990). *The Language Teaching Matrix*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
26. Rivers, W. M. (1980). Foreign Language Acquisition: Where the real problems lie. *Applied Linguistics*, 1, 48-59.
27. Scarborough, D. (1984). *Reasons for Listening*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
28. Stern, H. H. (1983). *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching*. OUP.

29. Verma, S. K. (1994). Teaching English as a second language in India. In R. K. Agnihotri, & A. L. Khanna, *Second Language Acquisition*. New Delhi: Sage.
30. White, R. (1980). *Teaching Written English*. London: George Allen and Unwin.
31. Widdowson, H. G. (1990). *Aspects of Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
32. Williams, E. (1984). *Reading in the Language Classroom*. Hongkong: Modern English Publications

3.9 Essay Type Question

1. What do you understand by language laboratory? Do you think that it should be an essential element of language learning?
2. What is phonetics? Discuss in detail.
3. What do you mean by speaking skill? Explain in detail.
4. Discuss various methods and techniques of enhancing speaking skill in detail.

Unit 4 - Reading Skill

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Objective
- 4.3 Sub skills of Reading
- 4.4 Importance of reading Skill
- 4.5 Types of Reading
 - 4.5.1 Reading Aloud and Silent
 - 4.5.2 Extensive and Intensive
- 4.6 Study Skills
- 4.7 Summary
- 4.8 Glossary
- 4.9 Suggested Reading
- 4.10 Essay type question

4.1 Introduction

Reading is generally defined as a process that helps us to decode, decipher and identify the words in print, articulate, speak and pronounce the words in print, understand, interpret and sense the meaning of the words in print.

When reading starts in the child's mother tongue, he or she does not face any trouble.

4.2 Objective

After reading this unit you will be able to

1. Students will be able tell the role of reading.
2. Students will be able to understand the importance of reading skill.
3. Students will be able to understand the difference between intensive and extensive reading.

4. Students will be able to understand the concept of sub-skills of reading.
5. Students will be able to understand about the importance of study skills.

4.3 Sub- Skills of Reading

An efficient reader is versed in several ways of interacting with various types of text. S/he is flexible and chooses appropriate reading strategies depending upon the particular text that s/he intends to read. An efficient reader is able to 'switch' styles according to the type of the text. So a reader has to match reading skills with reading purpose. We would not, for example, read and extract from a seventeenth century novel in the same way as we would read the entertainment page in the newspaper to look for a particular programme. Skilled readers can scan to locate specific information in a text and skim to extract general information from the text.

The major sub skills of reading that the reader may adopt are as follows:

- a. Skimming
- b. Scanning
- c. Intensive reading

Skimming- When we go to a book exhibition what do we do? Do we buy any book that we lay our hands on? No. We look at the titles of the books, go through the contents page, flip through the pages quickly, go through the short write- up on the blurb and so on. In short, we try to find out what the book is about before we decide to buy it. In other words, we skim through the book. Skimming is looking quickly over a text to get a general superficial idea of the content.

Scanning- When we want to find out the telephone number of any individual, we do not read the telephone directory from the beginning. We go to the relevant page, run our eyes through it till we locate the name and then find the number of that person. In other words we scan the directory. Scanning is looking quickly through the text searching for the specific piece of information. We use the same technique when we look up a dictionary to find out the meaning of a particular word.

Intensive Reading- When we read shorter texts, like a research paper, for extracting specific information, we read slowly and intensively. This is called intensive reading.

In real life, our reading purpose often varies and so we have to devise varied exercise for practice according to the type of text and the purpose for reading it. Efficient readers interrogate materials of different types by looking for ‘clues’ in titles, subtitles and within the passage itself. Pre-reading questions can be useful because they focus the reader’s attention on the kind of the information that the reader is expected to come across in the text. When working on a page of classified advertisements (ads), for example, it would be highly artificial to work on exercises requiring detailed comprehension of ads. Such activities would be boring and would only discourage the students.

Questions for Exercise

1. What do you mean by intensive reading?
2. What do you mean by skimming?
3. What is the difference between skimming and scanning?

4.4 Importance of Reading Skill

Whether you are engaged in a novel, pouring over a newspaper or a just looking at a sign, reading skills allow you to interpret and become engaged in the world around you. According to the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, “Reading is the single most important skill necessary for a happy, productive and successful life.” Developing those skills takes active engagement from an early age.

Good readers can understand the individual sentences and the organizational structure of a piece of writing. They can comprehend ideas, follow arguments, and detect implications. They know most of the words in the text already, but they can also determine the meaning of many of the unfamiliar words from the context - failing this, they can use their dictionary effectively to do so. In summary, good readers can extract from the writing what is important for the particular task they are employed in. And they can do it quickly!

Educational researchers have also found a strong correlation between reading and vocabulary knowledge. In other words, students who have a large vocabulary are usually good readers. This is not very surprising, since the best way to acquire a large vocabulary is to read extensively, and if you read extensively you are likely to be or become a good reader!

Reading to Learn- Children today have many opportunities to gather information. Books are not the only tools children are exposed to. Using a Smartphone, reading from an electronic tablet or researching on a computer has opened the floodgates for finding and accessing information. A student with the reading skills necessary to access and use information is not just learning to read but also reading to learn. With proper reading skills, he or she can explore topics ranging from how spiders spin silky webs to the details of the Wright brothers' first flight in North Carolina.

Creating Lifelong Readers - Fluency, decoding and vocabulary development are needed to comprehend written material. Readers use these skills to interpret and understand written words on a page. They read often from a wide variety of materials. They read to find out more about the world in which they live and use that information to improve their lives. Lifelong readers think critically about what they've read and make connections to their own lives. They apply their skills in language and writing development.

Successful Students - Whether the author is writing to inform, persuade, give directions or entertain, he or she is communicating to his or her audience. A person who can read has the ability to empathize with and connect to the characters in a story. A reader builds background knowledge about many different subjects that he or she can later use. Students with the necessary reading skills can later develop writing and language skills necessary for academic and professional success.

So if you want your students to be successful at school encourage him or her to read. Reading non-fiction in English is probably the most important, but English

fiction and any reading in the mother tongue - if done extensively - will help your child develop the reading competence that is essential for academic achievement.

Question for Exercise

4. What do you understand by creating lifelong reading?
5. Explain about the importance of reading skill.

4.5 Types of Reading

The main purpose of reading is comprehension, i.e. understanding the meaning of words and relationship between ideas. There are six types of reading which lead to comprehension. They are loud, silent, intensive, extensive, supplementary and library reading.

Loud Reading

Loud reading is also known as oral reading. It is introduced after two months after the student has learnt to read his textbook. It teaches the student to read with correct pronunciation, articulation, intonation, stress and rhythm. It enables the student to read with expression. It helps the teacher to evaluate the students' knowledge of spoken words, phrases and sentences. It aids the student to read with understanding and paves the way to silent reading.

The Objective of Loud reading is as following

- i. To enable students to read with correct pronunciation, articulating, intonation, stress and rhythm.
- ii. To test the students, knowledge of speaking words, phrases and sentences.
- iii. To enable students to read with expression.
- iv. To prepare students for effective silent reading.

Procedure: The teacher reads aloud any particular passage, paying attention to correct pronunciation, articulation, rhythm etc. The passage is selected, taking into consideration the comprehending capacity of the students.. This followed by the

students reading aloud the same passage. The teacher corrects the mistakes of pronunciation; articulation etc. after the student has finished reading. At the junior level, accuracy in reading is stressed and speed is emphasized at the senior level. Word by word reading should not be encouraged while the word recognition can be developed.

Precautions

- i. The loud reading should be given only if the teacher has given model reading.
- ii. The passage for the reading should be within the comprehension power of the student.
- iii. Frisby has suggested that Over emphasis on reading aloud in the early stages will often promote word by word reading and pattern reading by the teacher may not help in any long term way. Positive measures to improve phrases and recognition may be taken by the institution material, followed by a few questions to make sure that what has been read has also been understood.
- iv. Before loud reading pronunciation drill is essential.
- v. Weak students should be given special attention.
- vi. In the beginning speed should never be emphasised
- vii. The teacher should check the students' posture while reading.

Advantages

The student learns to read properly. He develops the skill of speech and can learn elocution. Mistakes in pronunciation, articulation, stress are corrected at an early stage. The various sense organs such as ears, eyes, and mouth is trained simultaneously. The students learn by imitation which is a natural method of learning.

Disadvantage

The disadvantages of this method are that some students may not enjoy reading aloud. It does not help deep understanding of the text. In later life, silent reading is preferred and if a student becomes used to reading aloud and cannot become

extensive reader. The other student of the class are distracted when one student is reading aloud, thus only a few students get the benefit of this.

Limitation

- i. Loud reading is not a source of pleasure.
- ii. It does not help in penetrating the meaning.
- iii. In later life, it is silent reading which is preferred.
- iv. If a student becomes habitual to loud reading, he cannot become an extensive reader.
- v. It has been often found that students of the class pay no heed to what the other student is reading aloud.
- vi. In public places like library and reading room, only silent reading is allowed.

Silent Reading

This is the very important type of reading. Along with the ability to read aloud, the children may be encouraged to read silently. Most of the reading done at the higher stage of learning should be of this kind only. The purpose of silent reading is to encourage the students to read with comprehension. Silent reading is sometimes considered as recreational reading or independent reading as in silent reading something is read in a relaxed mood and only a single individual remains concerned about it. Reading silently improves students' understanding because it helps them concentrate on what they are reading, rather than the pronunciation of individual words. When we read silently, we can form mental pictures of the topic being read and discussed. Also, we do not need to read one word at a time. As teachers when you encourage your students to read silently, you are helping them develop the strategies they need for reading fast, and with better comprehension. This is called reading efficiency, and it will help your students to read any text with maximum attention to meaning. Silent reading also helps develop the skills of reading for a purpose, as the focus is on understanding the content without having the additional burden to pay attention to pronunciation. This is because silent reading helps students to focus their attention on the text; their increased concentration on the text is sustained until the entire text is read. This also helps students absorb ideas into their subconscious mind and then use them in their daily lives.

Procedure: Teacher explains about the silent reading after that he asks students to read the passage silently. The teacher takes round of the class and checks whether students are whispering murmuring and their posture of reading. After some time s/he asks a few question to test the understanding.

Precautions

- i. Only those passages should be read which can be understood and appreciated.
- ii. The paragraph of reading should not be much long.
- iii. Necessary instructions must be given before silent reading.

Advantages

- i. It saves time and energy.
- ii. It develops the ability to read with interest.
- iii. In later life it has immense value because it is used in public places and higher classes.
- iv. According to Ryburn, 'It enables attention and energy to be concentrated on meaning so saves a division of attention resulting in greater assimilation of knowledge.'

Disadvantage

- i. It cannot be checked whether student is reading or not.
- ii. The mistakes done by students during silent reading cannot be corrected.
- iii. Sometimes students cannot understand some parts of the passage, but they cannot take help of teachers.

Importance of Silent Reading

- i. **To help you read faster-** Reading out loud slows down your reading speed. If you usually read out loud you will start reading out the words in your head even when you are reading silently and so reduce your reading speed all the time to the speed when you are reading out loud.
- ii. **To improve understanding-** Because half of your brain is concentrating on pronunciation when you read out loud, your comprehension is much less than when you are reading silently. The same is true when listening to other people reading out loud.

-
- iii. **To help you ignore words you don't need-** When you are reading out loud you have to think about and pronounce every word in the text, but there are many words you don't need to be able to pronounce and/or understand, such as people's names and place names. When you are reading silently, you can just skip past anything that you think is too difficult or not important, and then go back to it later if you need to.
 - iv. **To allow you to reread-** If you are reading out loud, once you have read a word or sentence with the right pronunciation it is normal to move onto the next part. If it was an important and difficult to understand part, though, it can be worthwhile to read it once or twice more. This is much easier and quicker when you are reading silently.
 - v. **To help you read whole words at once-** When you are reading out loud it is normal to read each word from the first letter to the last in the way it is pronounced, but it is possible to read faster by looking at a whole word or even groups of words at the same time and then moving onto the next section.
 - vi. **To move quickly to the information you need-** Reading out loud means reading each sentence in order. With most comprehension questions in exams and textbooks, it is much quicker and easier to read the question and then quickly skim and scan until you reach the part of the text where that information is. You can then read that part slowly and carefully, and as many times as you like.
 - vii. **To involve all the students-** It is very difficult to concentrate when another person is reading out loud, and even if you are listening carefully it is not good listening comprehension practice as, unlike real life, you have the text in front of you to read too.
 - viii. **To give a good model-** Other students are not usually a good model of pronunciation and speaking at natural speed, so listening to them read out loud is not likely to improve your pronunciation and listening skills.
 - ix. **To stop you moving your lips-** Some people who have done most of their reading out loud move their lips as if they are speaking even when reading silently. This slows down your reading speed and can be embarrassing if people see you!

-
- x. **To help your listening comprehension** - Texts and people you will need to listen to will be much faster than you reading a text out loud, so reading silently and quickly is actually better practice for real life listening comprehension than reading out loud is.

Intensive Reading

Intensive Reading occurs when the learner is focused on the language rather than the text. For example, the learner may be answering comprehension questions, learning new vocabulary, studying the grammar and expressions in the text, translating the passage (sometimes called 'careful reading'), or other tasks that involve the student in looking intensively (inside) the text. Most often all the students read the same short text that the teacher decided. The advantage of IR is that it focuses the learner on certain aspects of the language. However, IR is usually done with difficult texts with many unknown words that require the learner to use a dictionary. This means the reading is slow and that there are few opportunities for the learner to learn to read smoothly, because she has to stop every few seconds to work on something she can't understand. This slows or prevents the development of fluent eye movements that are so necessary to improve one's reading skill.

IR is the most typically taught method of teaching reading. Unfortunately some teachers only know this method and believe that by teaching the vocabulary and grammar that is all the learner needs. This is not so, s/he also needs practice in reading and to be trained in developing reading skills.

However, some people feel that intensive reading can be disadvantageous too. The major drawback found in this strategy is that students need to spend a lot of time in reading even a short text. Perhaps, this is helpful at the lower level. But, as the students' progress in comprehending different reading texts, teacher can guide them to read fast and to get most from the text. Many studies have shown that students who have learned to read using different techniques feel comfortable even with difficult or longer texts.

Extensive Reading

Extensive reading is reading as much as possible, for your own pleasure, at a difficulty level at which you can read smoothly and quickly without looking up words or translating to English as you go. In other words, instead of spending a half hour decoding a tiny part of one book (also known as intensive reading), you read many simpler books that are at or slightly below the level at which you read fluently. This lets you get used to reading more complex sentences with ease, reinforces the words you already know and helps you learn new words from context.

What are the principles of extensive reading?

Start with stories that are well below your fluent reading level, and while reading, follow these principles:

- i. Don't look up words in the dictionary.
- ii. Skip over parts you don't understand.
- iii. If you aren't enjoying one book, put it aside and get another.
- iv. Finally, keep track of your progress:

Why start at such a basic level?

- It helps you get used to reading quickly; since you should know most of the words already, you hardly have to think about them.
- The sentences are simpler, so you can understand them immediately, and as you start reading more complex sentences you'll have an intuitive sense of how they fit together.
- It helps you learn to use the information in the text to figure out unknown words, instead of a dictionary.
- You get a sense of where your fluent reading level is, so as you improve you can tell when a book is too hard or too easy.
- Words that are part of basic books are basic words themselves, and as you see them over and over, you learn them quickly; when you progress to more advanced books, you'll know those basic words without having to think about them.

- You can finish books in a reasonable amount of time, so you don't get bored with one book.

Questions for Exercise

6. What is the difference between loud and silent reading
7. What is the difference between intensive and extensive reading.

4.6 Study Skills

Study Skills: Study skills are the skills you need to enable you to study and learn efficiently. These study skills or supplementary skills are very crucial for students, when they progress in their studies.

Note - Taking: Note-taking is one of the study skills. The students write some points on a certain passage read. This is an important skill for the development of their abilities of comprehension and expression. Sometimes they may have to read the passage more than once. They must know what to note and what to leave in the passage. This skill can be improved among the students by encouraging them to take notes when they listen to their teachers, Encourage them to take notes from radio talks or television programmes.

Note Making: Note - making is one of the study skills. It is the process wherein the students prepare a brief summary of what they have written in the name of note-taking. While making notes, narration in the first person has to be written in the third person.

- i. Process involved in note - taking/making: The person interested in making notes should
- ii. Read the whole text, at least twice
- iii. Decide the title for the text
- iv. Reduce the text into an outline with all the important points
- v. Divide it into main and sub- points on the basis of the title given to the text
- vi. Prepare the note in such a manner that he can reconstruct the original passage at a later date

- vii. Not change the logical sequence of ideas given in the text.

Reference Skill: There are a number of instructional instruments that can be called essential aids in language learning and teaching, they essential for reference purposes, locating, sorting or retrieving information, and study. Unfortunately it has got least importance in classroom situation.

- i. Locating information:
- ii. Gathering Information: Skimming, Scanning, intensive reading, extensive reading
- iii. Storing Information: Note taking, note making, summarising and information transfer involving graphic and pictorial material, charts, tables, maps, etc.
- iv. Retrieving and interpreting information: The use of the library for locating the sources of information: making summaries, etc.

Uses of Thesauruses, Dictionary, Encyclopaedia etc:

Dictionary: A suitable dictionary and the ability to use it is an important aid to independence in reading, especially in the learning of English, which is a foreign language. Once the learner has passed the stage of extensively glossed as well as carefully graded readers and simplified abridged books, he will be required to read unabridged books, similar to the real life situations. Even when he has already been trained and encouraged to guess the meanings of words or expressions with the help of the contextual clues provided, these may not always be sufficiently helpful. It is here that training in the use of the dictionary becomes relevant. He may need guidance and assistance in reacting quickly to the use of the order of the letters in the alphabet as well as the catchwords appearing at the top of each page.

However, he should be warned against an excessive and indiscriminate use of the dictionary. The dictionary is like a medicine which should be used only when one must. Most pedagogical and learners' dictionaries nowadays give not only the pronunciation, spelling and meaning(s) but also examples of usage with illustrations, variations in the British/ American spelling, collocations, exceptions and a whole lot of information necessary to learn English.

Learners must be taught how to use such dictionaries. For example, Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English gives picture illustrations for the entry bird; pictures are given for sparrow, kingfisher, pigeon, woodpecker, crow etc., and the names of the parts like feather, wing, bill etc., are shown for a bird. A person who gets up or arrives early will be successful, kill two birds with the same stone, etc. Learners may be trained to look up such dictionaries often so that their vocabulary gets expanded.

Cambridge International Dictionary of English (1995) under the entry child gives the meanings and usage of related expression like child abuse, child care etc. And useful quotations like “the child is father of the man’ (Wordsworth). There is a wealth of information in modern dictionaries.

Longman Essential Activator is a word – bank that contains all essential information to help the learner to put ideas into words.

Macmillan Dictionary for advanced Learners comes with CD-Rom; two similar but separate editions, one for the British variety and another for the American variety, are available. This dictionary is highly innovative and user-friendly.

Encyclopaedia: An encyclopaedia is another useful source of information and knowledge. An encyclopaedia is arranged in an alphabetical order by subject. On the spine of each volume the letters show the subject covered ; for example, Volume I A-C covers all subjects, the first letters of whose titles are between A and C. There can also be cross-references for certain subjects: e.g. ‘see also’ Vol. IV. There is also an index at the end of the last volume to help the users.

The following are some of the general encyclopaedias:

- i. New Encyclopaedia Britannica
- ii. Encyclopaedia Americana
- iii. Colliers’ Encyclopaedia, 24 Vols.
- iv. New Columbia Encyclopaedia, 1 Vol.

There are also a number of abridged versions of dictionaries and encyclopaedias in the market.

Thesaurus: The thesaurus is another useful book for reference purposes. Roget’s Thesaurus of English words and phrases is the standard one. A thesaurus is a

converse dictionary in which, the idea being given, one can find the word or words and phrases by which the idea may be most aptly expressed. This arrangement is according to the meanings of words; it gives all synonyms in terms of meaning categories. For example, in the section on formation of ideas, we find all words related to intellect, absence of intellect, thought, idea, curiosity, incuriosity, attention, inattention, care, neglect, etc. Under intellect, we find all related words:

N. intellect, mind, understanding, reason, rationality.....

V. note, notice, mark; take-notice, cognisance of

Adj. Intellectual, mental, rational, etc.

There are several versions like The New Roget's Thesauruses Dictionary Form and even abridged versions.

Questions for Exercise

8. How dictionary can help in developing reading skill?
9. How thesaurus and encyclopaedia can help in developing reading skill?

4.7 Summary

Reading is generally defined as a process that helps us to decode, decipher and identify the words in print, articulate, speak and pronounce the words in print, understand, interpret and sense the meaning of the words in print. The major sub skills of reading that the reader may adopt are as follows:

- a. Skimming
- b. Scanning
- c. Intensive reading

4.8 Glossary

1. **Skimming-** Skimming is looking quickly over a text to get a general superficial idea of the content.

2. **Scanning-** Scanning is looking quickly through the text searching for the specific piece of information.
3. **Loud Reading-** Loud reading is also known as oral reading. It teaches the student to read with correct pronunciation, articulation, intonation, stress and rhythm. It enables the student to read with expression.
4. **Silent Reading-** This is the very important type of reading. Along with the ability to read aloud, the children may be encouraged to read silently. Most of the reading done at the higher stage of learning should be of this kind only.
5. **Intensive Reading-** Intensive Reading occurs when the learner is focused on the language rather than the text. For example, the learner may be answering comprehension questions, learning new vocabulary, studying the grammar and expressions in the text.
6. **Extensive Reading-** Extensive reading is reading as much as possible, for your own pleasure, at a difficulty level at which you can read smoothly and quickly without looking up words or translating to English as you go

4.9 Suggested Reading

1. Abercrombie, D. (1967). Elements of General Phonetics. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
2. Britton, J. (1975). Teaching Writing. In A. Davies (Ed.), Problems of Language and Learning. London: Heinemann.
3. Byrne, D. (1979). Teaching Writing Skills. London: Longman.
4. Cook, V. (1991). Second Language Learning and Language Teaching. London: Edward Arnold.
5. Crystal, D. (1986). Listen to Your Child: A Parents' Guide to Children's Language. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.
6. Doff, A. (1988). Teaching English. A Training Course for Teachers. Trainer's Handbook. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
7. Field, J. (1983). Listening Comprehension. London: Macmillan.
8. Freeman, A. (1991). Mastering Study Skills. London: The Macmillan Press Ltd.

9. Geddes, M. (1988). *How to Listen*. London: BBC.
10. Grellet, F. (1981). *Developing Reading Skills*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
11. Harris, M., & Colthart, M. (1990). *Language Processing in Children and Adults*. London: Routledge.
12. Hedge, T. (1988). *Writing: Resource Book for Teachers*. (A. Maley, Ed.) Oxford: Oxford University Press.
13. Howatt. (1984). *A History of English Language Teaching*. OUP.
14. Howatt. (1984). *The History of Language Teaching*. OUP.
15. Howatt, A. P. (1984). *A History of English Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
16. Hutchinson, T., & Alan, W. (1987). *English for Specific Purposes: A Learner-centred Approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
17. Krashen, S. (1981). *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. New York: Pergamon Press.
18. Labov, W. (1963). Social motivation of a second change. *Word*, 19 (3), 273-309.
19. Lott, B. (1986). *A Course in English Language and Literature*. London: Edward Arnold.
20. McLaughlin, B. (1987). *Theories of Second Language Learning*. London: Edward Arnold.
21. O'Connor, J. (1970). *Better English Pronunciation*. London: ELBS.
22. Prabhu, N. S. *Second Language Pedagogy*. ELBS with OUP.
23. Richards, J. C. (1985). *The Context of Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
24. Richards, J. C. (1985). *The Context of Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
25. Richards, J. C. (1990). *The Language Teaching Matrix*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
26. Rivers, W. M. (1980). Foreign Language Acquisition: Where the real problems lie. *Applied Linguistics*, 1, 48-59.
27. Scarborough, D. (1984). *Reasons for Listening*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

28. Stern, H. H. (1983). *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching*. OUP.
29. Verma, S. K. (1994). *Teaching English as a second language in India*. In R. K. Agnihotri, & A. L. Khanna, *Second Language Acquisition*. New Delhi: Sage.
30. White, R. (1980). *Teaching Written English*. London: George Allen and Unwin.
31. Widdowson, H. G. (1990). *Aspects of Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
32. Williams, E. (1984). *Reading in the Language Classroom*. Hongkong: Modern English Publications

4.10 Essay type question

1. Write the difference between intensive and extensive reading.
2. What do you understand by the scanning and skimming?
3. Write in detail about the sub skills of reading.
4. Critically examine the importance of reading skill.

Unit 5- Writing Skill

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Objective
- 5.3 Stages of writing
- 5.4 Formal and Informal writing
 - 5.4.1 Informal Writing
 - 5.4.2 Formal Writing
- 5.5 Reference Skill
- 5.6 Summary
- 5.7 Glossary
- 5.8 Suggested Reading
- 5.9 Essay type question

5.1 Introduction

Writing is one of the most difficult of language skills. It is more than putting down sign or letters or the alphabet or words and phrases in isolation. Writing requires the ability to produce language in chunks; it requires deliberate organisation of ideas and their logical development with appropriate language use and meaningful expression. In a good piece of writing, we look for lexical range and syntactical correctness and furthermore, we look for proper format or layout development and movement in content and finally, style. These are important issues to be considered when we are talking of developing the writing skill in learners.

To quote Tricia Hedge, 'Writing in its broad sense- as distinct from simply putting words on paper- has three steps : thinking about it, and doing it again (and again and again, as often as time will allow and patience will endure)

The first step 'thinking', involves choosing a subject, exploring ways of developing it and devising strategies of organisation and style. The second step, doing is called drafting and the third, 'doing again' is 'revising'.

Writing is a complex activity. As you think about a topic, you are already beginning to select words and construct sentences- in other words, to draft. As you draft and as you revise, the thinking goes on: you discover new ideas, realise you have gone down a dead end, discover an implication you had not seen before.

It is helpful to conceive of writing as a process having, in a broad and loose sense, three steps. However, remember that you do not move from step to step in smooth and steady progress. You go back and forth. As you work on a composition, you will be, at any given point, concentrating on one phase of writing. Nevertheless, you are always engaged with the process in its entirety.

5.2 Objective

After reading, this unit you will be able to -

1. Students will be able to understand the importance of writing skill.
2. Students will be able to know the stages and process of writing.
3. Students will be able to differentiate between the formal and informal language.
4. Students will be able to understand the different approaches of teaching of English.

5.3 Stages of writing or Process of Writing

Out of the four skills in learning a language, 'writing' is very important, as it serves as the medium through which we communicate our ideas, thought or feelings to people who are at a distance from us. In fact, language learning is incomplete without acquiring writing skills. For a second language learner, writing in second language is used for specific purposes but his mother tongue is used for all other general purposes.

We know that the teaching of writing is a complex process involving many activities like initial probing into experiences, organisation of ideas into meaningful sentences and expression of thoughts and feelings by students with confidence and ease. The student may be asked to write only those sentences and words that they have practised orally. Writing should be taken up just after the completion of word

recognition exercises. There are various advantages in doing so. First writing reinforces oral and reading work. The language items learnt already get firmly fixed in the minds of the students. Second, writing provides a change of activity and thus helps in reducing monotony. Finally, it encourages pupils to take up creative writing.

Why do we have to learn how to write? Learning to write in English is a mode of communication. It is essential to remember that language activities – listening, speaking, reading, and writing are integrated in actual communication. Of the four activities, writing develops the slowest. The process of writing is often described as consisting of three major activities or groups of activities:

- a. **Pre- Writing-** Before putting pen to paper, the skilled writer in real life considers two important questions.

What is the purpose of piece of writing? This first question is do with function. For example, is it a report which the writer hopes will be persuasive and stimulate action? Is it a letter of invitation to some friends or a letter applying for a job? The purpose of the writing will influence the choice of organisation and language.

Who am I writing this for? The second question is to do with audience. The reader may be an individual, one you know ell, or a group of colleagues, an institution, an examiner or a tutor. Thinking about the eventual reader(s) helps the writer to select what to say and how to present it in the most appropriate style- formal, friendly, serious and tentative.

The answers to these two questions provide the writer with a sense of purpose and a sense of audience, in other words, a writing context which significantly influences the first stage of the composition process that consists of exploring possible content and planning outlines.

The good writer generates plans for writing at this stage though, as we have seen, the amount of planning varies. We could draw a scale from comparatively spontaneous writing to very carefully planned writing and place different kinds of writing in appropriate place on the scale.

- b. **Writing and Rewriting-** The second stage of activity is the writing itself and with good writers this consists of making a first draft. But, writing the first draft is often interrupted as the writer stops to read over the review, to get an idea of

how the text is developing, to revise plans and bring in new ideas or to process the old ones. There is a good deal of recycling in the process from planning to drafting, reviewing, re- planning, revising, etc. Good writers tend to concentrate on getting the content right first and leave details like correcting, spelling, punctuations and grammar until later.

Revision involves assessing what has already been written and deciding the point like these:

- i. Am I sharing my impressions clearly enough with my reader?
 - ii. Have i missed out any important points of information?
 - iii. Are there any points in the writing where my reader has to make a “jump” because I have omitted a line of arguments or I have forgotten to explain something?
 - iv. Does the vocabulary need to be made stronger at any point?
 - v. Are there some sentences, which do not say much or which are too repetitive and can be missed out?
 - vi. Can I rearrange any sets of sentences to make the writing clearer or more interesting?
 - vii. Do I need to rearrange any paragraph?
 - viii. Are the links between sections clear? Do they guide my reader through the writing?
- c. **Editing-** The post- writing stage consists of reading through and trying to apply a readers’ perspective in order to assess how clearly readers might follow the ideas. The editing process makes the final readjustment and checks accuracy so that the text is maximally accessible to the reader. Some poor writers tend not to engage in editing but assume that their writing is clear to others because it is clear to them. Alternatively, poor writers may concentrate throughout the whole writing process on accuracy in grammar, punctuation, etc., without considering whether the overall structure is clear.

Questions for Exercise

1. What do you mean by writing?
2. Explain the stages of writing.

-
3. What is the significance of pre-writing?
-

5.4 Formal and Informal Writing

5.4.1 Informal Writing Style

- i. **Colloquial** - Informal writing is similar to a spoken conversation. Informal writing may include slang, figures of speech, broken syntax, asides and so on. Informal writing takes a personal tone as if you were speaking directly to your audience (the reader). You can use the first or third person point of view (I and we), and you are likely to address the reader using second person (you and your).
- ii. **Simple** - Short sentences are acceptable and sometimes essential to making a point in informal writing. There may be incomplete sentences or ellipsis (...) to make points.
- iii. **Contractions and Abbreviations** - Words are likely to be simplified using contractions (for example, I am, doesn't, couldn't, it's) and abbreviations (e.g. TV, photos) whenever possible.
- iv. **Empathy and Emotion**- The author can show empathy towards the reader regarding the complexity of a thought and help them through that complexity.

5.4.2 Formal Writing Style

- i. **Complex**- Longer sentences are likely to be more prevalent in formal writing. You need to be as thorough as possible with your approach to each topic when you are using a formal style. Each main point needs to be introduced, elaborated and concluded.
- ii. **Objective**- State main points confidently and offer full support arguments. A formal writing style shows a limited range of emotions and avoids emotive punctuation such as exclamation points, ellipsis, etc., unless they are being cited from another source.

- iii. Full Words - No contractions should be used to simplify words (in other words use "It is" rather than "It's"). Abbreviations must be spelt out in full when first used, the only exceptions being when the acronym is better known than the full name (BBC, ITV or NATO for example).
- iv. Third Person – Formal writing is not a personal writing style. The formal writer is disconnected from the topic and does not use the first person point of view (I or we) or second person (you).

Short Story Writing

Good short story writing should have the following three characteristics:

- i. **Setting and Time:** Use your 5 senses-sight, sound, touch, taste, and smell- to describe an interesting place and time. Use colorful adjectives. Some examples of interesting settings: A deserted beach, an empty classroom, a crowded festival.
- ii. **Character:** Use interesting expressions to describe the people in your story. What do they look like? What kind of personalities do they have? Tell the personal backgrounds of the people. Try to have interesting relations between people. For example, if your English teacher and your mother got together, what would happen?!
- iii. **Plot:** Will you write a mystery story? an action story? Science Fiction? a historical story? A standard plot line features the main character facing and then overcoming a major problem. Try to have nail-biting emotional situations! Try to incorporate humor into your writing! (Humor is important.) Anybody can write high-quality fiction if he or she tries.

Poetry Writing

Poetry writing requires no license, no education, and no experience. All teacher need to get started the students with a pen and some paper. In fact, many writers discovered their calling because they were compelled to write poetry at a young age.

But there's a big difference between writing poetry and writing good poetry which must be properly understood. Opinions about the art and craft of good poetry are many and varied. Some hold poetry to a high academic or literary

standard. Others appreciate the fact that poetry writing provides a creative and healthy form of self-expression.

It is believed that all poetry is good in the sense that anything that comes from the heart or anything that speaks truth is good. The poem itself may not win any awards, but the act of writing it can be mood-altering, healing, and maybe even life-changing. Many poets pursue the craft with a clear goal: they want to get published. Others write poetry because they find solace in the work. They don't care about readers, publication, or awards. And plenty of writers fall in between; they write for the joy of it but also with a desire to continually develop their poetry skills with hopes of getting published one day.

Diary Writing

Diaries often give us a glimpse into the innermost thoughts and personal feelings of an individual or even historical figures. They are capable of providing an unbiased recollection of events occurring at the time in which they were written.

A teacher should encourage his students for writing diary because it can give regular practice in writing skill, which will obviously build the confidence of students. H/She should make aware the students with following tips:

- Be as honest as possible – open up and put your soul on the page while making a diary entry.
- Write to the world - Don't start the entry with personalized words like 'dear', instead write for someone else's eyes.
- Keep things in order - Chronological order is the best way to construct a diary entry.
- Spell check your entries – poor grammar and spelling makes it difficult to decipher the entry once you attempt to read it again.
- Give details – Diaries are all about personal reflection. Being very detail oriented is the key.

It is not difficult to write a great diary. The only requirement for this purpose is to be willing, open and honest in the process. By following these simple, quick tips students can write a great diary.

Notice Writing

A notice is a short piece of writing which is generally formal in style. It is used by schools to announce events, celebrations to make appeals and to issue different information. Writing an effective notice is a kind of art that can be acquired with practice with keeping some basic points in mind while writing them out. A notice should give complete information and must be written in a clear and lucid style and easily understandable language.

Items that includes a good notice writing:

- i. Name of the organisation
- ii. Date of issuing the notice
- iii. Heading of notice
- iv. Eye- catching caption or heading to hold the immediate attention
- v. Purpose of the notice
- vi. Details of schedule i.e. date, time, venue, programme, duration, etc.

Points to be addressed

- i. Notice can use capital letters for details like name of school, and any specific detail.
- ii. The date should be mentioned at the top right or left of the notice.
- iii. The entire text may be put in a box
- iv. The individuals/ responsible for issuing the notice indicates the name below the signature with their designation.
- v. Complete sentences are required always.
- vi. Usually future time references predominate over other tense forms.

Article Writing

Article writing is an art, and it's not everybody cup of tea. An article usually takes the following structured format:

- The introduction
- The main body: a development of the issues
- A conclusion

The Introduction: The function of the introduction is simply to introduce the subject, to explain how you understand the question, and describe briefly how you intend to deal with it.

The Main Body: The main body contains the whole thought process of the article.

A Conclusion: At the end of an essay you should include a short conclusion, the purpose of which is to sum up or draw a conclusion from your argument or comparison of viewpoints.

Dialogue Writing

A dialogue literally means “conversation normally between two or more person” Dialogue –writing has gained a reputation of a very useful form of composition, especially for the third world country in general and India in particular. Writing an effective dialogue require some dramatic power as the writer has not only to see both sides of a question, but has also to put himself , so to speak, inside to imaginary person so as to make them express their opposite opinions natural. He has in turn to be each one, and see the point of view of each on the question and react accordingly. A written dialogue should be so composed that it appears to be spontaneous and well within the context. Thus writing a dialogue requires careful preparation. It is always advisable to make some rough outline of dialogue.

Some important points to remember while writing dialogue:

- i. Never let any of the character to monopolise the conversation, as if he were giving a public lecture. Let the conversation be brisk and rapid whereby every character getting an equal chance to talk.

- ii. As in real conversation sometime we encounter a condition where one person sometimes interrupts the other, a sparing use of such interruption in written dialogue is quite permissible as this adds to its naturalness.
- iii. The dialogue should begin in an interesting way.
- iv. Proper use of interjection for surprises, pleasures, irritations

Speech Writing

The basic speech format is simple. It consists of three parts:

- a. an opening or introduction
- b. the body where the bulk of the information is given
- c. and an ending (or summary).

Choose Your Main Ideas- Don't try to put too many ideas into your speech.

Research shows that people remember very little from speeches, so just give them one or two ideas to hang onto.

Write Like You Talk- Remember that you're writing a speech, not an essay.

People will hear the speech, not read it. The more conversational you can make it sound, the better. So try these tips:

- Use short sentences. It's better to write two simple sentences than one long, complicated sentence.
- Use contractions. Say "I'm" instead of "I am" "we're" instead of "we are."
- Don't use big words that you wouldn't use when talking to someone.
- Concrete details keep people interested. For instance, which is more effective?

Always read your speech aloud while you're writing it. You'll hear right away if you sound like a book or a real person talking!

Get Your Facts Together- You want people to believe that you know what you're talking about! So you'll need to do some research. For instance, let's say your big issue is the environment. You promise to pass a law that says all new cars must run on electricity, not gas. That will cut down on air pollution! But it would help if you had a few facts: How much bad air does one car create each year? How many new

cars are sold every year? So how much will pollution be cut every year? Use the library or the Internet to do research. Your new policy proposal will sound really strong if you have the facts to back it up.

Your issue should reflect who you are and what you care about.

Persuade With a Classic Structure- In a speech where you're trying to persuade someone, the classic structure is called "Problem-Solution." In the first part of your speech you say, "Here's a problem, here's why things are so terrible." Then, in the second part of your speech you say, "Here's what we can do to make things better."

Simplify - After you've written a first draft of your speech, go back and look for words you can cut. Cutting words in the speech can make your points more clear.

Letter Writing

Letter writing is an important activity in the life of an educated person. Everyone writes letter- personal, social, official or business. These include letters which one writes to relatives, friends and acquaintances and also invitations. Students should learn how to write clear, readable letters. Official letters include applications, business letters and letters to local civic authorities and newspapers.

It is good to have in mind the person or the audience to whom one is writing a letter. It will give the necessary motivation to write. F.G. French says 'It should be real letter written to the real uncle, asking for real money to pay real school fees. In the light of this principle, we can understand the lack of realism in the most of the topics given to pupils to write letters. Different letters have different forms. But some apply to all the letters, like those given below.

- i. The Heading is the address and date
- ii. Polite greeting or salutation
- iii. The body of the letter containing the message or the communication.
- iv. The subscription or the courteous leave taking
- v. The signature
- vi. The superscription or the address on the envelope

The date can be written as 12.06.2009;

June 12, 2009

12th June 2009.

Divide the Body of the letter into some paragraphs. Use simple and short sentences. Keep the person you are writing interview and write what you want to say directly. Write the letter neatly. Mind the marks of punctuation.

Official and business letters may be formal and begin as

Dear Sir,

Dear Sirs and end as

Yours truly,

Yours faithfully,

Report Writing

Report writing has been of late incorporated as a writing skill at different levels. A report is different from an essay, a fact which is usually over looked. It involves the use of a number of research techniques and methods of collection, tabulation, analysis, representation and drawing inference from the data. A report is thus an objective description of occurrences written in a fixed format.

- i. **Collection of data:** Collection of data can be done through schedule, questionnaire, interviews, observation, telephone conversation and from secondary sources already available. Scientific tools should be used to collect primary data.
- ii. **Tabulation of data:** Collection of data through schedules, questionnaires, filed visits etc. should be followed by their tabulation. Unless they are put in a proper table they cannot be analyzed.
- iii. **Figurative Representation:** Collected data can be presented through different figures like graph, histogram, bar chart pie chart etc. This helps in a visual presentation.
- iv. **Analysis of data:** The data can be analyzed through comparison and contrast, using statistical tools like mean, mode median, chi-square test etc.

-
- v. **Interpretation of data:** After analysis of data, the reporter interprets them in order to draw some conclusions on the basis of the objectives and the data available.
 - vi. **Drawing Conclusions and Offering recommendations:** The interpretation leads to conclusion on the basis of which recommendations can be given.
 - vii. **Features of a good report:** A good report needs to be objective, analytical and representative. It must be presented in the required format with the structural components divided into the front, middle and back parts.
 - viii. **Correction of Writing Exercises:** Despite all the initial oral preparation and blackboard work, students may make mistakes. Teachers should correct them in a way beneficial to the students. It is no use filling the pages of notebooks with red ink.

Generally, pupils rarely look at the corrections but turn to the last fresh page for the next exercise. Teachers should really plan their correction work. It is tedious no doubt but is rewarding if done methodically. Teachers should have an encouraging attitude towards their students. Harsh criticism will not help them learn. Teachers should point out the weaknesses as well as the strengths of the pupils. They may occasionally read out good writings written by some good people. Students make mistakes in language as well as the content. Before they set pen to paper, the teacher should discuss the topic orally. Oral responses expose their mistakes, which can be corrected the moment they are made. The correct forms may be drilled orally, till they become a habit with them. A list of common errors made by all of them may be written down on a chart and the correct forms may be pointed out in each case. If they are content words, they may be quickly used in sentences that are self-explanatory, so that the students may learn how to use them in future.

Question for Exercise

- 4. Write a note on letter writing.
- 5. Write a note on speech writing
- 6. Write a note on report writing

5.5 Reference Skill

In learning a language, every child is expected to acquire some supplementary skills to use reference materials. These supplementary skills are known as 'Reference Skills'. There are many reference materials like dictionaries, Encyclopaedias, Year Books, Thesauruses, maps, charts, schedules etc. The main purpose of these materials is utilitarian in nature. The reference skills, when developed properly, would certainly help the children improve their ability to use the English language.

Dictionary: A suitable dictionary and the ability to use it is an important aid to independence in reading, especially in the learning of English, which is a foreign language. Once the learner has passed the stage of extensively glossed as well as carefully graded readers and simplified abridged books, he will be required to read unabridged books, similar to the real life situations. Even when he has already been trained and encouraged to guess the meanings of words or expressions with the help of the contextual clues provided, these may not always be sufficiently helpful. It is here that training in the use of the dictionary becomes relevant. He may need guidance and assistance in reacting quickly to the use of the order of the letters in the alphabet as well as the catchwords appearing at the top of each page.

However, he should be warned against an excessive and indiscriminate use of the dictionary. The dictionary is like a medicine which should be used only when one must. Most pedagogical and learners' dictionaries nowadays give not only the pronunciation, spelling and meaning(s) but also examples of usage with illustrations, variations in the British/ American spelling, collocations, exceptions and a whole lot of information necessary to learn English.

Learners must be taught how to use such dictionaries. For example, Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English gives picture illustrations for the entry bird; pictures are given for sparrow, kingfisher, pigeon, woodpecker, crow etc., and the names of the parts like feather, wing, bill etc., are shown for a bird. A person who gets up or arrives early will be successful, kill two birds with the same stone, etc. Learners may be trained to look up such dictionaries often so that their vocabulary gets expanded.

Cambridge International Dictionary of English (1995) under the entry child gives the meanings and usage of related expression like child abuse, child care etc. and useful quotations like “The child is father of the man’ (Wordsworth). There is a wealth of information in modern dictionaries.

Longman Essential Activator is a word – bank that contains all essential information to help the learner to put ideas into words.

Macmillan Dictionary for advanced Learners come with CD- Rom; two similar but separate editions, one for the British variety and another for the American variety, are available. This dictionary is highly innovative and user- friendly.

Encyclopaedia: An encyclopaedia is another useful source of information and knowledge. An encyclopaedia is arranged in an alphabetical order by subject. On the spine of each volume the letters show the subject covered ; for example, Volume I A-C covers all subjects, the first letters of whose titles are between A and C. There can also be cross-references for certain subjects :e.g. ‘see also’ Vol IV. There is also an index at the end of the last volume to help the users.

The following are some of the general encyclopaedias:

- i. New Encyclopaedia Britannica
- ii. Encyclopaedia Americana
- iii. Colliers’ Encyclopaedia, 24 Vols
- iv. New Columbia Encyclopaedia, 1 Vol

There are also a number of abridged versions of dictionaries and encyclopaedias in the market.

Thesaurus: The thesaurus is another useful book for reference purposes. Roget’s Thesaurus of English words and phrases is the standard one. A thesaurus is a converse dictionary in which, the idea being given, one can find the word or words and phrases by which the idea may be most aptly expressed. This arrangement is according to the meanings of words; it gives all synonyms in terms of meaning categories. For example, in the section on formation of ideas, we find all words related to intellect, absence of intellect, thought, idea, curiosity, incuriosity, attention, inattention, acre, neglect, etc. Under intellect, we find all related words:

N. intellect, mind, understanding, reason, rationality.....

V. note, notice, mark; take-notice, cognisance of

Adj. Intellectual, mental, rational, etc.

There are several versions like The New Roget's Thesauruses Dictionary Form and even abridged versions.

Study skills: Study skills are the skills you need to enable you to study and learn efficiently. These study skills or supplementary skills are very crucial for students, when they progress in their studies.

Note-Taking: Note-taking is one of the study skills. The students write some points on a certain passage read. This is an important skill for the development of their abilities of comprehension and expression. Sometimes they may have to read the passage more than once. They must know what to note and what to leave in the passage. This skill can be improved among the students by encouraging them to take notes when they listen to their teachers, Encourage them to take notes from radio talks or television programmes.

Note Making: Note-making is one of the study skills. It is the process wherein the students prepare a brief summary of what they have written in the name of note-taking. While making notes, narration in the first person has to be written in the third person.

Higher Order Language Skills

During school time, students are beginning to develop higher-level language abilities. Most of the students do this so naturally we do not even notice. Teacher should help the students during process. However, students with language disabilities or academically weak students may have some difficulty in acquiring these higher language skills.

Higher Language Skill:

- i. Development of good vocabulary
- ii. Understanding of word relationships such as homophones and homograph.
- iii. Use of figurative expression
- iv. Organisation of sound sentences.
- v. Ability to draw conclusion and inferences
- vi. Understanding the use of mature grammar

-
- vii. Ability to paraphrase and rephrase.
-

Questions for Exercise

7. What is a reference skill?
8. What is study skill?
9. What do you mean by higher order language skills?
10. Enlist the higher order language skills.

5.6 Summary

Writing is one of the most difficult of language skills. It is more than putting down sign or letters or the alphabet or words and phrases in isolation. Writing requires the ability to produce language in chunks; it requires deliberate organisation of ideas and their logical development with appropriate language use and meaningful expression. In learning a language, every child is expected to acquire some supplementary skills to use reference materials. These supplementary skills are known as 'Reference Skills'.

5.7 Glossary

1. **Writing-** 'Writing in its broad sense- as distinct from simply putting words on paper- has three steps : thinking about it, and doing it again
2. **Study skills-** Study skills are the skills you need to enable you to study and learn efficiently. These study skills or supplementary skills are very crucial for students, when they progress in their studies.

5.8 Suggested Reading

1. Abercrombie, D. (1967). Elements of General Phonetics. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

2. Britton, J. (1975). Teaching Writing. In A. Davies (Ed.), *Problems of Language and Learning*. London: Heinemann.
3. Byrne, D. (1979). *Teaching Writing Skills*. London: Longman.
4. Cook, V. (1991). *Second Language Learning and Language Teaching*. London: Edward Arnold.
5. Doff, A. (1988). *Teaching English. A Training Course for Teachers. Trainer's Handbook*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
6. Freeman, A. (1991). *Mastering Study Skills*. London: The Macmillan Press Ltd.
7. Grellet, F. (1981). *Developing Reading Skills*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
8. Harris, M., & Colthart, M. (1990). *Language Processing in Children and Adults*. London: Routledge.
9. Hedge, T. (1988). *Writing: Resource Book for Teachers*. (A. Maley, Ed.) Oxford: Oxford University Press.
10. Howatt. (1984). *A History of English Language Teaching*. OUP.
11. Howatt. (1984). *The History of Language Teaching*. OUP.
12. Howatt, A. P. (1984). *A History of English Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
13. Labov, W. (1963). Social motivation of a second change. *Word*, 19 (3), 273-309.
14. Lott, B. (1986). *A Course in English Language and Literature*. London: Edward Arnold.
15. Prabhu, N. S. *Second Language Pedagogy*. ELBS with OUP.
16. Richards, J. C. (1985). *The Context of Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
17. Richards, J. C. (1985). *The Context of Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

18. Richards, J. C. (1990). *The Language Teaching Matrix*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
19. Rivers, W. M. (1980). Foreign Language Acquisition: Where the real problems lie. *Applied Linguistics*, 1, 48-59.
20. Stern, H. H. (1983). *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching*. OUP.
21. Verma, S. K. (1994). Teaching English as a second language in India. In R. K. Agnihotri, & A. L. Khanna, *Second Language Acquisition*. New Delhi: Sage.
22. White, R. (1980). *Teaching Written English*. London: George Allen and Unwin.
23. Widdowson, H. G. (1990). *Aspects of Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

5.9 Essay Type Question

1. What is the difference between formal and informal writing?
2. Write a detail note on the stages of writing.
3. Write a detail note on reference skill.
4. What do you mean by higher order language skill?