CHAPTER II

LANGUAGE ACQUISITION—A THEORETICAL OVERVIEW

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LANGUAGE ACQUISITION-
A THEORETICAL OVERVIEW

Introduction

Language is man’s power. It is the manifestation of his attempt to verbalize his idea, thoughts and feelings. A property of linguistic signs is their arbitrary relationship with the objects they represent. The language users multiplicate their linguistic resources to produce new expressions and new sentences for new situations. Language facilitates cultural transmission. Communication is the bond by which living creatures are bound to each other. Whatever be the modern machinery of communication, language forms the basic unit of it. Many psychologists including Watson (1924) are convinced of the importance of language that they maintain language is the very basis of thought. Language is an essential part of many cognitive processes and it is difficult to imagine any kind of civilization in which there is no form of language.

Theoretical ground

The process of Second Language Acquisition L₂ is a very complex one. Much work in this area has been dealt with linguistic concepts in a more or less haphazard fashion without a firm theoretical basis. One reason for this state of affairs comes from within the field itself. The initial impetus for studies of second language learning came from contrastive analysis, a well established field with its own traditions and interests, and the emergence of error analysis, a discipline which developed in reaction to the unsubstantiated claims made by proponents of contrastive analysis.
regarding the sources of learner difficulty in second language learning. During the 1970s it became apparent that the study of second language acquisition was a viable topic for investigation, in and of itself, its jurisdiction no longer came from the concern of language pedagogy as had been the case within the framework of contrastive analysis and error analysis. Instead its jurisdiction came from the insight that it provided about the nature of the process of acquisition. Second language acquisition is concerned with (1) what is acquired of a second language, (2) what is not acquired of a second language, (3) the mechanisms that bring that knowledge about, and ultimately (4) explanation for this process in terms of both its success and failure.

From thousands of studies one can piece together a convincing description of the child’s dawning grasp of language, but no one has yet been able to provide a satisfactory explanation of how children acquire language. An adequate explanation must take into account the maturational, cognitive and social precursors of language. Rivers (1980) described the early trends in second language teaching. The structural linguists emphasised overt patterned behaviour of responses to stimuli. With repeated reinforcement a habit is established as according to reinforcement theorist like Thorndike in 1920s and 1930s. Audio lingual approach became the predominant methodology in teaching English to foreign students who flocked into the universities. In the late fifties it began to spread into school classrooms two. Here emphasis is on presentation of the language in oral form, spoken form first and then aural-oral made, (first listening, then producing utterances with graphic representation of what they have been learning). Drilling was mostly used and many a time through contrastive linguistic method.
In the early 1960s criticisms were leveled against this approach. Linguistic theorists declared themselves to be frankly mentalistic. Transformational generative linguistic theory pointed out the apparent simultaneity of surface forms of a language in different utterances may camouflage important differences in meaning. Hence indiscriminate selection of surface features for drill exercises may result in students making serious errors when begin to extend by analogy.

Discussing on language learning, Carroll (1953) distinguished between habits and internalized rules or rule governing behaviours. Carroll maintained that a ‘rule’ was a construct, independent of actual behaviour whereas a habit was what the person had actually learned, that is the behavioural manifestation of the internalisation of rules. An extension of Carroll’s approach might well be applied to Krashen’s ‘feel and rule’. To Carroll an automatic process is one that (nearly) always becomes active in response to particular input configuration where the input may be externally or internally generalised and include the general situational context.

To Krashan (1961) conscious rule learning is not essential for second language acquisition. Krashan’s Monitor model says “conscious learning is quite different from acquisition and may be totally an independent system. Conscious learning does not initiate utterance or produce fluency. It also does not contribute directly to acquisition. We know that “adults have two independent systems for developing ability in second language. subconscious language acquisition and conscious language learning and that these systems are inter related in a definite way, subconscious acquisition appears to be far more important”. However, Krashen does not spell out in any explicit fashion what this relationship may be and continues to speak of the acquisition and learning system in the same terms as to the article 1978. In 1982 he stated in his
theory of acquisition and learning that irrespective of age and the first language (L1) of learners, there is similarity in the order of acquisition of certain grammatical structure. The structures reflect the natural acquisition process which is common for both L1 and L2.

In Schlesinger’s (1977) Model, learning another language means acquiring new categorisation of semantic relations in accordance with the realisation rules of the new language. This can result in the realisation of new cognitive structures (new ways of perceiving relations).

Bailystock (1983) remarked that language is acquired by understanding messages that contain new structures slightly higher to the learner’s current level of competence. Unfamiliar language is understood with the help of context, extra-linguistic information and knowledge of the world. As per his input hypothesis there should be sufficient variety and quantity of input so that it provides (I+I) for different learners at different levels of competence and enables them to review the already acquired structures constantly.

Structural linguistics by Bloomfield, (1933) is remarkable. It is the study of language based on speech samples.

**Biological theories**

As per the biologist or innatist, language development is primarily a matter of maturation because according to the linguist N. Chomsky, (1975 - 79), the structure of language is laid down in the genes of a child. He called this innate capacity a “Language Acquisition Device” LAD which gives the child the communicative ability. All human languages share an underlying deep structure, which he calls a ‘universal grammar’. This consists of principles, conditions and rules for the
semantic, syntactic and phonological possibilities of human language. One's job is to figure out how the particular language system of his community actualizes linguistic universals. Though children learn entirely different and mostly fragmentary language, they come up with the same rich complex language system.

Chomsky (1968) claimed for the language a central place in general psychology, since then language related studies by psycholinguists have proliferated. Chomsky's theory supports the view of creative language use because many of the sentences children utter have never been heard by them in that particular form. Dialogue sentences and conversation situations were used as spring board for creating new utterances. Opportunities should be provided in class for student sanctioned discussions and for extempore dialogue in situations that stimulated these in which student might find themselves in the second culture. Shorter exchanges of eight or ten lines can enable students memorise useful building blocks of language that they could adapt and vary to express messages of their own devising. This Chomskyan theory has led to the revival of an older approach to stimulate in the classroom an environment that will approximate the context in which children acquire their first language.

Chomsky was antagonistic to the mechanical unthinking practice of structures. In his LAD, children acquire language by making hypothesis about the form of the grammar of their first language. They then compare it with the innate knowledge of possible grammar based on the principles of universal grammar. In this way the child internalises a knowledge of the grammar of the native language (This Chomsky call's 'competence') and this competence makes language use, ('or performance') possible. Language use is thus rule-governed behaviour to create new utterances that conform to the rules they have internalized. The term 'rule governed behaviour', 'creative
language use' and 'hypotheses testing' soon were replaced by 'building in habits' and 'saturation practice' as the catchword of language teaching.

Cooper (1966) claiming that first and second language learning are analogous and that a second language is not learned in any functionally different way than a first language, nevertheless, lists some of the cognitive differences in the occasions. "In spite of these differences", he says, "there seems to be little evidence that the central language learning theory differ for the child and the adult".

The notion prevalent among early analyst that errors were the result of interference in the learning of a second language from the habits of the first language (Bright and O' Greger (1970) has given way to a more positive thinking according to which the learner's possession of his native language is facilitative and that errors are not to be regarded as sign of inhibition, but simply as evidence of his strategies of learning.

Many linguists support the view that there are sufficient similarities between first and second language acquisition to support a common theory on the processes of their acquisition. Krashen (1978) Ellis (1986).

**Behaviouristic theories**

Behaviourists argue that language is learnt in the same way as one learns other forms of behaviour, (Skinner 1957) primarily through imitation and reinforcement. The common assumptions are (1) children are born with a general learning potential which is part of their generic inheritance, (2) language (including the learning of a language) occurs entirely through the nature of the environment shaping the individual behaviour, (3) behaviours (including the language) is shaped through the reinforcement of particular responses emitted in the presence of particular stimuli, and
(4) in the shaping of very complex behaviours such as language, there is a progressive selection or narrowing of responses which are positively reinforced, although more simple and general responses receive positive reinforcement initially. Such reinforcement is given later for responses which are more complex and which more nearly match the ultimate behavioural goal.

Skinner, (1957). Mower and Scaats regarded the acquisition of language as a matter of conditioned habit formation. Skinner's theory of language acquisition is more relevant since learning a language is a behavioural change. Though children imitate adult speech no two children's speech pattern is the same nor their style the same.

Bever turned our attention to the perceptual and semantic strategies that facilitate language acquisition. Brown, (1973). concentrated on semantic as well as grammatical relations. Skinner (1957) and Sidney, Bijou and Baer (1965) see language simply as vocal behaviour that is reinforced by the action of another person. Children, build sentences out of grammatical frames, a process that allows them to produce sentences that are different from sentences they hear. They make small generalisations, inferences and analogies before the sentence. (Whitehurst 1982) Gradually children accumulates a patchwork of thousands of separately acquired frames, patterns, responses and rules.

Social learning theories

Socio-linguistics rapidly developed in the 1960s and 1970s. To them language is more communicative rather than the competence – performance. The basic principles of natural language learning is the distinction Krashen (1982) has drawn between acquisition of a language through the pores of learning and the formal
cognitive sense. Language acquisition takes place during episodes of authentic communication in the language in unstructured interaction. To Bruner (1966) "Use is a powerful determinant of rule structure". To combine Chomsky's view and sociolinguistic view 'communicative competence' was coined. Hymes, (1971) provides an excellent discussion of the competence - performance controversy and sociolinguistic models of communicative competence and language use. Hymes describes communicative competence as what a speaker needs to know to communicate effectively in culturally significant settings. The most important task of the sociolinguistic research was the identification of the rules, patterns, purposes and consequences of language use and an account of their interrelations".

Certain types of higher mental functions such as deliberate attention, logical memory, verbal and conceptual thought and complex emotions cannot emerge and take form in the developmental process without the constructive assistance of social interaction. Rivers, (1972).

According to Lenneberg, (1967) language can be acquired only during a sensitive period in human development i.e. when the children are two years old, and lasts until they reach maturity. At times the ability to learn a language declines and by the late teen it is difficult or even impossible. The end of the sensitive period, said Lenneberg, (1973) coincides with the maturation of the brain. The mature brain loses its plasticity and can no longer make the adjustment that the acquisition of language requires. Social learning theorists would add that imitation plays a major role in the acquisition of speech and that both comprehension and speech are based on observational learning (Bandura, 1977). The social theorists call children's language acquisition as delayed selective imitation. (Whitehurst and Vasta, 1975).
Social interaction theorists have a liberal view. They take into account almost all the possible sources of language acquisition and admit the fact that the more socialised the child is the richer his language would be in positive contexts.

Social Cognitive Interaction Theories

The interaction approach to language acquisition agrees with the biological contention that maturation is vital and that, until children reach a certain cognitive level, they cannot acquire language. It also agrees with the behaviourist contention that social interaction is the place to look for the emergence of language. But interaction theorists maintain that innate mechanisms cannot, by themselves, explain the child’s grasp of language. Bloom, (1970) draws attention to the interactions of cognitive – perceptual development, linguistic experience, and non-linguistic experience in the language development. “Induction of underlying structures”, she says, “is intimately related to the development of cognition”, and further “children’s speech is very much tied to context and behaviour”. The basis for linguistic competence also goes beyond conditioning and observational learning to include nonlinguistic aspects of human interaction: turn-taking, mutual gazing joint attention, context, assumptions and cultural conventions. The forms of language are acquired, so children can carry out communicative functions (Bates,1979).

Vygotsky (1978) asserted that children learn through social interaction and language is an important facilitator of learning. To him the cognitive structure is the organisation of knowledge in the brain and knowledge is categorised into category systems, the so called schemata. Learning occurs when existing schemata is enlarged or restructured.
To Dembo (1991) both perspectives, social interaction and cognitive processes have important implications for the classroom teacher. The first perspective is Vygotsky’s (1978) zone of proximal development. The zone of proximal development is the difference between an individual’s current level of development and his or her potential level of development. He views language as an important mediator between learning and development. Language develops mainly because of a child’s need to communicate with people in the environment. During the child’s development, language is converted to internal speech as it becomes an internal process and organises the child’s thoughts. The second perspective is Krashen’s (1982) concept and its application to language acquisition. To Krashen child should be given maximum exposure to the language (Krashen and Terrell, 1983). The child is a cognitive being making sense out of his world, including the world of language. But the child is as deeply a social being and this learning of language both reflects and uses his social self. The cognitivists see the child as a cognitive activist and the interactionists see it as a social activist.

Children discovers a good deal by asking questions. At first they have difficulty, but later they realise the adjustment. Once they understand the rule they generalise it. Language is the product of the child’s active interaction with an environment provided by other human beings. As Gleason and Weintraub (1978) point out cognitive development can result from interaction with the physical world, but children cannot acquire language merely through simple exposure to it as passive listeners. Some of the views of the interactionist approach is most promising. They borrow freely from other approaches Bohamoon and Leubecker 1985.
Piaget (1962) focuses on language as an abstract system of sign relations and on the prepositional and content independent properties of linguistic representation which make it a powerful tool for the development of abstract reasoning. As children acquire language, they acquire a sign system which bears important relationships to both cognitive and social aspects of their life. Zone of proximal development is operationalised in terms of the process of social interaction between children and adults which allows children to acquire complex series of actions in problem solving situations before they have the mental capacities to decide an actions on their own. Piaget refers to the social functions of a language and some aspects of its content dependence as does Vygotsky in his Zone of proximal development. Piaget and Vygotsky differ on the relation between development and learning. Piaget believes that development proceeds learning, where as Vygotsky believes that learning proceeds development.

Piaget has been instrumental in shaping the relationship between language and thought. Using the basic function of assimilation the tendency of the organism to incorporate environmental stimuli into a system of mental structure accommodation (the process of adapting to the environment), children constantly strive for equilibrium.

During the 1980s, changes occurred in the conception of communication and language development. Language was no longer presented as an idealized system of syntactic rules, but as a complex system of communication. Context is no longer regarded as a simple elicitor of an innate mechanism. Young children are context sensitive and their cognitive performance is determined by what they think others want form them. Children use and develop their communicative skills in order to
make sense of their environment. This environment is much more social and cultural than physical.

A general level of cognitive competence is necessary for rudimentary communicative competence. Specialised conceptual competence may be needed for the comprehension of sophisticated technical information. Effective communication is possible only when a person exercise skills in at least three domains—linguistic, cognitive and social.

The psycholinguistic and socio linguistic perception coupling the constructivist or cognitive theories of Piaget, (1962), and Bruner (1966), and the psycholinguistic theories described by Smith and Goodman and the socio-linguistic theory of Vygotsky, (1978) focus on the cognitive aspect of language learning.

Bilingualism

The western model of monolingualism which is concomitant with their ethnic and cultural homogeneity cannot be accepted in India due to the language diversity in India. Indian scholars have shown that bilingualism is a cultural state of language behaviour involved in a social group’s interaction, particularly in India which is basically multilingual and pluri-cultural.

Bilingualism as a concept was introduced in the language census, for the first time in 1901. Bilingualism or multilingualism is the use of one or more then one, language by a community for inter-group communication apart from the language used by it in the home environment. The studies conducted in 4600 communities 66.4% people are bilingual. (POI, 1993)
Honby, (1977) there are 3000-4000 languages with a little more than 150 countries to accommodate them. Most bilinguals are probably more fluent and more at ease in one of their languages. The learner, it has been suggested, may also use (L₁) to initiate utterances when they do not have sufficient acquired knowledge of the target language. Krashen (1981). “In other words the learners can use L₁ as a resource for ad hoc translation to overcome their limitations”. A number of studies since 1960’s have shown the positive effect of bilingualism on cognition. Ellis (1986) Dugdale, (1996) acknowledges that previous experiences bi-or multi-linguistic and so on affects the speed with which a new language is acquired.

Language Across the curriculum

Language across the curriculum (LAC)” is a term used in many parts of the world to denote an approach to teaching language skills and strategies such as reading, speaking, writing, listening (and sometimes representing view etc) within the context of content areas, in contrast to teaching the language skills and strategies within a separate time period in the curriculum. The under assumption are that language has a heuristic function that learning language is more process -oriented than content -oriented. Language learning is expedited when it is contextualised and that through expressive writing and discussion (or talks), information is filtered through personal experiences. “LAC has turned into an educational movement in the 1990s. Parker (1985) refers to LAC as a “true alternative perspective on learning and teaching”.

Communicative View

The last two decades have seen an upsurge of communicative language teaching. With the advent of communicative approach the two skills: listening, and
speaking have received a new impetus. Several years ago, in (1928), Rankin's study observed that the amount of time devoted to the language arts is inversely related to their social utility in human affairs. He found that 70 percent of working day is spent in verbal communication and of this communication time 45 percent is spent in listening 30 percent in speaking, 16 percent in reading and 9 percent in writing.

Tomkins and Hoskisson (1995) reported that communicative competence developed through a discussion and understanding of language process, it is nurtured thorough genuine communication activities. These activities include conducting oral interviews of community residents, participating in debates on topics of relevance to students writing stories and sharing these stories with genuine audiences keeping learning logs in science classes and writing letters to state or national political figures in conjunction with social studies themes.

Richard (1996) defines communication, "as the transmission of information and understanding from one person or group to another through the use of common symbols". People's attitude determine how they approach problem situations and other people. Now it is believed that children learn to read and write through immersion in a language-rich environment. The new approach is based on observations of how children learn to talk. This connection between talking reading and writing suggests that all three are more alike than they are different.

Over the past decade, hundreds of elementary and junior high school pupils have participated in reciprocal teaching. Such children show substantial gains in reading comprehension compared to controls exposed to alternative instructional strategies with the same reading materials. Lyseynchuk, Pressley and Vge (1990). Reciprocal teaching creates a zone of proximal development in which children, with
the and of teachers and peers, gradually assume more responsibility for the task. Reciprocal teaching also keeps reading activities whole rather than breaking them down into isolated skills removed from the complexities of real text passages Engliert and Balincsar (1991).

Children's language development in the elementary years is the development and use of new words. Children's understanding of words grows in two stages—fast and slow. In the fast stage children quickly notice new words and assign them to new categories. In the slow stage children have to work out differences and relations between words. In the elementary they learn words through reading, through conversation and by asking others what a word means. They use a wide variety of sentences. During this stage they need vivid literature to read as a means of learning about different syntactic forms and styles. In addition, by involving in writing activities children learn how to use syntax in written expression. During the middle years children's ability to understand the message of words increases. They learn synonyms, antonyms, homonyms and idiomatic expressions. Through all the processes of language development what is acquired is language proficiency that is the use of the language with speed and accuracy.

The most personal and personalised area of curriculum is language arts. To understand a person's language is to understand that person. Language has no coherent content. It is the vehicle used to encode and decode content derived from the experiences of feeling, thinking, sensitivity and other facilities. Language art is a dependent curriculum area which must be supplemented by other language areas.
Objectives of language learning

Modern schools do not even partially fulfill the function of the development of language abilities. The language arts programme provides for both incidental learning and systematic learning. Ruddell (1974) has produced seven goal statements for the language arts.

1. The ability to communicate clearly in oral and written forms in a variety of social setting.

2. The ability to understand and use oral and written language in both receptive and expressive forms.

3. The ability to use comprehension and problem solving strategies according to the purposes established in reading and listening selections.

4. The ability to decode new words and encode or spell words in a variety of reading and writing situations.

5. The ability to use research and study skills to interpret content in subject matter areas.

6. The ability to express, interpret and enjoy creative thoughts.

7. A sensitivity and appreciation of language and literature in a variety of life situations.

The overall objective of learning a native as well as foreign language is to listen attentively read comprehensively, speak clearly, write legibly and spell correctly. The specific instructional objectives also include developing a sense of appreciation for simple poems, acquiring knowledge about the elements of the language, reproducing the language and developing interest in the language. The
programme of language arts must recognise the functioning of the language in the development of a language, in the maintenance of a culture and in the continuity of the development of a generation. A very natural process of development is utilising language for a purpose and receiving genuine, emphatic warm and responsive intervention. The symbols and patterns of language are abstractions applied to the realities of the objects, events and values experienced by a culture and by individuals. Without these applications the mastery of the language skills and tools are somewhat inert and valueless until activated in a social experience. These aims are materialised by way of habit formation. The system operates largely without one's awareness. These language habits are deeply set in the nervous system of the individual and in the muscular, intellectual and emotional processes. Much of the language learning is the learning of complicated skills and learning skills are largely a question of adequate and effective practice.

Language acquisition has two variables: language and the learner. As there are deep level similarities across diverse human language so there are deep level similarities across the diverse human who acquire them. Similar physical and cognitive structures are part of the makeup of all humans, whatever kind of environment we happen to be born into and raised in. Clearly Language Acquisition is deeply rooted in the physical and cognitive structure and possibilities of human share.

Bloom's Taxonomy

Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives is one of the most popular classifications of educational outcomes. This classification places all expected educational outcomes along the three-fold division into cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains and their sub-domains. This suggests that educational outcomes
in language teaching, viz. the various language skills, can also be classified along with those major dimensions. The relevant classifications adopted from the three domains are listed as under:

**Cognitive Domain**

1. Knowledge -
   Terminology: definitions, range of meaning of words, specific facts;
   Conventions: Speech and writing; Classifications and categories: types of literature

2. Comprehension -
   Translation: non-literal statements;
   Interpretation: the thought of a work as a whole;
   Extrapolation: prediction of implications and corollaries.

3. Application -
   General ideas, principles, generalizations, laws, restructuring, classification.

4. Analysis -
   Identification: unstated assumptions, facts and hypothesis;
   Analysis and relationships: Interrelationship among ideas;
   Organizational principles: four and pattern of literary work as a means of understanding meaning.

4. Synthesis -
   Production of a unique communication: skill in writing, organization of ideas and statements, patterns, communications, compositions;
   Production of a proposed set of operations: specifications, operations.

5. Evaluation -
Judgements in terms of internal evidence: logical accuracy, consistency, fallacies, precision, exactness.

Judgements in terms of external: efficiency, economy, alternatives, theories, generalizations.

Affective Domain

1. Receiving (Attending) -
   - Awareness: sounds, arrangements, differentiation’s;
   - Willingness to receive: other’s speech;
   - Controlled or selected attention: listening, responding to, answering, discrimination of mood and meaning in music, rhythms, nuances.

2. Responding -
   - Acceptance in responding: direction, instruction, demonstration;
   - Satisfaction in response: reading for recreation, speeches, plays, presentation, writings;

3. Valuing -
   - Acceptance of a value: ability to speak and write effectively;
   - Preference for a value: view points, agreements;

4. Organization -
   - Conceptualization of a value: discussion, theorizing, comparison;
   - Organization of a value system: defining, formulating;

5. Characterization -
   - Generalized set: revision, completion.

Psychomotor Domain

1. Perception- Selection, translation

2. Guided Responses- Speech, pronunciation, writing

The cognitive domain in Bloom’s schemata includes language behaviour ranging from simple recall of materials to highly original and creative ways of combining and synthesising new ideas and materials. The affective domain includes objectives expressed as interests, attitudes, appreciation and values, while the psychomotor domain relates to aspects like handwriting and speech. The activities prescribed by Bloom may be expanded by attaching sub-skills of language behaviour to each of the objectives.

The skill based conceptualisation of language teaching visualises language as a dynamic interaction allegation process. The linguists identified the performance objectives based on this.

**Abstract of the subject –matter taxonomy**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Internal Behaviour</th>
<th>External Behaviour</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Mechanical Skills:</td>
<td><em>Perception:</em> The student perceives differences between two or more sounds or letters or gestures and makes distinctions between them.</td>
<td><em>Reproduction:</em> The student initiates foreign. Language speech, writing, gestures, songs and proverbs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Knowledge:</td>
<td><em>Recognition:</em> The student recognises facts he has learned by answering true false and multiple choice questions</td>
<td><em>Recall:</em> The student demonstrates he members the information taught by answering fill-in or short answer questions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Transfer:</td>
<td><em>Reception:</em> The student understands recombined oral or written passages of quotations not encountered previously.</td>
<td><em>Application:</em> The student speaks or writes in a guided drill situation or participates in cultural simulations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Communication:</td>
<td><em>Comprehension:</em> The student understands a foreign language message or a cultural signal containing unfamiliar material in an unfamiliar situation.</td>
<td><em>Self-expression:</em> The student uses the foreign language to express his personal thoughts orally or in writing. He uses gestures as part of his expression.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Criticism:</td>
<td><em>Analysis:</em> The student breaks down language of a literary passage to its essential elements of style, tone, theme and so forth.</td>
<td><em>Synthesis:</em> The student carries out original research or individual study or created a plan for such a project.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Evaluation: The student evaluates and judges the appropriateness and effectiveness of a language sample or literary passage.
Abstract of the Affective Taxonomy

Stage

**Receptivity:** The student is open to learning about a foreign language and culture.

**Awareness:** The student is aware of the existence of languages and cultures other than his own and of the fact that differences exist between them.

**Attentiveness:** The student attends to information about foreign language and culture both in and out of class. He pays attention to the careful preparation of his assignments.

1. **Responsiveness:**

The student responds positively to learning about a foreign language and culture.

**Tolerance:** The student is tolerant of the differences in foreign-language expression and in foreign patterns of living. He does not reject or make fun of foreign ways.

**Interest and enjoyment:** The student is interested in activities related to foreign-language study, enjoys the activities presented to him, and gains satisfaction from participation in them.

2. **Appreciation:**

The student of his own accord attaches value to language and cultural experiences.

**Valuing:** The student views the study of foreign language and culture as valuable, worthwhile and important.

**Involvement:** The student voluntarily participates from time to time in activities designed to improve his language skills or increase his knowledge of the foreign language and culture.

3. **Internalization:**

The student forms his own ideas and values based on foreign language learning experiences.

**Conceptualization:** The student develops a personal system of values relating to foreign language study.

**Commitment:** The student makes a major investment of time and energy in the pursuit of further learning.

4. **Characterization:**

Foreign language and culture have become an integral part of the student’s life to the extent that he is characterized by activities in this area.

**Integration:** The student integrates foreign language valued into personal value system.

**Leadership:** The student takes a major role in promoting language learning and instruction.

**Bloor’s Table of Language Skills**

Bloor has prepared a table to specify the skills used by native speakers in a communicative event. Bloor has divided them into two columns. In the first column is given skills that are acquired naturally, while in the second column is listed those skills which are normally taught in the education system. Bloor’s Table of language skills is reproduced below:
Scheme of classification of language behaviour or skills

In children’s Language Acquisition a goal is set and activities are provided to assure its attainment. Typically the learning is divided into (1) chunks such as sub skills and concepts. (2) sequence the sub skills or concepts in a simple to complex set or steps (3) present them to the children and provide practice activities so that they attain mastery of the concepts, skills or processes (4) test periodically to check for mastery and to guide subsequent learning activity. The sub learning should be sequenced in some reasonable order. The language to be learnt is also to be split into basic parts. Language environment, family members, caregivers all influence language learning. But for rigorous language learning a curriculum is essential. The scientifically valid procedure in language learning involves listening first to be followed by speaking, reading and finally writing. The skills develop in sequence as inter-related parts of the language curriculum. On a holistic approach the sub skills are never practiced in isolation.

Morris (1965) gives a simple classification of the general skills of language behaviour.

They are:

i. Understanding what is heard

ii. Understanding what is read

iii. Expressing ideas in speech

iv. Expressing ideas in writing

This division of language behaviour into the four base skills, viz. Listening skill reading skill, speaking skill and writing skill has been endorsed by different

Chomsky’s transformational generative grammar paradigm for language education distinguishes between these two fundamental abilities as (1) Language competence and (2) Language performance. He explained competence as the ability to speak and understand a language while ‘performance’ is the actual application of this ability to behaviour.

A close parallel to Chomskey’s paradigm is the division of language abilities into linguistic and communicative competence by Allwright. The following diagram makes his point clear. According to Allwright (1979)

CC - Communicative competence

LC - Linguistic competence

Some areas of linguistic competence are irrelevant to communicative competence. But linguistic competence in general, is treated as a part of communicative competence. Harriot (1970) views that linguistic behaviour resembles skilled behaviour in its (a) hierarchical nature (b) dependence on feed back (c) automatisation and (d) anticipation. He conceived language skills as a hierarchy rising from phonological to grammatical and semantic skills, each level of skills in its turn forming a sub hierarchy

Phonological skills: Speech perception, the effect of content and articulation
Grammatical skills: Words form classes, syntax, left to right dependencies, and top to bottom dependencies.

Semantic skills: Sub sentence structure.

GENERAL NATURE OF THE FOUR BASIC LANGUAGE SKILLS

The language arts, which employ common word symbols, involve the incoming (listening and reading) and the outgoing (speaking and writing) of language. The following figure portrays the encoding and decoding process as it is used in communicating messages. In this model the speaker A first conveys a message to listener B, who after decoding and interpreting the message becomes speaker B who conveys a message to listener A. He decodes and interprets the message and becomes speaker A again.

![Diagram of encoding and decoding in communication]

Figure 1: Model of encoding and decoding in communication

Listening

To: ... Goodman, (1982) "Listening is the medium through which we recognise and develop the scheme that we are going to use for structuring our
linguistic comprehension" It is the fundamental communicative region. Children in the elementary stage spend more than half of their school day engaging in listening activities. The first standardised test of listening was published in 1953. Listening is the principal avenues for learning. One hears a set of sounds and manages to make sense of them, using their extensive knowledge of sounds, words, language rules, and the world.

Listening is a process by which one fits incoming information into what one already knows. It is the medium through which learning takes place. It is one’s primary learning modality throughout most of one’s life. Self-talk is instrumental in effective and efficient self-cognition of one’s behaviour for all aspects of one’s life. It makes the complex psychological processes that begins with the sensation of sound and the entire process of deriving meaning from the communicative event. An active listener is one who is able to grasp the requirement of the situation and expends the amount of energy and attention that the circumstances demand.

Listening is a complex operation integrating the distinct components of perception and linguistic knowledge. Psychologists have tried to explain the phenomenon from several viewpoints each of which can give some clues to our student problems in listening to a foreign language. Listening is an active process of constructing a message from a stream of sound with what one knows of the phonological, semantic and syntactic potentialities of the language. The process of message construction is reception. Perception and reception are required for interpreting message listened by speakers.

It is essential to understand what others say. Speech perception is vital to listening which refers to the process where by the listener’s auditory system translates
sound vibrations into a string of sounds, which the listener perceives to be speech. Weak power of concentration, egocentricism or short auditory memory make people poor listeners to even mother tongue. It has been estimated that of the time adults spend in communication activities 45 percent is devoted to listening, 30 percent to speaking, 16 percent to reading and 9 percent to writing and these data are from a pre-television, pre-talking picture, pre-dictaphone etc. Listening plays the most vital role in the teaching learning process. Many factors influence the skill of listening, in understanding registers, dialectal variation and complexities of structures which one cannot produce in one's own speech. Long before children can read they hear and receive information about the world around them through listening. Students who listen well are at an enormous advantage virtually in every school task-following directions, understanding content, discerning the intention of teachers and peers. Little attention is given to helping students acquire good listening.
Process of Listening

Adequate development of listening skills is important for an individual for advanced learning and thinking. Listening is basic to the language arts. The process of listening includes three stages: auding, listening and hearing. The lowest level of listening-auding-refers to sound waves being received and modified by the ear. Someone in the process of hearing physically perceives the presence of sound, but would not be able to make out what the sounds are. Hearing is purely a physical phenomenon and it cannot be taught. Listening is in the middle of the hierarchy in which individuals become aware of the sound sequences. They are able to identify and recognise the sound sequences as known words. If the words are in their listening capacity, that is they have heard the words before, they know what the words mean. Auding is
at the highest level of the hierarchy and involves not only giving meaning to the sounds, but assimilating and integrating the oral message. An individual at the auding level would be able to gather the main idea of a spoken passage, discerns, analyses makes inferences and performs all the other high level comprehension skills that are usually associated with reading. Creative problem solving, as well as critical listening are also skills involved in this level. Although we look at each level as a separate entity, the act of listening functions as a whole.

**Levels of listening**

**Passive listening**

Passive listening is at the most rudimentary level. At this level the listener is only hearing the sounds, but may or may not be recording the information. The listener is not very much interested in the material or the source of information. Mostly adults are passive listeners to their environment.

**Active listening or factual listening**

Listening is the active oral intake of language. The listener must be able to assimilate the flow of sound symbols into meaningful concepts. The active listener attends to what is required only and can make objective predictions about what the listener will say. He is able to determine the stance of the listener. He can make inferences about the message. Active listening requires various thinking strategies. Active listeners are active consumers of information. They interact with the speaker, they interpret, analyse, synthesise and evaluate information as well as go beyond the information to come up with alternative solutions, techniques and so forth. Content is a cue to listen. Auding, listening hearing and all other mental processes are very active here. The listener processes, words and sentences and remembers the facts and
accepts the facts Systematic learning takes place only through this type of listening. Active listeners are ideal listeners.

**Interpretative listening**

This is purely active listening to discern relationships among persons and events and material. Hierarchical relationships, cause and effect relationships, and temporal and spatial relationships are analysed and ideas are hypothesized. The children at this stage after listening to a passage can answer questions dealing with:

a. finding the main idea  
b. generalisation  
c. reading between the lines  
d. reasoning cause and effect  
e. conclusion  
f. semantic variation of meaning

**Evaluative listening**

The listener here holds impressions of what are hearing against the template of what he knows. They apply the criteria of plausibility and truth and are vigilant of bias and faculty logic. The listener is very alert.

**Appreciate listening**

It is the listening for deriving pleasure and enjoyment from poems, stories, music or any other art form that fits some mood feeling or interest. The amount of pleasure derived depends upon one's aesthetic sense.
Critical listening

In this age children are exposed to a plethora of news, advertisements and information from the mass media. Only way the teachers can help to lessen the impact of propaganda or half-truth on them is to emphasize critical listening skills in the classroom. Critical listening is the process of examining spoken material in the light of related, objective evidence, comparing the ideas with some standard or consensus, and then concluding or acting upon the judgement made. Critical listening incurs special difficulties that arise from face to face relationships. The child at this level after listening to a passage can answer questions dealing with:

a. propaganda
b. fact or opinion
c. fantasy or reality
d. objectivity or subjectivity

Creative listening

Creative listening leads to divergent thinking which in turn results in originality and newness. Creative listeners tentatively consider all possible solutions before decision making. Creative listening calls for higher mental capacities

Metacognitive listening

It is the highest order of listening and this is the most difficult level of listening. This involves all higher order of thought process. The material also would be too tough to be comprehended. Not all human beings are capable of performing this skill. Rigorous mental training is an indispensable pre-requisite to execute this extra ordinary functioning.
Sub-skills of listening

Wilkinson refers to the taxonomy of listening skills drawn up by Nicolas and Brown and attempts to distinguishing between 'receptive' and reflective skills.

Receptive skills refers to:

- ability to keep related details in mind
- ability to observe a single details
- ability to remember a series of details
- ability to follow oral direction

Reflective skills refers to:

- ability to use contextual clues
- ability to recognise organisational element
- ability to select main ideas as opposite to subordinate ideas and details
- ability to recognise the relationship between main ideas and subordinate ideas.

Speaking

Speech is the first productive language system to occur. Speech is apparently rooted in and generated from the meanings and experiences decoded by the receptive language forms of listening. In learning to speak a child reproduces (encodes) the phonemes, morphemes, grammar, phrases, structure and (the deep and the surface structure) of the listening environment. The child also formulates the semantic relationship with the real world, the internal and conceptual linguistic relation of an abstract world, the syntactic patterns of grammar and the philosophical rules by which
meaning is communicated through speech.” Speech is the utterance of articulate sounds or voices rendered significant by usage, for the expression and communication of thoughts. Speech requires the learner to retrieve almost instantaneously the precise sounds, grammatical functions, word order arrangements and content vocabulary. Oral communication is one of the most basic methods of maintaining contacts with other people. The child whose speech is different can have severe adjustment problems in school.

Speech is verbal language communicated by the sender to the receiver. It involves a complex process of identifying ideas, or feelings, formulating those into an appropriate and grammatical sequence of words, sentences and finally co-ordinating the speech producing mechanisms of human autonomy to produce speech sounds, intonations, pitch, stress and junctures. Language enables the speaker to encode the ideas, emotions and feelings following special rules. A good speaker is able to judge the level of speaking that is appropriate for a communicative situation.

Children need many opportunities to express themselves to try out ideas and to get feedback. When children interact with adults they test their own knowledge about their language. Children’s language grows when it receives reinforcement from adults and children’s self-concepts are enhanced when they feel that what they have to say is valuable. Listening to children and respecting what they have to say encourage them to engage in more conversations. The more conversations that children engage in the better listeners they become because to engage in a meaningful conversation, they must listen to the speaker. The teachers should have confidence first of all, to communicate orally with the children easily and efficiently. To promote effective oral communication conducive, physical, emotional, social and intellectual environments
should be provided. An environment in which listening occurs without distractions will also be more conducive to oral expression.

An attractive speech pattern should account for effective voice, pitch, vibration, loudness quality, and time factor. Departure from the normal in any of these factors can produce a speech pattern, which is unpleasant.

The teacher needs to encourage children's language development with activities that stimulate speech. Speech stimulation activities involve the speech arts. The speech arts may include informal conversation purposeful discussion message announcement reports giving talks, quiz, telephoning, singer play, creative drama, puppetry, story telling, choral speaking, role playing, pantomime, nonverbal behaviour etc.

Purposes of oral language programme are:

1. To provide an atmosphere that will encourage the child to speak freely about experiences in daily living.

2. To provide opportunities for co-operative group undertakings, personality development and satisfaction in school work.

3. To encourage originality and variety of expression.

4. To develop the desire for a rich vocabulary to meet individual, vocational and social needs.

5. To develop the habit of accurate observation to make the child conscious of the richness of experience and to encourage him to express his ideas and emotions.
Components of speech

Webster's New Twentieth Dictionary describes communication as the act of imparting, conferring, or delivering from one to another as the communication of knowledge opinions, or facts." To execute this function the speaker should be well equipped with a good command over the language. Adequate knowledge of phonology, syntax and semantic memory are very essential. The smallest unit in a sound system is phoneme, which is distinct and discrete. Syntax is the word order or sentence patterns and English language has unique sentence structure. Semantics is the branch of linguistics, which describes the techniques of word formation.

The main components of speech are pronunciation, stress or accentuation and intonation. At school, students practice pronunciation through loud reading and oral drills. Correct pronunciation is the most attractive part of speech and it should be insisted from very young. Stress or accent is the force with which one utters a word. Being an unphonetic language, English vocabulary has distinct accent for each word as well as for the derivations of each word. Intonation is the tone of sentence utterance. There are rising, falling and level intonations to convey different emotions and meanings. Intonation may mar word stress. Punctuation is an exquisite part of speech to render different shades of meaning and feeling, the absence of which may confuse the listener. The non-natives become conscious of the hazards of the foreign language and can be deliberately slow for one or two seconds in an unanticipated situation. Congenial atmosphere is also conducive to healthy speech.

Oral language is crucial to the development through enriched experiences. Language plays an important part in assisting children understand the world around them, work and play effectively with others and gain satisfaction through self
expressions. Speaking is an indication of personal adjustment and improvement in speaking may depend more upon finding and removing causes of frustrational conflict than upon extra drill. If the school day is full of significant activities, language is needed to carry them out; and oral language serves a legitimate function recognised by the school and children and they are motivated to improve their expression. Oral skills are not taught as an end in itself. Procedures for relating, listening, speaking, reading and writing are aural-oral language chart, experience reading chart, language games pattern practice drills etc. To Stork speech is the most difficult of language skills.

**Sub-skills of speech**

Balcer and Seabury (1965) listed the following components of speech.

(a) basic content or ideas

(b) organisation of ideas

(c) development of supporting details

(d) adjusting to special situations

(e) bodily actions for purposes of communication

(f) voice usage

(g) enunciation, articulation and pronunciation

(h) language

(i) adaptation to the speech situation

(j) listening
Stoldt (1973) says that oral skills in language can be placed under three categories viz. (1) Discrimination (2) Aural listening comprehension (3) Oral production. In her model of test of oral production Valette includes the following specific abilities.

i) Pronunciation

ii) Stress

iii) Intonation

iv) Directed speaking

v) Oral translation

vi) Free response

vii) Conversation

Reading

The major objective of learning a language is comprehension. "The process of understanding language often called language comprehension involves using permanently stored knowledge to interpret new input". Lachman and Butterfield 1979. Language comprehension is another of those hidden cognitive processes that resist systematic measurement and investigation. In recent years, however, the pattern has changed. Research on language comprehension is now extremely popular and researchers have devised clever methods to make these covert processes more accessible and measurable. Comprehension involves the two receptive skills namely listening and reading. Comprehension is a construct, which cannot be observed.
Reading comprehension is a complex intellectual process involving a number of abilities. The two major abilities involve word meaning and verbal reasoning. Thorndike put forth his statement that reading is a very elaborate procedure, involving a weighing of each of many elements in a sentence, their organisation in the proper relation to one another and the co-operation of many forces to determine final response. "Reading is the process by which an individual comprehend situation and information. Reading requires a wide variety of cognitive skills. As Fisher notes. (1981: P. 489): it involves sequencing of eye movements, decoding, encoding, and utilising linguistic awareness. It demands knowledge of orthographic regularity and irregularity. It integrates letters; words, sentences, and passages with past experiences. Surely reading is one of our most complex daily activities. It is the most important component of education. Though it is considered as a linguistic skill, it is practiced in all other subject periods of school hours and outside. The first major book on psychological processes in reading was published in 1908. When the same book was republished in 1968 by Hucy, no new information on many aspects of reading had been gathered during the intervening half a century. But within the last ten years dozens of books on reading have been written.

Process of reading comprehension

Reading comprehension is an interaction between the processing of the physical stimuli (bottom-up processing) and the content provided by expectation and previous knowledge (top down processing). Reading comprehension means extracting meaning from the material or reducing the ambiguity to the maximum. The processes included in it are organization, generalization and appreciation. Organization is the art of seeing the relationship of facts to the whole; grouping and arranging them to a
meaningful whole, and evaluating the parts. Generalization is the process by which the reader selects relevant meanings and accepts the correct meanings. Appreciation consists of knowing all about the author and the particular function of the given material. A passage can be read with varying degree of comprehension. The scale of comprehension ranges from practically no meaning to a complete understanding. The degree of comprehension depends on the complexity of the material purpose of reading perceptual speed word recognition or language familiarity, physical condition of the reader and his reading skill. Appropriate speed is also a criterion for successful reading.

**Levels of reading**

Based on the purpose of reading there are different categories of reading comprehension. These are *levels in the hierarchy of thinking*. Smith (1969) divides the comprehension skills into four categories; each one is cumulative in building on the others. They are (1) liberal comprehension (2) interpretation (3) critical reading (4) creative reading. Liberal level calls for lower level of thinking skills only to recall a fund of knowledge. Interpretative demands higher level of thinking abilities like reasoning, drawing conclusions, analysis, synthesis, ability to infer etc. Critical level is next in the hierarchy, which is related to critical listening. Both requires critical thinking. Creative reading uses divergent thinking skills to go beyond and come up with alternative solution. Another classification is (a) factual level (b) interpretative level (c) evaluative level or critical level or application level. Yet, another one is (1) factual level (2) generalization level and (3) critical level.

Reading diagnosis identified for levels of comprehension-independent level, instructional level, frustration level and capacity level.
Factors influencing reading

The analysis of reading comprehension infers that there are several objective and subjective factors, which influence person's reading ability. "Reading cannot be understood or explained except as a learning process, it is inter-related with all aspects of language development and it is affected by the many factors operating in the total learning process. . . . . Since reading is an integrated process it cannot be divided into discrete factors and studied objectively". Kennedy (1974). The first level of requirement for effective reading is both the perceptual abilities necessary to recognise words and remember words and the conceptual capacities essential for understanding and interpreting facts and ideas. This is constituted by the five broad components namely (1) foundation (2) background (3) word recognition (4) comprehension and (5) utilisation. Five other sets of factors, mental and environmental, which act interdependently to produce the composite power of reading ability are (1) general maturity (2) level of general intelligence (3) ability of visual and auditory recognition and discrimination of word pattern (4) environmental factors in reading ability (5) emotional attitude interest, individual application and confidence. Debear and Dallmann (1967) describes some of the conditions related to maximum progress in learning to read. They include physical health, mental health, sight and hearing, intelligence, background or experience, knowledge of language, desire to read, purpose of reading, interest in reading and reading skill. All these factors fall under three main heads viz: physiological, psychological and environmental.
Mechanism of reading

Reading encompasses wide variety of cognitive skills. Eyes make a series of little jumps as they move across the page. These very rapid movements of eyes from one spot to the next in order to bring the centre of the retina, where the vision is the sharpest, into position over the words one wants to read, is referred to as saccadic movement in the perceptual process of reading. Perceptual span or fixation is the region seen during the pause between saccadic movements. The length of print covered between two fixation is called eye span. A good reader has longer eye span and can take in longer stretches of the reading matter at once. A poor reader has shorter eye spans. His eyes regress on the individual letter. Inefficient reading is marked usually by frequent regression. A typical good reader may pause for $\frac{1}{5}$ second each time while a poor reader might pause for $\frac{1}{2}$ second. When one reads, the letters in a sentence follow one after another like beads in a string and the sounds in the syllables are transmitted at about the same time. This is the parallel transmission. Visual word recognition, of the next step, is the accomplishment of the recognition words by looking at the pattern of words. Sternberg and Powell (1983) point out that when one reads, one often typically attempts to use the context in which the word occurs to figure out the meaning of an unfamiliar word. They propose that context can provide several kinds of information cues about meaning.

In order to extract meaning from a content the reader may adopt intensive reading, scanning, receptive reading, skimming and so on depending upon the purpose of reading.

Sub skills of reading comprehension

(a) Recognise the communicative functions of a text
(b) Attain the gist (outcomes)

(c) Identify specific details

(d) Distinguish main ideas from supporting details

(e) Recognise the speaker’s (writer’s) attitude towards the topic and towards the listener or reader

(f) Infer ideas and information not explicitly stated

(g) Anticipate or predict the content of the text or the development of the observer

(h) Recognise familiar words

(i) Infer the context of the discourse

(j) Use the context to understand the meaning of unfamiliar words.

Good comprehenders are able to do inferential reasoning, they can state the main or central idea of information. They can assimilate, cognise, compose make relationships, analyse, synthesise and evaluate information. Good comprehenders engage in meaningful learning by assimilating new materials to concepts already existing in their cognitive structure.

Objectives of reading

(a) extending and enriching the experience of the child

(b) broadening interests and tastes in reading

(c) fostering the personal social adjustment of the child

(d) providing worthwhile recreational interests and skills

(e) encouraging critical analysis of ideas
(f) developing resourcefulness in locating information

(g) promoting self direction and

(h) achieving satisfactory progress in such basic skills as word recognition, vocabulary development, comprehension and speed.

In order to realise these objectives at all levels attention must be given to reading in every phase of the programme rather than merely at specific periods. Reading is closely related to vocational efficiency. The ever reaching goal of teaching reading is to allow one to listen to the windows and people of the world.

Writing

Harris enlists the special components of writing as:

1. Content
2. Form
3. Grammar
4. Style and
5. Mechanics

Heaton attempted the grouping of varied skills writing good prose into four main areas.

i. Grammatical skills
ii. Stylistic skills
iii. Mechanical skills
iv. Judgement skills
v. The following sub-skill have been identified by Valette and Disick.

a. Reproduction
b. Recall

c. Application

d. Self-expression and

e. Synthesis

Writing began with pictogram, and proceeded to ideogram, which is symbolic. It led to logogram. Then the symbol for the sound of the spoken word used to refer to that entity. It is called rehus writing. Symbolic writing is where a writing system employs a system of symbols, which represents the pronunciation of syllables. Then came into existence a set of symbols, each representing a single type of sound, which are called alphabet.

Writing means the ability means the ability to shape letters of alphabet, knowledge of the right combination of letters, and the skills of expression through the written word. It is a typical psychomotor ability. Child’s drawing helps vary much in shaping letters. The child adopts several techniques before he finally shapes the letters. Before children use a selection of letters with any ability one can notice first a slow revelation of certain graphic principles — principles such as directionality flexibility to unit generativity and recurrence. The smallest unit in writing is a grapheme. The learning of letters proceeds not letter by letter, but by feature by feature. Motivation to write will, obviously grow naturally out of the child’s pleasure in drawing and painting. It is also dependent upon the child’s availability of materials necessary and through social experiences of other people doing so; then there arises a positive desire to write by imitating others process of writing.

At the simplest level writing in the foreign language involves spelling and word order. Exercise to develop writing skill might logically includes copying, short
dictations, transformations and rearranging of scrambled sentences. Writing is a daily activity in all classes and all periods. In most classes, a common time is observed for writing, but writing can also be a free time activity.

Donald Murray has written a description of the writing process that professional writers appear to use. This description seems just as viable for school writing. In Murray's model writing is a process of continuous thinking, experiencing and reviewing. The activity, writing proper, develops in three stages rehearsing, drafting and revising. Rehearsing is the stage in which writers discover what they have to say. Teachers can encourage rehearsing by means of brainstorming session, in which children think and write down as many details as they can about a person, a place or an event that is meaningful to them. In drafting the writer experiences clearly what he has to say. It enables the writer to put his/her thoughts outside of himself and to consider them as if they belonged to someone else. He or she can appraise the work with same detachment. Reviewing can lead to further rehearsal and further drafting sometimes if necessary, the writer prunes words or adds more patch up phrases or sentences all in the effort to speak the meaning in the piece more clearly and smoothly. Professional writers write with dexterity and the process include some more higher steps namely prewriting composing, writing editing, publishing and evaluating.

The purpose of writing is to communicate one's ideas, information, or feelings. Writing is a complex thinking process analogous to problem solving. It relates new information to the existing mental set. Writing has generally two processes transcribing and composing. Transcribing includes the skills of penmanship spelling and punctuation Composition is the selecting and ordering of words to form thought units Handwriting is another of the most important skills of writing. As
English is an unphonetic language, its spelling is crucially anomalous and inconsistent. Hence, it causes all the difficulties in writing to its users of all age-level. Spelling is a sensori-motor responses to the sensori stimuli, that is the written or printed word in reading. Good visual memory increases spelling efficiency. Traditional approaches to spelling were found to be a squander of time. Motivational approaches can exhilarate positive attitude in children to spelling through play way methods, like spelling games spelling charts, rhymes etc with cues for spelling. No one can master the 500000 English words. A word frequency list of 5000 words needs to be taught specifically for spelling. It would act as a blanket to ensure fluency in writing. Correct punctuation capitalization good paragraphing and format also mark efficient writing. Holding of the writing material properly, movement of figures and wrist muscles smoothly, good power of vision are all requisites for good writing.

Each word is a concept. Children’s receptive as well as expressive vocabulary should expand at the conceptual level to facilitate fluency and flexibility in writing. Children have larger speaking vocabulary while adults use extensively writing vocabulary. Exposure to the language through experiences and situations and intensive programme alone can aid students to enrich their vocabulary. Grammatical correctness is an asset to writing. Inculcation of this ability should proceed automatically from the inductive teaching of grammar and usage where by students meet with adequate number of examples. Good style can be achieved only through regular use of the language and extensive reading which provides accessibility to profound and clate writings. A hilarious writer is a source of cheer to others.
Sub skills of writing

The following sub-skills have been identified by Valette and Disick.

a. Reproduction
b. Recall
c. Application
d. Self-expression and
e. Synthesis

Levels of writing

Mainly there are two types of writing expository writing and creative writing. Expository writings is the narrative style used in reporting, summarizing, comparing, clarifying, classifying, and other factorial exercises. The purpose of the communication is to transmit meaning without aesthetic, literary illusion. The basis of these kinds of writings are concrete experiences of the pupil (writer). Secondary school students are expected to develop this ability in English at the end of their school course. But the deplorable present situation is disheartening and genuine attempt should be made to remedy it. Creative writing is the use of figurative language and literary techniques to transmit an aesthetic message. Both expository and creative writings are communications, but the later usually follow affective experiencing, where as expository writings are based on cognitive experiences. Children should experience the literary forms and techniques through their listening and speaking. Creativity is an inherent art more fostered than taught and mastered.

Learning to write is a modification of behaviour rather than a mere acquisition of knowledge and skill. Even with motivation to express oneself in written form, coherent readable material need not necessarily flow from the pen. Nor is such writing merely a matter of composing carefully constructed grammatical sentences. Lucid
writing is only possible when writers have clarified their own thinking on the subject and know how they wish to do it. Arapoff (1967) calls the process basic to writing 'purposeful selection and organisation of experience'. One of the objectives of the English course is ability to write well and expressively in English, arranging them into central and subordinate ideas and developing lines of thought which carry their readers to the heart of the matter. Composition topics can be discussed in groups and draft elaboration of the same in small groups followed by a discussion in the large group give an opportunity to students to rectify inaccurate spelling and grammar. Immediate correction should ensue; otherwise wrong habits once formed would be difficult to erase.

Wholesome physic, balanced emotion and linguistic excellence are essential for exuberant writing. Muddled thinking, emotional disposition and inadequate language proficiency would hamper the exigence to write. Children's literature should be prolific. Variety of ideas for stimulating, writing ranging from lists of kinds of writing and topics for writing to specific activities that can be conducted in classroom at any level should be exalted. Any one of such activity is valuable if it triggers the individual's imagination or touches a pre-existing emotion or attitude in student. Communication by writing is a natural human need. To quench this spontaneous urge self-confidence to write is to be kindled up.
Sub-skills of Listening

Receptive skills
- ability to keep related details in mind
- ability to observe a single detail
- ability to remember a series of details
- ability to follow oral direction

Reflective skills refers to
- ability to use contextual clues
- ability to recognise organisational element
- ability to select main ideas as opposite to subordinate ideas and details
- ability to recognise the relationship between main ideas and subordinate ideas.

Sub-skills of speaking
- basic content or ideas
- organisation of ideas
- development of supporting details
- adjusting to special situations
- bodily actions for purposes of communication
- voice usage
- enunciation, articulation and pronunciation
- language
- adaptation to the speech situation
- listening

Sub skills of writing
- Reproduction
- Recall
- Application
- Self-expression and
- Synthesis

Sub skills of reading
- Recognise the communicative functions of a text
- Attain the gist (outcomes)
- Identify specific details
- Distinguish main ideas from supporting details
- Recognise the speaker's (writer's) attitude towards the topic and towards the listener or reader
- Infer ideas and information not explicitly stated
- Anticipate or predict the content of the text or the development of the observer
- Recognise familiar words
- Infer the context of the discourse
- Use the context to understand the meaning of unfamiliar words.

Figure 3. Schematic Representation of the Basic Language skills in English
Interrelatedness of skills

No skill develops in isolation. Practice for one skill, for instance listening would obviously improve the skill of speaking and writing. Similarly a person who writers well should certainly be a good listener, speaker and reader.

![Diagram of interrelated skills](image)

**Figure 4.** Listening, speaking, reading, and writing developed in sequence as Interrelated parts of the language arts curriculum

**Listening and reading**

There are basic parallels between listening and reading comprehension. Both are receptive skills and both are dependent upon experiences to determine their quantity and quality. Listening skills are developed before reading skills. Young children prefer to listen rather than to read independently. Listening comprehension improves when the listener is relaxed, when he is psychologically alert, the context of the discourse is familiar and the speaker is familiar.

Children gain more comprehension and retention from listening because of the important added cues they receive from the speaker such as stress given to words or phases facial expressions and so on. The case where students can understand a passage when it is read to them, but cannot understand it when they read it themselves indicates that the words are in the students listening capacity, but they have not gained
the skills necessary for decoding words from their written form. A person who does not do well in listening comprehension skills will usually not do well in reading comprehension skills. These two skills contain some similar aspects.

Listening and speaking

Listening and speaking are the most commonly used communicative processes. These two skills are taken for granted in schools. Usually what happens is that students do not possess proper language background to equip them either listen to spoken English or speak it. Nothing is practically done to improve these skills. From descriptive studies of language acquisition it has been found that children learn language from the speech around them. They learn the rules that govern the usage of words so that they can comprehend and produce properly constructed speech. Since skill in listening is so closely related to speech development and subsequently reflective oral developments, knowledge of the various aspects of listening becomes essential for the proper understanding of the development of speech. Auditory discrimination and auditory memory span are very essential for language acquisition and for learning to read and speak. Auditory discrimination is the ability to distinguish between sounds. Auditory memory span is defined as “the number of discrete elements grasped in a given moment of attention and organised into a unity for purpose of immediate reproduction or immediate use”. A deficiency in this hinders effective listening.

Listening and writing

Active listening is mostly needed to execute the complex productive skill, writing. All children are given formal instruction in communication through writing at school, but generally children do not develop this useful skill adequately to perform it
correctly. Secondary school students merely engage in copying which do not require higher listening skills. When it comes for expository writing and creative writing students hesitate just because no proportionate weightage is given at school to other language arts-listening, speaking and reading. Once due concentration is lavished on these, writing on their own would never become a burden for them.

Reading and speaking.

Reading proceeds decoding to speech. Reading aloud is exercise in pronunciation, which leads to good speech. Wide reading habit is exposure to the language. Consequently the person obtains a rich functional vocabulary and familiarises himself with the vivid types of bodyline of language. This will be advantageous to him to use the language orally without mistakes. Speaking is the least developed skill among non-native speakers of English and the major reason is lack of general reading. A good reader will be a fluent speaker. Lack of real comprehension will be evident from misapplication of stress, juncture and intonational rules and improper use of words Rightfully trained, reading is a silent activity.

Reading and writing

These two skills are mutually supporting to each other. Reading improves writing and vice versa. Anyone who is a good reader tends to be a good writer. Researches show that their relationship is complex. Writing instruction enhances reading performances. They are very powerful tools of learning. They engage the children in great variety of reasoning operation. Frequent reading is associated with superior writing. Additional reading improves expository writing. Quality of reading affects the quality of writing. Children's writing reflects the material they are familiar with. They learn stylistic functions from reading. Good models give them useful
format. Writing reinforces word recognition and discourse structure and increases familiarity with words. Reading helps to widen one’s intellect and furnishes one for creative writing. Writing calls for attention. Writing as well as reading can be seen as a problem solving process that requires specific skills and reasoning. An integrated language programme ensures the development of the language habits.

The inter-dependence of language skills has been investigated elaborately. Harwood, (1950) found that listening skills had a parallel relationship to reading skill and in its oral aspects and was closely related to speech. Armstrong (1951) conducted a study of the auditory and visual vocabulary of children and arrived at a conclusion that the size of a child’s vocabulary had value as a predictor of reading ability. Landerville Moe (1956) and Seymore (1965) have endorsed the close association between listening and reading skills. As per Vineyard Bailey (1960) listening and reading are communicative skills and hence it is reasonable to expect that they could be based, in part at least, on common skills, and therefore, would be closely related. White, (1978) has pointed out that when we write we also read, since the process of creating a piece of discourse depends on reading over what has already been written in order to formulate the next step, preparatory to writing it down. Stressing on the inter relatedness of the four language skills, he says that the four skills are used as a means of presenting and extending one and the same set of language forms and functions. Sellers, Tang and Yusif (1980) found significant relationship between reading and writing skills. Heaton observed that it is difficult to separate the skill from one another. Baruah put up two models of classifying the four skills, i) productive and receptive skills and ii) aural-oral and graphic motor skills. To him the skills overlap. The model is given below.
Summary

The investigator traced the theoretical ground of language acquisition in general in the first part of this chapter. The general nature of the basic language skills is accounted in the second part and then the inter-relatedness of skills one examined. The review capacitated the investigator to have a clear notion about the individual skills which was of great use in the construction of the language ability test battery.