

Read To Lead



Telugu
Hindi
Bengali
Marathi
Assamese
Nepali
Manipuri
Bodo
Malayalam
Kashmiri
Urdu
Santhali
Maithili
Sanskrit
Dogri
Gujarati
Tamil
Kannada
Bihari
Punjabi
Konkani



Language Across the Curriculum

Dr. Surbala Paikaray
Dr. Renu Sohta
Dr. Jaswinder Kaur



**THAKUR PUBLISHERS
ROHTAK**

LANGUAGE ACROSS THE CURRICULUM

B.Ed, Second Year

According to the new syllabus of

'Chaudhary Ranbir Singh University, Jind'

Dr. Surbala Paikaray

Ph.D (Education), M.Phil (Education), M.A. (Education & English), B.Ed.
Principal,
M.D. College of Education, Jhajjar, Rohtak

Dr. Renu Sohta

Ph.D (Edu.), M. Phil (Education, English), M.Ed., NET, B.Ed.
Principal,
Lord Krishna College of Education, Ambala

Dr. Jaswinder Kaur

Ph.D., M.Phil, M.Ed, M.A. (English)
Assistant Professor;

Seth Banarsi Dass College of Education, Kurukshetra

Books are Available for Online Purchase at: tppl.org.in



THAKUR PUBLISHERS, ROHTAK

* Lucknow * Meerut * Bhopal * Nagpur * Bhubaneswar * Jalandhar * Ahmedabad *
* Mumbai * Chennai * Bengaluru * Pune * Hyderabad * Kerala * Jaipur *

Syllabus

COURSE- IV A **LANGUAGE ACROSS THE CURRICULUM**

Time: 1:30 Hours

Credits-2

Max. Marks: 50

Theory: 40

Internal: 10

UNIT 1

Introduction to Language across the Curriculum Approach

- Meaning, need and benefits of LAC Approach
- Respective roles of Content Subject Teachers and Language Teachers in LAC Approach
- Language learning & Learning through Language General Classroom Language
- Functions of Language in Classroom Learning

Language Acquisition and Language Learning

- Nature of Multilingualism: Differential Status of Indian Language Classroom
- Multi-Cultural Awareness & Language Diversity
- Relationship between Language and society: Identity, Power and Discrimination
- Multilingualism as a Resource & a Strategy

Language Discourse in the Classroom

- General Classroom Language
- Classroom Instructions and Language Learning
- Use of Literature across the curriculum
- Role of Questioning & Discussions in the classroom

UNIT-2

Listening and Speaking as Essential Communicative Skills

- Processing and Enquiring Information
- Listening and Speaking to Interact: dialogue, storytelling, poem,
- Recitation, Short play
- Respond to Style, Tone and Registers of language

Reading to Learn and Understand

- Scanning, Skimming and Extracting relevant information from the books
- Understand the meaning in reference to context
- Schema Theory; Text structures, & reading in content areas

Writing to Learn and Understand

- Linkages between reading & Writing
- Learn to write reports, reviews, essays, notices, letters and creative writings
- Presentations of selected papers, questions and answers

Contents

UNIT I

Chapter 1: Introduction to Language Across the Curriculum Approach

| | | |
|----------|--|----|
| 1.1. | Language | 15 |
| 1.1.1. | Introduction | 15 |
| 1.1.2. | Meaning and Definitions of Language | 16 |
| 1.1.3. | Nature and Characteristics of Language | 17 |
| 1.1.4. | Need and Importance of Language | 18 |
| 1.1.5. | Scope of Language | 20 |
| 1.2. | Curriculum | 21 |
| 1.2.1. | Concept of Curriculum | 21 |
| 1.2.2. | Meaning and Definitions of Curriculum | 21 |
| 1.2.3. | Nature/Characteristics of Curriculum | 22 |
| 1.2.4. | Objectives of Curriculum | 23 |
| 1.2.5. | Importance of Curriculum | 23 |
| 1.2.6. | Types of Curriculum | 25 |
| 1.2.7. | Process of Curriculum | 27 |
| 1.3. | Language Across the Curriculum | 28 |
| 1.3.1. | Concept of LAC (Language across the Curriculum) Approach | 28 |
| 1.3.2. | Meaning of LAC (Language across the Curriculum) Approach | 29 |
| 1.3.3. | Origin of Language across the Curriculum Approach | 30 |
| 1.3.4. | Goals of LAC Approach | 32 |
| 1.3.5. | Principles of Language across the Curriculum Approach | 33 |
| 1.3.6. | Need of Language Across the Curriculum (LAC) Approach | 33 |
| 1.3.7. | Importance of Language Across the Curriculum (LAC) Approach | 34 |
| 1.3.8. | Benefits of Language Across the Curriculum Approach | 35 |
| 1.3.9. | Challenges and Opportunities of LAC | 36 |
| 1.4. | Role of Content Subject Teacher and Language Teacher | 37 |
| 1.4.1. | Introduction | 37 |
| 1.4.2. | Content Subject Teacher | 38 |
| 1.4.2.1. | Role of Subject Teachers | 40 |
| 1.4.3. | Language Teacher | 40 |
| 1.4.3.1. | Qualities of a Language Teacher | 41 |
| 1.4.3.2. | Roles and Responsibilities of Language Teacher | 43 |
| 1.4.3.3. | Professional Ethics of Language Teacher | 44 |
| 1.4.3.4. | Criteria for Good Language Teacher | 45 |
| 1.4.4. | Difference in the Role of Language Teacher and Subject Teacher | 46 |
| 1.5. | Language Learning | 46 |
| 1.5.1. | Learning Language | 46 |
| 1.5.2. | Meaning of Language Learning | 46 |
| 1.5.2.1. | Features of Language Learning | 47 |
| 1.5.2.2. | Principles of Language Learning | 47 |
| 1.5.2.3. | Issues Related To Indian Language Learning Scenario | 48 |
| 1.5.2.4. | Role of Teacher in Language Learning | 50 |

| | | |
|--------|---|----|
| 1.5.3. | Learning through Language | 50 |
| 1.5.4. | Learning about Language | 51 |
| 1.6. | Functions of Language in Classroom Learning | 51 |
| 1.6.1. | Basic Functions of Language | 51 |
| 1.6.2. | Functions of Language Inside the Classroom | 53 |
| 1.6.3. | Functions of Language Outside the Classroom | 54 |
| 1.7. | Exercise | 55 |

Chapter 2: Language Acquisition and Language Learning

| | | |
|----------|---|----|
| 2.1. | Language Acquisition and learning | 56 |
| 2.1.1. | Introduction | 56 |
| 2.1.2. | Meaning & Definition of Language Acquisition | 57 |
| 2.1.3. | Process of Language Acquisition | 57 |
| 2.1.4. | First Language (L1) Acquisition | 57 |
| 2.1.4.1. | Characteristics of First Language (L1) Acquisition | 57 |
| 2.1.4.2. | Process of First Language (L1) Acquisition | 58 |
| 2.1.4.3. | Significance of First Language (L1) | 58 |
| 2.1.5. | Second Language (L2) / School Language | 59 |
| 2.1.5.1. | Process of Second Language (L2) Acquisition | 59 |
| 2.1.5.2. | Communication Strategies for Second Language (L2) Learners | 60 |
| 2.1.6. | Factors Affecting Acquisition of Language | 61 |
| 2.1.7. | Difference between Language Acquisition and Language Learning | 62 |
| 2.2. | Multilingualism | 62 |
| 2.2.1. | Meaning and Definition of Multilingualism | 62 |
| 2.2.2. | Nature/Features of Indian Multilingualism | 63 |
| 2.2.3. | Types of Multilingualism | 64 |
| 2.2.4. | Benefits of Multilingualism | 66 |
| 2.2.5. | Multilingualism in Education | 67 |
| 2.2.6. | Role of Language Policy with Respect to the Multilingualism In India | 68 |
| 2.2.7. | Need of Addressing Multilingualism in Early Learning | 69 |
| 2.2.8. | Challenges for Leveraging Multilingualism in India | 70 |
| 2.2.9. | Ways to Redress Challenges | 71 |
| 2.2.10. | Adoption of Multilingual Approach by Early Childhood Education Curriculum | 73 |
| 2.2.11. | Recommendations for Multilingual Education | 76 |
| 2.3. | Multi-Cultural awareness and Language Diversity | 76 |
| 2.3.1. | Multi-Cultural Awareness | 76 |
| 2.3.1.1. | Benefits of Multicultural Awareness | 77 |
| 2.3.2. | Language Diversity | 77 |
| 2.3.2.1. | Unity of Language | 78 |
| 2.3.3. | Three Language Formula | 79 |
| 2.3.3.1. | Impact of Three-language Formula | 81 |
| 2.4. | Language and Society | 83 |
| 2.4.1. | Sociology of Language | 83 |
| 2.4.2. | Relationship between Language and Society | 84 |

| | | |
|----------|--|----|
| 2.4.3. | Factors Affecting Society and Language | 86 |
| 2.4.4. | Importance of Language in Society | 87 |
| 2.4.5. | Language and Identity | 88 |
| 2.4.5.1. | Kinds of Identity | 89 |
| 2.4.5.2. | Development of Language Identity | 89 |
| 2.4.5.3. | Language and National Identity | 90 |
| 2.4.5.4. | Language and Cultural Identity | 91 |
| 2.4.5.5. | Language as Identity | 91 |
| 2.4.6. | Language and Power | 92 |
| 2.4.6.1. | Power and Politics | 92 |
| 2.4.6.2. | The Language of Politics | 93 |
| 2.4.6.3. | Language Power | 94 |
| 2.4.7. | Discrimination | 94 |
| 2.4.7.1. | Discrimination and Language | 95 |
| 2.5. | Multilingualism as a Resource and Strategy | 95 |
| 2.5.1. | Multilingualism as a Resource | 96 |
| 2.5.2. | Multilingualism as a Strategy | 98 |
| 2.6. | Exercise | 98 |

Chapter 3: Language Discourse in the Classroom

| | | |
|----------|--|-----|
| 3.1. | Classroom Discourse | 99 |
| 3.1.1. | Classroom Discourse | 99 |
| 3.1.2. | Types of Classroom Discourse | 100 |
| 3.1.3. | Importance of Classroom Discourse | 100 |
| 3.1.3.1. | Role of Teacher in Classroom Discourse | 100 |
| 3.1.3.2. | Importance of Teachers' Personality in Classroom Discourse | 102 |
| 3.2. | General Classroom Language | 104 |
| 3.2.1. | Meaning of Classroom Language | 104 |
| 3.2.2. | Strategies for Teaching Classroom Language | 105 |
| 3.3. | Classroom Instructions and Language Learning | 105 |
| 3.3.1. | Meaning of Instructions | 105 |
| 3.3.2. | Types of Instructions | 105 |
| 3.3.3. | Medium of Instruction | 105 |
| 3.3.3.1. | Mother Tongue as the Medium of Instruction | 106 |
| 3.3.3.2. | English Language as the Medium of Instruction | 107 |
| 3.3.3.3. | Significance of Medium of Instruction | 107 |
| 3.3.4. | Content-Based Instruction | 107 |
| 3.3.4.1. | Benefits of Content-Based Instruction | 108 |
| 3.4. | Use of Literature Across the Curriculum | 108 |
| 3.4.1. | Literature | 108 |
| 3.4.2. | Relevance/Importance of Studying Literature in School Course | 109 |
| 3.4.3. | Principles of Teaching Literature | 110 |
| 3.4.4. | Objectives of Teaching English Literature | 111 |
| 3.4.5. | Teaching Objectives of Literature at Primary Level to Higher Secondary Level | 113 |
| 3.4.6. | Aspects of Teaching English Literature | 113 |
| 3.5. | Questioning and Discussion | 113 |

| | | |
|----------|---|-----|
| 3.5.1. | Questioning | 113 |
| 3.5.1.1. | Types of Questions | 114 |
| 3.5.1.2. | Purposes of Questioning | 115 |
| 3.5.1.3. | Questioning in the Classroom | 116 |
| 3.5.1.4. | Questioning Skill | 117 |
| 3.5.1.5. | Components of Questioning Skill | 117 |
| 3.5.1.6. | Strategies for Effective Questioning | 118 |
| 3.5.1.7. | Importance of Questioning | 118 |
| 3.5.2. | Discussion | 119 |
| 3.5.2.1. | Characteristics of a Good Discussion | 120 |
| 3.5.2.2. | Types of Discussion | 120 |
| 3.5.2.3. | Need and Importance of Classroom Discussion | 120 |
| 3.5.2.4. | Guidelines for Classroom Discussion | 121 |
| 3.5.2.5. | Organisation and Control of Discussion | 121 |
| 3.5.2.6. | Advantages of Discussion Method | 122 |
| 3.5.2.7. | Disadvantages of Discussion Method | 122 |
| 3.6. | Exercise | 122 |

UNIT II

Chapter 4: Listening and Speaking as Essential Communicative Skills

| | | |
|----------|--|-----|
| 4.1. | Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing (LSRW) | 123 |
| 4.2. | Listening | 124 |
| 4.2.1. | Listening | 124 |
| 4.2.2. | Components of Listening | 124 |
| 4.2.3. | Process of Effective Listening | 126 |
| 4.2.4. | Importance of Listening | 127 |
| 4.2.4.1. | Importance of Listening as Individual | 127 |
| 4.2.4.2. | Importance of Listening in one's Profession (as a Teacher) | 127 |
| 4.2.5. | Methods for Teaching Listening Skills | 128 |
| 4.2.6. | Development of Listening Skills | 128 |
| 4.2.7. | Improvement of Listening Skills | 128 |
| 4.2.8. | Micro and Macro Skills of Listening | 129 |
| 4.2.9. | Listening Procedure | 129 |
| 4.3. | Speaking | 130 |
| 4.3.1. | Speaking | 130 |
| 4.3.2. | Purpose of Speaking | 130 |
| 4.3.3. | Speaking Genres (Styles) | 130 |
| 4.3.4. | Technique of Teaching Speaking Skills | 131 |
| 4.3.5. | Learners' Problems in Speaking Skills | 132 |
| 4.3.6. | Teacher's Problems in Speaking Skills | 132 |
| 4.4. | Processing and Enquiring Information | 132 |
| 4.4.1. | Information Processing | 132 |
| 4.4.1.1. | Use of Information Processing View in the Classroom | 133 |
| 4.4.2. | Inquiry-based Learning | 133 |
| 4.5. | Listening and Speaking to Interact | 134 |
| 4.5.1. | Dialogue | 135 |

| | | |
|----------|---|-----|
| 4.5.1.1. | Characteristics of Dialogue | 136 |
| 4.5.1.2. | Types of Dialogue | 136 |
| 4.5.1.3. | Functions of Dialogue | 136 |
| 4.5.1.4. | Presenting and Practicing Standard Dialogues | 137 |
| 4.5.1.5. | Tips for Students while Writing or Adapting Dialogues | 137 |
| 4.5.2. | Storytelling | 138 |
| 4.5.2.1. | Types of Stories | 138 |
| 4.5.2.2. | Advantages of Stories | 139 |
| 4.5.2.3. | Disadvantages of Stories | 139 |
| 4.5.2.4. | Story Writing | 139 |
| 4.5.2.5. | Elements of a Story | 140 |
| 4.5.2.6. | Mechanism of Story Writing | 141 |
| 4.5.3. | Poem | 142 |
| 4.5.3.1. | Difference between Poem and Poetry | 142 |
| 4.5.3.2. | Importance of Teaching Poetry | 142 |
| 4.5.3.3. | Methods and Approaches of Teaching Poetry | 144 |
| 4.5.4. | Recitation | 144 |
| 4.5.4.1. | Recitation Criteria and Tips | 146 |
| 4.5.5. | Short Play | 146 |
| 4.5.5.1. | Benefits of Role Play | 147 |
| 4.6. | Respond to Style, Tone and Registers of Language | 147 |
| 4.6.1. | Style | 148 |
| 4.6.1.1. | Classification of Style | 148 |
| 4.6.1.2. | Levels of Style | 149 |
| 4.6.1.3. | Factors Affecting Style | 149 |
| 4.6.1.4. | Function of Style | 149 |
| 4.6.2. | Tone | 150 |
| 4.6.3. | Registers | 150 |
| 4.6.3.1. | Categories of Register | 151 |
| 4.7. | Exercise | |

Chapter 5: Reading to Learn and Understand

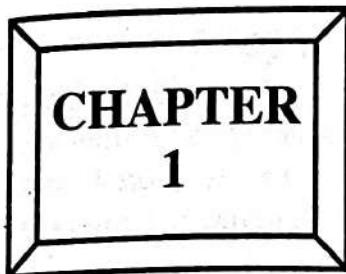
| | | |
|----------|------------------------------------|-----|
| 5.1. | Reading | 152 |
| 5.1.1. | Meaning and Definitions of Reading | 152 |
| 5.1.2. | Objectives of Reading | 153 |
| 5.1.3. | Need and Importance of Reading | 153 |
| 5.1.4. | Types of Reading | 154 |
| 5.1.5. | Skimming | 154 |
| 5.1.5.1. | Uses of Skimming | 155 |
| 5.1.5.2. | Role of the Teacher | 155 |
| 5.1.5.3. | Role of the Student | 156 |
| 5.1.5.4. | Process of Skimming in Reading | 156 |
| 5.1.6. | Scanning | 156 |
| 5.1.6.1. | Uses of Scanning | 156 |
| 5.1.6.2. | Roles of the Teacher | 157 |
| 5.1.6.3. | Roles of the Student | 157 |
| 5.1.6.4. | Process of Scanning in Reading | 157 |

| | | |
|----------|--|-----|
| 5.1.7. | Intensive Reading | 158 |
| 5.1.7.1. | Roles of the Teacher | 158 |
| 5.1.8. | Extensive Reading | 158 |
| 5.1.8.1. | Roles of the Teacher | 159 |
| 5.1.8.2. | Roles of the Student | 159 |
| 5.1.9. | Extracting Relevant Information from the Books | 160 |
| 5.1.9.1. | SQ3R (Survey, Question, Read, Recall, Review) | 160 |
| 5.2. | Reading Comprehension | 162 |
| 5.2.1. | Meaning and Definitions of Reading Comprehension | 162 |
| 5.2.2. | Types of Reading Comprehension | 163 |
| 5.2.3. | Reading Comprehension Levels | 163 |
| 5.2.4. | Loud Reading <i>versus</i> Silent Reading | 164 |
| 5.2.4.1. | Loud Reading | 164 |
| 5.2.4.2. | Silent Reading | 166 |
| 5.2.4.3. | Difference between Loud Reading and Silent Reading | 167 |
| 5.3. | Understand the Meaning in Reference to Context | 168 |
| 5.3.1. | Context | 168 |
| 5.3.1.1. | Types of Context | 168 |
| 5.3.2. | Reference | 168 |
| 5.4. | Schema Theory of Reading | 170 |
| 5.4.1. | Concept of Schema Theory | 170 |
| 5.4.2. | Meaning and Definition of Schema Theory | 170 |
| 5.4.3. | Characteristics of Schema Theory | 171 |
| 5.4.4. | Types of Schema | 172 |
| 5.4.5. | Applications of Schema Theory | 173 |
| 5.4.6. | Importance of Schema Theory | 173 |
| 5.4.7. | Text Structure | 174 |
| 5.4.7.1. | Forms of Text | 174 |
| 5.4.7.2. | Reasons of Teaching Text Structures | 175 |
| 5.4.8. | Content Area Reading | 176 |
| 5.4.8.1. | Content | 176 |
| 5.4.8.2. | Purpose of Content Selection | 176 |
| 5.4.8.3. | Guidelines for Content Selection | 177 |
| 5.4.8.4. | Criteria for the Selection of Content | 177 |
| 5.4.8.5. | Organisation of Content | 177 |
| 5.4.8.6. | Concerns of Content Selection | 178 |
| 5.4.8.7. | Principles of Subject Content | 179 |
| 5.5. | Exercise | 179 |

Chapter 6: Writing to Learn and Understand

| | | |
|----------|--|-----|
| 6.1. | Writing | 180 |
| 6.1.1. | Meaning and Definition of Writing | 180 |
| 6.1.1.1. | Types of Writing | 181 |
| 6.1.1.2. | Importance of Writing | 181 |
| 6.1.2. | Meaning and Definition of Writing Skills | 182 |
| 6.1.2.1. | Characteristics of Writing Skills | 183 |
| 6.1.2.2. | Need of Writing Skills | 184 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| 6.1.2.3. Types of Writing Skills | 185 |
| 6.1.2.4. Developing Writing Skills | 185 |
| 6.1.2.5. Improving Writing Skills | 186 |
| 6.2. Linkage between Reading and Writing | 188 |
| 6.2.1. Relationship between Reading and Writing | 188 |
| 6.2.2. Guidelines for Teachers to Improve Reading and Writing Skills | 189 |
| 6.2.3. Process of Writing | 192 |
| 6.2.4. Strategies of Writing | 195 |
| 6.2.5. Mechanism of Writing | 195 |
| 6.3. Learn to Write Reports, Reviews, Essays, Notices, Letters, and Creative Writings | 197 |
| 6.3.1. Reports | 197 |
| 6.3.1.1. Types of Report | 197 |
| 6.3.1.2. Planning for Preparing a Formal Report | 199 |
| 6.3.1.3. Format of a Report | 199 |
| 6.3.1.4. Report Writing | 200 |
| 6.3.1.5. Importance of Report Writing | 200 |
| 6.3.2. Review | 200 |
| 6.3.2.1. Purpose of the Review | 201 |
| 6.3.2.2. Content of the Review | 201 |
| 6.3.3. Book Review | 201 |
| 6.3.3.1. Need of Reviewing Text Book | 202 |
| 6.3.3.2. Features of Book Review | 202 |
| 6.3.3.3. Approaches to Reviewing a Book | 202 |
| 6.3.3.4. Standards for Book Review | 203 |
| 6.3.3.5. Structure/ Process of Writing a Book Review | 204 |
| 6.3.4. Essay | 206 |
| 6.3.4.1. Structure of an Essay | 207 |
| 6.3.5. Notice | 208 |
| 6.3.5.1. Features of Notice | 208 |
| 6.3.5.2. Format of a Notice | 209 |
| 6.3.6. Letters | 210 |
| 6.3.6.1. Formal Letters | 210 |
| 6.3.6.2. Informal Letter | 212 |
| 6.3.7. Creative Writing | 213 |
| 6.3.7.1. Types of Creative Writing | 214 |
| 6.3.7.2. Techniques Used in Creative Writing | 215 |
| 6.4. Presentations of Selected Papers, Questions and Answers | 215 |
| 6.4.1. Presentation of Selected Papers | 215 |
| 6.4.1.1. Tips for Academic Paper Presentation | 216 |
| 6.4.2. Presentations of Questions and Answers | 217 |
| 6.4.2.1. Generation of Question Paper | 217 |
| 6.4.2.2. Presentation of Questions in the Class | 219 |
| 6.5. Exercise | 220 |
| | 221 |



Introduction to Language Across the Curriculum Approach

1.1. LANGUAGE

1.1.1. Introduction

Language which has been considered man's most remarkable achievement, is so much a part of our lives, like the air we breathe, that very often we take it for granted and as often are not aware of its characteristic features. Language is a system.

Human beings can communicate with each other. We are able to exchange knowledge, beliefs, opinions, wishes, threats, commands, thanks, promises, declarations, feelings, etc., only our imagination sets limits. We can laugh to express amusement, happiness, or disrespect, we can smile to express amusement, pleasure, approval, or bitter feelings, we can shriek to express anger, excitement, or fear, we can tightly closed our hands to express determination, anger or a threat, we can raise our eyebrows to express surprise or disapproval, and so on, but our system of communication before anything else is language. Language is a system of communication based upon words and the combination of words into sentences. Communication by means of language may be referred to as linguistic communication, the other ways such as laughing, smiling, crying, and so on are types of non-linguistic communication.

Language is a dual system of arbitrary vocal symbols which is used for human communication. The duality is due to the coexistence of two systems of language - the system of sounds and the system of meanings; thus, duality is a basic feature of language. Language is arbitrary because we cannot predict which features will be found in any particular language; language is symbolic because the words humans speak are associated with objects, ideas, and actions.

There is no certainty about the origin and nature of language. Several theories have been propounded in support of its origin and nature. Language consists of letters, alphabets, words, idioms and syntax, etc. Through language, human beings think, feel, judge and express. It includes all those verbal and non-verbal actions of human beings that are related to communication of ideas. Postures, gestures, written and printed symbols all are the basis of the origin of language. No language is created in one day out of a mutually agreed formula by a group of humans. Language is the outcome of evolution and convention. It is non-instinctive by nature because it is acquired by human beings. Nobody gets a language in heritage; people acquired it because they have an innate ability.

1.1.2. Meaning and Definitions of Language

Language is the most powerful and important tool to convey ideas and thoughts to one to other in the world. From birth to death, all human beings activities are regulated by language. The human knowledge and culture is stored and transmitted in language. Thinking is only possible through language. Language dominates every aspect of human life.

The English word 'Language' have been derived from the Latin word, 'Lingua', which implies 'tongue'. French terms 'langue' and 'Parole' also bear impressions of language. 'Langue' is a specific form of speech which is conventional and belongs to a particular community. For example, in India we have languages like Punjabi, Bengali, Rajasthani, etc. 'Parole' also means speech but it denotes the 'individual' side of language, i.e., how a person expresses his feelings, emotions and desires while living in a society.

The scientific study of language is called linguistics. Linguistics have given different definitions of language. Language is a human system of communication that uses arbitrary signals, such as voice sounds, gestures, and/or written symbols. A few definitions of language are given below:

Oxford English Dictionary defines language as "Words and the methods of combining them for the expression of thoughts"

According to Sweet, "Language is the expression of ideas by means of which speech sounds are combined into words, words are combined into sentences and combination of sentences gives answering to ideas and thoughts."

According to Allen, "Language is a mean of communicative thoughts."

According to Bolinger, "Language is species specific."

According to H.A. Gleason, "Language is one of the most important and characteristic forms of human behaviour."

According to Ben Jonson, "Language most shows a man; speak that I may see thee."

Leonard Bloomfield says that, "Each community is formed by the activity of language."

According to Edward Sapir, "Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols."

According to B. Bloch and G. Trager, "A language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group cooperates."

According to Wayne Weiten, "A language consists of symbols that convey meaning, plus rules for combining those symbols, that can be used to generate an infinite variety of messages."

According to E. Bruce Goldstein, "We can define language as a system of communication using sounds or symbols that enables us to express our feelings, thoughts, ideas, and experiences."

Thus, by the above definition one thing is clear that human being is separated from other beings due to its language skill. Language is a mean of communication. With the help of language, one can express his thoughts and feelings to others. Without language one cannot exist in the society.

1.1.3. Nature and Characteristics of Language

The nature of language can be understood by the following points:

1) **Language is Arbitrary:** Language is arbitrary in the sense that there is no inherent relation between the words of a language and their meanings or the ideas conveyed by them. There is no reason why a female adult human being is called a woman in English, aurat in Urdu, zen in Persian and femme in French.

The choice of a word selected to mean a particular thing or idea is purely arbitrary but once a word is selected for a particular referent, it comes to stay as such. It may be noted that had language not been arbitrary, there would have been only one language in the world.

2) **Language is Complex:** Like human body, language is a complex system. A human body functions because of different organs like the heart, lungs, brain, etc. Similarly the language system functions because of words, structures, sound, etc. These are the most important parts of a language. All these are inter-linked.

3) **Language is Unique:** Each language is unique because it has its own style of functioning. The sounds, vocabulary and structures of every language have their own specialty.

4) **Language is the Means of Expression and Communication:** Language is the best means of expressions and communication. Human beings express their ideas, thoughts, feelings and emotions through language. In this way language is a mean to connect past present and future.

5) **Language is an Acquired Skill:** Learning of a language is a skill. It is skill like swimming and cycling. One cannot learn swimming or cycling without practice. Thus, language can be learnt by practice.

6) **Language is Learnt:** Learning of language is not an automatic process. Of course, it is behaviour but it is not type of behaviour like walking and crawling that comes to child in natural way. Language is learnt by imitation and practice. Language is not possible without efforts.

7) **Language is Related to the Culture of Society:** Every language is related to culture of society to which it belongs. The culture of the people naturally influences the language. Every language is the product of society. A person cannot separate language from the culture in which that language exists. It has meaning only in relation to that society and culture.

8) **Language is Species Specific:** Language is species specific because only human beings have got the gift of language. Of course, the other species do communicate but only human beings can make use of language.

9) **Language is Species Uniformed:** Language is species uniformed. All human children are capable of acquiring any language natively if they are provided the right kind of environment.

10) **Language is a System:** Each language is a unique system. The system of language consists of sounds, structures and vocabulary. A person who wants to learn a new language will have to learn new sounds, new structures and new vocabulary. The sound system of language differs from language to language depending upon the culture to which a language belongs.

11) **Language is a System of Systems:** Each language is a system of systems. There are phonological and grammatical systems in all languages. There are several sub-systems within a language. The phonology of a language forms its own system as the various sounds function in a systematic way.

12) **Governed by Particular Set of Rules:** Each language is governed by a particular set of rules. For example, English is S.V.O. language. In forming sentence, first we put subject, then verb and after verb we put object, e.g., He killed a snake. On the other hand, Hindi is S.O.V. language. First we put subject, then object and after object, we put verb, e.g., Usnne saap maara.

1.1.4. Need and Importance of Language

Language has crucial role in the life of every individual. The role of language in our lives is incomparable. It is not just restrained to being a means of communicating one's thoughts and ideas to the rest, but has also become a tool for forging friendships, cultural ties as well as economic relationships. Throughout history, learned men have reflected on the importance of language in our lives. Language is an extremely important way of interacting with the people around us. We use language to let others know how we feel, what we need, and to ask questions. We can modify our language to each situation. It is important and it can be seen under following points:

1) **Bases of Education:** Language is the bases of all education. School education is predominately language oriented. Reading, writing and arithmetic are all based on language proficiency.

2) **Understanding of Self and Others:** Not only is this parent/child linguistic interaction crucial to the child's cognitive development, but it also very important to its development of a normal relationship with its parents. In addition, language plays a role in the child's understanding of self and others.

3) **Social Interaction:** Children interact socially through these and similar games just as adults often use language purely as means for social interaction.

4) **Grooming Personality:** Language aids in developing and grooming one's personality as a whole. Since learning a language is part of our knowledge, it becomes one of the key factors in competitiveness. In the advanced industrial society of today, the basic knowledge of a single or more language has become indispensable.

TGL

5) **Medium of Thought:** Language is the vehicle of our thought. We think through language. Thought is called sub-vocal speech. The thinking process is disturbed if the individual has deficiency in language.

6) **Medium of Expression:** Language is the medium of expression of our feelings and experiences. In other words we express our feelings and experiences through language. He expresses his feelings and experiences through signs and gestures.

7) **Medium of Communication:** We communicate with one another through language. With the advent of the concept of globalisation, people all over the globe communicate with each other and exchange ideas. Though technological advances have served as a medium for communication, you cannot deny the role played by language. Understanding of a common language has helped people to communicate, despite being from varied parts of the world. Language has become a major tool of communication between countries, cultural groups, various companies and organisations, communities and friends.

8) **Medium of Literature:** Language is the medium of literature. All great literature is produced through the medium of language. Language thus helps us to read literature, understand and appreciate the work of great writers and poets.

9) **Helpful in Communicating with other Nations:** Different countries communicate with each other through language only. International community's exchange their views through English language because English is international language.

10) **Human Development:** Language is one of the key factors of our human developmental process, which sets us apart from the rest of the animal kingdom and knits a strong feeling of kinship amongst us. A baby is born without language, but even without formal training, by the age of five, the child knows several hundred words and grammar of a particular language.

This is an inherent human tendency, which is extremely important for further growth. Any discrepancy seen in learning a language at such early stage might indicate certain illness in a child.

11) **Social Development:** It is that children learn what is acceptable and what is not acceptable. When we work with the children we experience their disability. It is important to remember that each child is an individual and their communication ability, social skills and understanding differ widely.

12) **Growth of Civilisation:** Language contributes to the growth of our civilisation. Language and civilisation are inseparable.

13) **Development of Peace:** Language contributes to peace process. International understanding and international peace have been possible through the medium of language.

1.1.5. Scope of Language

The scope of language is as widened as the human activities. At present, there is no any activity, which does not find its expression in terms of language. No subject can be pursued, be it arts or science without using and understanding language. Human activity linked to language. Generally speaking Language is a socially shared code, or conventional system, that represents ideas through the use of arbitrary symbols and rules that govern combinations of these symbols. Therefore it may be seen that language is a code whereby ideas about the world are represented through a conventional system of arbitrary signals for communication. The scope of language can be mentioned under following points:

- 1) **Language in Jobs:** Learning language is very important for job, for communication between people for interacting. Now a days, many companies want those people who knows more than one language. As many companies encourage their employees to sharpen their language skills. As language allow one to share information, and to communicate beliefs and speculations, attitude and emotions.
- 2) **Language in Schools:** In schools, it is compulsory for students to choose additional language alongwith Hindi like English, French or Spanish. A person who knows more than one language he or she is appreciated by the society. If we know atleast 2 language like English or French so we can travel anywhere and for us it will be easy to communicate with foreign people. In India though our mother tongue is Hindi but now it has become a globalisation world so people learn French, Spanish, German alongwith English language. As English has become the second language now. So it has become compulsory for students to learn other language.
- 3) **Language in Business:** Ability to communicate in multiple languages is becoming more and more important in the increasingly global business community. Communicating directly with new clients in their native language is one of the first steps to founding a stable international business relationship. Many institutions offer opportunities to learn a foreign language. Learning to communicate fluently in multiple languages provides additional job security. As we all know that many companies want to increase their business so they connect their companies to other country companies, so for that they need many different kinds of employees who can communicate in different languages and understand other cultures. And a person who knows multilanguage, for him it will be a golden chance. If a person knows more than one language he will be having a real advantage. Knowing atleast some basic of the local language can be very helpful to live in a new country.
- 4) **Language in a Trans Disciplinary Programme:** Language is involved in all learning that goes on in a school, in both the affective and effective domains. Learners listen, talk, read and write their way to negotiating new meanings and understanding new concepts. Language provides a vehicle for inquiry. In an inquiry-based classroom, teachers and students enjoy using language, appreciating it both functionally and aesthetically.

1.2. CURRICULUM

1.2.1. Concept of Curriculum

The word 'curriculum' has been derived from the Latin word 'currere' which means 'a race' or 'the course of a race' or 'to run/to proceed'. In 1576, Petrus Ramus, Professor at University of Paris, in his work, *Professio-Regia*, was first to contribute in the field of education. Later in 1582, the term 'Curriculum' appeared to be used in University of Leiden. By the 17th century, the University of Glasgow also named its "course" of study as a "curriculum". By the 19th century, European universities routinely referred to their curriculum to describe both the complete course of study (as for a degree in surgery) and particular courses with their content.

In the early years of the 20th century, the traditional concept of the curriculum was that "it is a body of subjects or subject matter prepared by the teachers for the students to learn". It was synonymous to the "course of study" and "syllabus".

Curriculum is the key reference point for teachers, particularly in developing countries, where it is encoded in the official textbook, and teacher guides, often the sole resource used by teachers. Teachers' pedagogic approaches, strategies, and practices serve to enact the curriculum. The curriculum links the macro (officially selected educational goals and content) with the micro (the act of teaching and assessment in the classroom/school). It is best seen as 'a series of translations, transpositions, and transformations. The official curriculum is transacted and in the process gets transformed, as 'teachers and students interpret, modify and add to the meaning' embodied in the official specification. Thus, curriculum, pedagogy, and assessment are interrelated and mutually influence one another in the day-to-day classroom interaction.

1.2.2. Meaning and Definitions of Curriculum

Curriculum is the heart of education. It is the totality of all the learning to which students are exposed during their study in the school. For student, it is the thing that the teacher makes us to learn, for teachers courses of study provided us to follow, for principal the courses for which units of credit are given, and for parents the fact that is in the textbooks.

Curriculum may be defined as "The planned and guided learning experiences, and intended learning outcomes, formulated through the systematic reconstruction of knowledge and experiences, under the auspices of the school, for the learners' continuous and wilful growth in personal social competency".

According to Cunningham, "Curriculum is a tool in the hands of the artist (teacher) to mould his material (pupils) according to his ideas (aims and objectives) in his studio (school).

According to Brubacher, "Curriculum is a runway which one has to run to reach a goal or a course of study".

According to Spalding, "Curriculum is a strategy by which schools attempts to fulfil the goals of education".

According to Secondary Education Commission, "Curriculum is defined as the totality of experiences the pupil receives through manifold activities that go in the school, in the classroom, laboratory, workshops, playground and in the numerous informal contacts between the teacher and the pupil." (+) P

According to Mudaliar Commission, "Curriculum includes all the learner's experiences in or outside that are included in a programme which has been devised to help him develop physically, emotionally, socially, spiritually and morally".

According to C. Ronald, "Curriculum includes all the learning experiences offered to all the learners under the direction of the school".

According to Kerr, "All the learning which is planned and guided by the school, whether it is carried on in groups or individually, inside or outside of school".

Furthermore, the curriculum defines "why, what, when, where, how, and with whom to learn". Thus, curriculum can refer to the entire programme provided by a classroom, school, district, state, or country. A classroom is assigned sections of the curriculum as defined by the school.

1.2.3. Nature/Characteristics of Curriculum

Nature of a curriculum may be explained on the following grounds:

- 1) **Curricula as a Set of Objectives**: Curriculum can be seen as a means of achieving specific educational goals and objectives. In this sense, a curriculum can be regarded as a checklist of desired outcomes. In the curriculum development process, generally speaking, the objectives are clear and specific in behavioural and observable terms.
- 2) **Curricula as Courses of Study or Content**: Curriculum can be understood as a process of selecting courses of study or content. In this sense, a curriculum also either describes or prescribes the content and goals of formal instruction but lays the means of instruction out of the foreground of focus. Although this use of the curriculum appears similar to the above-mentioned definition – Curricula as a Set of Objectives – in terms of the inclusion of goals, in fact, there is a different focus.
- 3) **Curricula as Plans**: A curriculum can be seen as a plan, or a sort of blueprint for systematically implementing educational activities. This sense of the term combines content with instructional methods and hence has a wider scope than the former two curricular paradigms because of the inclusion of methods. In this vein, Tom (1984) canvasses curriculum as "a plan for teaching or instruction". Similarly, Pratt (1994) conceives it as "a plan for a sustained process of teaching and learning" with a specific focus on content and the process of teaching and learning.

- 4) **Curricula as Documents:** Some people, view curriculum as a document, an outline of a course programme that is written on a piece of paper. Thus, curriculum "has become associated with the official written programmes of study published by ministries or departments of education, local authorities or boards of education, and commercial firms or teams of educational specialists working on specially funded projects".
- 5) **Curricula as Experiences:** Instead of regarding curricula narrowly as formalised classroom content or prescriptive learning objectives, it may be useful to think of them more holistically as programmes for experiences.

Kelly (1999) identified three kinds of the nature of curriculum:

- 1) **Planned Curriculum:** It means what is laid down in the syllabus.
- 2) **Received Curriculum:** It refers to the reality of students' experiences.
- 3) **Hidden Curriculum:** It is a knowledge that implicit knowledge students learn in school.

1.2.4. Objectives of Curriculum

Its main objectives are as follows:

- 1) To attain defined goals of education.
- 2) To provide essential and useful knowledge to the learners.
- 3) To provide creative and flexible approaches to learning and teaching.
- 4) More focus on environmental education.
- 5) To provide vocational text matter.
- 6) To offer an innovative curriculum developed with the aspirations and interests of the student at the centre.
- 7) To make effective use of ICT and new technologies to motivate and inspire students.
- 8) To nurture close partnerships with local and international organisations, giving students a wide range of opportunities to experience the world of work.
- 9) To provide opportunities for students to extend their learning beyond the formal curriculum.

1.2.5. Importance of Curriculum

Curriculum provides several benefits, such as providing a structure for an educational course and having an end goal that teachers set for their students to reach. Curricula vary widely in structure and complexity, but they are valuable for many different areas of education, including linguistics, mathematics and science. Curriculum is in fact the 'warp' and woof of the whole educational process. Its importance may be summed-up as follows:

- 1) **Achievement of Educational Aims:** Merely defining the aims of education is futile. There should be well planned efforts to achieve the aims of education. We must think of knowledge, activities, experiences and other influences which help in the achievement of aims of education.

- 2) **Useful for Teachers:** The teacher is required to achieve the aims of education. For that purpose, he has to employ suitable instructional methods and procedures. But this he can do only when he knows what efforts he is to make and in what order. In other words, he should know the content of curriculum which consists of subjects, activities and experiences in the properly graded form.
- 3) **Criteria of Suitable Teachers:** It is curriculum which can show what types of teachers are required in the schools. We should know what type of work they are required to do and this is according to the requirements of curriculum.
- 4) **Selection of Suitable Methods:** Curriculum enables the teacher to select suitable methods of teaching. 'How to teach' will be determined by 'what to teach'.
- 5) **Reflects Trends in Education:** Curriculum is a means to achieve the aims of education which are dynamic and changes with the changing social requirements. Naturally, the curriculum will reflect the trends in education.
- 6) **Providing Suitable Knowledge:** Curriculum should include suitable knowledge which will help in the achievement of educational aims.
- 7) **Providing Suitable Activities and Experiences:** Curriculum includes well selected activities and experiences needed for the development of pupils according to social requirements.
- 8) **Providing Wholesome Influences:** Curriculum should provide wholesome school programme to develop the desirable behaviour patterns in the pupils.

Thus, we see that curriculum is an important instrument or means to achieve the ends of education. It is important:

- 1) **In Elementary Schools:** In elementary schools, the curriculum is primarily drawn by the educational boards or some central society. They study the needs of the kids and all other feasibilities before selecting courses and drafting a curriculum. Here, the students have least choice in their subjects and study based on a universal curriculum, which works on all sections of the students' psyche and aid in the total development of the student. No area is left untouched. Hence, the curriculum aids in the proper development, while the child comes to terms with his or her own inclination. Therefore, at primary school levels, the curriculum aims at providing a structured platform, which gives every child an equal opportunity to excel.
- 2) **In High Schools:** At high school levels, teenagers can take their own liberty in choosing their path. Though complete autonomy does not rest with a student, a level of choice is very evident. This helps in the development of the teenager, with added importance of being given the field of his own choice. At this stage, the development is more focused and rampant, enhanced through a proper curriculum. Without an effective curriculum, a student would not be able to understand or meet the challenges of the society.

3) **At College and Higher Education:** At a higher stage of education, an unprecedented autonomy is provided to the students. The students can opt for a more focused curriculum, based on their choice of subjects. A student will graduate, post-graduate or attain a doctorate based on the choice of his subjects and the mode of his study, both or either one determined by him. The curriculum here is reduced to just a framework that is very flexible yet very important. The curriculum chosen by the student will determine the shape of his career. A curriculum prepares an individual with the knowledge to be successful, confident and responsible citizens.

1.2.6. Types of Curriculum

There are various types of curriculum which are used in the schools. These types of curriculum depend on the organisation of curriculum. There are different philosophical views on these curricula organisation. Having based on these views, various curriculums have been prepared for the learners. Some of them are as follows:

1) **Core Curriculum:** The simple definition for the word core is 'central', and this perfectly describes the intention of **core curriculum**. The core curriculum is the set of common courses required of all undergraduates and considered the necessary general education for students, irrespective of their choice in major. The communal learning with all students encountering the same texts and issues at the same time and the critical dialogue experienced in small seminars are the distinctive features of the core. A core curriculum is a curriculum, or course of study, which is deemed central and usually made mandatory for all students of a school or school system. This is not an independent type of curriculum. It refers to the area of study, course or subjects that students must understand in order to be recognised as educated in the area. The learner has no option but to study the prescribed course or subjects.

2) **Activity-Based Curriculum:** Active learning is anything that students do in a classroom other than merely passively listening to an instructors lecture. This includes everything from listening practices which help the students to absorb what they hear, to short writing exercises in which students react to lecture materials, to complex group exercise in which students apply course material to real life situations or to new problems. According to Tanner and Tanner, "Activity curriculum is an attempt to treat learning as an active process. Activity curriculum discards the boundaries and the curriculum was centred largely on areas of child interest. The objective of curriculum was child growth through experience." Activity-based curriculum includes a definite beginning and ending, a clear purpose, completed, contain and understandable directions, feedback mechanism and description of technology or tools being used in the exercise.

3) **Interdisciplinary Curriculum:** It curriculum is a knowledge view and curriculum approach that consciously applies methodology and language from more than one discipline to examine a central theme, issue, problem, topic or experience. Skills and knowledge are developed and applied in more than one area of study. It views learning and teaching in a holistic way and reflects the real world, which is interactive.

4) **Subject-Centred Curriculum:** It is founded upon the belief that the curriculum is composed of separate and distinct subjects, each of which embraces a body of content and skills which will enable the learner to acquire knowledge of himself and his world. Traditionally, the "subject" in the subject centred curriculum referred to what has popularly become known as "the 3 R's" and the goal has centred on the acquisition of tools of literacy. Frequently and often sincerely come the cries, "the elementary school is not teaching children to read"; "children in the elementary school cannot write or spell"; "we must return to the old standards for promotion where children must attain a definable achievement in each basic subject before moving onto the next grade".

5) **Learner-Centred Curriculum:** It is that curriculum which revolves around the interests, needs, abilities, development level and life of the learners. A learner is considered as the focus point much stress has been laid on child study and child psychology which helps to find out the various problems faced by the learners. Students enjoy the primary place and rest of the thinks have been treated has secondary so it places more emphasis on student rather than the subject. It is accordance with the individual difference which exists among the children. It touches all aspects of the life of the pupil and holds the opinion that education is life. The need and the interests of the pupil facilitate their learning. The environment which is congenial to them, ways, manner producer and approaches which cause affective learning among them have been utilised under this curriculum. So, it is based on the activity and actions of the child.

6) **Child-Centred Curriculum:** It emerged from the extensive research carried on in the early twentieth century by John Dewey and followers. Laboratory centres such as that established at the University of Chicago under John Dewey's direction became the spur to the establishment of a number of private schools committed to the child-centred philosophy. While few public schools were committed whole-heartedly to the new experimental approach in the education of children, many were vitally influenced by the child-centred philosophy. Nailed-down furniture began to be replaced by movable furniture; learning by doing rather than passive absorption of subject matter assumed new significance. First-hand experiences in neighbourhood and community enlarged the book-bound world of the child. The "activity programme", the "unit of work", the recognition of need for using and exploring many media for self-discovery and self-direction became common characteristics of programmes founded upon the new philosophy.

7) **Problem-Centred Curriculum:** It curriculum is conceived as the framework in which the child is guided toward maturity within the context of the social group. It assumes that in the process of living, children experience problems. The solutions to these problems enable children to become increasingly able to attain full development as individuals capable of self-direction, and to become competent in assuming social responsibility. It attempts to guide children in the recognition of problems and in seeking solutions. Problems

and their solutions through broad and deep experiences becomes the core of the problem-centred curriculum. The strengths of the problem-centred curriculum are many. **For example**, the problem-centred curriculum places emphasis on the developmental needs of children and demands of teachers' knowledge and understanding of the processes of human growth and development and of learning. Also, it places equal emphasis upon the needs of society and demands of teachers' knowledge and understanding of the forces which shape society.

- 8) **Society-Centred Curriculum:** According to Cortes, he defines this curriculum as the massive, on going, informal curriculum of family, peer groups, neighbourhoods, churches, organisations, occupations, mass media, and other socialising forces that "educate" all of us throughout our lives. This type of curricula can now be expanded to include the powerful effects of social media (for example, YouTube, Facebook, Twitter, etc.) and how it actively helps to create new perspectives, and can help to shape both individual and public opinion. It is implied by the very structure and nature of schools, much of what revolves around daily or established routines.
- 9) **Hidden Curriculum:** It is which knowledge that implicit the knowledge students learn in school. It is implied by the very structure and nature of schools, much of what revolves around daily or established routines. **Longstreet and Shane (1993)** offer a commonly accepted definition for this term—the "hidden curriculum," which refers to the kinds of learning children derive from the very nature and organisational design of the public school, as well as from the behaviours and attitudes of teachers and administrators.... The hidden curriculum may include both positive and negative messages, depending on the models provided and the perspectives of the learner or the observer.

1.2.7. Process of Curriculum

In the process of curriculum, the following steps are involved:

Step 1: Curriculum Planning: It is a process in which participants at many stages make decisions about what the purpose of learning ought to be, how these purposes might be carried out through teaching learning situations and whether the purpose and means both are appropriate and effective. This is the process of gathering, sorting, selecting, balancing, and synthesising relevant information from various sources in order to design those experiences that will assist learners in attaining goals of the curriculum.

Step 2: Curriculum Design: William M. Alexander stated that the school curriculum has a framework or structure which is known as 'design'. The curriculum design provides a basis for classifying and organising the curriculum opportunities offered by the school. It is the pattern or structure of a curriculum. It is the arrangement or organisation of the components of the curriculum.

Step 3: Curriculum Development: It is a specialised area of work which expects a teacher to have a deep understanding of the underlying concepts of curriculum, and also the skills to systematically design learning experiences to achieve socially desired goals. It is continuous and never ending process.

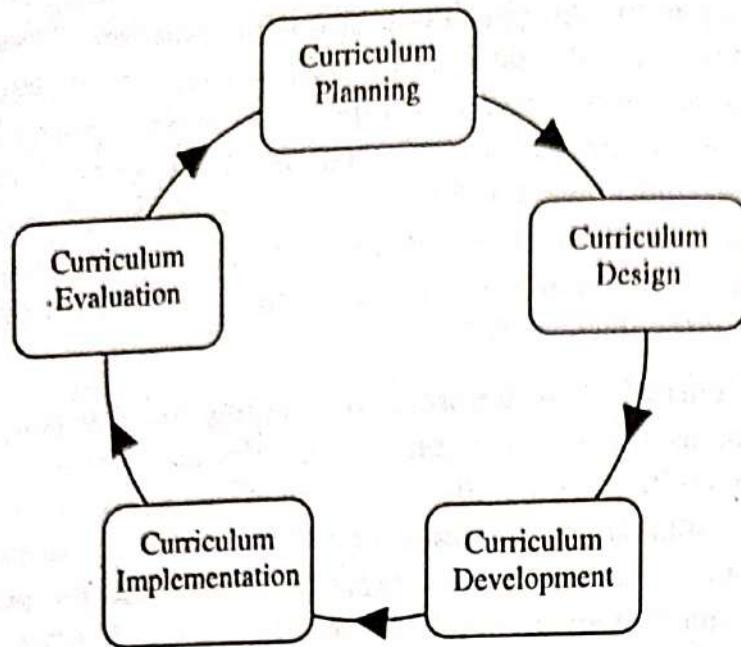


Figure 1.1: Process of Curriculum

Step 4: Curriculum Implementation: It is the process of proper management of the curriculum. It is the basis of curriculum implementation and transaction. It consider the social philosophy of the society, nature of course of study, type of examination system, growth and development of the students, and recommendations of commissions and committees related with curriculum.

Step 5: Curriculum Evaluation: It is a process of delineating, obtaining and providing information which are useful for making decisions about curriculum development and implementation. This process of evaluation is undertaken in order to determine the strengths and weaknesses of an existing or an under construction curriculum so that improvements can be made. It is no one shot affair. It is dynamic and cyclic process. There are different bodies which are involved in the preparation of curriculum. These are curriculum administrators, principles, school boards, communities, law makers, educational researchers, teacher educators, non-school educators, and publishers, state department of education, parents, students, project directors, authors, testers, accreditors, lobbyists, and philanthropists.

1.3. LANGUAGE ACROSS THE CURRICULUM

1.3.1. Concept of LAC (Language across the Curriculum) Approach

It is a fact that the language determine the culture and culture that envisages, language are reciprocal. Humanity is globalised and languages accomplish with many various dimensions. All languages are on a tip of drastic changes. Changes are occurring not by years, but within days or even within hours.

Language across the curriculum is a modern concept that a foreign or second language should be taught out of the traditional-language-classroom by using contextual and content based language teaching methodologies throughout the school hours. Hence, it demands that language learning should occur in language classroom as well as other subject classrooms.

The concept of language across the curriculum is to give all students the opportunity to apply their foreign language skills in other disciplines, and to learn that knowledge of a second language can enhance and deepen their understanding of subject matter.

The concept of LAC also claims that language and learning are deeply linked. Therefore, wishing to acknowledge and develop children's existing mental and linguistic capacities, LAC focuses on active, constructive, potentially autonomous learning: "Language plays a central role in learning. No matter what the subject area, students assimilate new concepts largely through language, i.e., when they listen to and talk, read and write about what they are learning and relate this to what they already know. Through speaking and writing, language is linked to the thinking process and is a manifestation of the thinking that is taking place. Thus, by explaining and expressing personal interpretations of new learning in the various subject fields, students clarify and increase both their knowledge of the concepts in those fields and their understanding of the ways in which language is used in each."

Consequently, it is suggested that all teachers participate in developing language within their fields of responsibility and contribute to a school learning policy. Finally, the relationship between language and thinking has become central for LAC, mainly supported by findings in cognitive science, but also in linguistics and language pedagogy itself. In this context, we can state the following beliefs:

- 1) Language is more than communication skills,
- 2) Language is linked to the thinking process and is used in it,
- 3) Language is a tool for conceptualising and for linking information,
- 4) Language supports mental activities and precision in cognition which is particularly true for subject-based writing,
- 5) Language helps to bridge between cognitively demanding tasks and their solutions in a more and more de-contextualised manner, and
- 6) Language helps to structure discourse and realise discourse functions.

So, the overall goal of LAC approach is not just only developing "cognitive academic language proficiency", but "conceptual literacy" also.

1.3.2. Meaning of LAC (Language across the Curriculum) Approach

Language Across the Curriculum (LAC) relates to linking different forms and aspects of language education within the school, particularly emphasising the role of language in all subject-matter learning. LAC has two meanings – in the narrow sense, it is a concept suggesting the importance of language work and language training in all non-linguistic subjects. In the wider sense, it is a concept demanding a comprehensive model of language education on the basis of a whole school language policy. The wider sense includes linking all languages as subjects such as mother tongue education, foreign language education, second or third language education, and the language dimension in all other subjects.

LAC in the narrow sense focuses on the role of language in subject-specific learning and teaching. In addition to the many basic goals of LS/L1, it leads to other forms of functional language use to mastering new domains and discourse types and moving towards a more explicit or "pre-scientific" mode of thinking and communicating. In subject-specific contexts language is used as a tool for cognitively demanding tasks and purposes. This can be seen as an application of the existing language proficiency in new contexts and as an extension and transformation of this proficiency onto a higher or deeper level of cognitive academic use.

Different researchers see the language across the curriculum approach differently, but their views are almost same. Language across the curriculum is a modern approach that language learning should be occurred throughout the school hours in language classrooms as well as other subject classrooms.

✓ Language across the Curriculum (LAC) approach is one that "integrates language learning and content learning."

Language across the Curriculum (LAC) is an approach to learning that "focuses on improving language proficiency in all subjects in order to enhance students' learning and outcomes."

✓ "Languages across the Curriculum (LAC) refers to the approach/practice through which the study and use of languages take place throughout the curriculum."

Compatible with and often confounded with whole language, language across the curriculum is a curricular approach that emphasises language development across all content areas of the curriculum. Specifically, it makes a student's language education at school the responsibility of all teachers, regardless of their particular subject area.

Language across the curriculum provides a refreshing antidote to the separation of language and content teaching observed in many immersion and content based classrooms, which should otherwise provide ideal conditions for its implementations.

1.3.3. Origin of Language across the Curriculum Approach

Trends and theories in language teaching have developed rapidly in the last thirty years. It can be said in general that there has been a very clear shift of emphasis in the development of linguistic theory. Until the 1960s prevalent theories of learning-influenced language learning and emphasised the need for the mastery of a set of linguistic structures. Theories of learning began to change and accordingly affected the perception of language learning. Language was now seen as something 'out there' which could be conquered by developing a pattern of very clear linguistic habits. Since the 1970s socio-linguistics began to influence theories of language learning and language was seen as something which individuals used for the purpose of communication; 'communicative competence' and 'the communicative approach' became the new 'cult' words.

Language across the Curriculum (LAC) movement follows the example set by the Writing across the Curriculum (WAC) movement of the 1980s, which sought to use writing as a central learning tool in classes outside the English department. Rather than relegating writing instruction to classes in literature or composition, WAC provides advice and assistance to students for the inculcation of the skills needed for writing in each curricular specialty. Similarly, LAC works with faculty to identify the specific vocabulary and genres that students need in order to function effectively in another language in their respective disciplines (Fichera & Straight, 1997). LAC also draws upon the content-based language instruction movement of the 1990s. Instruction that emphasises purposeful comprehension and communicative production yields superior receptive and expressive accuracy, complexity, and fluency. In brief, students who learn language for a purpose learn it better.

Table 1.1

| Pre 1960s | 1960s | 1970s-1980s | 1990s |
|---|---|--|--|
| Grammar Translation Theories of learning dominated language learning. Language learning = mastery of a set of linguistic structures. | Behaviourism Language perceived as something out there. Developing a pattern of clear linguistic habits. | Communicative Approach Socio linguistics. Language for the individual purpose of communication. | Language across the Curriculum A new approach to language teaching. Process rather than product. Message rather than medium. Learner potential rather than teacher input. The information gap. |

LAC as a concept has been used for some time in academic and pedagogic theoretical discourse, but less so in school practice. It was developed in the late 70s/early 80s of the last century. It originated in Great Britain, where the idea of linking LAC with school language policies as a whole received formal recognition in the so-called Bullock Report – Each school should have an organised policy for language across the curriculum, establishing every teacher's involvement in language and reading development throughout the years of schooling. A decade later this was underlined in the Swann Report – Unless there is a school language and learning policy across the curriculum there will be wastage of effort and often confusion.

The ideas of LAC itself, which had received real impetus, have somewhat changed over time. Nevertheless, the basic tenets on which LAC rests have stayed the same. They focus on the importance of language in and for school education, for all subject-matter learning, across the whole curriculum:

- 1) Language develops mainly through its purposeful use (domains to be broadened).
- 2) Learning (often) involves talking, writing, shaping and moving (normally in reaction to perceptions).

- 3) Learning often occurs through speaking or writing as much as through shaping and moving.
- 4) Language use contributes to/is a pre-requisite for cognitive development.
- 5) Language is the medium for reflecting learning, for improving it, and for becoming autonomous.

Much has been studied about the role of language in learning and in cognition ever since; much has been learned about language processing and language use, its basic structures, functions and similarities in all the activities and subjects in school. But the institution itself apparently has some difficulties in accepting cross-curricular responsibilities; it also has difficulties in dealing with differences in their clientele, with heterogeneity in their studentship and particularly with disadvantaged learners for whose basic, successful education they are equally responsible. The criticism of **Bernstein** that school does not only to overcome these disadvantages, but rather reproduces them systematically through their linguistic norms and procedures, is probably still valid today.

Two great changes have occurred in the development of modern societies and consequently in the mental set-up of school children since the 1960/1970s. For once, the possibilities to fail in school and thus to become a disadvantaged or "risk learner" have severely increased; at the same time, the type of literacy prevalent in school children, their ways of perceiving reality and of learning have also changed dramatically in the multi-media age. LAC can no longer narrowly be seen as the exclusive domain of L1/LS education nor is it confined solely to the conventional four modes of language used in addition to reading, writing, listening and speaking all non-verbal ways of representation are rightly seen as part of the overall semiotic system that we have at hand and that we use when communicating. These include visual images, graphs, movements, etc., and all "physical" forms of human perception and expression. Thus, we have to distinguish eight modes of human activities involving language, namely:

- 1) **Listening:** Comprehending oral input/intake.
- 2) **Speaking:** Constructing meaningful utterances.
- 3) **Reading:** Understanding written texts.
- 4) **Writing:** Producing written texts/discourse.
- 5) **Viewing:** Attending to visual signs/information.
- 6) **Shaping:** Using visual means of expression.
- 7) **Watching:** Attending to the movements.
- 8) **Moving:** Using the whole body, i.e., the whole person.

1.3.4. Goals of LAC Approach

Following are the goals of the LAC approach:

- 1) The goal of LAC is to support language development in each and every child, in all domains of language use, and in each learning activity in school.
- 2) Its purpose is to prepare students for the intercultural and multilingual demands and opportunities of a global society. LAC is appropriate at all levels of education.

- 3) The long-term goal of LAC is to integrate multiple languages into the teaching of all disciplines in order to enrich their intercultural and international content.
- 4) The short-term goal is:
 - i) To enlist the support of teachers and administrators,
 - ii) To expand opportunities for the content-specific acquisition and discipline-focused use of language and cultural knowledge.
- 5) Cross-cultural and multilingual inquiry leads to a more complete learning experience and provides a basis for comparative understanding unavailable when students and teachers are limited to the use of resources in only one language.
- 6) Learners develop a deeper and more precise understanding of a new language and culture by studying how that language and culture address precisely defined topics about which they have already established a certain familiarity in their native language.

1.3.5. Principles of Language across the Curriculum Approach

Following are the principles of LAC approach:

- 1) Natural language acquisition occurs in context, natural language is never learned divorced from meaning and content based instruction provides a context for meaningful communication.
- 2) Second language acquisition increases with content, based language instruction.
- 3) People do not learn languages and then use them but learn languages by using them. Implicit & explicit language learning
- 4) Language can be acquired through continuous practice as it is a skill subject.
- 5) The immersion of language with content facilitates more effective language acquisition.

1.3.6. Need of Language Across the Curriculum (LAC) Approach

Language cannot be effectively learnt without a context while learning in all subjects is dependent upon language. In view of the above, language and content are closely interrelated. In fact, content subjects provide a context for language while effective language development facilitates the learning of content subjects. It is therefore necessary to integrate language and content.

The language across the curriculum approach is needed for:

- 1) Looking at the present status of our academic community, we cannot help mentioning that we are badly in need of a better approach for foreign language teaching.
- 2) Most of the students are not able to use the foreign language even after completing graduation as well as post-graduation with higher grades.
- 3) Most of the research scholars are not able to write their thesis themselves so that plagiarism goes on being practiced by academic community mainly on account of the inability in foreign language

- 4) Most of the students do struggle to get admitted in foreign universities because of the deficiency in communicating in the foreign language.
- 5) The new career trends are in need of people who are fluent in foreign language. *New career trend*
- 6) Most of the teachers are not able to manage group activities effectively, as they lack communication skill in FL.
- 7) Most of the teachers are practicing adjustment teaching in classroom.
- 8) Students tend to follow the wrong model of the teachers.
- 9) Most of the teachers are not able to make use of modern technology, because they lack command in FL
- 10) Most of the teachers are not able to give clear instructions, as they lack authority in FL.
- 11) Most of the teachers do not encourage clarification of doubts by students, as they are not confident enough to have 'on the spot conversation' in FL.
- 12) Most of the teachers are not able to manage group activities effectively, as they lack communication skill in FL.
- 13) Most of the teachers are providing market notes to students, because of this deficiency.
- 14) Most of the teachers do not know how to praise students in FL.

1.3.7. Importance of Language Across the Curriculum (LAC) Approach

The importance of Language across the Curriculum (LAC) Approach is discussed under given points:

- 1) **Extends the Development of Language Skills:** Language across the Curriculum extends the development of language skills beyond the traditional language courses and programmes, and offers students an opportunity to read and discuss relevant texts in more languages than one (mother tongue and foreign).
- 2) **Focuses on Language Education:** Language across the Curriculum (LAC) acknowledges that language education does not only take place in specific subjects such as English lessons, but language learning also takes place in each and every subject; in every learning activity; and across the whole curriculum.
- 3) **Emphasises on the Responsibility of Teachers:** Language across the Curriculum (LAC) emphasises that language development is the responsibility of all teachers across the school and in all subject areas. It involves a focus on the use of English in each subject, as each subject area has both similar language to other areas and its own specific language usage and styles. Each subject area also has its own specialised vocabulary and different writing genres, e.g., Science report writing is different to History report writing.
- 4) **Provides Opportunity to the Students for Using Their Skills:** A Language across the Curriculum (LAC) is a curricular enrichment programme that provides students with the opportunity to use their skills in languages other

than English in non-language courses. It aims to infuse foreign language across the curriculum, thus building on the skills of language proficient students in courses where authentic foreign language sources are not a regular component of the curriculum but would complement the course material. Thus, students can extend their knowledge of a second language beyond foreign language courses and apply those skills to course materials, research and projects in non-language disciplines. In addition, the inclusion of authentic course-relevant source materials in another language enriches course perspectives and prepares students more fully for the cross-cultural and multilingual demands of a global society.

5) **Enhances Disciplinary Knowledge:** Understanding of a given culture and its documents and artifacts is greatly enhanced through a knowledge of its language. A curriculum that includes materials in multiple languages provides access to a wider range of perspectives, encourages greater depth of exploration, and opens the door to greater understanding. Thus, the use of materials in multiple languages significantly enhances any and all disciplinary inquiry.

1.3.8. Benefits of Language Across the Curriculum Approach

Following are benefits of language across the curriculum approach:

- 1) It enhances intercultural competence.
- 2) It encourages students and teachers to venture beyond their own cultural and linguistic borders in order to gain additional perspectives and additional knowledge.
- 3) It bridges existing curricular and disciplinary boundaries by creating a more integrated learning environment and energising the disciplines in new ways.
- 4) By integrating the use of multiple languages into disciplines across the curriculum, reinforces the centrality of language study at all levels of education.
- 5) It helps the learners to improve their communication skill in the FL.
- 6) It helps the students to learn the content more effectively.
- 7) It helps the learners to expand their ideas.
- 8) It helps the learners to discuss different issues in FL.
- 9) It helps the learners to collect technical terms related to different subjects.
- 10) It helps the students to submit original assignments free of plagiarism.
- 11) It opens a vast career world before the students.
- 12) It helps the students to get admitted in foreign universities.
- 13) It facilitates effective self-study and referring.
- 14) All the teachers can improve their skills in the foreign language.
- 15) It helps the teachers to teach the content effectively in the foreign language.
- 16) It helps the teachers to make use of modern technology in his classroom effectively.

- 17) It helps the teachers to update their knowledge.
- 18) It helps the teacher to give clear instructions to students in FL.
- 19) It makes the teacher encourage clarifications by learners.
- 20) It helps the teachers to manage group activities effectively.
- 21) It helps the school to keep a common target.
- 22) It enables the teacher to provide his own notes to students. It is beneficial for students.

1.3.9. Challenges and Opportunities of LAC

Following points suggests the challenges and opportunities within the criteria of LAC approach:

1) **LAC Learning Materials:** The identification and preparation of materials for use by LAC-participating students typically take considerable time and effort. Only rarely will the course-specific purposes of LAC and the language skills of participating students make it appropriate to use textbooks and other such scholar-produced resources aimed at a college-level audience of native speakers of the target language. At one extreme, for example, the most appropriate materials for courses in environmental studies, international business, or theatre may best consist of mass-media items, such as advertisements, news stories, entertainment reviews, editorials, or commercial websites to which students can apply their course acquired concepts and analytical skills, and from which they can glean course-specific intercultural insights. At the other extreme, for a course in biology, history, or literature, students may read original versions of works they read in translation, primary historical documents, or technical reference sources to obtain information and inter-textual comparative insights not otherwise accessible.

Whatever the nature of the materials, whether print, audio, video, or Web-based, construction of LAC assignments around them can pose sizeable challenges. Unless participants have a very high level of proficiency, they usually need background materials or specific references to other assigned course materials in order to understand the context in which the assigned material was created and how to apply course-specific ideas to it. At a minimum, they need a set of study questions and a brief glossary to help them deal effectively with the material.

2) **Faculty Roles:** Because of the long-standing separation of the study and use of languages from the rest of the postsecondary curriculum, LAC makes unfamiliar demands on departments and on individual faculty. Non-language faculty may fear that the educational purposes of their courses will suffer with the addition of an LAC component. Language faculty may fear that the inculcation of high-level language skills will suffer when LAC puts languages into the service of specialised study outside of the literary, cultural, and linguistic domains long associated with languages in the general-education and language-specialist curricula.

3) **Student Motivation:** Students likewise may have difficulty to fitting LAC into their conception of how to structure their college education. Not only do even the native speakers among them lack confidence in their ability to apply intermediate-level language skills to good academic purpose, they see little potential payoff for taking the LAC plunge. It seldom fulfils any general-education or major requirement, and it bears no widely trumpeted connection to career opportunities.

4) **Curricular Placement:** The requirement-filling value of LAC arguably depends upon the emergence of new curricular components in which LAC plays an integral component. International tracks in existing majors, international or area-studies certificates, minors or majors, and honours and study-abroad programmes of various sorts could quite reasonably accept or require enrolment in LAC courses. Similarly, career planning and placement offices could highlight careers in artistic, commercial, diplomatic, and other fields in which high-level bilingualism would open up exciting employment opportunities.

5) **External Forces:** Perhaps the greatest incentives to and resources for the expansion of LAC come from outside of our individual colleges and universities. The global deployment of multinational teams in commerce, industry, research, and the arts favour the use of collaborative, multilingual learning to prepare our graduates for the workplace. The growing multilingualism of our student bodies and of such things as the World Wide Web provide both the reason and the capacity for greatly enhanced intercultural, multilingual learning, while increasing numbers of international students possess the linguistic, cultural, and disciplinary skills and knowledge that we can employ as a powerful component of university teaching. Partnerships with burgeoning universities abroad promise two-way multilingual educational opportunities of unprecedented richness.

1.4. ROLE OF CONTENT SUBJECT TEACHER AND LANGUAGE TEACHER

1.4.1. Introduction

Teachers play an essential role in providing quality education. **McKinsey and Company** said that “the quality of an education system cannot exceed the quality of its teachers”. The teacher is the educational parent of the child. He is the foster parent of the child. He supplements the role of the parents. In the educational development of a child, his role is more than that of the parent's. He is undertaker of the great task of educating the child. Child looks to him for knowledge, wisdom, manners, morals, inspiration, enlightenment and what not. Various great men have paid very rich tributes to this man entrusted with a great job.

The teacher is the real dynamic force of the school. The school without him is a soulless body. Without competent and good teachers, even the best of systems is bound to fail. A good teacher can certainly make the best of even the worst system.

Manu, The ancient sage observes “A teacher is the image of Brahma.”

According to Dr. S. Radhakrishnan, “The teacher’s place in society is of vital importance. He acts as the pivot for the transmission of intellectual traditions and technical skills from generation to generation, and helps to keep the lamp of civilisation burning. He not only guides the individual, but also so to say, the destiny of the nation.”

According to Dr. Zakir Hussain, “The teacher is indeed, the architect of our future.”

The educational authorities, public men, politicians and social scientists are beginning to realise more and more clearly that the teachers have a great role to play in the educational, social and even political reconstruction of a country. It is the teacher who directs and implements the whole programme of education which ultimately affects immensely all-round progress of the nation. He is the torch-bearer of the race. On him depends the future of the school, the village, the country and in fact the future of mankind. Secondary Education Commission made the observation, “We are however convinced that the most important factor in the contemplated educational reconstruction is the teacher – his personal qualities, the educational qualifications, his professional training and the place that he occupies in the school as well as in the community. The reputation of the school and its influence on the life of the community invariably depends on the kind of teachers working in it”.

1.4.2. Content Subject Teacher

Content subject teachers are those who re-teach skills or introduce related skills/concepts in their lesson, integrating language and content.

It is important for subject teachers and content subject teachers to each know what the other is doing. **For example**, the English teacher can teach students how to do a vocabulary log. The content subject teachers then ask students to keep a vocabulary log for their own subject. The subject teacher can collect the vocabulary logs and check from time to time to make sure that students are on the right track.

As every subject has to contribute to the language development of students, a balance between an emphasis on English and an emphasis on content is recommended. Since more time and efforts have to be spent on the development of students’ language proficiency, the subject content may have to be reduced, especially at the initial stages.

Subject teachers can look at the progress test results for their discipline and the subjects they teach to see how well students are doing on their subject. Teachers can look at the development of knowledge in their subject domain at group level (reference groups) to determine where in the curriculum the subject is taught, whether knowledge is retained sufficiently and how it continues to develop.

Teachers can also look at the score development of a reference group in a certain year at their own university and compare it with the reference group in the same year at all the participating schools. The score development patterns indicate if there are shortcomings in knowledge development and whether differences are systematic. If there are serious weaknesses in the development of scores, a teacher can decide to look for possible causes and how these might be remedied, and modify the educational programme accordingly.

Additionally, teachers can derive useful information from the percentage of question mark answers and the incorrect answers. High percentages (compared to other disciplines) can indicate that questions are too difficult or point to gaps in the educational programme.

Subject teachers bring their gifts in the areas of foreign language, games (physical education), music, the arts, educational support, and an array of crafts and practical arts.

Subject teachers are chosen not only for their expertise in specific areas, but also for their ability to relate to the students and serve as adult role models. They serve with the class teachers to build the learning community for the students.

The class teacher oversees the main lesson, while special subject teachers instruct in their areas of expertise. Class teachers and specialty teachers talk regularly to ensure an integrated approach as well as keeping track of the experience and growth of each student.

Subject teachers often expect certain competences to be already acquired through LS/L1 teaching and therefore readily available in subject-specific learning contexts, without additional training or reflection about their meaning and use in these new contexts. In a way, these expectations are justified, but they have to be spelled out explicitly, by way of "contract" between teachers of language as a subject and teachers of non-linguistic subjects. In addition, the subject teachers themselves have to list clearly what they want to reach with their students in terms of minimal language goals in connection with their subject-specific goals. This requires a cross-curricular matrix of educational goals in general and of linguistic competences in particular to which different subjects and learning experiences might add and contribute in different ways.

Language as subject, that is for the development of basic language competences such as listening, reading, interacting, speaking and writing. These competences are acquired by learners within the context of many different complex learning situations, leading to the mastery of communicative skills in connection with a number of different genres and discourse settings. Every learner has the right to be equipped with these fundamental language competences for their future learning, for developing their own identity, for finding their place on the job market, and for participating in society as a social agent and democratic citizen. Language as subject has many more goals to reach and all of these are highly

mediated through language, through providing meaningful content, learning activities and opportunities for interaction. The outcome of this should be – in the interest of the learners themselves – certain elements of cultural skills (e.g. spelling correctly or forming understandable sentences), of knowledge, of attitudes and values, of procedural competences in dealing with specific tasks/problems, in dealing with texts and other sources of information and in dealing with people as addressees of appropriate communicative actions.

1.4.2.1. Role of Subject Teachers

Subject teachers must:

- 1) Make best use of the laboratory and use models, lab equipment, apparatus to show experiments to the children, on a regular basis,
- 2) Make a schedule for the practicals and ensure that the entries in the records and files are not copied from each other,
- 3) Sign the entries (inference) immediately after they are made by the students, during the practicals,
- 4) Give project work, evaluate it and record the marks/grades,
- 5) Encourage students to prepare and participate in science exhibitions and help them in preparing working models,
- 6) Encourage students to develop reading habits by consulting various science journals, magazines, etc.,
- 7) Undertake condemnation of the unserviceable articles/equipment regularly,
- 8) Subject teacher must have regular meetings with parents to keep them informed and guide them about the progress of their ward/wards,
- 9) Subject teachers must discuss among themselves, prepare a schedule and distribute the homework as per the schedule to avoid overburdening of the students,
- 10) Subject Teacher handles one of the following special subjects:
 - i) Mathematics,
 - ii) Science,
 - iii) Music,
 - iv) Art,
 - v) Physical Education,
 - vi) Work Education, and
 - vii) Computer Education, etc.

- 11) The Special Subject Teacher is under the supervision of the Subject Area Coordinator and Grade Level Coordinator. He is based in a grade level, and participates in its activities,

1.4.3. Language Teacher

Good and qualified teachers are essential for efficient functioning of educational systems and for enhancing the quality of learning. Teachers also have a fundamental role in their learners' academic achievement and their quality can highly influence the student outcomes.

Language teachers are by no means an exception and their key role in effective language learning cannot be overlooked. Special attention must be paid to this link between teachers and learners in countries and teachers, as the main source of language input to students, affect their learning directly.

Although effective teachers in general may share some characteristics, there are certain qualities that differ among them depending on the subject matter they teach. Some others even go beyond this and claim that diverse subject matters are not the only distinction between teachers of various subjects.

1.4.3.1. Qualities of a Language Teacher

There are several qualities that a good language teacher must have are as follows:

- 1) **Excellent Interpersonal Communication Skills:** A successful teacher should enjoy people, show enthusiasm and excitement in the classroom, and be positive. If the teacher is positive, enthusiastic, and teaches with a smile, the energy will spread to the students. This positive energy can motivate students and make the classroom environment more pleasant.
- 2) **An Attitude of Flexibility:** A successful teacher should be flexible and open to change when things go differently than planned. The teacher needs to be aware of what is happening in the classroom and make mid-lesson alterations, if necessary. It is important to not get upset when a lesson goes awry. However, you should try to move the lesson in the direction of accomplishing the outlined goals.
- 3) **Appropriate Classroom Management:** A successful teacher should be well-organised, dependable, and able to effectively manage the classroom. In a well-managed classroom, students know what is expected of them and respond with pre-established procedures throughout the lesson. A properly managed classroom motivates student cooperation and teamwork. It is important to spend time at the beginning of the course to making a classroom management plan and carefully explaining it to the students in the first few lessons.
- 4) **Meaningful Lessons:** A successful teacher should develop lessons that appeal to students' interests and goals. Students should have the opportunity to use the language in genuine tasks and gain fluency without worry of mistakes. Students are excited to be in a foreign teacher's class and will respond more positively to meaningful tasks that allow them to "use" the language. It is best to associate new information with something students already know, and avoid too much grammatical explanation or activities without a clear purpose.
- 5) **Cultural Awareness:** A successful EFL/ESL teacher should be sensitive of cultural differences and traditions. Teachers should learn the culture of their students to gain a deeper understanding of their way of thinking and background. It also helps if the teacher tries to learn the language of the students to better understand the culture. The students are usually more motivated when they know their teacher is making the efforts to learn their language and understand their culture.

- 6) **Competent:** A good language teacher must be competent. This requires a lot of study on the part of the teacher. If you are a foreign language teacher, you must have mastered the language you are teaching and the skills it takes to teach that language. As an English language teacher, you need to have a handle on the elements of English as well as having a background in education.
- 7) **Exploratory:** A good language teacher realises there are several different learning methods. Some learn by hearing, some by seeing and some by speaking. Therefore, a good teacher will create a course that weaves together all of the various learning techniques. A good teacher is also willing to explore the different ways of teaching language, even the experimental ones, to provide her students with the best chance to learn.
- 8) **Passion:** People do not teach for money or fame, people teach because they have a passion for their chosen subject and for passing on their knowledge to students. A passion for teaching is an important part of the teaching process. Thus, language teacher must be passionate towards her teaching.
- 9) **Assessment:** A good language teacher is not only skilled at creating assessments for her class, but she can also use those assessments to figure out how successful her teaching methods are. The teacher who understands some things work better than others and some things do not work at all will be able to make changes in her own teaching methods.
- 10) **Language Skills:** First and foremost, bilingual teachers need superior language skills. This not only means being able to speak both classroom languages fluently, but also understanding the grammar, syntax and structure of both languages. Teachers must articulate and explain these concepts to students in a way that they can easily understand. Just because a teacher is a native English speaker does not mean she adequately understands the rules of the language. Even for her native language, understanding these concepts takes special training and study.
- 11) **Patience:** Teaching students in a language other than their native tongue can be very frustrating. Students who get discouraged by their inability to comprehend the language may become disruptive, discouraged or bored in class. Some students may even act out and require disciplinary action. While they cannot tolerate inappropriate behaviour, bilingual teachers should be patient and understanding with students who have a difficult time with the language or material. They may have to come up with two or three different ways to teach a particular lesson before it starts to click with the students. Being calm, patient and persistent are extremely valuable qualities for a bilingual teacher and can increase the chance of students' success.
- 12) **Cultural Sensitivity:** Oftentimes bilingual teachers are not just teaching in two different languages; they are acting as a liaison between two distinct, complex cultures. Relating to students of a different culture or teaching

students about a culture they may not be familiar with or understand can be a difficult and complicated task. Students who are new to the country or new to an English-speaking environment may even experience culture shock. Teachers should approach both the curriculum and the classroom environment with cultural understanding and sensitivity. Bilingual teachers who have received cultural training or lived abroad may be especially successful in this regard.

1.4.3.2. Roles and Responsibilities of Language Teacher

Teachers are assigned the status of God in our scriptures. According to the great Saint Kabir, a teacher is greater than God, because he guides us to the eternal God. His guidance is always of an utmost importance in a student's life. Every field in life asks for guidance from a seasoned teacher, and English counts in the same category. Being the current global flavour, this calls for a good teacher who can waft his student through the rough tides and finally get him settled on a safe coast.

Teachers are a key element in learning English. Their influence plays a fundamental role in a students' progress, or a lack thereof. To make their students leap great heights and excel in their subjects, students must adhere to certain credentials. Thus, teacher has greater responsibilities that should be ensured:

- 1) To teach a foreign (or second) language to groups should not be more than 25 adults. While reading, writing and the study of grammar are necessarily part of the coursework, tutors will actively encourage conversation in the classroom (through techniques such as paired activities, group work, role-play, games, communicative activities and so on). While there is some formal assessment of student competence, tutors have responsibility for what they do in class although the main language points covered must fit into the overall, integrated programme for the particular language(s) they teach.
- 2) To set regular homework and return it promptly, in all cases offer students constructive feedback on their work.
- 3) To conduct agreed oral and written assessments in line with requirements of the integrated programme and with reference to the language co-ordinators.
- 4) To efficiently administer the processing of assessments – to return written scripts and an accurate list of results on time and in the manner advised by DACE (Department of Adult and Continuing Education), to the satisfaction of the external examiner.
- 5) To be involved in the updating of Intended Learning Outcomes and Self-Assessment Tests.
- 6) To have link and contact with other language tutors when necessary.
- 7) To meet deadlines and should communicate with language co-ordinators when necessary.
- 8) To keep registers up-to-date and advise DACE of any student movements, such as new student arrivals, students wishing to transfer and so on.

- 9) To keep into consideration the crucial factors like classroom atmosphere, student-teacher relationship, tolerance, patience, passion and other aspects, should be taken diligently. For English teachers, being good at the language is not the only yardstick to measure their efficiency, they should possess phenomenal teaching techniques as well.
- 10) To keep designing an effective plan for the fulfilment of students' desire. Keeping in mind the students' requirements and expectations from a particular course, its particulars' should be designed. Whether a student needs attention in vocabulary, grammar or tenses, a good teacher is the one who can crack the hardest nut, and help her students overcome any difficulty he/she is facing.
- 11) To ensure time management and discipline in the class is one of his various duties and responsibility. It should be ensured that every single student is bestowed with the equal amount of attention. Teacher should also inculcate moral and discipline among students to become a good citizen.

1.4.3.3. Professional Ethics of Language Teacher

As professionals, teachers need to constantly adopt an informed approach to their teaching and its contexts and to reflect on the good and correct practices as professional teachers. A teacher shall endeavour to be a role model and shall act within the community in a manner which enhances the prestige of the profession. Moreover, as responsible members of the language teaching profession, language teachers are dedicated to the promotion of language learning, multilingualism, cultural understanding, and international competence.

All language teachers are guided by the following principles of professional conduct and ethical practice:

- 1) **Commitment to the Student:** Language teachers should be committed to their students for:
 - i) Developing the linguistic and communicative competence of their students.
 - ii) Establishing and maintaining positive and appropriate relationships with students that respect the personal integrity and privacy of students at all times.
 - iii) Providing support and encouraging appropriate assessments for each student.
 - iv) Establishing learning environments in which student diversity in all its forms is recognised and respected and all students are treated fairly and with sensitivity.
- 2) **Professional Expertise:** Teachers teaching language need to be professionally competent and stay committed to:
 - i) Achieving and maintaining high levels of appropriate linguistic and communicative competence.
 - ii) Reflect upon and evaluate their practice as part of their continuing professional development.
 - iii) Respond positively to constructive feedback regarding their teaching practices.
 - iv) Seek support, advice and guidance where necessary.
 - v) Participate in on going professional development.

- vi) Adopt pedagogical practices that incorporate the best current research in language learning.
- vii) Use assessment programmes that effectively and appropriately measure student progress in language learning and cultural understanding.

3) **Professional Community:** As members of the teaching community, the language teachers ought to:

- i) Be mindful of their position as a role model to students and maintain a professional attitude.
- ii) Comply with policies and procedures issued at school, college or national education level, regarding to the use of property, facilities, finances and ICT in their educational setting.
- iii) Act with integrity and honesty when interacting with colleagues, students, parents, and the public.
- iv) Exchange and share information and ideas, strategies and activities to enhance language learning.
- v) Adhere to high ethical standards and practices when teaching, conducting research, publishing, mentoring, and while conducting assessment and examination-related tasks.
- vi) Take responsibility for maintaining the quality of their professional practice.

4) **Public Responsibility:** As committed members of the society, language educators should:

- i) Maintain the highest standards of professional conduct in their communities, classrooms and professional affiliations.
- ii) Exhibit the highest standards of expertise by maintaining their professional skills in the field of language teaching.
- iii) Develop and maintain good relationships with parents and guardians and other members of the society.
- iv) Uphold public trust and confidence in the teaching profession.
- v) Refrain from making public statements, which bring the profession into disrepute.
- vi) Engage and work positively with parents and guardians and develop and maintain good relationships between home and school.

1.4.3.4. Criteria for Good Language Teacher

Following criteria is healthy for a good language teacher:

- 1) Providing a reliable model (accurate, fluent and appropriate),
- 2) Provide rich comprehensible input,
- 3) Being natural,
- 4) Exposing students to language that shows form-function relationships,
- 5) Varying the situational phrases, e.g., the whole class, all together,
- 6) Not requiring students to understand every word in order to comprehend the teacher's language,
- 7) Getting students' attention before he / she starts talking,
- 8) Providing opportunities for students to hear genuine uncontrolled language used for authentic communicative purposes, and
- 9) Providing opportunities for authentic use of language.

Elements Contributing to Good Language Teacher

The elements contributing to good language teacher are as follows:

- 1) **Speed:** Adjusting the speed of the teacher talk to match the level of students' understanding – breaking up the teacher talk into smaller manageable 'chunks'.
- 2) **Vocabulary:** Using simple vocabulary - using vocabulary that is generally known to the students.
- 3) **Language Structures:** Using simpler structures, e.g., active sentences, using short sentences.
- 4) **Content:** Including familiar topics to arouse students' interest, including requests for repetition, clarification or explanation from students including much encouragement for students to interact.
- 5) **Repeating and Rephrasing:** Repeating and rephrasing the sentences to help students understand.
- 6) **Flexibility:** Using the language flexibly in different situations.

1.4.4. Difference in the Role of Language Teacher and Subject Teacher

The difference in the role of language teacher and subject teacher is given under following table:

Table 1.2: Difference in the Role of Language Teacher and Subject Teacher

| Language Teacher | Subject Teacher |
|--|---|
| Teaches general vocabulary. | Teaches the subject related vocabulary. |
| Informs the subject teacher what he recently taught. | Makes them practice the structures. |
| Teaches the structural elements. | Tries to make them practice recently taught items in language classroom. |
| Teaches prefixes and suffixes. | Teaches how to use prefixes and suffixes in sentences related to the concerned subject. |
| Teaches how to create definitions. | Helps them create their own definitions. |
| Giving guidelines to the subject teachers. | Consulting language teachers for clearing doubts. |

1.5. LANGUAGE LEARNING

1.5.1. Learning Language

In their early years, children are learning both spoken and written language. They are developing use of complex grammatical structures and vocabulary; communicative competence comprehension of spoken and written language; and ways to express themselves.

1.5.2. Meaning of Language Learning

Learning, as opposed to acquisition, is a conscious activity. **Language learning** refers to the conscious knowledge of language and the awareness of having grammatical rules with the ability to talk about them. It results from explicit knowledge of grammatical rules and formal teaching.

The Oxford Advance Learner's Dictionary defines learning as, "gaining knowledge or skill by study, experience or being taught." It is what we do when we look a word up in the dictionary and it is what happens when we learn rules about how language works or purposefully study lists of vocabulary and grammar forms. While acquisition is automatic and natural, learning is purposeful and artificial.

The term language learning is often used in the context of the second language (L2) learnt by the child after he has learnt his native or mother tongue (L1). The second language learning begins at the start of formal schooling, one that is carried out in classrooms under instructions of a language teacher and within the confines of a structured course, with strong, little or no motivation, depending on the specific goals of the learner.

1.5.2.1. Features of Language Learning

Following are the some main features of language learning:

- 1) **Language Learning is a Conscious, Deliberate and Formal Act:** Language learning is a conscious, deliberate and formal act that occurs in a formal situation in an organised manner, and it is the result of direct instruction in the rules of language. The child is aware of the fact that he is learning the language and makes conscious efforts to memorise the rules and its grammatical structures. The class environment where the teachers teach is an artificial one, i.e., situations are created to resemble real life situations and learning revolves around a prescribed syllabus, course or text books. Error correction and explicit teaching of rules are basic to language learning. Moreover, the child is evaluated periodically through tests and formal term-end examinations to provide certification and performance assessments.
- 2) **Language Learning is a Complex Process:** Learning a language is definitively a complex process with three major determinants, i.e., the learner, the teacher and the interacting situation.
- 3) **Influenced by the Individual Characteristics:** Learning is strongly influenced by the unique individual characteristics of the learner, teachers teaching it can make it more effective if it is matched with the learner's interest, ability and attitude. Although an individual's learning pattern is largely personalised, it is also dynamic and ever-evolving with the changes in the learning resources and context.

1.5.2.2. Principles of Language Learning

The principles of language learning have a number of implications for teachers catering to the needs of gifted and talented culturally and linguistically diverse learners. The language learning involves certain basic principles:

- 1) Imply that the choice of methods and strategies should be flexible,
- 2) Advocate an eclectic approach to methodology which draws upon many methods for the best techniques approaches and strategies for learning English and learning through English,
- 3) Imply that gifted and talented students learn best when given the opportunity to use English freely and creatively in many different communicative situations,

- 4) Imply a need to create an atmosphere of trust to encourage learners to take risks,
- 5) Imply a need to provide opportunities for gifted and talented learners to find answers to their own questions and pursue their own interests,
- 6) Imply a need to, at times, actively focus students on specific aspects of English, such as strategies, skills, structures and vocabulary,
- 7) Imply a need to encourage and promote the active involvement of gifted and talented learners in exploring, investigating, reflecting, communicating and self-discovery,
- 8) Advocate related and recycled experiences to support conceptual development,
- 9) Require a balance of teaching/learning situations in the classroom, and
- 10) Advocate the use of peer collaboration for modelling and scaffolding purposes.

1.5.2.3. Issues Related To Indian Language Learning Scenario

To learn a language is to learn all the four skills of a language which has been identified as reading, writing, speaking, listening. In Indian set-up when reading and writing are given much importance, speaking and listening are grossly neglected. The major issues affecting and not creating a desirable situation in language learning are scanty classroom size, meagre classroom infrastructure, learners with mixed ability, emphasis on not skill but grade (examination), not ability but availability (attendance).

- 1) **Classroom Size:** Most teachers in India complain that the strength of students is more compared to a classroom size. Most of the times it is more than 70.
- 2) **No Personal Attention:** One of the most difficult things to do in a large classroom is trying to get the attention of every single student. It lacks an intimacy in student-teachers level. Teachers do not find time to interact personally with students and weaker students do not get personal attention. Nervous students hesitate to ask their doubts in front of such a large number of students.
- 3) **Distractions:** There are more distractions for teachers in these large classes. Sometimes teachers have to allow latecomers inside the classroom during the class hour which creates unnecessary disturbance in the teaching process. Even students are found chatting/gossiping during an active classroom session.
- 4) **Lack of Communicative Activities:** Inadequate spaces, lack of language learning equipment in the classrooms do not encourage any fruitful communicative activities like role plays, group discussions, oral presentations, etc. Unless there is a proper and systematic plan, it is going to create havoc in the classroom.
- 5) **Noise Level:** Large classes become unmanageable when students start working in pair or group. Sometimes students become indiscipline, unruly which end up in several disciplinarian committees to punish, rusticate students.

- 6) **Meagre Classroom Infrastructure:** A classroom needs a teacher cum instructor, a guide cum facilitator, cooperative learners and necessary equipments for an effective learning atmosphere which our Indian classrooms need in a true sense.
- 7) **III Equipped Classrooms:** Most Indian classrooms are ill equipped though a lot of implementations have been made by the Government. They do not accommodate up-to-date requirements like projectors, white boards, overhead projectors (O.H.P), LCDs for an effective and successful learning environment. Implementation of a well-equipped language laboratory is far from question.
- 8) **Teaching Resources:** Using hand outs, writing assignments, photocopy materials for reading assignments have become very necessary in today's classroom environment which serve as a connection between teacher and students. Sometimes teachers have to manage without a chalk and blackboard. There are numerous examples of teaching students without a roof, under the trees.
- 9) **Learners with Mixed Ability:** Many teachers in India complain that they have problems dealing with classes that are of mixed ability. The characteristics of mixed ability classes are – While some students follow the lessons and are able to answer questions and do well in tests, others fall behind, do not seem to understand and do badly in tests. While some are outspoken, some others are too nervous to open their mouth. Some are very active, energetic while others lack confidence. While some students pay attention and are cooperative, some seem disinterested. Sometimes teachers find it difficult to handle such kind of situations as they lack adequate training and experience. Teachers may agree that some students are cleverer or simply better, but practically observed; the situation is more complex than that. Our students are indeed mixed in many ways. They are different in terms of their levels of attention, interest, learning styles, types of intelligences, knowledge of and about English.

In a situation where every day our teachers have to meet a class of 70-90 students in a one hour teaching lesson and pressure is always on completing the syllabus and preparing students for variety of result less examinations, there is little room for learners to be independent. Learners cram for examinations and focus on the marks and percentages. They lack motivation, effective learning atmosphere, learning strategies and proper guidance.

- 10) **Skills/ Grades (Examination):** Indian classrooms are exam based where written examinations are given more importance. There are various class tests, trimester exams, mid-semester exams, end- semester exams. Learners always busy in submitting assignments, project reports, in preparing and writing these exams do not find adequate time to learn other skills like speaking, listening and reading which are also of same importance in day to day life. There is always a pressure on teachers to complete syllabus before exams and evaluating answer sheets. Being involved in syllabus, answer

sheets, large classes, mixed ability students they sometimes fail to put their best in the entire learning process. Even if sometimes teachers plan for an effective learning session, they are unable to do it in the absence of support from authorities, parents, colleagues.

11) Ability/ Availability (Attendance): The conventional wisdom is that student's college and grades are related to class attendance – students who attend classes more frequently obtain better grades. Several studies of large, lecture based courses have examined the relationship between class attendance and final course grades. In this process we forget to give attention to student's learning ability. Our focus become quantity oriented rather than quality oriented.

1.5.2.4. Role of Teacher in Language Learning

In language learning the role of teacher is vital in the following ways:

- 1) Provide proper motivation to learn the language.
- 2) Understand the learners and monitor their progress in the learning process.
- 3) Encourage interaction among the learners to speak in the target language by involving them in the speech activities like debates, seminars, elocutions, etc.
- 4) Consider the personal interest of the students and provide immediate rewards or results to reinforce the learning behaviours.
- 5) Provide activities based on a child's interest in which they can use the language like language games, quiz, etc.
- 6) Teacher must use various methods in his/her teaching.
- 7) Teacher must be a good classroom manager.
- 8) Teacher must explain concepts well and illustrate the concept with examples.
- 9) Teacher must be tolerant of errors.
- 10) Teacher must be well informed about modern techniques of teaching.
- 11) The teacher provides opportunities for language use in meaningful contexts. Teacher mediates, when the learners need help and consolidates learning after task completion. The teacher also monitors individual learning. He/she may be a co-participant in the tasks.
- 12) Teacher must perform the role of an information-giver and helps the learner with the answers to questions.

1.5.3. Learning through Language

Learning in classrooms is primarily accomplished through language. Teachers lecture, ask questions, initiate discussions, and assign reading and writing tasks. Students engage in academic tasks through reading, writing, exploring the internet, giving verbal answers to teacher questions, listening to teacher lectures and student presentations, participating in whole-class and instructional peer group discussions, memorising written text and vocabulary, and so on.

1.5.4. Learning about Language

Perhaps the most obvious classroom practice for learning about language is through the study of grammar and spelling. As linguists point out, the grammar taught in school is a prescriptive grammar and is not a descriptive grammar. For those students who use Standard English, prescriptive grammar is often very close to the language they speak. But for students who speak a variation of English other than Standard English the teaching and learning of prescriptive grammar does not necessarily relate to the language they speak, and thus they are learning about a language different from the language they speak.

Another typical classroom practice for learning about language is the instruction of a second language. Learning a second language can mean one of two things – the learning of a foreign language or the learning of English by those whose native language is not English. It is often the case that the teaching of a second language includes coverage of the grammar, vocabulary structures, and history of the language.

1.6. FUNCTIONS OF LANGUAGE IN CLASSROOM LEARNING

1.6.1. Basic Functions of Language

Language functions refer to the purposes in which we use language to communicate. We use language for a variety of formal and informal purposes, and specific grammatical structures and vocabulary are often used with each language function. Some examples of language functions include:

- 1) Language is the primary vehicle of communication,
- 2) Language reflects both the personality of the individual and the culture of the society, and
- 3) Languages make possible the growth and transmission of culture, and the continuity of societies, and the effective functioning and control of social group.

Three basic functions of language are generally noted. They are as follows:

- 1) **Informative Language Function:** This function concentrates on the message. The informative function affirms or denies propositions, as in science or the statement of a fact. It is used to give new information. This function is used to describe the world or reason about it. These sentences have a truth value; that is, the sentences are either true or false. Hence, they are important for logic.
- 2) **Expressive Language Function:** Reports feelings or attitudes of the writer (or speaker), or of the subject, or evokes feelings in the reader (or listener). Language can have an expressive function, i.e., it can be used to express its originator's feelings and attitude. Poetry and literature are among the best examples, but much of, perhaps most of, ordinary language discourse is the expression of emotions, feelings or attitudes. Two main aspects of this function are generally noted such as evoking certain feelings and expressing feelings. Expressive discourse is best regarded as neither true nor false.

3) **Directive Language Function:** Language used for the purpose of causing (or preventing) overt action. The directive function is most commonly found in commands and requests. Directive language is not normally considered true or false. This function of social control places emphasis on the receiver's end, rather than the originator's end of the message. But it resembles the expressive function in giving less importance, on the whole, to conceptual meaning than to other types of meaning, particularly affective and connotative meaning.

Roman Jakobson defined six functions of language (or communication functions), according to which an effective act of verbal communication can be described. Each of the functions has an associated factor.

- 1) **Referential Function:** It corresponds to the factor of context and describes a situation, object or mental state. The descriptive statements of the referential function can consist of both definite descriptions and deictic words. This function is all about describing and is oriented toward the context.
- 2) **Poetic Function:** It focuses on "the message for its own sake" and is the operative function in poetry as well as slogans. This function describes something.
- 3) **Emotive (Expressive or Affective) Function:** It relates to the addresser (sender) and is best exemplified by interjections and other sound changes that do not alter the denotative meaning of an utterance but do add information about the addresser's (speaker's) internal state. This function is concerned with commanding and is oriented toward addresser.
- 4) **The Cognitive Function:** It engages the addressee (receiver) directly and is best illustrated by vocatives and imperatives. This function is choosing one's words wisely and is oriented toward the addressee.
- 5) **The Phatic Function:** It is language for the sake of interaction and is therefore associated with the contact/channel factor. The phatic function can be observed in greetings and casual discussions of the weather, particularly with strangers. It also provides the keys to open, maintain, verify or close the communication channel. The phatic function means engaging for the sake of conversation and serves to establish, prolong or discontinue communication.
- 6) **The Meta-Lingual (Meta-Linguistic or Reflexive) Function:** It is the use of language to discuss or describe itself. This function requires analysing language. This function is used to establish manual agreement on the code.

Thus, the Jakobson's model of the functions of language distinguishes six elements, or factors of communication, that are necessary for communication to occur:

- 1) Context,
- 2) Addresser (Sender),
- 3) Addressee (Receiver),
- 4) Contact,
- 5) Common Code, and
- 6) Message.

Each factor is the focal point of a relation, or function that operates between the message and the factor.

1.6.2. Functions of Language Inside the Classroom

Each of the three basic function of language has a significant role to play inside the classroom. Inside a classroom, communication occurs between the teacher and the students. The language used by teachers and students is mostly formal in a normal classroom situation. The teacher has to use informative language (to give information), expressive language (to discuss the text of a literary work) and performative language (to make the students practice different modes of communication) inside a classroom. Here, the functions of language is realised both orally and in written form.

In a teacher-student relationship, we can discuss the functions of language from two dimensions; from teacher's point of view from the learners' or students' point of view:

- 1) **From Teacher's Point of View:** From the angle of the teacher, the language functions in different ways:
 - i) It helps the teacher to give information to the students. The teacher gives information by way of discussing the contents of the subject. There are different objectives of teaching such as helping students in developing their character, making them familiar with the syllabus and examination procedures and solving the problems of the students while performing all these tasks the teacher has to use language.
 - ii) Language also has a useful function in making the teacher understand the mood of the students. He can analyse the language used by the students and by doing this the mood of the students can be understood.
 - iii) Again language is the most useful means for a teacher to transfer everything to the students what the teacher aims to teach.
- 2) **From Students' Point of View:** If we look the functions of language from the student's point of view, we arrive at the following points:
 - i) Students get to know what is being taught through a language. The teacher imparts knowledge to the students by means of a verbal communication and on his part a student learns what he is taught through the language of communication.
 - ii) In a group discussion or in pair-works, the students have to discuss and share their ideas and views with fellow students through a language.
 - iii) The students have to use language to ask questions to the teacher to clear their doubts.
 - iv) Lastly, the students have to sit for examination which is supposed to test their knowledge. They use language to answer question and to prove their proficiency in a subject.

One important aspect in this respect is that the contents and lessons of the prescribed subjects are furnished in written language. In this context, the function of language inside a classroom is very significant. Hence, the written language functions as a store house of knowledge for the students.

1.6.3. Functions of Language Outside the Classroom

Outside the classroom, the students face a broader field, where they need to communicate with different persons in different situations and environments. Hence, language has been even more important function outside the classroom in comparison to its functions inside the classroom. Students must acquire the basic social language skill outside the class, either through independent study or by interacting with other speakers. Students have to ask and answer questions about themselves, about their families and friends, the food they like, the weather, what they did yesterday and so on.

Outside the classroom, the learners or students can implement what they learn inside the classroom. Inside the classroom, a student learns how to greet the teacher by using "Good morning, sir" or "Good evening, madam"; how to take permission by using "May I come in", etc. A student can also use this knowledge of greetings outside the classroom by addressing a neighbour as, "Good morning, uncle." In this way, a learner learns to use different words and phrases which are performatory in nature and can be used outside the classroom. The students learn to congratulate one on his/her success by saying "I congratulate you on your success"; similarly, they use "thank you", "I welcome you", "I promise you", "I warn you", etc. to express themselves in different contexts outside the classroom.

Naturally language has to operate huge range of functions outside the classroom.

- 1) Language is used to tell a story,
- 2) For making a speech,
- 3) To play a part,
- 4) To imagine,
- 5) To soothe,
- 6) To ask,
- 7) To deceive, and
- 8) To demonstrate one's feelings and in endless other ways.

The informative functions of language can explicitly be realised outside the classroom with the presence and availability of newspapers, journals, magazines, etc. By going through them, a student or a person can acquire information relating to different topics.

Besides, the language functions miscellaneously. For example, in buying a shirt, what is the price of that blue shirt? In bargaining the price of onion in the market, it is too high; could you not sell it at a reasonable rate? In paying the bus fair to the conductor, Please take it. I shall get-off at Chandmari. To ask for a cup of tea at the tea-shop, give me a special cup of tea.

There are other uses of language such as to enquire about railway reservation, to call a doctor, to invite people for marriage and other functions, or a party at home, etc.

These are the ways in which language functions as a medium in our day-to-day life and outside the classroom.

1.7. EXERCISE

1.7.1. Very Short Answer Type Questions

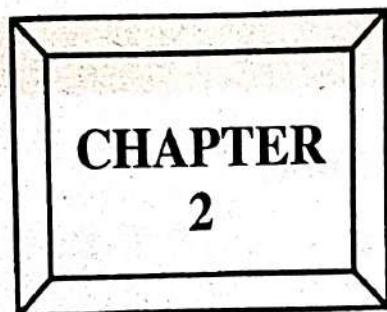
- 1) What do you mean by language?
- 2) What is curriculum?
- 3) Define LAC.
- 4) Who is content subject teacher?
- 5) What do you mean by language teacher?

1.7.2. Short Answer Type Questions

- 1) Describe nature and importance of language.
- 2) What is the concept of curriculum?
- 3) Describe the concept of LAC.
- 4) Describe the role of content subject teachers.
- 5) What is language learning?

1.7.3. Long Answer Type Questions

- 1) Discuss and describe meaning and concept of LAC approach. Why this approach is needed and important?
- 2) Discuss in detail about the functions of language in classroom learning.
- 3) Describe the roles of subject content teachers and language teachers. Differentiate their roles also.
- 4) What is language? Explain its scope and importance.
- 5) Explain importance of curriculum.



Language Acquisition and Language Learning

2.1. LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND LEARNING

2.1.1. Introduction

The capacity to acquire and use language is a key aspect that distinguishes humans from other beings. Acquiring language is the act of internalising language to which one has been exposed, without the deliberate memorisation of a word and its definition. Language acquisition thus, typically implies some type of subconscious, effortless assimilation of linguistic knowledge. More often it is applied to the child's mastery of a first or native language, as opposed to the adult's mastery of a second language.

A child acquires his mother tongue naturally, without putting in any conscious efforts, and in the absence of planned and systematic or formal teaching. It takes place in a natural environment, one where the child listens to the family members using the language and unconsciously and effortlessly acquires the sounds, and vocabulary, meanings and grammar of the language. Although there is no organised teaching or planning, the language is picked up by the child as a result of repeated exposure to the target language through imitation, trial and error, association, and analogy. All this acquisition precedes rapidly and quite effectively mainly because it is functional in nature, i.e., the child uses language for the sake of communication, to get things done or to simply express oneself. Speakers are concerned not with the form of their utterances but with the messages they are conveying and understanding.

The capacity to successfully use language requires one to acquire a range of tools including – phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and an extensive vocabulary. Language can be vocalised as in speech or manual as in sign. The human language capacity is represented in the brain.

Even though the human language capacity is finite, one can say and understand an infinite number of sentences, which is based on a syntactic principle called recursion. Furthermore, there are actually two main guiding principles in first language acquisition, i.e., speech perception always precedes speech production and the gradually evolving system by which a child learns a language is built-up one step at a time, beginning with the distinction between individual phonemes.

2.1.2. Meaning and Definition of Language Acquisition

Language acquisition means the ability to “pick up” the language naturally the way children do. It occurs from the interaction with the people who speak the native language. The process of acquiring the language occurs subconsciously which means that acquires are not aware that they are acquiring a language.

Language acquisition is the process by which humans acquire the capacity to perceive and comprehend language, as well as, to produce and use words and sentences to communicate. Language acquisition is one of the quintessential human traits, because non-humans do not communicate by using language.

Language acquisition usually refers to first-language acquisition, which studies infants’ acquisition of their native language. This is distinguished from second-language acquisition, which deals with the acquisition (in both children and adults) of additional languages.

A.S. Hornby defines the term “acquisition” as “Gaining something by one’s own ability, efforts or behaviour.”

According to Krashen, “Acquisition is a powerful process and it is the lead actor in second language competence.”

According to Wikipedia, “Language acquisition is the process by which humans acquire the capacity to perceive and comprehend language, as well as to produce and use words and sentences to communicate.”

2.1.3. Process of Language Acquisition

Researchers define language acquisition into two categories:

- 1) First-language acquisition, and
- 2) Second-language acquisition.

2.1.4. First Language (L1) Acquisition

The term first language acquisition refers to children’s natural acquisition of the language or languages they hear from birth. It is distinguished from second language acquisition, which begins later, and from foreign language learning, which typically involves formal instruction.

First-language acquisition is a universal process regardless of home language. Children listen to the sounds around them, begin to imitate them, and eventually start producing words.

2.1.4.1. Characteristics of First Language (L1) Acquisition

Following are the characteristics of first language acquisition:

- 1) **It is an Instinct:** This is true in the technical sense, i.e., it is triggered by birth and takes its own course, though of course linguistic input from the environment is needed for the child to acquire a specific language. As an instinct, language acquisition can be compared to the acquisition of binocular vision or binaural hearing.

- 2) **It is Very Rapid:** The amount of time required to acquire one's native language is quite short, very short compared to that needed to learn a second language successfully later on in life.
- 3) **It is Very Complete:** The quality of first language acquisition is far better than that of a second language. One does not forget one's native language.
- 4) **It does not Require Instruction:** Despite the fact that many non-linguists think that mothers are important for children to learn their native language, instructions by parents or care-takers are unnecessary, despite the psychological benefits of attention to the child.

2.1.4.2. Process of First Language (L1) Acquisition

The first language acquisition usually consists of following stages:

- 1) **Cooing (3-6 Months):** Use phonemes from every language,
- 2) **Babbling (6-8 Months):** Selectively use phonemes from their native language, talking incoherently and continuous low murmuring sound.
- 3) **Holophrastic Stage or One Word Stage (9-18 Months):** Single open class words or word stems.
- 4) **Two Word Stage (18-24 Months):** Mini sentences with semantic relations.
- 5) **Telegraphic Speech (24-30 Months):** Early multi-word sentence structures of lexical rather than functional or grammatical morphemes.
- 6) **Fluency (30+ Months):** Almost normal developed speech and grammatical or functional structures emerge.

2.1.4.3. Significance of First Language (L1)

The significance of L1 are:

- 1) The first language of a child is part of the personal, social and cultural identity.
- 2) Another impact of the first language is that it brings about the reflection and learning of successful social patterns of acting and speaking.
- 3) It is basically responsible for differentiating the linguistic competence of acting. While some argue that there is no such thing as "native speaker" or a "mother tongue", it is important to understand the key terms as well as understand what it means to be a "non-native" speaker and the implications that can have on one's life. Research suggest that while a non-native speaker may develop fluency in a targeted language (L2) after about two years of immersion, it can actually take between five and seven years for that child to be on the same working level as their native speaking counterparts. That has implications on the education of non-native speakers.

The topic of native speaker also gives way to discussion about what exactly bilingualism is. One definition is that a person is bilingual by being equally proficient in both L1 and L2 languages.

2.1.5. Second Language (L2) School Language

A person's second language or L2 is a language that is not the native language of the speaker, but that is used in the locale of that person. In contrast, a foreign language is a language that is learned in an area where that language is not generally spoken. Some languages, often called auxiliary languages, are used primarily as second languages or lingua franca.

More informally, a second language can be said to be any language learned in addition to one's native language, especially in context of learning a new foreign language.

Second language refers to any language learned in addition to a person's first language; although the concept is named second-language acquisition, it can also incorporate the learning of third, fourth, or subsequent languages.

Second language acquisition refers to what learners do; it does not refer to practices in language teaching, although teaching can affect acquisition. Second Language Acquisition can incorporate heritage language learning, but it does not usually incorporate bilingualism. Most SLA researchers see bilingualism as being the end result of learning a language, not the process itself, and see the term as referring to native-like fluency.

Writers in fields such as education and psychology, however, often use bilingualism loosely to refer to all forms of multilingualism. SLA is also not to be contrasted with the acquisition of a foreign language; rather, the learning of second languages and the learning of foreign languages involve the same fundamental processes in different situations.

2.1.5.1. Process of Second Language (L2) Acquisition

Second-language acquisition assumes knowledge in a first language and encompasses the process an individual goes through as he or she learns the elements of a new language, such as vocabulary, phonological components, grammatical structures, and writing systems. Haynes divided the process of second-language acquisition into five stages, namely, preproduction, early production, speech emergence, intermediate fluency, and advanced fluency.

Process of L2 acquisition are:

- 1) **Pre-Production:** This is also called "the silent period," when the student takes in the new language but does not speak it. This period often lasts six weeks or longer, depending on the individual.
- 2) **Early Production:** The individual begins to speak using short words and sentences, but the emphasis is still on listening and absorbing the new language. There will be many errors in the early production stage.
- 3) **Speech Emergent:** Speech becomes more frequent, words and sentences are longer, but the individual still relies heavily on context clues and familiar topics. Vocabulary continues to increase and errors begin to decrease, especially in common or repeated interactions.

- 4) **Beginning Fluency:** Speech is fairly fluent in social situations with minimal errors. New contexts and academic language are challenging and the individual will struggle to express themselves due to gaps in vocabulary and appropriate phrases.
- 5) **Intermediate Fluency:** Communicating in the second language is fluent, especially in social language situations. The individual is able to speak almost fluently in new situations or in academic areas, but there will be gaps in vocabulary knowledge and some unknown expressions. There are very few errors, and the individual is able to demonstrate higher order thinking skills in the second language such as offering an opinion or analysing a problem.
- 6) **Advanced Fluency:** The individual communicates fluently in all contexts and can maneuver successfully in new contexts and when exposed to new academic information. At this stage, the individual may still have an accent and use idiomatic expressions incorrectly at times, but the individual is essentially fluent and comfortable communicating in the second language.

2.1.5.2. Communication Strategies for Second Language (L2) Learners

Communication strategies are strategies that learners use to overcome these problems in order to convey their intended meaning. Strategies used may include paraphrasing, substitution, coining new words, switching to the first language, and asking for clarification. These strategies, with the exception of switching languages, are also used by native speakers.

No comprehensive list of strategies has been agreed on by researchers in second-language acquisition, but some commonly used strategies have been observed:

- 1) **Circumlocution:** This refers to learners using different words or phrases to express their intended meaning. **For example**, if learners do not know the word grandfather they may paraphrase it by saying “my father’s father”.
- 2) **Semantic Avoidance:** Learners may avoid a problematic word by using a different one, e.g., substituting the irregular verb make with the regular verb asks. The regularity of “ask” makes it easier to use correctly.
- 3) **Word Coinage:** This refers to learners creating new words or phrases for words that they do not know. **For example**, a learner might refer to an art gallery as a “picture place”.
- 4) **Language Switch:** Learners may insert a word from their first language into a sentence, and hope that their interlocutor will understand.
- 5) **Asking for Clarification:** The strategy of asking an interlocutor for the correct word or other help is a communication strategy.
- 6) **Non-verbal Strategies:** This can refer to strategies such as the use of gesture and mime to augment or replace verbal communication.
- 7) **Avoidance:** Avoidance, which takes multiple forms, has been identified as a communication strategy. Learners of a second language may learn to avoid talking about topics for which they lack the necessary vocabulary or other language skills in the second language. Also, language learners sometimes start to try to talk about a topic, but abandon the effort in mid-utterance after discovering that they lack the language resources needed to complete their message.

2.1.6. Factors Affecting Acquisition of Language

Learning a second language is never easy. Students must wrestle with new vocabulary, rules for grammar and sentence structure, idioms, pronunciation and more. Some people, however, seem to catch on much more quickly than others. Thus, following are the certain factors that affect the acquisition of language:

- 1) **Learner's Characteristics and Personal Traits:** People who are confident and outgoing find it easier to learn a second language. They have less fear of making mistakes, and making mistakes is an integral part of learning a new skill. Introverts who struggle with social interaction are doubly challenged to practice speaking in a new language, although they may do well in written work.
- 2) **Motivation:** Motivation is also a powerful factor that affects acquisition of language. Motivation are of two type – Intrinsic motivation, such as the desire to achieve personal goals and successfully learn the new language; and extrinsic motivation, such as the need to improve language skills in order to find a job or communicate with peers, are both important factors.
- 3) **Situational and Environmental Factors:** Students whose families and communities set high standards for language acquisition learn more quickly than those who do not. Exposure to high-quality ESL programmes is also essential. Students do best when they are allowed to speak their native language as they try to learn the new one because that helps them process the information.

They also need exposure to native English speakers, both in and out of the classroom. Ideally, students should hear English spoken at a level slightly above their own level of competence. The learning environment should be comfortable, and students' successes should be recognised.

- 4) **Prior Language Development and Competence:** It is generally accepted that adequate linguistic and cognitive development in a home language contributes positively to second language learning. Students who have been exposed to several languages but without having the opportunity to become proficient in any are at a disadvantage. General cognitive ability is also a factor. Certain people are especially gifted in the area of language acquisition, according to some linguists.
- 5) **Age and Intellectual Development:** It has been observed that the optimal age for learning a language is 2-12 years. After puberty, language acquisition is more challenging because the brain has undergone a process called lateralisation, the division of the brain into two parts with separate functions, and is less adaptive.

People who learn a new language after puberty will usually keep their native accent, but those who learn as children will not. Children ages 8 through 12 learn new language more quickly than younger children who are not yet proficient in their native language.

2.1.7. Difference between Language Acquisition and Language Learning

The following table makes a clear distinction between language acquisition and language learning:

Table 2.1: Difference between Language Acquisition and Language Learning

| Language Acquisition | Language Learning |
|---|--|
| 1) Proceeds rapidly | 1) Proceeds relatively slowly |
| 2) Unconscious and effortless | 2) Effortful |
| 3) Similar stages of development | 3) Recognisable stages of development but subject to greater individual variation. |
| 4) No negative evidence | 4) Negative evidence readily available (particularly in classroom setting). |
| 5) Exposure to spontaneous speech is sufficient. | 5) Training and instruction typically required in addition to exposure to spontaneous speech. |
| 6) Adult-like mastery of all aspects of the language. | 6) Fossilisation of errors is commonplace, as are errors involving a transfer of features from the L1, and the outcome of learning is not the same across individuals. |

An understanding of the inherent distinction between language acquisition and language learning will eventually guide the language teachers as to how the second language classroom may be utilized for both acquisition and learning.

2.2. MULTILINGUALISM

2.2.1. Meaning and Definition of Multilingualism

Presently there are roughly 7,099 languages are spoken in the world. Roughly a third of languages are now endangered, often with less than 1,000 speakers remaining. Meanwhile, just 23 languages account for more than half the world's population.

The most popular language in the world is Mandarin Chinese. There are 1,21,30,00,000 people in the world that speak that language. Spanish is at the second place, with 414 million people. English trails in third place, with 335 million speakers. Whereas, Hindi at the fourth place, with 260 million people. The existence of all these languages side by side resulted in multilingualism. Knowing two or more than two languages became the need for communication among speech communities as well as individuals.

'Multilingualism' can be defined as an occurrence regarding an individual speaker who uses two or more languages, a community of speakers where two or more languages are used, or between speakers of two languages.

Multilingualism refers to an individual speaker who uses two or more languages or to a community of speakers, where the use of more than one language is common.

In other words, Multilingualism is the use of two or more languages, either by an individual speaker or by a community of speakers.

Mohanty (2006) describes the multilingualism in India being at the “grass root level” with the use of two or more languages in the daily lives of individuals.

Multilingualism can also be defined on the basis of maximal competence and minimal competence. The maximal definition means speakers are as competent and proficient in one language as they are in others, i.e., equally competent in all the languages. The minimal definition on the other hand is based on use, i.e., he/she is successful enough in achieving the goals of effective communication in a particular domain. According to Cook, multilingual speakers mostly lie somewhere between the continuum of maximal and minimal definition, whom he called multicompetent.

Multilingualism basically arises due to the need to communicate across speech communities. Multilingualism is not a rare but a normal necessity across the world due to globalisation and wider cultural communication. Also it is not a recent phenomenon; it was prevalent in the ancient time also. This need further result in lingua franca, pidgins and phenomenon like code switching. These are the products of multilingualism.

Multilingual speakers outnumber monolingual speakers in the world's population. Multilingualism is becoming a social phenomenon governed by the needs of globalisation and cultural openness. Owing to the ease of access to information facilitated by the Internet, individuals' exposure to multiple languages is becoming increasingly frequent, thereby promoting a need to acquire additional languages. In recent years, linguistic research has focused attention on the use of widely known world languages such as English as lingua franca, or the shared common language of professional and commercial communities. In lingua franca situations, most speakers of the common language are functionally multilingual.

2.2.2. Nature/Features of Indian Multilingualism

India is a land of many languages, dialects and religions. Bilingualism or monolingualism is a very common phenomenon here. Monolingualism is almost a used in Indian schools. Students speak different languages or each student knows or speaks more than a language.

Most students speak one language at school, their mother tongue at home or with their linguistic or religious communities. At higher stages, English becomes the lingua franca or the common language of the students.

Following are the some multilingualism characteristics of Indian:

- 1) **Historical in Nature:** Indian multilingualism dates back historically to ancient times when ethnic groups and races came in contact with one another through migration from one region to another. Although political compulsions and social re-structuring might have contributed a little to its growth, multilingualism in India was largely a product of close contact

between the four language families from the earliest recorded history. This contact had resulted in the growth of India as a linguistic area with certain common features.

- 2) **Co-existence of Many Languages:** Co-existence of many languages, races, cultures, and religions has been the essence of Indian heritage. In contrast to this, language uniformity is considered necessary for the economic development in the West. To dissolve the linguistic diversities in the melting pot, and accepting exclusively the dominant language for all purposes such as education, law, administration, and mass communication, is not truly an Indian model.
- 3) **Influence of Other Languages:** In a multilingual society, no language can continue in its pure, and native form. Each language in the society is influenced by the other languages, as speakers of the languages come into contact with one another. To recognise multilingualism is to recognise translanguaging. Translanguaging is a natural way for multilinguals to access different linguistic features of so-called autonomous languages in order to maximise communicative potential.

Pattanayak (1990:41-42) has given some special nature/features of Indian multilingualism. They are as follows:

- 1) Multilingualism is sustained in India by social institutions,
- 2) Linguistic features transcend genetic boundaries,
- 3) Multilingualism is the result of nationalism,
- 4) Change in linguistic codes or their mixing in communication does not create problems of identity, conflict and crisis,
- 5) It is possible to become multilingual without being multicultural,
- 6) Language boundaries because of regular contact are fuzzy,
- 7) Indian multilingualism is bifocal, existing both at mass and elite levels, and
- 8) The functional relation between languages is not linear but hierarchical.

2.2.3. Types of Multilingualism

Multilingualism can be categorised into different types. There are various criteria and situations, which governs the classification of multilingualism. Multilingualism serves the necessity of effective communication and for that it is not necessary to have competence in all the languages. So multilingualism can be categorised according to degree of acquisition and manner of acquisition.

- 1) **Degree of Acquisition:** By degree it means the level of competence a person has in other languages which he knows. If a person has native like command in all the languages he knows, then it is known as ambilingualism. And if a person has equal degree of competence in the languages he uses, is known as equilingualism.
- 2) **Manner of Acquisition:** By manner it means how a person is becoming a multilingual. This also takes into account the stage at which a person acquires or learns other languages. When a child acquires more than one language naturally at home, it is termed as natural bilingualism. This situation

generally happens in childhood. In natural multilingualism a child grows with several languages naturally. And when a person learns other languages in an artificial or classroom setting, it is known as artificial multilingualism. Sometimes it is also known as elective multilingualism. This can be at childhood and adulthood too.

According to Sridhar (1996:47) multilingualism is more than just a magnified version of bilingualism. He classified multilingualism as:

- 1) **Individual Multilingualism:** The ability of an individual to have competence in two or more languages is known as Individual multilingualism. How an individual acquires a language and when it has been acquired, in childhood or later. How these languages are presented in mind. All these questions are important in order to understand the kind of multilingualism.
- 2) **Societal Multilingualism:** The linguistic diversity present in a society is known as societal multilingualism. In societal multilingualism some issues like role and status, attitude towards languages, determinants of language choices, the symbolic and practical uses of the languages and the correlation between language use and social factors such as ethnicity, religion and class are important. Societal multilingualism does not necessarily imply individuals.

According to Grosjean (1982:12-13), there are two principles that govern multilingualism at the level of society. These are:

- 1) **Territorial Principle of Multilingualism:** In this a country consists of several language groups but each one is primarily monolingual. **For example,** Canada has four official languages. So the country as a whole is multilingual but not all individuals are necessarily multilingual.
- 2) **Personality Principle of Multilingualism:** In this a country has many official languages and the individuals too are multilingual. **For example,** India which is a multilingual country and most of the population is multilingual.

Yet another principle of multilingualism can be described where the country is monolingual, i.e., one official language but due to the presence of various minority languages or different dialects or variations the individuals are not necessarily monolinguals.

Mansour. G (1993:19) characterised multilingualism into two types:

- 1) **Horizontal Multilingualism:** Speakers who live in their own geographic spaces and are often monolingual are grouped under horizontal multilingualism. The idea is that multilingualism may be there at the higher level of society, but separate groups are not particularly integrated into this larger society. Each does its living in its own space or lives in virtual isolation. This is like a patch work on a quilt of tiny monolingual societies.

2) **Vertical Multilingualism:** In this people of different ethnicity are in direct contact with others because they share the same territory and participate jointly in all socio-economic activities. Instances of vertical multilingualism are more in urban centre in multilingual countries where people interact more frequently in different languages.

One more type of multilingualism is known as **receptive multilingualism**. It is yet not an established field within research on multilingualism. It was only after mid-nineties receptive multilingualism was promoted by the European commission.

Receptive Multilingualism is a broader term. It basically deals with reading and understanding of other languages. Receptive multilingualism is a constellation of language in which interlocutors use their respective mother tongue while speaking to each other. Receptive multilingualism as a form of language contact had been discussed at the University of Hamburg, at the Research centre 538. This had been a major impact on the development of the mainland Scandinavian languages. Also **Ludger and Jan** have discussed how passive competence is a misnomer for receptive competence. And have argued that native like competence is no longer a prerequisite for effective communication in many domains. In India, one uses different languages with different people to communicate and yet native like competence is not a prerequisite for effective communication. Humans can establish mutual understanding if they wish to do so.

2.2.4. Benefits of Multilingualism

In the face of the challenges of implementing mother tongue/first language instruction, it is critical to also consider the benefits of maintaining bilingualism. Bilinguals show greater number of independent cognitive strategies at their disposal and exhibit greater flexibility in the use of these strategies to solve problems. They perform better especially in tasks that call for selective attention that includes inhibition, monitoring, and switch of focus of attention. Following points suggest the importance of multilingualism:

1) **Metalinguistic Awareness:** One of the benefits that bilingual students have is related to metalinguistic awareness. Metalinguistic awareness refers to the ability to be aware of the language system to focus on the form and function of words and monitor the process of comprehension. Bilingual children up to the age of six generally tend to outperform monolingual children on isolated tasks of metalinguistic awareness related to reading.

According to Mohanty, who conducted studies on bilingual and monolingual Konds-speaking children in Odisha, pointed out that children who were in schools and also those who were not, had an advantage over their monolingual peers with respect to their cognitive and intellectual skills. They also performed better on metalinguistic and metacognitive task. Children, who were schooled, outperformed their monolingual counterparts in educational achievement.

2) **Cross-Linguistic Transfer:** Given the fact that bilingual children have two or more languages in their repertoire, they have the advantage of cross-linguistic transfer. Most studies on cross-linguistic transfer draw from the

basic assumption that literacy skills gained in one language can transfer to another language. Studies on older and younger children have indicated that bilingual students are able to employ strategies of code-switching, code-mixing, and translation using cognates for cross-linguistic transfer, although use of particular strategies may vary at different grade levels. In India, this is especially critical, owing to the multiple languages and literacies that young children are faced with, especially language minority children. The Central Institute of Indian Languages in Mysore developed a Bilingual Transfer Model for tribal groups that used a tribal language for instruction during the first year of schooling. Oral communication in the regional language was encouraged and gradually instruction in the regional language was increased. The script of the regional language was modified to adapt for the tribal language. Several studies on cross-language transfer have particularly indicated that phonological awareness skills transfer from one language to the other, especially from the first to the second.

Multilingualism has various advantages, such as:

- 1) Accessibility to knowledge of other cultures;
- 2) Communication between different linguistic and cultural groups become easier;
- 3) Increases job opportunities;
- 4) High cognitive development of a child; and
- 5) A broader world view, etc.

2.2.5. Multilingualism in Education

The Indian education system is truly multilingual in its character. For example, the Bombay Municipal Corporation runs primary schools in nine languages. The Karnataka State runs primary schools in eight languages. The secondary schools in West Bengal give their students the option to choose from 14 languages.

The three-language formula widely in the country aims at developing and strengthening the multilingual character of our educational system. There are many problems in implementing the three-language formula. For example, there is no reference to the mother tongue or home language in the formula. There is no reference to the classical languages and foreign languages. Tamilnadu teaches only Tamil and English, and Gujarat follows it with Gujarati and Hindi. Many Hindi states substitute Sanskrit, a classical language for a modern Indian language.

With the expanded version of the 8th schedule of the constitution, more languages are added to the mix, but there is hardly any improvement in the situation. There are 500 Central Schools with the bilingual medium consisting of English and Hindi. There is also a compulsory language, Sanskrit, in addition. There are 500 Navodaya Vidyalayas where some competence in English and Hindi is imparted simultaneously. But the students who graduate from these schools go to the English medium colleges, because there is no college in the country that offers a bilingual medium of instruction. The Indian education system blocks multilingualism as one move into higher education.

2.2.6. Role of Language Policy with Respect to the Multilingualism In India

India provides the classic example of a multilingual context. According to the 1961 Census, there are 1652 Indian languages. It is however believed that there are many more languages in use. According to Census 2001, there are 22 Scheduled languages in the VIII Schedule and 122 non-scheduled languages. Being a language in the VIII Schedule implies that it is required in the state schools or can be the medium of instruction and, can be taught in the government centres and the government provides funding for the development of these languages. Even with such provisions, this creates a disparity between the number of languages spoken in households and the State recognition of them.

According to Annamalai (2001), "India is functionally multilingual with 47 languages used in education as medium, 87 in press, 71 in radio, 13 in cinema and 13 in state-level administration". This leads to several languages that children speak in their homes having no voice in classrooms.

Linguistic diversity in many cases is not recognised in the classrooms, and, any individual may face this issue of their language becoming marginalized. This is not just the case of children from tribal communities, but also of all children from minority languages. Sridhar (1996) points out to six categories of linguistic minorities present in India:

- 1) Speakers of minor languages (languages not included in schedule VIII of the Constitution);
- 2) Speakers of major languages who become minorities as a result of migration;
- 3) Speakers belonging to scheduled castes and tribes (e.g., Gondi, Santhali, etc.);
- 4) Religious minorities, e.g., Urdu speaking Muslims all over India;
- 5) Linguistic minorities who speak major languages but are a minority because they lack numerical strength in their jurisdiction of residence (e.g., speakers of Sindhi, Kashmiri, etc.); and
- 6) Ethnic minorities (e.g., Anglo-Indians, many of whom claim English as their native language).

The National Focus Group on Teaching of Indian Languages (2005) recommends that children who come from oral cultures (i.e., from language that do not have a script), whose parents are migrants, and those who belong to scheduled tribes, should be taught in mother tongue till class II. If the mother tongue of children is different from the regional/state language, the regional language maybe adopted as medium of instruction from class III onwards for elementary school.

This is in extension of the Kothari Commission (1964-66); which proposed the "three language formula". It advocates that the child who comes to school with proficiency in his/her mother tongue must be taught to read and write in that language so that they learn better. To promote unity and national pride, second language must include Hindi/ regional/state language from Class III onwards. The third language to be taught to the child must include language that enables

him/her to communicate with the larger community beyond the national boundaries. Three languages are the minimum number of languages child must know and use by the time he/she graduates from the school system. According to the Commission, if, in a classroom of 40 students 10 of them speak a mother tongue that is not the mainstream language, it must be done so. It implies that our teachers and school system must be strengthened to be able to cater to the needs of all children.

2.2.7. Need of Addressing Multilingualism in Early Learning

Several annual surveys indicate that there has been an increase in enrolment and decrease in dropout rates after the implementation of large scale programmes such as Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA), Mid-Day Meal Scheme (MDMS) and with the thrust of the Right to Education (RTE, 2009) to universalise elementary education. As a consequence, more and more children from linguistic minorities, oral cultures, and migrant communities are coming into the fold of educational entitlements and schemes.

The result is that the contours of the classrooms are now changing and demonstrating increased diversity. This diversity has not been addressed satisfactorily in teacher preparation programmes, textbooks, other reading material, approaches to curriculum development, pedagogy of early learning and assessment. As a result, children especially from the marginalised communities often show very low levels of achievement in reading, writing and computing.

According to ASER (2011), rural percentage of children in grade V who were able to read at grade II level has gone down from 53.7% in 2010 to 48.2% in 2011; and those in grade V level who were able to solve a 2-digit subtraction problem with borrowing has dropped from 70.9% in 2010 to 61.0% in 2011. The same report has also highlighted the fact that a quarter of all rural children attending school had a different language as medium of instruction in school from their home language.

It is important to note the reasons for children dropping out. The NSS of 1998 has pointed two major factors for dropout rates — ‘child not interested in studies’ (24.4%) and ‘unable to cope with or failure in studies’ (22.5%).

According to Gates (1995), when a child’s home language and culture is obliterated in the classroom space, when they are not provided with opportunities to engage in meaningful activities and when they are constantly reminded of their inability to meet the expectations of the teacher, they are most likely to internalise rejection and remain a spectator of the ‘grand’ mission of education.

With multilingualism at the grass-root level, a child’s knowledge of more than one language also constitutes his/her own identity. Identity formation takes place in children at a young age quite rapidly.

Any discrimination against their linguistic identity, community and home culture, adversely affects their self-esteem and identity formation process, and thereby their ability and confidence to learn and school performance. Along with the identity aspect is also the fact that linguistic factors alone do not explain the differences in the academic performance of minority students in schools.

Hence, researchers encourage “additive” bilingualism as opposed to “subtractive” bilingualism so that children retain their native language as they learn English or another language. This also implies that in the early childhood years, teachers play a critical role in making all children feel welcome in the classroom. At the same time, it is important to recognise that it is difficult for teachers to talk in as many languages as there are children in the classroom. Thus, culturally and linguistically sensitive teaching methodologies must be examined.

2.2.8. Challenges for Leveraging Multilingualism in India

Transforming the existing school culture presents an enormous but not insurmountable challenge. The situation could be analysed at four interdependent levels:

1) **Market Demands and the Politics of Power:** A language employs tremendous power due to its ability to contain within itself the identity, attitudes, culture and aspirations of its people. Thus, these socio-political factors make some languages more prestigious than others, which then become accepted as “standard”. The demand for languages of power then drives State policies and the market, even though linguistically explains all languages are equal. Today, English is definitely the language of power globally. It is a symbol of people’s aspirations, a gateway to opportunities. Similarly, at the State level, numerous languages are spoken but only the standard form of select languages gain favour as the instructional medium in schools. The hierarchy of languages therefore comes to signify the hegemony of power amongst its speakers. In such a scenario, parents naturally choose to educate their children in the languages of power in their most “standard” forms. There is a huge gap in public awareness of the empirically proven correlations between multilingualism and higher scholastic achievement. Since the educational system as a whole does not offer feasible options that consider multilingualism a resource, the parents have no choice but to succumb to the one-medium, and one-school policy.

2) **Systemic Drivers for Language Decisions are not Educational:**

Historically, a few significant but strategic drivers at the national and state levels have formulated the way school education navigates the issue of language today. One in 1949, the 8th Schedule of the Indian Constitution, titled Languages, declared Hindi and English as official languages (and not national languages) and recognised 14 major Indian languages. Two, in 1961, a strategic consensual decision was taken by the States to implement the three-language formula. This was later modified by the Kothari Commission to accommodate the interests of group identity (mother tongues and regional languages), national pride and unity (Hindi), and administrative efficiency.

and technological progress (English). The Commission described these changes as “impelling considerations that were more political and social, than educational”. Three, the higher education system blocks multilingualism, thereby triggering a high demand for English, Hindi and a few select languages at lower levels too. As per the 7th All India School Education Survey, Hindi, English and Sanskrit were adopted as first, second and third languages respectively in the largest number of schools. Approximately 80-90 per cent of the schools had only one medium of instruction. Out of this, approximately 60 per cent uses Hindi or English, with the former having a higher proportion. Hence, multilingual education policies such as the three-language formula are just additive mono-lingualism that ends up denying the complex trans-language practices of much of the world.

- 3) **School Organisational Constraints:** The overall structure of “school” is such that there is age-wise grouping of 25 to 45 students in a classroom, with clearly demarcated boundaries between subjects slotted into periods of 30 to 45 minutes in a fixed schedule. Children are officially expected to use the school’s single medium of instruction in all periods/subjects, except in second/third language time-slots, where “other” languages are “allowed”. Typically, strict policy measures control the language children speak inside and outside the classes, with consequences for non-adherence. Teacher recruitment and training is based on the ability to use the medium of instruction. Thus, the school positions a single medium of instruction as central to its overall working, in keeping with the market demands and policy measures discussed earlier. Without any doubt, operationally, this is an easier proposition due to a uniform medium of communication; but the implicit message is that this is the “preferred” language in its “correct” form. Usually, schools fail to clarify that the languages students personally identify with are not unworthy of recognition, are not inferior and do hold educational value. Overall, the school structure is unable to appreciate the multilingualism of its students.
- 4) **Teacher Ethos on the Issue of Purity of Language:** We spoke to primary and middle school teachers about the maintenance of purity of language, their teaching strategies and their students’ language abilities. The following response sums up their views and concerns:

The (English) language ability of students is not very great. They think in their mother tongue and then translate, if they can’t get a word they use from Kutchi, Gujarati, Hindi, etc., mixing is natural. But it is fine only when children slip into another language and get back to English easily. For others, it’s a big no-no as it hampers the development of (the weak) language.

2.2.9. Ways to Redress Challenges

The above comment represents the myths of language learning, while also exposing the practical constraints within which teachers are expected to function to facilitate and assess their students’ language learning. The practitioners’ view that use of home languages provides a “crutch” seems legitimate and realistic since the teachers work under the pressure of delivering to demanding parents

and school managements, unaware of the possibilities of using multilingual pedagogic methods. Questions of identity loss due to non-recognition of home language are not considered significant. Thus, the rich heteroglossic multilinguality of the classroom does not earn a legitimate place in the process of language acquisition.

- 1) **Key Changes Required in System and School Ethos:** Leveraging the strengths of multilingualism in the classroom would not only give voice and legitimacy to the identities of children, but has also been empirically proven to have a positive correlation with scholastic achievement, divergent thinking, cognitive flexibility and social tolerance. With such immense advantages, it is only natural that a market shift is necessary to increase the demand for education that values multilingualism to bring it into day-to-day practice. Since the school actually functions in response to market demands and government policy measures, a “bottom-up only” approach is bound to fail and needs to have strong top-down momentum.
- 2) **Building Mass Momentum in the Long-Term for a Mind-Set Shift:** What is required is a consensual language policy by all States, that is a significant shift from a formulaic approach to a more principled approach (multilingual, acceptance of porousness) with strict implementation and stringent consequences for flouting it. This is definitely an uphill task, given that education is a state subject, language is a political one and many vested interests are involved, besides pragmatic issues such as providing high-quality training for all teachers.

Widespread multimedia-based awareness campaigns and lobbying to develop a mass mind-set that links multilinguality with scholastic achievement, supported by empirical data, are needed. Focused efforts by interest groups from politics, industry, academics, media and civil society could build such a movement. Once awareness changes, so would the nature of the market demand.

New “Education Start-ups” that have the potential to disrupt the education space by leveraging technology on a mass scale, with a high level of sensitivity to multilingual needs of students, is an unexplored alternative.

- 3) **Leveraging Strategies in a Multilingual Classroom:** The following strategies could be gainfully adopted to leverage multilingualism in the classroom:
 - i) Build model schools and classrooms where multilingualism will hold a central place in all processes. Experiment and determine the practices, policies and ethos for running a school with multilingual language strategies. This could be done by borrowing from the successes and failures of other school systems globally, and testing them in Indian contexts. Analysis of student results in scholastic and non-scholastic areas could inform the formulation of policy decisions. The curricular objectives and overall methodology of such schools would be founded on well-proven principles of language acquisition, cognitive linguistics and child development theories grounded in solid research.

- ii) Popularise the value of multilingual practices in school, especially translanguaging, through strong empirical research that links it to scholastic achievement, beyond research journals and academic papers, to reach the common man.
- iii) Conduct metalinguistic awareness sessions with students and teachers about the nature of language and its structure, encoding processes of social exploitation and hegemony. Just as students today study about global warming and its dangers, they must also understand the role a language plays in their lives and what it means to be multilingual. Further, they must be able to analyse its socio-political economic aspects.

2.2.10. Adoption of Multilingual Approach by Early Childhood Education Curriculum

The objectives for multilingual education in early childhood years are:

- 1) To promote a warm and secure learning environment where every child takes pride in their cultural and linguistic identity,
- 2) To create awareness of and appreciation for the linguistic and cultural differences and similarities,
- 3) To foster pedagogy that allows many languages and cultures to come into the classroom and interweaving of languages to promote smoother transition from home to school language, and
- 4) To facilitate learning to read with meaning.

Based on review of literature on multilingual education and study of some best practices in ECE in India, some suggestions that help in promoting multilingual ECE classroom are provided in the following section:

- 1) **Oral Aural Skill Development:** We know that language development occurs in children when they get ample opportunity to listen to and use language in a warm and non-threatening environment. The curriculum and pedagogy must be planned such that aural-oral (listening and speaking) skills are promoted in children in the languages where childrens are required to learn. This applies to learning of English also in the so-called 'English Medium Schools' in most cases when the child's home language is not English. How can this be done?
- 2) **Stories/ Rhymes:** Teachers must tell stories and sing rhymes with children in mother tongue/home language but also in the regional language or language of textbooks and schools which will later be the medium of instruction.
- 3) **Extending Children's Thinking:** Teachers must encourage children to narrate stories, express their thoughts, opinions, and doubts after storytelling events in whichever language they choose to, home or school language. She/he can extend children's thoughts by asking 'how' and 'why' questions, not just 'what' questions. If encouraged to speak in their own home language, children will feel secure and confident to share and think and this would help develop their language skills better.
- 4) **Circle Time Conversation:** Circle time is when all children are gathered together as a group to talk and listen to others about anything new that they have learnt, heard, seen or experienced recently. Children should be allowed

to express themselves in an uninhibited manner, in whichever language they choose. A child's language should not be corrected as she/he learns to communicate because it is important for him/her to be secure and confident.

- 5) **Peer Interaction:** The day's routine must be designed in such a way that children get a chance to be in pairs and small groups. Alternating group compositions to allow children to mix children of similar and different language backgrounds will foster learning and sharing of language experience. It is especially important to enable children to dialogue in a language they are comfortable with, for extension of their imagination, development of thoughts and language.
- 6) **Free Play:** Doll's corner, Picture books' corner, and Blocks' corner helps in promoting language development in children, both through peer interaction but also with the teacher. Children find a lot to talk about because they get an opportunity to externalise their inner worlds by enacting different roles and acting upon objects. Again, encouraging home language use is important in these interactions and verbalisations.
- 7) **Planned Exposure to School Language:** To include all children in the classroom processes and feel welcome, the teacher can initiate activities such as asking children to share certain equivalent words/ phrases in their mother tongues or teach others their language. This may also help children to think that meaning of a word is in the mind and not in the word itself and can be expressed in multiple ways.
- 8) **Reading Readiness:** Children come to ECE centres and schools with proficiency in their mother tongue or home language. This skill and knowledge should become the base to foster reading and writing and number sense in children. Learning to read and write first in the mother tongue or home language enables children a smoother transition from home to the new environment of school and to the unfamiliar school language.
- 9) **Literacy in Mother Tongue:** Children learn to read better with meaning when it is done in mother tongue or home language. Therefore, introducing the script through home language or mother tongue, facilitates learning to read, if the script is same as that of the standard language.
- 10) **Print Rich Environment:** ECE classroom must be print rich. It implies that there should be labels, charts, storybooks and children's work within their reach, in the languages existing in the classroom. The print in and around the classroom must be relevant and meaningful. Labels can be put up by teachers before children come into the classroom or can be done as part of an activity where each child is asked to place the appropriate label where it belongs. Labels such as 'window', 'dustbin', 'door' "doll's corner" in both home and school language can be put on respective items in the classroom. Some instructions can also be labelled such as 'keep the mat here' or 'shut the door softly'. Teacher can help children 'read' the day's routine, calendar during circle time from the charts put up on soft boards or walls which are within their reach.

- 11) **Sight Word Reading:** Children can be encouraged to 'read' by sight word reading and this will make children 'print aware'. Helping a child recognise his/her name can be an activity that fosters sight reading. The teacher prepares name tags of all children beforehand. She calls out one child at a time to her. The child picks up his/her name tag from a box of name tags despite not knowing or recognising all the letters.
- 12) **Interaction between Teacher and Child:** Teacher's must talk to each child after s/he has scribbled or drawn on paper. S/he must ask her the story behind her work and write down what the child narrates. The child's work and the story penned down by teacher on a different sheet of paper must be put up on the board. Later in the week, the teacher can read out from the page to the whole class after describing the activity. The child will not only feel a sense of pride and belonging, but also encouraged to create more.
- 13) **Storybooks:** A variety and ample number of storybooks must be available for children to read. It would be preferable to have storybooks in more than one language – in the mother tongue and regional language. Storybooks in English can also be made available.
- 14) **Shared Book Reading:** Shared book reading helps children learn 'print concept' which is critical for learning to read. In this activity the teacher introduces the book to children by showing and telling them about the front cover, back cover, spine, author and title of the book. S/he reads out the book by putting her finger under each word from left to right. Children learn that unlike pictures, print conveys the whole story. The teacher may continue the discussion after reading out the story to expand children's thoughts and imagination by asking 'what if' or 'what do you think happened with...' or 'what would you have done if you were in that position' and so on.
- 15) **Phonemic Awareness:** Phonemic awareness is an important predictor of successful reading. To foster this skill, teacher must play different games or do activities with children around sounds using both the home and school languages. Games such as asking children to find an item from a basket which begins with a specific phoneme ('ha' or 'ma' or 'ka') , rhyming games; what is different?; identifying beginning sounds, end sounds and making more words with them, etc.
- 16) **Use of Local Artefacts and Resources:** Teaching-learning material, especially in tribal communities, must use local artefacts and cultural resources and contexts of the tribal children. The materials prepared may include subject textbooks in tribal language, big and small books based on certain themes, alphabet and number charts, story books, glossaries, tribal language phrase books, teacher handbooks and picture dictionaries.
- 17) **Resources:** Ample and variety of pencils, pens, crayons, sketch pens, paper, clay, dough, blocks, etc., should be available in the classroom. It is important for children's uninhibited expression and learning.
- 18) **Use of more than one Language:** It is beneficial to use more than one language while interacting as well as in written form. Teacher can display poems and some vocabulary (e.g., body parts, relationships, animals) in two

or three languages (mother tongue, regional language, Hindi and English). The teacher needs to read them out with children everyday; she/he must also tell which language the poem is in and read and recite together.

19) Bringing in Parents and Community: Parents and other members from the community can be brought into the classroom to talk about food, festivals, rituals, religion and so on. Children learn languages over a period of time. They gradually learn to appreciate the similarities and differences in the cultures and languages.

2.2.11. Recommendations for Multilingual Education

To enable teachers and other professionals, who are closely working with children, to practise multilingual approach in different classrooms, some recommendations are discussed below:

- 1) Pre-service and in-service programmes for teachers must sensitise them to the nature, structure, and functions of language, process of language acquisition in children, language change, emergent and early literacy, and equip them with strategies that can help build on the resources of a multilingual classroom.
- 2) Research in the areas of language learning and language-teaching methods must be supported and promoted by higher learning institutions in the country.
- 3) For languages which are oral in nature, they must be written down in a script form so that the children of those communities have access to their culture and learn in their own language till they become proficient in state/regional language.
- 4) Fellowships must be encouraged to document oral cultures and to explore possibilities to invent or use the available script to document history, culture and folklore.
- 5) Publishers must be encouraged and supported to publish print material in lesser known/ minority/ regional/ tribal languages.

2.3. MULTICULTURAL AWARENESS AND LANGUAGE DIVERSITY

2.3.1. Multicultural Awareness

Cultural awareness is the foundation of communication and it involves the ability of standing back from ourselves and becoming aware of our cultural values, beliefs and perceptions. Why do we do things in that way? How do we see the world? Why do we react in that particular way?

Cultural awareness becomes central when we have to interact with people from other cultures. People see, interpret and evaluate things in a different ways. What is considered an appropriate behaviour in one culture is frequently inappropriate in another one. Misunderstandings arise when I use my meanings to make sense of your reality.

Multicultural awareness is a key component of most definitions of multicultural competence. It is defined as a general understanding of another group what it is like and how it functions without forming a stereotype.

Becoming self-aware of one's own culture through attitudes, beliefs, and values is equally important, as it impacts perceptions and interactions with those who are culturally different. "If the awareness stage is overlooked in multicultural leadership training, then the knowledge and skills – however accurate and effective; may be based on false assumptions". When this awareness is absent, assumptions of homogeneity are made that can lead to a breakdown of trust and respect and thus negate any positivity that could have arisen from the relationship.

Multicultural awareness is an essential helping skill; "as humans, cultural identity is central to what we see, how we make sense of what we see, and how we express ourselves."

Multicultural Awareness involves a greater understanding, sensitivity, and appreciation of the history, values, experiences, and lifestyles of groups that include, but, are not limited to:

- 1) Race,
- 2) Ethnicity,
- 3) Gender,
- 4) Sexual Orientation,
- 5) Religious Affiliation,
- 6) Socio-Economic Status, and
- 7) Mental or Physical Abilities.

2.3.1.1. Benefits of Multicultural Awareness

The benefits of Multicultural awareness are as follows:

- 1) Gain greater self-awareness,
- 2) Gain greater awareness of others,
- 3) Develop new friendships,
- 4) Develop better interpersonal skills,
- 5) Become better able to challenge stereotypes and prejudices,
- 6) Promote healing and harmony between groups, and
- 7) Become better equipped to live in a multicultural world.

2.3.2. Language Diversity

The high degree of large diversity found in India is due to the existence of diverse population groups. The greatest variety in languages can be found in the one of the biggest democracies in the world. Most of these languages are distinct and have their own distinct form of writing and speech. Languages are defined as a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for human communication. The census of 1961 listed as many as 1,652 languages and dialects. Since most of these

78 (Unit I)

languages are spoken by very few people, the subsequent census regarded them as spurious but the 8th Schedule of the Constitution of India recognises 22 languages. These are:

| | | | |
|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| 1) Assamese | 2) Bengali | 3) Gujarati | 4) Hindi |
| 5) Kannada | 6) Kashmiri | 7) Konkani | 8) Malayalam |
| 9) Manipuri | 10) Marathi | 11) Nepali | 12) Oriya |
| 13) Punjabi | 14) Sanskrit | 15) Tamil | 16) Telugu |
| 17) Urdu | 18) Sindhi | 19) Santhali | 20) Boro |
| 21) Maithili | 22) Dogri | | |

But four of these languages namely Sanskrit, Kashmiri, Nepali and Sindhi are not official languages in any State of the Indian Union. But all these languages are rich in literature. Hindi in Devanagiri script is recognised as the official language of the Indian Union by the Constitution.

The second largest language, Telugu, is spoken by about 60 million people, mostly in Andhra Pradesh. Most of the languages spoken in North India belong to the Indo-Aryan family, while the languages of the South namely Telugu, Tamil, Malayalam and Kannada belongs to the Dravidian family.

This linguistic diversity notwithstanding, there was always a sort of link languages, though it has varied from age to age. In ancient times, it was Sanskrit, in medieval age it was Arabic or Persian and in modern times there are Hindi and English as official languages.

2.3.2.1. Unity of Language

India enjoyed unity of language. Before the Christian era Prakrit was a common language of the people. The message of the missionaries of Asoka was successfully carried-out in this language to the doors of his subjects. Subsequently Pali and Sanskrit replaced Prakrit language. Sanskrit has been acknowledged as one sacred language by all sections of the people irrespective of their race, rank and creed. Different sects and creeds have adopted Sanskrit as the sacred language of their scripture. Sanskrit has become the original source of different languages of the country like Hindi, Marathi, Gujarati, Oriya and Bengali, etc.

Sanskrit has always been the medium of philosophy, theology and mythology. During the time of the British rule English language achieved success in uniting the people of India when it was declared as the medium of instruction in all educational institutions and used as the official language. At present Hindi has been doing the same work.

At different periods the Aravans, the Sakas, Scythians, Parthians and the Hunas have come in India. In course of time they had lost their separate individuality and were completely absorbed in the Hindu fold. Even large number of Muslims and Christians who have been living in India are the descendants of the Hindus who were converted to Islam and Christianity. All the races and tribes living in India have acquired the physical uniformity.

Indian culture is an organic and harmonious synthesis of a large number of human cultural trends. Sir Jadunath Sirkar points out that "there has been achieved some approximation also in physical type and mode of life among the various foreign races that have lived long enough in India, fed on the same crops, drunk on the same streams, barked under the same sun and submitted to the same rules in their daily lives."

Thus inspite of the appalling diversity, India is itself the great example of the doctrine of one in many. There is unity in diversity — a unity for more profound than that produced either by geographical isolation or by political suzerainty. In India there is unity that transcends the innumerable diversities of blood, colour, language, dress, manners and sects. The unique feature of Indian culture, civilisation and its history lies in the continuity of religious practices and the spirit of tolerance by its people in all ages.

2.3.3. Three Language Formula

India is a country of many languages. Therefore, one needs to know more than one language if he/she wants to interact with people from different parts of the country. If one knows only his/her mother tongue, he/she will only be able to communicate with people within one's own state. This means that one is completely isolating oneself from other regions and other languages. A student who has learnt only his/her mother tongue cannot acquire knowledge regarding other regions and languages unless it is translated into his/her own language. His/her education thus becomes very-limited.

The three language formula, which emerged as a political consensus on languages in school education was a strategy (not a policy) to accommodate at least three languages within the ten years of schooling. The All India Council for Education recommended the adoption of the Three Language Formula in September, 1956. According to this formula, every child has to learn the following:

- 1) The mother tongue or the regional language,
- 2) The official language of the union or the associate official language of the Union so long as it exists (official language of the union is Hindi and its associate official language is English), and
- 3) Modern Indian language or a foreign language not covered under, 1 & 2 above and other than that used as the medium of instruction.

Three Language Formula Includes:

Mother tongue

- 1) **First Language (L1) Formula:** The language that we learn from our childhood is usually spoken by our parents, family members and the other people around us. This is known as our first language or L1. Since this is the language we know best and use commonly, the government decided that the medium of instruction at primary stage should be one's own regional language. Being a teacher you might have experienced that at the primary stage most of the instruction takes place only through the regional language or through the children's mother tongue. First language is acquired naturally,

through interacting with family members and friends without much formal instruction. But even though, one may communicate effectively in our first language, many of us do not have a complete knowledge of all the sounds and letters of the language or its grammar. This is because we acquire it informally. Therefore, formal instruction in the first languages is provided in the School.

2) **Second Language (L2) Formula:** One of the aims of education is to expose the learner to various situations and develop such ability which enables him/her to gain knowledge from every possible source and share the same with others. Therefore, the learner needs to learn the second language (L2) which in our country usually is either Hindi or English.

1. The second language is learned consciously and deliberately for a specific purpose, i.e., to gather information and acquire knowledge. The sounds, letters and grammar of the second language can be learned properly only when they are deliberately taught by the teachers and consciously learned by the students. Under the three language formula, second language (L2) is taught at a later stage in the primary school curriculum, after the child has already learned one language well, i.e., his/her (L1). Individual use first language to communicate and to express our feelings and thoughts in our day-to-day life situations. On the other hand, second language is used in situations other than personal.

3) **Third Language (L3) Formula:** One might have doubt what happens in a case where the learner's first language is Hindi and second language is English and neither of this can help him/her in certain situations.

For example, child's mother tongue is Khasi and he/she learns English as his/her second language. When he/she goes to a village in Bihar he/she may not be in a position to speak to people either in his/her first language (Khasi) or second language (English). Because people of that village in Bihar may not be known either Khasi or English. In such cases, communications or interaction with other people becomes difficult, and may even be impossible at times. This is where third language (L3) has a significant role to play.

The spirit of the three-language formula thus provides Hindi, English, and Indian languages, preferably a south Indian language for the Hindi speaking States, and a regional language, Hindi, and English for the non-Hindi speaking States. The merit of this formula in the promotion of multilingualism is hardly questionable and best represents the multilingual character of the nation. But this formula has been observed more in the breach than in the observance.

The Hindi speaking States operate largely with Hindi, English, and Sanskrit, whereas the non-Hindi speaking States, particularly Tamil Nadu, operate through a two language formula, i.e., Tamil and English. Still, many States such as Odisha, West Bengal, and Maharashtra among others implemented the formula.

In 1965, the Central Advisory Board of Education devised a three language formula. The following two formulae were prepared which are as given below:

Formula 1

| First Language | Second Language | Third Language |
|--|------------------------|--|
| Mother tongue Or Regional language Or Composite course of mother tongue and regional language Or Composite course of mother tongue and classical language Or Composite course of regional and classical language | Hindi Or English | A modern Indian Language Or A modern European language provided is not offered as a second language. |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |

Formula 2

| First Language | Second Language | Third Language |
|--|---|---|
| Mother tongue Or Regional language Or Composite course of mother tongue and regional language Or Composite course of mother tongue and classical language Or Composite course of regional and classical language | English Or Modern European Language | Hindi for non-Hindi regions Or Another modern Indian language for Hindi regions |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |

2.3.3.1. Impact of Three-language Formula

By adopting the three-language formula as a strategy, space was created for the study of proximate languages, classical languages, and foreign languages. Space was also made for the study of the mother tongue. The States were free to adopt languages in education outside the three-language formula. Sanskrit could be introduced as a classical language.

It could also be adopted as a Modern Indian language (MIL) without violating the spirit of the three-language formula. Since 1953, with the declaration of UNESCO that the mother tongue is the best medium for a child's education, pressure groups worked for the recognition of their languages and their incorporation in the 8th Schedule of the Constitution. As long as the basic spirit of the three-language formula is maintained, there is no restriction on studying new languages.

Primary education should be bilingual. Successive stages of bilingualism are expected to build-up to an integrated multilingualism. The first task of the school is to relate the home language to the school language. Thereafter, one or more languages are to be integrated, so that one can move into other languages without losing the first one. This would result in the maintenance of all languages, each complementing the other.

In Appendix III, one will see five 'ideal charts' formulated by participants from different States and one chart proposed by our group. Indeed, in many ways the National Focus Group Chart reflects the consensus at which we arrived. The six charts show significant similarities:

- 1) The mother tongue must be the medium of instruction at the primary level,
- 2) English must be taught as a compulsory subject; Hindi must be taught as a compulsory or elective subject, and
- 3) Classical and foreign languages must find a place in the school curriculum.

The proposed National Focus Group Chart in Appendix III has been developed in the context of societal and individual multilingualism obtaining in our country. In this context, Commission defines mother tongue as the languages of the home, street, neighbourhood, peer group, and kinship networks; regional language as the language widely spoken in the State, or in the case of minorities outside the State; and state language as language officially recognised by each State. The backdrop of Hindi is being our official and link language, and English being our associate official and international link language. It is in this context that they suggest that:

- 1) Mother-tongue should be the medium of instruction through the school, but certainly in the primary school. The working group on the Study of Languages constituted by NCERT in 1986 recommends in its report that 'the medium of early education' should be the mother tongue of the learners. In the Indian context, it is all the more necessary because:
 - i) It enables people to participate in national reconstruction,
 - ii) It frees knowledge from the pressures of limited elites,
 - iii) It builds interactive and interdependent societies,
 - iv) It provides greater opportunity for the advice and consent of a greater number of groups and thus is a better defence of democracy, and
 - v) It leads to the decentralisation of information and ensures free as opposed to controlled media; and it gives greater access to education and personal development to a greater number of people.

The National Curriculum Frameworks of 1988 and 2000 advocate the mother tongue or the regional language as the medium of instruction 'at all levels of schooling or at least up to the end of the elementary stage' (NCF 2000). However, it does not show sensitivity towards the difference between the mother tongue and the regional language. This framework suggests that if the regional language is not a learner's mother tongue, then her first two years of education may happen through the mother tongue.

- 2) In the middle or higher stages of school education, the medium of instruction may be gradually changed to the regional or State language, or to Hindi or English.
- 3) It is believed that primary education is to a great extent language education, mother tongue or regional language should also be taught as compulsory subjects.
- 4) Human beings have enormous capacities to learn languages, particularly when they are young. English at the conversational level may be introduced at the primary school level if adequate facilities are available. Merely adding

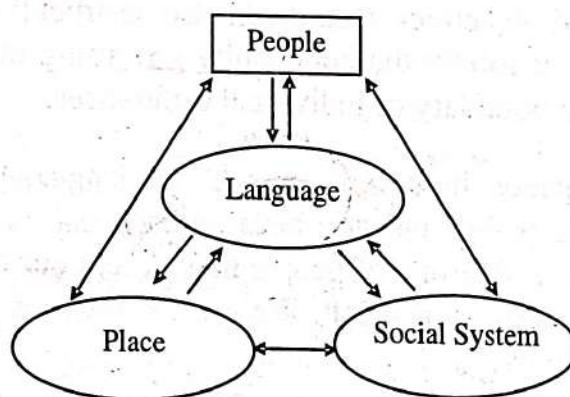
a few more years to the teaching of English is not likely to produce any results. Group strongly recommend that the teaching of English be woven into the texture of developing strategies of teaching in a multilingual classroom. Contrary to common belief, languages flourish in each other's company.

- 5) It should be obvious that three languages are the minimum and not the upper limit of the three-language formula. Sanskrit should be studied as a Modern Indian Language (MIL) (in which case, its nature should be very different from classical Sanskrit), but nobody should use it as a shield to get around the spirit of the three-language formula.
- 6) Classical and foreign languages need to be studied in their own right. They open up new horizons of grammatical complexity; they also provide access to traditions, cultures, and people that may otherwise be inaccessible.

2.4. LANGUAGE AND SOCIETY

Language is both a system of communication between individuals and a social phenomenon. The area of language and society, sociolinguistics, is intended to show how our use of language is governed by such factors as class, gender, race, etc. A sub-section of this area is anthropological linguistics which is concerned with form and use of language in different cultures and to what extent the development of language has been influenced by cultural environment.

Language is a constituent element of civilisation. It raised man from a savage state to the plane which he was capable of reaching. Man could not be civilised being except by language. An essential point in which man differs from animals is that man alone is the sole possessor of language. Culture is a product of the human mind and it is defined, propagated and sustained through language. The relationship between language and culture is deeply rooted. Language is used to maintain and convey culture and cultural ties.



Figure



2.4.1. Sociology of Language

Sociology of language is the study of the relations between language and society. It is closely related to the field of sociolinguistics, which focuses on the effect of society on language. One of its longest and most prolific proponents was Joshua Fishman, who among other major contributions was founding editor of the International Journal of the Sociology of Language. Sociology of language studies society in relation to language whereas Sociolinguistics studies language

in relation to society. For the former, society is the object of study, whereas, for the latter, language is the object of study. The basic idea is that language reflects among several other things, attitudes that speakers want to exchange or that just get reflected through language use. These attitudes of the speakers are the sociologist's information.

A sociology of language would seek to understand the way that social dynamics are affected by individual and group language use. According to Su-Chiao Chen, language is considered to be a social value within this field, which researches social groups for phenomenon like multilingualism and Lingual conflict. It would have to do with who is 'authorised' to use what language, with whom and under what conditions. It would have to do with how an individual or group identity is established by the language that they have available for them to use. It would seek to understand individual expression, one's (libidinal) investment in the linguistic tools that one has access to in order to bring oneself to other people.

2.4.2. Relationship between Language and Society

The connection between language and society is tightly anchored. The relationship of the two is deeply rooted. Language performs various functions in the society and the society does the same way. If one will not exist, the other one will be affected.

Language is the primary tool for communication purposes, for establishing peace and order in our society, for showing authority and power, and for attaining goals and objectives. But, it can also destruct the society if it will use inappropriately. It must follow the conformity governing the society to avoid conflict and to meet the boundary of individual differences.

Society, however, controls our language by giving us preferences as what are acceptable and not, because each one of us has our own perception or point of view. A group of people may accept our language, but for others, it could be kind of offence or insult. We must know how, when and where to say it and for what purpose.

Social changes produce changes in language. This affects values in ways that have not been accurately understood. Language incorporates social values. However, social values are only the same as linguistic values when the society is a stable and unchanging one. Once society starts changing, then language change produces special effects.

The relationship between language and society may be as follows:

- 1) **Society and Language Influence Each Other:** Speech and social behaviour are constantly interacting. All the time language is changing because of social contexts and social contexts cause the language to be changed. However, this does not mean that we should not explore the two other possibilities in some depth, because they can enlighten us about the relationship of language and society.

2) **Language Influences People:** There are two views about this. One is more extreme than the other. The first idea is that language is so powerful that it actually affects how you see the world; the second is that it influences the way we think and behave. A linguist called Whorf claimed language actually affects the way you see the world (so language is like a pair of glasses through which we see everything). This led to the Sapir-Whorf theory, also called the "Whorfian hypothesis". It was based originally on studies of the Hopi Indians.

3) **People Influence Language and Language Use:** We can see this if we look at the way people in different social groups to use language differently. Younger people sign differently from older people; people from different regions might use different types of language. The number of deaf people in a society affects the language.

Much has been said about the relationship between language and society. In the history of linguistics, it is rare to find investigations of any language which are entirely cut-off from concurrent investigations of the history of that language, or of its regional and social distributions, or of its relationship to objects, ideas, events, and actual speakers and listeners in the real world. It is believed that 'Man's relation with the society is so intimate and close that it is very difficult to isolate him from the social environment in which he is born, nurtured and grown to be a man.'

Following points also clearly describe the relationship between language and society:

- 1) Language is central to social interaction in every society, regardless of location and time period. Language and social interaction have a reciprocal relationship, i.e., language shapes social interactions and social interactions shape language.
- 2) Language is a tool for interaction with other human. So language cannot separate with human. Through language we can relate and interact with other human and create communication in the community.
- 3) Sociolinguistics is the study of the connection between language and society and the way people use language in different social situations. It asks the questions, "How does language affect the social nature of human beings, and how does social interaction shape language?" It ranges greatly in depth and detail, from the study of dialects-across a given region to the analysis of the way men and women speak to each other in certain situations.
- 4) The basic premise of sociolinguistics is that language is variable and ever-changing. As a result, language is not uniform or constant. Rather, it is varied and inconsistent for both the individual user and within and among groups of speakers who use the same language.
- 5) People adjust the way they talk to their social situation. An individual, e.g., will speak differently to a child than he or she will to their college professor. This socio-situational variation is sometimes called register and depends not only on the occasion and relationship between the participants, but also on the participants' region, ethnicity, socio-economic status, age, and gender.

6) One way that sociolinguists study language is through dated written records. They examine both hand written and printed documents to identify how language and society have interacted in the past. This is often referred to as historical sociolinguistics, i.e., the study of the relationship between changes in society and changes in language over time. For example, historical sociolinguists have studied the use and frequency of the pronoun *you* in dated documents and found that its replacement with the word *you* is correlated with changes in class structure in 16th and 17th century England.

7) Sociolinguists also commonly study dialect, which is the regional, social, or ethnic variation of a language. For example, the primary language in the United States is English. People who live in the South, however, often vary in the way they speak and the words they use compared to people who live in the Northwest, even though it is all the same language. There are different dialects of English, depending on what region of the country you are in.

2.4.3. Factors Affecting Society and Language

Following are the factors which affect the relation of society and language:

- 1) **Social Factors:** The social factors are including the users, participants, social settings and functions. The users divide "who is talking to whom, e.g., wife-husband, and teacher-student. The setting and social context are also relevant such as, at home, hospital and class. The function describes "why are they speaking; and another factor is topic which describes "what are they talking about".
- 2) **Social Dimensions:** The relationship between the participants is one of the factors of the social dimension. The factors like the social distance (intimate-high solidarity), status scale (high-low status), the status, formality (formal-informal) and functional scale (topic of interaction) is really influenced the sociolinguistics.
- 3) **Explanation Factors:** This factor is to identify clearly the linguistic variation such as – vocabulary, sounds, grammatical construction, dialects, languages and the different social factors which lead the speakers to use one form rather than another such as – setting or function of the interaction.
- 4) **Dialect:** All speakers can talk to each other and much understands each other. Between one and another do not speak alike. It can be influenced by age, sex, social situation and where and when the language was learned. The language of an individual speaker with its unique characteristics is referred to as the speakers' idiolect. When there are systematic differences in the way groups speak a language, it says that each group speaks a dialect of that language. Chambers (1980), noticed that dialect on the other hand, refers to varieties which are grammatically (and perhaps lexically) as well as phonologically different from other varieties. For example, when the two speakers are saying done it last night, and did it last night, they are saying different dialects.
- 5) **Language in Contact:** Sometime the user of language finds the speaker of language that speaks different language. It can be seen clearly in some part of the world that the speaker of bilingual communities, you may not have to

travel very far at all to find the language disconnect. To make the user understand about this situation, they need a language that can communicate each other. In this part, lingua franca, bilingualism, pidgin and creole, are the kinds of language in contact. The details are explained below:

i) **Lingua Franca:** It is the language that is used by common agreement of the people who speak diverse language. English has been called lingua franca of the whole world.

ii) **Bilingualism:** It is the ability to speak two or more languages, either by an individual speakers, individual bilingualism, or within a society, societal bilingualism. The kind of bilingualism is code-switching, which is described as the speech style unique to bilingual, in which fluent speakers switch languages between or within sentences or in whole code.

6) **Language and Education:** Second language Teaching Method has two approaches – synthetic approach (teaching grammatical, lexical, phonological, and the functional units of language step by step) and analytic approach (topics, texts or tasks) which has concern in content-based instruction.

7) **Language in Use:** The language in use can be described in style and jargon. Style is the various languages that are used by the speaker in the situation dialects. Everybody has at least formal and informal style. In an informal style, the rule of constructing are used most often, the syntactic rules of negation and agreement may be altered, and many words are used that do not occur in the formal style. Jargon is the language that is used by the conceivable science, profession, trade, and occupation uses specific slang terms. The examples of linguistic jargon for introduction to linguistics are phoneme, morpheme, lexicon, phrase structure rules and so on.

2.4.4. Importance of Language in Society

Language is the key to human lives. They can eliminate misunderstanding by using it as an instrument to transfer communication among people. Malinowski suggests language is the necessary means of communion; it is the one indispensable instrument for creating the ties of the moment without which unified social action is impossible.

1) **The Core of Humanity:** Language is an extraordinary gift of God. It is part of what makes man fully human. In fact, Aristotle says man is a rational animal and that what sets him apart, what raises him above the animals, is that he has the ability to reason, and it is very clear that he cannot reason without language. "Aristotle was convinced, however, that meaning was no less an integral part of language than the sounds which bear the meaning and that language depends no less on the rational powers of man by which meanings are constructed than on the physiological organs by which sounds are formed."

2) **Language is Necessary for Man to be a Rational Creature:** In other words language is what made the growth of civilisations possible. The only means of understanding the great minds of the past is by studying the contemporary

written documents of the time. Language is a means of forming and storing ideas as reflections of reality and exchanging them in the process of human intercourse. Language is social by nature and thus inseparably connected with people who are its creators and users; it grows and develops together with the development of society. Stalin observes about language, "It arises and develops with the rise and development of a society. It dies when the society dies. Apart from society there is no language."

3) **Means of Conveying Ideas to Others:** This can also to a certain extent be done by the use of gestures and signs. For example, nodding of the head as a substitute for the word 'Yes' or shaking the head from side to side instead of saying 'No'. Language is different from signs and gestures because it employs sounds which have meaning for the users as well as the hearers. The sounds of speech are deliberately and intentionally uttered and are therefore to be distinguished from the emotional cries which are mechanically and intentionally uttered under the influence of joy, fear, anger or surprise. There are two aspects of language namely the inner one relating to the meaning one wishes to express, and the outer one relating to the expression of that meaning through the medium of speech. When speaking a language, words are used which serve as outer symbols of the ideas in the minds.

4) **It is Evolutionary and Never Static:** Change is the golden rule in pronunciation, grammar, and usage of words, in any language. Persons, who live to a ripe old age on looking back at the kind of language he had learnt in school and comparing it with the language of the new and upcoming generation, can easily understand how the language has evolved over the years. Language is thus in a constant state of change. It ceases to change only when it has ceased to be spoken or has become a dead language.

2.4.5. Language and Identity

Identity is defined as "how a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is structured across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future."

According to Joanna Thornborrow "Identity, whether on an individual, social or interactional level is something that we are constantly building and negotiating throughout our lives and through our interaction with each other."

Recognising language as a social practice, identify highlights how language constructs and is constructed by a variety of relationships. Because of the diverse positions from which language learners can participate in social life, identity is theorised as multiple, subject to change, and a site of struggle.

The diverse conditions under which language learners speak, read, or write the second language are influenced by relations of power in different sites; learners who may be marginalised in one site may be highly valued in another. For this reason, every time language learners interact in the second language, whether in the oral or written mode, they are engaged in identity construction and

negotiation. However, structural conditions and social contexts are not entirely determined. Through human agency, language learners who struggle to speak from one identity position may be able to reframe their relationship with their interlocutors and claim alternative, more powerful identities from which to speak, thereby enabling learning to take place.

Identity has become an important phenomenon in the modern politics. The identification of members of the group on the basis of sharing common attributes on the basis of all or some of the attributes, language, gender, language, religion, culture, ethnicity, etc., indicates the existence or formation of identity

This social significance of language indicates that the language a person speaks reflects his or her personal identity. Some have argued that the particular language one speaks is a great influence on one's personality and how he or she views the world.

Linguistic identities, in particular, are part of the broader 'social identity' and refer to a sense of belonging to a community or group mediated through the resource of language. The far reaching effects of globalisation touch on all spheres of life and their implications for linguistic identities in the present day have been the subject of rigorous academic study for quite some time.

2.4.5.1. Kinds of Identity

There are four kinds of identity which are as follows;

- 1) **Master Identity:** Master identity is relatively stable and unchanging such as – gender, ethnicity, age, national and regional origins. The meanings of master identity changes across time and space.
- 2) **Interactional Identity:** Interactional identity refers to roles that people take on in a communicative context with specific other people.
- 3) **Personal Identity:** Personal identity is the rational way in which people talk and behave with each other.
- 4) **Relational Identity:** Rational identity refers to the kind of relationship that a person enacts. It may be with a particular conversational partner or in a specific situation; it negotiates from moment to moment and is highly variable.

2.4.5.2. Development of Language Identity

The development of language identity are:

- 1) **In the Early Periods:** The relationship between identity and language learning is of interest to scholars in the fields of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), language education, sociolinguistics, and applied linguistics. It is best understood in the context of a shift in the field from a predominantly psycholinguistic approach to SLA to include a greater focus on sociological and cultural dimensions of language learning, or what has been called the "social turn" in SLA. Thus while much research on language learning in the 1970s and 1980s was directed toward investigating the personalities, learning styles, and motivations of individual learners, contemporary researchers of identity are centrally concerned with the diverse

social, historical, and cultural contexts in which language learning takes place, and how learners negotiate and sometimes resist the diverse positions those contexts offer them. Further, identity theorists question the view that learners can be defined in binary terms as motivated or unmotivated, introverted or extroverted, without considering that such affective factors are frequently socially constructed in inequitable relations of power, changing across time and space, and possibly coexisting in contradictory ways within a single individual.

- 2) **Contemporary Ideas:** Since Norton's conception of identity is in the 1990s, it has become a central construct in language learning. A number of researchers have explored how Identity categories of race, gender, class and sexual orientation may impact the language learning process. Identity now features in most encyclopaedias and handbooks of language learning and teaching, and work has extended to the broader field of applied linguistics to include identity and pragmatics, sociolinguistics, and discourse. In 2015, the theme of the American Association of Applied Linguistics (AAAL) conference held in Toronto was identity, and the journal annual review of applied linguistics in the same year focused on issues of identity, with prominent scholars discussing the construct in relation to a number of topics. These included translanguaging, transnationalism and multilingualism, technology and migration. Responding to conditions of mobility and fluidity that characterise the 21st century, the model highlights how learners are able to move across online and offline spaces, performing multiple identities while negotiating different forms of capital.
- 3) **Towards the Future:** There is now a wealth of research that explores the relationship between identity, language learning, and language teaching. Themes on identity include race, gender, class, sexual orientation, and disability. Further, the award winning Journal of Language, identity, and education, launched in 2002, ensures that issues of identity and language learning will remain at the forefront of research on language education, applied linguistics, and SLA in the future. Issues of identity are seen to be relevant not only to language learners, but to language teachers, teacher educators, and researchers. There is an increasing interest in the ways in which advances in technology have impacted both language learner and teacher identity, and the ways in which the forces of globalisation are implicated in identity construction.

2.4.5.3. Language and National Identity

National language represents the national identity of a nation, e.g., English language in America and Britain. There is often a particularly strong link between language and a sense of belonging to a national group, a sense of national identity. In 'simple' cases, there is one 'national language' which is spoken by everyone with the same national identity. Most cases are however complex, and involve more than one language (e.g. Switzerland), and some languages are linked to more than one national identity (e.g. German). 'National' language(s) are taught in schools as subjects and are also used in schools to teach other subjects.

2.4.5.4. Language and Cultural Identity

Cultural identity is the identity or feeling of belonging to a particular religion, social class, locality or any kind of social group that has its own culture. Culture includes – language, dress, laws, customs, rituals, norms and rules and regulations. “Cultural shock is a personal disorientation, a person may feel when experiences an unfamiliar way of life due to migration or visit to a new country”, there are four phase in adjusting a new country; Honeymoon phase (newly married couples go to new place), Negotiation phase (people experience homesickness or frustration in new country), and Adjustment phase (often 6-12 months are required to adjust in new country) Reverse culture shock (after returning to homeland, it takes time to re-adjust).

The relationship between language and identity always involve a complex mix of individual, social and political factors which work to construct people as belonging to a social group, or to exclude them from it.

2.4.5.5. Language as Identity

Language is an important element to identity. Language choice, and language itself, are part of identity construction (both individual and collective), as has been extensively documented in sociolinguistic research from the 1970s onwards. Depending on the context, we almost unthinkingly speak and act in ways appropriate to the situation, because we have learnt how to do this from a young age, in the family, in kindergarten and in our formal education.

All human identities are social in nature because identity is about meaning, and meaning is not an essential property of words and things, i.e., meaning develops in context-dependent use. Meanings are always the ‘outcome of agreement or disagreement, always a matter of contention, to some extent shared and always negotiable’.

Language and identity thus have a dialectic relationship. Languages and using language manifest ‘who we are’, and we define reality partly through our language and linguistic behaviour. The following assumptions are the basis of language as identity:

- 1) Identities are always recreated in specific contexts. They are ‘co-constructed’ in interactive relationships. They are usually fragmented, dynamic and changeable, everyone has multiple identities.
- 2) Identity construction always implies inclusionary and exclusionary processes, i.e., the definition of oneself and others.
- 3) Identities that are individual and collective, national and transnational are also reproduced and manifested symbolically.

Identity claims based on the perception of a collectivity bound together by language may be said to have its origin in the pre-independence politics of the Congress that had promised reorganisation of states in the post-independent period on linguistic basis.

2.4.6. Language and Power

Language Power (LP) is a measure of one's ability to communicate effectively in a given language, specifically one that is not native to the speaker. Current instructional programs throughout the world continue to attempt to teach enrollees how to communicate in a second language – yet they struggle. They struggle because existing methodologies do not typically result in the learner being able to communicate effectively in the new language.

The root cause of this global problem is that learners do not reach a sufficient level of “native-ness” in their speech which hurts the learner’s career achievements - despite numerous attempts at language instruction policy and practice reform.

Language Power consists of two key components:

- 1) An ability to speak and be understood, and
- 2) An ability to listen and understand.

Individuals with strong language power possess the ability to communicate effectively in a social environment. When non-native speakers engage in oral communication, native speakers of that language recognise sufficiently well-formed speech, in that it is satisfactorily ‘native’ or sufficiently close to what they know as ‘their language’ in order to be completely understood. When non-native speakers listen to a secondary language, they need to be capable of interpreting and processing words that are spoken at real world rates of speech in the manner spoken by native speakers of that language.

2.4.6.1. Power and Politics

Power is “the capability to influence others to continue a course of action, change what is being done, or refrain from acting.”

It has three types:

- 1) Political power,
- 2) Economic power, and
- 3) Military power.

“Politics is the exercise of power and resolution of conflicts”. Power is a notoriously difficult concept to use. It is generally used without an explanation by linguistic.

For example, “David crystal” tells us that a “language become an international language for one chief reason: the political power of its people especially their military power; later he tells us that while a military powerful nation establishes a language worldwide it takes an economically powerful one to maintain and expand it (crystal).

In short, power is something which includes both the means for giving pain, and the means for buying things, the means giving pleasure.

The language of power is not the spoken language of everyday life and therefore, has to be learned. This language has certain characteristics;

- 1) It is a standardised variety of a language,
- 2) It is a print language,
- 3) It is highly valued,
- 4) It is not spoken by common people, and
- 5) It is an elitist possession. Not only is it a standard language in the sense of possessing fixed spellings, written grammar, dictionaries, but it is also used by the ruling elite in the domains of power.

The use of language in such domains by the modern state is a matter for the ruling elite to decide; in the case of English, for instance, it was standardised not because it was structurally any better than the non-standardised varieties of language. It was standardised by complex processes in which powerful elites, clerks of the chancellery, and the clergy had a hand as John Homey. Then the educated classes, state bureaucracies, clergymen, publishers and writers spent money on teaching it, printing books and dictionaries and using it in the domains of power.

The non-standard varieties of language or languages are generally given less prestige than standardised ones even by their speakers. This is not because of the nature of language but because of its use in the domains of power. The crucial factor is power politics not language.

2.4.6.2. The Language of Politics

The languages of politicians are mainly based upon:

- 1) **Presupposition:** The meaning of the word 'presuppose' is to assume beforehand; imply represent some of the most powerful language patterns. Presupposition may be 'fair and uncontroversial' based upon knowledge which is common to all parties privy to a communication, or 'unfair and controversial'-made upon the basis of covert knowledge by a communicator with a hidden agenda.
- 2) **Implicative:** It is a technical term in the pragmatic subfield of linguistics, coined by H.P. Grice, which refers to what is suggested in an utterance, even though neither expressed nor strictly implied by the utterance.
Paul Grice identified four types of general conversational implicative:
 - i) **Maxim of Manner:** Avoid ambiguity, be brief, be orderly.
 - ii) **Maxim of Relation:** Relevance is relevant.
 - iii) **Maxim of Quantity Information:** Make your contribution as informative as is required for the purposes of the exchange. Do not make your contribution more informative than required.
 - iv) **Maxim of Quality:** Truths do not say what you believe is false.
- 3) **Euphemism:** It is an inoffensive expression that is substituted for one that is considered offensive. In other words, the communication of painful or hurtful concepts using softer words is known as euphemism.

- 4) **Rule of Three:** It is a powerful speech writing technique. For example, Abraham Lincoln's "Government of the people, by the people, for the people."
- 5) **Parallelism:** It is when elements of a sentence "have the same weight and are often the same part of speech Noun. It's all about equality."

2.4.6.3. Language Power

Power is exercised in many ways and language is one of the way. Kashrus observes that the power of language is closely connected with societal power. It can be manifested by using Persuasion, Regulation, Inducement, or force to add a code to a speech community or by the suppression of a particular language variety and the elevation of another. In 18th and 19th century, Britain ruled and controlled the sub-continent commercially, politically and of course linguistically. Under the imperil rule in India, on this basis, English started to emerge as the language of political and cultural power. Over a period of time, with the advancement of technology and media it became the pre-eminent language of the globe. Another aspect of power of language has been defined by Talisman quoted in Redman, he says, "language is a new means of propagating ideology."

2.4.7. Discrimination

Language discrimination refers to a form of discrimination that is based on a person's membership or non-membership in a particular language community.

Mary E. Kite and Bernard E. Whitley (2005), in the 'Psychology of Prejudice and Discrimination', define discrimination as, "treating people differently from others based primarily on membership in a social group". They then qualify that like prejudice (defined as an attitude directed toward people because they are members of a specific social group), people tend to think of discrimination as especially negative, while someone might in fact be treated more positively because of his or her membership in a particular group.

Kenneth L. Dion (2001), however, defines discrimination as "unfair behaviour or unequal treatment accorded others on the basis of their group membership or possession of some arbitrary trait."

Similarly, Harold D. Fishbein (2003) defines discrimination as – "harmful actions toward others because of their membership in a particular group."

Discrimination can be further categorised into interpersonal discrimination versus institutional discrimination.

- 1) **Kite and Whitley (2009)**, explain that interpersonal discrimination occurs when one person treats another unfairly because of the person's group membership. This situation occurs at the individual level, and is often a manifestation of prejudice, or the directing of an attitude toward someone because he or she is a member of a specific group, Fishbein's (2003)

discovery that prejudice and discrimination feed on and enhance each other supports the idea that interpersonal discrimination might be fuelled by prejudice.

- 2) Institutional discrimination, on the other hand, is “when the practices, rules, and policies of formal organisations, such as corporations or government agencies have discriminatory outcomes”. Rather than being at the individual level, this form of discrimination resides in official policies and procedures that have been agreed upon by a group of people.

2.4.7.1. Discrimination and Language

Language is not only a means of transmitting that those beliefs, values, attitudes and opinions, but also a part of that information system described by Kite. As David D. Laitin (2000) explained, it is “not only a means of communication, but it is also a marker of identity and through its pragmatics, a cultural institution.” Language, then, is an identifying factor for individuals that may be used in cultural, as well as interpersonal and organisational discrimination.

People discriminate against others based on membership in a particular group or social category. Language, as a cultural institution, functions as one of those groups, in addition to its role as an indicator of a group. Kite and Whitley (2009) explain, “When people know a person’s basic category membership, they use that information to draw conclusions.”

2.5. MULTILINGUALISM AS A RESOURCE AND STRATEGY

Multilingualism, which is defined as speaking two or more languages, is a growing worldwide phenomenon. Due to increased mobility and closely linked economies, many countries currently have significant multilingual populations in their workforces and educational systems. The demands of international commerce alone have engendered a large amount of interest and attention to multilingual education and training programmes.

In this time of unprecedented contact among different language groups and cultures, speaking two or more languages can make a difference in where one lives and may determine educational and career choices. English, as a major language of international business, is spoken as a second or third language in many countries around the world. In fact, English “can be seen as a factor in the creation of multilingualism today”, and educational programmes in English are in high demand.

Students who study English as a Foreign Language (EFL) often already speak two or more languages. Knowing more than one language is a necessity for many people worldwide, whether it is because their parents come from different language backgrounds, because their home, regional, national, or school languages are different, or for a variety of other reasons.

2.5.1. Multilingualism as a Resource

Knowledge of more than one language is a valuable asset when one wants to learn subsequent languages; unfortunately, multilingual students often take the value of their own language knowledge for granted and do not take full advantage of what they already know how to do. Nevertheless, EFL teachers can tap into their students' familiarity with multiple languages to advance learning and accomplish what one EFL student referred to as "bringing one language to another." Engaging in and reflecting on activities that draws on multilingual experience is beneficial to students, their teachers, and to anyone who wants to add a new dimension to language teaching and learning.

Language is an essential part of our existence in society, as much as breathing is necessary for our survival. It ceaselessly marks its presence in every domain of our lives. Yet, two interrelated facts about language and its sustaining power evade us; and these have extremely crucial implications for society and for education.

- 1) Languages are fundamentally porous, fluid and continuously evolving systems that human beings acquire and change to define themselves and the world around them.
- 2) Multilingualism is a norm, not an exception. It is constitutive of being human. We have a "linguistic repertoire" that enables us to engage in multilingual language, i.e., to move easily between language systems that have some common and some unique characteristics. Multilingualism and porousness, taken together, suggest that languages are constantly evolving and interacting in a dynamic process.

Thus, no language can be "pure". In fact, the pursuit of purity in a language is like marking it for certain death. However, the State, the market and the schools impose monolingual and monoglossic language ideologies, policies and practices in the name of multilingualism.

To recognise multilingualism is to recognise translanguaging, i.e., a natural way for multilinguals to access different linguistic features of so-called autonomous languages in order to maximise communicative potential. In this paper, key challenges and possible strategies are identified for leveraging the inherent heteroglossic multilingualism in education in India and for promoting its understanding and value among the masses.

With the rise of globalisation, it is now more important than ever to be able to communicate in different languages. Some of us were exposed to a variety of languages at a young age and learn them with ease, while others might need more intensive study and practice to build confidence.

Following points suggest the resources for all things relating to language:

- 1) The aim of English language teaching in India, according to the NCF 2005 Position Paper of the National Focus Group on English Language Teaching, is the creation of multilinguals who can enrich other Indian languages. This vision statement of the Position Paper prompts us to examine the question of using multilingualism as a teaching strategy in our English classrooms.

- 2) Multilingualism, which is defined as speaking two or more languages, is often viewed as an impediment to the teaching and learning of a second language. A survey of the ELT scenario across the globe indicates that the importance of the first language is often minimised in the second language classroom and it is no wonder that many Indian English teachers avoid the use of the mother of the pupils in their classrooms.
- 3) Taking note of current ELT scenario of the country, the position paper on ELT states that at present, "the mother tongue enters the English class as a surreptitious intruder". The Position Paper suggests that "the mother tongue need not be an interloper but a resource" and it can occur in tandem with the first language. In spite of this unequivocal policy statement made by the Indian ELT experts ten years back, the immense possibility of the use of multilingualism as a resource has not been fully explored by the ELT practitioners of the country. Though the said Position Paper recommended the introduction of parallel texts in more than one language for a successful ELT pedagogy, and little has been done till today to implement the recommendation.
- 4) Metalinguistic awareness, knowing about and being able to talk about how language is structured and how it functions is a special advantage of multilingualism. Multilingual children learning more than one language gain in flexibility because they can understand and analyse concepts using more than one language system. A lot of research work has been done to find out the correlation between bilingualism and cognitive ability, but all these isolated studies were done with reference to the bilingual education of young children. How does cross language transfer of skills help multilingual adult learners in developing their language awareness in a target language? The role of bilingualism in academic learning in a context where the learners' competence in two languages is of varying degrees seems to be an unexplored area of research.
- 5) There is no denying the fact that interpretative skills are transferable across languages and an exposure to the stylistic analysis of a literary text in the first language helps in the analysis of the same text written in a second language. Adult learners who are already familiar with a systematic interpretative study of a text in their first language can easily grasp the stylistic features of the same text written in a second language. By using what the learners already know of a text written in their first language, they can explore the text written in a second language without any inhibition. By comparing the way language is used in the text written in the first language as well as in the second, adult bilingual learners acquire a mastery of the second language unavailable to the monolingual learners.
- 6) L1 and L2 do not reside in two separate compartments in the mind of the bilingual learners. L1 and L2 are interwoven in the L2 user's mind in vocabulary, in syntax, in phonology, and in pragmatics. Therefore, 'learning an L2 is not just the adding of rooms to your house by building an extension at the back – it is the rebuilding of all internal walls. The use of parallel texts written in L1 and L2 therefore reinforces a learner's repertoire in both the languages.'

2.5.2. Multilingualism as a Strategy

The National Curriculum Framework (NCF, 2005) state that multilingualism, which is constitutive of the identity of a child and a typical feature of the Indian linguistic landscape, must be used as a resource, classroom strategy and a goal by a creative language teacher. This is not only the best use of a resource readily available, but also a way of ensuring that every child feels secure and accepted, and that no one is left behind on account of his/her linguistic background.

This Policy brief, in consonance with the NCF 2005, addresses the issue of multilingual classrooms as a possibility and a resource rather than a challenge of diversity, especially in early childhood classrooms. It builds upon empirical research based on multilingual classrooms and addresses how teachers can promote linguistic diversity and facilitate learning in a non-threatening and welcoming environment. It emphasises on the significance of a smooth transition between the home and school language and the need to prepare teachers to address this effectively. The policy brief is addressed to policy makers, teachers, and professionals who work with children in diverse and challenging contexts.

2.6. EXERCISE

2.6.1. Very Short Answer Type Questions

- 1) Define language acquisition.
- 2) What is language learning?
- 3) What is first language?
- 4) Describe second language.
- 5) Define multilingualism.

2.6.2. Short Answer Type Questions

- 1) Write a short note on language and identity.
- 2) Write a short note on language and power.
- 3) Write a short note on language and discrimination.
- 4) Write a short note on language and society.
- 5) What is language diversity?

2.6.3. Long Answer Type Questions

- 1) Focus on the concept of multilingualism in India. Discuss its nature and types.
- 2) What is multicultural awareness? What are its benefits?
- 3) Focus on the relationship between language and society.
- 4) Discuss and describe multilingualism as a resource and as a strategy in detail.
- 5) Discuss and describe language and identity, and language and power.

CHAPTER 3

Language Discourse in the Classroom

3.1. CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

3.1.1. Classroom Discourse

Classroom discourse means the survey of language use in a social environment, so it is a procedure of face to face classroom teaching. Classroom discourse is more than only oral conversation or communication, and refers to the language that teachers and students use to communicate with each other in the social surroundings or in the classroom.

Discourse refers to the way of representing, thinking, talking and agreeing and disagreeing that teachers and students use to engage in those tasks. The discourse embeds fundamental values about knowledge and authority. Its nature is reflected in what makes an answer right and what counts as legitimate mathematical activity, argument, and thinking. Teachers, through the ways in which they orchestrate discourse, convey messages about whose knowledge and ways of thinking and knowing are valued, who is considered about to contribute, and who has status in the group.

The term 'classroom discourse', refers to all forms of talk that occurs inside the classroom and comprises the verbal as well as the non-verbal elements of discourse. The verbal element of discourse includes the language used by the teacher and the students, as well as teacher-student and student-student interactions.

The non-verbal element of discourse includes non-lexical components of communication like gestures, prosody, and silence, etc. The verbal and non-verbal elements together form the observable aspect of classroom discourse. Classroom discourse is often different in form and function from language used in other situations because of particular social roles which learners and teachers have in classrooms and the kind of activities they usually carry out there.

Classroom discourse is a special type of discourse that occurs in the classroom. Special features of classroom discourse include unequal power relationship, turn-taking at speaking, patterns of interaction, etc. Classroom discourse is often different in form and function from language used in other situations because of particular social role which learners and teachers have in the classroom and the kind of activities they usually carried out there. Analysis of the patterns of interaction characteristics of most classrooms has shown that, on average,

teachers talk more than two-thirds of the time, a few students contribute most of the answers, boys talk more than girls, and those sitting in the front and centre of the class are more likely to contribute than those sitting at the back and sides.

Bracha Alpert (1991) has identified three different patterns of classroom discourse:

- 1) Silent (the teacher talks almost all the time and asks only an occasional question),
- 2) Controlled, and
- 3) Active (the teacher facilitates while the students talk primarily to each other).

Recent attempts to reform teaching based on constructivist views of learning have called for teachers to ask fewer questions and for students to learn to state and justify their beliefs and argue constructively about reasons and evidence. One fundamental aspect of classroom discourse is that the teacher talks most of the time.

3.1.2. Types of Classroom Discourse

Neil Mercer (1996) identified three ways of talking and thinking in classrooms:

- 1) **Disputation Talk:** Disputation talk is one of types of discourse in which knowledge is not developed; learners dispute without seeking any consensus or understanding.
- 2) **Cumulative Talk:** In cumulative talk interlocutors make attempts to establish shared frames in which knowledge is built, but unquestioning.
- 3) **Exploratory Talk:** In exploratory talk partners engage critically but constructively with each other' ideas; knowledge is built through critical interrogation and reflection, in a relationship of shared power.

3.1.3. Importance of Classroom Discourse

Classroom discourse is significant in terms of organisation and management of the classroom. Teachers have a major role in a classroom as he or she can control the classroom, and can change the whole course by teaching and communicating with the students in different ways.

Being one basic means of teaching, talk is 'arguably the true foundation of learning'. It is through talk that children actively engage and teachers constructively intervene.

3.1.3.1. Role of Teacher in Classroom Discourse

Teachers have a major role in a classroom as he/she can control the classroom, and can change the whole course by teaching and communicating with the students in different ways. Therefore, the main question and the researchers' goal is to know-how the teacher's style of communicating in the classroom which affects the student's learning. The content of the speech and chosen topics are important in classroom discourses and learning atmosphere is created for the student and not for the teacher.

In a traditional classroom the teacher had the dominant role of a leader who 'gives' students' with knowledge. This role has changed and the teacher has now got many roles depending on different classroom situations.

- 1) **Provide Instruction:** Instead of just lecturing in the classroom, teachers are facilitators of learning, providing students with the information and tools they need to master a subject. At times, teachers act like tutors, working with small groups of students or individual students within the classroom or after class. Teachers also play the role of evaluators, constantly assessing students' abilities through formal and informal assessments, providing suggestions for improvement and assigning grades.
- 2) **Role Modelling:** Teachers typically do not think of themselves as role models, however, inadvertently they are. Students spend a great deal of time with their teacher and therefore, the teacher becomes a role model to them. This can be a positive or negative effect depending on the teacher. Teachers are there not only to teach the children, but also to love and care for them. Teachers are typically highly respected by people in the community and therefore become a role model to students and parents.
- 3) **Mentoring:** Mentoring is a natural role taken on by teachers, whether it is intentional or not. This again can have positive or negative effects on children. Mentoring is a way a teacher encourages students to strive to be the best they can. This also includes encouraging students to enjoy learning. Part of mentoring consists of listening to students. By taking time to listen to what students say, teachers impart to students a sense of ownership in the classroom. This helps build their confidence and helps them want to be successful.
- 4) **Create a Learning Atmosphere:** The role of the teacher in the classroom interaction is very important. It is the responsibility of the teacher to create a learning atmosphere inside the classroom. It is through these interactive sessions that the teacher can extract responses from learners and motivate them to come out with new ideas related to the topic. Teachers are an observer who helps the learners to construct an innovative learning product through group discussions, debates and many more. Teachers will also define their selves as a planner who plans out the best of the modules of interaction that would be effective to invite the learners in classroom interaction.
- 5) **Control the Learning Activities:** Teachers play a major role in a classroom. They control the learning activities of students in and even outside the classroom. Teachers can affect their students' behaviour and mood by changing their style of communication or, in other words, what kind of tone of voice they use and what kind of content their speech has. The on-going communication can have an effect on the student's learning immediately or even much later in the student's life.
- 6) **Facilitate Language Development Opportunities:** In school, teachers facilitate language development opportunities through environments that provide safety and security so that children feel enabled to explore with

language. Children feel valued when their expressions are acknowledged in a respectful manner. Teachers can enhance the development of language by elaborating on children's stories, rather than correcting them. The diversity of languages and dialects brought to the classroom by children and teachers enhances such opportunities.

- 7) **Validation of Children's Ideas:** The teacher's role in the classroom is to model language, elaborating on children's expressions when appropriate. Validation of children's ideas encourages them to become risk takers as they navigate the schooling process. Acknowledging both the positive and negative emotions of children helps them to develop the language they need when interacting with peers. This provides a foundation for compromise and negotiation as children mature. Even seemingly insignificant non-verbal signals, changes in voice tones, and facial expressions cue children about appropriate social interactions.
- 8) **Facilitator of Learning:** In a broad sense, he is a 'facilitator of learning', which includes the following:
 - i) **General Overseer of Learning:** Who coordinates the activities so that they form a coherent progression from lesser to greater communicative ability.
 - ii) **Classroom Manager:** Who is responsible for grouping activities into lessons and for their overall organisation.
 - iii) **Language Instructor:** Who presents new language, controls, evaluates and corrects learners' performance.
 - iv) **Consultant or Adviser:** Who is free communicative and helping where necessary. He may move around the classroom and monitor student's progress, and strengths.
 - v) **Co-Communicator:** He may encourage learners without taking their main role.

3.1.3.2. Importance of Teachers' Personality in Classroom Discourse

Teacher's personality is an aspect of teacher's characteristics. A good teacher has a very good personality; there is no second thought about it. Students always get attracted to teachers with good personality which leads to better communication, understanding, and ultimately generate good results. Everyone can have a good, decent, likable, and presentable personality. Just dress sensibly well, smell good, and be a little gentle and kind.

In determining which personality characteristics are most successful in the classroom, many researchers use the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) to categorise teachers into one of 16 possible personality types. There are four dimensions on which the MBTI judges a participant's preferences – Extraversion-Introversion, Sensing-Intuitive, Thinking-Feeling, and Perceiving-Judging. Without accounting for teacher effectiveness and student achievement, more teachers prefer extraversion than introversion.

Quality of the Teacher

The quality of the teacher contributes more to learner achievement than any other factor, including class size, class composition, or background. The need for 'high quality' teachers equipped to meet the needs of all learners becomes evident to provide not only equal opportunities for all, but also education for an inclusive society.

It is the knowledge, beliefs and values of the teacher that are brought to bear in creating an effective learning environment for pupils, making the teacher a critical influence in education for inclusion and the development of the inclusive school. An effective teacher comprised of various qualities. These qualities are mentioned as follows:

Positive Aspects of Personality

Some of the positive aspects of personality are:

- 1) **Sociability:** Teacher is an important part and parcel of society. An inclusive teacher should be sociable, cooperative and guiding in his profession.
- 2) **Good-Humoured:** An inclusive teacher should be good humoured. Being a sense of humour lightens the personality and invigorate teaching of special education students. Regardless of their disabilities, students can sense when a teacher enjoys with them and develop their personalities. This is one of the primary characteristics of a special education teacher.
- 3) **Patience and Tolerance:** A teacher should have patience and tolerance in his profession. Due to having these qualities he can face diverse conditions of the schools and can teach the matter until students get understand properly.
- 4) **Well Organised:** All students need structure to succeed, but special education students need it more. Whether a teacher is teaching mildly dyslexic, severely handicapped or intellectually disabled students, he needs to provide the class with a physical and academic structure conducive to learning. This is at the heart of teaching special education.
- 5) **Creative in Teaching:** The ability to find new ways to explain and demonstrate subject matter is often the single most effective characteristic a special education teacher can possess. Bringing creativity into the classroom will have the benefit of enriching your classroom environment as well. This is another one of the great qualities of a special education teacher.
- 6) **Confident:** In a special education classroom, a teacher needs to be self-assured in decisions and leave no room for self-doubt, or it can be too easy to lose control. When teachers continually lead students who are unused to taking the lead themselves, he can start questioning own decisions.
- 7) **Optimistic:** Sometimes comparatively simple tasks can become long, arduous battles for students with learning disabilities. Their teachers need to offer hope and encouragement in difficult situations. Think about how frustrating it would be for you to have to try so hard to master subjects, techniques or activities. Teaching special education means celebrating any and all victories, whether for long-awaited successes or simple attempts.

8) **Dedicated towards Students:** Regularity and dependability are important qualities to have when given special education teaching. Taking the opportunity to work with students for an extended period of time can be a huge confidence build for them. Plus, once you know a student's strengths and struggles, no one is better equipped than you to help them. Think about your dedication and whether it can go the distance in meeting the needs of these exceptional students.

Negative Aspects of Personality

The following six teacher personality traits make classroom management more difficult:

- 1) **Impatience:** Impatient teachers talk fast, move fast, and tend to either look the other way in the face of misbehaviour, or react emotionally to it. They rush through lessons, gloss over instructions, and out of necessity have lower expectations for students. This produces a restless, excitable classroom that is primed to cause trouble.
- 2) **Quick to Anger:** A single flash of anger can undo weeks of rapport building with the students.
- 3) **Pessimism:** Teachers who are pessimistic in nature are unable to create the well-behaved classroom they desire. Negative thoughts, feelings, and attitudes about students particularly difficult students are impossible to hide.
- 4) **Irritability:** Irritability (grouchiness, moodiness) communicates to students that they can't trust you or depend on you. It creates resentment, confusion, and instability.
- 5) **Overly Sensitive:** Teachers with thin skin—those who take misbehaviour personally, i.e., inevitably, and often subconsciously, seek revenge against their students. They can't help themselves.
- 6) **Easily Frustrated:** Frequent sighs, rolling eyes, red-faced lectures. Outward signs of frustration can cause enveloping, and knife-cutting tension in your classroom.

3.2. GENERAL CLASSROOM LANGUAGE

3.2.1. Meaning of Classroom Language

Classroom language is the routine language that is used on a regular basis in classroom like giving instructions of praise, e.g., "Take out your books" or "Please sit down".

This is language that teachers are used of using and students are used to hearing, but when teaching a language it takes a while to learn this part of the language. Knowing these language basics reduces the amount that students are forced to use their mother tongue and increases the amount of the target language they are using; it makes the language classroom environment more authentic.

3.2.2. Strategies for Teaching Classroom Language

When using teaching classroom language, there are several strategies that a teacher can employ to facilitate the learning:

- 1) Teach the students the classroom language in a scaffolded way. Start with short commands, may be just one word such as "Sit". Then the teacher can progress to a longer command, such as "Sit down please" and eventually students can learn alternate phrases that mean the same think, e.g., "Take a seat".
- 2) Make sure the students know what this language is for. Don't leave them out of the learning process; they should know that the more they use the language, the more they will develop and that these forms are meant to help use the language in the most natural way possible.
- 3) Introduce the concepts and use them. Employ them as much as possible so the students become accustomed to them and eventually are able to use them as well.
- 4) Use prompts such as language ladders or visuals to help students learn and remember the classroom language. The website Encouraging Classroom Language Use discusses several different types of prompts that can be used.

3.3. CLASSROOM INSTRUCTIONS AND LANGUAGE LEARNING

3.3.1. Meaning of Instructions

Instruction may be defined as "the purposeful direction of the learning process and is one of the major teacher class activities (along with planning and management)."

Professional educators have developed a variety of models of instruction, each designed to produce classroom learning. Joyce, Weil, and Calhoun (2003) describe four categories of models of teaching/instruction (behavioural systems, information processing, personal development, and social interaction) that summarise the vast majority of instructional methods. Each model differs in the specific type or measure of learning that is targeted.

3.3.2. Types of Instructions

Following are considered the types of instructions:

- 1) **Direct Instruction:** Direct instruction is teacher-centred. It is as you would imagine; the teacher giving instruction with little to no input from the students, as in a lecture. It is most often used when presenting new information. Direct instruction yields a 5 per cent retention rate and is therefore most effective when accompanied by demonstrations, small discussions and visual aids. Direct instruction should be limited to 20-minute mini-lectures to prevent students from losing interest.

- 2) **Indirect Instruction:** Indirect instruction is student centred. It is best used when the process of arriving at a conclusion or product is as important as the conclusion or product itself. Concept mapping, problem solving and reflective discussion are all types of indirect-instruction activities. Indirect instruction is used for research projects and technology usage projects. Tactile learners can appreciate indirect instruction the most because they learn by doing.
- 3) **Interactive Instruction:** Interactive instruction is student centred and requires students to interact with one another to acquire new understanding of a concept. Brainstorming, tutoring and interviewing are examples of interactive activities.
- 4) **Independent Instruction:** Independent instruction is student centred. It is useful in building decision-making abilities. In independent study instruction, the student teaches herself under the supervision of a teacher. Distance education is a prime example of independent-study instruction because the learner has very little interaction with the teacher. Some independent-study activities include research papers, essay writing and homework.
- 5) **Experimental Instruction:** Experimental instruction is also student-centred. In experimental instruction the importance lies in the process of arriving at a conclusion or product and not the conclusion or product itself. Students are more likely to retain the information because they are actively engaged and participate in the learning experience. In experimental instruction students often teach one another.

3.3.3. Medium of Instruction

Medium of Instruction means the language through which all the subjects are taught. In a multilingual country like India there are various mediums of instructions used to give education. Mostly medium of instruction is either the regional language (e.g., Gujarati, Marathi, Tamil, Kannada, Kashmiri, Konkani, Maithili, Malayalam, Manipuri, Marathi, Nepali, Oriya, Punjabi, and Sanskrit) and English.

Hindi is also medium of instruction at some colleges. Regional languages being mother tongues are easy to learn and learners find easy to express themselves, whereas English language has its own advantages but India is multilingual country.

In India different languages are spoken in different states. There are 22 languages recognised by the Constitution of India, of which Hindi is the official national language and a primary language of 30% of the people in the country; the other languages are Assamese, Bengali, Bodo, Dogri, Gujarati, Hindi, Kannada, Kashmiri, Konkani, Maithili, Malayalam, Manipuri, Marathi, Nepali, Oriya, Punjabi, Sanskrit, Santhali, Sindhi, Tamil, Telugu, and Urdu. In addition, there are 844 different dialects used in various parts of the Country.

3.3.3.1. Mother Tongue as the Medium of Instruction

India is multilingual country. In India different languages are spoken in different states. There are 22 languages recognised by the Constitution of India, of which Hindi is the official national language and a primary language of 30% of the people in the country; the other languages are Assamese, Bengali, Bodo, Dogri, Gujarati, Hindi, Kannada, Kashmiri, Konkani, Maithili, Malayalam, Manipuri, Marathi, Nepali, Oriya, Punjabi, Sanskrit, Santhali, Sindhi, Tamil, Telugu, Urdu. In addition, there are 844 different dialects used in various parts of the Country.

English often forms the most important language for national, political, and commercial communications. Every state has colleges having different medium of instructions, e.g., Gujarat has Gujarati, Maharashtra has Marathi, Tamil Nadu has Tamil, Kerala has Malayalam, Rajasthan, M.P, and U.P has Hindi, Assam has Assamese, Goa has Konkani, Punjab has Punjabi, and West Bengal has Bengali language as the medium of instruction. As the researchers, study center was Anand District, the medium of instruction in most of the colleges here is Gujarati.

3.3.3.2. English Language as the Medium of Instruction

Colleges having English language as medium of instruction are found throughout the country. As even after independence, it was viewed by leaders and educationists that knowing and using English language will be an additional advantage for Indians in modern competitive but globalised world. The reasons are given by **Maulana Abdul Kalam Azad** that English language is an international language, link language, important for social mobility, essential for personal growth and development, essential for personality development, essential for higher studies, library language, has wide and rich literature, essential for getting better jobs. That's why there are more and more colleges having English as the medium of instruction. English is the language of rationality not emotion.

Lord Macklay has started English during 1835. Till freedom all were studying English for higher education. And even after freedom we are still using English language. The parliament has also recognised English as official language in addition to Hindi. English has become the status symbol as all desire to send the children to English medium school in order to have proficiency in English language. This language attracts people because of the wealth of literature and knowledge. People who go abroad to study can only have English as medium of study.

3.3.3.3. Significance of Medium of Instruction

The significance of medium of instruction is as follows:

- 1) In multilingual country like India, problem of medium of instruction is major problem because every state wants to have its regional language as the medium of instruction.
- 2) Whereas some nationalist argues Hindi, being the national language should be the medium of instruction.
- 3) Educationists having faith in globalisation and technical development advocate that education received through English medium can lead to faster and more rapid growth.

3.3.4. Content Based Instruction

Content Based Instruction (CBI) is a significant approach in language education. CBI is designed to provide second-language learners instruction in content and language.

Historically, the word content has changed its meaning in second language teaching. Content used to refer to the methods of grammar-translation, audio-lingual methodology and vocabulary or sound patterns in dialog form. Recently, content is interpreted as the use of subject matter as a vehicle for second or foreign language teaching/learning.

3.3.4.1. Benefits of Content Based Instruction

- 1) Learners are exposed to a considerable amount of language through stimulating content. Learners explore interesting content and are engaged in appropriate language-dependent activities. Languages are not learned through direct instruction, but rather acquired naturally or automatically.
- 2) CBI supports contextualised learning; learners are taught useful language that is embedded within relevant discourse contexts rather than as isolated language fragments. Hence students make greater connections with the language and what they already know.
- 3) Complex information is delivered through real life context for the students to grasp well and leads to intrinsic motivation.
- 4) In CBI, information is reiterated by strategically delivering information at right time and situation by compelling the students to learn out of passion.
- 5) Greater flexibility and adaptability in the curriculum can be deployed as per the student's interest.

3.4. USE OF LITERATURE ACROSS THE CURRICULUM

3.4.1. Literature

Literature, in its broadest sense, is any single body of written works. More restrictively, literature is writing that is considered to be an art form, or any single writing deemed to have artistic or intellectual value, often due to deploying language in ways that differ from ordinary usage. Literature can be classified according to whether it is fiction or non-fiction and whether it is poetry or prose; it can be further distinguished according to major forms such as the novel, short story or drama; and works are often categorised according to historical periods or their adherence to certain aesthetic features or expectations (genre).

The literature is the reflection of our society and in real sense literature is our life. It is a collection of specific ideas and feelings which are related to our life and provides a guideline for the progress of our real life. An author tries to delimit our simplicity and complexity of life in words.

The facts, ideas, feelings, experiences and realisations are expressed through a language is known as 'literature'. The language is the media and literature is the content. The language functions as a vehicle to carry ideas and feelings. The language is the science while literature is an art. When there is uniformity in words, meaning, ideas and feelings, it is known as literature. A language is the medium which reveals the literature for the welfare of mankind.

3.4.2. Relevance/Importance of Studying Literature in School Course

In uniquely powerful ways, literary study prepares students for richly rewarding and meaningful lives. No other reading experience or learning activity duplicates this preparation. Thus, studying literature has following importance:

- 1) **Imagination:** Reading literature cultivates the imagination. An enjoyment and appreciation of Literature will give students the ability to develop this into an interest in books and reading as they move away from their studies and into their adult lives. They will have the confidence to approach and tackle new forms of books and writing, since they were exposed to a range of literature during their school days.
- 2) **Communication:** Writing and talking about literature helps to prepare students to write and talk about anything. Not only are they working with words, with carefully considered language, but they are also considering how different kinds of people think and react to and understand words.
- 3) **Analysis:** Literary works whether fiction, poetry, drama, creative non-fiction challenge readers to make connections, to weigh evidence, to question, to notice details, to make sense out of a rich experience. These analytical abilities are fundamental life skills.
- 4) **Agility:** Literary works often ask us to think in complex ways, to hold sometimes contradictory or apparently conflicting ideas in our minds. As brain imaging has shown, this kind of processing helps us to be more mentally flexible and agile—open to new ideas.
- 5) **Meaningfulness:** Literary works often challenge us to think about our place in the world, about the significance of what we are trying to do. Literary study encourages an "examined" life—a richer life. It provides us with an almost unlimited number of test cases, allowing us to think about the motivations and values of various characters and their interactions.
- 6) **Travel:** Literature allows us to visit places and encounter cultures that we would otherwise never experience. Such literary travel can be profoundly life-enhancing.
- 7) **Inspiration:** Writers use words in ways that move us. Readers throughout the ages have found reasons to live, and ways to live in literature.
- 8) **Fun:** When students read literature that is appropriate for them, it's intensely fun. Movies are enjoyable, but oftentimes the written version, readers will say, is more powerful and engrossing. Students who do not find literature to

be a whole lot of fun are almost certainly reading the wrong things (too difficult, to remove from their interests), and not reading enough (perhaps they are slogging line by line, week by week, through a text beyond their growing capabilities). When students do discover the fun of literature, they will read more and more, vaulting forward in verbal skills and reasoning abilities, and becoming better readers and writers of other kinds of texts (letters, memos, legal briefs, political speeches, etc.).

- 9) **Multicultural Influence:** Multicultural literature helps readers' value people from different races, ethnic groups, and cultures. Excellent, well-illustrated books are available for many cultural groups. Children from such populations gain self-esteem by seeing themselves represented in books, and mainstream children begin to appreciate others from culturally diverse backgrounds.
- 10) **Establish Career:** Literature helps to establish career concepts. For children who have limited knowledge of occupations, literature expands their ideas for potential careers.
- 11) **Integrate Curriculum:** Literature integrates the curriculum. Trade books (books of the trade or library books) supplement and enrich any part of the curriculum. Instead of relying solely on textbooks, look for recent, brightly illustrated books on specific topics related to your theme or subject area. Remember that text books are assigned, but trade books are often chosen.

3.4.3. Principles of Teaching Literature

The following are the main principles of teaching literature:

- 1) **Interest of Teacher in Teaching Language and Literature:** This principle of interest in teaching is very significant. The teacher's involvement in reading English literature and teaching literature depend on this interest. The involvement in teaching encourages students for the participation in classroom teaching and also develops the interest.
- 2) **Availability of Higher and Good Literature in the Library:** The library of an educational institute should have the higher and rich literature, so that teachers and students can go through it and enjoy the higher literature. This may raise the level of thinking and standard of teachers.
- 3) **Ravindra Nath Tagore** has very rightly said that teacher is like burning lamp. The meaning of burning lamp is that a teacher should continue his study to be up-to-date in his knowledge.
- 3) **Various Types of Literature should be Included in the Books:** At school level, it is essential that all forms of literature should be included in the text books. But at higher level there should be separate books on each form of the literature. This type of provision may provide the awareness about the various form of the literature. A teacher should know the objectives and methods of teaching of these forms of the literature. During his teaching, he should emphasise the sensitive spots to involve the emotions of the students.

4) **Teacher should Encourage his Students to Write any Form of Literature:**
 The teacher should have the two main focus of teaching literature:
 i) To enable students for literary realisations, and
 ii) To enable students for writing these on the various forms of the literature.

The students should be encouraged for easy and simple writing and gradually they should process difficult and complex theme. The student's works should encourage and praised in class to raise their level of aspiration.

5) **Various Type of Literary and Cultural Programmes of Literature should be organised in School/College:** On various occasions literary and cultural programmes should be organised and experts and eminent scholars should be invited for guest lectures, so that the students also be given opportunities in debates, group discussion and seminars, etc. There should be a competition on essay writing, or any other form of literature to encourage students for developing language competencies.

3.4.4. Objectives of Teaching English Literature

The literature is available in various forms, prose, poems, stories, dramas, novels, biographies, autobiographies. The review of the forms reveals the teaching objectives of literature. Some general objectives of teaching literature have been summarised:

Table: General Objectives of Teaching Literature (Taxonomy Categories)

| Teaching Objectives | Objectives in Behaviour Terms |
|--|---|
| Knowledge Objectives | 1) To provide the awareness of various literature. 2) To develop the awareness of content provided in the forms of literature. 3) To provide the awareness about the history of literature. |
| Understanding of Comprehension Objectives | 1) To develop the understanding of prose, poetry, stories, drama and novels. 2) To understand the theme provided in the various forms of literature. |
| Analysis and Synthesis a Review Objectives | 1) To analyse the thoughts and sentiments expressed through poem. 2) To review or criticise the themes given in these forms. |
| Creative and Evaluative Objectives | To evaluate or react according to his own thoughts expressed. |

B.S. Bloom taxonomy of teaching objective provides the general format into three domains:

- 1) Cognitive domain,
- 2) Affective domain, and
- 3) Conative or psychomotor domain.

These domains are classified into six categories which are also used for classified teaching objectives.

The objectives of teaching literature are cognitive and affective. The cognitive objectives are knowledge, understanding, creative or critical analysis. The affective objectives are feelings, values, appreciation, beliefs, attitudes and emotional integration or patriotism.

The different forms of teaching literature have different teaching objectives. The form-wise teaching objectives have been given in the following table:

| Teaching Objectives Literature (Content-Wise) | |
|---|---|
| Teaching Objectives | Objectives in Behavioural Terms |
| Teaching Content | |
| 1) Teaching Poetry, Poem Understanding and Appreciation of Affective Aspects | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> i) To understand the theme of poem, ii) To memorise the poem, iii) To appreciate the theme of the poem, and iv) To identify the form of poetry or poem. |
| 2) Teaching Prose Knowledge, Comprehension, Evaluate and Criticism of the Thoughts and Ideas | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> i) To develop the awareness about the various forms of prose literature, ii) To acquire the meaning of the prose, iii) To develop full understanding of the theme of the prose, iv) To analyse, and review the prose literature, and v) To develop the ability of cruising its theme. |
| 3) Teaching Stories and Dramas Knowledge, Understanding and Analysis or Criticism | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> i) To develop the knowledge and understanding of story, and ii) To develop the awareness about the facts, events and its validity. |
| 4) Teaching Biographies and Autobiographies Knowledge, Comprehension and its Affective Aspects | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> i) To identify the lifestyle of the person, and ii) To appraise the events of his life. |
| 5) Teaching Essay Knowledge Skill and Evaluation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> i) To develop the awareness about different type of essays, and ii) To develop an ability for writing an essay. |

The objectives of teaching English literature have been illustrated with an example of teaching poetry as school player. The school player has different objectives of teaching at different levels which has been indicated in the following table:

Teaching of School Poetry (As School Prayer)

| Teaching Level | Teaching Objectives |
|--|---|
| 1) Primary Level (Memory Level) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> i) To memorise the poem of prayer for reproducing orally and ii) To develop the ability for reciting poem. |

| | |
|--|--|
| 2) Secondary Level (Understanding Level) | i) To provide the awareness to meaning of the prayer. ii) To develop the understanding of the theme of the prayer, and iii) To translate the theme of the prayer in his own words. |
| 3) Higher Secondary Level (Reflexive Level) | i) To identify the feeling aspects of the prayer, ii) To analyse the feeling aspects of the prayer, iii) To examine its relevance or need for the real life situation, and iv) To appreciate and review the theme of prayer according to their own. |

3.4.5. Teaching Objectives of Literature at Primary Level to Higher Secondary Level

In teaching literature same content or topic may be taught at different levels, i.e., primary to higher level, but there is difference of teaching methods as well as objectives. The content is taught at three levels of teaching:

- 1) **Memory Level:** Thoughtless teaching.
- 2) **Understanding Level:** Thoughtful teaching – learner can translate a theme in his own words.
- 3) **Reflective Level:** Most thoughtful in which independent thinking or original thinking can be used by the learner.

3.4.6. Aspects of Teaching English Literature

The objectives of teaching English literature require its components. The literature content can be broadly classified into five aspects which are as follows:

- 1) Teaching Poetry, Poems,
- 2) Teaching Prose,
- 3) Teaching Stories and Dramas,
- 4) Teaching Biographies and Autobiographies, and
- 5) Teaching Essay and Composition.

These aspects are operative at cognitive and affective level.

Therefore, the major objectives of English literature are cognitive and affective objectives. These aspects of literature are further analysis into its elements. These elements are helpful for stating the objectives and behavioural terms.

3.5. QUESTIONING AND DISCUSSION

3.5.1. Questioning

Questioning is a major form of human thought and interpersonal communication. It involves employing a series of questions to explore an issue, an idea or something intriguing. Questioning is the process of forming and wielding that serves to develop answers and insight.

The term may have the following specific meanings:

- 1) Interrogation,
- 2) Scepticism is a state of uncertainty or doubt, or of challenging a previously held belief,
- 3) Questioning (sexuality and gender) is a phase or period where an individual re-assesses their sexual orientation/identity and/or gender identity,
- 4) Questioning plays a central role in Narrative Therapy, and
- 5) Socratic questioning (or Socratic maieutic) is disciplined questioning that can be used to pursue thought in many directions and for many purposes.

3.5.1.1. Types of Questions

A question is a linguistic expression used to make a request for information, or the request made using such expression. The information requested is provided in the form of an answer. Questions have developed a range of uses that go beyond the simple eliciting of information from another party.

Some types of questions that may be used in an educational context are listed in Bloom's Taxonomy of educational objectives. These include questions designed to test and promote:

- 1) **Knowledge:** Recall data or information. **For example**, who, what, when, where, why, how . . . ? Describe . . . ?
- 2) **Comprehension:** Understand meaning. **For example**, retell . . .
- 3) **Application:** Use a concept in a new situation. **For example**, how is . . . an example of . . . ? How is . . . related to . . . ?; Why is . . . significant?
- 4) **Analysis:** Separate concepts into parts; distinguish between facts and inferences. What are the parts or features of . . . ? Classify . . . according to . . . ;
- 5) **Synthesis:** Combine parts to form new meaning. **For example**, what would you infer from . . . ? What ideas can you add to . . . ? How would you design a new . . . ? What would happen if you combined . . . ? What solutions would you suggest for . . . ?
- 6) **Evaluation:** Make judgments about the value of ideas or products. **For example**, do you agree that . . . ? What do you think about . . . ? What is the most important . . . ? Place the following in order of priority . . . ? How would you decide about . . . ? What criteria would you use to assess . . . ?

Strategic studies also took into consideration the questioning process. In HUMINT (Human Intelligence), taxonomy of questions includes:

- 1) **Direct Questions:** Basic questions normally beginning with an interrogative (who, what, where, when, how, or why) and requiring a narrative answer. They are brief, precise, and simply worded to avoid confusion.
- 2) **Initial Questions:** Directed toward obtaining the basic information on the topic. In other words, they are the “who, what, where, when, how, and why” of each topic.
- 3) **Follow-Up Questions:** Used to expand on and complete the information obtained from the initial questions.

- 4) **Non-Pertinent Questions:** Questions that do not pertain to the collection objectives. They are used to conceal the collection objectives or to strengthen rapport with the source.
- 5) **Repeat Questions:** Ask the source for the same information obtained in response to earlier questions.
- 6) **Control Questions:** Developed from recently confirmed information from other sources that is not likely to have changed.
- 7) **Prepared Questions:** Used primarily when dealing with information of a technical nature or specific topic.
- 8) **Negative Questions:** Questions that contain a negative word in the question itself such as, "Didn't you go to the pick-up point?"
- 9) **Compound Questions:** Consist of two questions asked at the same time; e.g., "Where were you going after work and who were you to meet there?"
- 10) **Vague Questions:** Do not have enough information for the source to understand exactly what the HUMINT collector is asking. They may be incomplete, general, or otherwise non-specific.
- 11) **Elicitation:** Elicitation is the gaining of information through direct interaction with a human source where the source is not aware of the specific purpose for the conversation.

3.5.1.2. Purposes of Questioning

Teachers ask questions for a number of reasons, the most common of which are:

- 1) To develop interest and motivate students to become actively involved in lessons,
- 2) To check on prior knowledge and understanding;
- 3) To stimulate recall, mobilising existing knowledge and experience in order to create new understanding and meaning;
- 4) To focus pupils' thinking on key concepts and issues;
- 5) To help pupils to extend their thinking from the concrete and factual to the analytical and evaluative;
- 6) To lead pupils through a planned sequence which progressively establishes key understandings;
- 7) To promote reasoning, problem solving, evaluation and the formulation of hypotheses;
- 8) To promote pupils' thinking about the way they have learned,
- 9) To evaluate student's preparation and check on homework or seatwork completion,
- 10) To develop critical thinking skills and inquiring attitudes,
- 11) To review and summarise previous lessons,
- 12) To nurture insights by exposing new relationships,
- 13) To assess achievement of instructional goals and objectives, and
- 14) To stimulate students to pursue knowledge on their own.

3.5.1.3. Questioning in the Classroom

In classroom settings, teacher questions are defined as instructional cues or stimuli that convey to students the content elements to be learned and directions for what they are to do and how they are to do it. The present review focuses on the relationship between teachers' classroom questioning behaviours and a variety of student outcomes, including achievement, retention, and level of student's participation. This means that certain other subtopics within the general area of questioning are excluded from the present analysis. It does not deal, with the effects of textual questions or test questions, and it is only incidentally concerned with methods used to impart study skills including questioning strategies to students.

These purposes are generally pursued in the context of classroom recitation, defined as a series of teacher questions, each eliciting a student response and sometimes a teacher reaction to that response. Within these recitations, students follow a series of steps (consciously or unconsciously) in order to produce responses to the questions posed. These steps include:

- 1) Attending the question,
- 2) Deciphering the meaning of the question,
- 3) Generating a covert response (i.e., formulating a response in one's mind),
- 4) Generating an overt response; and often,
- 5) Revising the response (based on teacher probing or other feedback).

Role of Questioning in Classroom Discourse

The following are the role of questioning in classroom discourse:

- 1) **Develops Critical Thinking:** The employment of questioning as an instructional tool has always been considered part of the teaching tradition, and has a long history.
- 2) **Drives Learning:** Teacher questioning in classrooms cover varying functions and aspects such as disciplinary, clarification, rhetorical, and questions related to language learning itself.
- 3) **Encourages Engagement and Motivation:** During the questioning students are asked to express opinions and guided into giving supporting reasons and justifications for their opinions. Nevertheless, teachers asked a significantly larger number of display questions that is questions for which teachers already know the answers.

- 4) **Creates a Language Rich Environment:** Questioning creates a language rich environment. The question may provide an answer that solves the learning need or may lead to further questions as knowledge and understanding grows. It is obvious though, that however simple or complex an issue is, a good clear relevant question will be of far greater use to the learner than a question that is vague, poorly defined or irrelevant.

5) **Stimulate Thinking and Reasoning:** Questions encourage students to do more than recall known facts have the potential to stimulate thinking and reasoning. To emphasise problem solving, application, and the development of a variety of thinking skills it is vital that we pay more attention to improving our questioning in mathematics lessons.

3.5.1.4. Questioning Skill

Questioning skill is an important skill to be developed by any teacher. It is all the more important for all teacher as questioning stimulates the thinking of the students and gets the concepts clarified and hence has significant contribution to teaching and learning for all subjects. Probing is going deep into the pupils' responses by asking a number of questions about what they already know and to lead them to the correct response or to remove any ambiguity or misconception, which has led to such responses. Probing goes done where there is no response, or incorrect response, or partially right response. Probing questions are those which help the pupils to think in depth about the various aspects of the problem. By asking such questions again, the teacher makes the pupils more thoughtful. Teacher enables the pupils to understand the subject deeply.

3.5.1.5. Components of Questioning Skill

Following are the components of questioning skills:

1) **Prompting:** When a pupil expresses his inability to answer some question in the class or his answer is incomplete, the teacher can ask such questions which prompt the pupils in solving the already asked questions. Let us take the following example:

Teacher: Name a figure of speech?

Pupil: No response

Teacher: For example, they fought like cats and dogs

Pupil: Simile

2) **Seeking Further Information:** When the pupils answer correctly in the class but the teacher wants more information and further clarification from the learner, by putting 'how' and 'why' to the correct part of the response.

For example:

Teacher: Name a figure of speech?

Pupil: Simile

Teacher: What is the function of a simile?

3) **Refocusing:** When the teacher asks the same question from other pupil for comparison, this is known as refocusing.

4) **Redirecting Questions:** Questions which are directed to more than one learner to answer are called redirected questions. This technique involves asking the same question from another pupil. The main purpose of this technique is to increase more and more pupil participation. When the situation is of no response or incorrect response, prompting should be preferred to redirection. **For example;**

Teacher: When do we write messages?

Ravi: No response

Shyam: When we fail to meet the person whom we expect to meet.

5) **Increasing Critical Awareness:** This technique is used when the pupil's response is correct. The teacher puts higher order questions to stimulate the pupil to think beyond what the pupil knows. This involves the 'how' and 'why' and sometimes 'what' type of questions on the point under discussion.

For example;

- Why do we write messages?
- What are the features of a good message?

3.5.1.6. Strategies for Effective Questioning

Following are the some strategies for effective questioning:

- 1) Ask learners in two's or three's, what they would like to know about the topic or subject first to stimulate interest and assess how much the pupils already know about it.
- 2) Ask pupils to discuss their answers first; this enables shy pupils to contribute more and for many pupils it is much more comfortable to say 'we thought' than 'I think'.
- 3) Ask a thought provoking question at the start of the lesson to crystallise a key concept and engage learners. This might be asked again at the end of the lesson or topic.
- 4) Ask the rest of the class to evaluate a response, what does everyone else think? This helps to enrich the answer and may allow the initial responder to reconsider their answer in light of other ideas.
- 5) Allow thinking time and then allow people to change their minds or have another go. Do you still think ...? This helps to keep pupils thinking and puzzling about what they really think or believe, especially where new information is revealed. What would happen if?
- 6) Ensure a balance between closed and open questions as well as content and process related questions. A simple first question if well prepared can lead into a journey of true discovery.
- 7) Develop a stock of good follow up questions which might be quite simple but, as far as possible, be clear where the question is leading. Be prepared to be flexible and inclusive about the route – What else? How come? What if? How do think/feel/ know? Are examples that can extend simplistic responses?
- 8) Show appreciation for any answer and give appropriate praise for high quality responses.
- 9) Wrong answers should not be left uncorrected, but followed up with additional related questions, or allow "wait time" to provide students with an opportunity to rethink answers.
- 10) Rephrase questions to simplify them or ask them in another way.

3.5.1.7. Importance of Questioning

The importance of questioning is as follows:

- 1) **To Obtain Information:** The primary function of a question is to gain information, e.g., 'what time is it?'
- 2) **To Help in Maintaining and Controlling a Conversation:** While you are asking questions you are in control of the conversation, assertive people are more likely to take control of conversations attempting to gain the information they need through questioning.

- 3) **Express an Interest in the Other Person:** Questioning allows us to find out more about the respondent, this can be useful when attempting to build rapport and show empathy or to simply get to know the other person better.
- 4) **To Clarify a Point:** Questions are commonly used in communication to clarify something that the speaker has said. Questions used as clarification are essential in reducing misunderstanding and therefore more effective communication.
- 5) **To Explore the Personality or Difficulties of Other Person:** Questions are used to explore the feelings, beliefs, opinions, ideas and attitudes of the person being questioned. They can also be used to better understand problems that another person maybe experiencing – like in the example of a doctor trying to diagnose a patient.
- 6) **To Test Knowledge:** Questions are used in all sorts of quiz, test and exam situations to ascertain the knowledge of the respondent. For example, 'what is the capital of France?'
- 7) **To Encourage Further Thought:** Questions may be used to encourage people think about something more deeply. Questions can be worded in such a way as to get the person to think about a topic in a new way. 'Why do you think Paris is the capital of France?'
- 8) **In Group Situations:** Questioning in group situations can be very useful for a number of reasons, to include all members of the group, to encourage more discussion of a point, to keep attention by asking questions without advance warning. These examples can be easily related to a classroom of school children.

3.5.2. Discussion

Classroom discussions are important to building comprehension. Teachers use discussions to engage students and to encourage them to evaluate ideas, justify interpretations, or compare information from several sources, as well as to discuss their own ideas and feelings about what they have learned. Elementary students typically learn new vocabulary through direct experience with concrete objects and events in the environment, high-school students typically learn through verbal interaction with teachers and peers. For high-school students, new words are both the means of communication and the focus or object of communication. By providing an impetus for communication, classroom discussions create opportunities for the introduction, exploration, and use of new vocabulary.

The instructional language that the teachers use during classroom discussions include focusing (focusing on the key aspects of discussion), naming (naming ideas, strategies, or phenomena), and elaborating (elaborating on comments and questions with the intent of eliciting more complex verbal responses of reasoning). In moderating classroom discussions, teachers also use the following types of instructional language – overlapping (with the comments of others to keep conversation flowing), directing (the attention of students to preserve the instructional structure to build relationships).

In this method the effective participation of students is made possible in the teaching-learning situation. In this method both the teacher and the students

discuss the pros and cons of the problem and then arrive at some tangible conclusion. Thus "discussion is a thoughtful consideration of relationships involved in the topic or the problem under study. These relations are to be analysed, compared, evaluated and conclusions are drawn. The discussion requires a statement or enumeration of the facts to be analysed. In discussion mere allegations unsupported by evidence are of little value."

The classroom discussion is a model of teaching involves giving students the opportunity to participate in structured small and large group conversations. The teacher, however, must specify the purpose for the discussion, establish the rules for conversational engagement, facilitate, and monitor the progress of the conversation.

3.5.2.1. Characteristics of a Good Discussion

Following are the some essential characteristics of a good discussion:

- 1) **Accessibility:** Students feel comfortable engaging in the discussion.
- 2) **Non-Combative:** There is a cordial and pleasant tone to the conversation and no hostility.
- 3) **Diversity:** A variety of opinions and points of view get articulated.
- 4) **Cohesion and Focus:** Discussions should be about something with a pedagogical goal.
- 5) **Trust:** Environment should allow students to take intellectual risks.

3.5.2.2. Types of Discussion

Mainly there are two types of discussion:

- 1) **Spontaneous Discussion:** It generally starts from students question about some current event that may be related to the topic under study. Such a discussion is quite helpful to students as it helps them to understand current events to analyse and relate facts to real life situations. In such a discussion the knowledge of facts is reviewed and an understanding is developed.
- 2) **Planned Discussion:** Such discussion may be initiated by the teacher by asking one student to present reports and others to discuss them in detail. This technique needs a careful planning by the teacher by including pertinent facts to the class and unifying them in the form of conclusions. An extensive list of questions is made by the teacher and these should be injected into the discussion at appropriate time. The teacher should at times emphasise a point and should see that all relevant points are covered during discussion.

3.5.2.3. Need and Importance of Classroom Discussion

The need and importance of classroom discussion are:

- 1) **Offer Opportunities to Students for Testing Ideas:** Class discussions offer students opportunities to test their ideas and opinions against the ideas and opinions of their peers.
- 2) **Establish a Rapport with Students:** It is important to set the right tone for discussion in the classroom early on in the semester, and to establish a rapport with students. Studies have shown that students who contribute to class

conversations early on in the semester are much more likely to continue contributing to class discussions throughout the semester than those students who remain quiet during the initial few weeks of the term. Therefore, it is imperative to find ways to involve all students in the formative discussions of the course.

- 3) **Stimulate Student Learning:** Discussions can play a valuable role in lecture courses, seminars, quiz sections, labs, studios and a variety of other settings. A well-planned discussion can encourage and stimulate student learning and add variety to your class.
- 4) **Encourages Dialogue among and between Students:** Students can be asked to comment on what another student has said. A question can be asked and students can be invited to discuss possible answers with each other before the public discussion.
- 5) **Promote Preparation:** If an instructor regularly calls on students and asks questions about assigned reading or what's in their notes from the previous class session, that can get students (at least some of them) coming to class prepared.
- 6) **Provides Feedback:** When teachers ask questions or otherwise seek student input over a topic, they are letting students know something about the importance of certain ideas and information.

3.5.2.4. Guidelines for Classroom Discussion

Following are the guidelines associated with classroom discussion:

- 1) Get students ready to learn,
- 2) Identifies the objective(s) for the discussion,
- 3) Explains the ground rules for the discussion,
- 4) Facilitates one of the whole class or small group discussion, and
- 5) Invites students to share their thoughts, and conclusions about the discussion content.

3.5.2.5. Organisation and Control of Discussion

Following procedure may be adopted for organisation and control of discussion:

- 1) The discussion may be started by the students by giving facts, describing a situation, etc.,
- 2) The teacher may introduce the topic by providing data. Discussion should be stimulated by way of questioning by the teacher,
- 3) The teacher in cooperation with the students should finalise important points and relevant facts,
- 4) For making the discussion interesting and lively it is desirable to cite the personal experiences of the students relating to the topic,
- 5) Illustrative material should be collected from various sources (e.g., museum other community resources, etc.,) and presented in the class,
- 6) Various proposed solution given by students be presented to the class,
- 7) The summary of the work done and problems discussed be prepared by student leaders,
- 8) Debate-discussion should be initiated by pairs of students on significant and controversial topics, and
- 9) Panel discussions, round table discussions, open forums and symposia should be arranged as per nature of the study. Such type of discussions may have far reaching values for socialisation of classroom discussion.

The extent of success of the discussion depends primarily on the ability of the teacher in securing the whole-hearted cooperation of the students and selecting, organising and conducting group discussions. In case teacher finds that student volunteers are not forthcoming, then he should ask students to relate their experiences in such a way the whole of the class is represented.

3.5.2.6. Advantages of Discussion Method

The advantages of discussion method are given below:

- 1) It follows a spiral of learning principles,
- 2) It is found to work well to the related content courses,
- 3) It helps in motivating the students through their participation in discussion,
- 4) It helps in developing students' ability to express himself orally,
- 5) It helps to develop the powers of thinking and reasoning in the students,
- 6) It helps the students in analysing critically and drawing conclusion judiciously, and
- 7) It helps in creating a healthy rapport between the teacher and the taught.

3.5.2.7. Disadvantages of Discussion Method

This method has some disadvantages too:

- 1) In this method there is a chance that only a few students may dominate the whole discussion.
- 2) It is possible that discussion is initiated on those aspects of the problem with which few prominent students of the class are concerned.
- 3) This method is time consuming.
- 4) This method is not adaptable to all teaching-learning situations.
- 5) In this method it is very difficult to assess all the students in terms of learning outcomes.

3.6. EXERCISE

3.6.1. Very Short Answer Type Questions

- 1) What is classroom discourse?
- 2) What is classroom language?
- 3) Define classroom instruction.
- 4) What do you mean by classroom instructions?
- 5) Describe discussion.

3.6.2. Short Answer Type Questions

- 1) Write a short note on general classroom language.
- 2) Describe purpose of questioning.
- 3) What is the advantage and disadvantage of discussion?
- 4) Discuss aspects of teaching literature.
- 5) What are the types of instructions?

3.6.3. Long Answer Type Questions

- 1) What is classroom discourse? Discuss its importance.
- 2) Discuss the use of literature in LAC.
- 3) Focus on classroom instructions and language learning.
- 4) What is classroom language? Explain strategies for teaching classroom language.
- 5) Discuss the role of questioning and discussion in the classroom.



Listening and Speaking as Essential Communicative Skills

4.1. LISTENING, SPEAKING, READING, WRITING (LSRW)

Along with speaking, reading, and writing, listening is one of the “four skills” of language learning. All language teaching approaches except for grammar-translation incorporate a listening component.

The learning process describes the development of expertise across the four strands that relate to listening, speaking, reading and writing. Within these strands, process has been developed for specific areas of learning, such as vocabulary and comprehension.

However, these divisions do not mean that each area of learning is isolated. But they clearly interrelated to each other and, in some cases, certain learning in one is a prerequisite for learning in another. The interrelationships between listening and speaking, between reading and writing and between oral and written language mean that no one strand should be considered on its own.

Listening is the ability to understand spoken language, and to comprehend and extract information. It is imperative that students learn how to comprehend social and academic language.

Speaking is the ability to use social and academic language appropriately and effectively in different situations. Practicing social and academic language increases student comprehension and accelerates their oral proficiency.

Reading is the ability to comprehend and interpret written texts at a grade-appropriate level. Beginning readers may need lessons in phonics to learn the sound system of the English language.

Writing is the ability to produce written text with content and format to fulfil grade-appropriate assignments. The expectations of writing will differ for each writer’s proficiency level. Drawings would be appropriate for a beginner regardless of age or grade level.

4.2. LISTENING

4.2.1. Listening

Listening is to give one's attention to sound. Listening involves complex affective, cognitive, and behavioural processes. Affective processes include the motivation to attend to others; cognitive processes include attending to, understanding, receiving, and interpreting content and relational messages; and behavioural processes include responding with verbal and non-verbal feedback.

Listening is not just about being quiet while someone else is speaking. Listening is the process of receiving, constructing meaning from and responding to spoken on/or non-verbal messages.

Listening and hearing are not the same. Hearing is the first stage of listening. Hearing occurs when our ears pick up sound waves which are then transported to our brain. This stage is our sense of hearing. So hearing is with sense and listening is with mind.

Listening is an important language skill and yet the most neglected skill in language classroom. It is neglected not because we do not recognise the importance of listening, but because we take it for granted that learners automatically acquire this skill without any kind of practice or training.

Thus, we can say that listening is an active process. It can be depicted as follows:

Input → Processing → Output

By input we mean the words spoken by the speaker and by output the listener's response. The input can be processed in three ways:

- 1) Bottom-up Process (knowledge of vocabulary, grammar, sounds).
- 2) Top Down Process (general knowledge/ life experience, i.e., content).
- 3) Schema (knowledge of situational routines, i.e., textual schema).

In bottom-up process, the listener depends solely on the incoming input for the meaning of the message. The input is received and analysed at different levels of organisation. The sound system is organised into words; the words into phrases; phrases into clauses, and clauses into a whole sentence. In bottom-up processing, the listener uses their lexical and grammatical competence to get the meaning of the message.

In top-down processing, listeners rely on their background knowledge for understanding the message. 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.

4.2.2. Components of Listening

Listening is comprised of seven essential components. These seven components are an integral part of the dynamic and active process of listening. Components are:

- 1) **Volition:** For an individual to be able to listen, he or she must desire to listen. Thus, volition, or the will to listen is the initial component of effective

listening. Even having willed ourselves to attend to the ideas of another, it sometimes takes courage to listen fully to another human being.

- 2) **Focused Attention:** Good listening requires focused attention. If our minds are wandering, or, if we are jumping ahead to what we think the speaker might say, we are apt to miss important information.
- 3) **Perception:** The third component of the listening process is perception. We need to be aware of all of the elements of message, speaker, and context. It also implies that we must be open and receptive to the messages of others. A critical part of communication is lost when individuals are unwilling to listen to others because of, e.g., prejudicial or opposing viewpoints.
- 4) **Interpretation:** The fourth component of the listening process is the capacity to interpret the messages and meanings of the others. The process of interpretation includes understanding. In interpreting a message we naturally make sense of that message in terms of our own experience. This means each message understood is a creative process; it also implies we are limited by our experience. A person may be highly motivated to listen to a message, e.g., on contemporary physics. However, if the message is especially complex or technical beyond the listener's ability, then the likelihood for an accurate interpretation is greatly diminished.
- 5) **Remembering:** Fifth Competent of listening includes remembering. Often we remember without exerting any effort. In many critical listening situations, however, we need to consciously and actively include listening skills that help us retain what we have heard.
- 6) **Response:** A sixth component is the need for response as essential to completing the process of good listening. Sometimes our response is internal as we integrate what we have understood and internally comment upon it. Usually after understanding a complete thought it is important that we give feedback to the speaker, or respond in such a way that the speaker has an idea of how we have understood and interpreted what he or she has said.
- 7) **Human Element:** The seventh and last component is the human being. In listening we must always be receptive to the personal element. In both our personal and business lives people are the most important resource. Listening should validate and empower people, thus enhancing relationships. We also listen for information, but we must keep in mind that information is coloured and given meaning by a person's needs and concerns (the listener's as well as the speaker's). As students, doctors, lawyers, law enforcement officers, etc., we cannot "manage" without good information. Information is the lifeblood of our professions. Today organisations cannot function without a continuous flow of information. All information, however, is only meaningful as it describes and relates to a human condition.

The above components of the listening process focuses not only upon the speaker's verbal message, but also upon the non-verbal message. The meaning may be grasped from what is said, as well as, what is unsaid.

4.2.3. Process of Effective Listening

The listening process can be broken-up into five distinct stages, – receiving, understanding, remembering, evaluating, and responding. This is the model most commonly referred to when analysing good communication, because it helps isolate the necessary skills required at each individual step in the process.

- 1) **Receiving:** This is the first and most basic stage of the listening process. In this the act of actually absorbing the information being expressed verbally or non- verbally.
- 2) **Understanding:** This is the point in the listening process where a person is able to plan his response. Understanding takes place after receiving the information from the speaker, and begins to process its meaning.
- 3) **Remembering:** Remembering is about retaining that information, and the most effective way to do so in an important conversation is to move the key elements of a message from your short-term memory, and into long- term memory. There are numerous methods for doing this.
- 4) **Evaluating:** At this stage a listener can begin to prepare for his response. After the message has been absorbed, processed, and remembered, and he can begin to sort the information into pieces.
- 5) **Responding:** After completing the receiving, understanding, remembering, and evaluating portions of the listening process, responding should be easier than ever. It is important to understand the transition between listening and speaking though, and be aware of the ways responding is still a part of the active listening process.

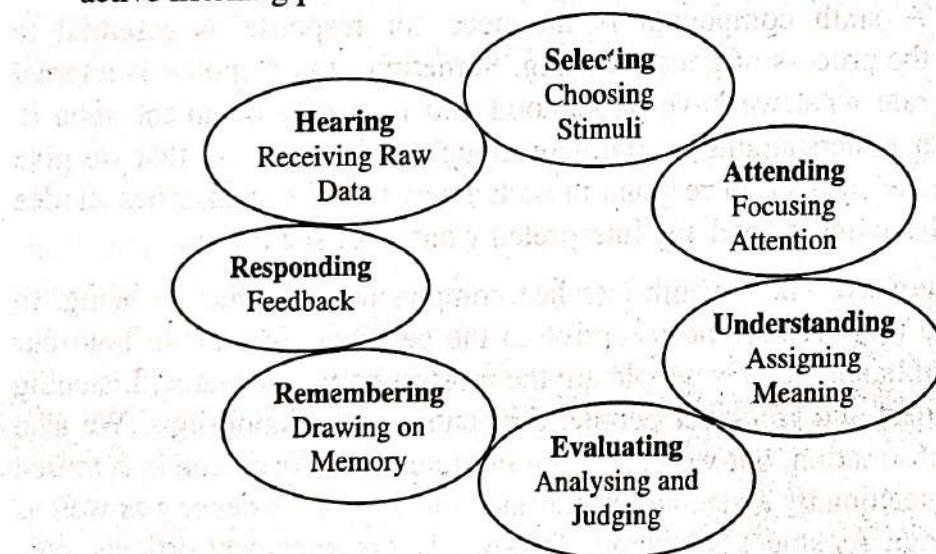


Figure 4.1: Basic Stages of Listening Process and their Functions

According to Nunan, Listening is a six-staged process, consisting of hearing, attending, understanding, remembering, evaluating and responding. These stages occur in sequence and rapid succession.

- 1) **Hearing:** The first stage is hearing. It has to do with the response caused by sound waves stimulating the sensory receptors of the ear; hearing is the perception of sound, not necessarily paying attention, one must hear to listen, but need not listen to hear.

- 2) **Attending:** For hearing attention is necessary. Attention refers to a selection that our brain focuses on. The brain screens stimuli and permits only a select few to come into focus.
- 3) **Understanding:** The third stage is understanding, which consists of analysing the meaning of what we have heard and understanding symbols we have seen and heard. We must analyse the stimuli we have perceived. Symbolic stimuli are not only words, they can be sounds like applause or even sights, like a blue uniform that have symbolic meanings as well.
- 4) **Remembering:** It is an important listening process because it means that an individual in addition to receiving and interpreting the message, has also added it to the mind's storage bank, which means that the information will be remembered in our mind. But just as our attention is selective, so too is our memory, what is remembered may be quite different from what was originally heard or seen.
- 5) **Evaluating:** In the evaluating stage the listener evaluates the message that has been received. It is at this point when active listeners weigh evidence, sort fact from opinion and determine the presence or absence of bias or prejudice in a message. The effective listener makes sure that he or she does not begin this activity too soon, as beginning this stage of the process before a message is completed results in no longer hearing and attending to the incoming message and, as a result the listening process ceases.
- 6) **Responding:** Responding is a stage in which, according to the response, the speaker checks if the message has been received correctly. This stage requires that the receiver complete the process through verbal or non-verbal feedback, because the speaker has no other way to determine if a message has been received. Therefore, it is sometimes complicated as we do not have the opportunity to go back and check comprehension.

4.2.4. Importance of Listening

The listening has the importance for different individual:

4.2.4.1. Importance of Listening as Individual

The importance of listening extends far beyond academic and professional settings. Understanding how to practice good communication even in your day to day life, among friends, family, and significant others, is important for a number of reasons – fostering good self-esteem, maximising productivity, improving relationships, and even becoming a better speaker.

It is easy to mistake listening as a simple, passive task, but it requires more than just the ability to absorb information from someone else. Listening is a process, and an active one.

4.2.4.2. Importance of Listening in One's Profession (as a Teacher)

Teacher must have patience, compassion, and the ability to inspire good listening skills. Listening skills are incredibly important skills for teachers. It is difficult for teachers to know what needs to be taught unless he can hear what is missing,

what needs clarification and what is understand. If a class of any age feels the teacher does not hear them, their needs or their concerns, then the learning will suffer whether the teacher knows it or not.

- 1) **Active Listening:** It is important for teachers to actively listen to the class in a sincere and meaningful way during instruction; the teacher who uses open dialogue should listen to each student's contribution. This promotes participation and helps the students feel secure while learning in the classroom.
- 2) **Passive Listening:** Passive teaching is part of the art of teaching. A teacher must listen to the entire class during their activities apart from the active listening done during pure instructional time. If a teacher gets involved in students' conversations from time to time during these moments, it will alert the students to a constant teacher presence that is attentive to their needs as well as maintaining discipline among them. If the students know the teacher is aware, listening and concerned, random acts of unkindness are less likely to occur.

4.2.5. Methods for Teaching Listening Skills

Teaching methods for listening skills are as follows:

- 1) **Task-Based Teaching:** In this method, learners have to listen to the speaker and carry out the tasks given by the speaker. **For example**, they listen to the text and fill in a table/cloze/ list the main points. When learners are able to comprehend the message then they can successfully accomplish these tasks. These tasks resemble to natural language use.
- 2) **Story-Based Method:** When we listen to a story, we want to know what happens next. The teacher should see that all the learners take part in the discussions. This technique will help the learners in developing their ability to predict, which is an important sub-skill of listening.

4.2.6. Development of Listening Skills

Listening skills can be developed in the following ways:

- 1) Read a short story or play an audio. Prepare a questionnaire based on the text and ask the students to answer them.
- 2) Teachers should check pronunciation of difficult or confusing words from pronunciation checker in Google before misspelling them in classrooms.
- 3) Ask students to see National Geographic Channels and Cartoon Channels (English version).
- 4) Real life listening situations should be introduced.

4.2.7. Improvement of Listening Skills

The different ways by which listening skills can be improved are as follows:

- 1) **Strength of the Class:** The proportion among student and teacher must be that teacher should be able to give attention to every single student. When there are fewer students in class, then lectures are better off.
- 2) **Keep Eye Contact with the Teacher:** Student must build a proper eye contact with the teacher or lecturer as it helps students to involve in the lecture.

- 3) **Evade Emotional Connection:** Be objective and open-minded while listening to lectures. When student involve emotionally in listening he/she will listen only what he/she wants to listen by ignoring lecturer's words.
- 4) **Avoid Disturbances:** The students must compromise with the class environment. Students should not be getting distracted by the things happening nearby them. They must concentrate on the lectures and speeches.
- 5) **Treat Listening as a Challenging Mental Task:** Students must concentrate on lectures. As listening is an important part of the lectures and carefully listening lectures is just a challenge for the students.
- 6) **Stay Active by Constant Questioning:** A student must ask questions with themselves which shows the student is listening actively. The question can be of such types as, what key point is the professor making? How does this fit with what I know from previous lectures? and How is this lecture organised?
- 7) **Use the Gap between the Rate of Speech and our Rate of Thought:** A student can think quicker than the lecturer can speak. This is the reason that student mind is not stable. Student can keep his mind stable by following the above suggestions and he must think after the speaker. Students mind has the capacity of listening, thinking and ponder at the same time, but this all needs practice.

4.2.8. Micro and Macro Skills of Listening

Micro skills of listening are:

- 1) Listening for gist, i.e., the general idea (like skimming in reading).
- 2) Listening for specific information (like scanning in reading).
- 3) Coping with the language that is listening to the keywords to understand the context.
- 4) Coping with unknown words and expressions by guessing from the context.
- 5) Recognising the cohesive devices in spoken discourse.
- 6) Retaining chunks of language in the short-term memory.
- 7) Identify the reduced form of words.

Macro skills of listening are:

- 1) Detailed listening.
- 2) Distinguishing the different sounds of English.
- 3) Understanding colloquial speech.
- 4) Ability to understand the context making inferences.

4.2.9. Listening Procedure

Stages in listening skills are as follows:

- 1) **Warm-Up (Pre-Listening):** Introducing the topic or text to the learners to get their attention through:
 - i) Use learners' knowledge,
 - ii) Engage learners' interest,
 - iii) Giving explanation of new words, and
 - iv) Set a task to know their comprehension.
- 2) **Listen and Respond (While Listening):** This is the main part of the activity. The learners listen to a text and respond to what they hear in a variety of ways.

4.3. SPEAKING

4.3.1. Speaking

Speaking is one of the four language skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking). It is the means through which learners can communicate with others to achieve certain goals or to express their opinions, intentions, hopes and viewpoints. In addition, people who know a language are referred to as 'speakers' of that language.

According to Burns & Joyce (1997), "Speaking is defined as an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing, receiving and processing information. Its form and meaning are dependent on the context in which it occurs, the participants, and the purposes of speaking."

4.3.2. Purpose of Speaking

Analysing speaking purposes more precisely, Kingen (2000:218) combines both the transactional and interpersonal purposes of speaking into an extensive list of twelve categories as follows:

- 1) **Personal:** Expressing personal feelings, opinions, beliefs and ideas.
- 2) **Descriptive:** Describing someone or something, real or imagined.
- 3) **Narrative:** Creating and telling stories or chronologically sequenced events.
- 4) **Instructive:** Giving instructions or providing directions designed to produce an outcome.
- 5) **Questioning:** Asking questions to obtain information.
- 6) **Comparative:** Comparing two or more objects, people, ideas, or opinions to make judgments about them.
- 7) **Imaginative:** Expressing mental images of people, places, events, and objects.
- 8) **Predictive:** Predicting possible future events.
- 9) **Interpretative:** Exploring meanings, creating hypothetical deductions, and considering inferences.
- 10) **Persuasive:** Changing others' opinions, attitudes, or points of view, or influencing the behaviour of others in some way.
- 11) **Explanatory:** Explaining, clarifying, and supporting ideas and opinions.
- 12) **Informative:** Sharing information with others.

4.3.3. Speaking Genres (Styles)

The genre theory assumes that different speech events result in different types of texts, which are distinct in terms of their overall structure and kinds of grammatical items typically associated with them. Carter and McCarthy classify speaking extracts in terms of genres as follows:

- 1) **Narrative:** A series of everyday anecdotes told with active listener participation.

- 2) **Identifying:** Extracts in which people talk about themselves, their biography, where they live, their jobs, their likes and dislikes.
- 3) **Language-in-Action:** Data recorded while people are doing things such as cooking, packing, moving furniture, etc.
- 4) **Comment of Elaboration:** People giving casual opinions and commenting on things, other people, events and so on.
- 5) **Debate and Argument:** Data, in which people take up positions, pursue arguments and expound on their opinions.
- 6) **Decision-Making and Negotiating Outcomes:** Data illustrating ways in which people work towards decisions/consensus or negotiate their way through problems towards solutions. It is recognised that no speech genre can be entirely discrete; e.g., narratives can be embedded within other main generic categories.

4.3.4. Technique of Teaching Speaking Skills

The success of teaching speaking skill depends on the technique that the teacher uses in the class. If the teacher uses the suitable technique in teaching, the student will be able improve their speaking skill easily. So, there are the techniques that the teacher can apply in the classroom:

- 1) **Giving Information:** In this stage, the teachers explain the material that they want to teach in the class. With giving the information, the students are able to imagine and guessing the material that they will be received by the teacher.
- 2) **Survey:** Its can the teacher do by giving the student questionnaire. Where, the questionnaire consists about the weakness and the strength of the material. Besides that, survey can give the teacher a clue to choose the suitable method in teaching learning process.
- 3) **Role Play:** In this step, the teacher explains the activity rules when teaching learning process in the classroom. As the result, the teacher can decide the suitable activities to improve the student ability, especially in speaking skill. **For example**, the teacher use “pair work” activities. They ask their student to make a conversation with their friend in one table. It is including asking question and giving information. They will be able to practice their speaking skill in there.
- 4) **Discussion:** Generally, discussion is the effective activity or strategy in improving the student ability because all components in the classroom (the teacher and student) can play the role in teaching learning process. They will practice their speaking skill with their relation regularly.
- 5) **Answer and Question:** Answer and question are the activities that will influences the development of the students ability because they will have to respond what the teacher who ask to them and they also can ask the teacher if they face the problem with the material.

4.3.5. Learners' Problems in Speaking Skills

Problem faced by learners are due to following:

- 1) Limited vocabulary,
- 2) Problem in pronunciation,
- 3) Heavy influence of mother tongue in English,
- 4) Lack of knowledge for appropriate word,
- 5) Lack of exposure to language,
- 6) May have ambiguity problem in sentences, e.g., flying kites are dangerous,
- 7) Literal translation of L1 to the target language,
- 8) Problem in syntax, grammar and accuracy, and
- 9) Need of environment and atmosphere for speaking.

4.3.6. Teacher's Problems in Speaking Skills

Teachers face following problems in teaching speaking skills:

- 1) The teacher has to be trained in spoken English else it is the problem of the teacher to handle the learners.
- 2) Teacher-learner ratio is the problem. The teacher has to reach to every student. It may be a problem if the class is big.
- 3) The teacher must be up to date with latest development in Language Teaching.
- 4) Selection of materials and methods are crucial.

4.4. PROCESSING AND ENQUIRING INFORMATION

4.4.1. Information Processing

Information processing is the change (processing) of information in any manner detectable by an observer. As such, it is a process that describes everything that happens (changes) in the universe, from the falling of a rock (a change in position) to the printing of a text file from a digital computer system. In the latter case, an information processor is changing the form of presentation of that text file.

Information processing may more specifically be defined in terms used by, Claude E. Shannon as "the conversion of latent information into manifest information." Latent and manifest information is defined through the terms of equivocation (remaining uncertainty, what value the sender has chosen), dissipation (uncertainty of the sender what the receiver has received), and transformation (saved effort of questioning – equivocation minus dissipation).

According to [thefreedictionary.com](http://www.thefreedictionary.com), information processing is "the sciences concerned with gathering, manipulating, storing, retrieving, and classifying recorded information." It suggests that for information to be firmly implanted in memory, it must pass through three stages of mental processing; sensory memory, short-term memory, and long-term memory. An example of this is the working memory model.

Information processing may be sequential or parallel, either of which may be centralised or decentralised (distributed). The parallel distributed processing approach of the mid-1980s became popular under the name connectionism. The connectionist network is made-up of different nodes, and it works by a “priming effect,” and this happens when a “prime node activates a connected node”. But “unlike in semantic networks, it is not a single node that has a specific meaning, but rather the knowledge is represented in a combination of differently activated nodes”.

4.4.1.1. Use of Information Processing View in the Classroom

The use of information processing view in the classroom may be understood under following table:

| Principle | Example |
|--|--|
| Gain the students' attention. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Use cues to signal when you are ready to begin. 2) Move around the room and use voice inflections. |
| Bring to mind relevant prior learning. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Review previous day's lesson. 2) Have a discussion about previously covered content. |
| Point out important information. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Provide hand outs. 2) Write on the board or use transparencies. |
| Present information in an organised manner. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Show a logical sequence to concepts and skills. 2) Go from simple to complex when presenting new material. |
| Show students how to categorise (chunk) related information. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Present information in categories. 2) Teach inductive reasoning. |
| Provide opportunities for students to elaborate on new information. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Connect new information to something already known. 2) Look for similarities and differences among concepts. |
| Show students how to use coding when memorizing lists. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Make up silly sentence with first letter of each word in the list. 2) Use mental imagery techniques such as the keyword method. |
| Provide for repetition of learning. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) State important principles several times in different ways during presentation of information (STM). 2) Have items on each day's lesson from previous lesson (LTM). 3) Schedule periodic reviews of previously learned concepts and skills (LTM). |
| Provide opportunities for overlearning of fundamental concepts and skills. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Use daily drills for arithmetic facts. 2) Play form of trivial pursuit with content related to class. |

4.4.2. Inquiry based Learning

The process of inquiring begins with gathering information and data through applying the human senses – seeing, hearing, touching, tasting, and smelling. Infants make connections to the world by inquiring. They observe faces that

come near, they grasp objects, they put things in their mouths, and they turn toward voices. It is natural of although it is most often associated with science, inquiry-based learning is used to engage students of all ages, to learn by exploration and discovery.

Memorising facts and information is not the most important skill in today's world. Facts change, and information is readily available. Inquiry-based learning provides students the opportunity to construct the understanding necessary to produce deeper learning. Such understanding greatly increases the chances that students will be able to apply the concept in new situations. This increases the likelihood that it will be remembered. Inquiry-based learning strategies serve as a stimulus for learning, thinking and questioning.

- 1) **Questioning:** This is the concept development phase. It connects students with what they already know and motivates them to bring their own questions to the phenomenon.
- 2) **Planning and Predicting:** After students explore ideas through hands-on experiences, they formulate a question and create a plan for investigating their question. They also predict what they think their results will be. It takes time and practice before students learn how to formulate questions. It is important that teachers model this process, asking questions that can be investigated, and eliminating or rewording those that can't be investigated easily.
- 3) **Investigating:** Students become involved in their inquiries. It is vital to give them ample time to complete their investigations.
- 4) **Recording and Reporting:** Students record and communicate their findings in this stage of inquiry learning. They can report their findings in a variety of ways. Whatever means they use, they restate the question and predictions, describe the investigation, and interpret the results.
- 5) **Reflecting:** In the reflecting phase, students revisit the phenomenon and plan further investigations. New questions may occur as a result of the inquiry and the process is repeated.

4.5. LISTENING AND SPEAKING TO INTERACT

Language development involves four fundamental and interactive abilities, – listening, speaking, reading and writing. The attempt has widely been made to teach four macro skills in second and foreign language for many years. It is observed that external and internal environment interacts with functional systems to extent, which the nature-nurture interaction at birth evolves over the course of time.

There seems to be an implicit belief that the subtle skills of active listening and reasoned speaking will develop simply through children's involvement in whole class and small group dialogues. To some degree, the children will develop their language use through practice. But all children can benefit from exposure to good

models for speaking and listening. They also gain from guidance about how to communicate effectively and from taking part in structured activities for practising communicating (including, crucially, group interactions with light supervision from a teacher). It is therefore very important that student teachers become aware of this and learn how to guide children's language development.

The following areas of learning language are considered beneficial in teaching-learning for both teachers and students:

- 1) Dialogue,
- 2) Storytelling,
- 3) Poem,
- 4) Recitation, and
- 5) Short play, etc.

4.5.1. Dialogue

The word 'dialogue' stems from the Greek words 'dia', meaning 'through' and 'logos' meaning 'words'. Dialogue is a written or spoken conversational exchange between two or more people, and a literary and theatrical form that depicts such an exchange. Dialogues usually present spoken language within a context and are thus typically longer than drills. However, those used for oral practice should be short so students remember them.

Dialogues are primarily used to provide speaking practice but can also develop listening. A person can use dialogues to introduce and practice a function, structure, or vocabulary, and to illustrate degrees of politeness, levels of formality, and values and attitudes of the target culture. They can also work with students to analyse written dialogues for any of these features. Dialogues are useful for listening to and practicing pronunciation, intonation, and other phonological features. Like drills, they are usually materials for guided, rather than free, language practice.

According to Paolo Freire, in the 'Pedagogy of the Oppressed,' "Dialogue is the encounter between men, mediated by the world, in order to name the world. Hence, dialogue cannot occur between those who want to name the world and those who do not wish this naming between those who deny others the right to speak their word and those whose right to speak has been denied them."

According to William Isaacs, in the 'Dialogue and the Art of Thinking Together,' "Dialogue is a conversation with a center, not sides. It is a way of taking the energy of our differences and channeling it towards something that has never been created before. It lifts us out of polarisation and into a greater common sense, and is thereby a means for accessing the intelligence and coordinated power of groups of people."

Dialogue refers to the mutual exchange of experience, ideas and opinions between two or more parties; i.e., a conversation. Dialogue is two-way or multi-way communication. It presumes the opportunity to reply on several occasions in order to enhance a line of reasoning. The dialogue concept contains a dimension

of simultaneity and direct contact, either physical or via technical aids. In order to achieve genuine civic participation, there must be some form of dialogue between citizens and those in positions of power.

As a narrative, philosophical or didactic device, it is chiefly associated in the West with the Socratic dialogue as developed by **Plato**, but antecedents are also found in other traditions including Indian literature.

In the 20th century, philosophical treatments of dialogue emerged from thinkers including **Mikhail Bakhtin**, **Paulo Freire**, **Martin Buber**, and **David Bohm**. Although diverging in many details, these thinkers have articulated a holistic concept of dialogue as a multi-dimensional, dynamic and context-dependent process of creating meaning. Educators such as **Freire** and **Ramón Flecha** have also developed a body of theory and technique for using egalitarian dialogue as a pedagogical tool.

4.5.1.1. Characteristics of Dialogue

Writing successful dialogue demands special attention to the techniques. In general, dialogue:

- 1) Shows the speaker's exact words by enclosing them in quotation marks,
- 2) Includes spelling clues to indicate dialect or speech patterns,
- 3) Produces natural sounding conversation, usually using short sentences and contractions,
- 4) May include sentence fragments to illustrate a speaker's exact words or to enhance style,
- 5) Use phrases such as 'he yelled' or 'she snarled' to allow the reader to "hear" the words in the context of the situation,
- 6) Relies heavily on accurate punctuation, including commas, end marks, and apostrophes as well as quotation marks,
- 7) Shows a change in speaker by a change in paragraphing, and
- 8) Includes description, not just of voice and expression but also of mannerisms and other non-verbal means of communication.

4.5.1.2. Types of Dialogue

There are two types of dialogues in literature:

- 1) **Inner Dialogue:** In inner dialogue, the characters speak to themselves and reveal their personalities. To use inner dialogue, writers employ literary techniques like stream of consciousness or dramatic monologue.
- 2) **Outer Dialogue:** It is a simple conversation between two characters used in almost all types of fictional works.

4.5.1.3. Functions of Dialogue

Dialogue is one of the best ways for an author to develop a character and for the understand characterisation. Dialogue is essential for several reasons:

- 1) It creates characterisation. In fact, it is one of the four main methods of characterisation. The audience learns much about a character through his speech.

- 2) Dialogue advances the plot. Interactions within, between, or among characters help to give insight to the storyline.
- 3) Well-written dialogue makes a text realistic. In the real world, people interact and have conversations. This is critical to a successful text.
- 4) It can convey important information that a first-person narrator might either not be unaware of or unwilling to share with the reader. If the narrator is a child, for instance, he may not understand the significance of an event that he overhears two other characters discussing. The reader, on the other hand, is able to piece that information into the larger plot of the story.
- 5) It may reveal expository information, i.e., events that happened before the beginning of the story.
- 6) It is an important part of characterisation. Characters who speak in dialect may belong to a lower or higher social class. Likewise, some characters use flowery language, while others speak in direct terms and as little as possible. These cues immediate help the reader to distinguish one character from another.

4.5.1.4. Presenting and Practicing Standard Dialogues

Following are different ways of presenting dialogues:

- 1) Students look at a picture that provides the dialogue context. Ask students what they think the people are saying. Repeat back in correct English what the students generate.
- 2) Students listen to the dialogue and report what they hear.
- 3) Students are given the text of the dialogue. Let them listen to the dialogue again, this time reading it as it is presented.
- 4) The teacher explains and demonstrates meanings.
- 5) Students repeat the dialogue in unison. Teacher can divide the class in two halves for further practice or can be one speaker, and the students can be the other speaker.
- 6) Students practice the dialogue in pairs.
- 7) For literacy students, one way to present a dialogue is to make one card strip for each sentence in the dialogue and use two different colours, one for statements and another for questions.

4.5.1.5. Tips for Students while Writing or Adapting Dialogues

Following are some points to keep in mind when writing or adapting dialogues for students to practice:

- 1) Use "natural" language as much as possible. Include exclamations and expressions where appropriate; avoid a strict question-answer-question sequence.
- 2) Keep the dialogue short enough so that students can easily remember it, but long enough to provide context. For dialogues used for speaking practice, two to three exchanges are sufficient (A-B, A-B, A-B).
- 3) Apply current sociolinguistic norms.

- 4) Depict situations in the dialogue that are relevant and useful to the learner. This can include setting the dialogue in a place the students know and using familiar place names.
- 5) Reflect students' level of sophistication and knowledge in the content.
- 6) Retain truth value in the dialogue. It should not require students to say something in the classroom that they would not say in the "real world".
- 7) Create characters that are realistic and relate to the learners' experience in some way. For example, the characters in a dialogue focusing on talking about family members might be students in a language class telling each other about their families.
- 8) Decide on your language focus such as social issues, student problems, cultural information, grammar points, functions, vocabulary. If you select a function, imagine yourself taking part in the activity and ask yourself what language you use. If you choose a grammatical focus, imagine a context in which the chosen structure occurs naturally.
- 9) List words, expressions, and idioms you can imagine yourself using that are related to the function or situation.
- 10) Choose vocabulary that could be realistically used between two people.
- 11) Focuses on the most common language used in a particular social context between acquaintances, between a boss and an employee, between a teacher and a parent, between a landlord and tenant.
- 12) Try out the dialogue with a colleague before using it with students.

4.5.2. Storytelling

Stories help young children to develop concentration skills and also aspects of emotional intelligence, such as empathy and relating to other people. Stories also provide a springboard for a wide range of activities which develop language, thinking skills, positive attitudes and citizenship, as well as appreciation of other cultures, or understanding of content from other areas of the curriculum. As children increasingly develop their ability to understand, retell, act out and/or create their own stories in English, this also has a positive effect on their motivation, confidence and self-esteem.

4.5.2.1. Types of Stories

Children are fond of stories and have genuine interest in listening to stories. History was originally presented in stories and it is felt that students, particularly at the early school stage, should be taught history through a series of stories. Stories can give them immense pleasure, extend their imagination and develop their creative powers. There are mainly three types of stories:

- 1) **True Stories:** Stories based on real facts and figures are included in this category. Such stories are interesting presentation of the actual events and activities of the great personalities. These stories are the sources of history and contribute greatly to the teaching of history.
- 2) **Myths:** These are purely imaginary stories and have no historical basis. These are usually fairy tales and deal with supernatural elements. Since these stories have no truth, these cannot be used for teaching history.

3) **Legends:** These are in between true stories and myths. These stories have certain elements of truth. The incidents narrated in the myths are not true nor are the details accurate. Since these stories are generally interesting, these can be used for teaching history in a lively manner.

4.5.2.2. Advantages of Stories

The following are the advantages of stories:

- 1) Story-telling method creates immense interest in the classroom.
- 2) It develops the power of imagination and higher-level cognitive skills, including the ability to evaluate and synthesise information, as well as affective skills such as empathizing.
- 3) It promotes the growth of pupils' creative talents through story-writing, designing, drawing pictures, making models, etc.
- 4) It inculcates virtues in the young students and reinforces the friendly relationship between teachers and students and among the students themselves.
- 5) It helps in understanding and remembering historical facts easily.
- 6) An attention-grabbing anecdote may wake up sleepy students, engage unmotivated ones with the task, and reinforce a context so it is not easily forgotten.
- 7) Genuine communication occurs in language classes when learners provide their own experiences and information. By listening to anecdotes from the teacher and classmates, asking questions for extra information or clarification, and contributing evaluative feedback as in real life dialogues, the language learners engage in authentic communication.

4.5.2.3. Disadvantages of Stories

Stories have few limitations:

- 1) It usually encourages exaggerations of facts, which create misconception and wrong ideas in the pupils.
- 2) It sometimes minimises the importance of personalities and shows even the historical characters as mythical and frivolous.
- 3) The storytelling method is not found suitable for teaching history to the students of higher classes.

4.5.2.4. Story Writing

Story writing comes under the narrative writing category. The elements of story are similar to that of a narrative writing.

Short stories take the form of a brief fictional work that is shorter and more limited than the novel. It focuses on a single subject or theme in the lives of a small number of central characters. The primary aim of a short story is to entertain its readers.

4.5.2.5. Elements of a Story

The following are the important elements of a story:

- 1) **Setting:** The setting describes where and when the story takes place. For example, cottage in the wood, farm, big city, enchanted forest, jungle....When? The story is set in present, past and future:
 - i) It helps to build background and create images in the mind,

- ii) It helps to set the tone or mood of the story,
- iii) A story setting can have both physical and psychological effects on the actions and characters of the story, and
- iv) Details can describe – time of the day, year, and history; scenery, weather, location etc.

2) **Characters:** Characters put life in the story. When we read or write we think about people in the story. These people in the story are the characters. In some stories animals and birds take part in the story.

There are two types of characterization.

- i) **Direct:** Direct characterisation occurs when the author tell the readers about a character directly. **For example, Dr. Smith** was the meanest man in the town.
- ii) **Indirect:** Indirect characterization lets readers draw their own conclusion s from clues in the story, such as character's appearance, tone of voice or behaviour. **For example, Dr. Smith** laughed meanly and kicked a stray dog out of the way as he walked down the street.

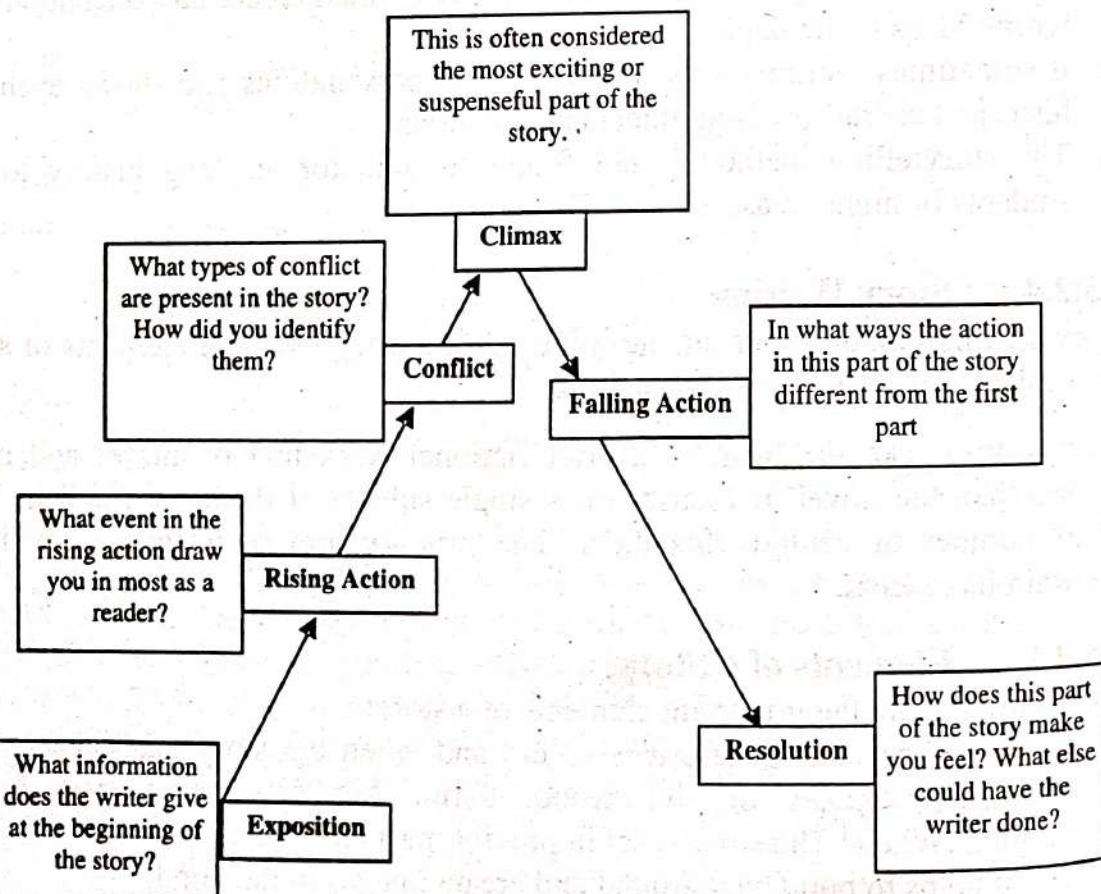
3) **Point of View:** Point of view is the perspectives from which the story is told.

4) **Theme:** Theme is the message the author intends to communicate by telling the story. Story themes may be:

- i) The struggle between good and evil,
- ii) The difference between nature and civilised society, and
- iii) The conflict between the individual and the community.

5) **Sequence of Events (Plot Structure):** Series of events make-up a story. All actions in a story are called the plot.

4.5.2.6. Mechanism of Story Writing



1) Exposition

Exposition gives:

- i) It introduces all of the main characters in the story.
- ii) It shows how characters relate to one another, what their goals, motivations and the kind of person they are.
- iii) It gives of background information on the setting and character.
- iv) This is the beginning of the story and is always flat (little action or emotion).

2) Conflict: Conflict is a struggle or problem. It takes place in three phrases as discussed below:

- i) **Rising Action:** The action that occurs before the climax, conflicts are increased, tension builds up, and motives are introduced and things happen.
- ii) **Climax:** The point of climax is the turning point of the story, when the conflict between the characters is resolved. It is the most exciting part of the story. Usually at the climax one can foreshadow the story's ending.
- iii) **Falling Action:** The events that occur after the climax and lead to resolution. It is when the tension decreases and everything begins to settle down.

3) Resolution: This stage is after the falling action. This is when we find out what happens after the conflict is resolved between the characters, usually indicates the ending.

4.5.3. Poem

Poem is a piece of writing that expresses emotions, experiences, and ideas, especially in short lines using words. **For example**, 'I wandered lonely as a cloud' is the first line of a famous poem by William Wordsworth.

A poem is a form of art in which the skilful choice and arrangement of words achieves a desired emotional effect.

A poem is the arrangement of words that contain meaning and musical elements. It is a piece of writing that expresses the writer's thought and feelings in order to set a mood; it can be happy or sad, simple or complex. In just a few words, a poem can say a lot. It can inspire and awe and can be a welcome escape into something that is totally wonderful.

A poem can either be rhyming or non-rhyming. It uses symbols and has lines and stanzas that have sentences, fragments of sentences or both. It uses metaphor and alliteration, especially in poems for children.

There are several types of poems including **Sonnets**, which are poems about love and is the most popular type of poem and **Ode**, which is a lyrical poem with three parts; strophe, antistrophe and epode.

A poem can also be epic, narrative, dramatic, or lyrical. An epic poem is one that is centred on mythical or heroic figures, a narrative poem tells a story, dramatic poems are written in verse, and lyrical poems describe the poet's feelings and thoughts.

According to the Oxford Dictionary, A poem is “a piece of writing in which the expression of feelings and ideas is given intensity by particular attention to diction (sometimes involving rhyme), rhythm, and imagery.”

According to the Oxford dictionary, Poetry is the “literary work in which the expression of feelings and ideas is given intensity by the use of distinctive style and rhythm; poems collectively or as a genre of literature.”

Poetry, in general, is the art of writing poem.

Verse and **stanza** are the parts of a poem.

Verse is a group of words or sentences that form one part of a poem. The poem has three verses.

Stanza is a group of lines in a repeated pattern, which form part of a poem.

4.5.3.1. Difference between Poem and Poetry

The two words poem and poetry are interchangeably used although there is a difference between poem and poetry.

Table: Difference between Poem and Poetry

| Poem | Poetry |
|---|---|
| 1) A poem is a piece of literary work. | Poetry is an art form. |
| 2) A poem is the fundamental unit of poetry. | Poetry is made of poems. |
| 3) A poem is the arrangement of the words. | Poetry is the use of words and language to evoke a writer's feelings and thoughts. |
| 4) A poem is the end result of the poetry process. | Poetry is the process of creating a literary piece using metaphor, symbols and ambiguity. |
| 5) The word poem is often used in the sense of an individual piece of work. | Poetry is a collected work. |

4.5.3.2. Importance of Teaching Poetry

Teaching of poetry has the following importance:

- 1) Poetry can increase students' literacy and linguistic awareness.
- 2) Poems use a variety of techniques, such as, metaphor, imagery, and rhyme to convey meaning. Picking out these techniques and thinking about how they function in the poem help students to develop their analytic and critical skills.
- 3) Poetry offers wonderful opportunities for reading, writing, speaking and listening practice.
- 4) Poetry also gives students a chance to expand vocabulary knowledge, to play with language, and to work with different rhythms and rhyme patterns.
- 5) Reading poetry can create cultural awareness.

4.5.3.3. Methods and Approaches of Teaching Poetry

The main methods of teaching poetry are as following:

- 1) **Discourse Method:** After going through the entire poem, it is advisable that the teacher should convey the theme of the poem in mother tongue of the

students, to create interest in them for reading poetry. This method of teaching poetry is apt and charming and the students do not feel monotony and burdenfull, because the teacher keeps the students engaged in discourse related to the poem and through the discourse, he instructs the students, to enable them to understand the poem. Such method shall naturally encourage the student and they will learn poem by heart and enjoy it as well.

- 2) **Explanation Method:** It is essential that such condition should be created in which the poem may have its maximum effect on the students. The method of teaching poetry therefore, should be so which may fulfil this condition, for this purpose explanation method is most befitting. The teacher should read whole poem to explain the theme of poem in such a manner that it may serve the purpose of enjoyment. In case the poem is too lengthy it should be recited in parts, keeping in view that it should not lose its rhythm and emotional effect. The students should be told about the age that the poem belongs, important events, referred myth and something about the poet by means of explanation. This method yields positive effect on students. The explanation should follow similar poem also, for making teaching of poetry more interesting. When lyric is sung in accordance with its metre and rhythm, the poem becomes self-explanatory, and the pupils enjoy the rhythm as well as get training of emotion, it also provides training in speech and pronunciation.
- 3) **Review Method:** Review method of teaching poetry imparts better understanding to the students. Review of the poem enhances the understanding and leave permanent impression on mental canvas of the students, and they learn some memorable quotations. During review of the poem, the teacher should point out memorable quotations and the allegories used in the poem to the students. This method enriches their knowledge and vocabulary also.
- 4) **Question and Answer Method:** The teacher asks some questions on the previous knowledge of students and the students explain and give adequate reply according to their apprehension. This question and answer method enables the students to have clear concept of the poem and improve their expression. But prior to it the students should be made familiar with the theme and context of the poem; for this end the teacher tells the gist of the poem and also explains meaning of difficult words. During the course of teaching poetry, some particular points, events and circumstances should be explained to the students.
- 5) **Comparison Method:** The poet collects his imagination and thought from his surroundings and circumstances; thus literature is reflection of society. The students cannot understand the poem well, unless they are introduced with circumstances in which the poem has been composed. The students, therefore, should be told about the background of the poem; the events and circumstances should be explained to the students by means of comparison. But the comparison must be congenial to enable the students to understand what the poet conveys through the poem.

4.5.4. Recitation

A recitation, in a general sense, is the act of reciting from memory, or a formal reading of verse or other writing before an audience.

In academia, recitation is a presentation made by a student to demonstrate knowledge of a subject or to provide instruction to others. In some academic institutions the term is used for a presentation by a teaching assistant or instructor, under the guidance of a senior faculty member that supplements course materials. In recitations that supplement lectures, the leader will often review the lecture, expand on the concepts, and carry on a discussion with the students.

In its most basic form, a student would recite verbatim poems or essays of others, either to the teacher or tutor directly, or in front of a class or body of assembled students. In classes involving mathematics and engineering, a recitation is often used as the vehicle to perform derivations or solve problems similar to those assigned to the students.

In scientific classes, such as biology, chemistry, and physics, often employ the use of recitation sections to help students clarify subject matter that was either not fully understood or inadequately addressed in the limited time of lecture. These recitation sections may be conducted by the professor or a student teaching assistant. These sections provide students with an opportunity to receive additional instruction on confusing subject matter or receive personal assistance with problems or questions assigned as homework in the lecture section. Some universities may require attendance at regularly scheduled recitation sections in addition to any required labs. Recitations may also provide students with additional opportunities for receiving grades for the lecture portion of the course. Despite mandatory attendance and additional time spent in the classroom, these sections usually do not count towards university credits required for graduation, but may significantly increase a student's ability to understand important concepts required to pass the course.

4.5.4.1. Recitation Criteria and Tips

Following points suggest the criteria and some tips that are helpful in reciting prose, poem, lessons, stories, etc., in effective way:

- 1) **Physical Presence:** This category is to evaluate the physical nature of the recitation by eye contact, body language, and poise and establish a strong stage presence by practising the following:
 - i) Present yourself well and be attentive. Use good posture. Look confident,
 - ii) Use eye contact to make a direct connection with the entire audience; don't focus solely on the teacher,
 - iii) Nervous gestures, poor eye contact with the audience and lack of poise or confidence will detract from your grade, and
 - iv) Relax and be natural.
- 2) **Voice and Articulation:** This category is to evaluate the auditory nature of the recitation – volume, pace, rhythm, intonation, and proper pronunciation.
 - i) First project to the audience.

- ii) Proceed at a fitting and natural pace.
- iii) With rhymed poems, be careful not to recite in a sing-song manner.
- iv) Make sure you know-how to pronounce every word in your poem, articulate.
- v) Line breaks are a defining feature of poetry, with each one calling for different treatment. Decide if a break requires a pause and, if so, how long to pause.

3) **Dramatic Appropriateness:** Recitation is about conveying a poem's sense primarily with one's voice. In this way, recitation is closer to the art of oral interpretation than theatrical performance. (Think storyteller or narrator rather than actor.) You may find it challenging to convey the meaning of a poem without acting it out, but a strong performance will rely on a powerful internalisation of the poem rather than distracting dramatic gestures.

- i) Do not act out the poem. Too much dramatisation can distract your audience from the language of the poem. Your goal should be to help audience members understand the poem more deeply than they had before hearing your recitation. Movement or accents must not detract from the poem's voice.
- ii) Have confidence that your poem is strong enough to communicate its sounds and messages without a physical illustration. In other words, let the words of the poem do the work.
- iii) Depending on the poem, occasional gestures may be appropriate, but the line between appropriate and overdone is a thin one. When uncertain, leave them out.
- iv) Avoid monotone delivery. If you sound bored, you will project that boredom onto the audience. However, too much enthusiasm can make your performance seem insincere.

4) **Evidence of Understanding:** This category is to evaluate whether you evidence an understanding of the poem in your recitation.

- i) In order for the audience to understand the poem fully, you must understand the poem fully. Be attentive to the messages, meanings, allusions, irony, tones of voice, and other nuances in your poem.
- ii) Be sure you know the meaning of every word and line in your poem. If you are unsure about something, it will be apparent to the audience. Don't hesitate to ask me for help.
- iii) Think about how you should interpret the tone and volume and voice of your poem. Is it a quiet poem? is it a boisterous poem? should it be read more quickly or slowly, with a happy or mournful tone? your interpretation will be different for each poem, and it is a crucial element of your performance.

5) **Accuracy:** This category evaluates your preparedness and accuracy, including pronunciation of all words. If you skips lines, recite the words incorrectly, or rely on me to prompt you, points also will be subtracted from the accuracy score.

4.5.5. Short Play

Short play (also known as skits) is an excellent way for new actors to start out. Rather than giving them a full play, give them something short to work with and 'play' with theatre before jumping into something big. These skits may also be used for Reader's Theatre in the classroom as a quick and easy lesson. Use the short play as an introduction to get students interested in a topic or as a fun way to get students up and moving. You can create an entire evening of entertainment in the style of Saturday Night Live by using several ways (another was of saying a short play or scene). Short play are a wonderful tool for actors, directors, teacher and students.

4.5.5.1. Benefits of Role Play

Role playing is a learning structure that allows students to immediately apply content as they are put in the role of a decision-maker who must make a decision regarding a policy, resource allocation, or some other outcome. This technique is an excellent tool for engaging students and allowing them to interact with their peers as they try to complete the task assigned to them in their specific role. This work can be done in cooperative groups and/or students can maintain the persona of their role throughout the class period. Students are more engaged as they try to respond to the material from the perspective of their character. Benefits of role play are:

- 1) **Creates Desirable Learning Environment:** Helps to create a learning environment in which students are highly motivated and involved because of the realism and relevance of the learning activities.
- 2) **Opportunity for Real Situation Experience:** Provide a clear focus for learning by emphasising the application of knowledge in real situations for assessment purposes.
- 3) **Develops Interaction Skills:** Provide students with opportunities to develop a range of communication and social interaction skills (listening, thinking, speaking, compromise, and cooperation). It can also give them opportunities to express feelings and points of view that they might be unwilling to express in real situations.
- 4) **Encourages Higher Order Thinking and Creativity:** Give students opportunities to deal with complex social, emotional, ethical and moral issues in concrete ways in a safe environment. Students can experiment and take risks in their interactions with others and this encourages them to think critically and creatively.
- 5) **Active Participation:** Engage students actively in learning, so that they appreciate the value of participation, rather than just hoping to learn by absorption.
- 6) **Possibility of Observation and Evaluation:** Help students to understand the feelings and attitudes of others by experiencing situations rather than just hearing or reading about them. This helps them to understand that there are causal relationships between people's behaviour and the outcomes of events. This understanding is enhanced because the consequences of behaviours can be immediately observed and evaluated.

- 7) **Generalisation:** Give students practice in generalising from a particular situation, and appreciating that their biases and preconceptions will influence their generalisations.
- 8) **Develop Students' Self-Confidence, Self-Esteem and Self-Image:** Participating in role playing and simulation training increases students' self-confidence, self-esteem and self-image. Because students will already have gone through the situation in training they can act more confidently, especially in an emergency. Trainees can also be better emotionally prepared for challenging events.
- 9) **Enable Students to Explore Historical or Contemporary Situations:** Enable students to explore historical or contemporary situations in which there are conflicting emotions, different points of view, biases, problems caused by differences in race, age, gender, religion, nationality, or ethnic background, and so on. Students become more aware of differences in points of view and their consequences, and more sensitive to the feelings of others.

4.6. RESPOND TO STYLE, TONE AND REGISTERS OF LANGUAGE

There are a number of words and techniques that have been used to describe the style of the three examples. Register, tone and language are crucial elements of style.

4.6.1. Style

The style in writing can be defined as the way a writer writes and it is the technique which an individual author uses in his writing. It varies from author to author and depends upon one's syntax, word choice, and tone. It can also be described as a voice that readers listen to when they read the work of a writer.

The effect of any text is to a very large extent determined by style. In its broadest definition, "style is the way in which language is used."

Style is thus not a phenomenon that is restricted to literature; it is necessarily part of any utterance, because for each context one chooses the way one speaks.

In sociolinguistics, a style is a set of linguistic variants with specific social meanings. In this context, social meanings can include group membership, personal attributes, or beliefs. Linguistic variation is at the heart of the concept of linguistic style as without variation there is no basis for distinguishing social meanings. Variation can occur syntactically, lexically, and phonologically.

Many approaches to interpreting and defining style incorporate the concepts of indexicality, indexical order, stance-taking, and linguistic ideology. Note that a style is not a fixed attribute of a speaker. Rather, a speaker may use different styles depending on context. Additionally, speakers often incorporate elements of multiple styles into their speech, either consciously or subconsciously, thereby creating a new style.

Style is the way in which something is written, as opposed to the meaning of what is written. In writing, however, the two are very closely linked. As the package for the meaning of the text, style influences the reader's impression of the information itself. Style includes diction and tone.

The main goal in considering style to present information in appropriate manner to both the audience and the purpose of the writing. Consistency is vital in styles.

4.6.1.1. Classification of Style

Style can be classified on two bases:

- 1) On the media of communication:
 - i) Spoken
 - ii) Written
- 2) On the basis of register:
 - i) Business style
 - ii) Scientific style
 - iii) News style
 - iv) Advertising style

Style can also be of two types:

- 1) **Formal:** It is often associated with the conventions expected of Standard English. At its most extreme, formal language is signaled by complex, complete sentences, impersonality, avoidance of colloquial or slang vocabulary, and a consistent preference for learned words.
- 2) **Informal:** It is characterised by a simpler grammatical structure, i.e., loosely-connected sentences and phrases, personal evaluation, and a colloquial or slang vocabulary.

4.6.1.2. Levels of Style

Martin Joos in his book “The Five Clocks” classified both spoken and written style into five levels of formality. They are such as follow:

- 1) **Frozen Style:** The most formal style that usually used in respectful situation or formal ceremony. It is also called oratorical style which characterized by the very careful, has fixed form, and has symbolic or historical nature. For example, “Yes your honour”, “Yes my lord”, and “I object”.
- 2) **Formal Style:** It is used in the formal events, talks about the serious problem such as in the formal speeches and official meeting. The characteristics are careful and standard speech, low-tempo speech, technical vocabulary, avoidance of main word repetition and its use of synonyms.
- 3) **Consultative Style:** The most operational among the other styles. The sentences tend to be shorter and less well-planned. Since it is spontaneous, people tend to repeat some unnecessary words, choose the wrong word choice or use many slangs. It is used in some group discussion, regular conversation at school, companies, trade speech conversation, etc.

- 4) **Casual Style:** Casual style is also simply defined as a style that is used for the conversation in our relaxed or normal situation. Casual speech is the omissions of unstressed words, particularly at the beginning of sentences. It is often used in the conversation between friends or family. It is usually applied in daily conversation in relaxed time such as when they go for picnic or sport, etc.
- 5) **Intimate Style:** It is a style among intimate members of a family or friends that do not need a complete language with clear articulation. The example for this style is, "Hey darling, how are you?"

4.6.1.3. Factors Affecting Style

Factors affecting style may be as follows:

- 1) **Kind of Occasion:** It depends on physical settings around us. **For example**, in a party with friends we behave differently as compare to classroom.
- 2) **Social Class and Education:** Social class and education are important to determine the language style. **For example**, lower class and less educated people tend to simplify the way of speaking while upper class and higher educated people tend to use complicated forms.
- 3) **Age and Gender:** Age and gender are also important factors that determine language style. **For example**, considering the factor of age elders may speak a bit different from youngers. And considering gender females language style shows nurturance and concern for others whereas males have authoritative and impersonal style.
- 4) **Ethnicity:** Different ethnic backgrounds can provoke differences in language styles. **For example**, African-Americans have a dialect called Black English Vernacular. They use double negative forms such as "I don't know nothing."

4.6.1.4. Function of Style

A unique literary style can have great impact on the piece in which it is used and on the readers. When authors write and put their ideas into words, they meet with a large number of choices which include words, sounds, logic, and sentence structures. However, different authors use different literary styles that depend on their distinct expression and the utilisation of these choices. And their choice creates their niche.

4.6.2. Tone

Tone is often defined as what the author (rather than the reader) feels about the subject. What the reader feels about it, by contrast, is referred to as the mood. Tone is also sometimes confused with voice, which can be explained as the author's personality expressed in writing.

In expository, or informative, writing, tone should be clear and concise, confident but courteous. The writing level should be sophisticated but not pretentious, based on the reader's familiarity with or expertise in the topic, and should carry an undertone of cordiality, respect, and, especially in business writing, an engagement in cooperation and mutual benefit. Expository writing shares with journalistic writing an emphasis on details in order of priority, so writers should

not only organise their compositions to reflect what they believe is most important for readers to know but also use phrasing and formatting that cues readers about the most pertinent information – words like first, primary, major, and “most important,” and special type like italics or boldface, but employ both techniques with restraint.

In creative writing, tone is more subjective, but it also requires focus on communication. The genre often determines the tone, thrillers use tight, lean phrasings, romances (hearty adventures as well as adventures of the heart) tend to be more effusive and expressive, comedies more buoyant, and so on. Some writing guides suggest that if you are unsure about what tone to adopt for fiction, you visualise the book as a film doesn’t everybody do that anyway these days? And imagine what emotions or feelings its musical soundtrack would convey.

Tone is delivered in the form of syntax and usage, in imagery and symbolism, allusion and metaphor, and other literary tools and techniques, but that should not imply that developing tone is a technical enterprise that involves a checklist. Just as with mastering your writing voice (while being flexible enough to adapt it to a particular project), adopting a certain tone depends on these and many other qualitative factors.

Tone can also be compared to differing attitudes of human behaviour – the difference, e.g., in how you behave at work, at temple, at a party, and so on.

Tone and voice are two features of writing that go hand in hand to create the style for a piece of writing. The attitude and the personality are two other ways to describe these qualities that could also be said to blend into a flavour of writing. Whatever analogy you use, make a conscious decision about tone based on the purpose, the audience, and the desired outcome of your work.

4.6.3. Registers

Register is an important concept for composing and responding to a spoken text. It is a concept that refers to particular types of language that are used for particular purposes.

When analysing texts, register should be one of the first things that you consider. This will help you decide what the purpose of a text is, as well as the intended audience.

“Linguistic register” refers to the concept of adapting one’s use of language to conform to standards or traditions in a given professional or social situation, and writers and editors will benefit from recognising the distinction between registers.

4.6.3.1. Categories of Register

The five general categories follow:

- 1) **Intimate Register:** Intimate register is the highly informal language used among family members and close friends, and may include private vocabulary known only to two people or a small group, as well as non-verbal cues exclusive to the pair or group.

- 2) **Casual Register:** Casual register is the informal language of a broader but still well-defined social group, and includes slang, elliptical and elided sentences, and frequent interruption.
- 3) **Consultative Register:** Consultative register is moderately formal language that marks a mentor-protege or expert-novice relationship, such as that between a doctor and a patient or a teacher and a student.
- 4) **Formal Register:** Formal register is language spoken between strangers or in a technical context.
- 5) **Frozen Register:** Frozen register is ritualistic or traditional, as in religious ceremonies or legal proceedings.

Writers and editors must be at least subconsciously aware of linguistic register. In fiction, a given character may necessarily shift among several, if not all, degrees in a given story, and the character's fidelity to the appropriate register in each situation will in part determine the writer's success.

Non-fiction also relies on attention to linguistic register, in that a topic for one article or essay may require consultative register, while another may call for casual or formal register and the writer must sometimes consider whether code-switching within one piece is an appropriate strategy.

4.7. EXERCISE

4.7.1. Very Short Answer Type Questions

- 1) Define listening.
- 2) What do you mean by speaking?
- 3) What is a dialogue?
- 4) What is poetry?
- 5) Define tone.

4.7.2. Short Answer Type Questions

- 1) Write a short note on dialogue.
- 2) Write a short note on storytelling.
- 3) Differentiate between poem and poetry.
- 4) What is style?
- 5) What is recitation?

4.7.3. Long Answer Type Questions

- 1) Focus on the concept of processing and enquiring information.
- 2) Dialogue, short play and poem are essential for listening and speaking to interact.
- 3) Explain respond to style, tone and registers of language.
- 4) What is listening? Describe its importance.
- 5) Describe speaking. What is the purpose of speaking?

**CHAPTER
5**
**Reading to Learn
and Understand**
5.1. READING
5.1.1. Meaning and Definitions of Reading

Generally, reading can be regarded as the ability to gather meaning from printed symbols, taking into account both the individual's level of reading and purpose for reading. In teaching practice, reading must be defined in accordance with students' levels of reading in order to meet their proper needs.

For beginners, recognising words and comprehending literal meaning are important components of reading. For intermediate readers, reading contains a deeper understanding of texts in terms of main ideas and textual organisation, etc. For advanced readers, reading includes not only interpretation but also critical evaluation.

Thus, reading is a skill which enables us to get a message; recognising the written words (written symbols); getting (understanding) the meaning; used to teach pronunciation; grasping information from texts. Reading is an interactive process between the reader and the writer.

Reading is a precise process. It involves exact, detailed, sequential perception and identification of letters, words, spelling patterns and larger language units.

According to Collins English Learner's Dictionary, "Reading is an act of looking at and understanding point".

According to William (1984), "Reading as a process whereby one looks at and understands what has been written".

Brunan W.K (1989) defines reading as "a two way interaction in which information is exchange between the reader and the author."

According to Smith (1973), "Reading is an act of communication in which information is transferred from a transmitter to a receiver."

Reading is a complex activity that involves both perception and thought. Reading consists of two related processes, i.e., word recognition and comprehension. Word recognition refers to the process of perceiving how written symbols correspond to one's spoken language and comprehension is the process of making sense of words, sentences and connected text.

5.1.2. Objectives of Reading

The main objectives of reading are as follows:

- 1) **To Activate and Reinforce Skills:** Reading activates and reinforces skills of learning such as grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and writing. In the same way that oral dialogues, short compositions, and listening activities do, reading can put into practice grammatical structures, new lexical items, and elements of pronunciation. Reading can also offer good writing models.
- 2) **To Develop Critical Thinking Skills:** This is important to address because when teaching English for general purposes, it can be easy to dismiss reading as an activity more suited for an academic environment. In all situations, critical thinking skills aid communication. From having a phone conversation to writing a business plan, people need to prioritise, make conclusions, draw comparisons, make inferences, etc. Reading can provide opportunities to utilise and sharpen such skills.
- 3) **To Become a Better Reader:** Reading is a skill in itself, and the advantage of working with adult language learners is that they are usually literate in their native language. This means that they are able to transfer advanced reading skills to the second language classroom. Reading in English can activate and develop these skills, making the students better readers in both languages. Reading skills include skimming, scanning, predicting, and reading for detailed comprehension.
- 4) **To Create Awareness among Readers:** Students and teachers should become conscious of reading preferences and needs. There should be opportunity for sharing and discussion, based on different kinds of reading material and favourite times and places.
- 5) **To Provide Support Networks:** Schools and teachers would benefit from active assistance for reading programmes. Help from parents, authors, publishers and editors can be sought to promote good reading habits.

5.1.3. Need and Importance of Reading

Need and importance of reading is for:

- 1) **Exercising the Mind:** Reading bends loosens and supple the mind. It helps in keeping the muscles of the brain in good shape.
- 2) **Giving Satisfaction:** Reading gives immense satisfaction to a person. Nothing can be more satisfying than to sit with your child and read him a story book, or to see him grow with the fairy tales.
- 3) **Expanding the Imagination:** Reading expands the imagination of a person. One becomes more confident, self-assured of his ability to understand and appreciate the various aspects of life. The mind is channelised to think about the different aspects and then questions and derives conclusions about them.
- 4) **Enhancing the Ability to Focus:** The mind of a reader is more concentrated and focused about various aspects of life. When the mind is focused it has the capability to be more attentive in practical situations of life. As a result the

body and mind of such people remain calm; they look at the problem objectively and are better decision makers.

- 5) **Improving Knowledge:** Reading improves a person's knowledge about various fields of life. This knowledge base helps a person to make correct decisions in different situations of life.
- 6) **Helping to Achieve Goals in Life:** People who develop reading habit since childhood are better able to decide their goals in life. Reading also helps them in achieving these goals because once a person gets in love with books it is easier for him to just switch over from general reading to their course books.
- 7) **Producing Efficient Orators:** Only those who know something of quality can speak and gains respect and recognition from people. People with scarce knowledge about a subject cannot be good orators.
- 8) **Teaching the Art of Living:** Reading biographies of legendary individuals help the reader to learn the art of living.

5.1.4. Types of Reading

There are different types of reading occurs in a language classroom. Different types of reading are as follows:

- 1) Skimming,
- 2) Scanning,
- 3) Intensive reading, and
- 4) Extensive Reading.

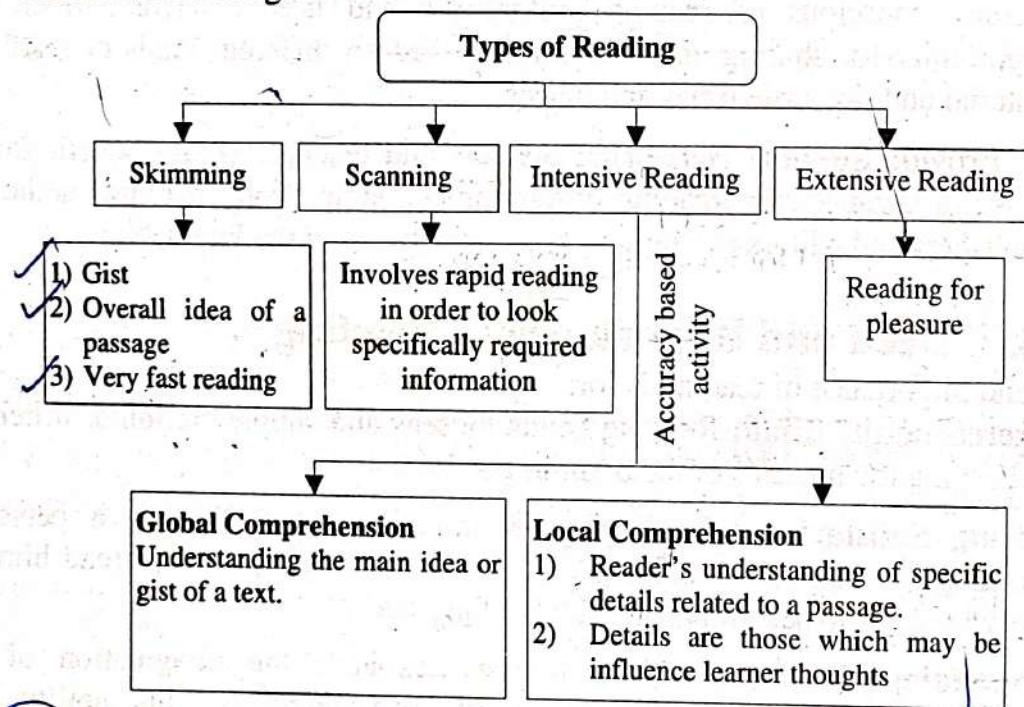


Figure 5.1

5.1.5. Skimming

Skimming is the most basic and important type of reading. Its main purpose is to familiarise one as quickly as possible with the material to be read. Skimming is a method of rapidly moving the eyes over text with the purpose of getting only the main ideas and a general overview of the content.

Reading mark 1 idea

Skimming refers to "the process of reading only main ideas within a passage to get an overall impression of the content of a reading selection."

Skimming is sometimes referred to as gist reading. Skimming may help in order to know what the text is about at its most basic level. Skimming is a quick reading to get:

- 1) To know the general meaning of a passage. *g/m*
- 2) To know how the passage is organised, i.e., the structure of the text. *P/O*
- 3) To get an idea of the intention of the writer. *I/W*

Skimming is a more complex task than scanning because it requires the reader to organise and remember some of the information given by the author, not just to locate it. Skimming focuses on understanding the main idea and concept. It works best with non-fiction material. It is like browsing a new travel book or moving your finger over a map of a city you wish to travel to.

5.1.5.1. Uses of Skimming

Skimming is used in many ways:

- 1) Skimming is used when reading some general question in mind.
- 2) Skimming is used in making decisions on how to approach a text such as when determining if a careful reading is to be deserved.
- 3) Skimming is used to build student confidence and an understanding that it is possible to gain meaning without reading every word in a text.
- 4) Skimming is used as part of the SQ3R method of reading, often for speed reading. This method involves the student in surveying, questioning, reading, reviewing and reciting.
- 5) Skimming is used for the initial survey and for review.
- 6) Skimming is a skill that a student may want to develop if they are planning to continue with academic studies. It is often used in reviewing for a test.
- 7) Skimming is useful for reviewing text already read.
- 8) Skimming is most often used for quickly reading material that, for any number of reasons, does not need more detailed attention.

5.1.5.2. Role of the Teacher

The teachers act in following way in this:

- 1) Before the students start reading, the teacher should guide students to ask themselves the following questions:
 - i) What kind of audience was the text/written for? For example, was it, the general public, technical readers, or academic students?
 - ii) What type of text is it? Is it a formal letter, an advertisement, or a set of instructions?
 - iii) What was the author's purpose? Was it to persuade, to inform or to instruct?
- 2) The teacher should make the following clear to students before assigning a skimming exercise:
 - i) The purpose of the exercise, and
 - ii) How deeply the text is to be read.

5.1.5.3. Role of the Student

Students read through the text in the following manner:

- 1) Read the title if any.
- 2) Read the introduction or the first paragraph.
- 3) Read the first sentence of each of the following paragraphs.
- 4) Read any headings or sub-headings.
- 5) Look at any pictures or phrases that are in boldface or italics.
- 6) Read the summary or last paragraph.

5.1.5.4. Process of Skimming in Reading

The process of skimming in reading is as follows:

- 1) **Read the Title:** It is the shortest possible summary of the content.
- 2) **Read the Introduction or the First Paragraph:** Read the first paragraph completely.
- 3) **Read any Headings and Sub-Headings:** If there are sub-headings, read each one, looking for relationships among them.
- 4) **Read the First Sentence of Every Other Paragraph:** Read the first sentence of each remaining paragraph. The main idea of most paragraphs appears in the first sentence.
- 5) **Notice Pictures, Charts or Graphs:** Readers (students) should notice pictures, charts or graphs.
- 6) **Notice on Italicised or Boldface Words or Phrase:** If there is any italicised or boldface lines in the text students should focus on that.
- 7) **Read the Summary or Last Paragraph:** Students should focus on summary of the given texts.

5.1.6. Scanning

Scanning is a reading technique to be used when you want to find specific information quickly. Scanning is a technique to trigger and extract key information and ideas such as names, numbers and specific facts. Scanning involves moving your eyes quickly down the page identifying specific words and phrases to either find a particular answer or grasping the basic main idea. You can also use it to determine whether a new resource will answer your questions or not. This activity probably takes about 5-10 minutes. Students sometimes do not give enough importance to be illustrations. These should be included in your scanning. Special attention to the introduction and the conclusion should also be paid. In scanning, you must be willing to skip over large sections of text without reading or understanding them. Scanning can be done at 1500 or more words per minute.

5.1.6.1. Uses of Scanning

It is used in many ways:

- 1) Scanning is a quick reading, focusing on locating specific information.
- 2) Scanning involves quick eye movements, not necessarily linear in fashion, in which the eyes wander until the reader finds the piece of information needed.

- 3) Scanning is used when a specific piece of information is required, such as a name, date, symbol, formula, or phrase, is required. The reader knows what the item looks like and so, knows when he has located what he was searching for. It is assumed then, that very little information is processed into long-term memory or even for immediate understanding because the objective is simply matching.
- 4) Scanning is used often with technical, scientific or professional materials to locate specific information.
- 5) Scanning is a valuable skill for second language learners to develop because often they do not require a detailed read of a text. There are many everyday uses for scanning, relevant to a purpose, such as reading a schedule.
- 6) Scanning rapidly covers a great deal of material in order to locate a specific fact or piece of information.
- 7) Scanning is very useful for finding a specific name, date, statistic, or fact without reading the entire article.

5.1.6.2. Roles of the Teacher

The roles of teacher are as follows:

- 1) The teacher selects passages that do include specific information.
- 2) The teacher may use authentic materials that are commonly scanned in real life, such as the telephone directory, menus and bus schedules. *authentic material*
- 3) The teacher may ask students before they scan a text to note how the information is organised in the text.
- 4) The teacher needs to remind students that as they read carefully to find the required information, they should pay particular attention to titles and keywords.

5.1.6.3. Role of the Student

The roles of student are as follows:

- 1) The student forms questions before reading. What specific information are they looking for?
- 2) The student looks for contextual clues. The student tries to anticipate what the answer might look like and what sorts of clues would be useful.
- 3) The student is aware of the graphic form that the answer may take, such as a numeral, a written number, a capitalised word or a short phrase that includes key words.

5.1.6.4. Process of Scanning in Reading

The scanning process in reading may be such as follows:

- 1) Keep in mind at all times what it is you are searching for. If you hold the image of the word or idea clearly in mind, it is likely to appear more clearly than the surrounding words.
- 2) Anticipate in what form the information is likely to appear-numbers, proper nouns, etc.

*Kind of info to search for
information like to offer*

✓ 3) Analyse the organisation of the content before starting to scan.

- If material is familiar or fairly brief, you may be able to scan the entire article in a single search.
- If the material is lengthy or difficult, a preliminary skimming may be necessary to determine which part of the article to scan.

4) Let your eyes run rapidly over several lines of print at a time.

5) When you find the sentence that has the information you seek, read the entire sentence.

narrow reading (Zoom Lens Strategy)

5.1.7. Intensive Reading

Brown (1989) explains that intensive reading "calls attention to grammatical forms, discourse markers, and other surface structure details for the purpose of understanding literal meaning, implications, rhetorical relationships, and the like." He draws an analogy to intensive reading as a "zoom lens" strategy.

Long and Richards (1987) says it is a "detailed in-class analysis, led by the teacher, of vocabulary and grammar points, in a short passage."

Intensive reading, sometimes called 'narrow reading', it may involve students reading selections by the same author or several texts about the same topic. When this occurs, content and grammatical structures repeat themselves and students get many opportunities to understand the meanings of the text. The success of 'narrow reading' on improving reading comprehension is based on the premise that the more familiar the reader is with the text, either due to the subject matter or having read other works by the same author, the more comprehension is promoted.

5.1.7.1. Roles of the Teacher

The roles of teacher are as follows:

- 1) The teacher chooses suitable text.
- 2) The teacher chooses tasks and activities to develop skills.
- 3) The teacher gives direction before, during and after reading.
- 4) The teacher prepares students to work on their own. Often the most difficult part is for the teacher to "get out of the way".
- 5) The teacher encourages students through prompts, without giving answers.

5.1.8. Extensive Reading

Brown (1989) explains that extensive reading is carried out "to achieve a general understanding of a text."

Long and Richards (1971) identify extensive reading as "occurring when students read large amounts of high interest material, usually out-of-class, concentrating on meaning, 'reading for gist' and skipping unknown words."

The aim of extensive reading is to build reader confidence and enjoyment. Extensive reading is always done for the comprehension of main ideas, not for specific details. Extensive reading involves reading for pleasure. Because there is

an element of enjoyment in extensive reading it is unlikely that students will undertake extensive reading of a text they do not like. It also requires a fluid decoding and assimilation of the text and content in front of students. If the text is difficult and students stop every few minutes to figure out what is being said or to look up new words in the dictionary, then it is considered that they are breaking their concentration and diverting their thoughts. Extensive reading may appear as any of the following:

- 1) A complement to an intensive reading programme.
- 2) An extra-curricular activity where students read out of class the main focus of a reading course where students work with a class set of books, individual reading of material, of their own choice, with follow-up activities such as reading logs, reading journals, book reports or projects.

Although it is less common for extensive reading to form an entire reading course, there are well-established extensive reading programmes operating around the world. They have been carried on in many countries, at varying levels of education from Elementary School to College, and in different languages.

5.1.8.1. Roles of the Teacher

The roles of the teacher are as follows:

- 1) The teacher gives recommendations on reading materials, based on student's interests.
- 2) The teacher guides students in choosing appropriate levels of material, beginning with easy books.
- 3) The teacher guides students in choosing a variety of materials of their interest. This may especially be necessary for students that choose the same type over and over.
- 4) The teacher guides students in setting specific goals for amounts read.
- 5) The teacher provides modelling. If class time is given for reading, the teacher reads at the same time. *Role Model*
- 6) The teacher overlooks if students are not aware of the exact meaning of each word. The teacher should not jump in and explain.
- 7) The teacher leads pre-reading activities to build interest in the text, such as in the characters, places, themes, and actions. The teacher must be careful to provide just enough to stimulate curiosity but not so much that the need to read is removed.

5.1.8.2. Roles of the Student

The roles of the student are as follows:

- 1) The student assumes total responsibility for developing reading ability.
- 2) The student reads without the use of a dictionary. *without dictionary*
- 3) The student usually chooses their own material and moves along at their own pace but must push themselves in order to show greater progress.

5.1.9. Extracting Relevant Information from the Books

Information Extraction (IE) is the task of automatically extracting structured information from unstructured and/or semi-structured machine-readable documents. In most of the cases this activity concerns processing human language texts by means of Natural Language Processing (NLP). Recent activities in multimedia document processing like automatic annotation and content extraction out of images/audio/video could be seen as information extraction.

According to Francoise Grellet (1991), "Understanding a written text means extracting the required information from it as efficiently as possible."

Information extraction is the identification and consequent or concurrent classification and structuring into semantic classes, of specific information found in unstructured data sources, such as natural language text, making the information more suitable for information processing tasks.

The sources where the triplets are extracted from must contain definitions and properties of concepts. The most appropriate resources for this purpose are dictionaries and encyclopaedias. Dictionaries provide succinct definitions and a brief and usually more technical overview of the concept's most salient properties. Encyclopaedias, on the other hand, contain more general information and in greater quantity.

5.1.9.1. SQ3R (Survey, Question, Read, Recall, Review)

SQ3R is a set of techniques for extracting key information from a text. Many schools reading classes stress that reading is made much more efficient by following the SQ3R system. This means:

- 1) **Survey:** Look over the text to see what it is about and how it is structured. Skim and scan through the text to make sure it is relevant. Read the introduction and conclusion.
- 2) **Question:** Form questions in your mind that you want answered by looking at this text. What do you already know and what do you want to know? The questions such as Who? What? Why? Where? When? How? helps to develop a purpose for reading, in turn enabling one to get more from the text.
- 3) **Read:** Read over the text, keeping your questions in mind. Take notes and/or use a highlighter to flag important points. Do not expect to understand everything at the first time of reading. Choose a manageable chunk to read and look for the main ideas.
- 4) **Recite:** Take time out from your reading to answer your own questions in your own words. Some more fortunate readers can form the answers to their questions at high speeds without taking the time to subvocalise the answers.
- 5) **Review:** Survey the text again and review your notes, questions and answers.

Following areas are considered while reading a book:

1) **Reading Speed:** The speed of text reading can depend on the text that you are reading. It will naturally vary but it is worth cultivating different reading techniques, rather like having a set of gears to control your speed. Reading should be neither slow nor too fast.

Brain reads faster when:

- i) Something is easy,
- ii) Something is already known, and
- iii) Something is less relevant.

Brain reads slower when:

- i) Something is important,
- ii) Something is complex, and
- iii) Something is new.

Reading academic texts offer new challenges. The style of writing is not necessarily straight to the point and sometimes raises questions, tease out ideas and present you with new vocabulary.

2) **Active Reading:** When you are reading a document in detail which requires a high level of concentration, it can help to highlight, annotate and underline sections (if it is a photocopy or print out). Reading passively without questioning or marking the text, can be a time wasting activity. Making your reading more active can help you to interact with the text, emphasise information and review important points later.

Active Reading Strategies:

- i) **Colour Coding Using:** Colours for highlighting text can help you to return to important information and using colours can emphasise the specific information without having to re-read chunks of text. For example, argument in blue, evidence in green, author's position in pink.
- ii) **Reading alongside Note Making:** Note making is an important aspect of study and is very closely linked to reading. Whether you read and take notes alongside as you go or read and write later, will depend on what works for you.
- 3) **Reading Comprehension:** It is the ability to read text, process it, and understand its meaning. An individual's ability to comprehend text is influenced by their traits and skills, one of which is the ability to make inferences. If word recognition is difficult, students use too much of their processing capacity to read individual words, which interferes with their ability to comprehend what is read. There are a number of approaches to improve reading comprehension, including improving one's vocabulary and reading strategies.
 - i) **Monitoring Comprehension:** Monitor your comprehension by stopping from time to time to ask yourself what you have just learnt. Could you write down in your own words what you have just read? If you can, then your understanding of the text is very high. If you feel you can not, then

re-read the passage to improve your understanding of the text. Do not be tempted to copy down big chunks of the text (unless you will be using it as a quote) as this will not aid your understanding! Write as much of it as you can in your own words.

- ii) **Reading Length:** If you are reading texts which require great amount of concentration then you may find it more productive to read it in chunks and in smaller bursts. Reading solidly for 20 minutes at a time can be more productive and lead to a better understanding rather than feeling the need to read for a lengthier time. This will allow you to stop and reflect on what you have read and give you the opportunity to write notes if need be. Everyone has their own reading habits, so see what works best for you.

5.2. READING COMPREHENSION

5.2.1. Meaning and Definitions of Reading Comprehension

Comprehension is a “creative, multifaceted process” dependent upon four language skills, i.e., phonology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics. Proficient reading depends on the ability to recognise words quickly and effortlessly. It is also determined by an individual’s cognitive development, which is “the construction of thought processes”. Some people learn through education or instruction and others through direct experiences.

Reading comprehension may be defined as the ability to easily and efficiently read text for meaning. It is the last step of the reading process taught to children, after they have learned phonics, fluency, and vocabulary.

In other words, reading comprehension is defined as the level of understanding of a text/message. This understanding comes from the interaction between the words that are written and how they trigger knowledge outside the text/message.

Gough and Tunmer (1986), Hoover and Gough (1990), defined reading comprehension as “the product of word reading and listening comprehension and the relative contribution of each to reading comprehension across development”.

Reading comprehension is the product of decoding printed text, i.e., word reading and understanding language accessed through the process of decoding, i.e., listening comprehension. Put simply, children comprehend when they are able to accurately and fluently translate print into spoken language that they can understand.

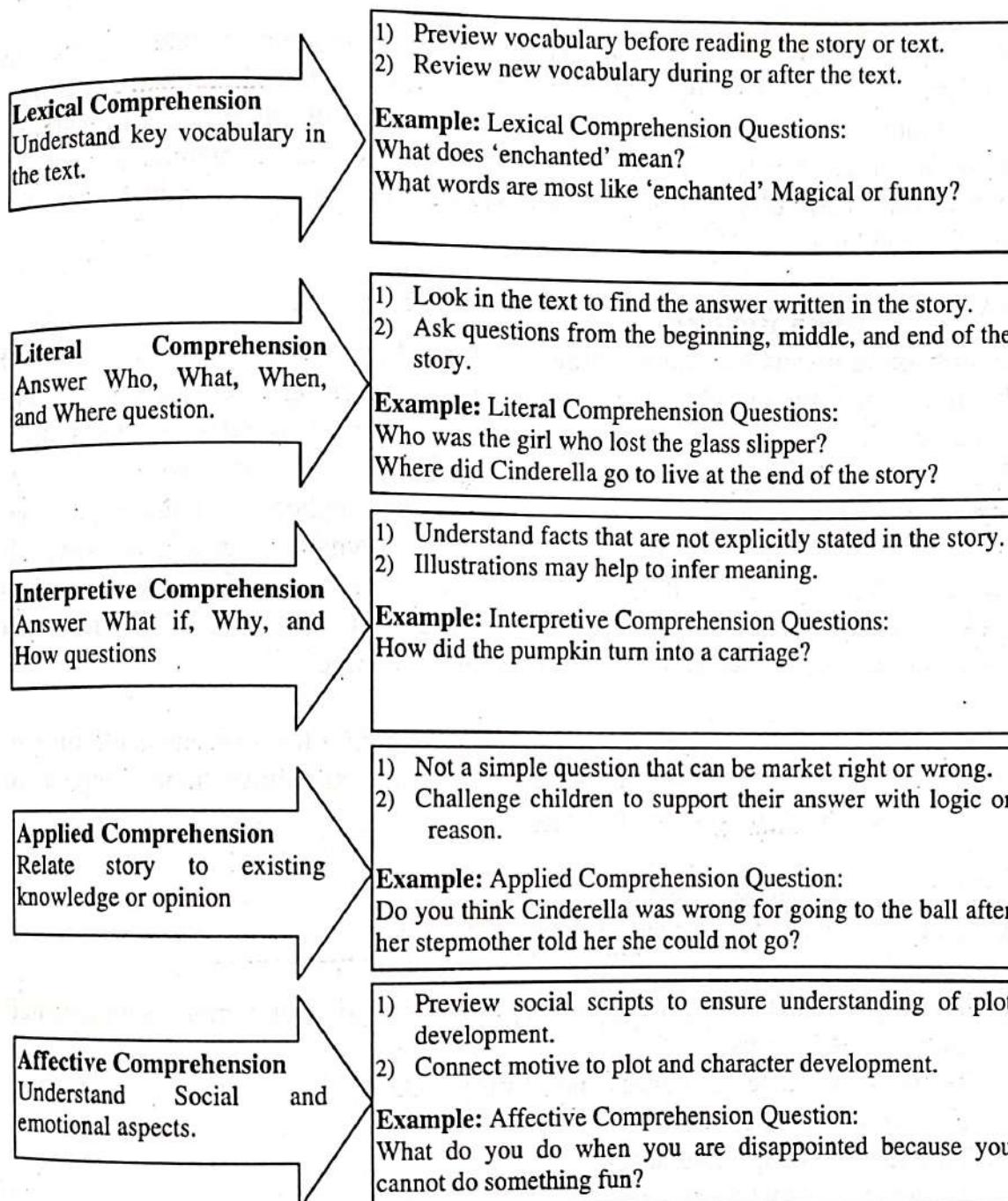
Reading comprehension involves two primary processes:

- 1) Decoding printed text, and
- 2) Understanding language accessed through the process of decoding.

5.2.2. Types of Reading Comprehension

Five levels of reading comprehension can be taught to children:

- 1) Lexical Comprehension,
- 2) Literal Comprehension,
- 3) Interpretive Comprehension,
- 4) Applied Comprehension, and
- 5) Affective Comprehension.



5.2.3. Reading Comprehension Levels

Reading comprehension involves two levels of processing:

- 1) **Shallow (low-level) Processing:** Shallow processing involves structural and phonemic recognition, the processing of sentence and word structure and their associated sounds.
- 2) **Deep (high-level) Processing:** Deep processing involves semantic processing, which happens when we encode the meaning of a word and relate it to similar words.

5.2.4. Loud Reading *versus* Silent Reading

Reading education materials is one of the important early aspects in the process of learning and being educated. Generally, people do reading in two ways such as loud reading and silent reading. Knowing the difference between loud and silent reading is vital to an individual's educational lifetime.

The successful evolution of loud reading to silent reading includes learning to give proper attention to different kinds of reading material, determining the most important ideas of reading text, grasping main ideas with minimum eye fixations, trying together closely related ideas in the text, achieving comprehension of the text without difficulty, and subconsciously determining what might be best for recollection later.

5.2.4.1. Loud Reading

Loud reading means just that—reading aloud. In observing the students, it is found that until about the eighth grade, students have a listening level that significantly surpasses their reading level. When the teachers read aloud to students, they engage them in texts that they might not be able to read. In the process, teachers expand their imaginations, provide new knowledge, support language acquisition, build vocabulary, and promote reading as a worthwhile, enjoyable activity. All students, from pre-school through high school, can benefit from being read to loud. Listening to a fluent, expressive and animated reader can help students to make connections between written and spoken language.

Loud reading may be defined as “a strategy in which a teacher sets aside time to read orally to students on a consistent basis from texts above their independent reading level but at their listening level”.

Objectives of Loud Reading

Its main objectives of loud reading are as follows:

- 1) Identify spoken words and sentences.
- 2) To help children to develop stronger vocabularies and more sophisticated language structures.
- 3) To introduce different genres and writing styles.
- 4) To increase attention span.
- 5) To strengthen cognitive ability.
- 6) To enhance effectiveness.
- 7) Use repetition, rhyme, and rhythm in oral texts.
- 8) Use appropriate grammar, language, and vocabulary learned to describe ideas.
- 9) Recognise formal and informal speaking.

Benefit/Importance of Loud Reading

Loud reading is important for speaking development of child. Its importance is as follows:

- 1) Loud reading is the foundation for literacy development. It is the single most important activity for reading success.

- 2) Loud reading demonstrates the relationship between the printed words and meaning, children understand that print tells a story or conveys information and invites the listener into a conversation with the author.
- 3) It provides children with a demonstration of phrased, fluent reading.
- 4) It reveals the rewards of reading, and develops the listener's interest in books and desire to be a reader.
- 5) It exposes less able readers to the same rich and engaging books that fluent readers read on their own, and entices them to become better readers. Students of any age benefit from hearing an experienced reading of a wonderful book.
- 6) The single most important activity you can do to build the knowledge students require for eventual success in reading is to read aloud to them.
- 7) Students can listen on a higher language level than they can read, so reading aloud makes complex ideas more accessible to students and exposes them to vocabulary and language patterns that are not part of their everyday speech. This, in turn, helps students understand the structure of books when they read independently.
- 8) The reader's pauses and emphases allow students to better understand the phrasing and fluency of the language and to hear new vocabulary and the way the words are used.
- 9) Listening to others read helps students to develop key understanding and skills, such as an appreciation for how a story is written and familiarity with book conventions, such as 'once upon a time' and 'happily ever after'.

Loud Reading for Elementary Students

Loud reading for elementary students, regardless of their reading ability, provides them with the understanding that print has meaning and can tell a story. Students can become familiar with the phrasing, expression, and flow of sentences in stories or texts that are read aloud to them. A student's listening level, the level of text that he or she can understand when it is read aloud, is far above the reading level until about eighth grade. When students listen to a text that is above their reading level, they comprehend more difficult and interesting material and broaden their vocabulary. Fourth-grade students can understand texts written on a seventh-grade level, and these texts are most often more interesting and complex than those students can read on their own.

Loud Reading for Middle and High School Students

Loud reading for middle and high school students can motivate them to read, enticing them with good storytelling and providing a model of excellent reading, phrasing, expression and pronunciation. Reading aloud to students whose second language is English can help them to make connections between written and spoken language.

If students follow along as you read aloud, they can see how the pauses in speech match the punctuation and structure of written sentences. This connection can also be reinforced by reading students' writing aloud to determine whether the

written phrases and sentences flow as they should. This should be done in a safe environment with students' permission, and students should be encouraged to read their own writing aloud to determine if revisions are needed.

It provides experiences for students to listen to fluent, expressive and animated readers. Reading aloud also provides a good forum for dialogue and interpretation. There are many texts, such as poetry, speeches, and plays that are meant to be read aloud and can take on a new meaning when performed. Encourage students to choose a particular character and discuss how the text can become more powerful, meaningful, and entertaining when read aloud as opposed to when it is read silently.

5.2.4.2. Silent Reading

Silent reading is different from loud reading as it involves students reading solely to themselves. This kind of reading is quite beneficial to both the teachers and the students. According to studies in the educational field, students who were given time to silently read and understand their topics had far better grades than other students.

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.

Silent reading is reading without pronouncing words out loud. It is reading to oneself.

Reading silently improves students' understanding because it helps them concentrate on what they are reading, rather than the pronunciation of individual words.

Objectives of Silent Reading

Some main objectives of silent reading are as follows:

- 1) To improves students' understanding.
- 2) To helps in concentrating during reading.
- 3) To form mental pictures of the topic being discussed.
- 4) To develop the strategies which are needed for reading fast, and with better comprehension?
- 5) More focus on maximum attention to meaning.

Benefits/Importance of Silent Reading

Benefits of silent reading are as follows:

- 1) It is beneficial in steady improvement of educational efficiency.
- 2) It is helpful in exploring a wide variety of reading materials.
- 3) It increases learning how to read with purpose and confidence in dealing with all forms of reading, whether for school, business or recreation.
- 4) It provides deeper insight of the text.

- 5) It is more effective. The reason for the effectiveness of silent reading is that there are no delays that are linked to the vocalisation of difficult words.
- 6) It avoids distraction. Silently reading is the most appropriate option in such cases as all students are encouraged to read at a pace that is comfortable to them.
- 7) Help in reading faster. Reading out loud slows down your reading speed.
- 8) It improves understanding.
- 9) Helps in ignoring unnecessary words.
- 10) Improves listening comprehension.
- 11) Provides various reading tasks.
- 12) Provides various pronunciation tasks.

5.2.4.3. Difference between Loud Reading and Silent Reading

The differences between loud reading and silent reading are given under following:

Table 5.1: Difference between Loud Reading and Silent Reading

| Basis of differences | Loud Reading | Silent Reading |
|----------------------|--|---|
| Meaning | Loud reading is a strategy in which a teacher sets aside time to read orally to students on a consistent basis from texts above their independent reading level but at their listening level | Silent reading is reading without pronouncing words out loud. It is reading to oneself. |
| Nature | Loud reading provides the thought from the printed page. | Silent reading is the activity of absorbing the thought from the text. |
| | Loud reading actually follows an instant recognition of a thought. | Silent readers immediately get the thought. |
| Process | Loud reading is a complex process which involves mental interpretations based on eye sweeps of the text accompanied by vocalisation. | Silent readers simply interpret the materials through a series of eye sweeps without delay resulting from vocalisation. |
| Importance | With loud readers, the pronunciation of the words is most important. | With silent readers, the meanings of the words are most important. |
| Benefit | Loud reading is vital in the beginning. | Silent reading is beneficial for lifetime. |

5.3. UNDERSTAND THE MEANING IN REFERENCE TO CONTEXT

5.3.1. Context

In writing, it is often necessary to provide new words, concepts and information to help in developing a thought. Context helps readers to understand what they otherwise would not be able to comprehend. It is a much-needed assistant, helping readers define unknown words and make sense of outside information.

Meaning is created not only through what speakers say to each other but also through what they do with words to satisfy the needs of their social environment. Meaning involves linguistic and situational factors where the context of language use is essential. This contextual use of language is what makes language unique to humans.

Meaning can also be related to social variables involved in language use. Notions of politeness, shared beliefs, cultural features and social organisation play an important role in the interpretation of meaning.

5.3.1.1. Types of Context

Context means a variety of things. Context can be linguistic, involving the linguistic environment of a language item, as well as situational, involving extra linguistic elements that contribute to the construction of meaning.

- 1) **Linguistic Context:** Linguistic context or verbal context refers to the linguistic environment in which a word is used within a text. As a matter of fact, understanding the meaning of vocabulary items using linguistic context may involve syntactic and morphological interpretation of the elements within a text. In other words, to determine the meaning of an item, it is necessary to know whether the item is a noun, a verb, an adjective or an adverb, functioning as a subject, a predicate or a complement. This information gives important clues to the meaning of the text. But it is not sufficient to provide a full understanding of utterances.
- 2) **Pragmatic or Situational Context:** Part of the pragmatic context is what makes it coherent, those elements that tell us who and what we are talking about. This is achieved by using features such as the use of deictic, anaphoric and cataphoric elements as well as other information implied in the text. Meaning can be inferred from the linguistic elements surrounding a word.

5.3.2. Reference

Reference is a relation between objects in which one object designates, or acts as a means by which to connect to or link to, another object. The first object in this relation is said to refer to the second object. The second object, the one to which the first object refers, is called the referent of the first object.

References can take on many forms, including a thought, a sensory perception that is audible (onomatopoeia), visual (text), olfactory, or tactile, emotional state, relationship with other, space time coordinate, symbolic or alphanumeric, a physical object or an energy projection. In some cases, methods are used that intentionally hide the reference from some observers, as in cryptography.

When discussing a quotation in reference to its context, you will provide information about certain specifics of the quotation or paragraph:

- 1) The work the quotation or paragraph is taken from;
- 2) The author of the work;
- 3) The type and form of the work (e.g., lyric poem, novel);
- 4) The location of the quotation in the work (beginning, middle, last stanza, etc.);
- 5) The situation, or the context, of the general work;
- 6) The context/situation of the quotation itself.

Reference to Context

For example, They laziness.

The quotation occurs in the humorous travelogue novel 'Three Men in a Boat' (To Say Nothing of the Dog) written by Jerome K. Jerome. It occurs at the beginning of the novel in Chapter I. The novel satirically explores society in Victorian England through a boating journey three hypochondriacal young men, and a dog, take down the River Thames. In the lines referenced, the narrator is discussing an earlier view of his lifelong illness, which was, he suggests, chronically misdiagnosed as laziness.

Explanation

The explanation progresses through three steps:

- 1) The first step of the one-paragraph explanation is to provide a brief one-sentence statement (occasionally two brief sentences) of the meaning of the quotation. To do so, consider literary or poetic devices (depending on the work quoted) employed in the quotation to discover the hidden, deep figurative meaning of the literal words.
- 2) The second step is to elaborate on the meaning of the devices, e.g., the meaning of symbolic or metaphorical or satirical devices in the quotation; to put it differently, 'bring out the meaning' of the devices.
- 3) The third step (and this will usually occupy the majority of the explanation paragraph) is to tell about (or relate) the 'relevance and beauty' of the identified devices and to comment on, by providing your logically developed opinion based on clear evidence, the effect the devices have in the work.

5.4. SCHEMA THEORY OF READING

5.4.1. Concept of Schema Theory

Concept of schema theory is based on one of the cognitivist learning theories. It was first introduced by British psychologist **Sir Frederic Bartlett** in 1932. Some other thinkers considered that it was first introduced in 1926 by **Jean Piaget** and was further developed mostly in 1970s by American educational psychologist **Richard Anderson**. Schema theory describes that how knowledge is acquired, processed and organised. The starting assumption of this theory is that "very act of comprehension involves one's knowledge of the world". According to this theory, knowledge is a network of mental frames or cognitive constructs called schema (pl. schemata). Schemata organise knowledge stored in the long-term memory.

The term schema is nowadays often used even outside cognitive psychology and refers to a mental framework humans use to represent and organise remembered information. Schema present our personal simplified view over reality derived from our experience and prior knowledge, they enable us to recall, modify our behaviour, concentrate attention on key information, or try to predict most likely outcomes of events.

5.4.2. Meaning and Definitions of Schema Theory

Schema theory is an explanation of how readers use prior knowledge to comprehend and learn from text. The term "schema" was first used in psychology by **Barlett** as "an active organisation of past reactions or experiences". After some time it was introduced in reading by **Rumelhart (1980)**, **Carrell (1981)** and **Hudson (1982)** when discussing the important role of background knowledge in reading comprehension.

In 1932, **Bartlett defined the schema** as... an active organisation of past reactions, which must always be supposed to be operating in any well-adapted organic response. That is, whenever there is any order or regularity of behaviour, a particular response is possible only because it is related to other similar responses which have been serially organised, yet which operate, not simply as individual members coming one after another, but as a unitary mass.

A schema is an abstract structure of knowledge, a mental representation stored in memory upon which all information processing depends. It may represent knowledge at different levels, e.g. cultural truths, linguistic knowledge or ideologies. They are mental templates that represent a person's knowledge about people, situations or objects and which originate from prior knowledge or experiences.

Rumelhart (1980) define schema as "a data structure for representing the genetic concepts stored in memory".

Anderson and Pearson (1984) define it as "an abstract knowledge structure".

Medinand Russ (1992) simply put schema as "a general knowledge structure used for understanding".

Widdowson defined schema as "cognitive constructs which allow for the organisation of information in a long-term memory".

The fundamental tenet of schema theory assumes that written text does not carry meaning by itself. Rather, a text only provides directions for readers as to how they should retrieve or construct meaning from their own previously acquired knowledge. This previously knowledge is called the readers' background knowledge (prior knowledge), and the previously acquired knowledge structures are called schemata. The schemata of a reader are organising in a hierarchical manner, with the most general at the top down to the most specific at the bottom.

According to schema theory, comprehending a text is an interactive process between the reader's background knowledge and the text. Efficient comprehension requires the ability to relate the textual material to one's own knowledge.

5.4.3. Characteristics of Schema Theory

Schema has various characteristics:

- 1) Schemas are dynamic. They develop and change based on new information and experiences and thereby supports the notion of plasticity in development.
- 2) Schemas guide how we interpret new information and may be quite powerful in their influence.
- 3) Schemas, or schemata, store both declarative ("what") and procedural ("how") information.
- 4) Schema is abstract mental structure.
- 5) People use these structures to understand the world.
- 6) People use schemata to organise current knowledge and provide a framework for future understanding.
- 7) The use of schemata makes the automatic processing an effortless task.
- 8) People can quickly organise new perceptions into schemata and act effectively without effort.
- 9) When learners build schemata and make connections between ideas, learning is maximally facilitated and is optimally made more meaningful.
- 10) Prior knowledge is important and is a prerequisite for the understanding of new information.
- 11) Internal conflict may arise when new information does not fit with existing schemata.
- 12) People's schemata have a tendency to remain unchanged, even in the face of contradictory information. In other words, it is difficult to change existing schemata. People tend to live with inconsistencies rather than change a deeply rooted mental structure.

5.4.4. Types of Schema

According to the nature of contents, different types of schemata have been suggested. These are as follows:

1) **Formal Schema:** It is the organisational forms and rhetorical structures of written texts. They include knowledge of different text types and genres, and also include the knowledge that different types of texts use text organisation, language structures, vocabulary, grammar and level of formality differently.

Formal schema is described as abstract, encoded, internalised, coherent patterns of meta-linguistic, discourse and textual organisation that guide expectation in our attempts to understand a meaning piece of language.

Richards et al. (2000) pointed out that schema or macro-structure refers to the underlying structure which accounts for the organisation of a text or discourse. Different kinds of texts and discourse (e.g. stories, description, letters, reports, poems) are distinguished by the ways in which the topic, propositions, and other information are linked together to form a unit. This underlying structure is known as formal schema. For example, the schema underlying many stories consist of a setting in which the time, place, and characters are identified, followed by episodes leading towards a reaction.

Readers use their schematic representations of the text such as fictions, poems, essays, newspaper articles, academic articles in magazines and journals to help comprehend the information in the text.

2) **Content Schema:** It refers to the background knowledge of the content area of a text, or the topic a text talks about. They include topic familiarity, cultural knowledge and previous experience with a field. Content schema deal with the knowledge relative to the content domain of the text, which is the key to understanding of texts. Since one language is not only the simple combination of vocabulary, sentence structure and grammar but also the bearer of different levels of the language's culture. To some extent, content schema can make up for the lack of language schema, and thus help learners understand texts by predicting, choosing information and removing ambiguities.

3) **Cultural Schema:** More general aspects of cultural knowledge are shared by larger sections of a cultural population.

4) **Language Schema:** Language schema refers to the knowledge about vocabulary and grammar. It plays a basic role in a comprehensive understanding of the text. Eskey (1988) claims that "good readers are both decoders and interpreters of texts, their decoding skills becoming more automatic but no less important as their reading skill develops". This is because that "Language is major problem in second language reading, and that even educated guessing at meaning is no substitute for accurate decoding". In other words, successful comprehension of any text is impossible without effective decoding skills.

Language schemata refer to the readers' existing language proficiency in vocabulary, grammar and idioms. They are the foundation of other schemata. As is known, linguistic knowledge plays an essential part in text comprehension. Without linguistic schemata, it is impossible for the reader to decode and comprehend a text. Therefore, the more linguistic schemata a reader has in his mind, the faster the reader acquires information and the better understanding the reader may get.

5.4.5. Applications of Schema Theory

Schema theory emphasises importance of general knowledge and concepts that will help forming schemata. In educational process the task of teachers would be to help learners to develop new schemata and establish connections between them. Also, due to the importance of prior knowledge, teachers should make sure that students have it. "The schemata a person already possesses are a principal determiner of what will be learned from a new text." Schema theory has been applied in various areas like:

- 1) **Motor Learning:** Schema theory was extended to schema theory of discrete motor learning in 1975 by **Richard Schmidt**. **Wulf** has shown that developing a motor schema has resulted in better performance in children when learning a motor task.
- 2) **Reading Comprehension:** Schema theory is often used to assist second language learning since it often contains reading a lot of texts in the target language. Failure to activate adequate schema when reading a text has shown to result in bad comprehension. Various methods have been proposed for dealing with this issue including giving students texts in their first language on certain topic about which they will later read in target language.
- 3) **Mathematical Problem Solving:** A research conducted by researcher show that 3rd graders taught to using schemata to solve mathematical problems formulated in words performed better than their peers who were taught to solve them in four steps:
 - i) Read and understand,
 - ii) Plan to solve,
 - iii) Solve, and
 - iv) Look back and check.

5.4.6. Importance of Schema Theory

The importance of schema theory to reading comprehension also lies in how the reader uses schemata. This issue has not yet been resolved by research, although investigators agree that some mechanism activates just those schemata most relevant to the reader's task. Schema theory has great importance in learning. It is important in follows:

- 1) **Anticipating:** With the schemata, the readers can guess the type of the text, can have different anticipation towards the topics of different types of texts, and especially, the readers can guess the latter context of the text with the help of the former context of the text.

- 2) **Supplementary Function:** When readers find certain specific or essential information is insufficient in the reading material. They will activate the corresponding psychological schema and supplement the information related to the material during the reading process.
- 3) **Selective Process:** One aspect of this function is that when the schema is activated during the reading process, it constantly selects the most appropriate part to explain the reading material from the schema net structure. Another aspect is that when reading is finished, the schema will help to sort up its own instrument. The three functions relate to each other and work together to understand the text.
- 4) **Reading Comprehension:** Schema plays an important role in reading comprehension. Linguists, cognitive psychologists, and psycholinguists have used the concept of schema to understand the interaction of key factors affecting the comprehension process.

5.4.7. Text Structure

Text structure refers to how the information within a written text is organised. This strategy helps students to understand that a text might present a main idea and details; a cause and then its effects; and/or different views of a topic. Teaching students to recognise common text structures can help students monitor their comprehension.

Text structure refers to the ways that authors organise information in text. Teaching students to recognise the underlying structure of content-area texts can help students to focus attention on key concepts and relationships, anticipate what is to come, and monitor their comprehension as they read.

Teachers can use this strategy with the whole class, small groups, or individually. Students learn to identify and analyse text structures which helps students to navigate the various structures presented within nonfiction and fiction text. As a follow up, having students write paragraphs that follow common text structures helps students to recognise these text structures when they are reading.

5.4.7.1. Forms of Text

The text can be classified according to text-external criteria and the text-internal criteria. The **text-external criteria** are related to the communication situation, such as the report, poem, joke, letter, advertisement, note, story, lecture, etc., while the **text-internal criteria** are related to the form and content. A text can be classified as an expository text, a descriptive text, a narrative text, an argumentative text, a persuasive text, an evaluative text, and a procedural text.

There is, actually, another method to classify texts from the text form and the content structure with the internal criteria. The following are some kinds of the most practical patterns:

- 1) **Problem-Solution Pattern:** This pattern focus on the problem and solution criteria of text.

- 2) **Claim-Counterclaim Pattern:** In this pattern, the author first raises a claim or opinion generally accepted or partly accepted, and thus puts forward his own claim or opinion to counter-claim.
- 3) **Narrative Pattern:** Nearly all the writings will occur more or less in narrative patterns. The most important example is from narrative structural pattern. Six elements – abstraction, orientation, complicating events, evaluation, and resolution.
- 4) **Question-Answer Pattern:** It is similar to the problem solution pattern, but it always sets a question which is distinct and express in a questioning mode. And the development of the text is mainly to search a satisfying answer to the question.
- 5) **General-Specific Pattern:** It can also be called as general-particular pattern, general-example pattern, and preview-detailed pattern. In practical text, one pattern can occur independently, or combined with other patterns to form larger text.

Common Text Structures

Educators generally agree as to the five most common non-fiction text structures. These are as follows:

- 1) **Compare and Contrast Structures:** This structure look at two or more item simultaneously to show similarities and differences.
- 2) **Problem and Solution Structures:** This structure describes a problem and gives a solution.
- 3) **Cause and Effect Structures:** This structure gives a reason and an explanation for events.
- 4) **Description Structures:** This structure helps the reader to form images or visualise processes.
- 5) **Sequence or Time Order Structures:** This structure presents ideas or events in the order in which they occur.

5.4.7.2. Reasons of Teaching Text Structures

Text structures need to be taught intentionally and individually. Each of the structures should be modelled by the teacher using good pieces of non-fiction. Usually it is a good idea to start this text structure study with a picture book off several grade levels below the level of instruction. After the students have grasped the idea of the structure using isolated pieces, then they will be able to pull out the structure in the paragraphs of a more complex grade level piece of writing.

Text structures should be taught to older children for a variety of reasons, such as the following:

- 1) Seeing patterns in texts give students a comfort zone that strengthens their comprehension;
- 2) Knowing how authors structure their writing to help students navigate through a more challenging text with confidence;

- 3) It helps students to anticipate content and make predictions;
- 4) It helps students to make connections with other similarly constructed books. When connections are made, students hold onto the content more easily.
- 5) Students will transfer these structures into their own writing;
- 6) The reader is trained to see clue words that signal a particular structure making what is read easier to remember; and
- 7) It allows students to work with specific graphic organisers that match-up with a particular structure.

5.4.8. Content Area Reading

Content area reading is the reading that a person (usually a student) needs to complete and understand in a particular subject area. The content areas typically included in this definition are science, social studies/history and math, but any area outside of English literature instruction constitutes a content area. The reading associated with content area courses reflects not only the concepts and ideas important to these subjects, but also the text structures used by those practicing the field.

Content area reading refers to helping students better understand what they read in a particular content area course. It has been broadened in recent years to integrate reading, writing, talking, listening, and viewing in text-related learning.

5.4.8.1. Content

Curriculum content is a body of facts, ideas, concepts and skills that are presented, discussed and involved in the course. The content selected should reflect the pre-determined curriculum objectives and experiences needed by the learner.

The content is:

- 1) United with the goals and objectives of the basic education curriculum.
- 2) Responds to the needs of the learner,
- 3) Includes cognitive skill and affective elements,
- 4) Fully and deeply covers the essential to avoid the "mile-wide-and- inch-deep" impression,
- 5) That is of use to the learners,
- 6) That is practical and achievable,

5.4.8.2. Purposes of Content Selection

The main purposes of a content selection are:

- 1) To help in organising materials,
- 2) To help in a sequential relationship of material,
- 3) To present material basic to a general understanding of a course,
- 4) To furnish a source of valuable information, and
- 5) To present application.

5.4.8.3. Guidelines for Content Selection

The selection of content should follow some guidelines as mentioned below:

- 1) **Prioritise:** Select what is basically needed in specific circumstances. It should therefore not be overcrowded.
- 2) **Balance:** Ensure that the content is properly balanced in terms of time and resources available.
- 3) **Completeness:** It should properly cater for all the three domains psychomotor (hand skills), cognitive (head-knowledge) and affective (heart-attitudes/values).
- 4) **Sequence:** It should be properly sequenced, i.e., simple to complex, known to unknown and spiralled.
- 5) **Comprehensiveness:** It should include all the necessary details needed by a specific learner.

5.4.8.4. Criteria for the Selection of Content

Selection of content is always based on the following criteria:

- 1) **Philosophical:** The knowledge we select must be of established value to participants and the society they are going to serve after learning.
- 2) **Psychological:** This means that what is selected should meet the needs and interests of the learners. The psychology of adult learners should be learned and applied.
- 3) **Sociological/Cultural:** What society has achieved, its institutions, aspirations, traditions, beliefs, etc., should guide selection of content. This is because some of these will themselves form the content of courses. **For example**, in many countries, today we have issues of gender, environment, self-reliance, poverty alleviation, addiction, HIV/AIDS, small scale enterprises, e.g., ICT cafes. These are social issues that should be considered when developing curricula.

5.4.8.5. Organisation of Content

It demands thorough understanding of the teaching learning process. Important aspects for this:

- 1) **Sequencing:** It means putting the content and materials into some sort of order of succession.
- 2) **Continuity:** Content should provide continuity learning and prevent loss through forgetting. The students should be provided with experiences step by step.
- 3) **Integration:** learning is more effective when facts and principles from one field can be related to another, especially when applying knowledge.

Any curriculum content needs to be properly selected and organised. The following include the different ways of organising content:

- 1) **Chronological Order:** Selecting and sequencing content in order of how things happened, e.g., what happened first, followed, etc.

- 2) **Causes and Effect:** The underlying principles resulting into knowledge.
- 3) **Structural Logic:** This refers to the use of normal procedure to organise content, e.g., wearing a vest before a shirt.
- 4) **Problem Centred:** Basing on a problem to learn.
- 5) **Spiral:** Continuous re-introduction of the main ideas of a topic as you proceed to the next topic or level.
- 6) **Psychological:** Organising content basing it on the interest of the learners. All these are just some of the ways in which content can be organised. As one organises the content you have to determine the learning experiences.

5.4.8.6. **Concerns of Content Selection**

There are various concerns related with content selection. Some of mentioned below:

- 1) **Constant Demands Faced in Curriculum Planning:** One of the constant demands faced in curriculum planning is to create new subjects, add new topics, and include material favoured by various interest groups. This is a healthy trend in a democracy as it expresses public expectations from education and sees curriculum planning as a contested area open for negotiation. But this demand can become problematic in the absence of well-defined criteria for content selection and organisation of content in subject areas, and that is the situation we are facing today.
- 2) **Problem of Curricular Load:** The problem of curricular load is substantially the problem of a jumbled heap of information in absence of organising principles and conceptual frameworks for investigation and understanding. Both these problems are debated at present more from the pedagogical point of view (the child cannot learn so much at such and such a stage) and from standards' point of view (if our children do not learn this much, we as a nation will always remain backward).
- 3) **Differences in Social Views:** The perspective of social relevance surfaces only in the context of some issues. The social vision and epistemological considerations have a lot of potential for arbitrating in this debate and that potential remains unexplored.
- 4) **Unorganised Curricula:** School curricula are usually organised in various subjects. The subjects themselves have their basis in traditions and disciplinary knowledge. Though the subject-based organisation of curriculum is largely accepted, this is also criticised for putting knowledge in watertight compartments, and thereby, fragmentising it. This alluded 'fragmentation' of knowledge is said to be alien to the child's way of looking at the world and, therefore, is unsuitable for developing a proper understanding of the world in which the child lives.
- 5) **Introduction of New Subjects:** Another related problem is concerned with adequate basis for introduction of new subjects or reorganisation of the existing subject areas.

The issues of what should be included in the curriculum and proper sequencing of what is selected for inclusion are constantly debated. Many consider the lack of clarity on criteria for making choices on these issues as the main cause of increasing curricular load. In brief, the issues of basis of subject areas, inclusion of subject areas in curriculum, selection of content in each subject area and its sequencing, integrated curriculum, theme-based teaching, relative weightage given to subject areas in terms of teaching time and marks allocation, and curricular load are all related to the criteria for selection and organisation of the curricular knowledge.

It is suggested that the problem of selection and organisation of curricular knowledge should be considered from at least four different perspectives; those of aims of education, epistemological, child's learning and mental development, and the child's context.

5.4.8.7. Principles of Subject Content

The main principles of subject content are as follows:

- 1) The course content must be significant in the same field of knowledge.
- 2) The subject matter selected must possess the principle of survival.
- 3) The subject matter must have the principle of interest.
- 4) The content or subject matter must be utilised.
- 5) The course content selected should contribute to the development of society.

5.5. EXERCISE

5.5.1. Very Short Answer Type Questions

- 1) Define reading.
- 2) What is skimming reading?
- 3) What is scanning reading?
- 4) Describe loud reading.
- 5) Describe silent reading.

5.5.2. Short Answer Type Questions

- 1) Write a short note on skimming reading.
- 2) Write a short note on scanning reading.
- 3) What is difference between loud reading and silent reading?
- 4) Briefly describe applications of schema theory.
- 5) What is text structure?

5.5.3. Long Answer Type Questions

- 1) What is reading? Explain need and importance of reading.
- 2) Focus on skimming and scanning reading in detail.
- 3) What is schema theory? Focus on text structures and application of schema theory.
- 4) Discuss and describe information extraction from books.
- 5) Focus on to understanding the meaning in reference to context?

CHAPTER 6

Writing to Learn and Understand

6.1. WRITING

6.1.1. Meaning and Definitions of Writing

Writing is a form of communication that allows students to put their feelings and ideas on paper, to organise their knowledge and beliefs into convincing arguments and to convey meaning through well-constructed text. In its most advanced form, written expression can be as vivid as a work of art. As children learn the steps of writing, and as they build new skills upon old, writing evolves from the first simple sentences to elaborate stories and essays. Spelling, vocabulary, grammar, and organisation come together and grow together to help the student to demonstrate more advanced writing skills each year.

Grabe and Kaplan (1996), in their book 'Theory and Practice of Writing', explore the meaning of writing in terms of the rhetorical triangle in writing. And such triangle consists of the reader, the recipient of the final product of the writing process; the writer, the originator of the message; and the subject matter and text itself. Both the writer and the reader have to consider all these aspects when writing and reading, respectively, for each one plays a significant role in the journey towards meaning.

'Writing' can be defined as the process of using symbols (letters of the alphabet, punctuation and spaces) to communicate thoughts and ideas in a readable form.

In other words, writing can be expressed as a medium of human communication that represents language and emotion through the inscription or recording of signs and symbols.

According to Meyers, "Writing is a way to product language, which you do naturally when you speak. Writing is a communication with other in a verbal way. Writing is also an action a process of discovering and organising your idea, putting them on paper and reshaping and revising them".

According to Klein (1985), "Writing is the ability to put pen and paper to express ideas through symbols. This way, representations on the paper will have meaning and content that could be communicated to other people by the writer".

According to Michael (1981), "Writing could be a semantically visible and permanent representation of the auditory and transient phenomena of speech".

According to Byner, "Writing is a primary means of recording speech, even though it must be acknowledge as a secondary medium of communication".

Writing is a matter of elaborating text in accordance with what the writer can reasonably assume that the reader knows and expects. And process of reading is a matter of predicting text in accord with the reader assumes about the writer's purpose.

In most languages, writing is a complement to speech or spoken language. Writing is a method of representing language in visual or tactile form. Writing systems use sets of symbols to represent the sounds of speech, and may also have symbols for such things as punctuation and numerals. Writing is about more than making our thoughts and idea visible and concrete.

6.1.1.1. Types of Writing

There are different types of writing, some main are as follows:

- 1) **Expository Writing:** It is a general form of writing which consists of all types of essays. The main purpose of expository writing is to explain a concept or idea while including details for support. Such writing is usually based on a subject and therefore requires facts not opinions, e.g., and supportive details. This type of writing is generally used in textbooks or 'how to' articles and essays. An expository style of writing is more formal and straightforward, so the casual language or slang word is not acceptable.
- 2) **Persuasive Writing:** It is in some cases similar to expository writing. Persuasive writing is usually found in article and essay form. It also relies on specific details and examples for support; however, persuasive writing does not rely heavily on facts. In a persuasive piece, the writer is often expressing an opinion and trying to persuade the audience to do something or to agree with the writer's point of view. It must be clear and concise, but it can also be a bit more forceful and dramatic to help convince the reader.
- 3) **Descriptive Writing:** Fiction and poetry are filled with descriptive language, since the purpose is not to inform but to entertain. Someone may read this type of writing to enjoy the beauty of the language and writing itself. Therefore, this style tends to use more adjectives and adverbs, as well as figurative language and imagery, to create detail that allows the reader to envision the scenery and events in their minds.
- 4) **Narrative Writing:** It is like descriptive writing. Narrative writing will use more descriptive language and imagery, because the author wants the reader to imagine the characters, scenes, and setting in order to become part of the story's world and to connect to its plot. It aims to entertain the reader; however, instead of trying to entertain the reader with beauty of its language, the writer is trying to tell a story. If an author adopts an expository writing style to tell a story, the author can quickly bore the reader.

6.1.1.2. Importance of Writing

Following points reflect the importance of writing:

- 1) **It Helps in Securing a Job:** If one's writing skill is effective, it can provide a lot of job opportunities to him. If anyone wants to choose a new career or he wants to progress in the current one, his way of expression becomes quite

67 Per D

imagination in to win the reader

ST 62

MR 62

N

important as it can set him apart from the rest. Clear, to the point, and precise communication is considered as an important quality of a person. In other words, if one's CV or resume is written in difficult language, having many grammatical mistakes, or is difficult to understand then it would be rejected.

- 2) **It Helps in Achieving High Positions:** If a person is good at writing, he may quickly achieve the higher positions in the hierarchy. Effectiveness of communication directly affects the promotion prospects, which in turn directly affects the growth of salary. It does not mean that effective writing skills can suddenly take a person to a CEO or Chairman's position but it can surely differentiate a person from others.
- 3) **It is Crucial for Some Professions:** Some professions such as journalism, paralegal or public relations, writing, editing, etc., require effective writing skills mandatorily. Because in such professions, one is employed for that purpose only. But now-a-days, the ability to communicate effectively is becoming an essential requirement in other types of jobs as well. The reason behind it is that the need of written communication may arise in any profession and for that they must have the personnel who are good at writing.
- 4) **It Promotes Effective Communication:** In today's world written communication is mostly done through e-mails, notes, letters, SMSs, and tweets. Hence, no matter to whom a person is writing, be it his friend, colleague, subordinate, supervisor, etc., he must be good at writing because his career can prosper or fail depending upon his writing skills. The way one writes, reflects the way he encounters with other people.
- 5) **It Increases Credibility:** If a person is having good writing skills, he is considered trustworthy. Suppose an e-mail is having plenty of grammatical and spelling mistakes, then its sender is considered to be as an inefficient person who did not even reviewed his message before sending it. It may also be interpreted that he has less knowledge of grammar. On the other hand, good writers, who have flawless writing skills, are generally interpreted as more competent than the former ones.

Specificability

6.1.2. Meaning and Definitions of Writing Skills

Writing skills are specific abilities which help writers to put their thoughts into words in a meaningful form and to mentally interact with the message. Writing is not just about conveying content but also about the representation of self. How we write, whatever we write. Writing skills help the learner to gain independence, comprehensibility, fluency and creativity in writing.

ICF 3G

Writing skill is one of the productive skills that should be mastered in using a language. It is because writing skill has significances in improving a communicative competence of learning the language. Writing is a productive process done through some stages. Firstly, exploring and transmitting ideas, thought and feeling into written form. Secondly, conducting a number of revising process to carry out a grammatically and orderly texts. The writing productions

are in the forms of readable texts which should be meaningful to everyone who read the writing. Writing skill is a complex activity in producing a qualified writing.

The complex activity consists of stages as the steps in writing. To improve students' writing skill, the teaching and learning process of writing needs to be done well with developed input and effective activities. As a result, teachers need to consider the teaching of writing skill well based on their student's needs, ability and capacity.

According to Murcia and Olshtain (2000), "Writing skill is the production of written words that results in a text, and the text must be read and comprehended in order for communication to take place."

According to Tarigan (1985), "Writing is productive skills for writing an indirect communication and the nature of the character is very different from that expressed by speaking directly, therefore writing is included an ability".

According to Harmer, "Writing is a form of communication to deliver through or to express feeling through written form".

Suparno, Jonah argues that writing is a series of activities going on and involves several phases, the preparatory phase, the content development and review, as well as revisions or improvements posts.

Activities is not easy to write because writing should be able to produce something new and can give you an idea or ideas to the reader through writing. Another definition of writing is proposed by Nation who states that writing is an activity that can usefully be prepared for by work in other skills of listening, speaking, and reading. This preparation can make it possible for words that have been used receptively to come into productive use.

6.1.2.1. Characteristics of Writing Skills

Chief characteristics of writing skills are as follows:

- 1) Completeness: Writing skills provide completeness and all needed information is provided.
- 2) Correctness: It put words together in correct word order and uses vocabulary correctly. It enhances correctness and relevancy and precise information is given.
- 3) Credibility: It should support the credibility of the writing.
- 4) Clarity: Make the main sentence constituents, such as subject, verb and object, clear the reader. Writing skills increase clarity of the topic.
- 5) Conciseness: It should be concise.
- 6) Consideration: It should anticipate the reader's reaction.
- 7) Vitality: Make the text coherent.

6.1.2.2. Need of Writing Skills

The need of writing skills can be understood in this way that the writing skill is the way to inform, educate, entertain, persuade and motivate. This can be expressed as:

- 1) **To Inform:** Writing to inform tells the audience about a person, place, thing or idea in a neutral, unbiased and fair manner. Informative writing seeks fairness because objectivity is impossible. The background and beliefs of the writer distort and skew attempts at objectivity. Instead of striving for objectivity, the information writer aims for even-handedness researching a topic from multiple points of view before sharing the findings in a straightforward manner. Informed writing requires honest self-analysis, plus accuracy in research, followed by the services of a skilled editor to eliminate any biases. According to their own training and ethics, news reporters should write to inform with fairness, not objectivity.
- 2) **To Educate:** Educational writing begins at the knowledge level of the audience and increases their learning. More than reporting information, writing to educate explains the meanings of personalities, locations, events, objects and concepts. The educational writer studies audiences to meet their intellectual expectations. Researching with accuracy keeps this type of writing interesting and fair.
- 3) **To Entertain:** Writing to entertain is often the most effective means of transmitting a message. While there is no guarantee of successful results, amusing the audience may open otherwise closed minds. Writing to lighten the heart has the ability to remove the dread from frightening events and alarming ideas. In a world overly burdened by solemnity, a merry hearted delivery of serious content can keep audiences interested. Even so, the entertaining writer must research with accuracy and write with fairness and sensitivity.
- 4) **To Persuade:** Persuasive writing presents supportive arguments for a specific point of view. These favourable defences must be, if not so critically logical, atleast thoughtful and reasonable. Importantly, this type of writing should acknowledge the positive values in other opinions. Showing this courtesy to alternative viewpoints adds confident strength to any argument.

Persuasive writing should concentrate on ideas and actions, addressing personalities only when essential to the argument. It also requires the foundation of accurate research.

- 5) **To Motivate:** Motivational writing seeks to prompt people to action. Where persuasive writing asks for consideration of an opinion, writing to motivate requests changes in behaviour. Unlike persuasive writing, motivational writing can ignore thoughtful and reasonable arguments. Appeals for emotional responses are common, often disregarding sensible evidence. Conversely, calls for action can result from carefully considered lines of reasoning. Whether emotional or rational, motivational writing requires careful research and thought.

6.1.2.3. Types of Writing Skills

Types of writing skills to perform writing should be based on the students' level and capacity. According to Brown, there are five major categories of classroom writing performance:

- 1) **Imitative or Writing Down:** This type is at the beginning level of learning to write. Students will simply write down English letter, words, and possibly sentences in order to learn the conventions of the orthographic code.
- 2) **Intensive or Controlled:** This intensive writing typically appears in controlled, written grammar exercises. This type of writing does not allow much creativity on the part of the writer. A controlled writing is to present in which the students have to alter a given structure throughout.
- 3) **Self-Writing:** The most salient instance of this category in classroom is note-taking by the students. Diary or journal writing also falls into this category.
- 4) **Display Writing:** For all language students, short answer exercises, essay examinations and research reports will involve an element of display. One of the academic skills of ESL students that they need to master is a whole array of display writing techniques.
- 5) **Real Writing:** Some classroom writing aims at the genuine communication of messages to an audience in need of those messages.

Writing skills may be in following forms:

- 1) **Comprehensibility Skills:** It includes understanding that writing is communicating message or information.
- 2) **Fluency Skills:** It includes recognising the linear sequence of sounds, mastering writing motions and letter shapes, recognising the chunking of words, recognising the need for space between words, writing quickly.
- 3) **Creativity Skills:** It includes the ability to write freely anything which learner wants to write.
- 4) **Micro Skills of Writing:** It uses the correct forms of the words. This may mean using forms that express the right tense, case or gender.

6.1.2.4. Developing Writing Skills

To develop writing skill following method should be adopted:

- 1) **Create an Outline:** This is especially helpful if you are writing a longer document such as a report, presentation, or speech. Outlines help you to identify which steps to take in which order, and they help you break the task up into manageable pieces of information.
- 2) **Use AIDA Model:** If you are writing something that must inspire action in the reader, follow the Attention-Interest-Desire-Action (AIDA) model. These four steps can help guide you through the writing process.
- 3) **Identifying Main Theme:** If you are having trouble defining the main theme of your message, pretend that you have 15 seconds to explain your position. What do you say? This is likely to be your main theme.
- 4) **Use Simple Language:** Unless you are writing a scholarly article, it is usually best to use simple, direct language. Do not use long words just to impress people.

6.1.2.5. Improving Writing Skills

There are no fixed criteria for improving one's writing skills. One has to choose the way which suits him best and it is not necessary that it suits other persons as well. However, some tips that can be beneficial for improving the writing skills are as follows:

1) **Grammar and Punctuation:** Knowledge of grammar and punctuation has a direct bearing on one's skill of written communication as these factors greatly affect the flow and meaning of one's ideas. A writer can improve himself in these areas by making regular attempts through studying fundamentals of grammar and punctuation. After knowing these things, a writer may exercise its practical applications and usage by taking online or offline editing tests. Practicing these tests can make the concepts and usage more clear. Meanwhile, if any doubt arises, the writer should again refer the manuals and books of grammar.

2) **Audience:** If professional writers are able to write in such a way that the audience understand him clearly, only then they can connect with the audience. **For example**, 'Whom are you speaking about?' and 'To whom are you talking?' are two different sentences but they look somewhat similar. Best way to rehearse the writing skills is to write a same matter in different ways by keeping in mind the audience of different mindsets and intelligence level. Rules of grammar and punctuation are essential for written communication, yet a writer can sometimes avoid or amend them in order to make his writing suitable for all his readers as they might be different in their intelligence level.

3) **Peer Evaluation:** A writer may take an idea of audience feedback by taking the opinion of his friends and peers on the document written by him. Because most of the writers cannot become totally unbiased about their work, i.e., they cannot identify the confusing and intricate points in their writing. If the writer is able to get the written document evaluated from his friends, family members, relatives, etc., he not only gets an idea about his writing skills but also about his self-assessment. The constructive criticism from the friends, family members, peers, etc., helps a writer to make the necessary corrections in his writing.

4) **Reading Aloud:** If the matter is well written and devoid of any grammatical mistakes then obviously it would be smooth in reading and easy to comprehend and remember. In case peer evaluation is not available, no friends and family members are present there to read and evaluate the matter, or the writer simply wants to ensure that the matter is free from any mistakes when any friends or relatives read it, then the writer must read it aloud. It is a commonly known fact that if something is awkward to read and is awkward to speak, then there is great possibility that loud reading will help the writer to identify the points where some sentences and words are need to be changed.

5) **Reading the Works of Others:** This is another method of developing good writing skills because reading actually helps a person to understand different styles of writing. It introduces the writer about a range of topics and also

motivates him to write. Some people also agree that it serves as a beginning point for inculcating nice manners and works as a visual treat which gives way to unintentional development of a certain plot, grammar and punctuation as well as elements of structure.

6) **Problem Identification and Organisation:** It is generally seen that the major drawback of ineffective writing is the problem of not being clear about the topic. In order to avoid such problems, the writers must identify the problem clearly before organising his writing. The major step in this regard is to write an effective headline of the topic so that even if the concerned person does not read the whole text, atleast he is able to get an idea about the subject matter. After getting the headline, the writer generally arranges major ideas related to it in the descending order of their importance. So, if one is able to do it, one must simply fill in the gaps, i.e., develop these ideas into small paragraphs and interconnect them.

7) **Habitual Sessions:** According to many proficient writers, a person can improve his writing skills by practicing it as often as possible and by taking care of the language as well. By doing this, one may improve his writing skills. However, the idea is not to write a lot of pages in one sitting but to do it on a regular basis.

The writers must concentrate on it and must keep all the rules in mind; no matter whether a person uses computer system or a pen and paper to write. These small sittings of writing may eventually develop a big portfolio which can later be used to collect feedbacks from others. Essay prompts and debate topics are some of the good sources for providing topics for writing.

8) **Re-Writing:** When a person becomes habitual in writing and prefers to spend more and more time in it, he may use the method of rewriting his own texts or somebody else's. It can provide big benefits to the writer by providing the chance to re-look at the same concept from different perspectives and one may also get a chance to change the length of a certain sentence or replace certain words with the more appropriate words. One more thing that the writer learns from re-writing is that there is no fixed way of writing anything and one may transform the sentences and change their tone as well. It helps a writer to become more confident and relaxed about his writing and thus helps in coming out of the writer's block.

9) **Looking for Details:** A good writer always tries to go beyond the face value and his descriptions are always deep, comprehensive, and charming. This happens all the time whether the writer is at his desk or not, e.g., if one says 'This man's voice is good', it would be termed as nice but if one says 'This man's voice is deep and rumbling with a tremor of exhaustion', it would be termed as nicer. So, it can be said that giving details is a nice quality and it is the heart of description because it can help the audience to imagine different scenes and characters more clearly. The more specific information a writer provides, more professional he is considered because it reflects that the writer has done sufficient research on the topic.

6.2. LINKAGE BETWEEN READING AND WRITING

1 Reading and writing are interdependent processes that are essential to each other and mutually beneficial. Reading and writing can be described as parallel processes. There is a connection between what readers do and what writers do. Writers want to seek information and readers want to seek information metaphorically, readers and writers meet at the text. It is seen that many of the terms and concepts found in the reading standards are also included in the writing standards. Children appear to be more likely to derive learning benefits across reading and writing when they understand that there exists a connection. Reading is the receptive side of the knowledge while writing is the productive side. Thus, reading and writing are reciprocal processes. Writing skill is predictor of academic success alongwith reading comprehension. Reading and writing involve using knowledge of language structure, including word structure and text structure.

In the words of Smith (1983), Reading like a writer allows one to actually become a writer. When reading like a writer, in addition to making meaning of the text, the reader takes in and learns from the author's style, use of conventions and the like. When reading like a writer, the reader uses the author's text as a model for texts that he or she reader will eventually write. The sense of writing as reading provides a sense of personal engagement to the reading experience.

Tierney and Pearson (1983) argued that both readers and writers compose meaning. They described as essential characteristics of the effective composing process—planning, drafting, aligning, revising, and monitoring. Further, they saw “these acts of composing as involving continuous, recurring, and recursive transactions among readers and writers, their respective inner selves, and their perceptions of each other's goals and desires”. They distinguished their conception from earlier notions of reading and writing relationships in a number of ways including treating the two domains as multi-modal processes and considering the inner as well as social selves of the writer and reader.

3 Tierney (1985) suggests that purpose also plays a role, “Both reading and writing are tools in accordance with the purposes they serve; they cannot be extracted from context”.

6.2.1. Relationship between Reading and Writing

Together, the work on reading and writing processes indicates that writing and reading are deeply related activities of language and thoughts that are shaped eventually through their usage:

- 1) Writing and Reading with Regard to Instruction: Researchers and scholars began to examine how the processes of reading and writing are related in actual practice. Researchers also looked at the ways in which students' knowledge of writing and reading processes can influence and

support reading and writing respectively in the classroom. They also studied the kinds of classroom contexts and instructional activities that might foster reading and writing as mutually beneficial activities. In the classroom, students do best with frequent and extended opportunities to read and write and when exposed to a body of literature that represents a variety of genres, topics, and styles. Providing students with choice in what they read and write and are encouraged to read and write, and opportunities to write about topics and ideas that interest them and with which they are familiar positively affects their attitudes towards and opportunities to learn.

- 2) **Writing and Reading is Related to Thinking, Conceptualising and Communicating Knowledge:** Reading and writing as processes, are used to conceptualise and communicate thoughts and ideas. During these activities it is the “interplay of mind and text that brings about new interpretations, reformulations of ideas, and new learning”. Children’s writing is heavily influenced by their reading experiences. Children learn about how to become writers from reading as well as how to become readers.
- 3) **Writing and Reading as a Literacy Events:** As sociolinguistic, sociocultural and anthropological perspectives became more influential, new ways of thinking, talking, and learning about literacy took hold. There is growing interest in the interactions surrounding text and the ways in which interactions between and among individuals, who they are, and why they are writing and reading influence meaning making. Students in the envisionment building classroom and those involved in the broad based activity are constantly and simultaneously involved in listening; discussing, reading and writing but reading and writing are not viewed as separate in time or in purpose. In thinking about literacy as universalist, autonomous or as schooled literacy, what counts are those behaviours, practices, skills, or tasks that are traditionally associated with reading and writing.
- 4) **Reading and Writing Connections:** There is a correlation between success in one and success in the other. That is, students who are good at reading are often good at writing, too. Many of the things that you learn in reading are also true in writing.

6.2.2. Guidelines for Teachers to Improve Reading and Writing Skills

Teachers most successfully support their students’ reading and writing development when they create a variety of learning contexts, such as cooperative learning groups and peer groups, where discussion and instructional scaffolding support students’ needs. Within these contexts teachers help students to explore their understandings by providing them with ample opportunities to consider personal responses to the texts they compose and to make links between their prior experiences and what they are reading and writing. Students share their ideas and insights and feel that they will be accepted by members of the classroom community.

Even teachers who teach both reading and writing can do certain things to make sure students can see the link between reading and writing. Tips for linking these subjects include:

- 1) **Study Genres and Different Types of Texts:** As we have already seen, one of the things that are a boon to students is the understanding of how different types of texts differ from one another. By teaching students to study different genres and types of texts, teachers can help them both as readers and writers.
- 2) **Teach the Author-Reader Relationship:** Both reading and writing involve interactive relationships between author and reader. Reading really is about communication between the reader and the author. Now, it is true that the author is not speaking directly to the reader; however, readers understand best when they pretend that this is so. Unlike reading, writing requires the thinker to generate both sides of the dialogue. The writer must create the content and anticipate the reader response. Teaching students to carry on an internal dialogue with their anticipated readers, while they write, is vitally important.
- 3) **Teach Prior Knowledge:** What people already know is an essential component of good reading and writing. Content knowledge is equally important as is skill acquisition to read and write well. Reading specialists estimate that reading comprehension is a 50-50 interaction. In other words, about half of one's understanding of the text is what the reader puts into the reading by way of experience and knowledge. However, some disclaimers are important to mention here. Although prior knowledge is important, it can also be irrelevant, inaccurate, or incomplete which may well confuse readers or misinform writers. Of course, the teacher has the responsibility to fill gaps with appropriate content.
- 4) **Teach Sensory Descriptions:** Both readers and writers make meaning through their sensory experiences. Recognising sensory references in text improves understanding of detail, allusions, and word choice. Good readers apply all of their senses to the reading to better grasp what and how the author wishes to communicate. They listen to what the author is saying to them. **For example**, good readers try to feel what the characters feel, visualise the changing settings, and hear how the author uses dialogue. Applying the five senses in writing produces memorable "show me", rather than "tell me" writing.
- 5) **Teach Genre Characteristics:** All reading and writing genres serve their own purposes, follow their own rules, and have their own unique characteristics. Knowing the text structure of each genre helps readers to predict and analyse what the author will say and has said. **For example**, because a reader understands the format and rules of a persuasive essay, the reader knows to look for the thesis in the introduction, knows to look for the evidence that backs up the topic sentence in each body paragraph, and knows to look for the specific strategies that are utilised in the conclusion paragraphs. Writing form is an important component of rhetorical stance. Knowing each genre (domain) also helps writers to include the most appropriate support details and evidence. **For example**, persuasive essays often use a counterpoint argument as evidence.

6) **Teach Structural Organisation:** Readers recognise main idea, anticipate plot development or line of argumentation, make inferences, and draw conclusions based upon the structural characteristics of the reading genre. **For example**, readers expect the headline and introductory paragraph(s) of a newspaper article to follow the structural characteristics of that genre. **For example**, since news articles include Who, What, Where, When, and How at the beginning, the informed reader knows to look for these components. Similarly, writers apply their knowledge of specific structural characteristics for each writing genre. **For example**, knowing the characteristics of these plot elements – problem, conflict; rising action, climax, falling action, and resolution will help the writer to craft a complete narrative.

7) **Teach Problem Solving Strategies:** Good readers and writers act like detectives, looking for clues to understand and solve a case. In a persuasive essay, the reader should detect how a thesis is argued, how the variety of evidence is presented, and if the conclusions are justified in light of the evidence. In a narrative, the writer needs to clearly state the basic problem of the story and how that problem leads to a conflict. Through the elements of plot, the writer must deal with this conflict and resolve it to the reader's satisfaction.

8) **Teach Coherency and Unity:** For both reading and writing, the object is to make sense of the content. Recognising the author's rhetorical organisation, grammatical patterns, transition words, and use of writing techniques such as repetition, parallelism, and summary will facilitate comprehension. Knowing how the author communicates helps the reader to understand **what** is being communicated. Applying an organisational pattern appropriate to the writing content and effective writing techniques will help the readers to understand the content of the communication. Writing unity refers to how well sentences and paragraphs stay focused on the topic. **For example**, readers need to train themselves to look for irrelevant (off the point) details. Similarly, writers need to ensure that their writing stays on point and does not wander into tangential "bird walking."

9) **Teach Sentence Structure Variety:** Good readers are adept at parsing both good and bad sentence structure. They consciously work at identifying sentence subjects and their actions. They apply their knowledge of grammar to build comprehension. **For example**, they recognise misplaced pronouns and dangling participles, such as in "The boy watched the dog beg at the table and his sister fed it" and are able to understand what the author means, in spite of the poor writing. Good writing maintains the reader's attention through interesting content, inviting writing style, effective word choice, and sentence variety. Knowing how to use different sentence structures allows the writer to say what the writer wants to say in the way the writer wants to say it. Most professional writers plan 50% of their sentences to follow the subject-verb-complement grammatical sentence structure and 50% to follow other varied sentence structures. No one is taught, convinced, or entertained when bored.

10) **Teach Precise Word Choice:** Understanding the nuances to word meanings lets the reader understand precisely what the author means. Knowing semantic variations helps the reader to understand why authors use the words that they do and helps the reader “read between the lines”, i.e., to infer what the author implies. When writers use words with precision, coherency is improved. There is no ambiguity and the reader can follow the author’s intended train of thought.

11) **Teach Style, Voice, Point of View, Tone, and Mood:** Good readers recognise how an author’s writing style and voice (personality) help to shape the way in which the text communicates. **For example**, if the style is informal and the voice is flippant, the author may use hyperbole or understatement as rhetorical devices. Recognising whether the author uses omniscient or limited point of view in the first, second, or third person will help the reader to understand who knows what, and from what perspective in the reading. Identifying the tone of helps the reader understand how something is being said. **For example**, if the tone is sarcastic, the reader must be alert for clues that the author is saying one thing, but meaning another. Identifying the mood of a literary work will enable the reader to see how the plot and characters shape the feeling of the writing. **For example**, knowing that the mood of a poem is dark allows the reader to identify the contrasting symbolism of a “shining light.” In addition to applying the writing tools described above, good writers need to be aware of errors in writing style that do not match the rules and format of certain forms of writing, such as the formal essay.

12) **Teach Inferences:** Both reading and writing is interpretive. Readers infer meaning, make interpretations, or draw logical conclusions from textual clues provided by the author. Writers imply, or suggest, rather than overtly state certain ideas or actions to build interest, create intentional ambiguity, develop suspense, or re-direct the reader.

13) **Teach Metacognition and Critical Thinking:** Reading and writing are thinking activities. Just decoding words does not make a good reader. Similarly, just spelling correctly, using appropriate vocabulary, and applying fitting structure to paragraphs does not make a good writer. Knowing one’s strengths and weaknesses as a reader or writer helps one to identify or apply the best strategies to communicate. Knowing how to organise thought through chronology, cause-effect, problem-solution, or reasons-evidence rhetorical patterns assists both reader and writer to recognise and apply reasoning strategies. Knowing higher order questioning strategies, such as analysis, synthesis, and evaluation helps the reader and writer see beyond the obvious and explore issues in depth.

6.2.3.6 Process of Writing

The writing process is the series of overlapping steps that most writers follow in composing texts it is also called the composing process. The writing process includes brainstorming (prewriting), drafting, revising and editing, rewriting, publishing. By using the writing process, students will be able to break writing

into manageable chunks and focus on producing quality material. The final stage, publishing, ensures that students have an audience. Students can even coach each other during various stages of the process for further emphasis on audience and greater collaboration during editing.

The writing process involves teaching students to write in a variety of genres, encouraging creativity, and incorporating writing conventions. This process can be used in all areas of the curriculum and provides an excellent way to connect instruction with state writing standards.

The process of writing consists of planning, drafting, revising and editing. The drafting stage is focusing on the fluency of writing and is not preoccupied with grammatical accuracy or the neatness of the draft. Next, on the revising stage, the students rewrite their text on the basis of feedback given in a responding stage. The students, on the editing stage, are engaged in tidying up their texts as they prepare the final draft for evaluation by the teachers.

The following are ways to implement each step of the writing process:

- 1) Planning: On the planning stage, the students are encouraged to write.
- 2) Brainstorming: This step involves brainstorming, considering purpose and goals for writing, using graphic organisers to connect ideas, and designing a coherent structure for a writing piece. Brainstorming is an invention and discovery strategy in which the writer collaborates with others to explore topics, develop ideas, and/or propose solutions to a problem. The purpose of a brainstorming session is to work as a group to define a problem and find a plan of action to solve it.
- 3) Prewriting: The objective of prewriting "is to prepare students for writing by allowing them to discover what they know and what else they need to know. Prewriting invites exploration and promotes the motivation to write". For kindergarten students, scribbling and invented spelling are legitimate stages of writing development; the role of drawing as a prewriting tool becomes progressively less important as writers develop. Have young students engage in whole-class brainstorming to decide topics on which to write. For students in grades 3-5, have them brainstorm individually or in small groups with a specific prompt, such as, "Make a list of important people in your life". Online graphic organisers might help upper elementary students to organise their ideas for specific writing genres during the prewriting stage. Examples are the Essay Map, Note taker, or Persuasion Map. Any activity that helps a writer to think about a topic, determine a purpose, analyse an audience, and prepare to write. Prewriting is closely related to the art of invention in classical rhetoric.
- 4) Drafting: It is a stage of the writing process during which a writer organises information and ideas into sentences and paragraphs. Have students work independently at this stage. Confer with students individually as they write, offering praise and suggestions while observing areas with which students might be struggling and which might warrant separate conference time or mini lessons.

5) **Revising:** Revision is the process of re-reading a text and making changes (in content, organisation, sentence structures, and word choice) to improve it. The revision stage is about tightening, brightening, and sharpening the writing. During the revision stage of the writing process, writers may add, remove, move and substitute text. They have opportunities to think about whether their text communicates effectively to an audience, to improve the quality of their prose, and even to reconsider their content and perspective and potentially transform their own understanding.

6) **Editing:** It is a stage of the writing process in which a writer or editor strives to improve a draft (and sometimes prepare it for publication) by correcting errors and by making words and sentences clearer, more precise, and more effective.

The process of editing involves adding, deleting, and rearranging words alongwith recasting sentences and cutting the clutter. Tightening our writing and mending faults can turn out to be a remarkably creative activity, leading us to clarify ideas, fashion fresh images, and even radically rethink the way we approach a topic. Put another way, thoughtful editing can inspire further revision of our work.

7) **Rewriting:** Have students incorporate changes as they carefully write or type their final drafts.

8) **Publishing:** Encourage students to publish their works in a variety of ways, such as a class book, bulletin board, letters to the editor, school newsletter, or website. The Read-Write Think Printing Press tool is useful for creating newspapers, brochures, flyers and booklets. Having an authentic audience beyond the classroom gives student writing more importance and helps students to see a direct connection between their lives and their literacy development.

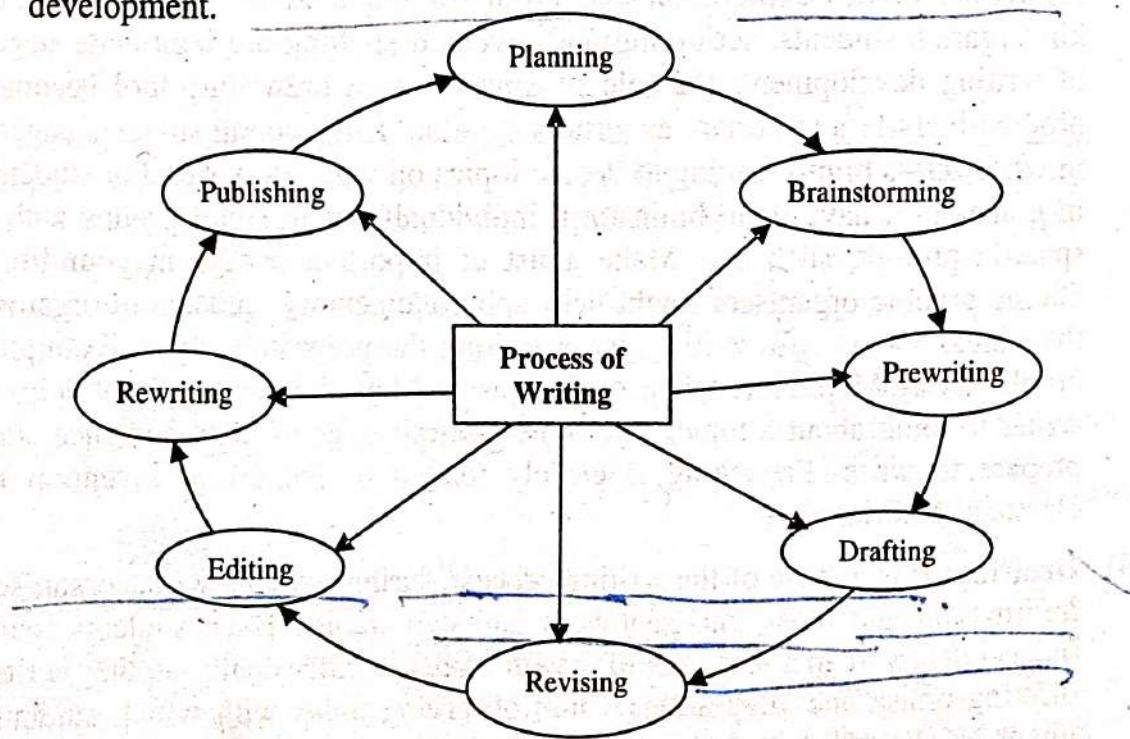


Figure 6.1

6.2.4. Strategies of Writing

There can be use different strategies of writing for children. These are as follows:

- 1) **Provide Models:** This is the first strategy in writing. We should provide models for them. **For example**, it could be a few words that hint or foreshadow at what's to come in a narrative, or for that literary analysis paper, it could be one word that describes the mood of a character or of the story.
- 2) **Adding Details:** Encourage students to add details to their narrative writing. **For example**, students can insert imagery, emotions, dialogue and voice.
- 3) **Deleting the Unnecessary:** Provide students with a narrative or expository essay where there is some redundancy of a topic or repetition of words. As a group, decide to combine ideas that are redundant or remove one altogether. For repetitive words, ask students to look through the thesaurus and choose synonyms to consider.
- 4) **Rearranging for Clarity and Effect:** In that argumentative essay or short story, maybe the ending is a better beginning? Show students text examples where the writer began with the end or the middle of the story (for narrative), or, for argumentative, where a writer began with the devastating results of a policy or environmental disaster, then moved to persuade readers in the rest of the essay.

Apart from this some other may be considered in writing as:

- 1) Assisting students in developing knowledge about writing and powerful skills and strategies involved in the writing process, including planning, writing, revising, and editing.
- 2) Supporting students in the ongoing development of the abilities needed to monitor and manage their own writing.
- 3) Promoting children's development of positive attitudes about writing and themselves as writers.

6.2.5. Mechanism of Writing

Guffey's 3-x-3 writing process and its unique illustrations proved so successful that students quickly understood the writing process because it was divided into three easy-to-use phases; prewriting, writing, and revising. More important, Guffey's 3-x-3 writing process explains exactly what to do in each of the three phases. Writing process is divided into three stages, which are broken down into three sub-steps.

This process starts with the **pre-writing phase** followed by the **writing phase** and you end the process with a **revising phase**. These phases are as follows:

- 1) **Phase 1: Pre-Writing Phase:** The time period between determining the topic and actually putting it into words is known as the pre-writing phase. During this phase, a writer should organise his ideas and concepts regarding the

topic, read the related material and take notes from them, let the ideas grow in his mind, and plan his writing. At the pre-writing stage, the writer needs to plan his writing in order to keep the matter relevant because there exists various ways to write and to clear the doubts through writing. It includes:

- i) **Analyse:**
 - a) Define your purpose.
 - b) Select the most appropriate channel.
 - c) Visualise the audience.
- ii) **Anticipate:** Put yourself in the reader's position and predict his/her reactions to the message.
- iii) **Adapt:** Shape message to benefit reader.

2) **Phase 2: Preparing First Draft/Writing Phase:** In the pre-writing phase, the writer determined the purpose of writing, identified the audience, chosen the channel, etc. In the writing phase, writer needs to collect the data, organise it, and finally put it into words for the first time. The writer should keep the sentences concise, free from grammatical and punctuation errors, and spelling mistakes. It includes:

- i) **Research:** Collect data formally and informally.
- ii) **Organise:** Group ideas into a list or outline; choose a strategy.
- iii) **Compose:** Write a first draft; consider using a word processor.

3) **Phase 3: Rewriting/Revising Phase:** At this stage of the writing process, the writer reads his own matter from the perspective of audience and validates the facts and figures given in it. He should also ensure that all the topics are intact and each paragraph is linked with the preceding ones because it facilitates the readers to go through the topic step by step.

Revising the content means to review it for one more time. After revising, rewrite it (if necessary) so that the audience can understand what the writer wants to convey.

The matter should be written in such a manner that the audience not only understands it but also be able to perceive it in the same manner as the writer perceived it while writing. It includes:

- i) **Revise:** For clarity, tone, conciseness and vigour; improves readability.
- ii) **Editing:** For determining credibility and correction.
- iii) **Proofread:** For spelling, grammar, punctuation and format; checks overall appearance.
- iv) **Reconstructing Final Draft:** For preparing final product or outcome.
- v) **Evaluate:** For determining whether final product achieve its purpose.

6.3. LEARN TO WRITE REPORTS, REVIEWS, ESSAYS, NOTICES, LETTERS, AND CREATIVE WRITINGS

6.3.1. Reports

Report is any informational work made with an intention to relay information or recounting certain events in a presentable manner.

A report is a systematic, well organised document which defines and analyses a subject or problem, and which may include:

- 1) The record of a sequence of events,
- 2) Interpretation of the significance of these events or facts,
- 3) Evaluation of the facts or results of research presented,
- 4) Discussion of the outcomes of a decision or course of action,
- 5) Conclusions, and
- 6) Recommendations.

According to C.A. Brown, “A report is a communication form of someone who has some information to someone who needs that information.”

According to Kuiper and Clippinger, Business reports is an “organised, objective presentations of observations, experiences, or facts used in the decision-making process.”

According to Sharma and Mohan, Technical report is “a written statement of the facts of a situation, project, process or test; how these facts were ascertained; their significance; the conclusions that have been drawn from them; and (in some cases) the recommendations that are being made.”

The goal of making reports is to make the information as clear and convenient and accessible as possible. Reports vary widely in their purpose. They also differ with the type of audience they are written for.

Reports are often conveyed in writing, speech, television, or film. Report is an administrative necessity. Most official form of information or work is completed via report. Report is always written in a sequential manner in order of occurrence.

6.3.1.1. Types of Report

There are many types of reports such as follows:

- 1) **Formal Reports:** The formal report is the collection and interpretation of data and information. The formal report is complex and used at an official level. It is often a written account of a major project. Examples of subject matter include new technologies, the advisability of launching a new project line, results of a study or experiment, an annual report, or a year old review of developments in the field. Formal report can be categorised as:
 - i) **Informational Reports:** Informational reports present results so readers can understand a particular problem or situation. For example, manager of a city's website might prepare an informational report for the city

council; the report would provide statistics on the number of people who pay their city water and sewage bills online, etc. Informational reports might present information on the status of current research or of a project.

- ii) **Analytical Reports:** This type goes a step beyond presenting results. Analytical reports present results, analyse those results, and draw conclusions based on those results. These reports attempt to describe why or how something happened and then to explain what it means. Like informational reports, analytical reports can be formal or informal. This type of report explains what cause a problem or situation, and may present the results of a traffic study showing accidents at an intersection, the report explains what it means, and also explain the potential results of a particular course of action, suggest which option, action, or procedure is best.
- iii) **Recommendation Reports:** This type advocates a particular course of action. This usually presents the results and conclusions that support the recommendations. This type is identical to analytical report.

2) **Informal Reports:** The informal report functions to inform, analyse, and recommend. It usually takes the form of a memo, letter or a very short international document like a monthly financial report, monthly activities report, research and development report, etc. This report differs from the formal report in length and formality. It is written according to organisational style and rules, but usually does not include the preliminary (front) and supplemental (back) material. The informal report is usually more controversial in tone and typically deals with everyday problems and issues addressed to a narrow readership inside the organisation. There are many embodiments of the informal report:

- i) Progress report,
- ii) Sales activity report,
- iii) Personnel evaluation,
- iv) Financial report,
- v) Feasibility report,
- vi) Literature review, and
- vii) Credit report.

3) **Narrative Report:** Summary of reports about specialised law enforcement and police problems. May be either narrative, chronological, or both. It may not follow a single pattern due to the different case types and description.

4) **Specialised Report:** The report defines complete description of the accident. It describes the location and the loss occurred. It is important for documentation. It is required to start any investigation.

5) **Accidental Report:** The purpose is to describe the way things are, this type is mainly used in letter, non-fiction book, information leaflet, catalogue, etc. The opening contains a general classification, a description of chosen subject then the paragraphs about different aspects of the subject and lastly conclusion.

6.3.1.2. Planning for Preparing a Formal Report

Following points may be considered while preparing a formal report:

- 1) Identify the readers,
- 2) Determine your purpose,
- 3) Formulate specific questions,
- 4) Conduct research to answer the questions,
- 5) Draw valid conclusions (for analytical or recommendation reports),
- 6) Decide on recommendations (for recommendations), and
- 7) Write the report.

6.3.1.3. Format of a Report

The format of a report is as follows:

- 1) Although, there is no set report writing format, however, there are general sections that should be included.
- 2) Unlike essays, reports are written in sections with headings and sub-headings, which are usually numbered.
- 3) There are numerous possible formats available for writing a report, and it mostly depends on the context of topic

Below given are the components of a report in which they would occur:

- 1) **Title Page:** This component includes the report's title and the name of the writer. Apart from these things, the title can also have a date and the name of the organisation for which the report has been prepared. The cover also has these things but putting them in details in the title section is mandatory.
- 2) **Acknowledgements:** A list of people and organisations who have helped you in the compilation of report and other related work.
- 3) **Contents Page:** A clear, well-formatted list of all the sections and sub-sections of the report. Page numbers should be marked correctly.
- 4) **Abstract:** A summary of the major points, conclusions, and recommendations should be written to give a general overview of report.
- 5) **Introduction:** The first page of the report needs to have an introduction. You will explain the problem and show the reader why the report is being made.
- 6) **Body:** This is the main section of the report. There needs to be several sections, with each having a subtitle. The various sections include Review of Literature, Materials and Methods and Results. A discussion section can also be included at the end of the body to go over by findings and their significance.
- 7) **Conclusion:** A conclusion should draw out the implications of your findings, with deductions based on the facts described in your main body. The significance and relevance of study is discussed in this section.
- 8) **References:** This is a list giving the full details of all the sources to which you have made reference within your text.

6.3.1.4. Report Writing

Report Writing is a formal/informal and well-organised writing process that needs enough care, research, and details. This writing process is usually time-consuming and often requires a detailed research for which the writer may have to visit places, meet people and find a solid conclusion at the end of the day to write a formal/informal and classy report.

Report writing is generally used to explain a matter or issue and inform higher authorities to help them take a right decision or action in regards to the matter or issue. There is a little room for creativity in the report as the main focus is to enlighten the readers about a matter or issue and make the whole thing self-explanatory for easy understanding.

Report writing is the primary tool of media personnel through which they pass on specific information about an incident or topic. Apart from the media usage, report writing is required in various sectors like corporate, government, politics, etc. Every organisation has a predefined report writing format and hence a writer cannot remain stuck to a specific format for different reports.

6.3.1.5. Importance of Report Writing

The report writing is important in numerous ways:

- 1) **Report as a Means of Internal Communication:** A report acts as an effective means of communication within the organisation. It provides feedback to employees. It is prepared for the information and guidance of others connected with the matter/problem.
- 2) **Report Facilitates Decision-Making and Planning:** Report provides reliable data which can be used in the planning and decision-making process. It acts as a treasure house of reliable information for long-term planning and decision-making.
- 3) **Report Discloses Unknown Information:** Reports provide information, which may not be known previously. The committee members collect data, draw conclusions and provide information which will be new to all concerned parties. Even new business opportunities are visible through unknown information available in the reports.
- 4) **Report Gives Information To Employees:** Reports are available to managers and departments for internal use. They are widely used by the departments for guidance. Report provide a feedback to employees and are useful for their self-improvement.

6.3.2. Review

Review and revision are important because they enable teachers to consider the ways curriculum interacts with actual students in a real school environment.

A review is a critical evaluation of a text, event, object, or phenomenon. Review can consider books, articles, entire genres or fields of literature, architecture, art, fashion, restaurants, policies, exhibitions, performances, and many other forms.

6.3.2.1. Purposes of the Review

The purposes of the review are as follows:

- 1) To define and limit the problem of working,
- 2) To place your study in an historical perspective,
- 3) To avoid unnecessary duplication,
- 4) To evaluate promising research methods, and
- 5) To relate findings of previous knowledge and suggest further research.

6.3.2.2. Content of the Review

Content of the review consist following:

- 1) **Introduction:** The introduction explains the focus and establishes the importance of the subject. It discusses what kind of work has been done on the topic and identifies any controversies within the field or any recent research which has raised questions about earlier assumptions. It may provide background or history. It concludes with a purpose or thesis statement. In a stand-alone literature review, this statement will sum-up and evaluate the state of the art in this field of research; in a review that is an introduction or preparatory to a thesis or research report, it will suggest how the review findings will lead to the research the writer proposes to undertake.
- 2) **Body:** Often divided by headings/subheadings, the body summarises and evaluates the current state of knowledge in the field. It notes major themes or topics, the most important trends, and any findings about which researchers agree or disagree. If the review is preliminary to your own thesis or research project, its purpose is to make an argument that will justify proposed research.
- 3) **Conclusion:** The conclusion summarises all the evidence presented and shows its significance. If the review is an introduction to your own research, it highlights gaps and indicates how previous research leads to your own research project and chosen methodology. If the review is a stand-alone assignment for a course, it should suggest any practical applications of the research as well as the implications and possibilities for future research.

6.3.3. Book Review

A book review is a short piece of text describing what the book is about, the intentions or aims of the author in writing the book, whether the aims were successfully achieved or not, how it is written and whether it suits a certain readership, and how does it compare to other comparable works in the same field.

A book review is a form of literary criticism in which a book is analysed based on content, style, and merit. A book review can be a primary source opinion piece, summary review or scholarly review. Books can be reviewed for printed periodicals, magazines and newspapers, as school work, or for book websites on the internet. A book review's length may vary from a single paragraph to a substantial essay. Such a review may evaluate the book on the basis of personal taste. Reviewers may use the occasion of a book review for a display of learning or to promulgate their own ideas on the topic of a fiction or non-fiction work.

Reviews generally range from 500-1000 words, but may be longer or shorter depending on the length and complexity of the book being reviewed, the overall purpose of the review, and whether the review is a comparative analysis examining two or more books that focus on the same topic. Professors assign book reviews as practice in carefully analysing complex scholarly texts and to assess your ability to effectively synthesise research to reach an informed perspective about a research problem or issue.

6.3.3.1. Need of Reviewing Text Book

Writing book reviews is not only the easiest and quickest route to publication, it is a good way to improve your writing skills, develop your analytical skills, learn how the journal publishing process works, and get to know editors. Since some libraries cannot buy books unless they have been reviewed and many individuals would not buy books unless they have read a review, reviewing books can definitely advance your field. Indeed, scholars in smaller fields sometimes get together and assign books for review so that every book published in their field is reviewed somewhere. Just remember that book reviews do not “count” as much on a curriculum vitae as an academic essay. If you are doing more than two book reviews a year, you may be spending too much time on book reviews and not enough on your other writing.

6.3.3.2. Features of Book Review

While book reviews vary in tone, subject, and style, they share some common features. These include:

- 1) **A Review Gives the Reader a Concise Summary of the Content:** A review gives the reader a concise summary of the content. This includes a relevant description of the topic as well as its overall perspective, argument, or purpose.
- 2) **A Review Offers a Critical Assessment of the Content:** This involves documenting your reactions to the work under review-what strikes you as noteworthy or important, whether or not the arguments made by the author(s) were effective or persuasive, and how the work enhanced your understanding of the research problem under investigation.
- 3) **Review Recommends Authenticity and Overall Quality:** In addition to analysing a book's strengths and weaknesses, a scholarly review often recommends whether or not readers would value the work for its authenticity and overall quality. This measure of quality includes the author's ideas and arguments as well as practical issues, such as, readability and language, organisation and layout, indexing, and the use of non-textual elements.

6.3.3.3. Approaches to Reviewing a Book

There are two general approaches to reviewing a book:

- 1) **Descriptive Review:** A descriptive review presents the content and structure of a book as objectively as possible, describing essential information about a book's purpose and authority. This is done by stating the perceived aims and purposes of the study, often incorporating passages quoted from the text that highlight key elements of the work. Additionally, there may be some indication of the reading level and anticipated audience.

2) **Critical Review:** It describes and evaluates the book in relation to accepted literary and historical standards and supports this evaluation with evidence from the text and, in most cases, in contrast to and in comparison with the research of others. It should include a statement about what the author has tried to do, evaluate how well the author has succeeded, and presents evidence to support this assessment. For course assignments, most professors want you to write a critical review.

Above all, a review makes an argument. The most important element of a review is that it is a commentary, not merely a summary. It allows entering into dialogue and discussion with the work's creator and with other audiences.

6.3.3.4. Standards for Book Review

There are two types of data we consider when reviewing:

1) **Technical Data and Specific Data:** These data may be easily collected on a website or master lists if not in a syllabus and will be included in a cover memo and/or syllabus:

- Number of course,
- Title of course,
- Instructor's name,
- Number of credits,
- Semester of course,
- Contact hours per week/semester/credit,
- Prerequisites,
- Language of instruction,
- Academic support, and
- Transfer credit.

Specific Data are available only if requested by Colleges/Departments and will be included in the cover memo:

- Background/introductory information,
- Partner selection summary, and
- Instructor's CV or expected degree level/credentials for instructor.

2) **Academic Data:** It includes:

- Course Overview/Description:** Please, provide as complete a course description as you can give. Rather than a brief catalogue description, it is important to offer enough information to allow students to make as informed a choice as possible about taking the course.
- Course Objectives:** Please, mention skills and areas of knowledge that will be developed during the semester (this course aims to familiarise, prepare, and train. By the end of this course students can expect to be able to relate, interpret, communicate, know, do, and appreciate).
- Reading List:** Please provide required and recommended materials. Include author, title, publisher, edition, and ISBN also suggest where students might procure the materials. Required materials may be included as part of the schedule.

- iv) **Schedule:** Please include dates or if not available numbers showing the frequency of class meetings per week. Week to week breakdown, including weekly reading assignments.
- v) **Course Topics:** Please provide a specific list of topics that will be studied in the course. These might be included as part of the schedule to illustrate a thematic progression.
- vi) **Assessment:** Please include clearly defined grade components and ways of carrying out the assessment. An example – x% participation in class; x% quizzes; x% term paper; x% midterm exam. Are the exams multiple choices, short answers, essays or a combination? If these are essays or papers, what is the expectation for how these are completed?
- vii) **Study Visits:** Please include sites to be visited and explanation of how those will be used to support the course and learning objectives.

6.3.3.5. Structure/Process of Writing a Book Review

Writing a book review is not just about summarising; it is also an opportunity for you to present a critical discussion of the book. As a reviewer, you should combine an accurate, analytical reading with a strong, personal response. A good book review describes what is on the page, analyses how the book tried to achieve its purpose, and expresses any reactions and arguments from a unique perspective.

Structure

The structure of a book review or citation is:

- 1) **Heading of the Review:** Type the details of the book. It should be in the form of:
 - i) Title of the book,
 - ii) Author,
 - iii) Editor,
 - iv) Edition,
 - v) Place-Publisher,
 - vi) Year,
 - vii) Number of pages,
 - viii) Price,
 - ix) ISBN/ISSN Number, and
 - x) Who supplied the review copy?
- 2) **The Body of the Review:** Type brief analysis of the book.
- 3) **End of the Review:** Write your name, organisation name and date at the end of review:
 - i) Name,
 - ii) Organisation, if appropriate, and
 - iii) Date.

Style

The style of a book review is as follows:

- 1) The review should be typed and double-spaced on one side only of an A4 sheet of paper.
- 2) Quotations taken from the book should be concise with single quotation marks around them.

- 3) Underline the name of any publications you mention in the main body of the review.
- 4) Keep the length of the review between 250 words (minimum) and 600 words (maximum).
- 5) On average, most reviews tend to be 350 to 400 words in length but it may be longer depending on the size and significance of the book.

Questions to Ask

A good review will involve describing the book, evaluating the book, and explaining why the author did what he/she did in writing the book as well as your reasons for making certain remarks about it. The sorts of questions you should consider covering are as follows:

- 1) In what field does the book cover? What is it all about? What type of book is it?
 - i) Keep the description of the book as short as possible. Remember, you only have about 400 words to describe everything about it properly.
 - ii) Mention whether the type of book is factual, pictorial, mood creating or whatever.
- 2) Is the title of the book appropriate, inappropriate or ambiguous? Look at the title and does it accurately describe the contents of the book. If not, why? was it deliberately titled in an unusual way?
- 3) How is the information arranged? Look at the table of content for a listing of the chapters and any subheadings as this gives sufficient indication of the overview of arrangement. Is it chronological, or is there a thesis or argument being developed in the book.
- 4) What is the book's purpose? What did the author set out to achieve? How did the author attempt to achieve it? Look at the title, preface and introduction for a clue.
- 5) How much detail has the author gone to explain the ideas and facts in his book? Has the author defined concepts, terms, ideas and keywords clearly? What areas are covered and how well has it explained these areas elementary or scholarly approach?
- 6) What are the strengths and weaknesses of the book? How do you assess for this?
 - i) Has the book covered enough areas? Are there areas not covered by the book and is this a weakness? Any omissions and inaccuracies?
 - ii) Is the book lucid and simple, or very technical and difficult to read?
 - iii) Is it wordy or economical? Is it imaginative or logical?
 - iv) Is the book too big to carry around easily, or is it just right?
 - v) Is the book durable and has an attractive binding?
 - vi) Is the print type and size appropriate and legible?
 - vii) Are there illustrations and photographs to aid in the understanding of the text?

- 7) Are there references or bibliography in the book to give it more authority?
 - i) You will find this near the back of the book, but just before the index.
 - ii) Are the sources new, and if so, how were they gathered and are they reliable? Are the sources not new but seen in a new light.
 - iii) Is adequate documentation given to each reference to help make it easy for readers to find the books (including page numbers for specific quotes or relevant sections in the books). If not, explain why the references are superficial?
 - iv) Is there an index?
 - v) Look at the back of the book!
 - vi) Is the index adequate and accurate?
- 8) Was it a good book, or not? Why?
- 9) How does the book compare to other similar already published titles?
 - i) What further work needs to be done to make it comparable to other titles?
 - ii) What do we know about the author's background and qualifications?
 - iii) Does the author have influences to consider (religious, political, cultural, social, etc.)?
 - iv) What is the author's position before and after writing the book?
- 10) Is the book written with expertise, or is it biased?

Conclusion

Conclude the book review by saying something of the strengths and weaknesses of the book. But do not talk about minor editorial or typographical errors. It is often a good idea to relate the conclusion in some way with the opening remarks of the review as this tends to make for a much neater and well-thought out review package.

What to Avoid

Following points should be avoided for review book:

- 1) Try not to start with the proverbial and obvious, e.g., "This book is about." Consider starting the review in a unique and interesting way. Consider, e.g., writing a brief comment showing the significance and adequacy of the book title.
- 2) Do not be bland in your writing. People are not interested in this. Be a little more provocative and interesting. Try to give your honest thoughts on the book. Was it good, or not so good? Why?
- 3) Never say "...have an excellent chapter on..." or "...a scintillating accounted of" unless you have some good reasons for using these superlatives.
- 4) Try to end on a good note with the book, unless the book is really that bad then say so.

6.3.4. Essay

An essay is a written form of communication or unit of thoughts that are organised and divided neatly into paragraphs. The purpose of writing essay is to state and support an opinion with proof and explanation, to persuade other to agree with your opinion.

An essay is a piece of writing that methodically analyses and evaluates a topic or issue. Fundamentally, an essay is designed to get your academic opinion on a particular matter.

Many students get confused about the word 'opinion' in academic writing, and think that academic writing should just stick to reporting the facts and forget about opinion altogether.

Writing a great essay is not about simply surveying and re-telling existing ideas. Instead, a good essay takes into account various opinions and points of view and puts forward an argument that reflects the writer's informed opinion.

Before you begin planning any essay, then, it is crucial to have a clear idea of what you think about your topic; you need to have a position, argument, or clear stance on a topic that you defend with evidence and argument.

An essay has been defined in a variety of ways. One definition is a "prose composition with a focused subject of discussion" or a "long, systematic discourse".

It is difficult to define the genre into which essays fall. **Aldous Huxley**, a leading essayist, gives guidance on the subject. He notes that "the essay is a literary device for saying almost everything about almost anything", and adds that "by tradition, almost by definition, the essay is a short piece".

6.3.4.1. Structure of an Essay

Every essay has a beginning, middle and an end. The first paragraph is called introduction. It consists of two parts:

- 1) **General Statement:** A few sentences about your essay that catch attention of your reader. State the main ideas and be concise. Make your introduction interesting with a thought provoking quotations, surprising facts or a humorous anecdote.
- 2) **A Thesis Statement:** This is the most important sentence in the whole essay. It tells the reader what the essay will be about. It is usually placed at the end of the introduction.

The next three or four paragraphs constitute the body of the essay. Each paragraph should have topic sentence that summarises the main idea of the paragraph followed by supporting details and concluding transitional sentences.

Finally end the essay with a concluding paragraph that should not contain new information on your topic. Review the main points. Briefly recap the main ideas of your body paragraphs.

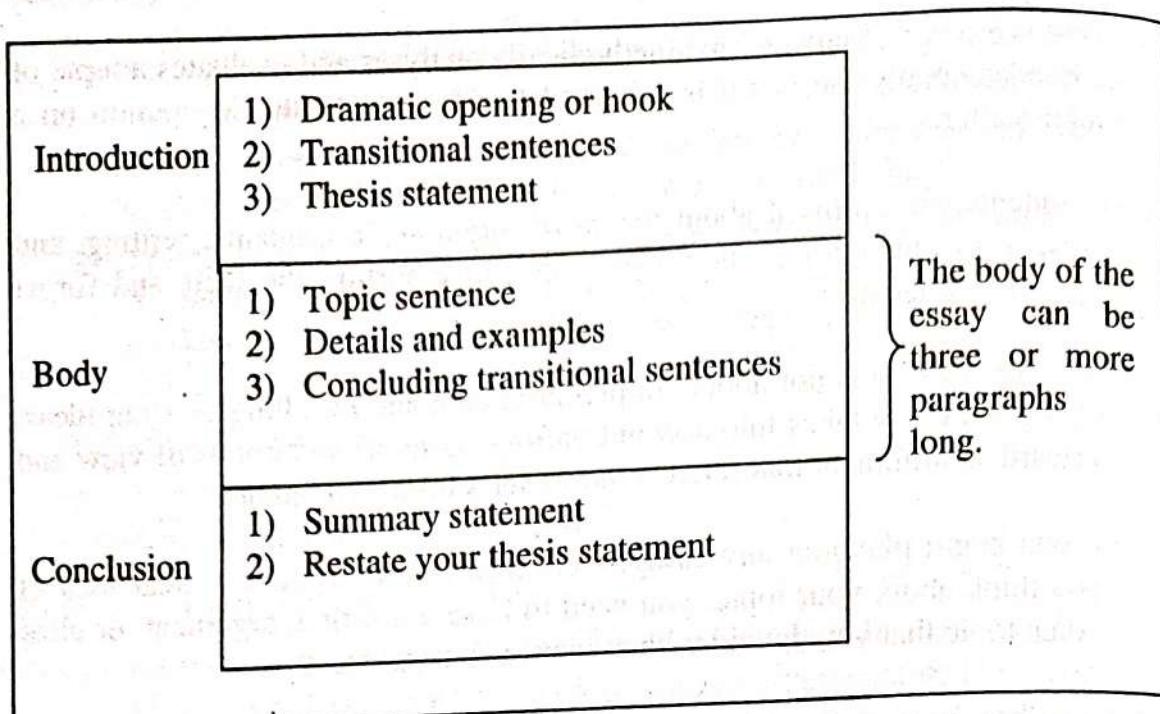


Figure 6.2

Add more details to complete the essay using the pointers in cloud and the hints given.

6.3.5. Notice

A notice is the most common method of communication which gives information regarding an important event that is about to take place. A notice conveys information in a very precise manner. With the help of a notice, information is displayed publicly for others to know and follow.

6.3.5.1. Features of Notice

A good notice should have following features:

- 1) **Brief:** A notice should provide information in minimum number of words. About 40 to 50 words are enough. Sentences should be short. No repletion; No introduction; only to the point information.
- 2) **Complete:** A notice should provide complete information. If you are writing notice about sports competition, it should tell about participation criteria like age limit, fees if any, date, venue, chief guest, prize, etc.
- 3) **Authority:** A notice must include name of authority who is issuing the notice. It can be you (as in the case of watch lost in school playground), teacher, principal, manager of bank, secretary of departments, etc.
- 4) **Clarity:** There should not be any ambiguity in the information. Message should be straight forward. Thus brevity, completeness and clarity are the main ingredients of a good notice.
- 5) **Syntax:** A notice has three parts- head, body and authority/contact person. These parts are described below:
 - i) **Head:** It is the eye catcher. It tells the main topic or issue of the notice.
 - ii) **Body:** All information is provided here.

iii) **Authority/Contact Person:** Name or/ and signature of notice issuing authority should be included in the end. If notice requires meeting with someone to submit name, paper or other things, contact person name, phone and meeting place and time should also be included. Contact person is also required for further clarification and information.

6.3.5.2. Format of a Notice

| Name of the Organisation/Institution, Place | |
|---|---------|
| Date | Notice |
| | Heading |
| <p>Content (Example): This is to bring to the notice of the _____ (target group) _____ that _____ (event) _____ is being organised by the school/organisation, as per the details given below:</p> | |
| <p>Date: _____</p> | |
| <p>Time: _____</p> | |
| <p>Venue: _____</p> | |
| <p>Chief Guest (if any): _____</p> | |
| <p>For any further clarification, please contact the undersigned.</p> | |
| <p>Sd/-</p> | |
| <p>Signature</p> | |
| <p>Name (In block letters)</p> | |
| <p>Designation (In brackets)</p> | |

Note: The notice should always be inside a box. The title of the notice should not only be catchy but also be indicative of the purpose of the notice. You could either mention the name of the event or something catchy to draw the attention of target audience. For example, Meeting of the Nature club, Attention music lovers!

Points to Remember While Writing Notice

- 1) A well-written notice must inform the readers about the 5 Ws:
 - i) What is going to happen, (that is, the event)?
 - ii) Where it will take place?
 - iii) When it will take place (that is, the date and time)?
 - iv) Who can apply or is eligible for it?
 - v) Whom to contact or apply to (that is, the issuing authority)?
- 2) Only the most important points should be written.
- 3) The sentences should be short and grammatically accurate.
- 4) Use passive voice as far as possible.
- 5) The notice should be written within a box.

- 6) The word limit for a notice is 40–50 words (only the words in the body of the notice are counted).
- 7) A notice must be catchy and appealing – it should attract the reader's attention at once.
- 8) Increase the visual appeal of your notice by using bold letters, catchy slogans, striking words and phrases, etc.

6.3.6. Letters

A letter is a written message from one party to containing information. Letters promote the preservation of communication between both parties; they may bring friends or relatives closer together, enrich professional relationships and provide a means of self-expression. Letters contribute to the protection and conservation of literacy.

“Letter writing is the exchange of written or printed messages.”

Letter writing is a skill that has to be developed. It is an important means of communication. Letters are most commonly used for written communication between two people. In general, there are two types of letter; formal letter and informal letter.

6.3.6.1. Formal Letters

Formal letters are:

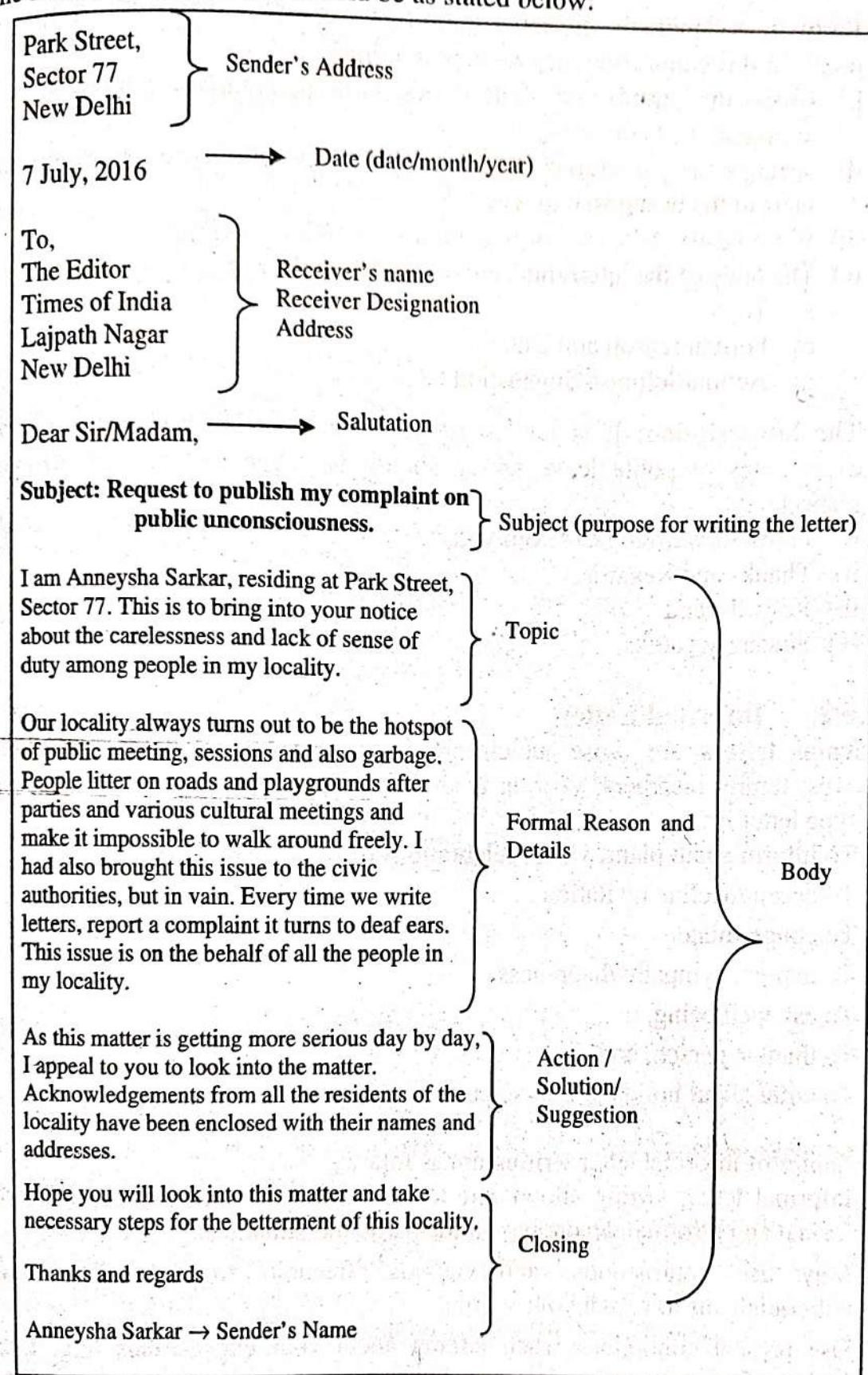
- 1) Written to people whom we do not know at personal level,
- 2) Letter of inquiry,
- 3) Letter of regret,
- 4) Thank you letter, and
- 5) Job application.

Following are the mechanics of formal letter writing:

- 1) **Use of Pronoun:** Personal pronouns are used in writing letters. I, he, she, it, we, they, you.
- 2) **Focus and Specificity**
 - i) Be focused, and
 - ii) Write concise and purposeful letter.
- 3) **Jargon may be appropriate** related to industry/field and avoid vagueness.
- 4) **Style**
 - i) Use formal language,
 - ii) Do not use contractions,
 - iii) Use modals such as would, should, could, etc., and
 - iv) Do not use colloquial language.
- 5) **Structure and content**
 - i) You must always give a clear reason for writing,
 - ii) Link sentences with and/ but/because, and
 - iii) Divide the letter into clear paragraphs.

Format of Writing Formal Letter

The format of formal letter should be as stated below:



- 1) **Address and Date:** Address and date of the company/person at the top left corner.
- 2) **Salutation:** It is the form of greetings and it depends upon the relationship between the writer and the person to whom the letter is written.

Dear Mr./Mrs. (if you know the name)

Dear Sir/Madam

- 3) **Subject:** Theme/purpose.
- 4) **Body:** It is decidedly the most important part of the letter. The following points in this connection may be kept in mind.
 - i) Unless the letter is very short, divide it into paragraphs, each dealing with a separate facts or items.
 - ii) Arrange the paragraphs in their logical order with a view to present the facts in the best possible way.
 - iii) Write neatly; take care of punctuation as well as spellings.
 - iv) The body of the letter must encompass the following:
 - a) Topic
 - b) Formal reason and Details
 - c) Action/Solution/Suggestion
- 5) **The Subscription:** It is not advisable to end the letter abruptly. Certain expressions of polite leave taking should be taken into account to show respect.
 - i) I look forward to hear from you,
 - ii) Thanks and Regards,
 - iii) Regards, and
 - iv) Sincerely yours.

6.3.6.2. Informal Letter

Informal letters are those which are in correspondence between friends, relatives, family members. Writing is similar to how we speak. The purpose of this type letter is:

- 1) To inform about plans, visits, celebrations (birth, marriage , death),
- 2) To accept/decline invitation,
- 3) To congratulate,
- 4) To express sympathy/happiness,
- 5) To ask well being,
- 6) To thank a person, and
- 7) To write about holidays, new experience, personal problem, etc.

Mechanics of informal letter writing are as follows:

- 1) Informal letter writing allows one to choose a variety of expressions, both formal and informal depending on the particular situations.
- 2) May use contractions, abbreviations, freedom to use idioms and colloquialisms to enrich your writing.
- 3) Use present continuous when talking about your expectations (e.g. I am looking forward hearing from you"). Or stating the purpose of your letter (e.g. I am writing to you on behalf of/ with regard to.....).
Use present perfect or past simple when giving news or describing recent events.
- 4) Split the main body of the letter into two or three paragraphs instead of cramming your content in one big paragraph.

Format of Writing Informal Letter

Format of writing informal letter is as follows:

- 1) **Address and Date:** They should be at the top left corner. After you have written the address leave a line and write the date.
- 2) **Greetings:** Dearest; Dear, Hi!
- 3) **Introduction:** In introduction, you write your opening remark and state the reason for writing.
 - i) I am writing to ask for your advice.....
 - ii) How are you?
 - iii) How is your family?
 - iv) I hope that you are well.
 - v) Thank you for the letter you sent me.
 - vi) Thank you for your invitation.
- 4) **Body:** It is decidedly the most important part of the letter. The following points in this connection may be kept in mind.
 - i) In informal letters we talk more than one topic, so new paragraph for each topic.
 - ii) Detailed discussion on the topic.
- 5) **Closing:** The closing often mention of how you feel about writing to them.
 - i) End with a friendly statement.
 - ii) You may want to invite the reader to write back.
 - iii) Promises of staying in touch.
 - iv) Saying how you miss them.
 - v) We will have to get together next time....
 - vi) Please let me know what you think? I need to ...
 - vii) I am looking forward to seeing you.
- 6) **Sign-off**
 - i) Hope to hear you soon
 - ii) Warm regards
 - iii) Bye
 - iv) Best wishes
 - v) All the best
 - vi) Kind regards
 - vii) With love

6.3.7. Creative Writing

Creative writing is any writing that goes outside the bounds of normal professional, journalistic, academic, or technical forms of literature, typically identified by an emphasis on narrative craft, character development, and the use of literary tropes or with various traditions of poetry and poetics.

In the words of **Witty and LaBrant**, "Creative writing is a composition of any type of writing at any time primarily in the service of such needs as the need for keeping records of significant experience, the need for sharing experience with an interested group, and the need for free individual expression which contributes to mental and physical health."

Many writing acts, such as, feature stories writing are considered as creative writing. Feature stories fall under journalism, because the content of features is specifically focused on narrative and character development. Both fictional and non-fictional works fall into this category, including such forms as novels, biographies, short stories, and poems. In the academic setting, creative writing is typically separated into fiction and poetry classes, with a focus on writing in an original style, as opposed to imitating pre-existing genres such as crime or horror. Writing for the screen and stage, i.e., screenwriting and play writing, are often taught separately, but fit under the creative writing category as well.

Creative writing can technically be considered any writing of original composition. In this sense, creative writing is a more contemporary and process-oriented name for what has been traditionally called literature, including the variety of its genres.

6.3.7.1. Types of Creative Writing

Following are the types of creative writing:

- 1) **Journals:** These are often confused with diaries. Technically, a diary is a type of journal, but a journal is any written log.
- 2) **Diaries:** A diary is a specific kind of journal where events of each day are written down.
- 3) **Essays:** Writing an essay requires creative thinking. This is especially true for personal or descriptive essays. Not all essays are creative, but plenty of essays flow from creative thinking. Some examples include personal essays, descriptive essays, and persuasive essays.
- 4) **Storytelling:** One of the most popular types of creative writing is storytelling. Storytelling lends itself to both fiction and nonfiction. Popular forms include flash fiction, short stories, novellas, and full-length novels. But stories can also be first hand or second hand accounts of real people and events.
- 5) **Poetry:** Another popular but under-appreciated type of writing is poetry, which is easily the most artistic, creative form of writing. Poetry can be written in many forms such as, free-form poetry, and prose poetry.
- 6) **Memoir:** Memoirs are personal accounts (or stories) with narrow themes and specific topics. They are usually the length of novels or novellas; shorter works of this kind would be considered essays. Memoir topics focus on specific experiences rather than providing a broad life story (which would be a biography).
- 7) **Vignettes:** A vignette is defined as “a brief evocative description, account, or episode.” Vignettes can be poems, stories, descriptions, personal accounts or anything that goes really. The key is that a vignette is extremely short just a quick snippet.
- 8) **Scripts:** Screenwriting, also called scriptwriting, is the art and craft of writing scripts for mass media such as feature films, television productions or video games. It is frequently a freelance profession.

- 9) **Song Lyrics:** These are a fun and creative way to merge the craft of writing with the art of music. Writing lyrics is an excellent path for writers who can play an instrument or who want to collaborate with musicians.
- 10) **Speeches:** Whether persuasive, inspirational, or informative, speech writing is a discipline that can lead to prosperous and interesting career opportunities in almost any field ranging from science to politics to education.
- 11) **Journalism:** Some forms of journalism are more creative than others. Traditionally, journalism was a straightforward, objective form of reporting on facts, people, and events. Today, journalists often infuse their writing with opinion and storytelling to make their pieces more compelling. For good or bad, this new practice opens journalism to more creative approaches.
- 12) **Blogging:** A blog is nothing more than a publishing platform — a piece of technology that displays content on the web or an electronic device. A blog can be just about anything from a diary to a personal platform to an educational tool. In terms of creative writing, blogs are wide open because you can use them to publish any (or all) types of creative writing.
- 13) **Free Writing:** Open a notebook or a document and just start writing. Let strange words and images find their way to the page.

6.3.7.2. Techniques Used in Creative Writing

Techniques used in creative writing include:

- 1) Character development,
- 2) Plot development,
- 3) Vivid setting,
- 4) Underlying theme,
- 5) Point of view,
- 6) Dialogue,
- 7) Anecdotes,
- 8) Metaphors and similes,
- 9) Figures of speech,
- 10) Imaginative language,
- 11) Emotional appeal, and
- 12) Heavy description.

6.4. PRESENTATIONS OF SELECTED PAPERS, QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

6.4.1. Presentation of Selected Papers

Paper presentation is all about how you put your topic or present your topic in front of the audience. The audience see the way you present your topic, the way you put your points, your presentation style, your language and how promptly and effectively you answer their questions.

6.4.1.1. Tips for Academic Paper Presentation

In presenting a paper following tips may be considered:

- 1) Inquire about, observe, and seek to imitate the best practices and models of paper presentation in discipline.
- 2) State the structure and main points of argument explicitly and clearly at the outset and again in summary.
- 3) Do not be afraid to restate or reiterate in paraphrase, especially where a point is complicated.
- 4) Visual props and key word slides are helpful for offering variety and illustration of arguments.
- 5) It may require more time for an audience to take in spoken or printed discourse than the time in which it deliver. Do not try to jam in too much material to your allotted time by reading really fast. The burden is on you to select and scale your talk and its supporting materials appropriately for your available presentation time.

A few other tips are as follows:

- 1) Rehearse your presentation out loud several times, if possible in front of a listener who can give you feedback on both form and content. Ask your listener if there was anything they had a hard time taking in or following, and if so, clarify and simplify to make it clear. Anything that you were stumbling over in presenting, you should clarify and practice till you can present it well.
- 2) If you will be showing slides or media along with a text, mark in your text where each slide or clip will occur. Rehearse going through your media alongwith the text.
- 3) Speak up and do not drop your voice. You will need to speak at a volume that will seem to you to be excessively loud in order to be well heard in a room. Remember that you are hearing your voice transmitted, in part, through your own body, which is a more proximate and compact carrier of sound than the air between you and your listeners. It is a useful trick to write reminders to yourself in your margins from time to time—"Speak up". "Do not drop volume"
- 4) Time your talk and adjust it to fit your allotted time. Do not indulge in wishful thinking that you can "fit it in". Know how much time you have and do not kid yourself – make your presentation fit it. People remember abusive presenters, and avoid inviting them to participate on future panels they are organising.
- 5) If there are things about your topic you want to get help finding out, or if you want to steer the discussion to a particular issue, end your talk with a query or question. Point out an area of continuing controversy, uncertainty, or interpretative debate and invite your audience to weigh in. With a slightly open-ended presentation, leaving room for and inviting further discussion, you are more likely to draw questions towards your paper, receive comments, and get useful references and contacts from the occasion.

6) Lastly, if you prepare and present academic papers aware that reading a paper is an important professional performance, you will learn and improve with accumulated experience. No one can be a master without a lot of practice; however, no one becomes a master without practicing not just a lot, but also well. Treating each conference paper as a serious public profiling of your work and an occasion to consciously develop your professional communication skills will ensure that you gain the maximum benefit of your efforts.

6.4.2. Presentations of Questions and Answers

There are multiple strategies for question answering:

- 1) One strategy is to try to find a fact which encodes the answer in memory. This is the direct retrieval strategy.
- 2) Another strategy is to compute a plausible answer given a set of facts stored in memory. This is the plausibility strategy.
- 3) Before answering a question, a person engages in an initial strategy selection phase in order to decide which strategy or sequence of strategies to use.
- 4) The strategy-selection stage consists of an initial evaluation of knowledge relevant to the question followed by a decision of which strategy to follow. The initial evaluation is an automated process, while the decision is a controlled process.
- 5) In the initial evaluation, the person assesses how familiar the words in the question are. The more familiar the words, the more the person are biased toward direct retrieval.
- 6) In the initial evaluation, the person also assesses how many intersections in memory there are among the words from the question. The more intersections, the more the person is biased toward plausibility.
- 7) The strategy decision process integrates information from the initial evaluation with factors extrinsic to the question in order to select a strategy. Extrinsic influences include instructions and probability that a particular strategy will be successful.
- 8) After reviewing the evidence that strategy selection (or bias) is involved whenever a question is answered, the paper goes on to suggest the mechanisms that people use for deciding quickly which strategy to apply.

6.4.2.1. Generation of Question Paper

For each subject question paper, a paper design is prepared. This is a policy statement governing the question paper ensuring balance in various aspects of the question paper. The generation of the question paper is based on the following inputs:

- 1) Question paper design and blueprint.
- 2) Number of items in a question paper.
- 3) Total number of items in the question bank.

Question Paper Design and Blueprint

The design of a question paper considers setting percent weightage to the following parameters:

- 1) Learning Objectives,
- 2) Type of Question,
- 3) Content Areas in a subject, and
- 4) Difficulty level.

Based on this design, a Blueprint is developed. The Blueprint is a three dimensional grid, which allocates the number of questions and marks to each module/unit of the subject, the learning objective and the type of question. Such a Blueprint defines how many items are to be taken from each content unit, for each learning objective and for each type of item.

Number of Items in a Question Paper

The Blueprint presents the placement of each question of the question paper in a grid. It also assigns the weightage to each cell and thus fixes the total number of items in a question paper, which is generally between 30 to 35 for a subject. While generating a question paper, the computer randomly picks up a question item from about 35 to 40 questions in each cell of the Blueprint. Each item has a distinct serial number and is classified as per the blueprint. Thus each student appearing in a subject will get different items leading to different question paper. However, since the Blueprint guides generation of the question paper by the computer, the weightage of each question paper set is maintained in terms of content, objectives and the types of questions.

Specification of Paper Settings

This is a two dimensional tables by concerned university given quantum of questions where objective tested are also noted. Paper setting should have a model answer where marks for the points specified. Estimated time should be sufficient for answering all questions.

Table 6.1

| Objective/Content | Long essay, short essay, short answer | Marks |
|----------------------|---------------------------------------|-------|
| Recall Type | Long essay, short essay, short answer | Marks |
| Interpretation Type | Long essay, short essay, short answer | Marks |
| Problem Solving Type | Long essay, short essay, short answer | Marks |
| Area | Question type | Marks |

Procedure of Question Paper Setting

Following procedure is considerable for setting a paper:

- 1) **Planning and Design Question Paper:** This needs syllabus review, duration of question paper, marks allotted, scheme of examination and objectivity of recall, interpretation as well as problem solving, weighing for all types of questions and for content topic given. Guideline and instruction are noted.
- 2) **Make List of Specification:** Objectives sorted out to elicit knowledge, understanding and application.

- 3) **View Model Question Paper Sent by the University:** After view of model question paper sent by university, tally with your design and specifications, at this stage we can rectify our design and specification suiting to affiliated universities.
- 4) **Specify Types of Questions, Marking and Possible Model Answer:** By reforming sample U.G and P.G question paper you can give this information.
- 5) **Read Again for Any corrections:** This helps in refining, editing to question paper. Clarify and spelling mistakes are corrected.
- 6) **Final Review of Question Paper:** This helps in checking options, sections, difficulty level of the paper, grouping, numbering and instructions are checked.
- 7) **Write Dispatch and Maintain Confidentiality:** All precautions for maintaining confidentiality as required. Suggested checklist to review the question paper.
 - i) Within curriculum,
 - ii) Syllabus covered,
 - iii) Weightage to topics,
 - iv) Not too easy,
 - v) Not difficult,
 - vi) Performance possible by category of learners,
 - vii) What is the format?
 - viii) What about clarify?
 - ix) Any repetition,
 - x) Answerable in given time duration, and
 - xi) Standardised.

Above lines of approach, systematically done, definitely improve question paper setting in the examination.

6.4.2.2. Presentation of Questions in the Class

Questioning skill asks for the proper presentation of the questions in the social studies class by a social studies teacher. It calls usually for paying attention over the components as follows:

- 1) **Voice of the Teacher:** A teacher should try to present the questions in the class in a clear and audible voice which can be properly heard by all the students sitting in the class. He should also be careful about the proper accent, tone, pitch, and rhythm of the voice alongwith the accompanying gestures and other non-verbal expressions while putting any question to his students.
- 2) **Speed and Pause:** Due care should be taken for the maintenance of the proper speed in asking the questions by a teacher. He should try to give enough time to a student of the class for responding to a question asked on a simple logic that the rate or speed of thinking and responding by the students tends to be slower than the speed of asking questions. In addition, he should also try to provide a suitable pause, e.g., looking here and there in the class after putting a question and then asking a particular student of the class to provide the answer.

3) **Distribution of Questions:** Questions should be addressed to the whole class instead of its being put to an individual student. Out of the raised hands of the students willing to answer the question, a teacher may now provide opportunity to any one of them or may choose from the group of the students who have not raised their hands for the purpose. As far as possible, the distribution of the questions must be fair and even throughout the class. As a result, every student of the class must feel that he may be asked to respond to a question asked by the teacher any time during the course of the lesson, and therefore, he must remain alert and attentive to the things going on in the classroom.

4) **Teacher Behaviour** A teacher must demonstrate a spontaneous and natural behaviour while asking questions in the class. He must possess a necessary degree of patience, restraint and sweetness in his voice and style of asking questions as well as responding to the responses of the students. He should not try to repeat his questions as it may result in developing a wrong habit among the students for not attending properly to the raised questions. He should also try to refrain himself from the task of discouraging or ridiculing/snubbing the students for their incorrect answers or for not responding. By all means, he should try to reinforce the responding behaviour of his students through his pleasant behavior. In asking questions he should also try to bring variety, novelty and change in the mode and style of asking questions.

6.5. EXERCISE

6.5.1. Very Short Answer Type Questions

- 1) Define writing.
- 2) What do you mean by report?
- 3) Describe review.
- 4) What is book review?
- 5) What is creative writing?

6.5.2. Short Answer Type Questions

- 1) Describe writing skills.
- 2) Write a short note on report writing.
- 3) Write a short note on essay writing.
- 4) Write a short note on book review.
- 5) Describe features of notice writing.

6.5.3. Long Answer Type Questions

- 1) What is writing? Explain its importance.
- 2) What is writing skills? Describe need of writing skills.
- 3) Focus on the linkage between reading and writing.
- 4) Focus on report writing, essay writing, and letter writing.
- 5) Write a detailed note on presentation of selected papers, questions and answers.