CHAPTER – II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with the review of the related literature of the study undertaken. A review of researches in the area of English language teaching methods and approaches has been done. The studies related to various variables considered in the study are also presented.

Researches and studies on theories of language acquisition and the process of language development were carried out in great deal since the beginning of the present century. The second half of the century is marked with the identification of the basic language skills and the development of particular instructional strategies for teaching them. Thus, the twenty first century demands student – directed learning strategies and learning packages.

The survey of related literature and studies capacitated the investigator to have good conceptualization of basic language skills and their measurement. After going through the profuse literature, the investigator has selected only those studies which are relevant for the present study. They are classified under different categories and presented in the following paragraphs.

2.2 REVIEW OF THEORETICAL BASIS AND DEVELOPMENT OF DIFFERENT METHODS AND APPROACHES OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

English language education borrows its theories from a range of disciplines and numerous theories. The theories can be classified into three groups on the basis of
three prominent views- the behaviourist view, the innatist view and the interactionist view. This section analyses these three views.

2.2.1 The Behaviourist View

According to this view, language learning, like other kinds of learning, occurs as a result of the environment shaping an individual with a given IQ. The behaviourists say that an individual is reinforced positively or negatively for responses to various stimuli. One can make sure that behavior will recur by administering positive reinforcement when a desired behavior occurs and by administering negative reinforcement when an undesired behavior occurs. This view of language learning maintains that when a child grows older, reinforcement becomes progressively more contingent on how nearly the child’s language matches the adults’.

The behaviourist’s heavy reliance on stimulus-response reinforcement learning poses serious problems. The natural communicative interaction that forms the basis for the child’s language learning. He/she is very rarely reinforced positively or negatively for the forms he/she uses. It is difficult to accept the behaviourist notion of general intelligence capacity as the only mental ability accountable for language acquisition, at early stage in children’s lives, during which they acquire so much of a complex linguistic system (Lindfors, 1991, Mukulel, 1998).

2.2.2 The Innatist View

In response to the apparent inadequacies in the behaviourist view, the innatist view of language acquisition gained ground. It gives increased importance to innate factors in language acquisition. Noam Chomsky assessed that humans have a special innate capacity for human language called Language Acquisition Device (LAD). He maintained that every child is born with ‘universals of linguistic structure or universal
grammar’. Chomsky (1957) argued that the special innate capacity was the content; that is, a body of unconscious knowledge of language universals. When a child is exposed to the language of his/her community, this ‘language acquisition device’ would be triggered and child becomes a speaker of that language. The strong version of the innatist position received support from biologically based research relating to language development.

Behaviourist and innatist views of language acquisition focus on cognitive aspects of the learner and his/her language learning activity. The innatist view especially, in its process version, sees the language-learning child as a cognitive activist. The role of the environment is seen as shaping language learning through the reinforcement of selected responses, as “triggering” the child’s language acquisition device or as providing data from which the child can discern underlying rules. The child is indeed a cognitive being, making sense out of his/her world, including the world of language. But the child is also a social being and learning of language reflects and uses his/her social self.

2.2.3 The Interactionist View

Observations of children’s language in natural setting, have forced to locate language acquisition within a social framework. The interactionist view brings into sharper focus the social nature of the learning of the language (Lindfors, 1991: 565-67).

Some selected studies on the recent theoretical development of language learning are briefly discussed below.

Bialystok (1978) identified four categories of learning strategies in her model of Second Language Learning: inferencing, monitoring, formal practicing and functional practicing. Here, the learning strategies are defined as ‘optimal means for
exploring available information to improve competence in a second language.’ The type of strategy used by a learner depends on the type of knowledge required for a task. She has identified three types of knowledge: explicit linguistic knowledge, implicit linguistic knowledge and general knowledge of the world. She also hypothesized that inferencing may be used with implicit linguistic knowledge and knowledge of the world. Monitoring, formal practicing and functional practicing contribute to both explicit and implicit linguistic knowledge. Therefore, she is of the view that strategies introduced explicitly in a formal setting can contribute to implicit linguistic knowledge and help the student to comprehend and produce spontaneous language.

The Monitor Model of Krashen (1982) does not allow the explicit linguistic knowledge to contribute to implicit linguistic knowledge. It includes two types of language processes- acquisition and learning. According to him acquisition occurs in spontaneous language contexts, is subconscious, and leads to conversational fluency. Learning, on the other hand is equated with conscious knowledge of the rules of language derived from formal and traditional instruction in grammar. The ‘monitor’ is a conscious process in which the learner applies grammatical rules to language production. In Krashen’s view ‘learning’ does not lead to ‘acquisition’ because the sole function of learning is to act as a monitor or editor of the learner’s output. The implication of the model is that conscious use of learning strategies will make little contribution to the development of language competence.

Wong, Filmore and Swain (1985) have made a comprehensive effort to integrate linguistics with affective and cognitive components of learning. Wong, Filmore (1985) describes strategies which appear more global than what are covered in cognitive Psychology, and include knowledge and mental skills as well as strategic
processes. Strategies, according to Wong, Filmore (1985) include associative skills, memory, social knowledge, inferential skills, analytical skills, pattern, recognition, induction, categorization, generalization, inference and the like.’

McLauqlin, Rossman McLeod (1983) suggested that the Information Processing Approach which reveals a movement toward a more cognitive view of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Here the learner is an active organizer of incoming information, with processing limitations and capabilities. Motivation is considered important, but the learner’s cognitive system is considered central to processing, which enables the learner to store and retrieve information. The learners may achieve the second language automatically by using either a top-down approach or a bottom-up approach.

Spolsky’s (1985) model of SLA is based on preference rules in which cognitive processes play an important role. Here three types of conditions apply to Second Language Learning (SLL): necessary conditions, gradient conditions and typicality conditions. A necessary condition is one that is required for learning to occur. The gradient condition is one in which the more frequently the condition occurs. A typical condition might assist learning typically, but not necessarily.

Anderson (1983, 1985) distinguishes between what we know about, or ‘static’ information in memory, and what we know how to do, or ‘dynamic’ information in memory. The former constitutes declarative knowledge and the latter procedural knowledge. Declarative knowledge includes definition of words, facts and rules. It need not be always verbal- it can also take the form of temporal strings-memory of order of events (Tulving, 1983) or in the form of images (Gagne and White, 1978). The ability to understand and generate language or apply the knowledge or rule to solve a problem can be called as procedural knowledge.
Anderson (1983) suggests three stages of skill acquisition to explain how one proceeds from the rule bound declarative knowledge used in performance of a complex skill to the more automatic procedural stage: cognitive, associative and autonomous.

Audiolingual methods and communicatively based instructional approaches could be explained in terms of Gagne’s (1985) cued performance and modeling. The learner practices imitating grammatically accurate models and patterns until they can be produced automatically. Students repeat isolated units of language that are modelled by the teacher to illustrate grammatical construction. Discrete components of the four language skills are mastered first and the student progresses gradually towards integrative aspects of language.

The objective of communicative approach is to develop the ability to use a second language to communicate meaning (Chamot & Stewner-Manzanares, 1985). The important aspects of communicative approach are the development of interpersonal communication skill, command over sociolinguistics, discourse, and strategic competence.

Learning through imitation is one of two basic processes involved in the acquisition and automatisation of a second language (Faerch & Kaspar, 1985). Imitation requires that the learner be able to store unanalyzed blocks of language in short-term memory and shift them to long term memory for later use.

Bailystok and Ryan (1985) have suggested that two orthogonal dimensions of cognitive skill are the basis for linguistic knowledge, analyzed knowledge and cognitive control. Difficult tasks require more highly analyzed linguistic knowledge. In SLA, difficulty depends upon proficiency of the learner. During early stages
learners are building connections between the new language and knowledge about concepts that were acquired in the first language- hence bottom-up.

The conclusion arrived at is that language comprehension in cognitive theory is an active constructive process.

Language production is an active process of meaning construction and expression. Anderson divides it into three stages:

- **Construction** – selects communication goals, identifies appropriate meanings - prewriting.
- **Transformation** – applies language rules to transform intended meanings into message.
- **Execution** – message expressed in audible or observable form. Anderson says that the first two stages involve higher-level processes, but execution involves ‘the mouth and hands’.

O’Malley, Michael and Chamot (1990) have been concerned with how the instruction of the Second Language Acquisition can be integrated with recent knowledge from cognitive theory and research on learning strategies.

Derry and Murphy (1986) distinguished between detached training, which trains students to use strategies independent of the context provided by any specific curriculum and embedded training which trains students to use strategies with specific subject with specific subject matter courses.

One of the most distinct cognitive models in language learning is Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA). It is designed to develop the academic language skills of Limited English Proficient (LEP) students in upper elementary and secondary schools. CALLA intended to meet the academic needs of the three types of LEP students (Chamot and O’Malley (1987) :
• Students who have developed social communicative skills through beginning level ESL classes or through exposure to English speaking environment, but have not yet developed academic language skills appropriate to their grade level.

• Students who have acquired academic language skills in the native language and initial proficiency in English, but who need assistance in transferring concepts and skills learned in the first language to English.

• Bilingual English dominant students who have not yet developed either languages.

Robin Melrose (1995) explores a process oriented model of language learning where one can match form to function, incorporate ‘extended contextual evidence’, find a place for interaction sequences, account for interpersonal negotiation and recognize that meanings are not fixed and ‘misunderstandings’ are an integral part of communication. Hence, to borrow terms from Halliday (1978), the model must adopt an ‘inter-organism’ (social) rather than an ‘intra-organism’ (cognitive) perspective (e.g. Transformational Grammar).

2.2.4 Discussion

A good number of approaches, methods and techniques have been evolved and practiced in the field of English language teaching. Of course, most of them had a very short life and went behind the curtain giving way for the emergence of the new ones in their place. American applied linguist, Edward Anthony (1963) identified three levels of conceptualization and organization which he termed approach, method and technique. He defined them in the following manner: An approach is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. It is axiomatic. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught.
A method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach. A method is procedural. Within one approach there can be many methods.

A technique is implementational, that which actually takes place in a classroom. It is a particular trick or stratagem used to accomplish an immediate objective. Techniques must be consistent with a method, and therefore, in harmony with an approach as well (Anthony 1963: 63-67). From the review it is understood that all the approaches are based on the existing learning theories or all of them have their base in the theories of learning.

### 2.3 STUDIES ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING APPROACHES AND METHODS

Tidyman et al. (1959) have put forth certain principles of language learning.

- The purpose that training in language is training in living, in understanding and getting along with people.
- Growth of language is conditioned largely by the stimulation and direction provided by parents and teachers.
- The third principle is that language learning is a purposeful and not a mechanical act.
- Language develops as a whole and the teacher attempts to set up a programme of work consistent with natural order in the development of experiences, abilities and skills.

The Harvard Psychologist Roger Brown has documented similar problems with strict Direct Method techniques. He described his frustration in observing a teacher performing verbal gymnastics in an attempt to convey the meaning of
Japanese words, when translation would have been much more efficient technique (Brown, 1973:5)

The British applied linguist Sweet, H. (1899) recognized its limitations. It offered innovations at the level of teaching procedures but lacked a thorough methodological basis. Its main focus was on the exclusive use of the target language in the classroom, but it failed to address many issues that Sweet thought more basic. Sweet and other applied linguists argued for the development of sound methodological principles that could serve as the basis for teaching techniques.

A number of researchers see comprehensible input, as a major causative factor in second language acquisition. Krashen’s (1980; 1981; 1985) Input Hypothesis makes the following claims:

- Learners progress along a natural order by understanding input that contains structures a little bit beyond their current level of competence.
- Although comprehensible input is necessary for acquisition to take place; it is not sufficient. Learners also need to be effectively disposed to ‘let’ in the input they comprehend.
- Input becomes comprehensible as a result of implication and with the help of contextual and extra linguistic clues. ‘Fine tuning’ (i.e., ensuring that learners receive input rich in specific linguistic property they are due to acquire next) is not necessary.
- Speaking is the result of acquisition not its cause. Learner production does not contribute directly to acquisition. While acknowledging that simplified input and context can play a role in making input comprehensible. Interactive input is more important than non-interactive input.
A few studies (Cummens, 1981; Owaidah, 1991) have concluded that Direct Method is without scientific foundations and that it is time consuming.

Swaffar, Arens, and Morgan (1982:25) commented that it is very difficult for teachers to use approaches and methods in ways that precisely reflect the underlying principles of the method.

Morrissey (1993) has pointed out; error is described as a strongly negative phenomenon and error correction as forceful eradication of error. This holds the children back from producing utterances. Imitative and manipulative activities may develop the learner’s command of formal devices of language but not total language behaviour. Language as a set of patterns may no more be manipulated for their own sake, but language should represent as a means of conveying information, ideas, attitudes and functions comparable to those of the learner’s own language.

Some other studies (Hepworth, 1994) concluded that Bilingual Method adversely affected the uptake and recall of vocabulary items.

Many researchers agree that Communicative Approach is very much effective in the teaching of English as second language because it takes into consideration the interest, need and other affective variables of the learners and also the function of the language in real life situations. Language class rooms proved to be scenes of excitement with dialogue, debate, reporting and many such techniques. It is seen that the approach with its tolerance of errors leads to correct use. Studies on teachers have the suggestions for provision of a co-operative teacher as a model (Prabhu 1987, Johnson and Johnson 1998).

Ellis (1994) observes that there is a striking similarity between learner language and foreigner talk.
Zehler, (1994) discusses briefly the language learning principles like understanding cultural difference, children need time to learn a language, there is a difference between conversational and academic language, learning a language is difficult and children learn in different ways. She groups the general characteristics of language learning in the classroom as given:

- Instruction should be predictable and accepting; e.g., learners should be accepted as equal members, it is vital to establish routine, students must know what is expected of them and expectations should be high.
- Language learning opportunities of each lesson should be maximized; e.g., ask questions that require new and extended response, create opportunities for sustained language use in multiple settings and focus on communication.
- Learners should be involved actively; e.g., ensure students are aware of their own responsibilities in learning, use discovery and cooperative learning, create relevancy, use thematic integration and promote higher-order thinking skills.
- Support for learning should be provided; e.g., modify language, multimedia and graphic organizers, allow extra time, and promote collaboration and use of first language.
- Diversity should be embraced; e.g., encourage sharing among learners.

To accomplish these things she suggests that collaboration among teachers and between the school and community needs to be fostered.

Kagan, S. (1995) in his study touts the benefits of cooperative learning in the classroom. Benefits are divided into the three categories of input, output and context. The benefits of cooperative learning in regard to input are that language is comprehensible, developmentally appropriate, redundant and grammatically accurate. The benefits of cooperative learning in regard to output are that the language is
functional and communicative, frequent, redundant and identity congruent. This language occurs in a supportive, motivating, communicative, developmentally appropriate and feedback-rich context.

Very few studies (Asraf, 1995) indicate that there exists some doubt among language teachers in the adoption of a Notional-functional syllabus for the development of proficiency. A combined approach of the formal teaching of structural items and communicative language teaching is also recommended.

A review of studies on Bilingual method reveals that in many cases this method was found effective in developing the skills of speaking, reading and writing. Use of mother-tongue for giving instruction, explanation, introduction of vocabulary and structural items and for class management acted as a psychological boost to the learners. It was less time consuming and helped reduce errors with added clarity in understanding.

Second language input must be comprehensible to promote second language acquisition (Krashen, 1996).

Murphy (2000) shows that there is a description of language learning which fits well with constructivist principles and the propositions of Williams and Burden. It has come from Pusak and Otto (1997) who describes a ‘new era’ of language learning characterized by the following:

- Emphasizes process rather than product.
- Emphasizes function over form.
- Uses a holistic approach.
- Develops communicative competency.
- Develops cross-cultural insights and strategies for effective communication with other people.
• Uses authentic materials and provides experiences for all levels of language learning.
• Relies on performance based assessment.
• Values collaborative group works.
• Sees students as lifelong learners.
• Uses a broad language curriculum.
• Favours development of critical thinking skills.
• Operates in a multi-disciplinary context.
• Promotes student-directed, student-centred learning.
• Accommodates different learning styles and strategies.

According to Murphy, the principles of learning as articulated by Pusack and Otto Williams and Burden, the American Psychological Association and most importantly, by constructivism, provide the basis for a new era of language learning. The Cognitive Interactionist Approach is in conformity with the above mentioned characteristics of the new era of language learning (Anandan, 2006).

Jacobs and Farrel (2001) propose another possible explanation for the sluggishness in the implementation of this paradigm shift. In their view, it stems from the fact that the new paradigm has often been presented in a piecemeal fashion, rather than as a whole. This holistic perspective has two implications. First, these are not unrelated changes to be grasped one by one. Attempting to learn about these changes in such an isolating fashion impedes understanding because we learn best by perceiving patterns and forming chunks. Second, when we attempt to implement these changes in a piecemeal fashion we have fewer chances of success. A paradigm shift implies a total shift. We cannot say that we have to do justice both behaviourism and constructivism. These paradigms do not co-exist. Innovations of new paradigm fit
together, like the pieces in a pattern cut to make a jigsaw puzzle. Each piece supports the other.

Alanis, I. (2004), says that developing literacy skills is where the achievement gap is the most severe. To narrow the gap, the following factors are identified and discussed.

• Classroom environment: an enrichment program that makes use of the native language, a natural learning environment, a safe and trusting atmosphere, a classroom library with varied levels and languages represented, student-generated books and group-constructed texts, and a home reading program.

• Activating prior knowledge: teachers must bridge bicultural knowledge with embedded meaningful and relevant language, and thematic units with visuals and games.

• Instructional approaches: focus on vocabulary development, e.g., reading aloud with discussion and storytelling; writing, e.g., journalizing, interactive writing, real-life purposes for writing tasks; and cooperative learning, e.g., flexible ability grouping for comprehensible motivating input. Also recommended, but not discussed, is continuity of instruction and incorporation of ESL standards into learning objectives.

Crandall, et al (2002) describes ways to develop student language and literacy skills while engaged in academic content. Five major strategies are discussed:

• Building conceptual frameworks: students must understand relationships between ideas. The authors suggest the use of schemas or interpretive frames; e.g., graphic organizers to help clarify connections between ideas.

• Use of learning strategies: students must learn to monitor their own learning in order to experience success. Teachers must identify the strategy, explain its
relevance, demonstrate its use, provide opportunity for practice and provide tools for students to evaluate its effectiveness.

- Focus on reading across all classes: teachers can explicitly teach what good readers do in pre-, during- and post-reading tasks, and provide opportunities for students to respond to text.
- Use of free reading: free reading can build vocabulary and reading habits. Students may need to be taught how to select appropriate reading material for level and interest.
- Moving beyond the text: at the conclusion of a unit, students may be asked to re-examine or rethink concepts to gain deeper understanding. This approach will force students to return to the text and reflect on its meaning. The authors believe that developing language is not enough and must be extended to literacy development across the curriculum.

Many studies on Direct Method have concluded that the method proves to be successful if teaching is through contextualization, interaction between the learners and the teacher and with the use of audio-visual aids (Richards, J.C. & Rodgers, T.S., 2001).

A comparative study of different methods and approaches carried out by Jessa M. (2005) concluded that Bilingual method was the most effective method to develop writing skill. Communicative approach had the maximum effectiveness the skills of speaking and communication. The effectiveness varied with respect to different content areas of language development. For attaining different objectives, different methods and approaches are to be adopted if effectiveness is to be maximum.

In a study on SLAP conducted by Rampal, A. (2001) for UNICEF, the following observations have been made:
The results have been very heartening, especially when compared to the performance of children in mainstream non-SLAP schools, who go through the traditional English curriculum. While almost 27-30 percent of SLAP children of class 4 get A grade in writing, reading and speaking, respectively, only 0-3 percent of class 4 children of SLAP schools get a grade A for the same tasks. Moreover, whereas, in class 5 almost 30-40 percent children get A grades for the tasks in writing, reading and speaking, only 2-18 percent of children studying in class 7 of non-SLAP schools get a grade A for the same tasks. Without going to the exact statistics, this trend is enough to show that the programme, even in a short period, has been able to reorient teachers sufficiently well and has visibly helped children acquire basic skills in English. In fact, teachers are very much satisfied and feel that they too have been growing with the programme, which has helped them tremendously in improving their own language skills.

The study conducted by Nair S.K. (2004) reveals a different profile. Her findings are categorized under three headings:

I. Advantages

- Listening comprehension of SLAP children was much better than non-SLAP children.
- The programme increased considerably the English language proficiency of SLAP teachers.
- The children loved English classes which provided them opportunities to engage themselves in interesting activities.

II. Theoretical flaws

- SLAP is heavily dependent of Noam Chomsky’s theory which accounts for first language acquisition.
• In the case of second language the child would be listening to the selected and filtered language of the teacher.

• The child’s exposure to English language is very minimal.

• In the class the child is expected to reach at least a minimum level of competency within a stipulated time.

• Acquiring is a ‘non-conscious’ process which takes place in natural situations. The classroom situation is a contrived one.

• Conscious learning of the alphabet and mechanical work such as transcribing are discouraged. Graphic and organic writing is a time consuming one.

• Phonemic sense is difficult to be acquired without proper guidance in the case of English as it is not a phonetic language.

III. Implementation flaws

• Most teachers are not qualified to teach English.

• Most of them lack commitment to the programme.

• Teachers do not follow instructions given to them.

• Teachers do not guide the learners properly.

• There was constant correction of errors of learners which inhibited their speech.

• The time allotted for English is not enough.

2.3.1 Discussion

A number of studies on different approaches, methods and strategies of teaching English language have been reviewed in connection with the present study. It is understood that there exists no concurrency in the results of the effect of different methods of teaching English on students’ language acquisition. Studies showed that each method has inherent strengths and weaknesses. There is no unanimous agreement made by the scholars about ‘the best method’ so far. Thus, the field of
teaching English language is still remains to be a field of experiments and innovations.

2.4 STUDIES ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS (LSRW)

A good number of studies conducted in India and abroad related to basic language skills were reviewed for the purpose of the current study and some of the most useful studies which can add flavor to this study are briefly discussed in the following paragraphs under two major categories.

2.4.1 General Studies

The modern thoughts emerged in Psycholinguistics and Cognitive Psychology underline that the basic language skills are strong determinants of higher intellectual functioning. They have acknowledged the role of language skills in the process of language learning and in higher level intellectual functioning.

Charles (1981) conducted a study on development of Language skills and he developed an auto instructional package. The major findings of his study were as follow:

- The course with all particular techniques was found to be effective.

- Highly intelligent and less intelligent adults gained very significantly from the course.

The course in general with all the particular techniques used there in was found to be effective in terms of learner’s reactions.

Palmesar and Brown (1984) designed to improve reading comprehension in children who are at risk for academic difficulties or who are already experiencing difficulties.

Mayer (1987) cites some of the views of language development through communicative skill. To Bruner (1966) action and communication precedes the
development of language and that these are systematically analysed by the infant in ways which have their parallel in language structure.

Corder (1967) writing on learning the second language, picks up the points made by Bruner: firstly that the motivation to speak has to be the desire to communicate something and secondly feedback in normal interaction is to the content and form of an utterance.

Cherian (1988) conducted a study to test the hypothesis that each of the independent variables (the four language skills in English, viz. Listening, speaking, reading and writing) will exert significant influence on each of the dependent variables. Major findings of the study were:

- Relationship of the four language skills in English with achievement in eight scholastic subject areas were significant in the total sample and four sub samples.
- When the three subject based achievement groups with respect to the four language skills in English were compared each of the language skills discriminate between the three achievement level.
- All the four language skills discriminate between the achievement pairs with respect to all the eight scholastic subject areas.

Rubin (1990) gives a very comprehensive schematic representation of the language modes/skills and their sub-skills.

Rafferty et al. (1991) analyzed teacher and student perceptions of literature based reading/writing curriculum for high school students, ranging in age from 15 to 18 years, began English at 9, a redesigned one semester literature based make up course for students who failed ninth grade English. Results indicated that although students had been placed in English 9th for various reasons almost all responded favourably to the designed curriculum, which used a literature based reading/writing
approach taught in a relaxed and democratic classroom atmosphere. The students had acquired both the motivation and literary skills necessary to succeed in the academic school environment.

Sullivan et al. (1994) investigated the relationship between reading and writing of gifted secondary school students, especially their developmental reading interests, leisure reading selections and the influence of other on their literary choices. Survey responses indicated that students identified as gifted writers had a wide range of reading interests and that family and friends most frequently influenced their reading choices.

Dugdale (1996) remarks that hearing recognizing, guessing at meaning being able to remember and trying to use the word or phrase is an excellent weapon in their language acquisition skills, for students who has learnt two or five hundred words of a language or sometimes less to learn new vocabulary.

Thompson (1996) assessed the listening, speaking, reading and writing proficiency of Russian students after one, two, three, four and five years of study using tests based on the proficiency scale of the American Council on teaching of foreign languages. Results indicate that the correlation is among the four skills were not strong, suggesting that they follow nonparallel paths of development.

Nelson et al (1997) describes a battery of evaluation instrument designed to test the language skills of limited English proficient elementary school children (K-6). The battery assesses students in four language skills, uses educational tasks similar to those required in main stream instruction, and reflects the cognitive abilities of elementary school age children. The questions of all tests are based on a single story, told through pictures, of a girl’s first day at a new school. The tests include
assessments for grades K-1, 2-3, and 4-6 and were field tested, validated and calibrated through a school system.

A study was conducted by Pearlman (1998) on literature based reading programme. The major findings state that 5th grade students in a literature based programme acquired traditional reading comprehension skill as assessed through standardized testing. The children at the school under investigation show significant improvement over their own standardized test scores from 4th to 5th grade and surpassed national suburban and independent school norms. The six targeted children demonstrated their knowledge of both traditional and additional. A more recent trend is the use of trade books in instructional programmes that are literature based.

2.4.2 Studies on Individual Language Skills

In this section the reviewed studies are arranged under four headings – listening, speaking, reading and writing.

2.4.2.1 Listening

“Listening is a conscious cognitive effort involving primarily the sense of hearing and leading to interpretation and understanding”.

— Rose (1978)

“Listening is not merely hearing, it is a state of receptivity that permits understanding of what is heard and grants the listener full partnership in the communication process”.

— Janis (1993)

Anila (1963), “Listening is a difficult process of thinking, a process by which what is heard is weighed, analyses, stored, related, classified, evaluated and judged”.

Zelko and Dance (1965) commented that the record is quite full of examples of successful men in business and government who have placed great importance on the development of their listening ability.
According to Fauls et al. (1978) listening involves two complementary procedures. First one must obtain an understanding of the speaker’s symbolic behavior from the speaker’s point of view. What do the speaker’s words mean to the speaker? In order to answer this question, the listener must become involved in such a way to allow to other person his or her symbolic reality. Second, one must use one’s analytical skills to determine the best way of reaching understanding or negotiating.

Studies conducted at Colombia University and at the University of Minnosota have proved that we operate at 25 percent level of efficiency when listening to a ten minute talk.

Nicolas (1982) opined that, about 90 percent of a student’s class time is spent in listening. Most of what one knows and what one believes that one has learned by listening to others will allow one to respond intelligently to what one hears. This requires conscious effort. The listener’s goal is to understand while the speaker’s goal is to be understood. Listening is mainly classified into two: active listening and passive listening. Active listening is “listening and responding in a way that makes it clear that the listener appreciated both the meaning and the feelings behind what is said” (Rogers and Farson, 1990).

Brown et al. (1985) teachers interested in discovering how effectively students listen may:

- Administer a standard listening test for which norms have been developed.
- Develop and refine through further use a listening test of their own. In either case, they might find a means of measuring all important listening skill.

In the words of Carlile and Daniel (1987) ineffective listening can also cause problems in our business relations. How many times have we had to do a task or
failed to perform a task because of ineffective listening, probably more times than we are willing to admit.

Listening requires a combination of hearing what another person says and active involvement in what he/she is saying. The capacity to be a good listener depends up on the skills like attending, following and reflecting (Pike and Selvy, 1993). Bushy and Majors (1987) are of the opinion that friends and loved ones are precious assets for securing good health and happiness, and they undoubtedly involve active instead of passive attempts to listen to than when they express themselves.

“Good listening is one of the best ways for improving language facility. Perhaps this fact stems from early childhood when we learned to talk by listening and imitating our elders. The same principle remains at work for adults. Of course, to take advantage of this principle, if possible, a listener must listen to persons who are accomplished speakers either in public speaking situations or in conversations” (Ahuja & Ahuja, 1993).

Listening and speaking are interactive process that directly affects each other. Speaking is an expressive language skill in which the speaker uses verbal symbols to communicate. While listening is a receptive language skill which involves the interpretation of these symbols into meaning. From 1990s these two have been considered as interactive and taught as one communicative process of education (Husen ed., 1994).

Jayashree (1994) prepared a course to improve the listening and speaking skills of the secondary school teachers of Gujarat. The implementation of this made considerable improvement in the target group’s performance.

Dugolale (1995) speaks of raconteur listening an activity to improve listening comprehension by working on skills such as note taking, asking inferences and
listening for details. This listening exercise has its origin in storytelling. It is important that the story be relevant and interesting to the students so as to capture their attention. A raconteur is someone who tells a story.

Tahrawi, Khalil (1995) designed a practicum to improve listening and speaking skills of 30 learners of Arabic as a second language. The teacher used these classroom strategies introducing carefully selected dialectal vocabulary and language forms; concentrating only oral skills; avoiding heavy introduction of other language skills; reducing teacher correction during utterances; easing of pronunciation requirements especially for vowels at word end; and de-emphasizing grammar. Analysis of student performance revealed improved oral skills when the skills are introduced intensively at the beginning of the language learning process and without interference of other language skills. It was also found that students preferred to spend more time listening and speaking than reading and writing.

2.4.2.2 Speaking

Speech is the first and foremost form of communication. It occupies a predominant position in enlightening the minds of the people. Information is understood and processed easily through speech rather than writing. Speech is a biologically endowed behavior of human beings.

Spoken language has wider range of functions to perform than the written language. They start from casual spontaneous conversations ending with formal speeches and so on. The language tends to serve rather specialized functions at the formal level.

“Speech is the great method through which human co-operation is brought about. it is the means by which the diverse activities of man are coordinated and correlated with each other for the attainment of common and reciprocal ends” (De Lauguna, 1927: 19).
Oral communication is integral to understanding, enriching and expanding reading and writing experiences. Listening and reading strategies should be included at all levels of language development. When children are encouraged to listen and talk with peers about what they are reading and studying, they can explore concepts, try out theories or express opinions tentatively and receive immediate responses (Norman, 1990).

Oral language is a significant factor in cognitive growth. Children develop oral communication fluency when they use listening and speaking for relevant and functional reasons. When children are actively involved in getting and giving meaning, they learn language by using it with peers and teachers in the classroom. “People develop most when they are trying to do things somewhat beyond their current ability” (Goodman, 1987, p. 258). Consequently children must be encouraged to take risks and practice speaking in new and different contexts.

In speaking, reading and writing learners need to feel that it is alright to try something and make a mistake or to guess using the best information available to make a decision. The teacher’s role is to provide a temporary framework that allows the students to develop competencies and build confidence (Peregoy & Boyl, 1990). Whether it is in a first or second language, if there is bilingual adult available in the classroom, children from the non-dominant language group can be encouraged to talk in their own language about the ideas being learned. This assists access to the curriculum and demonstrates for children that their language is acceptable in school (Norman, 1990). Once something is understood in the first language it will be easier to talk about in another.

Burnes (1976) studied the role of spoken language in learning. He analysed pupils’ small group talks in various school subjects and concluded that informal
‘exploratory’ language plays a major role in moving pupils towards understanding and appreciation of the ideas presented to them in the curriculum.

Ashok (1989) conducted a study on features of Malayali pronunciation of English. The study was intended to find out phonological analysis of ten random samples of Malayali variety of English. He also attempted to examine the phonetic and phonological patterns of this English, to compare it with RP (Received Pronunciation) and to offer suggestions for the improvement of spoken English in Kerala. It was found that there were deviations in Malayali English from RP. Many sounds of English are absent in Malayalam and, hence, English sounds were replaced by Malayalam sounds.

Miller (1994) “Listening, reading and spelling ability greatly depends upon competency in oral language.” Without good oral language skills a child usually has considerable difficulty with reading, writing and spelling skills.

2.4.2.3 Reading

Traditionally reading was considered as a passive skill but today it is considered as an active one. Reading involves both constructing an author’s message and constructing one’s own meaning using the print on the page. This process of comprehension is interrelated with other communicative processes: listening, speaking, writing and thinking (Hittleman, 1998).

Boland Theo (1993) conducted an eight year longitudinal study of Dutch children on the relationship of the development of reading ability in primary schools with general academic success. He finds that young children with reading problems in primary school level, keep them throughout their educational career.

Barry, Ariene (1994) discusses the way in which American high school remedial reading programmes became staffed. He suggests that progress has been
slow in terms of preparing teachers to work with students who have reading difficulties.

Alvermann et al. (1994) examines secondary school reading instruction from the information processing and socio-cultural perspectives. They review researches on cognitive strategy instruction and its effectiveness.

Olson Patricia (1995) presented a material relating to the Re Ca Re (Reading and Content-area Resource) programme, a one semester elective course for secondary school students of all ability levels designed to develop their reading comprehension, vocabulary, rate of reading and study skills. The compilation presents a research report demonstrating the effectiveness of the Re Ca Re programme at Henry Sibley High School, Minnesota.

To Dugdale (1996) reading speed fosters comprehension. One’s reading speed should be increased till it reaches at least three or five hundred words per minute. As Hemmingway remarked ‘writing is not a full time occupation.’ He wanted each one to read more.

Ervin, (1999) reported that standardized tests failed to assess early reading achievement. In 1990, twenty four first grade teachers in Bangalore objected to use the standardized achievement tests. They tried a new process which later came to be known as ‘Bangalore Assessment of Reading’. This was a process of assessing fluency, meaning comprehension, reading strategies and students’ attitude towards literature.

2.4.2.4 Writing

Britton et al. (1975) classified writing as expressive, transactional and poetic where they see expressive as basic. This is a more personal writing to a close audience, explaining to self or to a reader close to the writer, with a more informal
style and less need for amplification. Transactional writing is seen as directed to a
more distant audience.

A series of researches were conducted in writing by Eming (1977), Applebee
(1978), Elley et al. (1979), Jacobs (1979), Hapes and Flower (1980) and the major
findings of the studies were:

- Correctness in writing is best taught by giving students feedback on what they
  actually write.
- There are three developmental stages in writing and the writing of each student
can be placed at any one of these stages: Chunk-style (simply listing correlated
chunks of information), Chaotic (attempting to relate information without a
coherent framework) and integrated (combining rational and content information).
- Writing involves thinking through ideas drafting and redrafting with writer’s
  moving back and forth among these three aspects of composing as they solve the
problems posed by their evolving piece.
- The greater significance occurred in contrasting clarity of concepts learned by
  writing; assigned writing tasks had significantly, higher gains in learning content
subject area.

Zarzana (1995) conducted a study on improving expository writing through
objective setting and performance appraisal. After interviews with teachers and
students three practicum objectives were developed. The results indicated
improvement in student writing scores.

Ashutosh et al. (1997) conducted a study to improve English composition of
standard VIII students using word processors in schools with computer facilities.
Word processors have also proved to be potent tools to improve English writing of
students in foreign countries. As English is considered as a difficult subject in Indian
schools, some remedial teaching is essential for the students who are weak in English. Here, an attempt has been made to analyze the effectiveness of word processor in improving English composition writing of standard VIII students. The findings of the study showed that word processor can significantly reduce grammatical errors, spelling and punctuation mistakes. It also revealed that logical sequencing of the sentences, paragraphs, page format and neatness of the writing can be improved through word processing. It was found that the overall literary quality of the composition also improved.

2.4.3 Discussion

A lot of studies were carried out on the basic skills of the language: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Most of the studies were focussed to find out the effect of different methods in enhancing these skills among the children. Review of the studies mentioned above revealed that many approaches have great effect on students’ acquisition of different skills.

Though some methods are effective in catering the enhancement of all the four basic skills; where as some are useful in the case of only one or two skills. It is understood that the recent methods based on cognitive interactionist approach are in better position in helping students in acquiring language skills. Second Language Acquisition Programme (SLAP) proved to be a better programme in the acquisition of the skills. No studies were found on the effect of the Discourse Oriented Pedagogy in acquisition of language skills.

2.5 STUDIES ON THE SELF EFFICACY OF STUDENTS IN THE USE OF ENGLISH

Many studies have been carried out on the concept of self- efficacy in the academic settings. For example, Schunk (1995) stated that students when engaged in
activities are affected by personal (e.g., goal setting, information processing) and situational influences (rewards, feedbacks). These provide students an idea on how well they learn. Self efficacy was enhanced when students perceived they performed well. On the other hand, Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara and Pastorelli (1996), reported that parents’ academic aspirations for their children, influence the children’s academic achievement directly or indirectly by influencing their self efficacy.

Therefore, it is not surprising that many research studies show that self efficacy influences academic achievement motivation, learning and academic achievement (Pajares, 1996; Schunk, 1995).

Studies have also indicated that self-efficacy correlates with achievement outcomes (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 1996; Schunk, 1995). Students with high self-efficacy often display greater performance comparatively to those with low efficacy. Self-efficacy is also equated with self competence, hence significant authorities such as parents and teachers who exert great influences should play their role efficiently in enhancing the self competence and eventually self efficacy because it has great bearings in achievement, be it in the English language or any other subjects.

Many studies have been carried out on self-efficacy in the academic settings. Researchers have reported that mathematics self efficacy is a good predictor of mathematics interest and choice of mathematics-related courses (Lent, Lopez, & Bieschke, 1993; Pajares & Miller, 1994). In other studies, on science and engineering college students (Lent, Brown, & Larkin, 1984), it was reported that high self efficacy seemed to influence academic persistence necessary to maintain high academic achievement. Pintrich and Groot (1990) reported that academic self efficacy is correlated with academic performances in examinations and quizzes, and Schunk
(1984) found that mathematics self efficacy influenced mathematics performance directly.

In a related research, Schunk (1995) stated that when students are engaged in activities, they are affected by personal (e.g., goal setting, information processing) and situational influences (e.g., rewards, feedbacks). These provide students with idea of how well they have learned. Self efficacy was enhanced when students perceived they performed well. On the other hand, Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, and Pastorelli (1996) reported that parents’ academic aspirations for their children influenced the children’s academic achievement directly or indirectly by influencing their self efficacy.

A study conducted by Mahyuddin, R. et al. (2006) on the relationship between students’ self efficacy and their English language achievement showed that 51.1 percent of the students have high self efficacy and 48.9 percent were of low self efficacy in the English language. Their confidence in themselves (self efficacy) tends to decline as they advance through school because of less teacher attention (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996).

2.5.1 Discussion

Many studies were conducted on the self efficacy of the students in different areas. It is stated that the self efficacy was enhanced when students perceived that they have performed well. Various studies also state that self efficacy influenced the performance of the students directly. Many studies indicated that self efficacy correlates with achievement outcomes. Active participation in learning process increases self-efficacy of using English. However, very few studies were conducted on the self efficacy of the students in the use of English language and language skills.
2.6 TEACHERS’ ATTITUDE TOWARDS METHODS OF TEACHING ENGLISH

Attitude is defined as a complex mental state involving beliefs and feelings. Anastasi (1957) defines attitude as tendency to react in a certain way towards a designed class of stimuli. Attitude has been defined as a mental and neutral state of readiness, organised through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual’s response to all objects and situations with which it is related. People’s attitudes towards their profession have an effect on their performance. This case is also valid for the profession of teaching.

According to Bradley (1995), inadequate funds of schools, lack of parent and community support, and insufficient salaries are examples of those factors. Marchant (1992) added the role of experience to the factors influencing teachers’ attitudes for their profession.

Dodeen et al. (2003) found that female teachers have more positive attitude than male teachers. These attitudes and expectations vary from society to society and attempting to copy learning and teaching strategy from one society into another, without trying to adapt into the local conditions may not be successful (Derebssa 2006).

Studies have pointed out that teacher’s negative personal and professional behaviour and poor social image of the teacher and teaching profession are serious factors responsible for teacher’s low status. Awanbor (1996) reported that teacher trainees had a negative attitude towards teaching and those teacher trainees who had positive attitude towards teaching did so with strong reservation which range from the poor social image to the teaching profession, the comparatively poor financial remuneration for the teacher, to the general lack of encouragement by educational
authorities. The attitude of teachers comes to the fore as they reflect upon the language that they use in teaching. Consciously or unconsciously, their attitudes play a crucial role in language’s “growth or decay, restoration or destruction” (Baker 1988).

Teachers’ attitudes, too, as part of their cultural orientation, influence heavily their younger students (Shameen, 2004).

There has been a general agreement that the attitude of teachers towards teaching is significantly correlated with teaching success.

In general, it may be concluded that there are indications that teacher’s attitudes towards the method of teaching have a positive relation with success in teaching. Researchers identified many factors and situations that influence the development of attitudes are: type of schooling, the parental attitudes, and the attitude of friends, teachers, and siblings.

The negative attitude of teachers has been documented in many studies (Houck, 1992; Lobosco & Newman, 1992; Allred, Brullle & Shank, 1990).

Another important factor is attitude or belief towards the subject. Callahan and Clark (1988) indicate that one can facilitate development of attitude by providing a conducive atmosphere and models.

A recent study conducted by Latchanna, G. and Dagnew, A. (2008) on English teachers’ attitude towards the importance of active learning methods for communicative English language teaching revealed the following results. 85 percent of the teachers were in favour of the idea that active learning methods can give students a sense of participation. 75 percent of them agreed that active learning methods can integrate students’ experiences. 75 percent of them have agreed that
students are actively engaged in listening, speaking, reading and writing activities. Majority of the teachers have a very positive attitude towards active learning methods.

**2.6.1 Discussion**

All the reviews of the studies on the attitude of teachers towards teaching methods recorded above are in concurrence of the view that the awareness and positive attitude of teachers towards teaching methods yielded good results.

**2.7 REVIEW OF THE TOOLS USED IN THE STUDIES**

A large number of studies have reported with the tools prepared by the researchers to test the language skills.

Subramanian, V.M. (2002) used a tool to test the four skills of the undergraduate students. The validity and reliability details are not given. Chandran, A. (2002) used a tool to measure language skills of higher secondary students. Many standardized tools constructed to assess the four language skills were also reviewed like TOFEL, IELTS, etc.

The popular reading comprehension measures used in research and clinical practice in the United States: the Gray Oral Reading Test (GORT), the two assessments (retellings and comprehension questions) from the Qualitative Reading Inventory (QRI), the Woodcock–Johnson Passage Comprehension subtest (WJPC), and the Reading Comprehension test from the Peabody Individual Achievement Test (PIAT). All these tests are intended for the English speaking native students.

Many researchers in India and abroad have developed language skill tests. None of them was felt to be suitable for the grade of the students. Thus, in the present study the investigator prepared and particularly designed the tools to assess the language skills, which are suitable to the grade of the students.
A review of the literature shows that there are many scales prepared to measure the attitude of the teachers, but they are not intended to measure the attitude of the teachers towards Discourse Oriented Pedagogy. Thus, there was a need for preparing an attitude scale by the researcher.

Many self-efficacy scales prepared by different researchers were reviewed. But these tools are not prepared keeping upper primary students in mind. Hence, a tool to assess students’ self-efficacy in the use of English language skills had to be developed.

2.8 CONCLUSION

The present chapter dealt with the research studies carried out in connection with the variables taken in this study. In the next chapter, the methodological details of the study are presented.