CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

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CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Theories of language acquisition and the process of language development have been the subject of thorough investigation since the beginning of the present century. Identification of the basic language skills and the development of special instructional strategies for teaching them have rendered a better shape and logic to language teaching in the second half of the century. The turn of the century demands pupil-directed learning strategies and proliferation of learning packages. Hence in the twenty-first century researchers are to concentrate more on pupil-related variables such as home environment, parental involvement, learning environment, study habits, attitude, and administrators are to devote more attention to replenishing the institution related variables like library facilities, co-curricular activities project works and so on.

The survey of related literature and studies capacitated the investigator to have a good conceptualization of the basic language skills and their measurement. After going through the profusive literature the investigator has selected only those which are relevant for the present study. The literature thus examined has been classified into three main sections and their sub-sections.

Section I  Studies related to basic language skills

i  Generalized studies
Studies based on individual language skills listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Section II Studies related to pupil-related variables
i Intelligence
ii Socio-economic status and
iii Attitude

Section III Studies related to institution-related variables
i Instructional Strategies
ii Library facilities
iii Co-curricular activities

Section I Studies related to Basic Language Skills

Generalised Studies

The recent thinking of the psycholinguists and cognitive psychologist is coherent and the trend indicates that the basic language skills are strong determinants of higher intellectual functioning.

Strang (1965) demonstrated in an article that contrastive analysis aimed at predicting the muscular skills (Modes of articulation) that will tend to be transferred from a Native Language system (NL) to a Target language (TL). The languages involved were Tehranic and Persian (NL) and American English (TL). The important findings were: 1. There are several types of articulation which occur only in TL. 2. Persian does not have any consonantal clusters at the beginning of words, whereas English has several. 3. The features of articulation falls into two categories: NL sound features which should be eliminated and TL sound features which should be developed.
Rivers and Temperly (1978) are of the opinion. "The teacher of English as a second or foreign language is a professional who must diagnose and select according to the particular situation of a specific class of students and adapt materials and techniques accordingly. It is the intention of the authors that the asterisked activities be assigned to students so that they actively participate in creation of new materials and in the adaptation and refinement of those provided in current textbooks."

To them, when selecting activities we must always remember that our goal is for the students to be able to interact freely with others to understand what others wish to communicate in the broader sense and to be able to convey to others what they themselves wish to share. They gave a schema representing the processes involved in learning to communicate.

Charles (1981) prepared an auto instructional and support in English for the development of language skills. The major findings of the study were:

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

2. Highly intelligent as well as less intelligent adults gained significantly from the course.

3. However a comparison between their gains revealed that the graduates gained significantly more than the under graduates.

4. Both the SES groups grade I and grade II gained significantly but the gains were relatively more on the part of grade I SES group.

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Stern (1984) describes the concepts of language learning linguistic theory and sociolinguistics. He says, “As a developing process second language learning has been viewed in an idealized way as a progression from zero proficiency to one hundred per cent, full or native like proficiency, and it has been thought of as divided into progressive stages. The problems that have arisen in the real world are that the ideal end point is almost never reached, that the progression is hardly ever a regular one, that the learner’s progress is often arrested at a point well below the ideal end point that learners not infrequently regress and that stages of language learning are not clearly defined. He analyses some of the tasks in the developmental process citing some research works such as that of Macky such as that of Macky 1965 and Halliday Melntsh, Steven 1964 Labo 1957 etc.

Palinser and Brown, (1984) Reciprocal 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 proceeds the development of language and that these are systematically analyzed 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 the 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
Major findings of the study were:

1. 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. 2. 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 levels at 0.01 level. 3. All the 4 language skills discriminate between the achievement pairs with respect to all the eight scholastic subject areas. 4. Regression equation for predicting achievement in the various scholastic subject areas using select language skills in English. The R was significant for all subject areas.

Rubin (1990) gives a very comprehensive schematic representation of the language modes/skills and their sub-skills. The writer's approach to language arts is psychological. Detailing on concept development in language, Dorothi gives an elaborate description of some major activities that can stimulate active listening and speaking and also focuses on the instructional aspects of the language arts. Word recognition, vocabulary development, spelling, grammar usage, handwriting all find good expression.

Rafferty, et al. (1991) analyzed teacher and student perceptions of a literature-based reading/writing curriculum for at risk high school students. (Eighteen students, 3 girls, 15 boys) ranging in age from 15 to 18 yrs. began English 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 9 for various reasons, almost all responded favorably to the redesigned curriculum, which used a literature-based reading/writing approach taught in a relaxed and democratic classroom atmosphere. Most English 9 students and their subsequent English teachers
concluded that through these means, the students had acquired both the motivation
and literacy skills necessary to succeed in the academic school environment.

Sullivan et al (1994) investigated the relationship between reading and the
writings of gifted secondary school writers, 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. Many students reported reading before school entrance.

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 armory of language acquisition skills, for students who has learnt two or five
hundred words of a language or sometimes less to learn new vocabulary. Focusing on
‘Concentration, speed and Fluency, Dugdale says, “since people who memorize
vocabulary lists and their necessarily limited and approximate word meaning
equivalents can nearly use their vocabulary to effectively communicate. There is not
much point in plugging on trying to learn yet more unusable word equivalents. The
alternative of learning from context is much more difficult to control and test in the
classroom. However, it has many benefits including:

1. Much faster acquisition of usable language.
2. Much active participation and involvement
3. Better concentration and therefore better short and long term recall (memory)
of what has been said.
4. Flexible creative use of language
5. The ability to recognize what may have been misunderstood and do something
about it
6. Development of skills which facilitate good communication despite language, grammar, timing or vocabulary limitations

7. Many opportunities to experiment with the target language

8. Extensive live home interaction

9. Confidence that given enough time two way communication is possible no matter how small your vocabulary is.

10. Encouraging participants to assimilate realistic expectations of the extra time likely to be required to effectively and accurately communicate in the target language

Thompson, (1996) assessed the speaking, reading, listening and writing proficiency of students of Russian after one, two, three, four and five years of study using tests based on the proficiency scale of the American Council on the 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) describe a battery of evaluation instruments designed to test the language skills of limited English proficient elementary school students (k-6). The battery assesses students in four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) 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. Tests include assessments for grades K-1, 2-3, and 4-6, and were field tested, validated, and calibrated through a school system. A chart details the test titles and types and their appropriate grade levels, skills targeted, sub-score points and total points.
A study was conducted by Pearlman, (1998) on literature based reading programme. The major findings mean that Vth grade students in a literature based programme acquired traditional reading comprehension skill as assessed through standardised testing. The children at the school under investigation show significant improvement over their own standardised test scores from IVth to Vth grade and surpassed national suburban, and independent school norms. The six targeted children demonstrated their knowledge of both traditional additional. A more recent trend is the use of trade books in instructional programmes that are literature based and include the area of response journals and oral discourse.

ii. Studies based on Individual Language Skills, Listing, Speaking, Reading and Writing.

Listening

"Listening is a conscious cognitive effort involving primarily the sense of hearing (reinforced by other senses) 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" Jams (1993).

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

Anderson and Baldauf, (1963) investigated a measure of listening and obtained a correlation of 0.82 between listening skill and academic achievement.
Zelko and Dance (1965) comment 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.

To Fauls et al. (1978) Listening involves two complementary procedures. First, one must obtain an understanding of the speaker's symbolic behaviour 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 as to allow the 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 Columbia University and at the University of Minnesota have proved that we operate at a 25 percent level of efficiency when listening to a ten minute talk. To Nicolas (1982) about 90 percent of a student's class time is spent in listening. Most of what one knows and what one believes one has learned by listening to others listening will allow one to respond intelligently to what one to respond intelligently to what one hears. This requires conscious effort. The listener's goal to understand while the speakers' goal is to be understood. Listening is mainly classified into two active listening and passive listening. A conscious on man is a passive listener to his environment. 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).

By the time most children come to school at the age of 6 they have developed an extensive listening and speaking vocabulary. Estimation of the size of this oral vocabulary ranges from 2562 to 26000 words. Anderson and Freebody (1981); while
many researchers believe that lower estimate is erroneous. Nagy and Anderson (1982-84)

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

(1) Administer a standard listening test for which norms have been developed or

(2) 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 skills.

The physical ability to hear, the intellectual ability to profit from and to improve upon the skill of learning through listening, and the ability to use listening equipments (hardware) and materials (software) to best advantage corresponds to student’s listening.

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

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.

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 upon the skills like attending following and reflecting (Pike and Selvy : 1993)
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'. Ahlja and Ahuja (1993).

Listening and speaking are interactive process that directly affect 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 et al. (1994).

Jayashree (1994) prepared a course to improve the listening and speaking skills of the secondary school teachers of Gujarat.

Dugolale (1995) speaks of recontreur 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 story telling. It is important that the story be interesting and relevant to the students so as to capture their attention. Recontreur listening encourages listeners to concentrate intensely and focus on connections within. A Recontreur is some one who tells a story. Some suggested exercises are a story. Some suggested exercises are talking and doing and animating.

Tahrarni, 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 instructional strategies introducing carefully selected dialectal vocabulary and language forms; concentrating only on 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.

Caryl E (1998) made a study of assessment for less efficient readers. The purpose of this study was to determine of the assessment of listening capacity of less efficient readers, as assessed through a traditionally administered informal reading inventory, was congruent with assessed listening abilities using an informal reading inventory's listening component in isolation. Trait, anxiety and auditory short term memory ability were assessed in identifying characteristics of the sample, as well as exploring factors potentially confounding the results of listening assessment using this instrument.

Speaking

Oral communication is integral to understanding, enriching, and expanding reading and writing experiences. Listening and speaking strategies should be included at all stages of development for use in developing literature themes. 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 communication is neglected in many schools and receives little attention. It is important that schools plan listening and talking experiences for all children. 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, teachers, and other adults in the classroom. “People develop most when they are trying to do things somewhat beyond their current ability” (S. Goodman, Smith, Meredith, & 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 all right 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 student to develop competencies and build confidence (Peregoy & Boyle, 1990), whether it is in a first or second language. If there is a bilingual adult available in the classroom, children from the nondominant 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 a first language, it will be easier to talk about in another.

Bloomfield (1953) speaks of three successive events of an act of speech: a) the speaker’s situation, b) this utterance of speech sounds and its imprimingment on the hearer’s eardrums and c) the hearer’s response. In principle the student of language is concerned only with ‘b’ the actual speech. ‘a’ and ‘c’ are equivalent to sum total of
human knowledge. Efficient speaking is much more than knowing correct grammar. One must have a clear purpose in mind, know his audience and be certain of the type of response one wishes to receive. Tailor one’s message to his audience.

To Doigton (1974) a sense of excitement about words, a sense of wonder and a feeling of pleasure - these are the ingredients in vocabulary development.

Barnes, (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 toward understanding and appreciation of the ideas presented to them in the curriculum.

Asok, (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 R-P and to offer suggestions for the improvement of spoken English in Kerala. It was found that there were deviations in Malayali English from R.P. Many sounds of English are absent in Malayalam and hence English sounds were replaced by Malayalam. Due to the influence of spelling Malayali English speakers used wrong vowels instead of R.P. vowels. The absence of “Differential Stressing” is one of the deviations. The location of tonic syllable is not always at the place where it appears in R.P.

Rubin (1990) “A classroom in which children can spontaneously interact with one another and teachers, is necessary for oral communication. A good classroom should not be silent it should be one in which children’s ideas are heard, respected, encouraged and shared. Children need many opportunities to express themselves, to try out ideas and to get feedback. When children interact with adults they are testing
their own language children's language grows when it receives reinforcement from adults and children's self concepts are enhanced when they feel what they have to say is valuable. 

Turlington et al. (1992) prepared a module which contains speaking assignments for high school students that are taken from six different career areas. Each career section begins with a brief introduction to the career and a communication profile of the person interviewed. These pages can be copied and given to students as handouts. Each section also contains some assignments intended to be given to students and other intended for groups. Some short activities conclude the section. The activities contained in this module are intended for use as supplemental material in high school speech or applied communications classes.

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 both beginning reading, writing and spelling skills". To succeed in this a child should have a large precise vocabulary. Speech defects such as stammering, lisping may tend to reading problems.

Roghaar,(1995). To learn more about day-today communication and behavior in young adult sibling ship. this study explored the everyday interaction and relationship rules of 41 young adult sibling pairs. Respondents separately recorded rules that governed their every day sibling interaction (in areas including conflict, communication and emotional expresses and dealings with parents) and answered open-ended questions about role changes, reasons for such changes and moto-rules (rules that regulate other rules). Each pair then discussed their rules with each other to determine their agreement on those roles existence in their relationship when roles
with similar content and wording were combined, three prevailing sentiments emerged in the agreed upon rules expectations of support, desire for mutual respect, and need for privacy.

Korkhoven's (1995) work addressed the functional principles underlying conversation, in particular the achievements of mutuality as an irreducibly interpersonal phenomenon.

This empirical work involved three pairs of adult volunteers. After three preparatory sessions to enhance meta conversational awareness each pair spent four one-hour sessions designing, building and flying a kite. Discourse analysis was performed on video recording promote bite-building phases. Descriptions centered on conversational contents covers the entire interaction including movements and gestures and aspects such as conversational roles, engagement with materials and tools and the use of representational media besides talk. Of special interest are instances of practical grounding, salient moments of practical action that serve to classify the activity itself. The result is a merging of signifier and referent. It is argued that in these cases the conversation is reduced to a minimal core of mutual agency collaborative action that is mutually articulated through grounding. This contrasts with traditional accounts depicting communication as the transmission or sharing of information.

To Annprooks, (1995). Through conversation and the space between the conversation people show their points of connection and grapple with the inevitable differences in perception. Creating a context that fosters good conversations where those differences become a catalyst, rather than a barrier, o learning and ongoing connections is a monumental challenge and is he essence of this research.
This qualitative research study included 55 interviews with 23 people, 16 of whom were in an intact group and were interviewed three times over nine months. People were asked to tell their stories about conversations that stood out for them. Through an extensive thematic analysis, the dynamic nature of the conversational context become ever more apparent.

The conversational context requires is given as much potency as active speaking, creating conditions. More receptive to change and learning than the static quality of monologue. Similarly the conversational context must provide a space safe enough for people to take risks with each other.

Dugdale (1995) in the paper practicing to speak remarked that it is almost always a good idea to be able to speak quickly, succinctly and naturally one way to practice is to talk as quickly as possible. Native speakers of English can often talk at 250-350 words per minute, when they try of course, being able to talk quickly does not mean that you have to speak fast all the time, it is just one way of getting better at thinking on your feet. The exercises suggested one simultaneous speaking, short speech and interviews.

Dugdale (1996) speaks of interactive learning for spoken language development i.e. using language to learn language. (1) Vocal focus learning and teaching language without written material (2) Challenge break information for students (3) Practicing to speak - how to talk and think on a language one is learning. He suggests some measures to develop oral communication. (1) Mimicking - the basic skill without which communicative language competence cannot be acquired. (2) Presentations, (3) debate (4) negotiation (5) listening.
He spoke of a device 'structure control' to enhance oral communication of pupil. By controlling the structure of what is said teachers can provide the students with a chance to speak creatively no matter what their level. In a structure control activity students are given the base structure of how they are to speak without being told what to say. Activity target limit the style of conversation, while leaving what is said open ended. An example is Text Dialogue. It can be read and dialogue cut and look up and speak, word substitution, act, and memorise the dialogue.

Another device suggested is situation role play. It can be a text example or any co curricular activity using any situation. The roles can be changed and repeated or create a new role play.

A third device is speech making. It is inherently a structure control activity. Students are given a structure a target time limit and an approach with written notes an preparation time limit, verbal practice etc, but is what they have to say, negotiate and the like one open ended. A fourth example is the common discussion in which variations are also made with increasing the number of the group. A fifth model is 'say it repeat it and extend it'. It is taken from real life situation students can talk faster, talk for longer, use shorter sentences, make more simple grammatical structures use simple lenses and more likely to use present tense.

Hirvonen (1996) The study explored 8-10 year old children's peer talk in free play activities. The subjects are ten native English-speaking children and learners of English. Studies on foreigner talk have established modifications that are generally observed by adults when talking to speakers at low proficiency levels conversations with peers are an important learning context for child second language learners.
The study aimed to explore individual variation between children talking with non-native speaking peers. Context dependent (register) variation and speaker-dependent (individual style) variation in addition to variation according to the learner’s proficiency level. The data were analysed at four different levels interactional, sequence, exchange and functional.

The results showed individual variation between native speakers in how they initiated copies, responded to learner initiations and used strategies for avoiding conversational problems, and hence in how they allowed space for the learner to take part in conversation. Moreover, the native speakers approached meaning negotiations differently. There were also indications of context dependent strategic choices and speaker dependent features in the use of initiations and some strategies. The study shows the subjects to have acquired individual approaches to the foreigner register, to exhibit differences in willingness to modify and to take the learner into account and to be able to modify according to the learner’s proficiency level.

Assessment Home Page (1998) stresses Conversation Group needs Assessment. The needs assessment is a tool to encourage one to think about one’s speaking needs and abilities in English language. It checks how important is this skill to you in your daily life? (1 = not at all 4 = very), what is your ability on this area (1 = poor 4 = good). The categories are: (1) speaking to friends (2) speaking at work (3) doing on ends (4) giving presentations (5) giving information (6) speaking confidently (7) stress/rhythm speed and nonverbal communication (eye contacts and gestures).

Cuffin, (1998) investigated the relationship between children’s oral narrative skills and their reading comprehension abilities after controlling for participants.
vocabulary skills, background knowledge, word recognition ability and level of exposure to literacy tests. Oral narratives of personal experiences were elicited from each child of the 100 samples. Results suggested considerable variation in participants oral narrative and reading comprehension skills. General narrative skill was significantly associated with reading comprehension ability (r = .27, P < .01)

Results of multiple regression analysis reveal that general narrative ability predicts reading comprehension, even after controlling vocabulary knowledge word recognition skill, background knowledge and level of exposure to literacy texts.

**Reading**

Reading is considered to be synonymous with comprehension. As such reading involves both reconstructing an author’s message and constructing one’s own meaning using the print on the page. Within this definition the context of the situation or the reader’s purpose in reading will also influence meaning. This process of comprehension is inter-related with and supportive of the other communicative process: listening, speaking, writing and thinking according to Hittleman, (1998).

In the study conducted by George, (1957) the major finding emerged was that poor comprehension, slow speed of writing and poor expression were among the important factors responsible for failure and droppage at school.

Kappar, (1970) made an enquiry into the factors affecting reading comprehension in English. The major findings emerged were (1) Reading comprehension was related positively to reading attitude (2) Dependence was positively related to reading comprehension and (3) The other factors related to reading comprehension were anxiety, reading readiness, academic motivation, attitude
towards the study of English, quality of classroom teaching, and the socio-economic status of parents.

Ahiya and Ahiya, (1972) Conducted a study in which they found out the relationship between silent reading speed and silent reading comprehension, oral reading speed and oral reading comprehension. A test was conducted on a ‘sample’ of hundred pupils consisting of fifty boys and fifty girls in an English medium school of Karnataka.

A study found that intensive instruction to syllabification did not improve the word attack or reading comprehension skills of second graders, although the student could verbalize and apply the syllabification principles being taught. Canney, et al (1976-77).

Kintsch, (1979) and Learner (1981) identified the percentage of reading difficulty among American children. Despite continuing efforts and monumental costs, it is the rare urban high school whose students are not well below the fiftieth percentile on normally normed reading tests, approximately 25 percent of our students have reading difficulties (Kintsch). ‘Indeed, as many as 20 percent of all American 17-year olds were functionally illiterate in 1975’ (Lerner).

Snowling, (1981) and Segal and Ryan, (1998) found differences between Normals and Reading. Disabled at the same reading level as determined by a word reading test. It should be noted that same studies have not found differences between good and poor readers matched on reading level, on the reading of pseudowords.

Summarising “the results of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) Bloom, (1981) notes that reading comprehension and word knowledge dominate and in large part determine what students learn in the schools in all the countries included in the IEA studies. These two aspects of learning
are important because most teacher instruction and learning materials are verbal, according to him.

Lionel, (1982) conducted a study on a psycholinguistic strategy for teaching reading comprehension in English at plus two level. The major finding was the psycholinguistic strategy proved superior to the visual method.

Rauls, (1982) obtained a high positive correlation of 0.717 at 0.01 level between reading comprehension and basic mechanical skills for 212 8th and 12th grade students.


Dass, (1984) conducted a study on reading comprehension in English of English medium students of Std X of central Gujarat based in some socio-psycho factors. The results indicated that there were significant sex differences with regard to reading comprehension in English and the girls scored higher than that of boys.

To Johnson and Pearson, (1984) semantic feature analysis focuses on the ways in which words in a category are alike and the ways in which they are different fostering in students an ability to identify the relationships between and among concepts. Each word has characteristics or features that distinguishes it from all of the other words in its category.

Hundreds of research studies have been conducted to identify teacher behaviour and environment condition that are associated with high levels of student learning Baumann (1984) Brophy and Good (1988) Rosenshine and Stevens (1984).
The research findings were most relevant to reading comprehension Instruction includes the importance of

1. Teachers having a positive attitude about their own teaching abilities and their students' ability to learn.

2. Teachers having aware of the goals and objectives for their lessons and their ability to communicate these to their students.

3. Enough time in the school day being allocated for reading instruction.

4. Students being academically engaged or on task a high proportion of time.

5. A business like atmosphere in the classroom during academic activities.

6. An environment in which teachers love and respect children and make them feel comfortable, important and worthwhile.

7. Teachers skillfully managing the instruction time, by being thoroughly prepared, administering instruction at a brisk pace, keeping transition time to a minimum and being able to prevent misbehaviour.

8. Teachers monitoring learning by checking students, understanding, providing corrective feedback, re-teaching as needed and insuring the completion of assigned work.

9. And most importantly teachers really teaching that is teachers showing telling, modeling, demonstrating, explaining teachings how various skills and processes function (Baumann, 1987 pp. 16-17)

In other words, when teachers take the time to clearly, directly and explicitly teach students reading comprehension the students tend to acquire these abilities

Seidenberg, Bruck, Fornarolo and Backman (1985) Treiman and Birsh Pasek (1985) have not found differences between good and poor reading by a word recognition test. Their studies defined poor readers on the basis of scores on reading comprehension tests as opposed to the word recognition test. As read comprehension tests do not directly measure decoding skills, the degree of reading deficits in children defined as poor readers on the basis of a low reading comprehension test cannot be ascertained, but it is likely that they were not as reading disabled as the children in the present study.

Rather than focusing an individual word meanings, instruction should emphasize the entire conceptual framework or schemata elicited by a word. Teaching words from a concept development places the emphasis on word's place within the reader's established semantic repertoire, rather than limiting the meaning of the word to a particular sentence. This is the remark of Pearson (1985). Ekwall & Shankor (1988) says, 'students learn words more easily if they can incorporate them into their cognitive schemata'.

To Nagy and Herman (1985) The reading vocabulary of the average child grow at a rate of 3000 words per year between grades 3 and 12. It is therefore crucial that, as children progress the grades, their vocabulary continues to expand so that they have the foundation they need to comprehend the many new words they will encounter.

Routzel (1985) Using the Reconciled Reading Lesson (RRL), involves reversing the traditional basal lesson sequence to improve reader's comprehension
Enrichment Activities or Language Extension Activities are the last sections of the teacher’s manual are referred by the teacher to begin with the activities suggested in this part of the lesson are often excellent for building background knowledge and discussing unfamiliar concepts or vocabulary.

Reutzel (1985-86) says story maps help teachers and students perceive relationships, organise their thoughts, and expository text. As a result teachers provide more focussed and coherent instruction and students focus their efforts on comprehension more effectively. Semantic webs or story maps are graphic display for representing the relationships among concepts, characters and events in text.

Vimaladevi (1986) attempted to develop some strategies to improve critical reading abilities in English at Higher Secondary level. Results revealed that critical reading ability is related to reading achievement. The students of the target group gained significantly from the strategy implemented. The total improvement in the critical reading skill was 11. 41 percent Factor analysis revealed that four abilities viz. interpretation, inference, evaluation and creation.

To Nelson (1986) it is crucial that unfamiliar vocabulary be taught directly in every content area lesson in which the vocabulary load could affect a student’s ability to comprehend facts, concepts and principles of the subject matter. New and difficult words must be taught before students are expected to recognise them in reading or use them in writing.

In semantic mapping students have an opportunity to relate new concepts to their own background knowledge ‘thus building bridges between the new and the known’ Pearson and Johnson (1978). The altered teacher student relationship inherent in the semantic mapping process might be one factor in the impact of
semantic mapping as a strong motivational and brainstorming technique Heinlich and Pittlemann (1996). They stated that semantic mapping has been found to be a useful strategy in prior knowledge activation and assessment, general vocabulary building pre and post reading instruction and study skill development.

Skanthakumari, (1987) developed some strategies for the improvement of reading skills in English at middle school level. The intervention strategy helped to improve the reading ability of students. The percentage of increase in the reading achievement of students and their mental ability scores were found significantly related.

**Cognitive Components of Skilled Reading**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lower Level skills</th>
<th>Higher Level Skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Perceptual encoding of single letters and letter combinations</td>
<td>- Locating meaning of written words in large term memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Decoding single letters and letter combinations into speech sounds</td>
<td>- Combining word meanings into clauses and sentences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Sight recognition of common words, to reduce time-consuming decoding</td>
<td>- Using prose context to refine word, clause, and sentence meanings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Holding chunks of text in working memory for higher level processing.</td>
<td>- Combining sentence meanings into higher order relations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Using previous knowledge to draw inferences about text meaning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Engaging in comprehension monitoring to check processing accuracy.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As Table shows, while reading we execute many skills simultaneously, taxing all aspects of our information-processing systems. We must perceive single letters and letter combinations, translate them into speech sounds, learn to recognize the visual appearance of many common words, hold chunks of text in working memory while interpreting their meaning, and combine the meanings of various parts of a text passage into an understandable whole. In fact, reading is such a demanding process that if one or more skills are poorly developed, they will compete for attentional resources in our limited memories, and reading performance will decline. (Frederik Sen and Warren: 1987; Perfetti, 1988)

According to Durkin (1989) "Preparation for reading a basal selection are -- or ought to be a time for attending to new vocabulary."

Hayes (1991) speaks of an excellent strategy to develop sight vocabulary for beginning readers to readers up to intermediate level to expand their vocabulary. In this the teacher use important words from children’s spoken vocabulary viz. the language experience approach or experience charts to teach beginning reading expose their students to interesting and useful words in each lesson.

He cites some measures of teaching reading and writing together (1) Preview - an expository piece of writing that contains a variety of test aids such as titles, subtitles, graphs, charts, pictures etc. (2) Card strategy with note cards or paper scraps (3) Schemastories - a new narrative of expository text (4) Pilot Mapping (5) Card Sort which help the student to chunk minor ideas into a major idea (6) Idea expansion (7) Say something (8) Tell Me Reader Selected Miscues (9) Help Me Ask Me (10) Synonym Substitution and (11) Say it Again.
To help children understand the importance of learning to read teachers must provide them with instmotioned materials that are relevant and interesting. They must also ensure that students can and will transfer what they learn from instmotioned materials to real life reading situations.

To him effective teachers can be sure that they are addressing both of these concerns by providing supplemental activities for teaching reading skills through the daily newspapers.

Henshaw, Ann (1991) describes the information gained during a study of 11 and 12 year old remedial readers. It also reflects upon the ways in which adolescents who are considered to be under achievers as readers perceive their own reading abilities.

Whitemore, Shirley (1992) surveyed 449 seniors and sophomores at North Ridgeville (Ohio) High School to determine their reading interests. The survey of 18 questions revealed the following findings: (1) favourite type of novel was horror; (2) favourite author was stephen king (3) favourite magazines were seventeen and Sports Illustrated (4) favourite type of literature was the short story; and (5) 42% of the students read one or more books a month. There was a significant relationship between reading frequency and other variables such as GPA, gender or other reading variables. No significant relationship existed between reading frequency and other variables such as hour spent watching television or working, number of sports participations, or parents' reading frequency. The majority of students surveyed showed a positive attitude toward reading.

O'Reilly, Robert P. et al. (1992) presented a paper on working memory and reading skill in high school students (14 poor, 13 average, and 16 good readers) were given
three different measures of memory capacity to determine if they differed in working memory, traditional memory span, and chunking capacity. Several experimental tasks followed to determine if differences in the memory factors were related to specific components of reading. These tasks included lexical decision, letter matching, reading rate, synonym match, speeded comprehension and word recording. Comprehension. IQ, spelling, mathematics word problems and vocabulary scores were collected from school records. The three memory tasks, lexical decision, and synonym match discriminated significantly among the groups, with general ability controlled. Regression analyses suggested each memory variable was explained by a different constellation of the other reading factors. Findings suggest that the relationship between working memory and reading comprehension is not insoluble from the type and amount of information encoded during its measurement.

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 keep them throughout their educational career.

Barry Arlene,(1994) discusses the way in which American high school remedial reading programmes become staffed. 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 research on cognitive strategy instruction and its effectiveness. Also present implications for instruction.
Dugdale (1995) After checking the reading speeds of every student for some years almost never not a student with a mechanical reading speed of over two hundred words per minute. Focussing on mechanical speed as it is a common experience that comprehension rockets at the 180-220 words per minute mark and that those meeting below these speeds can rarely comprehend well, be the native speaker or ESL, he continued.

Olson, Patricia (1995) presents material relating to the ReCaRe (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 first part of the compilation is 48 page booklet entitled “Answers to Your Questions about Re Ca Re: A High School Reading and Study Skills Programme”. The compilation next presents a research report demonstrating the effectiveness of the Re Ca Re programme at Henry Sibley High School, Minnesota. The compilation concludes with a 34 page study skills in service programme, discussing such topics as study habits, pre-reading strategies, SQ3R note taking, test preparations, vocabulary a “generic” 8-day lesson plan and a 7-item bibliography of study skills texts.

Ozburn, Mary (1995) describes a sustained silent reading programme in a 9th grade reading class of 60 students, most of them at risk students. Find that, on average, students improved 3.9 grade levels in their reading.

To Dugdale (1996) Reading speed fosters comprehension. One’s reading speed should be increased till it reaches at least three to five hundred words per minute. Lower speed mars comprehension. Moreover, quoting Clarke “Read at least one book a day and writes much as you can... all the authors I know were self-taught
there is no substitution for living. As Hemmingway remarked writing is not a full
time occupation. He wanted each one to read more.

Ervin (1999) reported that standardised tests failed to assess early reading
achievement. In 1994, 24 first grade teachers in Bangor, Maine objected to the use of
standardised achievement tests. Some first grade teachers and superintendents of the
school tried a new process which later become the Banglore Assessment of Reading.
This is a triennial process of assessing, fluency, construction of meaning
comprehension, reading strategies and student attitudes towards literature. When
tested the impact has been astounding.

Writing

Writing is a skill in which we produce a sequences of sentences arranged in a
particular order and linked together in certain ways. It is a productive skill which
involves manipulating, structuring and communicating. Writing helps to solidify the
students grasp of vocabulary and structure, and comprehension and other skills.
"Appropriacy can be developed only through writing. The goal of writing is to
develop the student ability to write up to the point at which homework can be given".
Venkateswaran (1997)

Huda (1993) "By writing is not meant writing like a standard author but being
just able to arrange a few ideas on anything and on any matter of common interest
into an ordinary written form with a reasonable grammatical correctness. It is well
known that the great majority of our pupils in later life will take up a pen only to
write a letter or to fill in a simple form or as a clerk write small reports every now
and then for their superior officers."
Sanders and Littlefield (1973) examined the use of a placement writing sample among college freshman, found that students in an experimental group, given the topic for the same essay a week before its time of production rendered superior essays to those written by freshman in the comparison group who were asked to write immediately to a sudden stimulus.

Britton et al. (1975) classified writing as expressive, transactional and poetic where they see the 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 writings is seen as directed to a more distant audience, more formal in style, and typified by information or persuasive motivation. The poetic may be informative or persuasive, but it influences the reader more in terms of form and style as opposed to content.


The major findings were:

1) In the context of writing, correctness is best taught by giving students feedback on what they actually write.

2) The writing of each student could be placed at one of three developmental stages:
   Chunk-style (simply listing correlated chunks of information), chaotic (attempting to relate information without a coherent framework) and integrated (combining relational and content information) and there is a developmental sequence in the growth of writing.
(3) 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.

(4) The greater significance occurred in contrasting clarity of concepts learned by writing, assigned writing tasks had significantly, higher gains in learning content subject area.

The holistic method of assessing the full ability to communicate through writing has gained considerable favour. This approach is also called general impression or impressionistic Hillerich (1983) pointed out, reliability can be enhanced in proportion to (1) the speed with which the papers are read (2) similarity of the background of the rates (3) use of anchor papers for comparison and (4) the averaging of the ratings of at least two raters.

Myres and Grey (1983) deal with the theory and teaching of writing. They divide it into processing, distancing and modelling. Processing focuses on the sequence of stages in writing or the variation in strategies used by the teacher. Distancing is concerned with the relationship between speaker and subject or between speaker and audience and modelling makes use of imitation, text examples sentence combining and heuristics.

Maffet and Wagner (1983) described the two discrete aspects of writing: composing and transcribing composing consists of determining the content and selecting and organising the ideas and ultimately the words. Transcribing is a matter of converting this equivalent of speech into print and includes mechanics such as letter formation, spelling, capitalisation and punctuation.
Neustupny (1989) reported that writing as all other communication skills is an inevitable part of the study of the content of any subject, thus reflecting the student’s development of an aspect of socio-cultural competence. Students may learn to write when they have adequate pre-communication input when they have something to write about and when they know what they want to write.

Heaton, (1990) has said, “Composition writing provides the students with an opportunity to demonstrate that ability to organise language material using their own words and ideas and to communicate. In this way composition tests provide a degree of motivation which many objective type tests fail to provide .... The writing test should be such that it ensures they have something to say and a purpose for saying it. They should also have an audience in mind when they write”. In short whenever possible meaningful situations should be given in composition test. In this contentions Ahuja (1998) conducted a study. More or less equitable findings emerged out of the study.

Rubin, (1990) notes. “Children will be at different levels in writing composition. At all levels, teachers should help them to recognise the relationship between reading and writing, and how one enhances the other. Students who read widely will have a broad range of ideas from which to draw for their own writing. Also through reading they will come to recognise what skills are necessary to be a good writer”. To write effective stories or paragraphs, children need to be able to write sentences. To do this, children should have practice in oral expression. Starting in the primary grade children are helped to express themselves so that they can ‘say what they mean, this help them ‘write what they mean’.
Sperling Meling Melanie (1991) examined the brief conversations about writing that took place between a high school English teacher and two of his students. One illustrative writing conference conversation lasting one minute and 19 seconds shows how through the push and pull of their short exchange, student and teacher simultaneously read the book, read each other, revising their "readings" along the way. Another such conference between the teacher and a different student, lasting one minute and one second, illustrates how the student examined a rhetorical strategy that had begun to look problematic and worked through a solution that confirmed her original plans. Because he has limited amounts of time in which to converse with each student, yet places high value on such talk, the teacher has adopted four strict strategies to make such conversation possible. These "ordinary" and quickly fleeting exchanges between teacher and student are critical events in the business of learning to write.

Thompson, et al. (1991) used a holistic approach to the assessment of students’ writing skills in a high school that is part of a resential treatment programme for adolescents. High School students were asked to produce spontaneous writing samples in the fall and spring of the 1990-91 school year on the whom they admire. Results revealed good inter-rator reliability and significant gain in writing skills during the year. Findings proposed that holistic assessment can be applied to classroom instruction.

Perkins (1992) discusses the ways in which a high school basic writing teacher abandoned the advice about her students offered by her colleagues and chose instead to develop a student centered writing workshop. It demonstrates the potential a
workshop model has for creating a community of authors in a high school basic writing class.

Temple et al., 1992 passed the opinion, "There are two distinct types of traditional writing. Sometimes traditional writing consists of sharing information or explaining something which is called expository writing. The second type of transactional writing consists of an attempt to persuade someone to do something or to believe something. This type of traditional writing is called argumentative writing. Readers and writers both count on some sort of organisational patterns to guide them in comprehending and presenting written information. Very young writers have begun to get a handle on patterns of organisation through conversation. They have same practice in explaining and in describing things. To extend this experience into the realm of writing children need to hear and to read expository prose as well as stories it."

Langor and Allington, (1992) reported curricular aims in writing. The competence or skills curriculum focuses are the acquisition and development of a number of skills in reading and writing to bring students to a common level of competence deemed useful by society. The competence model measures, among other things, the students’ capacity to communicate and strengths and weakness in writing. It teaches students to record report and narrate, to summarise, argue and convey information, to present a point of view, to learn how to write and practice for examination and to learn how to evaluate their products and to improve them.

Appleman and others (1993) discusses and tries to define the basic differences between high school and college-level writing. They examine key assumptions of the summer writing programme at Carleton College along with the criteria used for
determining whether students should receive writing course credit. Reveals contradictory in stated criteria and precis.

Mouritzen (1993) designed a practicum to deal with the problem of a deficiency in the writing ability students needed to express themselves skillfully and adequately. The goal was to increase writing involvement and writing ability. The objectives included the organization of a writing programme, the improvement of written communication for various purposes, an increase in writing participation and quality, and a lessening of writing apprehension with an increase in positive attitudes. The implemented solution centred on the initiation and operation of writers’ workshops, utilizing process writing, modification of the teacher’s role, student centered class rooms, and student selection of topics and projects. The main idea in the workshop was for much writing to take place in an environment that encouraged participation, writing improvement, and risk taking. This represented a start toward bringing needed change to the writing programme of the school. The overall increase in writing quality was not documented but a positive movements was seen in the lower section of the assessment range. More time may be needed to show an increase. The degree of participation, the amount of work accomplished, and the improvement in many attitudes was refreshing. The idea of a safe environment was fulfilled, and much writing took place with the students beginning to assume ownership of their over work and their learning.

Thompson et al. (1993) used a holistic approach to evaluate student writing skills in a high school that is part of a residential treatment programme. Faculty members scored 740 writing samples in the fall and spring of the 1990-91 school year. Good inter rater reliability and significant skill gains for students were found.
Hunka, Steve (1994) reflects on the first decade of the 40 year history of this journal and selects one article typical of many during that decade, characterized by large sample sizes and statistical comparisons of achievement among Alberta students. The article selected examines writing achievement among approximately 2000 rural and urban fourth and sixth graders.

Hedges, V. Pauline (1995) describes strategies for improving writing skills of rural at-risk high school students including writing stories for kindergarten students; developing portfolios that include descriptive, expository, and persuasive pieces; and participating in a care development unit that incorporates writing assignments. Students also learn to find information in the library, through interviews, and through computer searches.

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. Generally, results indicated improvement in student writing scores. The researcher’s record of each student’s organizational agreement revealed a specifically chosen organization strategy and effectively developed paper based on said strategy.

According to Beruah,(1995) “suitable exercise may be devised for pupils to compose single or two or three connected sentences of their own, as the pupils develop mastery in the use of language this guidance is progressively reduced and finally they are required to write entirely on their own. At this stage they are free to choose their structures and vocabulary and express their own thoughts and ideas on a given topic, this cannot be achieved at the school stage”. Hence guidance should be provided to them.
Tichenor (1995) reported that students in vocational and technical colleges are in writing classes because they must be, not because they want to be. Students write under five basic headings introduction writing at school, writing at work, discussion and conclusion. For the mini-business plan assignment, students are required to show how they would set up their own business. They are not to become involved in the legalistic or financial side of things as the instructor has no exercise in these areas; rather they are to write a statement of purpose, a company description, a discussion of location, products and services, a plan to market products and services, and an estimation of the number of employees needed.

Nelson, Sandra-J et al, (1996) examined certified Public Accountants' perceptions of the written language skills. They find that written language fundamentals in word selection and usage, sentence and paragraph construction, and grammar and mechanics remain a problem for entry level accountants. They note the value of these findings for educators.

Dugdale’s (1996) page on writing comments that getting is an important part of learning how to write well feedback can be at number of levels: vocabulary, sentence construction paragraph construction, tense, logic, cohesion and flow.

Kohli (1997) remarked, “one of the aims of teaching English is to enable the pupil to express himself correctly in writing on matters of everyday life... . . . Not only that he must have something to write about, that is ideas. He must know how to organise the ideas in their proper sequence.

A study to improve English composition of standard VIII students using word processors has been done by Dr. Blawal and Munther 1997 Word processors are common packages used in school with computer facilities which have been proved to be potent tool to improve English writing of students in foreign countries. In this
paper an attempt has been made to analyse the effectiveness of word processor (word war) in improving English composition writing of standard VIII students. The findings of this study showed that word processor can significantly reduce grammatical errors, spelling and punctuation mistakes. The study revealed that the logical sequencing of sentences and paragraphs, page format and neatness of the writing can be improved through word processing. It was found that the overall literary quality of composition also improved.

Ashutosh and others, (1997) conducted a study to improve English composition of standard VIII students using word processors are common packages used in School 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 and many students drop out mainly due to failure in English, some remedial practice teaching is essential for the students who are weak in English.

In this paper an attempt has been made to analyse the effectiveness of word processor (word star) in improving English composition writing of standard VIII students. The findings of this study showed that word processor can significantly reduce grammatical errors, spelling punctuation mistakes. The study revealed that the logical sequencing of sentences and paragraphs page format and neatness of the writing can be improved through word processing. It was found that the overall literary quality of composition also improved.
II. Studies Related to Pupil-related Factors

Intelligence

Munn, Intelligence may be defined as flexibility or versatility and is a function of the living organism”.

A significant finding of Coleman (1954) and Cureton’s study was that the relation between a general index of intelligence and overall performance on a battery of achievement test approached unity at the elementary school level.

Dasojh (1958) correlated the PMT scores with marks obtained by students in higher secondary class. The obtained correlation’s were 0.6 with Mathematics, 0.6 with General Science and 0.9 with mother tongue.

Bloom (1963) established that general intelligence, I.Q or some other type of generalised aptitude test performance are useful for predicting performance on a great range of intellectual or cognitive tasks.

Pavithran (1963) found high correlation between occupational status and achievement.

Atmes and Walker (1964) A Study of the Correlation obtained a correlation of 0.57 between reading achievement and IQ.

While constructing a non-verbal group test of intelligence for high school students, Bhavasar (1967) obtained varying correlation against achievement in different school subjects. The obtained values were: Hindi 0.46; Gujarathi 0.51; Social studies 0.33; English 0.37, Science 0.70; Mathematics 0.66 and Total School marks 0.49.

Sukumaran Nair, (1968) while standardising his non-verbal test of intelligence for secondary school students of Kerala, obtained the following correlation with secondary school marks in different subjects: English 0.26; Malayalam 0.21; Hindi
0.23; Social 0.34; Mathematics 0.43; General Science 0.43; and Total School Marks, 0.05.

Paul and Rao (1969) used Bhatia's Performance Test of Intelligence on a sample of school students (N = 200) of the age group 9-13. They obtained a moderate correlation of 0.32 between test scores and total marks.

Gaudry (1971) pointed to the recognized finding of many an investigation that intellectual aptitudes are important correlates of scholastic achievement. The positive relationship between intelligence and academic achievement has been further corroborated in another study by Anandavalli.

Wallwork's (1979) study revealed that there is significant positive correlation between glosson Intelligence Test Scores, Stanford Early Achievement Test and Stanford Achievement Test.

Sinha (1986) studying factors associated with success or failure in University education reported that compared with high achievers, the low achievers came from rural or educationally or socio-economically poor income background.

ii Studies related to Socio-Economic Status

A study conducted by Rajalakshmi (1970) revealed that language development was higher in children of high stimulated homes.

Sabu (1974) conducted a study on socially advantage and disadvantaged subjects using the Indian Adaptation of WISC verbal sub-scales with necessary recording and Language Achievement Test Battery (LATB) scores showed favourable trends for advantaged subjects WISC verbal scores were significantly related toward reading, spelling scores, passage comprehension scores and word fluency scores.

Sudhir and Muralidhanaran Pillai (1987) found that high SES and high IQ students had science achievement scores than low SES and low IQ groups.
Otto (1965) investigated the sibling patterns of good and poor readers and found a significant advantage in reading among only elder children.

Call and Wiggin (1966) concluded that additional instructions in reading skill contributed significantly to the development of skill in solving word problems. The effect of position in and size of family was studied by Brown (1965) who found that children with older and younger siblings were not better listeners than oldest and youngest children and that children from small families were not better listeners than those from large families.

Norman et al (1970) in a factor analysis study investigated that each of the test in a battery of 53 perceptual cognitive linguistic and achievement measure was assessing for socio-economic level group super, middle and low. Two of the measures used were Reading Achievement Test, and Reading Isolated Words and leading paragraphs. The two groups of children appeared to be using different skills in approaching the reading task one more cognitive and the other more oral.

iii  
**Studies related to Attitudes of Pupils towards Learning English**

Attitudes and achievement scores of first quarter Spanish students was positively influenced by special training for listening in a study by Bagley (1978).

Kanjanwala (1980) investigated into the reading attitude of high school students.

The findings include.

1. Reading attitude was a function of grade.
2. The higher the SES, the better was the reading attitude.
3. Reading habit was positively correlated to reading attitude.
4. Students of small size families have a more favourable attitude to reading than those of large size families.
Pathan (1988) explored the attitude of pupils and teachers in single-sex as well as mixed schools in Poona City. Amongst other findings, the study brought forth the results that boys and girls from co-educational schools with English and Marathi media have a favourable attitude towards (i) teachers and (ii) self.

Budhdev (1989) studied the attitude of pupils toward various school subjects. He found that while girls showed an overall positive attitude towards various subjects, boys had a better attitude towards science subjects. The study also revealed that the high intelligent group of pupils (regardless of gender) had a better attitude toward Mathematics and English than their lower intelligent counterparts. Likewise, the high SES group of pupils were found to have a more positive attitude towards Mathematics and English than their counterparts belonging to the low SES group. Clearly, the trend is indicative of a positive relationship between achievement and attitude towards a specific subject or combination of subjects in the secondary school curriculum in our country.

Hayes (1991) remarks that teachers, administrators, and parents go to some length to assess students' skill development in reading, but attitudes are for the most part unmeasured, except for the subjective observation teachers make. Students' attitude should be measured on a regular basis in all classrooms, which would ascertain effects of writing, oral discussion, etc.

Dickinson, Susan (1922) designed a practicum to increase the amount of recreational reading by secondary school students, and to improve student's attitude toward reading, thus decreasing disruptive behaviours in the classroom. A whole language workshop approach was implemented over an 8-month period in two high school English classes, grades 10 and 11, college preparation level, with a total of 104
students. Many of the students had the skills to read but chose not to do so. The workshop was student centred so that students could become self-directed, choosing reading materials of interest to them. The focus of the curriculum was on reading, thinking and discussion and the teacher's role was that of facilitator. Pre- and post-surveys were administered to record changes in student attitudes and improvement in leisure reading. Results showed that student' attitudes toward reading improved; that more students were involved in leisure reading. While three of the four practicum objectives were not met the improvement shown was positive in terms of overall success.

Cannon's (1997) investigation had the purposes (1) to examine the extents to which middle school students' reading attitude, behaviours, and interest differ when exposed to literature through either Paideia, whole language or traditional language instruction and (2) to examine the extent to which gender differences are reflected in the reading attitudes, behaviours and interest of middle school students who have been exposed to literature through Paideia, whole language or traditional language arts instruction. The results indicated that differences were not significant for the independent variables: reading attitudes and reading behaviours across the three methods of instruction. Also differences were not shown significant for the independent variable reading behaviours between genders, but the differences were significant for the dependent variable: reading attitude between the genders. No interaction was present between the method factor and the gender factor.
Section III

Studies related to Institution Related Factors

Institution related factors such as infrastructural facilities, learning environment, instructional strategies, library facilities, co-curricular activities are vital attributes to the successful learning of a child no matter how intense the urge is to make education paedio-centric.

I Instructional Strategies

The most important instructional breakthrough in recent years involves the identification of individual learning styles and the subsequent matching of complementary strategies, resources and environments. A considerable body of research verifies how crucial this diagnostic, prescriptive approach is to learning.

Duffy, and Roehler L.F. (1987) defined a skill as an over learned procedure for which the achievement of speed and accuracy is the goal.

Duffy, G. G & Roehler L.F. (1987) (Teaching Reading skills as Strategies. The Reading Teacher 40, 414-418.) argued that a strategy involves a learning plan to be used flexibly, that is strategies are skills that are used intentionally, deliberately and selectively in order to promote the understanding of text in natural reading situations.

Martin et al (1976) studied the psychological implications of the relationship of writing and learning across the curriculum at age 11 to 16. They concluded that the restrictions on children's talking and writing and the exclusive use of transactional writing deprived pupils of important ways of developing a commitment to learning and in understanding the material presented to them. The study also revealed that
teachers generally failed to consider the implications of language as a major intellectual tool and therefore failed to realise the potential of talking of pupils and writing as a means of learning.

Pettigrew et al.,(1981) observed teachers in grades three and six to identify the discrete behaviours involved in writing lesson. The reported that a writing lesson is unlike any other kind of lesson and that teachers are not prepared to teach such lessons. The great number of skills involved in writing resulted in a confused mix of five or more different skill being taught in most of the lesson observed.

Applebex et al.,(1981) surveyed 754 of the “best” secondary English teachers about their practice in teaching writing. These teachers reported that an average of 44% of their lesson time was devoted to writing. However only 3% of that writing consisted of a paragraph or more and that was usually done as a test of content. Students were using writing only as a measure of displaying their knowledge of content studied.

Rodrigues,(1983) suggested a strategy for teaching writing “brain writing”. The basic idea of brain writing is to divide the class into small groups. Each group member, independently, will list three or four ideas. As the papers pass around the group, each student will get new thoughts from others’ list. Finally, the small group may share their lists with the entire class.

Kreeft,(1984) suggested one means to move the students form expressive writing to the transactional writing. It is through the use of a dialogue log. This is a notebook in which the student and teacher both write, responding to each other’s entries. Appropriate questioning reactions written by the teacher gradually move the
student to structures and amplify statements, to make them more understandable to a less personal audience.

DeFries, (1985) gave an over view of the Colorado Reading Project which began in 1973 with extensive family study. One hundred reading disabled children of probands were matched to normal-reading control children and family members of both groups of children were tested. The study took five years. An extensive psychometric test battery was administered to all subjects at each phase. They include the Reading Recognition(REC) Reading Comprehension (COMP) and Spelling (SPELL) subtests of the Peabody Individual Achievement Test (PIAT); the Coding (CODE) subtest of the Peabody Intelligence Scale for Children-Reviewed WATS-R and the Colorado Perceptual speed Test (CPS) Results from the analysis of variance yield evidence for a significant effect of TIME for both Read and Speed composites. This reflects significant improvement between the test session for both male and female in reading ability and symbol processing speed. With respect to reading performance, the main effect due to IQ is highly significant, however, no evidence of differential rates of development as a function of GENDER, SES, or IQ was obtained.

In the light of the impact of the students' vocabulary on success in reading, teachers must devote time to vocabulary development beyond that which is dedicated by the teacher's manuals in most basal programme. Vocabulary development should be emphasized throughout the school day, not just in reading and language classes. Burns, Rose and Rose (1988).

In her extensive review of the literature, Adams(1990) contended that the effective teacher need not remain trapped in the phonics versus teaching for meaning
dilemma. She proposed that decoding ability can work together with a whole language or meaning emphasis approach to teaching reading.

Asha (1990) conducted a study on teaching strategies for developing written communication skills in English of the secondary school pupils of Kerala. The study revealed that although the teachers are aware of the strategies in developing the written communication skill, they fail to practice them in their classroom in an effective manner since they lack proper training regarding their implementation.

Researchers found that “writing Process Instruction” goes away when teachers bypass the complicated problem solving that is at the heart of an expanded writing process, in favour of relatively rigid sets of procedure for all students to follow Dyson and Freedman (1991).

Carbo, Rita and Kenneth, (1991) give suggestions and detail explanations for increasing the reading ability of students ranging from primary youngsters thought to be learning disabled to turned-off students experiencing difficulty and gradually decreasing motivation. The views may help classroom teachers reading specialists and special educators to develop effective reading programmes that promote academic achievement.

Makino, Taka Yoshi, (1993) investigate the degree to which teacher was help students correct their own errors in English as a foreign language written compositions and what kind of ones are more effective in self correction. Sixty-two Japanese College students were sampled.

Patterson, Theresv et al, (1994) made a study on the language skills of bilingual students. Bilingual students who choose to study their native language in school have unique needs. Once they have been identified and placed in a special class for native
speakers, these children must learn to match their familiar verbal language with the less familiar written language. By becoming translators and interpreters for the school, writing for specific modes, maintaining journals, and editing sentences, bilingual students can improve their writing proficiency.

Jackk. (1995) This study determined the physical, Psychological and social characteristics of whole language classrooms. The objective of the study was to establish consensus of important classroom characteristics form a panel of whole language experts within three given categories: (a) Physical classroom characteristics (b) Psychological classroom characteristics (c) Social classroom characteristics. Results indicated that 12 of the 48 (25%) of physical characteristics 29 of 48 (60%) psychological characteristics, 36 of the 44 (81%) of social characteristics were important to whole language classrooms and had high consensus among the panelist.

Joyce's (1995) research was designed to act as a catalyst for discussion and research in the area of interpersonal communication textbook. In total thirty-one textbooks were analysed and critiqued. The research was exploratory and descriptive in nature. The results show that there is a clear tie between the text books communication approach and its ethical perspective. The textbooks using the pragmatic approach was found to have little tie with any ethical perspective. Covert and overt ethical prospective are also delineated and explained.

Dugdale,(1996) noticed that by focusing on contextual learning and directing that learning so that the students control the process which is helping them acquire effective interactive use of and control over their acquisition paradigm and giving them information about effective strategies for learning. Teachers can greatly assist pupils to function in and learn about the contextual learning process. To do this in a
classroom environment takes a lot of organisation since the teacher needs to facilitate the open-ended, student-generated discussion while providing still the kind of grades step by step instruction which the vast majority of students expect of formal lesson. One solution is to read the student expectations. A better, more immediately useful solution is to use traditional, familiar methodologies—targeted activities with clearly delineated also processes and outcomes—in a way which actively develops contextual learning and its associated skills.

Dugdale (1996) gives a page which contain full of articles which aims to help teachers understand how to handle classroom activity which focuses on an intensely verbal teaching style and so has a heavy emphasis on achieving greater student concentration, speed and fluency. They encourage student mimicking silently any time when they are not talking.

Dugdale (1996) in a course says that to improving one’s skills many chances to use and develop them should be given in the course the focus is on getting one to do activities which help one to read and understand better and transfer the knowledge gained from reading to one’s writing.

In an article Dugdale (1996) outlines the kind of structure control discussion activity which forms the basis for course concentration, speed and fluency exercise. The activity is demonstrated in a simple, stylised format by a teacher, a randomly chosen one or two students. Then students are divided into small groups or pairs and each one is randomly rotated. Teachers also participate as peers often giving suggestions and pieces of advice.

Slavin and Madden (1997) studied the effects of Success for All on the achievement of English Language Learning. It is a comprehensive reform programme
for elementary schools specific elements of the programme and adaptation for the need of English language learners are: Reading Tutors, Reading Programme, eight week Reading Assessments, English as a Second Language, Kindergarten, Family Support Team, Programme Facilitator, teachers and Teacher Training. The analysis showed that success for all students sacred substantially then controls on every measure (p<.01 better.)

Ramin et al (1997) reported certain strategies for language minority children. The Primary objective of the longitudinal study of structured English Immersion Strategy, Early-Exit and Later-Exit Transitional Bilingual Education Programme for Language Minority Children is to Compare the relative effectiveness of the alternative programmes structured English immersion strategy and later-exit transitional bilingual education with that of the programme typically funded through the Bilingual Education Act, the early exit transitional bilingual education programme. First study results are relevant only to these programmes serving Spanish Speaking language minority students. Research suggest that second language learners of English with a primary language other than Spanish acquire English language skills differently.

Jean (1997) presented a reading model in his dissertation for the cross-cultural interpretation of narrative which unites the cognitive - epistemological motivation emphasised by behavioural theorists with the affective / ontological motivation emphasised by theorists in the humanities. The target population of concern is second language learners. The model is based on the reading theory and text theories of Paul Ricoeur, a philosopher of language. A key component of Ricoeur’s thinking is incorporated into the model includes his mimetic reading theory which stimulates life
in three areas of activity by readers: product/process – dimensions of text, his passive-active continuum of human experience and action, principles for coherent text interpretation, opportunity, for self-understanding through text application and the concomitant ramifications for second language readers.

The results of these studies provided support for the global strategy PC-3R which evolved from the reading model. The model is argued to be useful for global reading strategizing for narrative text by second language learners at all levels of academic learning.

A study was conducted by Pearlman (1998) on literature based reading programme. The major findings mean that Vth grade students in a literature-based programme acquired traditional reading comprehension skill as assessed through standardised testing. The children at the school investigation show standardised test scores from IV th to Vth grade and surpassed national, suburban, and independent school norms. The six targeted children demonstrated their knowledge of both traditional and additional skills in reading. A more recent trend is the use of trade books in instructional programmes that are literature based and include the use of response journals and oral discourse.

Rose (1998) highlights the importance of some learner-oriented activities for the improvement in teaching English. To her, in college entry level most of the students have a fair knowledge of English grammar and general principles, but lack the ability to put them to effective use. They can reproduce mainly by not but are inefficient in production. So the need of the hour at this stage is mastery of language skills as the natural off shoot of language learning”. Thus, the grammatical and functional dimension of language can be integrated to the maximum benefit of the
learner. She continues, "The learner's grammatical knowledge should be viewed as an essential resource for communication which can be activated through appropriate classroom interventions. Such an approach involves learners in comprehending producing and interacting in English. They are forced to manipulate their grammatical knowledge to communicate meaningfully. When communication becomes the focus of classroom activity, other integral components of communication like discourse patterns and psycho social aspects are naturally highlighted. The learners are forced to acknowledge the interplay of these dimensions in language and act accordingly. She says that no one strategy can be singled out as panacea for learning situations nor can it provide optimum learning to all learners.

Benedict (1998) argues that small group teaching strategies can help solving some of the present day classroom problems. To him this strategy ensures active participation of students, face to face contact and purposeful activity. He puts forth two reasons to vindicate himself (1) social and the other educational. It provides a social ecology which promoters' crucial social contact with peers teachers. The development of such social and ethical values is very determinant of the overall educational objectives. He also presents some modes of small Group Teaching Techniques.

Sumitra (1999) in her article "How to Enhance Achievement in English" points out the importance of language and literature, need to minimise teacher domination, new approaches to teaching of poetry, teaching drama through classroom interaction contribution of teachers fluency Vs accuracy and error analysis, a positive approach.
She says language and literature are part and parcel of each other. On the one hand, literature originates from languages. While, on the other, language if refined and moulded becomes a real literature in itself. To her a method that worked enhance students achievement by increasing their communicative skills and inculcating literary tasks and understanding among students must be adopted.

Janakiraman, (1999) in an article in Hindu hails the efficiency of traditional teaching. To him the traditional methods of instruction like folklore, story telling public opinion, taboos, ceremonials were very much binding, and the young ones were made to adopt themselves to the group’s pattern of conduct and this natural powers moulded in ways so as to enable them to take actively in the socio-economic, political and other aspect of group life, while modern educational methods train young only to secure job. The educational institutions gave become centres for “brow beating one into believing that the logical end of whole exercise of schooling is to fare well in the examination.

ii Library facilities

Jayaraman Library is an internal parts of an educational system in the modern age of science and technology. No educational system is complete unless and until it is supplemented by a network of libraries. Library is a powerhouse generating information and knowledge.

Jayaraman, (1999) wrote an article on the importance of libraries of agricultural universities of Tamil Nadu. He gives a brief history of the Tamil Nadu University library. He wrote a research paper on the investment and utilisation of in TNAU library, Coimbatore.
Kaul (1990) in a sample study of library and their utilization found the school libraries generally functioning in a single room accommodation blocking proper stacking of books and display of journals magazines, newspapers and other materials. The other information facilities found lacking included catalogues, cabinets dictionary stands, book racks and working tables in addition to the absence of professionally qualified librarians and poor library allocations.

The objective of the paper was to explain the pattern of investment and intensity of the use of library during 1985-1995 in TNAU Coimbatore. The study was based on primary and secondary data. A selected sample of 95 library users during 1996 using a questionnaire. The secondary data were taken from the Annual Reports of TNAU. The sample was classified in to D.G., O.G., Ph.D. Scholars (Ph.D) staff members, (staff) and others. He gave detail account of the money spent annually and the stock of bodies and pattern of use of the library. D.G. students used books mostly while P.G. and Ph.D. scholars used journals and abstracts for each group there was a definite pattern of use.

Ray, (1992) said that the organisers of the school library need to encourage the habit of reading for entertainment and enjoyment. There are several measures for this

1. Learning to read is more than a matter of learning the mechanical skills of the process. The more that children read for pleasure the more fluent they will become, and the more they will be able to increase their powers of comprehension. 2. Stories and other kind of imaginative literature offer a range of experiences which children can relate to their own experiences or use as a means of testing social and interpersonal situations which may meet in the future. In other words, children can exercise their imagination and judgement in ways which will help them develop into
mature adults. 3. The habit of reading for enjoyment will remain for life as one of the most creative ways of using leisure time.

According to him there are various ways of stimulating interest in story books. One is to read aloud an extract from a book, stopping at a point of particular interest or excitement and telling the class that the book is available in the library for those who wish to find out what happens next. This is a task not only for the librarian but for all teachers who are concerned about book for children.

He states the purpose of the school libraries as to support the teaching and educational work of the school and to develop in young people a habit of reading both for pleasure and for the purpose of gathering information for themselves. He continues to say that book lists, displays and the acquisition of study skills will help pupils to make the best use of the library.

The ICSSR project carried out by Devarajan (1992) assessed the study habits of the secondary school pupils in Kerala. He found that a majority of them (53-52) were interested in reading Malayalam novels showing little interest in other subject areas such as science geography etc. The reading of text books generally available in the school library was done as a preparation for examination. The reading of newspapers was mostly limited only to sensational news. Significant differences were however, found to exist in the choice of types of story books/magazines by students belonging to the different income groups evidently this trend offers vast scope for further research and for improvement.

Radhakrishna,(1998) writers in his article that evaluation of libraries helps in knowing whether the organisation is serving the purpose for which it has been designed. The results of the evaluation normally helps to improve the service.
Evaluation of a library should focus on the impact of reading on the users. The library can be evaluated in terms of whether or not it is able to provide the information sought by the users at the appropriate time needed by them. To him there are three key elements in the evaluation process the user, the information use and the library itself.

Kaul (1998) in his article describes the changing scenario, the obligation of the librarians to the world, towards the century, towards the institutions users and themselves for playing positive roles as the library professionals place the challenges before them in a wide variety of contexts. The need for is improved training programme to net the challenging needs the quality of the services he should render to the users, resource sharing and the the their contact with the users.

Singh (1998) points out in his article that library and information science LISc as a profession is concerned with the knowledge and skill by which the records of human communication are collected organised and utilised "A librarian is a mediator between people or graphic records that his and previous generations have produced and the goal of the librarian is to maintain the social utility of these records for the benefit of humanity".

Jagga Rao (1999) wrote an article on the Need for standardisation in teams of supply to libraries. To him lack of standardisation in terms of supply to libraries is causing a number of problems both to the libraries as well as to the book trade. This leads to huge wastage of library funds and encouraging and facilitating many a corrupt practice in the procurement of library materials. He pointed out the draw backs in the selection of books by publishers book sellers and put forth some guide lines on library purchase and some remedial steps too.
Lakshmi (1999) in her article says that the primary purpose of any information system is to cope with its clients with increased access to knowledge base in any form, at any time from any distance. The library professionals are essentially concerned with the execution of the same. Today the library professional is entangled between two aspects (a) the lowest level of daily routines like collection, development, resetting stocks, records maintenance etc. and (b) the new dimension of dissemination function which demand incorporating the TT for information retrieval to realise the advantages such as increasing accessibility, decreasing cost, more rapid dissemination, more effective access and new services. She lists down the emerging challenges changing roles of the professionals realities and the attitudinal changes required.

iii Co Curricular activities

Spiegel (1981) Calkins (1986) Graves (1983) Mecks (1986) highlight the significance of peer group response. Although the students do not possess the same level of expertise as their teachers they do have a fine sense of what works and what does not work in a piece of writing. As readers, they can provide useful evaluation responses to authors, particularly at early stages of the writing process, which will realize the teacher of considerable work. But other benefits come from the use of poor response in a class room evaluation system. Students gain valuable experience in writing to audiences students gain valuable experience in writing to audiences other than their teachers and having the benefit of direct feedback from these audiences.

Teachers who have never cultivated or who have lost the habit of reading should discipline themselves to spend 15 to 30 minutes daily reading as a professional responsibility. Then they benefit to the student and to themselves. Then there is a
tendency for them to increase their time period for reading not out of a sense of duty, but, because of enjoyment they receive from their recreational reading Smith (1988).

Durkin, (1989) students of all ages enjoy being read to by their teachers. “Because children enjoy being read to—assuming appropriate material is selected and presented effectively—teachers at all grade levels should allow time for reading to students on a regular basis”.

Irwin and Baker (1989) cite a reading programme which can be used as a co-curricular activity to develop language skills. All types of reading materials: travel folders, train schedules, recipe books, newspapers, magazines, appliance booklets, T.V. guides, store catalogue e.t.c. are taken and each has stapled to it a paper with a question, space for an answer, and room for other questions Brainstorm the students with question that might lead to these sources. They will read to find the answer to a question. Write the answer down and Other Programmes suggested by Irwin and Baker (1989) which can very conveniently be used with modifications as co-curricular activities are described below:

1. A Balanced Diet

Tell the students that they are going to find out how balanced their reading diet is they will find out how much the books they have read reflect or extend the reality of their own lives. Discuss with them what they will look for in checking the content of their books.
2. Super Spending

Lead a discussion about what students do with their spending money. Let them write an evaluation of the worth of what they spent and set aside a time for students to read their review in class.

3. Oral Book Reports

Create a comprehensive book list with the librarian, labeling each book easy, average or difficult. Let the students read according to their taste and ability and set aside time each week to listen to oral reports while other pupils may listen or do assigned work. Questions may be asked. Students will recommend books to each other.

4. Circle of Books

Five by seven cards with a hole in one corner and a two-inch loose-leaf ring. At the beginning give each of the children an index with a ring. 'This is their circle of Books' title card on which they enter their name. Each week the student will get a card in which they write something about a book they have read during independent reading with the title of the book.

5. Connective cloze

Cut out the connectives from an old basal story. Have the students supply the connectives. Students compare results with the original story. The students can have crazy connections.

6. Cause and Effect Magic Squares

Example, in a magic square the sum of the numbers is the same in rows or columns.
7. **Connective Rummy**

3 x 5 cards each with a connective written on it slips of paper with clauses written on them. Provide each student with ten clauses, randomly selected and five cards with connectives. When a signal is given students turns over their clauses and connectives and create sensible sentences.

8. **Signal Search**

Explain to students that there are certain words that are signals to join two sentence or part of a sentence. While reading aloud let students identify them.

9. **Comic Strip Connections**

Give students strips of comics with the frames numbered. Have students supply or say what happened between selected frames. Discuss answers in class.

10. **Condense list**

Prepare paragraph containing lists for students to condense.

11. **Go Fish a Category**

Deck of cards, each containing a category such as colours, names, dogs, cats, fish, fruit, vegetables and numbers. Fairly detail cards four or five for each category for example, red, green, yellow, white, blue for colours.

12. **Five Up**

Give students or have them make a chart containing categories Countries, Continents, Capitals, Rivers, Mountains. Each student is given a turn to run on the
category and given five minutes to fill on the columns in their chart. Scores are given.
Class may be divided into teams.

13. Main Idea Wheel

Find explicit topic sentences then explain what, why how and when of the new skill.

For young children are aware of a typical story pattern facilitates comprehension. Ask them to tell a story, or finish a story or during a story ask them to predict what is coming next listen for an awareness of story structure.

14. Story Recipe

Demonstrate how to fill in a story recipe, brainstorming the words, needed for an unwritten story and then beginning the story. It can be a ‘Prediction Tack Choosing Your Own Ending’ of Fill in the Middle. Scrambled parts of a story can be given to make it a full story makes, i.e. choices for each stage of a story can be given to develop a full story.

15. Directed Reading, Thinking Activity

Divide materials to be read into segments appropriate for students reading level: Tell them the purpose of the strategy to help them to comprehend when reading by previewing predicting and using their prior knowledge. Similarly Directed - Inquiry Activity also can be done. Using Comic- strip Prediction, Open -Ended Story with a start and so on.

Hayes, LB (1991) conferencing can be a good co-curricular activity even for elementary grade level. A good case can be made for imitating a conversation with each student about a piece that has been produced. These conferences or consultations
can provide formative evaluation during communication process, often when students need it most.

Nixon John et al (1994) Created a writing centre for private student peer tutorials without a teacher. Students borrowed some tutoring methods from the teacher and devised some rules and strategies of their own that led to a more socially constructive environment in which they were more enthusiastic about their writing.

Dugdale, (1995) The measures suggested by him to improve communicative competence such as mimicking, presentations, debates, negotiation and listening can well be used as co-curricular activities in and outside the classroom in the Indian context.

Dugdale's mimicking can well be used as a co-curricular activity to improve spoken skill. Mimicking helps to improve understanding, pronunciation, talking speed, clarity, concentration, timing, self-confidence, grammar, recall (memory).

Conclusion

The review related literature enabled the investigator to have an extensive information on the various aspects of the factors affecting skill development in English language. It capacitated the investigator to frame the hypotheses for the study and to develop the tools for the present investigation. Co-curricular activities in English are very scarce. But the investigator attempted to give a good coverage of the studies related to all the variables selected for the study.