UNITEXT FOR FRESHMEN:
COMMUNICATIVE ENGLISH SKILL-II





RHIANNON THOMSON

Artz Books

Unitext For Freshmen: Communicative English Skill-II



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Preface

The book "Communicative English" is an approach to language teaching in which a student learns from real life interaction, which can help to reinforce the value of their studies. The book explores exactly what Communicative English is, some techniques on how to improve the English communication skills, as well as exploring the communicative approach, a tried and tested method for improving your English skills as effectively as possible.

Communicative Englishis a product of our long experience and knowledge gained through classroom teaching of communication skills in English and research carried out at the university and college levels. The material in the book has been well tested on learners and professionals and modified after feedback from them. It is designed to give our readers an edge in their careers. As the title of the book Communicative English indicates, the book is a comprehensive study of oral and written skills in English. The focus has shifted from teaching rote memorization, grammar and direct translation to the development of the four skills: reading, writing, listening, and speaking. There is an increasing emphasis being placed on using 'Communicative English' in the classroom, with a need for making lessons more interactive and exciting for both students and teachers.

Team teaching plays a vital role in teaching communicative English. Moreover, the rapid rate of progress, the advancement in science and technology and the increasing globalisation today, have intensified the need for inter-group communication.

We believe that this book will not only meet the needs of the target group, but also be found equally useful by all those working towards improving their language and communication skills.

Rhiannon Thomson

Introduction

1

Communicating in English! Communicative English is an approach to language teaching in which a student learns from real life interaction, which can help to reinforce the value of their studies. This chapter explores exactly what Communicative English is, some techniques on how to improve your English Communication Skills, as well as exploring the Communicative Approach, a tried and tested method for improving your English skills as effectively as possible. Knowing how to speak fluently, one on one, with another English speaker is vitally important for various reasons! But, you need to have the necessary communication skills in order to reach this level. When it comes to communicative English, there are many different techniques that can help to give you the edge over other learners and native speakers in your conversations; ensuring a great first impression every time! Now that you have an idea of what Communicative English is, its time to explore the Communicative Approach and how to improve your English Communication Skills:

COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH

The Communicative Approach is an idea that to learn English successfully, you have to communicate in the language, in meaningful situations, in order to see the value of your work. The communicative approach is a tried and test method for helping a student to acquire valuable communicative English skills, which they see true value in. When a student is involved with real life communication, which is also meaningful to them, they see value in their work. This can help a student to develop a natural approach to language learning and vocabulary acquisition moving forward, outside of the classroom.The communicative approach is not just limited to real life verbal communication. It is an approach to language learning in general. For example, a class utilizing the communicative approach could also include the study of "authentic texts" – texts written in the target language for a purpose other than your language studies. By adopting the communicative approach in your English studies, you will be able to improve on your fluency, enabling you to be more confident when interacting in English. The Communicative Approach is not new, it is said to have originated in Britain in the 1960s. So, with more than 50 years of usage as a tried and tested approach to language learning, the Communicative Approach is a proven success.

COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

Communicative Language Teaching adopts the communicative approach in order to educate a student with real meaning. Communicative Language Teaching allows learners to get involved with real communication, which will benefit their natural approach to learning a language. Communicative Language teaching has a very important role. This approach to language learning enables a student to use their new-found skills in a meaningful way, showing value from what they are learning.

When teaching communicative English, teachers can get rather creative with their approach. This is an excellent way of learning as it makes for more exciting classes, a nice change from the typical classroom and textbooks. For example, a teacher might give you an activity where the class has to come up with a role play scenario between two people. This is great because not only does it help to improve your English with creativity, but also puts pressure on you to have a real time conversation with each other in English.

The quality of Communicative Language Teaching is all dependent on the teacher. A teacher will need to make their material as motivating and as creative as they can, so that learners find their tasks meaningful, and see the value. Another way in which a teacher might try to use the communicative approach within their classes is via cultural understanding. Having the right knowledge of a culture for the countries where your target language is being used is key to communicative language teaching. Make sure that you cover different, important cultural factors that are essential to communicating in English speaking countries. For example, in England, many people are taught to be polite and courteous, and even sometimes apologize when they are in the right, in certain situations. Knowing details like this will make it much easier to communicate with a native English speaker, or another learner also studying the language.

LEARN COMMUNICATIVE ENGLISH

To learn how to communicate in English effectively, you have to remember it's not all about what you learn in the classroom or from your textbook. You need to know how to converse, communicate, and think fast. Learning how to communicate in English will require a lot of practice with people who speak the language. When practicing your Communicative English Skills with others, you should always look to improve on the way you speak, the accent and the sentence structures you use, as well as anything you can pick up from the person you are speaking with – what's their body language like? Do they use any slang words or phrases? What tone are they using to pose questions with? You can learn so much from others, and that's what the Communicative Approach is all about really, learning from others in a meaningful and valuable way.

Many people think that you must go and visit an English-speaking country in order to perfect your communicative English. But, this really isn't true. While it is true that speaking with a native English speaker can dramatically improve your communicative

English, there are other ways you can practice. Maybe try finding someone online from an English-speaking country to voice or video call, or, its more than likely that there is a local group of English Speakers in your town or city. Conversing with English speakers online or from your own town or city can be a great alternative to traveling abroad, and can be just as beneficial to your English communication skills.

IMPROVE YOUR COMMUNICATION SKILLS

There are hundreds of fantastic techniques out there that can help you to improve your English communication skills. Communicative English requires practice, and trying to perfect your communication skills is no easy task. Below we have listed some of our top tips for when it comes to adopting the communicative approach in your studies, and helping you to improve your English communication skills: Think Before You Speak – A great first tip for improving your English Communications Skills would be to think about what you're going to say before you speak. By thinking about what you are going to say in advance, you reduce the chances of having to awkwardly wait while you develop an answer to a question or think about how to push a conversation forward. Part of the Communicative Approach is to think about what you might have to say in advance, so that you're prepared for whatever direction your conversation takes.

Practice With Others – This is probably one of the most vital elements when it comes to perfecting your English Communication Skills and adopting the Communicative Approach within your studies. It is essential for you to practice with others, whether that be other learners or native speakers. By practicing with others, not only will you be getting real life English Communication experience, but you will also be developing your natural abilities for learning a language moving forward. Even the most proficient native speakers are naturally learning from their interactions.

Don't Just Learn Words, Learn Your Sentences Too – It's important to not only learn your vocabulary, as although this is useful, it's not going to benefit you when your conversation consists of more than a single word. Learn your sentences too! By learning your sentences and practicing these, you will be well prepared for a lot of English Communication scenarios. For example, if you know you are going to be meeting new people, then practice your sentences explaining who you are, where you come from, and what you like.

Of course, you can't always predict the direction of your conversations in advanced, but by learning your sentences and practicing these, you should be ready for a whole range of different topics.

Focus On Fluency – Another tip for when it comes to developing your Communicative English skills would be to practice your fluency. Try to speak as if you were a native! You may not get it right at the beginning, but hopefully the more and more you practice your fluency, the better your English Communications should become.

By practicing your fluency you are on the first track to faultless English communication skills.

Don't Rush When You Speak – You may be a lighting fast speaker when it comes to your mother tongue. But expecting to communicate as fast with a foreign language is not realistic. Slow down and think. More importantly, don't rush a sentence, because the last thing you want is a poorly formed sentence. If you spend less time rushing your sentences, it should give you more breathing space to think about what you're going to say. By taking your time to speak you will be ensuring that what you are saying is correct and makes sense.

Don't Run Out Of Follow Up Questions – Make sure you don't run out of follow up questions or you'll be left awkwardly thinking about what to say next. Learn different types of open questions that can lead to further discussions, some examples could be "What are your views on that topic" or "Can you tell me more about that it seems interesting". For an effective communicative English approach, you need to listen to what the person you are speaking to is saying, and form an open question to help further the conversation. By following our above tips, you will be able to further improve your English communication skills, ensuring effortless communication in no time at all.

Essential Tips

1. Keep talking

The problem: You may have trouble speaking fluently if you're unsure of your grammar or vocabulary. However, stopping a lot when you talk can make it difficult for people to focus on what you're saying.

The solution: Know your filler phrases!

Filler phrases are phrases (and words) that act like placeholders in a sentence. They fill in silences so that your speech is not interrupted. They don't really add anything to the conversation, though, so they give you a little time to think of what to say.

Some examples of filler phrases are:

Um, uh

You know…

To be honest…

Actually…

You can find a longer list of filler words and phrases here.

As with any good thing, don't overuse them! Too many filler phrases are just as bad as too many pauses. To find a good balance, try not to use more than one filler phrase for every couple of sentences you speak. You will find that this gets easier as you work on it.

Try it yourself: Find a topic you can comfortably talk about for a few minutes (you can use one of the conversation starters here). Record yourself speaking about the topic in English for a few minutes. When you're done, listen to your recording.

How often do you stop? How often do you use filler phrases? Try recording yourself again speaking about the same topic, but this time watch out for using too many pauses or filler phrases.

2. Find a good speaking rhythm

The problem: If you try to speak too fast, your words don't come out right. But if you try to slow down, you have trouble focusing.

The solution: You need to work on your speaking rhythm, or the speed and "sound" of your speaking.

Finding your perfect speaking rhythm will really help to improve your fluency. A good speaking pace is comfortable for you and the listener, keeps you focused, and gives you enough time to think through what you want to say. Try it yourself: To find the perfect rhythm, you might have to experiment a little. Find a short paragraph, or even just a sentence to say. (You can try using some of these silly one liner jokes. Bonus points for understanding the humor!) Say the sentence slowly, then again faster, and again. Once you reach a speech that doesn't feel comfortable (is too fast), slow back down. Repeat this with a few sentences, and soon you'll find that perfect speed. Once you find the right speed, you can work on the rhythm, which is the stress and intonation (how high or low a sound is) of your voice when you speak. To do this, choose a video that has subtitles.

3. Make sure you're understood

The problem: Because of the language barrier, you're never sure if people really understood what you meant. The solution: Just ask them. Most of the time, you can make sure someone understood what you said by asking them to repeat what you said. If you're worried about sounding rude, you can remind them that you are still learning English, and you want to make sure you expressed yourself correctly. Try it yourself: Practice with a speaking partner, or just try this in any English conversation: The next time you give any instructions, directions or information, follow it up with one of these phrases:

I want to make sure you got that. Would you mind repeating it?

I'm not sure if I said that right. Can you please repeat it?

Can you please run that by me, so I know you got it?

I'd like to be sure I'm expressing myself clearly. Could you please tell me what I've just said, so I know we're on the same page? By having the listener repeat what you said, you can make sure you were understood, or clarify anything they didn't get (understand).

4. Repeat what you're told

The problem: Sometimes you're not sure if you understand what others mean, and you don't know how to check. The solution: Don't be afraid to ask people to repeat themselves. Most people will agree that it's better to repeat themselves than to have misunderstandings. An even more effective way of making sure you understood right is to repeat what you heard. Whenever you're getting information and you're not sure

you understand it, just say it back to the speaker in your own words. This will give them a chance to correct whatever you did not understand, or confirm that you heard right. Try it yourself: You can practice this with a speaking partner as well, or in an actual English conversation: Repeat new information back to the speaker.

You can use these phrases before the information:

I want to make sure I got that right, ...

So let me get this straight, ...

You mean...

If I'm understanding you correctly, ...

You can also try this with anything you read or watch. After you read or watch something, take a moment to explain in English what you just learned. This will help you work on your summary and understanding skills.

5. Ask clarifying questions

The problem: You just don't understand what you're being told.

The solution: Sometimes you don't understand enough information to be able to repeat it. Other times you feel like you only understand something partially. In these cases, you can ask questions that will clarify (or clear up) any misunderstandings or any information you're missing. Try it yourself: The types of questions you ask will vary based on the conversation you are having. You can still practice asking good questions with a partner by playing games like "20 Questions."

To play, your partner thinks of a person, place or thing. You have to figure out what they're thinking of by asking yes or no questions, like "Is it a living thing?" or "Does it like taking naps in sunny spots?" (If the answer to both is "yes," maybe it's a cat!) You can also practice this when you read anything on the Internet. As you read, ask yourself questions about anything that you don't understand or any information that is missing. If you read this article, for example, you might be wondering "How much is the discount?" or "How much does Starbucks throw out instead of recycle?" Asking these questions will help your communication skills, reading comprehension skills and general understanding of the world around you.

6. Watch your body language

The problem: You are saying one thing, but your body is saying something different.

The solution: You might not know this, but your body speaks almost as loudly as you. The way you sit, the way you hold your hands, even which direction you look at—all these things can change the meaning of the words you speak. For example, if you tell someone you would love to have lunch with them, but your arms are crossed and you're not smiling, they might think that you don't actually want to do it. If you're nervous about speaking English incorrectly, you might show negative body language. And you might be misunderstood because of that. So the most important thing is to relax! For native speakers, most body language is intuitive. That means you do it without thinking about or having to learn it. Not all of it, however, is universal. That is, not all body language and gestures mean the same thing in different cultures. (So you might have to do some learning here!)

There are some things to keep in mind when you're speaking English:

Avoid some hand gestures. Showing just the middle finger with the rest of the fingers folded down is considered an offensive gesture. In the UK, making a V sign with your index and middle finger is also considered rude (in America, it's just a sign that means "peace," which isn't rude at all). Do use your hands to speak, though. You can use your hands to show that you're excited or interested. Slamming a fist into an open hand shows determination. Slamming an open palm or a fist into a table can show anger. Keeping your hands closed and folded on your chest, however, makes you seem cold and uninterested.

Fingers can speak too. You can count on your fingers. Start with your fingers closed into a fist and count from the index finger if you're in America, and start from your thumb if you're in most other English speaking countries. You can also make an "okay" sign by keeping your last three fingers open, and making an "O" with your index finger and thumb. There many other finger gestures you can learn—watch some native speakers!

Crossed legs can mean different things. If you cross your legs towards the person you're speaking to, this shows you're listening to them. If you cross your legs away, it can show you're not interested or are distracted. This kind of body language is not something people learn, but they might notice that something feels wrong, or that you seem disinterested.

Aside from these tips, body language varies depending on where you are. Watch others to understand how their bodies speak along with their words. The next movie or TV show you watch, pay attention to body language. Notice the situation and mood of the speaker when they make certain gestures. Try it yourself: Sit in front of a mirror and speak for a bit. Pretend you're having a conversation with your reflection. (You can use the conversation starters from tip number one.) What are your hands doing? What about your legs? What does your posture say? Move around and try different things, and see how they change the meaning of the words you're speaking. Find a comfortable way of speaking and try to relax. When you're speaking to an actual person in English, you can recall this exercise and remember what your body feels like when you're relaxed.

It's a good idea to repeat this exercise while standing as well.

7. Use appropriate language

The problem: You know "regular" English, so you're not sure how to communicate to someone who speaks professional English or uses slang. The solution: Sometimes it's appropriate to switch to a more casual or a more formal manner of speaking. Depending on your English learning goal, you might already be learning professional or conversational English. Listen to how your conversation partner is speaking, take notice of your situation and environment, and try to match the type of English. If you're only learning regular English, don't worry: Most of the time standard English works perfectly well as a communication tool, no matter who you're speaking to. Try it yourself: If you're interested in professional or conversational English, a good place to start is by reading a bit about them online.

8. Practice empathy

The problem: You understand the words someone is saying, but you don't understand why they said it, or maybe you even disagree with it. The solution: Imagine that you hate the cold. You mention this in conversation to someone, and they exclaim that they love cold weather. You know that you heard the words right, but it just doesn't make sense to you. What you need here is empathy. Empathy is the ability to understand what someone else feels, and it's an important part of communication in any language. Showing empathy is important for listening well. You can't just listen to a person's words, you need to understand what they're saying, and try to understand what they mean. You might not always agree with someone, or they might not always tell you exactly what they mean, but you can try to understand their point of view. To practice empathy, ask yourself what your speaking partner feels and thinks, look at their body language, and try to understand what their words mean to them.

Try it yourself: Role play can help you learn how someone else might feel. You can do this alone or with a partner (or a group). To do the exercise, create a list of characters and a list of questions like this one. You can use a character creation tool like this one, or make one up on your own. Give the characters personality traits that you don't have. (For example, if you're shy, make a character confident and outgoing.) Now choose a character and answer a few questions from your list, from their point of view. Pretend you are the character and answer as you think the character would answer. This exercise will help you see the world through other people's eyes.

TEACHING ENGLISH

As education has an important role in development in India, a number of Commissions and Committees set up by the Government have given their recommendations and suggestions on teaching of English. The Official Language Commission under B. G. Kher recommended seven years of English teaching in school (Kher, 1957). The report of the Education Commission (1964-1966) recommended teaching of English after the primary level. The Conference on Teaching of English in primary schools suggested changes in the thinking about the proper age and level for teaching of English in schools (Gokak, 1963). The Kunzru Committee (1959) recommended English as a second language. The Central Advisory Board for Education proposed the three-language formula, which was approved by the Conference of Chief Ministers held in 1961 and was accepted as a part of educational policy – English was to become one of the three languages to be taught at upper primary level- But later most states modified this policy and decided to introduce English at the primary level itself.

Language learning is not just a matter of acquiring the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing but it consists of developing a communicative competence where these skills are often used in an integrated manner along with several other abilities that help in conducting a dialogue. The place of English is not merely an educational issue, but it is also an issue of social change, personal advancement and national development.

English in India has become a symbol of people's aspirations for quality in education and a fuller participation in national and international life. The visible indicator of this presence of English is mushrooming of private English medium schools. The pressure of admission in various states in the schools where English is taught from class I or is a medium of instruction from class I itself, shows that English language has acquired an important and an inclusive place in the Indian psyche. It is now a known fact that the English medium schools have become popular as many parents want their children to study in such schools. Education being on the concurrent list of every state, the level of introduction of English has now become a matter of state policy responding to people's aspirations. This has made many states to accede to the demand of early introduction of English in state schools.

Recent Developments

India has one of the largest primary education networks in the world. Educational facilities have witnessed spectacular growth, with rapid increase in the number of schools and enrolment in these schools. In India, development of primary education has been given greater priority and more funds in recent years as it lays the foundation for individual and national development. The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) launched in 2001 is Government of India's flagship programme for providing free and compulsory education to children of 6–14 years age. SSA seeks to provide quality elementary education including language skills. One of the goals is to "focus on elementary education of satisfactory quality with emphasis on education for life skills to be imparted to children for being successful." Teaching and learning of English is to be given due attention in the programme of improving quality of education.

The National Knowledge Commission (2007) felt that the time has come to teach English as a language in school. Early action in this sphere, would help us build an inclusive society and transform India once again into a 'knowledge society' which it was a few decades ago. This feature of India had disappeared in the last few decades. It has recommended that English teaching should start from class I so that after 12 years of schooling the learners will have access to higher education and equal access to employment opportunities. This commission has also laid emphasis on the significance of language not only as a medium of instruction or a means of communication but also as a determinant of success towards greener pastures. It was stressed that an understanding or the command over the English language is the most important determinant of access to higher education, employment possibilities and social opportunities.

It has been widely acknowledged that many children who complete schooling are not adequately proficient in English as a language and always suffer in the world of higher education because most of the books and journals are available only in English. Such students find it exceedingly difficult to compete for a place in our premier educational institutions. This phenomenon is imminent in the sphere of jobs also where proficiency in English is an essential and desirable qualification.

The Right to Education Act, 2009 marks a historical moment for elementary education in India. It is meant to ensure that every child has the right to guaranteed

quality elementary education. This would also include learning of multiple languages in which English occupies an important place along with the mother tongue. The RTE act has made special provision for disadvantaged groups, such as child labourers, migrant children, children with special needs, or those who are disadvantaged due to social, cultural, economical, geographical, linguistic, gender or other such factors. The target of educating all children at least up to primary level by 2015 was one of the Millennium Development Goals.

Objectives of Teaching English:

(A) The objective of teaching English has two main aspects:

(i) Language aspect: Words, sentences, pronunciation, spelling and grammar.

(ii) Literature aspect: Words, sentences, expressing ideas, feelings and experiences.

(B) The English language teaching has four objectives to develop four skills:

(i) Reading, (ii) Writing, (iii) Speaking and (iv) Listening.

(C) The English teaching also has two objectives:

(I) Skill objectives include:

- To develop the skill of speaking,
- To develop the skill of reading,
- To develop the skill of writing,
- To develop the skill of listening,
- To enable the students for the use of grammar correctly,

To enable the students to analyze the element of language and establish the appropriate relationship among linguistic components.

(II) Cognitive objectives include:

- To acquire knowledge,
- To diagnose the weakness of speaking and writing English,
- To compare and illustrate linguistic components,
- To classify the elements of English language,
- To understand the meaning of prose, poetry, story and drama by reading.

In order to teach English correctly and properly English teacher must know the aims and objectives of teaching English.

Aims and objectives of teaching English at secondary level

- The following are the main objectives of teaching English at secondary level:
- To develop knowledge and understanding of Grammar.
- To develop abilities to make use of the grammar in own writing English.
- To understand the meaning of English passage.
- To develop interest in reading English passages/ literatures.
- To develop self study habit.
- To enhance competencies in writing essays and gist of the passage in own words/ language.
- To develop their insight and favorable attitude towards English language.
- To developing the understanding about rules of grammar and their use in writing English.

Aims and objectives of teaching English at Higher secondary level

- Motivate students for more studying English language.
- To encourage for composing poems and writing essay.
- To develop the ability for grasping the theme of poem or English passage.
- To encourage the students for writing the meaning or theme of poem or passage in their own words.
- To develop the ability of appreciation of ideas and criticizing the thinking.
- To develop the creativity of the students related to verbal ability and reasoning or fluency of language.
- To develop the ability of understanding of other school subjects.
- To develop the mastery of language for expressing his ideas, feelings and experiences.
- To develop the ability of evaluation and analysis of language components.
- To develop the values, moral and character of the students.

VALUE AND IMPORTANCE OF ENGLISH IN INDIA

The study of English language in this age of globalization is essential. English language is the most important language of communication between different countries. In India, people of different states have their own language. India is a country with 22 official languages in different regions; however, English is the language of the Government, public administration, the legislature and law courts. It is the language of commerce and largely of business; it is the medium and the only medium of communication between the educated men and between the various language areas. English Language has come us as a connecting link among various states of India.

With the drawn of independence a controversy began about the place, importance and study of English. People like C. Rajagopalachari favored its retention at this place. However, there were persons who under the influence of nationalism. They argued that English being a foreign language was responsible for a very great waste of student's time and energy. They declared that students could learn and express their ideas more easily in their mother tongue. What the nationalists said had some reason in it. In free India, English could not be allowed to occupy the position of privilege. All the persons acknowledged this. Consequently, it was decided that regional languages should be developed and that Hindi should replace English. Nothing can be said against these things. Independent India must have its own national language.

Whatever arguments may be advanced for doing away the teaching of English, its value and importance for us cannot be underestimated. For this, our reasons are as follows.

- English is the lingua franca of the world.
- English has today become one of the major languages of the world.
- It will be very difficult to neglect English language because of rich literature, scientific and technical nature of the language.

- It is the language through which we can exchange our views with the people of other countries
- It is strongly felt that English is the only language of preventing isolation from the world.
- Its study facilitates the establishment of international contracts between different nations of the world
- English is given access to the treasure of knowledge.
- It provides opportunities to Indians to get employment throughout India.
- It helps to have contact with western science and technology.
- It is a language of trade and industry in India.
- It provides a strong binding force to keep all Indians united.
- It works as a powerful language of communication.
- It occupies an important place in school curriculum.
- Its study gives opportunities to Indians to get employment not only in India but also in other countries
- Its very long association with Indian life has made it a language of many Indians.
- It has given us the opportunity to study English literature, which is so vast and so rich.
- It has opened the gates of western science and technology for us. If these subjects are taught through regional languages we will lag behind in scientific knowledge
- It has exercised a very healthy influence of Indians on Indian languages. It has developed and refined them in many ways.
- It serves as common language of Indians and thus it brings closer the people residing in different parts of India. It is only through the medium of English that a man from the far north can talk to a man from the remote south of India.
- It is a language of trade and industry in India. At the same time, Indian businessperson can correspond with foreign businessperson only through the medium of English.
- It has already United Indians. It can help them further is destroying the boundary of provincialism.
- Almost all our great leaders, famous scientists, renowned philosophers and well-known authors are the product of English education.
- English is one of the most developed languages of the world. As such, it has always been a source of development is all the spheres of human activities.
- We may be able to translate English medial scientific and technological terms into Hindi and regional languages. Nevertheless, if we give up the study of English we cannot keep place with the scientific progress of the western countries.

The National Policy on Education, 1986 and Revised 1992 recommended English as second language in secondary schools.

TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

Second language is the process of learning other languages in addition to the native language. A language learned by a person after his or her native language, especially as a resident of an area where it is in general use is called second language. Some

languages, often called auxiliary languages, are used primarily as second languages or lingua francas such as Esperanto. A person's first language may not be their dominant language, the one they use most or are most comfortable with. For example, the Canadian census defines first language for its purposes as "the first language learned in childhood and still spoken", recognizing that for some, the earliest language may be lost, a process known as language attrition. This can happen when young children move, with or without their family because of immigration or international adoption, to a new language environment.

Comparisons between First and Second Language

It has been discovered that different schools of thought adopt different measures to correct English in the learning of a second language.

First Language Second Language

- Learning process is quick and effortless.
- Knowledge of vast vocabulary
- Natural fluency
- Correction of errors is possible
- Time consuming and long process of learning.
- Limited Vocabulary.
- Only by hard practice, one can have fluency over second language.
- It is possible only by concerning erudite scholar of the second language.

Error Correction—It does not seem to have a direct influence on learning a second language. Instruction may affect the rate of learning, but the stages remain the same. Adolescents and adults who know the rule are faster than those who do not. In the first language, children do not respond to systematic correction. Furthermore, children who have limited input still acquire the first language. Throughout the last century much advancement has been made in research on the correction of students' errors. In the 1950s and 1960s the viewpoint of the day was that all errors must be corrected at all costs. Little thought went to students' feelings or self-esteem in regards to this constant correction. In the 1980s, the strict grammar and corrective approach of the 1950s became outdated. Researchers asserted that correction was often unnecessary and that instead of furthering students' learning it was hindering them. The main concern at this time was relieving student stress and creating a warm environment for them.

The 1990s brought back the familiar idea that explicit grammar instruction and error correction was indeed useful for the SLA process. At this time, more research started to be undertaken to determine exactly which kinds of corrections are the most useful for students. In 1998, Lyster concluded that "recasts" when the teacher repeats a student's incorrect utterance with the correct version are not always the most useful because students do not notice the correction. His studies in 2002 showed that students learn better when teachers help the student recognize and correct his own error.

Depth of knowledge—Learners in the first or second language have knowledge that goes beyond the input they received—the whole is greater than the parts. Learners of a language are able to construct correct utterances like phrases, sentences, and questions that they have never seen or heard before. Success—Success in language

learning can be measured in two ways: likelihood and quality. First language learners will be successful in both measurements. It is inevitable that all first language learners will learn a first language and with few exceptions, they will be fully successful. For second language learners, success is not guaranteed. For one, learners may become fossilized or stuck as it were with ungrammatical items. Fossilization occurs when language errors become a permanent feature.

Learning a Second Language

In today's globalised world, when the world is shrinking, learning second language is the need of the hour. Learning a second language is challenging because we learn a second language differently than we learn our first. As babies we absorb language naturally and intuit the rules that languages follow. The window on this learning process closes with childhood, and after this period we must learn a new language differently, and it often requires a much more sustained effort. However, learning a second language does not need to be overly complex or too difficult provided that the student has the right tools. These tools include a scientifically approved curriculum and dedicated teachers who work hard to help their students to succeed.

Different people have different mindsets and they have different learning capability. Some are successful learning from books and tapes, but most require sustained interaction with human teachers in order to succeed. Total language immersion, typically by living in a country where one's new language is the dominant tongue, is often the best way to learn the language because it becomes essential to understand the tongue in order to get along in everyday life. In order to select the method that's best for you, you should think about your pros and cons and consider the ways you learn best. When you have an understanding of how you learn, you can move forward with selecting the program that is most appropriate for your needs.

Second Language Acquisition

With the help of signs and symbols, language is used for expressing ideas and emotions. These signs and symbols are used to encode and decode the information. There are many languages spoken in the world. The first language learned by a baby is his or her mother tongue. It is the language, which he or she listens to from his or her birth. There is special effort in learning second language. Any other language learned or acquired is known as the second language.

Definition of Second Language Acquisition—It is learning and acquisition of a second language once the mother tongue or first language acquisition is established. The child learns faster the second language as his/her grasping power is strong. Second language acquisition or SLA is the process of learning other languages in addition to the native language. For instance, a child who speaks Hindi as the mother tongue starts learning English when he starts going to school. English is learned by the process of second language acquisition. In fact, a young child can learn a second language faster than an adult can learn the same language.

Second Language Acquisition and Learning

"Language learning" and "language "acquisition" are two different things. The former refers to the formal learning of a language in the classroom. On the other hand, language acquisition means acquiring the language with little or no formal training or learning. If you go to a foreign land where people speak a different language from your native language, you need to acquire that foreign language. It can be done with little formal learning of the language through your every day interaction with the native peoples in the marketplace, workplace, parks or anywhere else. This is true for learning spoken language.

Ways to introduce the second language

A second language can be acquired at any time after a child has developed language skills. A second language is often called the target language while the native language is known as "L1."

The second language can be introduced in following ways:

(i) Introduced by speakers of the second language.

(ii) Introduced as a second language that is part of the curriculum at school.

Teaching Second Language

There are several things to consideration when teaching a second language. These factors may include the language spoken at home, the willingness of the learner, the reason to learn the second language (i.e., learning at school, for work, to talk to friends or others). Though all the students of second language acquisition go through the same stages of learning, the period of learning varies. Students can learn better by responding to pictures and visuals. Attention to listening comprehension and building a receptive and active vocabulary is essential.

Importance of Learning a Second Language

In this world of liberalisation and globalisation, when there is frequent interactions of the representatives of different countries, the importance of learning a second language is self-evident. Moreover, scientific studies have proved that learning a second language improves the functioning of brain and creativity. Learning a second language helps you to communicate across cultures and to conduct business in lands you may never have previously considered viable markets. It also helps you to address customers in the language that they understand best and in which they are most comfortable communicating. Additionally, the importance of learning a second language is emphasized every day when we see the diversity of earth's cultures and the amazing array of people that make up our global community.

That said, there is another reason supporting the importance of learning a second language. When you know a new language, you start to see connections you didn't see before because every language approaches the world in a slightly different way. As a result, you have the opportunity to understand the world from the perspective of another culture and gain a greater appreciation of human society in all its diversity. As a consequence, the importance of learning a second language is again reinforced.

You become not just equipped to communicate across cultures but empowered to understand others' points of view.

Learning and Teaching English as a Second Language

It is an exciting adventure, and one that becomes all the more stimulating when you travel to an English-speaking land like London to gain real world experience. It is the necessary in today's shrinking and globalized world. To master this language, one needs a long experience of learning this language. English is the language of commerce, the arts, and the internet, and anyone seeking to make statement worldwide needs a strong command of the English language and the ability to work with English as a medium of expression. Because of the benefits of learning English as a second language, today the language is the most frequently studied second language in the world, and mandatory study in many countries. Beyond this, English proficiency opens to the student a world of literature, sciences, and arts otherwise unknown.

If you are looking into learning English as a second language, you should keep in mind that proficiency won't come overnight. Learning a new language is a process, but one that can be both fun and exciting in addition to profitable. If you really want to become fluent in English, the best way to do so is to immerse yourself in your new language by studying abroad in a place, like London, where this new language is the dominant mode of communication. Language immersion helps you to gain skills and practice in real world situations where you will begin using your new language immediately and develop your skills faster.

It is a window onto a new world, bringing into focus a wealth of conversation, information, and understanding that would otherwise be forever closed to the students who seek to learn a new language. It is an important task that ends in a number of powerful rewards. First, there is the feeling of pride that as a teacher you have made a difference in the life of a student. Second is the contribution you have made the international community by minting a new speaker of the English language, one who can now communicate across cultures and worldwide in the lingua franca of the modern age. Teaching English as a second language is a noble calling, empowering students to take their places in the global community and become active participants in the global conversation.

Today's English language learners are a diverse collection of immigrants, business people, students, and artists who share a dedication to the English language and a love of learning. Teaching English as a second language to these students is an honor and a privilege, one that we as educators share with all of those who strive to give student the tools they need to take on new enterprises and reach for their dreams. Teaching English as a second language (TESL) refers to teaching English to students whose first language is not English, usually offered in a region where English is the dominant language and natural English language immersion situations are apt to be plentiful. In contrast, teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) refers to teaching English to students whose first language is not English, usually in a region where English is not the dominant language and natural English language immersion situations are apt to be few. TEFL teaching is considered to be more accessible to teachers with less

experience. These teaching jobs are also more prone to exploitation with few companies helping to fight against systemic abuses.

The English As A Second Language (ESL) program will:

1. Provide instruction to each student in the ESL program in listening, speaking, reading, and writing.
2. Create an appropriate and sequential ESL program for English Language Learners.
3. Assist all ESL students in accessing content area instruction while learning English, so they can remain at grade level and make progress toward grade level competency in content areas.
4. Monitor closely the progress if LEP students who have exited the ESL program to determine of additional alternative language instruction is needed in any content area and to provide scaffolding when necessary. Such monitoring will last a minimum of two years after exiting the ESL program.
5. Familiarize the ESL student with the varied cultures and customs of the United States while promoting their own ethnic pride through cultural diversity and sensitivity.
6. Help the ESL student to learn and understand the social paradigms of school and community and to use the appropriate language and behavior to communicate and interact successfully within those paradigms.
7. Communicate consistently with mainstream teachers, school administrators and counselors, pertinent support staff, and parents to address the learning and emotional needs of ESL students in a holistic manner.

PROBLEMS OF TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

The teaching of English in India has always been difficult circumstances. This is so because of the large population of the country, bleak economic conditions, the cultural and social diversities, insufficient men and material etc. Let us discuss some of these here. English holds a place of status in our country, even after more than six decades since Britishers left India. No indigenous language however has come up to replace English, either as a medium of communication or as an official language in India under the influence of nationalistic feeling and emotional hostility English began to reassert its position. Now a day it is still urgent to discuss, what to teach and how to teach a foreign language taking into account the objective, social and professional needs of future specialists in our country.

Besides businessmen, tradesmen, engineers, scientists and scholars all over the world must know English because it is the international means of exchange of information and experience. The students have to learn foreign language because students of any subject, any discipline must learn a foreign language teaching it is necessary to formulate its actual and realistic aims and tasks.

The way English is taught in our schools and colleges today is to a great extent responsible for the failure. Here is an effort to search the problems in learning English in rural areas and some suggestions to overcome the same.

Problems of Teaching English as a Second Language

- **Psychological Problems: -** It is a widespread misunderstanding amongst students that English the most difficult of all subjects. The result and the failure candidates act as evidence to prove this fact. Hence most of the students look at this subject with a prejudiced vision and bear the fear through the year. The psychological depression results in poor performance at the end of the year.
- **Lack of clear-** Cut policy: One of the main reasons for the poor standard of English is the lack of a clear-cut policy. There have been frequent changes in the policy of the government towards the teaching and learning of English. Though English is taught as a compulsory subject, only the pass mark is taken into consideration. As the percentage of low achievers has been ever increasing, the Government has decided not to consider marks in English as essential for admission into a university course. The educationalists and politicians differ on the role and status of English in India. If we are to aim at good standards in English, it is high time that the Government takes a strong decision to formulate and implement appropriate policies that promote students' learning of English.
- **Learning Methods: -** One of the reasons for the declining standards of teaching English is the inability of teachers to understand the difference between the teaching of literature and the teaching of language skills. Everybody knows that the study of a language is not an end in itself, it is a means to develop one's power of expression and comprehension can be achieved by mastering stylistic elements of the language.
- **Problem of Concretizing the Abstract Idea: -** The teacher faces a serious problem of concretizing the abstractness of the novel, poem, passage, words etc. they face difficulty in creating live pictures. The students find it difficult to understand the abstract idea and so they are unable to comprehend the lectures given by their teachers in English. If a poem on sadness is going on in the class the teacher should teach it so effectively that the students get tears in their eyes. This type of experience is hardly found in classroom teaching at present. In fact the teacher is always in a hurry to complete the portion and feels that it is waste of time to arouse emotions and interact with the students.
- **Non availability of suitable teaching-learning material: Many teaching-**learning materials like – good textbooks, workbooks, handbooks for teachers, TV, radio, charts or other useful visual material- are essential for effective teaching. Unfortunately many teachers and students are not provided with these materials. Hence, sometimes the teaching and learning becomes more imaginative than practical.
- **Translation Method: -** Translation method is widely used in rural areas. It helps the learner to understand the content of the text but bars from learning the language. The main purpose of teaching the language is kept aside and the teaching of content and theme is given importance. Translation method is thus a great problem in learning English.
- **Mother Tongue Interference: -** Most of the problems arise due to the interference of mother tongue in speaking English. Both the teachers and the students are very fluent in talking their own mother-tongue. But they forget the essence of pure language. When they speak in their mother-tongue they sometimes use

English words in the midst of the sentences. They forget that every language differs in stress, intonation and pronunciation.

- **Difference in English: -** English is pronounced in a very different way from almost all other languages of the world. Every region of the world where English is spoken has a different accent. When you are teaching English as second language, you must bear in mind that your students will not know the difference between US English, Queen's English and the entire sundry English's of the world. This could lead to confusions.
- **Lack of Practice: -** Language could be mastered by practicing all the four skills viz. Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing. The rural surrounding does not allow the learner to practice any of these skills. The lack of audio tools also adds in the problem of lack of practice. Many teachers are unable to teach English effectively because they face lot of problems due to the lack of teaching aids. There are very few audio-visual aids available and it is insufficient for the teachers to use it effectively. Some are so costly that the colleges can only afford to buy few.
- **Interest: -** Learning English being compelled has merely become a hurdle in passing. Students only concentrate on passing marks. They do not care for leaning the language as a tool of communication. Teacher and the taught both look at this subject as an unavoidable hurdle and try their level best to cross this hurdle any how.
- **Lack of Motivation: -** in learning a second or a foreign language, motivation is the crucial force which determines whether the learner embarks on a task at all, how much energy he devotes to it and how long he perseveres. It is known as a complex phenomenon and includes many components, such as, the individual's drive, need for achievement and success, curiosity, desire for stimulation and new experience, and so on.
- **Malpractices in Exam: -** One of the factors responsible for the deterioration is the pattern of question setting. It is easy to predict what questions would be asked on what books in which examinations. The students simply have to memorize. The teacher also teaches only those aspects which are important for the examinations. In most of rural areas we see that malpractice at the time of exam is a common practice. It is on its peak at the exam of English. Students, Teachers, non-teaching staff, parents, relatives, principal, officer in charge of exam, co-officer in charge of exam and many others are involved in this custom of malpractice. They all intensify the problem of learning English in rural areas.
- **Mistakes in English:-** Most of the mistakes are made unknowingly i.e. when making a mistake becomes habitual; we keep making the same mistake even without realizing it. If we study this problem in a scientific manner by trying to know what is the actual cause behind making the mistake we would be able to avoid it.
- **Lack of good teachers of English:** Good teachers of English are found in very small number in India. Hence, not having a good teacher of English is a common experience of all the students of English. The teachers of English are either not trained properly or they are the teachers of other subjects. Even if they are trained, they are trained by the teachers of English in India but not

by the native speakers. Even the materials and methodology used in these training programmes are outdated. As such, it is the same limited experience that is shared. There is hardly any scope to improve intuitive and spontaneous knowledge of the language. Though there are institutes like CIEFL, RIEs and, ELTCs to train teachers of English, they are hardly enough for the large demands of the Indian teacher population.

- **Crowded Classes:-** The size of the classes everywhere is considerably large and thus student's participation in the class work is quite impossible. The ratio of students in relation to teachers is not proportional. This is one of the reasons why individual attention is not possible to the students. For individual attention, there is a provision of Tutorial classes but the number of students in Tutorials is also very large, because most of the college can afford neither so many rooms for this purpose nor so many teachers to conduct effective teaching of English. It should also be recognized that the practical work in the teaching of English demands that the number of students in the class be limited.
- **Lack of exposure to the language:** Most of the Indian students are exposed to their mother tongues. They do not get adequate opportunities either to listen to or speak in English. They listen to English only in the 'English' class. The teaching of the other subjects is mostly in their regional languages as the medium of instruction is in their vernacular languages. It is only in the cities and urban areas that we find English medium schools. Because of the poor social and economic backgrounds, they neither get enough exposure to English outside the classroom nor enough opportunities to improve themselves in speaking it. This naturally reduces their use of English and results in a poor competence in the language.

Possible Solutions of Teaching English as a Second Language

- **Building a Rapport with Your Class: -** When you enter the class for the first time it is very important that you give a welcoming smile to your students and greet them. Your assuring smile and greeting them in a familiar manner helps them bond with you instantly. When they bond with you, they will find learning the language easier. Remember a smile always welcomes people to interact with you.
- **Place of English Should be Defined: -** English offers vast opportunities to all. The policy regarding the place of English in our education system should be well defined. This should be determined keeping in view its use and vast opportunities in the field of science, technology, social sciences, philosophy, area studies, journalism, international trade and diplomacy.
- **Applying Different Methods of Teaching: -** The teacher while teaching English should use the different methods of teaching English to the students. The teacher can also make use of the language lab. Some of the methods of teaching English are as follows:

  Grammar-Translation Method

  Direct Method

  Bilingual Method

The Structural Method

The Communicative Method

Situational Method

Use of appropriate method for teaching various topics accordingly helps to enhance the effect of teaching language.

- **Building Confidence Among Students: -** At the first meeting itself train your students to ask some simple English questions and give their answers, examples are 'What is your name?', 'Which country are you from?', 'Who is your best friend?' etc. Many teachers of English as a second language make the mistake of beginning with the alphabet. This is wrong. When you train them to ask questions on the first day itself, your students will definitely show off these questions to their folks. And their interest in the language will be built. They will come with higher hopes of learning more things the next day. The teacher should emphasize more on the language learning skills than the portion completion at the undergraduate level.
- **Keeping in Mind Aims of Teaching English: -** The teacher should always emphasize on the aims of teaching English. It will help to teach effectively. These aims are:

1. To enable the students to understand English when spoken.
2. To enable the students to speak in English.
3. To enable the students to read English.
4. To enable the students to write in English.

These are the primary aims of teaching English instead of enabling the student to pass in the upper class.

- **Improvement in Teaching Facilities: -** Special efforts should be made to ensure that teachers get proper teaching facilities, including space, books and teaching aids. The school and the college libraries should subscribe good journals which may enable them to know the latest developments in the field of linguistics and English language teaching.
- **Make Students Think in English: -** Make it a very firm rule but subtly implied that there will be no other language spoken in your class other than English. Exhort them to think in English. This a mammoth task, and can be achieved only after some weeks or probably months of teaching.
- **End the Socio-Psychological Problems: -** Many think English as the most difficult language and many call it unnecessary to learn it. The efforts of the teacher should be in eradicating the Socio- Psychological problems of the students, by motivating them and giving them some responsibility.
- **Building Communication Skills: -** Never teach your students always speak with them. Converse with the students about day-to-day things. Keep talking with them in simple English. They will talk when the initial icebreakers are done with. And when they will talk, they will learn. Encourage your students to talk. As long as the students attempts to talk in English make it a point to listen.

- **Handling Mistakes with Care: -** Mistakes will happen in the class and you have to learn how to handle them deftly. If you laugh at the students they will be too embarrassed to make any further attempts at speaking the language. If you do not laugh students will feel you are only being too kind to them and might always think they have said something wrong but you are hiding your amusement.
- **Matching Level with Your Students: -** Being a teacher you know the language and might have got accolades for it but your student cannot even frame three sentences in English properly. Only your perseverance will help them do it. Remember that your students are not native English speakers they will not be able to even ask you their doubts. Be patient with them and encourage them to express themselves.

STUDY SKILLS

Study skills are the skills you need to enable you to study and learn efficiently – they are an important set of transferable life skills. Our pages provide generic study skills advice – appropriate to learners across all disciplines and in different life circumstances: full and part-time students, those returning to education later in life, those engaged in professional development and anybody who wants to learn how to learn effectively.

Listening and speaking are synonymous to each other. Together, they lays the foundation of good reading and writing skills. You will learn only when you pay full attention to the ear. Good reader makes you a good speaker. When one group has a good command over listenity and speaking skills they should be introducd to the reading and writing skills as listening and speaking lays the foundation of good reading and writing skills. If your spoken English is good naturally you willn't find any problem in reading. A good speaker is always a good reader.

Great review propensities can mean the contrast amongst disappointment and achievement. Once you're mindful of any terrible review propensities that are keeping you down, you can transform them.

Ponder propensities are the ways that you consider - the propensities that you have framed amid your school years. Think about propensities can be great ones, or terrible ones. Great review propensities incorporate being composed, keeping great notes, perusing your course book, tuning in class, and working each day. Awful review propensities incorporate skipping class, not doing your work, sitting in front of the TV or playing computer games as opposed to examining, and losing your work.

It implies you are not occupied by anything, you have a specific place to go where it is tranquil ordinary where you contemplate and do homework. Essentially it implies that you are doing as well as can be expected to get the evaluations you need. It implies you are not diverted by anything; you have a specific place to go where it is tranquil regular where you think about and do homework. The way with which you reliably use to consider for school or school or notwithstanding for following day lesson arranges in case you're an educator.

Examine Habit of each understudy is a standout amongst the most critical elements that influence his or her understanding with respect to a specific subject. That is to say, if an understudy has poor review propensities, she has a more prominent shot of getting coming up short evaluations, if contrast with an understudies who has a decent review propensity. However, "propensity" as it was characterized from the Introduction to Psychology, signifies "a scholarly, or settled method for carrying on to fulfil a given intention". By this definition alone, we can state that the individual includes is the one making or framing his own propensity. The meaning of study propensities is the constant practices one uses to enable them to think about and learn. Great review propensities can enable understudies to accomplish and additionally keep up decent evaluations. Numerous understudies build up the act of keeping and filing every single evaluated task. Not exclusively can these assignments be utilized as a part of an indistinguishable design from study notes, yet they can likewise be dissected by and large to help with deciding regions of quality and shortcoming. Moreover, soliciting a ton from inquiries is regularly viewed as a decent review propensity. Great understudies generally request illumination, request additional credit and request after-school or lunchtime help.

A review found that however "packing" for an exam may help at the time, the learning isn't really picked up. As the ideas propel, the individuals who crash concentrate at no time in the future have the learning - prompting falling behind, disappointment, and conceivable disappointment of the class. In spite of the fact that it appears like a school right of entry, the "packing" variant of considering, over the long haul, is accomplishing more mischief than great. Growing great review propensities is a shockingly straightforward process. In view of the possibility of schedules, you'll see you can condition yourself to centre and really retain and take in the data.

Key points about study skills:

- You will develop your own personal approach to study and learning in a way that meets your own individual needs. As you develop your study skills you will discover what works for you, and what doesn't.
- Study skills are not subject specific - they are generic and can be used when studying any area. You will, of course, need to understand the concepts, theories and ideas surrounding your specific subject area. To get the most out of your studies, however, you'll want to develop your study skills.
- You need to practise and develop your study skills. This will increase your awareness of how you study and you'll become more confident. Once mastered, study skills will be beneficial throughout your life.
- Study skills are not just for students. Study skills are transferable - you will take them with you beyond your education into new contexts. For example, organisational skills, time management, prioritising, learning how to analyse, problem solving, and the self-discipline that is required to remain motivated. Study skills relate closely to the type of skills that employers look for. Exercise

Exercise

1. **What are Study Skills ?**
   a. Skills that help you in life after studying
   b. Skills that aid with exams
   c. Both of the above
2. **What is the most important benefit of Study Skills ?**
   a. Only helps with your exams
   b. No benefits whatsoever
   c. Enhances your thought process within and out of school
3. **Study Skills will help you to achieve passes..**
   a. True
   b. False
4. **When you sit down to study for a test, you should begin by:**
   a. collecting all of your materials.
   b. setting specific study goals.
   c. tuning out distractions - like TV, music, games, phone, and social media.
   d. all of the above.
5. **When is the best time of day to study?**
   a. First thing in the morning
   b. Between classes
   c. After everyone else has gone to bed
   d. When you are most alert and least distracted
6. **What should the leader of a study group be in charge of?**
   e. Contacting everyone to announce the meeting time and place for the first session
   f. Keeping everyone on task if the group gets off topic
   g. Assigning roles to each person
   h. All of the above
7. **What should you do to be prepared physically for a test?**
   a. Eat well days before the exam
   b. Study extra hours the night before the test
   c. Eat refined sugar (candy, cakes, and cookies) and caffeine
   d. All of the above
8. **What is a good strategy for pacing yourself during a test?**
   a. Work the hardest questions first
   b. Return to questions you are unsure of frequently as you work through the exam

c. All of the above
d. Mark questions that you don't know the answer to or that you find confusing

9. **SADD (Students Against Drunk Driving) is an example of what type of mnemonic device?**
   a. Acrostic sentences
   b. Acronyms
   c. Rhymes
   d. All of the above

10. **What type of learner will probably draw something when she is studying?**
   a. Visual
   b. Aural
   c. Read/Write
   d. Kinesthetic

11. **What type of learner needs to do things to understand?**
   a. Kinesthetic
   b. Read/Write
   c. Aural
   d. Visual

12. **Always show your work and complete as many parts of a multiple-part problem as possible is a test-taking strategy for which type of test?**
   a. Online tests
   b. Open book and take-home tests
   c. Fine arts and literature tests
   d. Math and science tests

13. **How can you maintain a good attitude as you prepare for the exam?**
   a. Monitor and eliminate any negative self-talk about your ability to do well on exams
   b. Visualize your self taking the test successfully and earning a good grade
   c. All of the above
   d. None of the above

ANSWERS

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
11	12	13							
A	C	A	B	D	D	A	D	B	A
A	D	C							

Listening Activity

2

Listening is the ability to accurately receive and interpret messages in the communication process. Listening is key to all effective communication. Without the ability to listen effectively, messages are easily misunderstood. As a result, communication breaks down and the sender of the message can easily become frustrated or irritated.If there is one communication skill you should aim to master, then listening is it. Listening is so important that many top employers provide listening skills training for their employees. This is not surprising when you consider that good listening skills can lead to better customer satisfaction, greater productivity with fewer mistakes, and increased sharing of information that in turn can lead to more creative and innovative work. Many successful leaders and entrepreneurs credit their success to effective listening skills. Richard Branson frequently quotes listening as one of the main factors behind the success of Virgin.

Listening is receiving language through the ears. Listening involves identifying the sounds of speech and processing them into words and sentences. When we listen, we use our ears to receive individual sounds (letters, stress, rhythm and pauses) and we use our brain to convert these into messages that mean something to us. Listening in any language requires focus and attention. It is a skill that some people need to work at harder than others. People who have difficulty concentrating are typically poor listeners. Listening in a second language requires even greater focus. Like babies, we learn this skill by listening to people who already know how to speak the language. This may or may not include native speakers. For practice, you can listen to live or recorded voices. The most important thing is to listen to a variety of voices as often as you can.

To become a fluent speaker in English, you need to develop strong listening skills. Listening not only helps you understand what people are saying to you. It also helps you to speak clearly to other people. It helps you learn how to pronounce words properly, how to use intonation, and where to place stress in words and sentences. This makes your speech easier for other people listening to you to understand!

C.C.Fries has expressed his view rightly and pointed out that— "The speech is the language. The written record is a secondary representation of the language." Language depend only on the ear. When any child hears the sound of his mother and other people, he also starts the function to speak. Similarly, in teaching English as a second language,

the most, important skills to be taken up first are the listening and speaking skills. It is proved fact now that the best approach to teaching English is the aural-oral approach. Once a child becomes habitual in listening to the language with comprehension and in speaking it, he becomes confident in all other skills. A good speaker of the language will automatically be a good reader and a good writer. First of all we shall discuss the techniques to make the child listen to English with comprehension.

LISTENING WITH UNDERSTANDING

The teacher adopted the oral approach for teaching the student. The students are trained to listen to the language spoken by the teacher. At the same time, the students should be encouraged to speak some common pleasantries and simple requests etc. When the teacher is creating situations in the classroom by showing the students different objects, charts, models etc., he should pronounce the words very clearly so that the students should not imitate him wrongly.

Sometimes the teacher should compare the sounds which are similar or near to similar in English and it their mother tongue e.g./t./b/,/k/etc.

Some sound of English are unique and different to the other sound, which are not found in the mother tongue of the students. These sounds should be practised in isolation as well as in combination at the early stage so that the students make it a habit to pronounce them correctly while speaking in English.

The teacher should say some pairs of words to discriminate the sounds and ask the students whether they are similar or different. The example of such pairs are—

Sit - Seat
Fit - Feet
Bit - Beat, etc.

The teacher can trained the students to identify different consonant sounds also adopting the same technique.

Pin
Tin
Thin
Bin
Sin, etc.
Or
Bat
Rat
Cat
Mat, etc.

At a stage student became conscious for the English word, the teacher can train them to listen to the stess in the words and sentences and the intonation etc. to enable them to acquire the corrects speech habits. At elementary stage the teacher should not

use the technical words like intonation, rhythm etc but they can be trained by way of imitating the teacher and acquiring the correct speech habits unconsciously.

For developing the listening skills the teacher should try and speak in English. It is very essential that the teacher should be competent enough to develop these skills in his students. These skills can be developed only when the teacher has full command over English. If the pronunciation of the teacher is correct, only then it can be expected that the students will acquire correct speech habits. In India, especially in Haryana the main problem of the student in learning the English is that they can not hear the English word. English is not spoken in most of the families. In these conditions the responsibility of the teacher becomes very important as the students learn whatever they hear in the English class.

Keeping in view the circumstances discussed above, the teacher is the ideal for the student. And the role of an elementary teacher becomes more important because at this stage, the children are capable of acquiring any language or languages they are exposed to. One point is very important to children in a proper way by a competent teacher, they can be very good at English at later stage. Thus, elementary stage plays an important role in acquiring right language habits.

Phonetics

Knowledge of the Phonetics is necessary for the basic teacher so that they can acquire the student the correct speech habits. The meaning of Phonetics is the study of science of speech sound. The teaching of phonetics is only a part of teaching, which enables the teacher to develop correct pronunciation. But at the same time the teacher of English must train the students to use correct words for the correct thing, use correct order of words, use correct sentences in correct situation. All these skills are to be developed simultaneously.

The Knowledge of English Phonetics is necessary for the basic teacher.

1. He is able to speak English in a correct and acceptable manner.
2. He can correct the pronunciation of his students.

Which English?

English is the language of International level and it is spoken in all over the world. But it is spoken differently in different geographical areas showing some features of the mother tongue of the speakers. Even within India there are many varieties of English spoken in different areas. So the question arises, which English we should follow as a model. The answer to this question is that the English spoken in the south-east England, refered to as Received Pronunciation (R.P.), is accepted all over the world as a model. This doesn't mean that Indian English isn't accepted at all. But is should be a sincere efforts to make R. P. as a model.

Criteria of Teaching Model

The following are the three characteristics of a teaching model—

1. **Intelligibility**—The Pronunciation of a person should be understood by others. The native speakers of English should also understand it.
2. **Social acceptability**—The teaching model of pronunciation should be accepted in the society where the language is spoken.
3. **Teachability**—It should be taught easily.

The English of India should be such standard that satisfies all the criteria which are mentioned above. But even then the teacher should aim at the Received Pronunciation as the model. To achieve this goal, the teacher should listen to BBC programmes, he should watch the BBC channels at TV and should listen to the linguaphone to acquire the R.P.. In addition to audio-visual aids, a systematic study of the 'phonetics of English' will help the teacher to acquire the correct pronunciation of English.

Phonetic Script

English alphabets has 26 letter. But the number of sounds in English is 44. That means one letter cannot represent one sound. There are some letters, which represent more than one sound. For example—the letter 'u' represents—/A/in but and /u/in put.

Similarly the letter 'a' stands for different sounds in the following words—

Table	-	/ei/
Man	-	/ae/
About	-	/ au/
Arm	-	/a:/
Many	-	/a/

Sometimes, Combination of different letters produces same sound. For example the following combinations represent the same sound -/i:/

Seat Seed Field Police Receive

And the following combinations represent the same sound -/I/

City Busy Women Village

This is difficult matter for the learning of English that he is not certain which sound the letter in the word represents. In English Alphabet there are five vowel letters, a,e,i,o,u—but there are twenty vowel sounds. To represent these 20 vowel sounds we use either single vowel letter or the combination of them. Similarly, the 21 consonant letters represent 24 consonant sounds in English.

For the solution of this problem, the International Phonetic Association invented an International Phonetic Script (IPS) in which every symbol represents only one sound.

It is comfortable to the teacher of English to be knowledge of the phonetic symbols, so that he can articulate the proper sounds represented by the symbols and train his students accordingly.

LIST OF PHONETIC SYMBOLS AND SIGNS

English Vowels (British Received Pronunication)

Pure Vowels-12

/i:/	as in	these	/i:z/
/i/	as in	bit	/bit/
/e/	as in	bet	/bed/
/ae/	as in	bad	/bed/
/A/	as in	bus	/bAs/
/a:/	as in	card	/k a:d/
/ /	as in	hot	/hot/
/ :/	as in	all	/ :l/
/u/	as in	book	/buk/
/u:/	as in	rule	/ru:l/
/3:/	as in	serve	/s3:v/
/ /	as in	account	/ kaunt/

Diphthongal Guide-8

/ei/	as in	gate	/geit/
/ai/	as in	bite	/bait/
/ i/	as in	boil	/b il/
/ u/	as in	home	/hdum/
/au/	as in	house	/haus/
/id/	as in	cheer	/tfid/
/ed/	as in	air	/ed/
/ud/	as in	poor	/pud/

The use of Colon (:) with the vowels/i:/,/d://u:/and/3:/ is to show that they are in general longer than/i/,/ /,/u/ and /d/. The vowel/a:/is also one of the longer vowels.

English Consonants

/P/	as in	Pen	/pen/
/b/	as in	beg	/beg/
/t/	as in	take	/telk/
/d/	as in	day	/del/
/k/	as in	keep	/ki:p/
/g/	as in	gate	/gelt/
/t/	as in	chain	/teln/
/d/	as in	join	/d in/

/f/	as in	face	/fels/
/v/	as in	vein	/vein/
/ /	as in	thank	/thank/
/ /	as in	then	/ en/
/s/	as in	sea	/si:/
/z/	as in	zoo	/zu:/
/f/	as in	shade	/feid/
/3/	as in	measure	/me3d/
/h/	as in	hand	/hand/
/m/	as in	make	/melk/
/n/	as in	night	/nalt/
/n/	as in	long/	/long/
/I/	as in	lemp	/lamp/
/r/	as in	rain	/rein/
/j/	as in	yes	/jes/
/w/	as in	wait	/went/

The Speech Mechanism

The organs of speech producess the sound of word and the energy for the production of sound is provided by the air stream coming out of the lungs. The different speech organs are— wind pipe, larynx, vocal cords, palate, tongue, lips, teeth etc. Every part of the speeding organs play an important role in producing the sound. In order to describe the production of speech sound, we have to indicate the nature of the air stream, the state of the vocal cords and the position of the soft palate, the tongue and the lips. In the syllabus and plan of the book does not allow the detailed study of phonetic, a brief description of all the sounds are given here. The readers should study the following books to have complete knowledge of phonetics:—

4. Spoken English for India—R.K. Bansal & J.B. Harrison.
5. Better English Pronunciation—J.D.O.Conner,

The Sounds of English-Vowels

Vowel

A Vowel is voiced sound which produced by the speech organs without any obstruction of the air passes. When the air passes through mouth, vowel of sound plays a main part in producing sound In the English there are twelve vowels.

Diphthong

A diphthong is the structure of two vowels. It begins as one vowel and ends as another. There are eight (8) diphthongs in English.

Description of Vowel Sounds

The description can be given by the following figures of the vowel sound, that showing different tongue positions. For the production of vowel sounds, any part of the tongue can be raised towards the roof of the mouth and there can be different degrees of raising of the tongue.

6. The vowels for which the highest part of the tongue is in the front are called front vowels e.g./i/,/i:/,/e/,ae/,/A/;
7. For which it is in the back are called back vowels e.g. /a:/,/d/,/d:/,/u/,/u:/;
8. For which vowel are in the centre that are called as central vowel. /:/

According to the degree of raising of the tongue vowels are divided into four categories—

- Close—Near the roof of the mouth without causing friction.
- Half-close
- Half-open
- Open—As low as possible

PRODUCTION OF DIFFERENT SOUNDS

I. Vowels

(1) Pure Vowels—{12}

1. /I/as in bit:—This vowel is of short type. When it is pronounced the lips are spread and the front of the tongue is raised toward the hard palate.

Some words having this Vowel Sound

Spellings	Words
i	Bit, ink, Rich, Silk, thick, etc.
e	Begin, Biggest, Depend, Effect, Houses, Reduce, Ticket, Wanted etc.
y	City, Mystery, System, etc.
a	Private, Surface,Village, etc.
ie	Carries, Handkerchief, Parties, etc.

Some other Words

Busy, Coffee, Money, Minute, Captain, Build, Guilty, Marriage.

2./i:/as in these:—This is long type vowel, when the sound is produced the front of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate. The lips are spread and the tongue is tense.

Some words having this Vowel Sound

Spellings	Words
e	Complete, these
ee	Feed, green, tree
ea	Cream, lead, reach, sea, beach
ie	field, piece
ei	receive, deceive
i	machine, police

Some other words—Key, People

3./e/ as in bed:—It is a short vowel, as it produced the sound by the front of the tongue is raised to a position between half close and half open. The lips are loosely spread.

Some words having this Vowel Sound

Spellings	Words
e	Set, bet, wet, rest, best, test, nest
ea	head, lead, ready, jealous
a	any, many

Some other words—Friend, leisure, said.

4. /ae/as in bad:—It is front type vowel in which the lips is spread, and the tongue nearly mid way between half open and open.

Some words having this Vowel Sound

Spellings	Words
a	fan, sad, tax, rank, rat, cat, bat

5 /a:/ as in card:—This is long vowel produced with the mouth wide open.

Some words having this vowel sound

Spellings	Words
a	Card, hard, large, part, ask, fast, branch, bath, staff, half.
au	aunt, laugh

Some other words are—Clerk, heart.

6. /id/ as in hot:—It is back type vowel in which the sound produced by mouth, fully open in British R.P. articulated with round lips. It is also short vowel in R.P.

Some words having this vowel sound

Spellings	Words
o	dog, lock, not, pot, off, sorry, borrow
/w+a/	quality, want
au	because
ou	cough

Some other words are—Knowledge, college, gone.

7. /d:/ as in horse:—It is a long vowel and pronounciate the word by back of the tongue to a position between half open and half closed. The lips are rounded. Its length is reduced before voiceless consonants.

Some words having this Vowel Sound

Spellings	Words
a	ball, call, small, hall
o	morning, north, force, nor
ou	court, four
ore	more, before
ough	bought, fought, thought
oo	door, floor
aw	law, saw
au	cause, fault
al	chalk, talk, walk
oa	board
augh	caught, daughter, taught

Some other Words are—War, broad

8. /u/as in put—It is short type vowel. In this the sound is produced by rounded lips, the back of the tongue is raised to a position between close and half close.

This vowel does not start the word at beginning, Finally it occurs only in the weak form of the word to.

Some words having this vowel sound

Spellings	Words
u	push, pull, full
oo	book, foot, hook, look, took, wood
o	woman
oul	could, should, would

9. /u:/as in rule:—This is a long back close vowel. In this the pronunciation are made by the closely rounded lips, and the tongue is tense. The length is reduced before voiceless consonants.

Some words having this vowel sound

Spellings	Words
u	music, pupil, union, funeral, beauty
oo	food, moon, mood, tool, soon, loose

o	lose, move, who
ou	group, through, wound, you
ui	fruit, juice, suit
ew	new,

Some other words are—Beauty, Shoe, two

10./A/as in cup:—In Producing this type of sound the central part of the tongue is raised, between open and half open position. The lips are neutral. This vowel does not occur finally.

Some words having this vowel sound

Spellings	Words
u	run, gun, sun, such, dust, dusk,
o	come, month, son, don, worry, won,
ou	country, enough, rough, trouble, young, double

Some other words are—Blood, does,

11. /3:/as in girl:—It is long type of vowel which is produced by the neutral position of the lips. When this vowel is produced the tongue is raised between half close and half open positions. It occurs only in accented syllables. Its length is reduced before voiceless consonants.

Some words having this vowel sound

Spellings	Words
ir	firm, circle, bird, dirt, thirst
er	serve, term
ur	hurt, murder, nurse, purple, surface turn.
ear	heard, learn, search
our	journey

12. / / as in about:—It is a short vowel. This produces the sound by neutral lips. In British R.P. the tongue raising is between half open and half closed in non final position and nearly half open in final positions.

Some words having this Vowel Sound

Spellings	Words
a	human, gentleman, breakfast
ar	backward, standard, particular
e	problem, sentence, instrument.
er	liberty, entertain
o	condition, observe, society
or	effort,
ou	famous, continous
u	succeed

ur	surprise furniture
a	Drama,
ar	collar, dollar, beggar
er	bigger, order, hunger
or	actor, doctor, motor
our	colour, honour, favour
ough	thorough
ure	creature, measure, nature, picture
re	centre, theatre

DIPHTHONGS

1. /ei/ as in gate:—In British R.P., it is a diphthong beginning slightly below the half close position and moving towards R.P./i/.The lips are spread. In other words the position of tongue changes from the vowel/e/to the vowel/i/.

Some words having this Sound

Spellings	Words
a	age, base, cage, rate, make, late, gate, face, date, waste, state
ay	say, may, pray, way, day
ai	aim, pain, wait
ei	eight, weight
ey	they, grey
ea	break, great

2./du/as in home:—In this vowel the sound produced with central position of half closing and moves in the direction fo/u/. The lips are neutral in the beginning and rounded towards the end.

In Indian English a monophthong /o:/is used.

Some words having this Sound

Spellings	Words
o	home, rope, both, social, go, no, bold, gold, most, host, roll
ow	blow, know, sow, window
oa	load, road, soap
ou	shoulder, though

3. /ai/ as in bite—In the production of /ai/there is a glide from the front open position towards /i/. The lips change from a neutral to a closely spread position.

Some words having this Sound

Spellings	Word
i	bite, ride, write, pipe, kite, nice, climb, tidy, silence
y	type, cycle,dry,fly,reply,satisfy

ie	die, lie, tie
igh	high, light, might, fight, right, tight
ei	heigh, neither

Some other words are—Child, eye, buy, island.

4. /au/as in house:—Starting of this voice begins between the front and the back open positions and proceeds in the direction of /u/. The lips are neutral in the beginnings and weakly rounded at the end.

Some words having this Sound

Spellings	Words
ou	doubt, loud, mouth, sound, round, out
ow	allow, cow, now, how

5. /di/ as in toy:—In R.P. the glide for this diphthong starts with the position which is half open near the black and moves in the direction of/i/. The lips are open rounded at the beginning and neutral at the end.

Some words having this Sound

Spellings	Words
oi	oil, coil, voice, point, choice, noise
oy	boy, annoy

6. /id/as in dear:—The pronunciations of this type vowel starts with/i/ and moves towards/d/. The lips are neutral.

Some words having this Sound

Spellings	Words
eer	deer, cheer
ear	dear, ear, fear, hear, near
ere	here, mere
e	period, zero, serious
ea	idea, real, theatre

7. /ed/ as in air:—The production of voice in this type, starts between half close and half open position and moves towards/d/. The lips are neutral.

Some words having this Sound

Spelling	Words
air	fair, pair, chair,
ar	bare, care, rare, dare, share.
ear	bear, wear

Some other words—Aeroplane, their

8. /ud/ as in poor:—The glide for this diphthong is from /u/to/d/. At starting position, lips are slightly rounded and it is neutral at the end.

Some words having this Sound

Poor, tour, sure, influence

The Sounds of English Consonants

The Consonant is produced sound with air passage of partially or complete closure of air passage. One or more speech organ are the cause of this closure or the obstruction. Moreover, a consonant sound occurs either at the beginning or at the end of a syllable or both at the beginning and the end.

We can make a description of the Consonant of English sound according to the place or articulation with the help of the following figure, showing the different organs of speech—

The Organs of Speech

1. /P/—In the pronunciation of consonant, first air passes through two lips in the mouth and the soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage. The air from the lungs is compressed, and when the lips are separated, it is released with explosion. The vocal cords are held apart and therefore the sound is voiceless. It is a voiceless bilabial plosive.

2. /b/—In the production of consonant sound, the position of the voice organs is the same as for/p/. The only difference is that the vocal cords vibrate in the production of this consonant. It is explosion. The vocal are held apart. It is a voiceless alveolar plosive sound.

p and b

Some words having Sound/p/

Pin, port, pay, pray, spin, spot, etc

/p/ is silent in the words like receipt, cupboard.

Some words having Sound/b/

Back, boy, bold, board, bite, bit etc.

3. /b/—For the pronunciation of/b/, air passage is closed by the tip of the tongue making a contact with the teeth ridge. The soft palate is raised to off the nasal passage. The air from the lungs is compressed, and when the tip of the tongue suddenly removed from the teeth ridge, the air escapes with explosion. The vocal cords are held apart. It is a voiceless alveolar plosive sound.

4. /d/—In the pronunciation of this consonant the position of the speech organs is same as for/t. The difference is that in the production of this sound the vocal cords vibrate. So, it is a voice alveolar plosive sound.

Some words having Sound /t/

Toy, top, stone, train, tune, ten, etc.

/t/ is silent in the words like castle, listen, Christmas

Some words having Sound/d/

Dog, door, double, donkey, etc.

5. /k/—This type of sound is produced by the passing of the air in the mouth is closed completely with the back of the tongue making a contact with the soft palate. The nasal passage is also shut off by raising the soft palate. The air from the lungs is compressed, and when the tongue is suddenly removed from the soft palate, the air escapes with explosion. The vocal cords are held apart. It is vocieless alveolar plosive sound.

6./g/—This type of sound is produced as same as for/k/. The only difference is that the vocal cords vibrate. It is voiced velar plosive sound.

Some words having Sound/k/

Kind, kite, basket, milk.

Cool, call, cut

Cheque

Back, attack, sick, bucket, neck, check, deck.

Character, stomach, etc.

Some words having Sound/G/

Gate, go, bag, give, get, etc.

7. /t/—For the pronunciation of this consonant the air passes in the mouth is completely closed by a contact between the tip and the blade of the tongue and the teeth ridge, the rims of the tongue making a contact with the upper side teeth. The front of the tongue is also raised towards the hard palate. The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage.

The Releasing of the air slowly produced the friction between front tongue and the hard palate and between the blade of the tongue and the teeth. The vocal cords are wide a part. It is an affricate sound and it is a voiceless palato alveolar.

8. /d3/:—This sound is produced same as for/t/ is produced. The only difference is that is production of this sound the vocal cords vibrate, so it is an affricate sound and it is voiced palato alveolar.

Some words having Sound/t/

Chair, check, watch, catch, nature, picture, question, etc.

Some words having Sound/d3/

Jump, jet, jug, jar, general, gentle, judge, suggest, soldier, etc.

9. /f/—In the production of this sound lower lips was very close to the upper teeth, making a light contact with it. The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage. The air comes out between the lower lip and the upper teeth with friction. The vocal cords are wide a part. It is a voiceless labio-dental fricative sound.

10. /v/:—For the production of this sound the position of the speech organs and the manner of articulation is same as /f/, the only difference is that the vocal cords vibrate in the production of this sound. So, it is voiced labio-dental fricative sound.

Some words having Sound/f/—

Face, fail, file, five, fine

Afford, staff

Photograph, cough, rough

Some words having Sound/v/—

Van, village, brave, cave, cover, love, dove

of, Nephew

11. / /:—To producing this sound the tongue is brought to lighy contact of upper teeth and the soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage. The air passing between the tip and the blade of the tongue and the upper teeth produces audible friction. The vocal cords are wide apart. It is a voiceless dental fricative sound.

12. / / :—This type of sound is produced same as in//. The only difference is that the vocal cords vibrate. It is voiced, dental fricative sound.

Some words having Sound/ /

Think, thank, three, thought, throw, thrice, thin, etc.

Some words having Sound/ /

Then, their, they, there, those, them, these, etc.

13. /s/—In the pronunciation of this consonant the tip and blade brought very closly near to teeth ridge and the air comes out through a narrow groove along the middle of the tongue with audible friction. The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage. The vocal cards are wide apart. It is voiceless alveolar fricative sound.

14. /z/—This type of sound is produced as same manner of articulation as/s/. The only difference is that the vocal cords vibrate in the cords of this sound. It is voiced alveolar fricative sound.

Some words having Sound/s/

Set, sit, sad, some, slope, suck, pupose, etc.

Pass, boss, asset, confess

Parcel, city, face

Scene, science

Box, explain, tax.

Some words having Sound/z/

Zero, zoo, puzzle

Poison, easy, phrase, praise

Exact, examination.

15. / /—In this type of sound production the lip and blade of tongue became very close to the teeth ridge, and the front of the tongue is also raised towards the hard palate. The air passage escapes through the narrow passage with audible friction. The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage. The vocal cords are wide a part. It is a voiceless, palato alveolar fricative sound.

16. /3/—When this sound is produced the position of speech organ and function is same as/ / The only difference is that the vocal cords vibrate in the case, this sound. It is voiced palato alveolar fricative sound.

Some words having Sound/ f/

Shoe, push, shine
Machine
Sugar, sure
Motion, nation
Conscience
Special, official
Ocean

Some words having Sound/s/

Measure, pleasure, television
Decision, confusion, vision

17. /h/—For the production of this sound the air passes through a narrow glottis (space between the vocal cords) causing audible friction. The sound can also be regarded as a voiceless at beginning of the following vowel. It does not occur finally.

Some words having Sound/h/

Hat, hut, heart, hurt, hungry, help, health, hesitate.

18. /m/—In producing of this sound the lips made complete closure in the mouth, but the soft palate is lowered and the air comes out through the nose. The vocal cords are in vibration. It is a voiced, bilabial nasal sound.

Some words having Sound/m/

Mix, miss, mad, man, mat, meat, meet, meal, melt, come
Summer, hammer.
Comb, thumb, autumn.

19. /n/—This type of sound is produced by making a closure of tip of tongue against teeth ridge and the rims of the tongue are against the upper side teeth. The soft palate is lowered and the air comes out through the nose. The vocal cords vibrate. It is voiced alveolar nasal sound.

Some words having Sound/n/

Nine, no, next, now, net, new
Manner, running, cunning
Knife, knight, know
Sign, design

20. /I/—The back of the tongue closed with the soft palate to produce this type of sound, which is lowered so that the air escapes through the nose. The vocal cords vibrate. It is voiced, velar nasal sound. This sound does not occur initially.

Some words having Sound/I/

Sing, song, long, hang, thing

Think, uncle, monkey, sink, thank, tank

21. /l/—To Producing this sound the tip of the tongue came in contact with teeth ridge but the sides of the tongue are lowered so that there is a free passage for the escape of the air on the sides. The vocal cords are in vibration. The vocal cords are in vibration. It is voiced alveolar lateral sound.

Some words having Sound/l/

Like, last, least, load, laugh, glnd, oil, boil, black pulp

Kill, bill, grill, drill, yellow

22. /r/—For the production of this sound the tip of the tongue is raised towards the back of the teeth ridge. The air comes out through the mouth without any friction. The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage.

Even though this sound is vowel-like, it is treated as a consonant because it takes the position associated with consonant e.g. bat, cat, rat. This is used only before vowels; it does not occur finally and before consonants.

Some words having Sound/r/

Try, cry, fry, dry, pray, grey, tray.

23. /y/—For/j/ there is a quick tongue movement from a position between front-close and half-close to the position of the following vowel. The lips are neutral or spread. This is un-rounded palatal semi-vowel.

Some words having Sound/y/

Young, yet, yes, yard, yak, yellow, you

Union, pupil, beauty, new, human etc.

24. /w/—For/w/ the tongue moves quickly from a position between close and half-close to the position of the following vowel. The lips are rounded. It is a labio-velar semi-vowel.

Some words having Sound/w/

Word, watch, well, wall, west, went

Which, where, when

Quick, queen, quality, language.

Word Accent-Stress

The significant feature in English speaking is voice modulation while speaking different words. Voice modulation means changes in the voice so as to speak different words. Word accent help to let the speaker know as how much stress is needed to speak words having more than one Voice Modulation

The syllable—The syllable is a muscular movement, a chest pulse pushing the air out of the lungs. In English there are so many words and a word may have either one

syllable or more than one. In these suitable vowels have been given the central position while consonant have been given marginal Position while speaking. The prominence of a syllable is due to stress, i.e. deep breathing, greater muscular effort-involved in the utterance. The syllable on which there is a pitch change is to have the primary accent. Any other prominent syllable is to have secondary accent. Primary accent is marked with a vertical bar above and in front of the syllable, whereas the secondary accent is marked with a bar below and in front of the syllable.

I. These words are also known as single syllabic words, Mono-syllabic words

Go, slow, do, to, me, so, stop etc.

II. Two Syllabic words

Words having two syllable contained in them are called two syllable words. These words are further categorised into two where stress is given on the first syllable e.g. Captain, Domage, Hostel etc and others where Accent is on the second syllable e.g. Mistake, belong, beautiful etc.

Three Syllabic Words

a. Primary accent on the third syllable—
b. Recommend, Under stand, Millionaire, Disappoint, etc.
c. Primary accent on the second syllable—
d. E'lastic, Horizon, Reactor, Committee, Deliver
e. Primary accent on the first syllable—

Accident, 'Calculate, 'Delegate, 'Eduacte,

Before speaking English one has to learn the correct word accent because this word accent is wrong or imperfect. It will cause misunderstanding and will also lead a bad impression on the listener. There is no simple way of knowing which syllable or syllables in an English word must be stressed. So it is suggested for the learners to consult a good dictionary for the correct accent pattern before learning a new word. Slowly, he will be able to follow the correct accent pattern of various words.

Rules for Accentural Patterns

a. The following suffixes take the main stress on their first syllables—

-aire	Millio'naire
-eer	Ca'reer
-ental	Funda'mental
-ential	Ess'ential
-ique	Myst'ique

b. Words ending in-ic, ity, ial, ially, ian and ious are primary stressed on the syllable Proceding the suffix for example E'lectric, Activity, Artificial, Arti' ficially, Mu'sician, In'Jurious etc.

d All English words have accent, primary or secondary on the first or the second syllable.

c. Words like a 'cross, Between, Below are stressed on the Root while speaking as these words have weal Prefixes.
A 'cross, Be'tween, Be'low, A'loud, A'part, Pre'fer, Re'duce.

e. Words ending in—ion have the primary accent on the last but one syllable e.g.
Application, Examination, Introduction, Qualification.
Ac'tivity, Elec'tricity, E'quality, Possi'bility
In'jurious, 'Anxious, vic'torious, La'borious

Steps To Effective Listening

In today's high-tech, high-speed, high-stress world, communication is more important then ever, yet we seem to devote less and less time to really listening to one another. Genuine listening has become a rare gift—the gift of time. It helps build relationships, solve problems, ensure understanding, resolve conflicts, and improve accuracy. At work, effective listening means fewer errors and less wasted time. At home, it helps develop resourceful, self-reliant kids who can solve their own problems. Listening builds friendships and careers. It saves money and marriages.

Here are some tips to help you develop effective listening skills.

Step 1: Face the speaker and maintain eye contact.

Talking to someone while they scan the room, study a computer screen, or gaze out the window is like trying to hit a moving target. How much of the person's divided attention you are actually getting? Fifty percent? Five percent? If the person were your child you might demand, "Look at me when I'm talking to you," but that's not the sort of thing we say to a lover, friend or colleague. In most Western cultures, eye contact is considered a basic ingredient of effective communication. When we talk, we look each other in the eye. That doesn't mean that you can't carry on a conversation from across the room, or from another room, but if the conversation continues for any length of time, you (or the other person) will get up and move. The desire for better communication pulls you together.

Do your conversational partners the courtesy of turning to face them. Put aside papers, books, the phone and other distractions. Look at them, even if they don't look at you. Shyness, uncertainty, shame, guilt, or other emotions, along with cultural taboos, can inhibit eye contact in some people under some circumstances. Excuse the other guy, but stay focused yourself.

Step 2: Be attentive, but relaxed.

Now that you've made eye contact, relax. You don't have to stare fixedly at the other person. You can look away now and then and carry on like a normal person. The important thing is to be attentive. The dictionary says that to "attend" another person means to:

be present
give attention

apply or direct yourself

pay attention

remain ready to serve

Mentally screen out distractions, like background activity and noise. In addition, try not to focus on the speaker's accent or speech mannerisms to the point where they become distractions. Finally, don't be distracted by your own thoughts, feelings, or biases.

Step 3: Keep an open mind.

Listen without judging the other person or mentally criticizing the things she tells you. If what she says alarms you, go ahead and feel alarmed, but don't say to yourself, "Well, that was a stupid move." As soon as you indulge in judgmental bemusements, you've compromised your effectiveness as a listener. Listen without jumping to conclusions. Remember that the speaker is using language to represent the thoughts and feelings inside her brain. You don't know what those thoughts and feelings are and the only way you'll find out is by listening. Don't be a sentence-grabber. Occasionally my partner can't slow his mental pace enough to listen effectively, so he tries to speed up mine by interrupting and finishing my sentences. This usually lands him way off base, because he is following his own train of thought and doesn't learn where my thoughts are headed. After a couple of rounds of this, I usually ask, "Do you want to have this conversation by yourself, or do you want to hear what I have to say?" I wouldn't do that with everyone, but it works with him.

Step 4: Listen to the words and try to picture what the speaker is saying.

Allow your mind to create a mental model of the information being communicated. Whether a literal picture, or an arrangement of abstract concepts, your brain will do the necessary work if you stay focused, with senses fully alert. When listening for long stretches, concentrate on, and remember, key words and phrases. When it's your turn to listen, don't spend the time planning what to say next. You can't rehearse and listen at the same time. Think only about what the other person is saying. Finally, concentrate on what is being said, even if it bores you. If your thoughts start to wander, immediately force yourself to refocus.

Step 5: Don't interrupt and don't impose your "solutions."

Children used to be taught that it's rude to interrupt. I'm not sure that message is getting across anymore. Certainly the opposite is being modeled on the majority of talk shows and reality programs, where loud, aggressive, in-your-face behavior is condoned, if not encouraged.

Interrupting sends a variety of messages. It says:

"I'm more important than you are."

"What I have to say is more interesting, accurate or relevant."

"I don't really care what you think."

"I don't have time for your opinion."

"This isn't a conversation, it's a contest, and I'm going to win."

We all think and speak at different rates. If you are a quick thinker and an agile talker, the burden is onyouto relax your pace for the slower, more thoughtful communicator—or for the guy who has trouble expressing himself. When listening to someone talk about a problem, refrain from suggesting solutions. Most of us don't want your advice anyway. If we do, we'll ask for it. Most of us prefer to figure out our own solutions. We need you to listen and help us do that. Somewhere way down the line, if you are absolutely bursting with a brilliant solution, at least get the speaker's permission. Ask, "Would you like to hear my ideas?"

Step 6: Wait for the speaker to pause to ask clarifying questions.

When you don't understand something, of course you should ask the speaker to explain it to you. But rather than interrupt, wait until the speaker pauses. Then say something like, "Back up a second. I didn't understand what you just said about..."

Step 7: Ask questions only to ensure understanding.

At lunch, a colleague is excitedly telling you about her trip to Vermont and all the wonderful things she did and saw. In the course of this chronicle, she mentions that she spent some time with a mutual friend. You jump in with, "Oh, I haven't heard from Alice in ages. How is she?" and, just like that, discussion shifts to Alice and her divorce, and the poor kids, which leads to a comparison of custody laws, and before you know it an hour is gone and Vermont is a distant memory. This particular conversational affront happens all the time. Our questions lead people in directions that have nothing to do with where they thought they were going. Sometimes we work our way back to the original topic, but very often we don't. When you notice that your question has led the speaker astray, take responsibility for getting the conversation back on track by saying something like, "It was great to hear about Alice, but tell me more about your adventure in Vermont."

Step 8: Try to feel what the speaker is feeling.

If you feel sad when the person with whom you are talking expresses sadness, joyful when she expresses joy, fearful when she describes her fears—and convey those feelings through your facial expressions and words—then your effectiveness as a listener is assured. Empathy is the heart and soul of good listening. To experience empathy, you have to put yourself in the other person's place and allow yourself to feel what it is like to be her at that moment. This is not an easy thing to do. It takes energy and concentration. But it is a generous and helpful thing to do, and it facilitates communication like nothing else does.

Step 9: Give the speaker regular feedback.

Show that you understand where the speaker is coming from by reflecting the speaker's feelings. "You must be thrilled!" "What a terrible ordeal for you." "I can see that you are confused." If the speaker's feelings are hidden or unclear, then occasionally paraphrase the content of the message. Or just nod and show your understanding through appropriate facial expressions and an occasional well-timed "hmmm" or "uh

huh." The idea is to give the speaker some proof that you are listening, and that you are following her train of thought—not off indulging in your own fantasies while she talks to the ether. In task situations, regardless of whether at work or home, always restate instructions and messages to be sure you understand correctly.

Step 10: Pay attention to what isn't said—to nonverbal cues.

If you exclude email, the majority of direct communication is probably nonverbal. We glean a great deal of information about each other without saying a word. Even over the telephone, you can learn almost as much about a person from the tone and cadence of her voice than from anything she says. When I talk to my best friend, it doesn't matter what we chat about, if I hear a lilt and laughter in her voice, I feel reassured that she's doing well. Face to face with a person, you can detect enthusiasm, boredom, or irritation very quickly in the expression around the eyes, the set of the mouth, the slope of the shoulders. These are clues you can't ignore. When listening, remember that words convey only a fraction of the message.

Barriers to Effective Listening

To improve the process of effective listening, it can be helpful to turn the problem on its head and look at barriers to effective listening, or ineffective listening. For example, one common problem is that instead of listening closely to what someone is saying, we often get distracted after a sentence or two and instead start to think about what we are going to say in reply or think about unrelated things. This means that we do not fully listen to the rest of the speaker's message. This problem is attributed, in part, to the difference between average speech rate and average processing rate. Average speech rates are between 125 and 175 words a minute whereas we can process on average between 400 and 800 words a minute. It is a common habit for the listener to use the spare time while listening to daydream or think about other things, rather than focusing on what the speaker is saying. Of course the clarity of what the speaker is saying can also affect how well we listen. Generally we find it easier to focus if the speaker is fluent in their speech, has a familiar accent, and speaks at an appropriate loudness for the situation. It is more difficult, for example, to focus on somebody who is speaking very fast and very quietly, especially if they are conveying complex information.

We may also get distracted by the speaker's personal appearance or by what someone else is saying, which sounds more interesting. These issues not only affect you, but you are likely to show your lack of attention in your body language. Generally, we find it much harder to control our body language, and you are likely to show your distraction and/or lack of interest by lack of eye contact, or posture. The speaker will detect the problem, and probably stop talking at best. At worse, they may be very offended or upset.

LISTENING ACTIVITY : LECTURES

A lecture (from the French lecture, meaning reading) is an oral presentation intended to present information or teach people about a particular subject, for example by a university or college teacher. Lectures are used to convey critical information, history, background, theories, and equations. A politician's speech, a minister's sermon, or even a businessman's sales presentation may be similar in form to a lecture. Usually the lecturer will stand at the front of the room and recite information relevant to the lecture's content. Though lectures are much criticised as a teaching method, universities have not yet found practical alternative teaching methods for the large majority of their courses. Critics point out that lecturing is mainly a one-way method of communication that does not involve significant audience participation but relies upon passive learning. Therefore, lecturing is often contrasted to active learning. Lectures delivered by talented speakers can be highly stimulating; at the very least, lectures have survived in academia as a quick, cheap, and efficient way of introducing large numbers of students to a particular field of study.

Lectures have a significant role outside the classroom, as well. Academic and scientific awards routinely include a lecture as part of the honor, and academic conferences often center on "keynote addresses", i.e., lectures. The public lecture has a long history in the sciences and in social movements. Union halls, for instance, historically have hosted numerous free and public lectures on a wide variety of matters. Similarly, churches, community centers, libraries, museums, and other organizations have hosted lectures in furtherance of their missions or their constituents' interests. Lectures represent a continuation of oral tradition in contrast to textual communication in books and other media. Lectures may be considered a type of grey literature.

The effectiveness of lectures

The lack of an accepted rationale for the method seems to make people guilty about using lectures. At best they are taken for granted (but without any attempts to understand or improve them), at worst attempts are made to replace lectures almost anything else; even when alternatives involving small-group teaching, seminars, or tutorials are completely impractical and unaffordable in mass higher education systems. Even absurd gestures such as abandoning real teaching altogether and getting groups of students to 'teach-themselves' is regarded by some educationalists as an improvement on lectures.

But perhaps the most convincing evidence of lectures' effectiveness comes from what people actually do, rather than what people say, because expressed-opinions have few costs or consequences are therefore are a less reliable guide to preferences than lived-choices. I find it highly significant that lectures are especially used in teaching the most quantitative and systematic sciences, and for intensive professional training courses such as medicine, engineering and law – lectures are less used (and less prestigious) in the arts and humanities such as literature and philosophy. In other words, lectures are a focus of teaching in exactly the situations where transmission of knowledge is most vital, and in subjects where learning is most easily and validly measurable. Of

course, lectures will only get you so far, and individual teaching by 'apprenticeship' supported by self-directed study remain necessary for learning specialized and high level skills.

It is striking that, despite increasing choice of alternatives, the great majority of students continue to enrol in attendance-based and residential universities where lectures are a primary mode of instruction. And, when at university, they usually show-up for lectures, even when the lectures are not compulsory, and even when written hand-outs or transcriptions are available.

Students still choose lecture-based teaching despite the ready availability of cheaper and more convenient alternative qualifications from highly-reputable 'distance learning' institutions which have grown-up to exploit new communication technologies as they were invented. Postal correspondence courses were popular from the early twentieth century. The UK Open University added TV and radio broadcasting to the postal system. More recently, the massive and expanding University of Phoenix in the USA has used e-mail and internet technologies. But although distance-learning is often both high in quality and reasonable in price, it has added to, rather than displaced, the demand for attendance-based, lecture-focused educational institutions. Apparently, many students experience difficulties in learning in solitude even from the finest written or audio-visual media.

Taking all these observations together, there seems to be ample prima facie evidence that lectures are probably the best practicable teaching method in many circumstances and for many students. However, it is not generally understood why lectures are useful, and the lack of a convincing rationale for lectures has been a major factor in under-estimating their importance. Because this rationale is not understood, the conduct of lectures has often been changed in ways that make them less effective – for instance inappropriate use of visual aids, and undermining the focus upon spoken lectures by excessive emphasis on written support material (eg. hand-outs and transcripts – nowadays often distributed by the internet).

Lectures are essentially spoken

The specific reasons for the effectiveness of lectures which I wish to highlight here, are that they are essentially a form of spoken communication which is delivered to an audience by an actually-present and visible person. A lecture therefore constitutes a formally-structured social event which fits human nature and artificially manipulates human psychology to improve learning. Furthermore, educational lectures are given in 'courses' (not one-off lectures), which enable the audience to develop a relationship of trust with the lecturer.

It is easy for educated people in advanced societies to forget that literacy and solitude are both relatively-recent cultural artefacts. In the hunter-gatherer societies in which our (neuro-anatomically identical) ancestors dwelled for many tens of thousands of years, information was communicated mainly by direct speech and individuals were almost never alone; on the contrary being continually surrounded by people they knew very well. By contrast all communication technologies – whether reading a book, audio-visual media, or a computer monitor – are artificial and contrived and studying

alone is a difficult skill with widely varying levels of attainment. This is probably the major reason why so many people find it easier to learn from a spoken lecture and in groups rather than alone.

But attending a course of lectures requires a long term commitment to be in the necessary place at the proper time. If you are not present and listening, you will not obtain the advantage of attending a lecture and will have to make-do with solitary personal study. Students may miss lectures through no fault of their own, as well as for less admirable reasons. This is undeniably inconvenient, but it is intrinsic to the medium. Only if the lectures are sub-optimal can students miss them without incurring some disadvantage.

Therefore, when a lecture course is the focus of teaching care should be taken not to sacrifice the essence of lectures by confusing students over the core learning activity which is expected of them. In lecture based course, students should understand that one major expectation is that they are required to attend lectures. Because the main medium of communication in a lecture is the spoken word, what is spoken should be regarded as the essence. The only way to make lecture attendance unimportant to learning is to diminish the effectiveness of the lecture to the point that the lecture is so mediocre that it makes little difference whether students have experienced it or not.

It is tempting to try and ameliorate the disadvantages to students who cannot, or prefer not to, attend lectures; by providing identical or more-detailed material as handout – perhaps distributed by the internet. Once handouts are established, it is tempting to distribute them in advance of spoken lectures. But both of these temptations should be resisted. In order to make the most of their natural strengths, lectures need to maintain their proper focus on speaking as the primary form of communication.

The primacy of the spoken word may explain my strong impression that 'lecture notes' are a much more effective way of recording information than texts (such as hand-outs) which have been prepared by the lecturer. This is because lecture notes recognize the primacy of the spoken word. A students' own written summary of a lecture they have heard also seems to be more readily remembered than hand-outs. One important factor is that lecture note-taking has the advantage of encouraging 'deep processing' forms of memorizing, by imposing a need for students to understand, abbreviate and re-structure the information in the course of recording it. Indeed, it is the taking of lecture notes which is a key factor in converting the potentially-passive experience of listening to a lecture into the active experience of learning from a lecture.

Lecture notes also avoid the undermining effect of hand-outs. It is hard to exaggerate the extent to which hand-outs can damage the effectiveness of a lecture. A lecture is compelling in part because it is here-and-now, the student must concentrate, listen, understand – and these activities cannot be put off until later. The intensity of a lecture depends on this necessity for the student to focus. The student must record the lecture in their notes, and they must do it now – lecture notes cannot be put off until later. But the existence of hand-outs or transcriptions usurps this evanescent reality by imposing an unchanging abstraction. A handout stands-between the student and the real-time lecture in the same way that a video-camera stands between a tourist and landscape they are standing in. To see a lecture through the lens of a hand-out is as impoverished a perspective as seeing the Alps through the viewfinder of a camera.

Lecture notes therefore do not support lectures so much as interfere with them – and 'interference' is a fairly precise term for the interaction of two similar phenomena to the disadvantage of both. Interference can best be avoided when the written material that supports a lecture is differently-structured from the lecture itself. For example, reading a good textbook after a lecture should be not just reinforce the same facts in the same order, nor even just add some extra facts, but should offer a significantly different structuring of the facts. In this case, the written material will deepen the knowledge obtained from lectures without damaging the here-and-now focus or memorability of lectures.

There are several other several implications. Lecture teaching methods should not allow erbal information to become subordinated to 'visual aids', although it is another temptation to 'spice up' the lecture with attention-grabbing graphics. The primary visual aid should the lecturer him- or her-self, especially the lecturers face, in particular the lecturers eye contact. A lecture which takes place in the dark, where a disembodied voice intones sentences while slides are shown, can hardly be described as a lecture at all because it lacks the basis of a social event. A slide-based lecture in the dark is more like visiting the cinema. Indeed, unless carefully used, technological visual aids can be a significant distraction from the conceptual basis of a lecture.

It is best for lecturers to avoid complex visual material, unless this is unavoidable; because although impressive visuals are often entertaining, they are also usually distracting, and may undermine the educational purpose. For example, audio-visual material (TV, video, animations etc) are such compelling stimuli that they can easily break the conceptual thread of spoken discourse. Switching back and forth between audio-visual technology and the spoken voice involves a cognitive change of gear which is hard for students to accomplish.

In this respect, public lectures and television documentaries are a bad model. This is because these one-off presentations are not trying to educate their audience except in the most vague and general sense – in fact they are mainly trying to grab and hold the audience's attention. A one-off lecture is an end in itself: the audience is not expected to understand or remember what has been said.

But an educational lecture is a means to an end, which is learning, and methods to attracts and sustain audience attention should be subordinated to that over-arching educational imperative.

Lectures as social events

As well as being spoken communications, lectures are properly delivered by an actually-present individual. This creates a here-and-now social situation which unfolds in real time. Humans are social animals, who are naturally more alert and vigilant in social situations. What makes the lecture a social situation is the potential for two-way communication - mainly a visual link of eye-contact between lecturer and audience. This situation of social communication is what makes lectures easier to attend and remember than written material, because failure to pay attention or an apparent failure to comprehend material can be seen by the lecturer. This need for direct communication sets a size limit to effective lectures (although this size can be increased by good design of auditoria).

In a very large lecture auditorium – even more so when electronic media are used to transmit a lecture remotely - the lecturer cannot maintain eye-contact with all members of the audience. This has two bad effects: firstly that the lecturer cannot monitor the response to his words on the whole audience, secondly (and more importantly) that remote parts of the classroom become cut-off from the lecturer because the students instinctively recognize that they are not being visually monitored. The remote students lose the possibility of participating in the here-and-now social event, in effect they are excluded from the lecture situation.

A properly-conducted lecture also exploits another spontaneous psychological disposition: the tendency to attend to persons of authority. In effect, the formal lecture is a mutually beneficial 'collusion' between class and lecturer. The structure of a lecture creates a situation in which a group's attention is focused on the lecturer. This artificially generates authority in the lecturer which creates a receptive psychological state conducive to learning. The collusion is that a class of students implicitly, by their silent attention, awards temporary authority to the lecturer (authority which happens to be gratifying for the lecturer) for the purpose of making learning more effective (which is gratifying for the students – and is the aim of the exercise).

To enable lectures to be effective for learning, the process of communication therefore needs to be controlled by the lecturer. If communications from the audience are too frequent or uncontrolled, for example too many questions or discussions interrupting the flow of discourse, then this will sabotage the necessary authority structure in a way that will undermine learning. 'Hecklers' understand this very well. A further aspect is that my experience strongly suggests that lectures should where possible be given as a whole course – not as one-off events – and by a single lecturer – rather than by a team. This seems to work better because it needs repeated interactions for a relationship of trust to build up between lecturer and class – and only when trust is established (if it is established) will students learn effectively.

It is precisely because the authority structure of a formal lecture is so powerful and instrument for focusing attention and improving learning that the lecture medium can be abused for propaganda purposes. Because they so effectively exploit human psychology, lectures are intrinsically a form of imposition by one upon the many, and there need to be safeguards to prevent this situation being used for inappropriate purposes.

The purpose of lectures

Lectures are commonly used:

to offer an overview of a subject - you will need to fill in the detail;

to deliver detailed information on a subject - you will need to fill in the background.

Lectures provide you with a valuable resource. They can synthesise the views of several researchers and text books or provide new and unpublished information.

This guide shows you how to make the most of your lectures by following four main steps:

preparing for lectures;

listening in lectures;

taking notes;

following up lectures.

Preparing for Lectures

Know your course

Find out how your lectures relate to the course as a whole.

Do the seminars or tutorials prepare you for the lecture or do they follow up the content of the lectures?

Are there opportunities to discuss the lecture content in your seminars?

Look in your module handbook for more information or ask your tutor.

Reading before the Lecture

Find out if there is any recommended reading you can do in preparation for the lecture. Preparatory reading will make it easier for you to engage with the lecture content and provide you with a framework for making opinions and comparisons. When the lectures are linked in a series, you should also review your notes from the previous lecture.

Keep Your Focus

Limit the main points in a lecture to five or fewer.

Create effective visuals, analogies, demonstrations, and examples to reinforce the main points.

Share your outline with students.

Emphasize your objectives and key points in the beginning, as you get to them, and as a summary at the end.

Basic Presentation Skills

You don't need to be a charismatic showman to deliver a strong lecture; begin by refining your basic presentation skills. Avoid reading your lectures verbatim; if you must refer to your notes frequently, combine this with lots of eye contact. When making eye contact, actually look at specific individuals while you make a point; don't just continually scan the room. Individuals seem most comfortable with about five seconds of sustained eye contact.

When you lecture, speak clearly and not too rapidly. If students are busy taking notes, go even slower.

Face the students as much as possible, rather than facing the blackboard, projection screen, or laptop.

Try taping your lecture on a tape recorder and listen to yourself.

Engage Your Audience

Focus attention early on using a quote, a dramatic visual, an anecdote, or other material relevant to the topic. Integrate visuals, multimedia, discussion, active learning strategies, small-group techniques, and peer instruction. Link new material

to students' prior knowledge, such as common experiences or previous coursework. Can what you're teaching explain a phenomenon that students may have wondered about? Does what you're teaching contradict ideas that students may have about how the world works?

Show enthusiasm for the topic and information. Remember, you are modeling your discipline.

Give students time to think and genuine opportunities to respond.

Plan for diverse learners. Use verbal, visual, and kinesthetic approaches such as hands-on exercises and simulations.

Get Feedback

Observe students' non-verbal communication: note taking, response to questions, eye contact, seating patterns, and response to humor. Are they "with" you?

Use the "minute paper" or other assessment techniques. Ask students to respond in one or two sentences to the following questions: What stood out as most important in today's lecture? What are you confused about? Do this every few lectures—it will take you about 15 minutes to review the responses and you'll learn an enormous amount about your students. Give quizzes periodically on lecture objectives, not obscure material. Are they getting it? Conduct midterm teaching evaluations or simply ask the students for suggestions and comments at the midpoint of the quarter.

Handling Questions

You should go out of your way to encourage questions, although instructors have different preferences for how they take them. Let your students know if they can interrupt with questions or should save them for the end of the period. In either case, avoid going overtime, so there is a reasonable chance for students to formulate and ask questions. Here are some tips for encouraging, and responding to, questions: When asking if there are any questions, don't simply ask "Any questions?" with your back turned to the audience. Phrase it as a genuine invitation, such as "What parts of this are still a little unclear or confusing for you?" or "What do I need to explain again?" or "What are you wondering about that I haven't yet addressed?"

Make sure you understand the student's question before launching into a long explanation. Restate the question and let the student clarify, if necessary. In a large class, repeat a student's question so that all the students know what question you're answering. Consider reserving two- to three-minute blocks for questions at transition points in your lecture. Let students have the full time to think, even if nobody asks a question. This reinforces your commitment to answering questions and will encourage students to review the material recently covered. If you don't know the answer to a question, don't bluff. You can let the student know that the question goes well beyond what you can address in lecture, volunteer to find the answer and report back, or ask the student to investigate and report back to the class. Or, consider trying to work out an answer with the students, if the question seems solvable.

Handouts

If you give out copies of your lecture slides or notes, go out of your way to make sure students are actively engaging with the material. Use the note-taking time you have saved to build in student participation and other active learning exercises. Handouts can be particularly effective for presenting complex data, detailed material, examples, and diagrams. Focus on material you think there is a good chance students will need to review, especially if they need to apply it in an assignment.

Advantages of the Lecture

Effective lecturers can communicate the intrinsic interest of a subject through their enthusiasm.

Lectures can present material not otherwise available to students.

Lectures can be specifically organized to meet the needs of particular audiences.

Lectures can present large amounts of information.

Lectures can be presented to large audiences.

Lecturers can model how professionals work through disciplinary questions or problems.

Lectures allow the instructor maximum control of the learning experience.

Lectures present little risk for students.

Lectures appeal to those who learn by listening.

Disadvantages of the Lecture

Lectures fail to provide instructors with feedback about the extent of student learning.

In lectures students are often passive because there is no mechanism to ensure that they are intellectually engaged with the material.

Students' attention wanes quickly after fifteen to twenty-five minutes.

Information tends to be forgotten quickly when students are passive.

Lectures presume that all students learn at the same pace and are at the same level of understanding.

Lectures are not suited for teaching higher orders of thinking such as application, analysis, synthesis, or evaluation; for teaching motor skills, or for influencing attitudes or values.

Lectures are not well suited for teaching complex, abstract material.

Lectures requires effective speakers.

Lectures emphasize learning by listening, which is a disadvantage for students who have other learning styles.

Taking Notes

Avoid taking too many detailed notes. A dense transcript will be difficult to work with at a later stage. The following techniques will help you make structured, useful notes.

Using structure in your notes

Use headings to order information.

Give each point a new line or number it.

Highlight examples and illustrations.

Separate digressions from the main points.

Using your own words

Putting each point in your own words will help you understand and recall the lecture content.

Remember to

copy down important quotations or examples word for word;

separate quotations and examples from your own words;

record points you don't understand in the lecturer's words adding a question mark as a reminder to follow the point up later.

Using fewer words

Reduce the number of words you use in taking notes: detailed notes are of little use in remembering facts and ideas.

Use keywords to represent points or ideas briefly.

Add brief details of any examples or evidence that support a point.

Using abbreviations

Use standard abbreviations and subject specific abbreviations.

Make up your own abbreviations for common words, but be sure to be consistent.

Don't use so many abbreviations that your notes become a shorthand transcript; continue to use your own words.

Using space

Show structure in your notes e.g. putting each point on a new line.

Leave gaps for additions or corrections at a later date.

Make notes easier to read and review by using space to separate the points.

Using colour and image

Categorise points under colour coded headings.

Highlight in colour any points you want to remember.

Use images or diagrams as a quick way of describing a concept or idea.

You may want to consider using a diagrammatic style of note taking for lectures.

Using handouts

Lecturers use handouts to help you follow the lecture and to highlight important information. You can maximise the benefits of handouts by adding your own comments.

Highlight keywords.

Add colour to categorise information.

Add notes in the margin.

Organising your notes

A4 paper stored in a ring binder with dividers is the most practical system for organising notes.

Begin each lecture with a clear heading of the lecture title, date and name of the lecturer.

Number the pages clearly so they can be easily kept in order later on.

Active Listening

Hear What People Are Really Saying

Listening is one of the most important skills you can have. How well you listen has a major impact on your job effectiveness, and on the quality of your relationships with others.

For instance:

We listen to obtain information.

We listen to understand.

We listen for enjoyment.

We listen to learn.

Given all the listening that we do, you would think we'd be good at it! In fact, most of us are not, and research suggests that we only remember between 25 percent and 50 percent of what we hear. That means that when you talk to your boss, colleagues, customers, or spouse for 10 minutes, they pay attention to less than half of the conversation.

Turn it around and it reveals that when you are receiving directions or being presented with information, you aren't hearing the whole message either. You hope the important parts are captured in your 25-50 percent, but what if they're not?

Clearly, listening is a skill that we can all benefit from improving. By becoming a better listener, you can improve your productivity, as well as your ability to influence, persuade and negotiate. What's more, you'll avoid conflict and misunderstandings. All of these are necessary for workplace success!

Tip:

Good communication skills require a high level of self-awareness . Understanding your own personal style of communicating will go a long way toward helping you to create good and lasting impressions with others.

About Active Listening

The way to improve your listening skills is to practice "active listening." This is where you make a conscious effort to hear not only the words that another person is saying but, more importantly, the complete message being communicated. In order to do this you must pay attention to the other person very carefully. You cannot allow yourself to become distracted by whatever else may be going on around you, or by

forming counter arguments while the other person is still speaking. Nor can you allow yourself to get bored, and lose focus on what the other person is saying.

Tip:

If you're finding it particularly difficult to concentrate on what someone is saying, try repeating his or her words mentally as he says them – this will reinforce his message and help you to stay focused. To enhance your listening skills, you need to let the other person know that you are listening to what she is saying. To understand the importance of this, ask yourself if you've ever been engaged in a conversation when you wondered if the other person was listening to what you were saying. You wonder if your message is getting across, or if it's even worthwhile continuing to speak. It feels like talking to a brick wall and it's something you want to avoid.

Acknowledgement can be something as simple as a nod of the head or a simple "uh huh." You aren't necessarily agreeing with the person, you are simply indicating that you are listening. Using body language and other signs to acknowledge you are listening can also help you to pay attention. Try to respond to the speaker in a way that will encourage him to continue speaking, so that you can get the information that you need. While nodding and "uh huhing" says you're interested, an occasional question or comment to recap what has been said also communicates that you are listening and understanding his message.

Tip:

Be aware that active listening can give others the impression that you agree with them even if you don't. It's also important to avoid using active listening as a checklist of actions to follow, rather than really listening. It may help to practice Mindful Listening if you find that you lose focus regularly.

Becoming an Active Listener

There are five key active listening techniques you can use to help you become a more effective listener:

1. Pay Attention

Give the speaker your undivided attention, and acknowledge the message. Recognize that non-verbal communication also "speaks" loudly.

Look at the speaker directly.

Put aside distracting thoughts.

Don't mentally prepare a rebuttal!

Avoid being distracted by environmental factors. For example, side conversations.

"Listen" to the speaker's body language .

2. Show That You're Listening

Use your own body language and gestures to show that you are engaged.

Nod occasionally.

Smile and use other facial expressions.

Make sure that your posture is open and interested.

Encourage the speaker to continue with small verbal comments like yes, and "uh huh."

3. Provide Feedback

Our personal filters, assumptions, judgments, and beliefs can distort what we hear. As a listener, your role is to understand what is being said. This may require you to reflect on what is being said and to ask questions. Reflect on what has been said by paraphrasing. "What I'm hearing is... ," and "Sounds like you are saying... ," are great ways to reflect back.

Ask questions to clarify certain points. "What do you mean when you say... ." "Is this what you mean?"

Summarize the speaker's comments periodically.

Tip:

If you find yourself responding emotionally to what someone said, say so. And ask for more information: "I may not be understanding you correctly, and I find myself taking what you said personally. What I thought you just said is XXX. Is that what you meant?"

4. Defer Judgment

Interrupting is a waste of time. It frustrates the speaker and limits full understanding of the message.

Allow the speaker to finish each point before asking questions.

Don't interrupt with counter arguments.

5. Respond Appropriately

Active listening is designed to encourage respect and understanding. You are gaining information and perspective. You add nothing by attacking the speaker or otherwise putting her down.

- Be candid, open and honest in your response.
- Assert your opinions respectfully.

Exercise

1. **Listening means to respond to advice or request.**
   a. True
   b. False
2. **_____ is the last step of the listening process.**
   a. Receiving
   b. Interpreting
   c. Responding
   d. Stop talking

3. **Which step in the listening process involves assigning meaning to messages?**
   a. attending
   b. understanding
   c. selecting
   d. responding

4. **There is new evidence to suggest that _____ listeners are more likely to be skeptical when listening to information.**
   a. action-oriented
   b. people-oriented
   c. time-oriented
   d. content-oriented

5. **Which of these types of listening lacks depth?**
   a. Appreciative listening
   b. Superficial listening
   c. Focused listening
   d. Evaluative listening

6. **The self-absorbed listener is primarily focused on _____.**
   a. the ideas being communicated by others
   b. their own needs
   c. waiting patiently for the speaker to finish
   d. connecting with the speaker

7. **Which listening barrier occurs when the coarse language of the speaker offends a listener?**
   a. emotional noise
   b. criticizing the speaker
   c. external noise
   d. being self-absorbed

8. **In which of these types of listening, does the listener feel grateful?**
   a. Superficial listening
   b. Attentive listening
   c. Appreciative listening
   d. Evaluative listening

9. **Active listening involves responding in what three ways?**
   a. content, feelings, and thoughts
   b. emotionally, mentally, and spiritually
   c. mentally, verbally, and non-verbally
   d. emotionally, mentally, and verball

10. **A statement that causes someone to value him or herself less is called a _____.**
    a. direct acknowledgement
    b. clarifying response
    c. disconfirming response
    d. confirming response
11. **Which of these is not a type of listening?**
    a. Appreciative listening
    b. Superficial listening
    c. Focused listening
    d. Musical listening
12. **Which of the following is NOT a disconfirming response?**
    a. narcissistic response
    b. impersonal response
    c. irrelevant response
    d. tangential response
13. **Which of these types of listening is followed by skilled listeners?**
    a. Focused listening
    b. Evaluative listening
    c. Attentive listening
    d. Empathetic listening
14. **In which of these, the listener puts himself in place of the speaker?**
    a. Focused listening
    b. Evaluative listening
    c. Attentive listening
    d. Empathetic listening
15. **Which of these is the third step in the listening process?**
    a. Stop talking
    b. Interpreting
    c. Responding
    d. Receiving
16. **The average person speaks at what rate?**
    a. 125 words per minute
    b. 150 words per minute
    c. 75 words per minute
    d. 100 words per minute

17. **We have the ability to process approximately how many words of speech per minute?**
    a. 600-800 words per minute
    b. 400-600 words per minute
    c. 200-400 words per minute
    d. 800-1000 words per minute

18. **Which of these is not a step in the listening process?**
    a. To stop talking
    b. Receiving
    c. Misinterpreting
    d. Responding

19. **Which of the following is the best definition of empathy?**
    a. feeling sorry for another
    b. feeling that you want to help another
    c. feeling what someone else is feeling
    d. feeling sympathy for another

20. **Which of these is the first step in the listening process?**
    a. Stop talking
    b. Receiving
    c. Interpreting
    d. Responding

21. **According to research, about what percent of each day does the average person spend listening?**
    a. 90%
    b. 65%
    c. 45%
    d. 10%

22. **What is the last step in the listening process?**
    a. understanding
    b. selecting
    c. responding
    d. remembering

23. **The fear of misunderstanding others is called _____.**
    a. listener apprehension
    b. emotional noise
    c. physical noise
    d. information overload

24. **The tendency of a self-absorbed listener to require the conversation to focus on them is called _____.**

e. emotional noise
f. conversational monopoly
g. communication domination
h. conversational narcissism

Answer

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
11	12								
A	C	B	A	B	B	A	C	C	C
D	A								
13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
23	24								
B	D	B	A	A	C	C	A	C	C
A	D								

Modals Verbs

3

Modals (also called modal verbs, modal auxiliary verbs, modal auxiliaries) are special verbs which behave irregularly in English. They are different from normal verbs like "work, play, visit..." They give additional information about the function of the main verb that follows it. They have a great variety of communicative functions.

Here are some characteristics of modal verbs:

- They never change their form. You can't add "s", "ed", "ing"...
- They are always followed by an infinitive without "to" (e.i. the bare infinitive.)
- They are used to indicate modality allow speakers to express certainty, possibility, willingness, obligation, necessity, ability
- List of modal verbs

Here is a list of modal verbs:

- can, could, may, might, will, would, shall, should, must
- The verbs or expressions dare, ought to, had better, and need not behave like modal auxiliaries to a large extent and my be added to the above list

Use of modal verbs:

- Modal verbs are used to express functions such as:
- Permission
- Ability
- Obligation
- Prohibition
- Lack of necessity
- Advice
- possibility
- probability
- Examples of modal verbs

Here is a list of modals with examples:

1. Can

Use	Examples
ability to do sth. in the present (substitute form: to be able to)	I can speak English.
permission to do sth. in the present (substitute form: to be allowed to)	Can I go to the cinema?
request	Can you wait a moment, please?
offer	I can lend you my car till tomorrow.
suggestion	Can we visit Grandma at the weekend?
possibility	It can get very hot in Arizona.

2. Could

Use	Examples
ability to do sth. in the past (substitute form: to be able to)	I could speak English.
permission to do sth. in the past (substitute form: to be allowed to)	I could go to the cinema.
polite question *	Could I go to the cinema, please?
polite request *	Could you wait a moment, please?
polite offer *	I could lend you my car till tomorrow.
polite suggestion *	Could we visit Grandma at the weekend?
possibility *	It could get very hot in Montana.

3. May

Use	Examples
possibility	It may rain today.
permission to do sth. in the present (substitute form: to be allowed to)	May I go to the cinema?
polite suggestion	May I help you?

4. Might

Use	Examples
possibility (less possible than may) *	It might rain today.
hesitant offer *	Might I help you?

5. Must

Use	Examples
force, necessity	I must go to the supermarket today.
possibility	You must be tired.
advice, recommendation	You must see the new film with Brad Pitt.

6. Must not/may not

Use	Examples
prohibition (must is a little stronger)	You mustn't work on dad's computer.
You may not work on dad's computer.	

7. Need not

Use	Examples
sth. is not necessary	I needn't go to the supermarket, we're going to the restaurant tonight.

8. Ought to similar to should – ought to sounds a little less subjective

Use	Examples
advice	You ought to drive carefully in bad weather.
obligation	You ought to switch off the light when you leave the room.

9. shall – used instead of will in the 1st person

Use	Examples
suggestion	Shall I carry your bag?

10. should

Use	Examples
advice	You should drive carefully in bad weather.
obligation	You should switch off the light when you leave the room.

11. will

Use	Examples
wish, request, demand, order (less polite than would)	Will you please shut the door?
prediction, assumption	I think it will rain on Friday.

promise	I will stop smoking.
spontaneous decision	Can somebody drive me to the station? - I will.
habits	She's strange, she'll sit for hours without talking.

12. would

Use	Examples
wish, request (more polite than will)	Would you shut the door, please?
habits in the past	Sometimes he would bring me some flowers.

Remember

Modal verbs are followed by an infinitive without "to", also called the bare infinitive.

Examples:

You must stop when the traffic lights turn red.

You should see to the doctor.

There are a lot of tomatoes in the fridge. You need not buy any.

Modal Phrases (Semi-Modals)

Modal phrases (or semi-modals) are used to express the same things as modals, but are a combination of auxiliary verbs and the preposition to. Semi-modal auxiliary verbs, often simply called semi-modal verbs, are verbs that sometimes behave like modal auxiliary verbs. (They are also sometimes known as marginal modal verbs.) Like the "proper" modal verbs, they are used with the base form of verbs (the infinitive without to) to create a unique meaning.

Dare, need, used to, and ought to

Not all sources agree on the complete list of semi-modal verbs, but there are four that are widely considered as the standard set: dare, need, used to, and ought to. Dare and need are considered semi-modal because they can also function as main verbs, able to take nouns and infinitives as objects and to conjugate for person, tense, and number.

Ought to and used to, while unable to be main verbs, are considered semi-modal because they are always followed by infinitives (compared to "true" modals, which can never be followed by infinitives). As semi-modal verbs, these verbs are used in conjunction with "main" verbs to create a complete verb expression; they do not conjugate for third-person singular subjects; they do not have a simple past tense; and they cannot form infinitives, present participles, or past participles. We'll look at each of these verbs individually, examining when and how they function as semi-modal verbs.

Examples and Observations

"What you have become is the price you paid to get what you used to want." (Mignon McLaughlin, The Complete Neurotic's Notebook. Castle Books, 1981)

"Women have got to make the world safe for men since men have made it so darned unsafe for women."(Lady Nancy Astor)

"We had better dispense with the personification of evil, because it leads, all too easily, to the most dangerous kind of war: religious war." (Konrad Lorenz, On Aggression, 1963)

"Girl, you look so good, someone ought to put you on a plate and sop you up with a biscuit." (Arsenio Hall as Reverend Brown in Coming to America, 1988)

"Reckon somebody oughta help the poor guy." (Nigel in Finding Nemo, 2003)

"A great teacher is supposed to show them there are other points of view besides their own." (Matthew Morrison as Will Schuester, "The Substitute." Glee, 2010)

"I'm shaking the dust of this crummy little town off my feet and I'm going to see the world. Italy, Greece, the Parthenon, the Coliseum. Then I'm going to go to college and see what they know, and then I'm going to build things. I'm gonna build air fields. I'm gonna build skyscrapers a hundred stories high. I'm gonna build bridges a mile long." (George Bailey in It's a Wonderful Life [1946], adapted from the short story "The Greatest Gift" [1943] by Philip Van Doren Stern)

Strings of Semi-Auxiliaries

"Only the first word in a semi-auxiliary is a true auxiliary, since only that word functions as an operator, for example in forming questions:

Is Sandra going to apply for the job?

Had I better eat now?

Is Jennifer supposed to phone us today?

The semi-auxiliaries may come together to make a long string of verbs:

We seem to be going to have to keep on paying the full fee.

They are likely to be about to start working on our project.

(Sidney Greenbaum and Gerald Nelson, An Introduction to English Grammar, 3rd ed. Pearson, 2009)

The Habitual Past With Used to

"The past form of habitual aspect is often expressed by the semi-auxiliary used to:

Your mother used to sleep like a log.

People used to whitewash their ceilings.

My father used to bath us six kids in front of the fire.

These utterances describe situations that occurred habitually in the past."

(Thomas Edward Payne, Understanding English Grammar: A Linguistic Introduction. Cambridge University Press, 2010)

The Future With Going to

"The salient semantic and pragmatic features of going to which are generally underlined by grammarians are:

- its relatively informal style with respect to will (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002: 211). The widespread use of gonna (as opposed to going to in conversation is often a marker of informality; and it certainly is in written texts when spelt that way.
- its dual meaning of 'future fulfillment of present intention' and 'future result of present cause' (Quirk et al. 1985), which have often been summed up as its intentional meaning and its predictive meaning;
- its tendency to be used to indicate the proximity of a future event unless there is a time adverbial or context indicating otherwise (Declerck 1991: 114). The fact that the structure is that of the present progressive form of the verb to go would seem to underline strongly its connection with the present (Williams 2002: 102)."(Yiva Berglund and Christopher Williams, "The Semantic Properties of Going to: Distribution Patterns in Four Subcorpora of the British National Corpus." Corpus Linguistics 25 Years On, ed. by Roberta Facchinetti. Rodopi, 2007)

Markings for Tense and Person

"[S]ome of the semi-modals, like have to and be going to, can be marked for tense and person:

- past tense:

He had to call the police. (CONV)

- third-person agreement:

Maybe she has to grow up a bit more. (CONV)

These semi-modals can sometimes co-occur with a central modal verb or another semi-modal."

Can, Could, Be Able To

Can, could and be able to are used to express a variety of ideas in English:

Ability/Lack of Ability

Present and Future:

can/can't + base form of the verb

Ex—

Tom can write poetry very well.

I can help you with that next week.

Lisa can't speak French.

am / is / are / will be + able to + base form of the verb

am not/ isn't / aren't/ won't be + able to + base form of the verb

Ex—

Mike is able to solve complicated math equations

The support team will be able to help you in about ten minutes.

I won't be able to visit you next summer.

Past:

could / couldn't + base form of the verb

Ex—

When I was a child I could climb trees.

was / were + able to + base form of the verb

wasn't / weren't + able to + base form of the verb

hasn't / haven't + been able to + base form of the verb

Ex—

I wasn't able to visit her in the hospital.

He hasn't been able to get in touch with the client yet.

Note: Can and could do not take an infinitive (to verb) and do not take the future auxiliary will.

Ex—

Incorrect: I can to help you this afternoon.

Correct: I can help you this afternoon.

Correct: I will (I'll) be able to help you this afternoon.

Possibility / Impossibility

can / can't + base form of the verb

Ex—

You can catch that train at 10:43.

He can't see you right now. He's in surgery.

could + base form of the verb

Ex—

I could fly via Amsterdam if I leave the day before.

Ask Permission / Give Permission

Can + Subject + base form of the verb (informal)

Ex—

Can you lend me ten dollars?

Can + base form of the verb (informal)

Ex—

You can borrow my car.

Could + subject + base form of the verb (polite)

Ex—

Could I have your number?

Could I talk to your supervisor please?

Make a suggestion – To make a suggestion use:

Could + base form of the verb (informal)

Ex—

You could take the tour of the castle tomorrow.

Exercises: Can, Could, Be able to

Fill in the correct form of can, could or be able to as in the examples.

Ben could not help his little brother with his homework yesterday.

Can I call you later tonight?

1. _____ Tony run long distances when he was a boy?
2. _____ you please call a tow truck for me? My car broke down. (polite)
3. The students _____ to buy their textbooks today. The bookstore is all out of them.
4. _____ you teach me how to fix my computer? You're so good at it.
5. _____ you _____ reach the customer if you call him at 4:00 his time?

Answers:

1. Could 2. Could 3. aren't able 4. Can 5. Will/be able to

May, Might

Formal Permission / Formal Prohibition

may / may not + base form of the verb

Ex—

You may start your exam now.

You may not wear sandals to work.

Polite Request

May + subject + base form of the verb

Ex—

May I help you?

Possibility / Negative Possibility

may/ might + base form of the verb

Ex—

We may go out for dinner tonight. Do you want to join us?

Our company might get the order if the client agrees to the price.

may not / might not + base form of the verb

Ex—

Adam and Sue may not buy that house. It's very expensive.

They might not buy a house at all.

To Make a Suggestion (when there is no better alternative)

may as well / might as well + base form of the verb

Ex—

You may as well come inside. John will be home soon.

We might as well take Friday off. There's no work to be done anyway.

Polite Suggestion

might + base form of the verb

Ex—

You might like to try the salmon fillet. It's our special today.

Exercises: May / Might

Fill in the correct form of may or might as in the example.

Ex—

May I sit here?

1. They _____ finish the project on time. The main engineer is ill.
2. You _____ want to stop by the museum gift shop on your way out.
3. _____ I have your autograph?
4. He _____ visit the Louvre. He's in Paris anyway.
5. You _____ park your car here. It's reserved for guests of the hotel only.

Answers:

1. might not .2 might 3. May 4. may as well 5. may not

Shall, Should, Ought to

To Offer of Assistance or Polite Suggestion (When you are quite sure of a positive answer)

Shall + subject + base form of the verb

Ex—

Shall we go for a walk?

Note: Shall is only used with I or we. It is used instead of will only in formal English.

Ex—

To Offer of Assistance or Polite Suggestion (When you are not sure of a positive answer)

Should + subject + base form of the verb

Ex—

Should I call a doctor?

A Prediction or Expectation that Something Will Happen

should/shouldn't + base form of the verb

Ex—

The proposal should be finished on time.

I shouldn't be late. The train usually arrives on time.

To Give Advice

should / ought to + base form of the verb

Ex—

You should check that document before you send it out.

You ought to have your car serviced before the winter.

To Give Advice (about something you think wrong or unacceptable)
shouldn't + base form of the verb
Ex—
James shouldn't teach him words like those.
Exercises: Should, Shouldn't, Ought To
Fill in should, shouldn't or ought in the following sentences as in the example.
Ex—
He shouldn't encourage such bad behavior.

1. You _____ get your teeth cleaned at least once a year.
2. The house _____ be ready to move into by next month. It's almost finished.
3. Ron _____ to improve his attitude. If he doesn't, he might get fired.
4. _____ I get your jacket? It's cold in here.
5. You _____ put your feet on the table. It's not polite.

Answers:
1. should 2. should 3. ought 4. shall 5. shouldn't

Must, Have to, Need to, Don't have to, Needn't

Necessity or Requirement
Present and Future:
must / have to / need to + base form of the verb
Ex—
You must have a passport to cross the border.
Elisabeth has to apply for her visa by March 10th.
I need to drop by his room to pick up a book.
Past:
had to / needed to + base form of the verb
Ex—
I had to work late last night.
I needed to drink a few cups of coffee in order to stay awake.
Note: have to and need to are often used in the same context, but many times, need to is used to express something that is less urgent, something in which you have a choice.
Ex—
Almost 100% Certain
must + base form of the verb
Ex—
Thomas has lived in Paris for years. His French must be very good.
To Persuade
must / have to + base form of the verb

Ex—

You must try this wine. It's excellent.

You have to visit us while you're in town.

Prohibited or Forbidden

must not / mustn't + base form of the verb

Ex—

You must not drive over the speed limit.

You mustn't leave medicines where children can get to them.

Lack of Necessity

don't /doesn't /didn't + have to + base form of the verb

Ex—

You don't have to park the car. The hotel valet will do it for you.

Tim doesn't have to go to school today. It's a holiday.

You didn't have to shout. Everyone could hear you.

needn't + base form of the verb

Ex—

You needn't worry about me. I'll be fine.

Exercises: Must, Have to, Need to, Don't Have to, Needn't

Fill in the blanks with one of these modals:

must, must not, have to, has to, don't have to, doesn't have to, needn't as in the examples.

There may be more than one correct answer.

Ex—

Shira doesn't have to drive to the airport. She's going by taxi.

You must speak politely to the customers.

1. You _____ tell Anna about the party tomorrow night. It's a surprise! (must not, need to, doesn't have to)
2. Tina _____ register for her classes on Monday, otherwise she won't get a place in them. (doesn't have to, mustn't, has to)
3. You _____ send that fax. I've already sent it. (must, will have to, don't have to)
4. A dog _____ get special training in order to be a guide dog. (must, need to, don't have to)
5. Jeremy _____ get up early tomorrow. His class was cancelled. (mustn't, doesn't have to, don't need to)

Answers:

1. must not 2. has to 3. don't have to 4. must 5. doesn't have to

Modals: Will / Would

will / won't + base form of the verb

John will pick you up at 7:00am.

Beth won't be happy with the results of the exam.

Polite Request or Statement

Will / Would + base form of the verb

Ex—

Will you please take the trash out?

Would you mind if I sat here?

I'd (I would) like to sign up for your workshop.

Habitual Past Action

Would/Wouldn't + base form of the verb

Ex—

When I was a child, I would spend hours playing with my train set.

Peter wouldn't eat broccoli when he was a kid. He loves it now.

Exercises: will, would

Fill in the blanks with one of the following words: will, won't, would, wouldn't.

Ex—

Will you please help me lift this box?

1. I _____ like to order the onion soup please.
2. The manager _____ be pleased to hear that a customer slipped on the wet floor.
3. _____ it be okay if I slept here tonight?
4. When Igor lived in Russia, he _____ call his mother as often as he does now.
5. I can assure you sir, the order _____ be shipped out tonight.

Answers:

1. would 2. won't 3. would 4. wouldn't 5. will

Exercises – All Modals

Fill in the blanks with the correct form of the following modals:

can, could, be able to, may, might, shall, should, must, have to, don't have to, need to

– You may have to make the modals negative according to the context of the sentence.

– There may be more than one possibility.

Ex—

1. He has to take his car to be serviced. The brakes are squeaking.
2. Would you please save me a seat at the dinner event.

Ex–

1. If you are sick, you _____ go to work. You'll infect everyone there.
2. Drivers _____ stop at red lights.
3. You _____ finish the proposal today. You can finish it tomorrow.
4. She _____ hear much better with her new hearing aids.
5. _____ I order us a bottle of wine?
6. Sam _____ pick his daughter up from school. She's taking the bus home.
7. You _____ smoke here. It's a smoke-free building.
8. You _____ eat so many sweets. They are bad for you.
9. _____ you mind walking a little faster? We're going to be late.
10. –sorry. I _____ help you. I don't know how to do it.

Answers:

1. shouldn't 2. must 3. don't have to 4. can 5. shall 6. needn't 7. mustn't 8. shouldn't 9. would 10. can't

ORAL SKILL

Oral work forms the basis of good learning of the language. In fact, this strengthens the of language learning. A student who is good in oral work, is obviously good in reading and writing of the language, listening and speaking are quite not only in the first stages or in the early stages of learning the language, it is relevent throughout. So it should not be cut down or omitted. Speaking is the essential ground work for every phase of learning English.

For Conducting Oral work Methods

1. Reproduction Exercises

a. The teacher speaks words one by one and students listen to him and reproduce those words one by one.

b. The teacher makes a sound and asks the students to reproduce it in the same way. It is done in chorus, in group or individually.

c. The teacher speaks full sentences one by one. The students listen to him carefully. Sufficient practice is given to them.

2. Question-Answers

a. Questions and Answers may be between two student also.

b. Questions and Answers can be done between the teacher and the monitor.

c. In order to give practise to the student for listening and speaking skill, the teachers asks the questions to the student one by one and same should be answered by the students.

Dramatisation

Teacher can involve some student to dramatize any situations. The dialogues may be given to the students as per their role assigned to them.

(a) By showing a film

The students of the class are shown a film for a few minutes and then they are asked to speak a few sentences on the theme of the movie. They get listening and speaking opportunities.

(b) By outlining of a story

The teacher provides an outline of a story and the students then speak a few sentences about it. This gives the whole class a lot ot listening and speaking practice.

(c) Through oral composition

Oral composition evolves the skill of speaking for some time. Any topic is taken up and the students are asked to speak on it. The teacher may give some guidance wherever needed. This exercise gives a lot of listening and speaking practice.

(d)By performing Actions

The teacher performs movement and the students are asked to observe the actions and speak accordingly. The students are asked to do the actions and also speak whatever they are doing.

(e) By Picturisation or charts

The teacher presents a picture or a chart in the class and the students of the class are asked to speak on it one by one. Through This they get a lot of listening and speaking practice.

(i) In every teaching class, some time must be reserved for giving listening and speaking practice to the students. It paves the way to good learning of the language. While teaching anythings of English, may be grammar, poetry, prose, composition, oral approach should be made the basis of teaching. It will lead to effective teaching of English.

Benefits of Oral Work

The advantage of oral work are asserted below:

a. It aids the students in becoming good debaters, orators.
b. It removes hesitation and shyness of the speaker.
c. It makes th students active participants in the process of teaching and learning.
d. It enables the learner to make all the links and associations in his mind needed to fix words.
e. A good speaker generally possesses a good personality. That is the impact of spoken language on him.
f. Student became good listeners.

g. It raises the comprehension ability of the students.

h. The students at the early phase of learning the language got a lot of pleasure and excitement in oral approach.

i. They evolve the skill of speaking.

j. It aids them to get fluency in spoken language.

k. It lays the foundation of good speech.

l. Student get a lot of pleasure and enjoyment in learning rhymes and their recitation.

m. It helps the students to form the habit of using correct sentence patterns.

n. It aids the students much when they are to generalize or they are to make a rule in grammar by the inductive technique.

Precautions: To make oral work successful the teacher should keep the following thing in mind:—

a. When oral practice to an individual is given, no interruption should be there. That would effect fluency and it would discourage the learner.

b. A person should be aided to talk before he is enabled to talk Properly.

c. Some time a student gets stuck up in the middle while speaking. The teacher should have a sympathetic and confident outlook.

d. Individual attention must be paid to the learners.

e. The class should be divided into small groups. Having 8 or 10 only. In each group, every student finds time for oral work.

f. In this age of over crowded, it is quite difficult to have small groups but a good teacher is able to have efficient functioning of group work. So good teacher should be given job.

g. One or two periods per section be given for oral work.

h. Activities through given cirumstances proved to be helpful for the students to learn the language well.

i. The teacher should come well prepared so as to make the oral work interesting for the students.

Oral work is the basis for efficient learning of the language. Determination in this aspect of language teaching should not be tolerated. It must be provided top-most significance. It is the foundation for teaching learning of the language. The foundation need to be strong and firm. A teacher has to improve upon its effectiveness in class room teachings. That is the panacea to remove ills in the arena of teaching English and this is the sure method to improve the standards of English.

Rhythm in Connected Speech

A very important point to remember in the Case of English connected speech is that English is said to have a stress timed rhythm. This means that in an English utterance the strong or prominent or accented syllables have the tendency to occur at regular intervals of time, irrespective of the number of un-accented syllables between any two accented syllables. For example, consider the following sentence—

'Tom has 'just re'turned from London

In this sentence, there is one unaccented syllable between any two accented syllables and therefore it is quite easy for a speaker to speak the sentence in such a way that the accented syllables occur at regular intervals but consider a sentence like the following—

My 'friend has ar'ranged for my re'turn trip

This sentence has ten syllables, four of which receives the accent. The first two accented syllables have two unaccented syllables between them. The next two accented syllables have three unaccented syllables between them. The last two accented syllables have no unaccented syllable between them. Inspite of this, a speaker has to say the sentence in such a way that the time interval between any two accented syllables remains the same. This is very important feature of English connected speech. If this characteristic is ignored, the feature rhythm of English language will be lost. In order to have a command over the accented syllables and the unaccented syllables the learner should accomplish some regularity in their pronunciation they should pronounce them carefully and should taken proper care of those stressed syllables which have no unaccented syllables between them.

Let us now discuss the weak forms of English as it is one of the important aspect of English Rhythm.

Weak Forms. There are so many English words which have two or more quantitative and qualitative patterns based upon whether they are stressed or not. When these words are pronounced in isolation, the strong forms of these words are used. But when they are not stressed, the weak forms of these words are used. The weak forms exhibit reductions of the length of sounds, weakening of the vowels in them or elusion of vowels and consonants. Here are few syntaxes given below—

	Word	Strong Form	Weak Form
(i)	has	\haez\	\haz\
			\az\
(ii)	and	\aend\	\z\
			\and\
			\an\
			\n\
(iii)	can	\kan\	
(iv)	could	\k d\	\kad\
(v)	does	\d^z\	\az\
			\z\
(vi)	the	\OI:\	\OI\ (before vowels)
			\Oa\ (before consonants)

(vii)	shall	\ ei\	\ I\
			\I\
(viii)	am	\aem\	\am\
			\m\

Exercise

1. **But now that I have finished college and have a job, I realize that living at home _____ drive my parents and me crazy. (potentially)**
   a. could
   b. would
   c. should
   d. would have
2. **..... I go to the bathroom, please?**
   a. May
   b. Must
   c. Would
   d. Would have
3. **Before this year, I _____ move out of my parents' house because I did not have a job.**
   a. may not
   b. cannot
   c. should not
   d. could not
4. **His excuse ..... be true, but I don't believe.**
   a. can
   b. may
   c. should
   d. would have
5. **It's very important to ..... speak more than one language.**
   a. can
   b. be able to
   c. should
   d. would have
6. **I don't like ..... get up early on a Sunday.**
   a. being able to
   b. being allowed to

c. having to
d. would have

7. **..... you speak French? - Only a few words, but my Russian is pretty good.**
a. Can
b. Could
c. should
d. would have

8. **I didn't feel very well yesterday. I couldn't eat anything.**
a. cannot
b. couldn't
c. mustn't
d. should

9. **You should look at me when I am talking to you.**
a. could
b. should
c. would
d. would have

10. **I was using my pencil a minute ago. It must be here somewhere!**
a. can
b. could
c. must
d. would

11. **You really ..... be late again.**
a. must not
b. don't have to be
c. should
d. would have

12. **My parents are happy for me, but warned, "You _____ spend all your money each month. Save a little extra money for unexpected emergencies."**
a. mustn't
b. don't have to
c. must not have
d. aren't able to

13. **I know that everyone _____ save a little extra money, but it is hard with so many bills to pay.**
a. must
b. is supposed to
c. has to
d. was able to

14. **I made a few purchases. The first thing that I _____ was furniture.**
    a. must have
    b. had to have
    c. must have had
    d. have to have

15. **I _____ on the wood floor, but it was too hard, so I bought a sofa-bed.**
    a. could sleep
    b. couldn't sleep
    c. could have slept
    d. could of slept

16. **It _____ about a year until I am able to completely furnish my apartment.**
    a. must take
    b. will take
    c. would take
    d. will have taken

17. **What do you want to do? - Well, we ..... have a picnic, but it looks like rain.**
    a. can
    b. could
    c. should
    d. would

18. **By this time next year, I _____ a lot about living independently.**
    a. must learn
    b. will learn
    c. would learn
    d. will have learned

19. **..... take a photograph of you?**
    a. Am I allowed to
    b. May I
    c. should
    d. would have

20. **Students ..... borrow up to 6 books at any time.**
    a. are allowed to
    b. could
    c. should
    d. would have

21. **Whose is this bag? - I don't know, but it ..... belong to Yuta.**
    a. could
    b. may

c. should
d. would

22. **If you don't start working harder, you ..... repeat the course next year.**
a. have to
b. must
c. will have to
d. would have

23. **His parents spoil him. He's always ..... to do whatever he wants.**
a. been able
b. been allowed
c. should
d. would have

24. **Phone her now. She ..... home by now.**
a. has to be
b. must be
c. would be
d. would have

25. **You ..... forget your sun cream. It's going to be very hot!**
a. don't have to
b. mustn't
c. needn't
d. would have

26. **I ..... be able to help you, but I'm not sure yet.**
a. might
b. would
c. should
d. would have

27. **Unfortunately, it's not so easy to find to find an apartment in the city. Without an agent, you _____ not be able to find all the available listings.**
a. ought to
b. must
c. should
d. might

28. **How did you do in the test? - Ok. It ..... worse!**
a. could be
b. could have been
c. might be
d. would have been

29. **He ..... broken the classroom window. He wasn't even in school today.**
    a. couldn't have
    b. mustn't
    c. shouldn't have
    d. would have

30. **You ..... tired. You've only just got out of bed!**
    a. don't have to be
    b. can't be
    c. mustn't be
    d. would have

31. **She ..... be very pleased with herself. She got the best grades.**
    a. has to
    b. must
    c. cannot
    d. would have

32. **..... you help me move this table? (Both answers are possible. Choose the more polite request.)**
    a. Can
    b. Could
    c. should
    d. would have

33. **I ..... talk already before I was two years old.**
    a. could
    b. should
    c. would
    d. would have

34. **I ..... help you, but I don't want to.**
    a. can
    b. could
    c. would
    d. would have

35. **..... you open the window, please.**
    a. Can
    b. May
    c. should
    d. would have

36. **I ..... move the table. It was too heavy.**
    a. couldn't
    b. mustn't
    c. shouldn't
    d. wouldn't

37. **You ..... not put your feet on the cafeteria tables.**
    a. must not
    b. do not have to
    c. should
    d. would have

38. **If you continue to practise so hard, you ..... beat me before too long!**
    a. can
    b. could
    c. will be able to
    d. would have

39. **Before now, I coudn't sign a lease, but now I _____ because I am twenty-one.**
    a. able
    b. can
    c. can able
    d. can do

40. **I asked my friends to help me move because I knew that I _____ fit all my possessions into my little car.**
    a. can't be able to
    b. not able to
    c. don't be able to
    d. couldn't

41. **My best friend said, "I _____ help you move next week."**
    a. able to
    b. would be able to
    c. be able to
    d. will be able to

42. **He added, "I _____ help earlier in the morning than later in the afternoon." (preference)**
    a. would better
    b. would like
    c. would have
    d. would rather

43. You can come to the meeting if you want but you .....

a. have to
b. don't have to
c. mustn't
d. would have

44. My father also offered to help me move. He _____ be really eager to have me move out! (conclusion)

a. must
b. will
c. can
d. ought to

45. Another friend told me that he _____ me move, but he never showed up.

a. would help
b. would have helped
c. will help
d. would helped

46. With the help of three friends, I ___ get all my possessions into the new condo. (managed to).

a. can
b. could
c. am able to
d. was able to

47. Entrance to the museum was free. We ..... pay to get in.

a. needn't
b. didn't need to
c. should
d. would have

48. Already as a child Mozart ..... play the piano beautifully.

a. could
b. should
c. would
d. would have

49. Which sign are you more likely to see at an airport: Bags ..... not be left unattended.

a. can
b. must
c. may
d. would have

50. I really ..... try to get fit.

a. may
b. must
c. would
d. would have

51. I'm so hungry I ..... eat a horse!

a. can
b. could
c. must
d. should

52. The test starts at 10.30. You ..... be late.

a. don't have to
b. mustn't
c. should
d. would have

53. Why didn't you tell me? I ..... you!

a. could help
b. could have helped
c. was able to help
d. would help

54. ..... you swim? (Both are possible. Which is better?)

a. Are you able to
b. Can
c. should
d. would have

55. You ..... eat so much chocolate. It's not good for you.

a. don't have to
b. mustn't
c. shouldn't
d. would have

56. I'm afraid I ..... play tennis tomorrow. I've got a dentist appointment.

a. can't
b. couldn't
c. would not be able to
d. would have

Answer

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
A	A	D	B	B	C	A	B	B	C
11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
A	A	B	B	C	C	B	D	B	A
21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
B	C	B	B	B	A	D	B	A	B
31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
B	B	A	B	A	A	A	C	B	D
41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50
D	D	B	A	A	D	B	A	B	B
51	52	53	54	55	56				
B	B	B	B	C	A				

Reading Activity

4

Reading skill is acquired in a relatively predictable way by children who have normal or above-average language skills; have had experiences in early childhood that fostered motivation and provided exposure to literacy in use; get information about the nature of print through opportunities to learn letters and to recognize the internal structure of spoken words, as well as explanations about the contrasting nature of spoken and written language; and attend schools that provide effective reading instruction and opportunities to practice reading. Disruption of any of these developments increases the possibility that reading will be delayed or impeded. The association of poor reading outcomes with poverty and minority status no doubt reflects the accumulated effects of several of these risk factors, including lack of access to literacy-stimulating preschool experiences and to excellent, coherent reading instruction. In addition, a number of children without any obvious risk factors also develop reading difficulties. These children may require intensive efforts at intervention and extra help in reading and accommodations for their disability throughout their lives. Reading is one of the major skills in language learning. It is areceptive skill. It is a means of fixing firmly the language items which have already been learnt by the child as a part of listening and speaking.

In teaching children to read, we have three main aims.

1. To give them full control over the words and pattern during the process of speaking.
2. To give them pleasure when they read from the printed pages given to them or from their text books.
3. To give them accurate knowledge to make available the beauty of word and emotions.

One of the things students soon realize about college is that they must learn most things on their own, and often, this requires them to locate resources outside the classroom. This is not a foreign idea for those accustomed to finding a tutor in working math problems or writing essays; but, when it comes to asking for help in reading and comprehending a textbook, students are sometimes hesitant to reveal any difficulties they may be experiencing.

We all know how to read, right? It's just a matter of concentrating and re-reading until we get it, right?

Wrong. This is a misconception, and it is common. When it comes to reading, we may have little idea of what we know and what we don't know. In other words, we lack metacognitive skills. Something we must all remember is that most people, no matter how much practice we have had, can improve in reading. This is particularly true when we must read about an unfamiliar topic, and this happens frequently in college. Becoming acquainted with the academic resources of a campus is vital to one's success, and self-study is key. Take the time to browse and study the information in this site. Students who know how to assess their understanding, apply fix-up strategies, access information, develop prior knowledge, determine main ideas, build vocabulary, draw inferences, and ask critical questions are better prepared to cope with the rigors of psychology, biology, and history.

ANALYSIS OF THE READING SKILL

Before we go further about the stages and methods used in teaching reading, it is desirable to state several facts which are the out come of observation and experimentation.

(1) Constituents of Reading

The reading skill Comprises of:

a. The acquisition of proper eye-movement.

b. The ablility to translate visual symbols into a stream of sounds. and associate the meaning.

(2) The Basis of Reading

While the printed symbol, the child recalls the sound hidden in that symbol and it is this sound that gives the meaning of that symbol. So, we not only see and read a printed word but also talk it to get its meaning "Learning thus to talk," observes Prof. C.C. Fries "Constitutes the basis upon which a child must build to learn to read. So, "the Process of learning to read is the process to transfer from the auditory signs of language signals which the child has already learned, to the new visual signs for the same signals."

The evolvement of reading skills among the students is one of the major objectives of teaching a language. A teacher cannot evolve such skills in his students unless he possesses the needed skills in him-self. These teaching skills are:

a. Skill of Asking Questions
b. Skill of Diagnosing Reading Difficulties
c. Skill of Organising Practice Sessions
d. Skill of Organising Reading Games
e. Skill of Evaluating Reading Skills
f. Selection of Reading Material

g. Preparation of Reading Material

h. Presentation of Reading Material

1. Selection of Reading Material: For Proper evolution of language of an individual he has to develop his reading skills first of all. He put emphasis on this reading abilities. In order to enhance the reading abilities, Reader needs some reading materials but for selecting a reading material one has to be very careful. Students can seek the help of their teacher in selecting a good reading material. He knows well to what extent considering the interests and anticipations as well as the psycho-physical requirements of his students. He is to select the reading material bearing in mind all such factors. He has to give due attention to the language used in the reading material. If the vocabulary or structures pose a lot of problems to the students, they will not take much interest in reading. Hence, the teacher should go through the reading material under consideration very carefully and judge its suitability.

The content should be of great interest to the learners. It should provide variety to them. The teacher must attempts to select reading material that aids in the personality development of his students. The students should be given such reading material as may aid in the cultivation of good qualities and habits. The development of various social-moral values, patriotism and love for humanity should also be the aim while choosing the subject-matter. Expansion of knowledge and keeping pace with the fast evolving world can be possible only when our students in schools are kept abreast of the latest knowledge and information in several aspects of human activity.

2. Preparation of Reading Meterial: Responsibility of selecting of reading material lies with the teacher but if teacher is unable to find any appropriate study material for the students then it is the duty of the teacher to prepare the reading material for the students.

The teacher should have a good habit of getting the latest information. Unless the teacher is aware of the latest knowledge available, he will not be able to prepare proper reading material for his students. He must pay due attention to all considerations of age, mental level, linguistic background, interest motivation, vocabulary, structures, style, variety, etc. discussed above for selection of reading material for students.

3. Presentation of Reading Material: After preparing the reading meterial the teacher should present them in the class as per the requirement of the student. If the material so prapared by the teachers does not prove satisfactory for the students then it would be of no use for the teachers. Firstly, the teacher has to make sure that such reading material is available in the school as well as with the students in the form of textbooks and supplementary books both, or that which is prepared by the teacher for. Then he must also attempt to develop skills for proper organization of the reading material in the class book-shelves or the school library. For this purpose, he require to acquaint himself with the several skills needed for such organization of reading material. He requires to know how to arrange the reading material in a systematic way. He is required to categorize the diverse kind of reading material. For doing so the teacher may also be required to acquire the skills of arranging books or journals, etc. according to the accession number given to each using some symbolic abbreviations.

Now it is also anticipated of a teacher to present the subject-matter for reading in his classrooms.

The Material prepared by the teacher should be based on the particular lesson which is to be taught by the teacher in the classroom. Teacher must read the study material loudly in the class with correct pronunciation in intonation, accent etc and then he/she should ask the student to copy him. Therefore, each word must be distinctly clear and the effective reading should be done with correct. The teacher should modulate his own voice as per the need and requirement of the content. The meanings of the difficult words and phrases must be explained. Similarly the reading material for extensive reading has to be taken up in accordance with the objective of the same. The teacher must find out the common difficulties of learners related to the vocabulary, structures and content. He must put in efforts to explain the same according to the level of the learners. He should also help them to find out relevant question answers selected to the reading Meterial

4. Skill of Asking Questions: The skill reading also include the skill of asking Questions. This is a very relevant skill because a learner is kept active by the teacher using this skill. Questions can be asked before presenting a reading material, during its presentation, and after the teacher has presented the contents. Sometimes asking questions is regarded to be something very easy, but in fact it is not so. The teacher has to be very particular in asking questions and ensure that only proper and relevant questions are asked. For this it is better if the teacher reads the material beforehand and plans for himself to decide how many questions or what type of questions he should ask at a particular stage of teaching reading. There is no use of asking question which most of the learners are not able to comprehend. So the teacher should keep it in mind that, the language of the question should be clear, simple and grammatically correct. The teacher must ask questions slowly not in that a series of questions asked in the classroom. Another thing to be taken by the teacher is the which can create confusion for the students length of the question. The questions should not be too lengthy, In a class of beginners the teacher has to make short questions to ask inter-related questions.

The teacher should be very particular about his question asking skills.

Mere asking question may not be so fruitful unless the teacher evolves in his the skill of shaping-responses. That is to say that the teacher is anticipated to pay due attention to the response given by students. The teacher has to appreciate the correct response, respect or reinforce the same in the achievement of several objectives aims and objectives of learning language. The teacher must proceed further from simple to difficult questions slowly. Moreover, the questioning should not be extremely so simple that every learner knows the answer and finds no difficulty. The teacher must also ask probing question in order to get a desired response.

5. Skill of Diagnosing Reading Difficulties: This is one of the important skills of a teacher as teacher has to be very efficient to find the reading difficulties of the students. He/She enable the students to find the secondly of their problem on their own. If they are not able to find answer to their problem then the teacher should be so responsible that he can help the students in finding the solution of his difficulties.

The students may have some physical or biological or psychological difficulties, and reading may be difficult for them. Sometimes the teaching of the mother-tongue may cause hindrance in reading because they have families with the right shape of letters, correct spellings or vocabulary and structures. The insufficient Linguistic background and lack of practice in listening and speaking create a lot of difficulties. Hence, the teacher must be able to lood out these difficulties. There are some other students who do not read properly when they are to do so independently, but can read effectively with others in a small group.

Therefore the teacher has to be specific in finding out where is the difficulties or problems of the students lie. He has to take up remedial steps in order to bring about improvement in the student. The teacher can take up common problems together in the class as a whole or in a small group.

6. Skill of Organising Practice Sessions: For the proper evolvements of the reading skills of the students teacher must organise regular practise session so as to decrease his mistake he does while reading teacher should always be initiative in this respect. Even after corrections of the individual or collective mistakes committed by the students in reading there is a need to give sufficient practice for improvement. If such practice is given without any planning or pre-thinking, it fails to give adequate results. Hence it is expected of a teacher that, bearing in mind the needs and requirements of his students in a particular situation, he must take up the necessary steps so that the students may put in efforts and improve their reading skill.

The teacher must keep the students active. They must be motivated to read with the audio-visual aids. The teacher may use flash cards, short stories parts of some scenes from some one-act play may create students interest in reading. The organization of the next practice sessions should be performed accordingly. The practice in loud as well as silent reading is essential. The teacher must give such practice to maximum number of students in the class, according to some sequence or order already announced. The students will not be attentive if such a definite order is not given and will simply wait for their own turn to come. Teacher should teach the student how to read while doing silent reading. They are not supposed to murmus, whisper or make sounds while silent reading is done by them in the class room.

7. Skill of Organising Reading Games: For enhancing the reading ablities of the students a teacher can like reading games in the class. It will create an atmosphere of reading in the class and also create the interest of the students in reading some home assigments based on them can also given . The teacher may hold competition and announce scores. He may provide some incentives in the form of words of appreciation, award of position, merit certificates on the basis of performance in reading during a particular month. Paper-Reading competitions in relevant and interesting topics may be held. Such activities be organized for reading of words, Phrases, complete sentence and short paragraphs. The teacher may organize such reading games for opposite words, synonyms, forms of verbs, degrees of adjectives i.e. word building exercises.

The teacher may teach composition lesson in a play way method. The teacher may write down the difference of sentences on small pieces of thick paper on each slip and write a part of some sentence. Then the students may be asked to search for the

matching parts of sentence or matching sentences. The students may be grouped in some small groups and each group may be asked to compose one paragraph each with the help of slips provided to them by the teacher. The group which is able to compose the paragraph first of all is declared as the winner and so on.

8. Skill of Evaluation Reading skills: The teacher is required to assess the reading skills. He has to plan the evaluation work properly keeping in mind the level of the learners. Simple words and short sentences can be given to the students for evaluation of reading aloud. The teacher has to assess their reading abilities on the grounds of correctness of pronunciation of sounds, stress, rhythm, speed, fluency, etc. The teacher may plan activities where the learners are needed to read aloud. While the students read out from the text, the teacher must assess reading by each student. Similarly some pictures with brief descriptions may be shown and the students may be asked to respond to some relevant question on the basis ot their reading. Similarly the evaluation of silent reading by the students is to be done. The teacher can say to the learning to title of the reading material which is provided to them.

The following are the essential skills in the reading process:

(1) Eye-Movements: In the reading process eyes is important. If we just watch the eyes of a person who is reading, we find that eye-movements are not steady or even or smooth along the lines of the print. A series of jumps or jerks are visible. There are a few pauses or short stops or fixations during the uneven jumps. It is during these fixations that the eyes get to recognize the words or phrases. In English, the eye-movement is from left to right, back left and down a line, left to right again, and so forth.

1. Perception-Span: The words are Known as Perception span which is taken in one pause.

2. Eye-Span: If the number of letter are divided which are read by number of pauses, we get the number of letters read in each pause. This is known as the 'eye-span'. It varies with the size of the print-the bigger the size of letters, the smaller the eyes span. Moreover, different readers see different number of letters in one pause. Besides, the number of fixations or pauses per line depends on the difficulty of the material that is given for reading, age and the maturity of the reader.

(2) Word Discrimination: The abilities of discriminate letters is showing the good reading and recognize words. This depends upon:

1. The type of letters: Projecting (like t, p, f, l, d) and non-projecting (like a, o, u), Words containing the former type of letters are more easily recognized than words containing non-projecting letters.

2. The shape of words: Words similar in shape like receive, deceive; bid, did; etc. often confuse the beginner.

3. The range of learner's experience: Words which are associated with objects and ideas within the learner's experience, and also words which the child has already heard or practised in speech are easily recognised.

(3) Association: The visual signs are connected by the mind and the speech sounds and which they represent. Association implies the ability to recall sounds and meaning immediately on the sight of group of letters.

(4) Interpretation: It is the ability to unlock meaning by adding together a number of associations. Suppose we come across the sentence.

"The man kept searching his lost child."

The reader's ability to unlock meaning in the above sentence will depend upon:

1. his/her knowledge of the English syntax;
2. sound and meaning associated with each individual word; and,
3. his/her ability to relate the sentence to its total context.

(5) Reading Speed: The important factor of reading English is the speed of reading. A slow reader is usually a bad reader. Speed much depends upon age and maturity of the learner. Good speed in reading is the normal speed for a particular age level and maturity reached.

(6) Comprehension or Understanding: The reading activity will be useless if the material read is not understood by the reader in first instance or the child has to move backward and forward to comprehend the material here and there. Of course, general intelligence, interest in a particular subject discussed in the reading material etc., help a lot in reading comprehension. Still the teacher should carefully help the child in overcoming some of the common reading faults which inhibit the reading process. These faults are : faulty eye-movements, slow speed, head movements, poor word recognition, backward eye movements, etc.

This is How We Read?

We should know the method of reading. According to experts, when a good reader is at work, he does not look at letters, not even at words, one by one. The eyes of a person who is reading do not move smoothly along the lines of the print but move in a series of jumps with very brief stops or fixations in the midst of jumps. That is to say, the reader does not read like:

The pen is on the table.

But as : (The pen is) (on the table)

The letter setting at each fixation is the eye-span.' The longer the eye-span, the more rapidly will the reader be able to read. The eye-span of a good reader is comparatively wide.

The teacher's job, therefore, is clear: it is to train pupils to take in several words at a glance and to remove the necessity for going back-ward to read something a second time.

Need for Developing Reading Ability (Especially at the Early Stage)

The importance of reading in the one is mother tongue can not denied. It is as much important in a foreign language in fact, in all language learning. Dr. West, who worked for a long time with Indian pupils, ultimately came to this conclusion that reading should be given the key place in the total scheme of teaching English as a foreign language.

At the early stage, developing of reading ability of child in necessary to enable him:

(1) To pronoune words correctly.

(2) To recognize words and understand their meanings in phrases, sentences, and paragraphs.

(3) To acquire the habit of rhythmic and uniform eye-sweeps across the printed page which means proper eye-jumps, right pauses, no back-ward movements etc.

(4) To read rapidly and fluently and get at the thought with accuracy and normal speed.

(5) Above all, to develop the habit of reading with a purpose.

It is rightly observed by Principal R.S. Trivedi that "The teaching of English, therefore, should provide for the cultivation of this vital skill, without which the personality of the pupil will be incomplete and the utility of learning English will be severely doubted. In fact, in Indian conditions, reading will acquire greater importance and professional usefulness, than mere speech, which will have comparatively a limited sphere of operation."

To improve your reading skills you need to:

have clear reading goals;

choose the right texts;

use the right reading style;

use note taking techniques.

Reading goals

Clear reading goals can significantly help with your reading efficiency. Not everything in print will be of use to you. Use reading goals to select and prioritise information according to the task in hand.

Reading goals can be:

an essay or seminar subject;

a report brief;

a selected subject area;

a series of questions about a specific topic.

Use your reading goals to help you identify the information that is relevant to your current task.

Choosing a text

You will need to assess the text to see if it contains information that is relevant to your reading goals.

Check the date of publication. Is the information up-to-date?

Read the publisher's blurb at the back or inside sleeve for an overview of the content.

Check the contents page for relevant chapters.

Look up references for your topic in the index.

If the text does not seem relevant, discard it.

Once you have selected a text you can use the following techniques of scanning and skimming to help you identify areas for detailed reading.

Scanning

Scanning is the technique you might use when reading a telephone directory. You pass your vision speedily over a section of text in order to find particular words or phrases that are relevant to your current task. You can scan:

the introduction or preface of a text;

the first or last paragraphs of chapters;

the concluding or summarising chapter of a text;

the book index.

Skimming

Skimming is the process of speedy reading for general meaning. Let your eyes skip over sentences or phrases which contain detail. Concentrate on identifying the central or main points. Use this technique to:

pre-view a selection of text prior to detailed reading;

refresh your understanding of a selection of text following detailed reading.

Detailed reading and note taking

Once you have selected useful information, you can begin to read in detail. Note taking techniques provide a useful aid to reading.

Use: underlining and highlighting to pick out what seem to you the most central or important words and phrases. Do this in your own copy of texts or on photocopies - never on borrowed texts; keywords to record the main headings as you read. Use one or two keywords for each main point. Keywords can be used when you don't want to mark the text; questions to encourage you to take an active approach to your reading. Record your questions as you read. They can also be used as prompts for follow up work; summaries to check you have understood what you have read. Pause after a section of text and put what you have read in your own words. Skim over the text to check the accuracy of your summary, filling in any significant gaps.

These techniques encourage an active engagement with the text as well as providing you with a useful record of your reading. Avoid passively reading large amounts of text, it does not make effective use of your time. Always use a note taking technique to increase your levels of concentration and understanding.

For more detailed guidance on note taking techniques see the guide Effective Note Making.

Summary

Have a clear focus for your reading. Set your reading goals.

Where possible, survey the text before you spend the time and effort involved in more detailed reading.

Scan and skim to select the text for more detailed reading.

Scan and skim after detailed reading to reinforce your understanding.

Use a form of note taking whilst reading in detail, to keep you concentrating, aid understanding and provide you with a record of your reading. Using clear reading goals and a variety of reading skills is more important than increasing your reading speed.

When should Reading Be Introduced?

Any person can ask for the time of reading: What is the optimum time for introducing reading in a programme of foreign language learning? The answer to this question lies in the child's readiness to receive the printed matter quite different from that of his mother-tongue. The success of children in reading depends on their readiness to read. The principle of readiness cannot be uniformally applied to all the children as it depends upon a number of factors. Some children are well-prepared to receive the printed material in English while others are to be prepared for the task. The teacher should bear in mind the individual differences, both psychological and social, when deciding to introduce reading. Linguists are of the opinion that beginning to read is nothing but a transfer stage from auditory signs to visual signs. This means that oral background is necessary for reading to begin.

The function of the teacher in these years is making the sad fact, always beginning the teaching work in English with a reader in the pupil's hands. In fact, the teachers of this foreign language have all along been committing a grave sign against the potential users of this language. Even today, much of the work is done on traditional lines. Consequently, neither the students nor the teachers feel the thrill of teaching and learning English. The products of this method are useless speakers and unimpressive readers.

So, reading should be introduced

(1) When they can ask questions and enquire about the surrounding environment, including even the printed words;

(2) When they can memorise some material and recite it;

(3) When the pupils are fully motivated for the new experience.

(4) When the pupils have gained sufficient knowledge of the auditory signs and they can tell the difference between sounds and words.

(5) When the pupils can recognize shapes of printed words and can associate them with spoken words and their meaning;

(6) When the pupils can understand and carry out simple oral instructions related to class-work;

Mechanical reading should be introduced as early as possible. It is advisable to start it just after the students have mastered first two or three basic structures because it will lend variety to the teaching. More-over, whatever has been learnt orally will be reinforced. Besides, oral drill alone become monotonous after sometime; the introduction of reading at such a stage keeps up their flagging interest."

Teaching Reading To Beginners

It is not believable that reader is not succeed when handed to the pupils. Much of the early reading work may be done with the help of simple material and techniques. The early reading material should be taken from the early speech material used. No attempt should be made to puzzle the child with the unfamiliar words or sentence patterns. Let the child gain confidence by learning to read those words and sentences

whose meaning they already knows. "The work of associating written forms with their corresponding spoken forms and so with their meaning is quite enough for the presents. This is essential first step toward fluent reading and the understanding."

(1) Preparatory Reading

The Preparatory reading is the first stage of reading. At this stage, the teacher will begin by teaching structures and vocabulary till he has laid a reassemble foundation for reading properly. The work at the pre-reading stage may be accomplished with the help of the following materials and techniques:

1. Flash cards which include word cards, sentence cards, picture cards, etc.,
2. Use of black-board
3. Substitution tables,
4. Reading games.

(1) The use of Reading Cards: The reading cards are showed in the class are simply cards, that is, show to the class for a brief span of time. What is written on the cards should be bold enough to be seen clearly by children sitting in the back row. Sometimes commercially produced reading cards should be prepared by the teacher himself. Children's help may also be sought but only at the later stage. The knowledge of the facts has been very right that the "purpose of these cards is to form a bridge from the oral lessons to the first reading book. It is very important that when the pupils open their English reading books for the first time, they should at once find at least some sentences which they can read with very little difficulty. The reading cards link the reading book with the oral lessons." Miller's grouping of Reading Cards: Prof. A Miller has suggested three groups of reading cards:

1. First a group of easy sentence cards for e.g.,

It is a cup

It is a bag.

I have a pen.

I have a bag.

He has a book.

He has a spoon,

This is a bag,

This is a bat,

What is this?

What is that?

2. In the second steps the reading cards contain single words. These are chiefly nouns that have been taught in oral lessons going before. The following words are useful for such cards: Spoon, fan, knife, tray, key, book, bag, cup, bread, glass bottle, pencil, chain, door, box, desk, window, may, blackboard, pen, etc.

3. The third group of reading cards show longer sentences, such for e.g.,

The cup is on the saucer.

The book is in the bag.

The box is under the chain. "Ideally, these sentences should be sentences that have already been taught in the oral lessons and will also appear in the pupils' first reading book." Procedure for Using Reading

Cards: Some procedure of reading can be followed the group of reading cards.

1. Easy Sentence Cards. The first three reading cards which are to be used

It is a cup.

It is a table.

It is a bag.

(i) The teacher speaks in class in his own language that he is about to read English. The teacher writes the above sentences on the black-board in print script. He points to each sentence in turn and reads it aloud. (Repeat this two or three times).

It is a cup.

It is a table.

It is a bag.

Thus, we direct the pupil's attention to the whole sentences.

(ii) The the teacher says, "Point to : It is a cup.'" The pupils put up their hands and the chosen pupil comes to the front and points to the sentence. With other sentence and different pupils it should be repeated. Notice that the pupils are not asked to point to or in any other way distinguish between different words. We do not ask them to read or point to the words 'is', or to the word 'it' or even to the words 'cup', 'bad' or 'table', The commands used by the teacher are

Point to : 'It is a cup'.

and Point to : 'It is a bag.'

and Point to : 'It is a table.'

Thus, we direct the pupils' attention to the whole sentences.

(iii) At the next step teacher take one sentence and ask for reading.' The pupils put up their hands and the chosen pupil reads the sentence.

(iv) Repeat this with other sentences and with different pupils.

(v) Now the teacher shows a reading card to the class for about ten seconds. Then he puts it down and the pupils put up their hands. The chosen pupil says the sentence form the reading card. (Repeat this with other cards).

(vi) Let some pupils show the reading cards and let others read them aloud.

(vii) After this the teacher says to pupils for the different word in sentence. Begin with the three nouns cup, table, bag. The teacher says, point to 'cup'. The pupils put up their hands and the chosen pupil comes and points to the word 'cup'. (Repeat this with the two other nouns and then with the other words in the sentences.

2. Word Cards: The first six word cards to be used after the easy sentence cards are:

Spoon fan knife

tray key book

(1) Then the teacher for point the spoon'. The pupils put up their hands and the chosen pupil comes to the front, touches the spoon lying on the table, and says 'This

is a spoon.' Then the teacher says, to point to the word 'spoon'. (Repeat this with each card.)

(2) Now the teacher puts the cards in different places where all the students can read them. Then he takes the card with the word 'spoon' on it and puts it on the table beside the big spoon. As he does this, he says, 'I'm putting the word 'spoon' on it and puts it on the table besides the big spoon.

(3) Then the teacher gives the command, puts the word 'key' beside the key. The pupils put up their hands and the chosen pupil takes the card for 'key' and puts it on the table beside the key. (Repeat this with all the reading cards.)

(4) This time the teacher helps the class reading the word in the context of sentences by putting the small word cards over the nouns on the big sentence cards. For example: if you put the small reading card for the word 'spoon' over the word 'cup' ont the big reading card, 'I have a cup', the pupils can read the sentence 'I have a spoon'.

I have a cup I have a spoon

(5) The teacher displays the matching real objects on the table.

(6) The teacher takes one of the reading cards, shows it to the class and says the word, as, 'spoon'. (Repeat this with each reading card).

(7) Then the teacher can give the word card to pupils and ask them to frame sentences according to his instruction.

(8) Now the teacher directs the pupils' attention to the letters of words. For this he gives practice in word building exercise with the help of letter cards.s

(a) Some words are written on the board and the cards showing endings are placed after each one. The pupils will read the new word thus formed for e.g.

FightER

Work

PlayING

Heat

(The new words are : Fighter, Worker, Player, heater; fighting, working, playing, heating).

Or it could be like this:

T

L

S

SHIP

(The new words are : TIP, LIP, SIP, SHIP).

(b) The teacher gives his pupils a word card and asks them to pick out the letters that make if from a heap of letter cards.

(c) The teacher asks the pupils whether the two letters in the following columns are same or different.

OP	IT	IF	BDC	CDB	
PP	TF	TF	TF	BDB	BDC
PO	TF	TF	TF	BCD	CBC
00	TF	FF	BCB	DCC	

The pupils should learn the letter name but they need not try to associate the letter sounds as English is an unphonetic language where one letter does not stand for one sound and vice-versa. Working alone with letter and word makes dull, because meaning is less clearly to be seen. Therefore for the purpose of better recognition, it is wiser to use sentences. These sentences are visually the same except for a single letter-group or letter, as 'Give me a pin' and 'Give me a pen', 'Draw a bear' and 'Draw a bean', 'Point to the son' (in a picture) and 'Point to the sun', 'Touch your boots' and 'Touch your books', 'where is your hat?' and 'Where is your hut?' Small differences such as these compel the pupils to look at words and letters closely and to become familiar with their forms.

3. Longer sentence. The using of the cards with longer sentences is the last step like, 'The cup is on the saucer', 'The book is on the table and so on.

Reading Games: Reading games are useful at the preparatory stage of reading. Here are some examples:

(i) Commands. The pupils read the commands on flash cards and obey them, thus Open the door, Shut the window, Stand up, Go to the door, Sing a song, etc.

(ii) Sort and read. The teacher speaks a sentence and the pupils have to sort out the flash-card containing the sentence and read it aloud.

(iii) Postman. On the slips of the paper the names of animals and object are written and each pupil assumes one of these names as his own as, Mr. Cock. Then the slips are folded and put into a bag and one pupil is made a postman while the others stand. He takes out a slip, reads the name, and the boy or girl named sits down. The 'postman' failing to read properly is replaced by another.

(iv) Word Lotto. Pieces of cardboard, 6×8 inches, are divided into 25 squares and the words to be learned written in them, the arrangements of the words being different for each card. As the teacher calls out a given word, the pupils look at their cards carefully to reacognise it and to put a small piece of paper on it. The first pupil who covers all words in a designed row is the winner.

Rhymes and Songs: "These offer a pleasant and effective approach to reading and can be used in addition to sentence cards, etc. The method of getting to grips with the language in its visual forms is especially good when the mother-tongue alphabet is a very different one."

The rhyme can be says and sing by the pupil. If they cannot, it is first taught orally. It must be fairly simple. If some words occur several times, that is an advantage. It should be short enough to be printed on one black-board or sheet. Here are two examples:

(i) Jack and Jill went up the hill
To fetch a pail of water.
And Jill came tumbling after.

(ii) Humpty Dumpty sat on a wall.
Humpty Dumpty had a great fall.
All the king's horses and all the king's men.
Couldn't put Humpty together again.

One Last Step: The teacher can prepare the sentence after presenting different cards, word, letter and rhyme charts with the help of the pupils and display them in the class at pupils' eye level. "Reading from flash cards should go on for six to eight weeks before the pupils read the first lesson in their books. If the procedure is followed, the teacher will not be required to read and translate the sentences in the text book. The pupils will automatically understand what they read."

(2) The Use of the Black Board: During the first stage of reading the black board can be used.

1. Let the teacher start with the names of common objects like pen, pencil, book, table, chair, cup, bag, etc. He writes a few words on the black board, and then reads these names as he shows the objects to the class. "The children repeat these words after him as they try to associate the words with the objects. If some of these objects cannot be brought into the class-room, simple drawings may be drawn on the black-board and the names of the objects may be written under each drawing words like inkpot, spoon, fan, knife, egg, mango, orange, etc. can be used for reading material. Drill and repetition will help in fixing these words in the pupil's memory.

(3) The Use of word-building and Sentence-building Cards: For example, we want to use the word-building cards for word like table, lamp, hand, fan, playing, walking, reading, etc. We can have two sets of cards for e.g.:

TABLE	LAMP	HAND	FAN
PLAY	READ	WALK	ING

In this stage cards are placed on table after mixing it. The teacher writes a word on the black board say Table Lamp. He reads the word, asks the pupils to read it after him. Then he calls upon a pupil to come forward and select two cards from those placed on the table to give a reading word Table Lamp. If the pupil is successful, so much the better; otherwise, some other student may be asked to perform the same act. This process is repeated. Sentence-making cards may also be used in the same way.

(4) Reading from Substitution Cards: The use of the substitution table is good device for visual reinforcement Simple substitution tables using the known content words and structures can be prepared by the teacher and pupils are asked to read sentences in sense-groups from the table.

(5) The Skill of Silent Reading: Initiating the student for silent reading is very important as soon as they have learnt to read aloud reasonably well. This can be profitably done at the time when pupils are given matching exercises. They will naturally be required to read their word-strips and sentence strips silently before they can produce the right match. They may read aloud after they hit the right match in words and sentences. In this process the command cards are important. Command

cards can be prepared and flashed before the pupils. The pupils read them silently and perform the action given in the command card. for e.g.,

Kapil, go to the window.

Rita, give your pen to Neeta.

Mohan, pin your card under the right picture.

Raju, match your card with sentence on the board.

"The advantage of this is that while everyone in the class is required to read the flashed sentence, the one whose name is on the card is required to act," whereas others are required to sit and watch.

The speed of reading is desirable to the learner. Speed in loud reading can be gained by asking the students to read sentences and phrases. Speed in silent reading can be achieved "by reducing the flashing time gradually."

VARIOUS METHODS OF TEACHING READING

"The old-fashioned type of reading lesson in which children stood up in turn and stumbled through unprepared passage while the rest of the class listened (or pretended to) is now discredited." But it is a sad fact that teachers moving in the old out still follow the same old heckened way and the off-beaten path when they take up a reading lesson. A few more formal methods of teaching reading are briefly described below:

(1) The Alphabetic Method: The suggested method starts with parts but reaches to the whole. Every letter in the word is taken as an independent unit quite significant in constituting the word itself. So the pupils are taught first the names of the letters in the alphabetic order of the language. Then they join these letters to form the complete words. In this way, each pupil goes from word to word and finishes the sentence. The child will start in something like this

C-A-T = CAT, R-A-T = RAT, F-I-S-H, and so on.

If the child is to be taught to read this sentence- I saw a cat, the teacher will move his finger from one letter to another and read it thus,

I s-a-w = saw a c-a-t = cat

As a method of teaching reading, we find the following deficiencies in it:

4. That is to say, an individual letter 'c' is pronounced as\si :\ but is the word itself is becomes \k\. This fallacy is sure to confuse the pupils Similarly, 'Put' is \put\ but 'but' is \b^ t\.
5. It is unpsychological. We never see letter but word groups.
6. Pupils learn to read without understanding because they are lost in describing the word in letters.
7. It is unscientific because it goes against the basic scientific fact that a language has unify and not otherwise.
8. It is based on wrong assumption that letters of the alphabet in themselves have meaning.

9. It is unreal and wasteful, for the pupils do not show any interest in the individual letters. They have to be taught words and word groups, not letters.
10. It gives a wrong idea to the pupils that there is one-to-one correspondence between letter and sound. The teacher says c\si:\ -a\eI\-t\ti\ = cat\k ae t\.

(2) The Phonic Method : This method is produced by inconsistency between letter and its sound. This method consists in teaching the sound rather than the letters. These sounds are joined together to give words and sentences. So from the very beginning the child is acquainted with the sounds and sound-patterns. "A good feature of this method is its rationalisation of the approach to the symbols of the language through pertinent sounds." The teacher also concentrates on teaching words in somewhat regular pattern for e.g.;

CAT-RAT-MAT-PAT-SAT-BAT-and so on. This method has some demerits too. These demerits are given below in points.

1. In order to make a particular sound in a particular order, uncommon words are made to occur in the sequences.
2. A large number of words cannot be taught with the help of this method because of their irregular spelling. Difficulty arises when pupils are asked to say a word with silent letter, that is, when they are asked to pronounce knife as/naif/ and not/knaif/.
3. This method involves the grasp of certain rules, certain logic. Logic has no place in language study and rules have no meaning for the pupils.
4. We do not have the same sound for each letter always. Consonants can be accurately sounded only in combination with vowels. Different sounds for the vowel or consonant is misleading.
5. It goes against he principle of language unit. The unit of thought is complete sentence, not individual word. This method encourages reading one word at a time.

(3) Look and Say Method: This is the method called as Word Method and as the name suggests, this method seeks to teach word as a unit of thought. In this sense, it has similarity with the phonic method. In this case, the pupils are taught to associate the word with its accompanying picture and thus read at sight. This method covers the disadvantages of the previous method in which meaning was lost in the sound. Here the child learns the word and its sound and at the same time the meaning that the word carries from the accompanying sketch or picture. This method is best brought into action with the help of flash cards. The teacher shows the flash card, pronounces the word and gets it drilled after him by the pupils. This has its own limitations:

1. Individual words do not convey proper meaning. Meaning has to be taught in context.
2. This method involves unnecessary jumps and jerks which are harmful in acquiring good reading habit.
3. It encourages the bad habit of reading one word at a time and thus break the unit of the language which lies in complete sentence.

(4) The Sentence Method: These sentence method is depand upon the psychological principle of language that the sentence is the unit of thought. Meaning is better emphasize. Proper stress and intonation can also be taught with this method. From short sentences the pupils proceed to long ones, and thus reading becomes a continuous activity. The language of the sentence to be taught has already been made familiar to the class through oral work. The sentences are based on patterns which can be used again by changing content words here and there as, for example, in

This is a boy. This is a girl.

This is a cat. This is a rat.

This is a dog. This is a doll.

Flash cards and sentence cards can be usefully employed for teaching with the sentence method.

The requirements of the good reading is not satisfied by any single method. The teacher should be free to combine different methods to suit his needs at a particular time. The teacher, in fact, chooses the way to enable the pupils read fluently, with understanding, interest, ease and economy.

One of the first things you learn about teaching is that there are different reading techniques and the students should be aware of which technique is most suited, depending on the reading task required by the text or by their teacher.

Training students to know their reading techniques and deduce when best to apply them is indeed important, especially under exam conditions when time constraints come into play and decisions need to be made depending on time availability and the importance of the task at hand.

Several types of reading may occur in a language classroom. One way in which these may be categorized , as suggested by Brown (1989) can be outlined as follows:

A. Oral

B. Silent

I. Intensive

a. linguistic

b. content

II. Extensive

a. skimming

b. scanning

c. global

The first distinction that can be made is whether the reading is oral or silent. This web page will not deal with oral reading, only silent reading. Within the category of silent reading, one encounters intensive and extensive reading. Intensive reading is used to teach or practice specific reading strategies or skills. The text is treated as an end in itself. Extensive reading on the other hand, involves reading of large quantities of material, directly and fluently. It is treated as a means to an end. It may include reading reading simply for pleasure or reading technical, scientific or professional material. This later type of text, more academic, may involve two specific types of

reading, scanning for key details or skimming for the essential meaning. A relatively quick and efficient read, either on its own or after scanning or skimming, will give a global or general meaning. This web page then will first examine intensive reading. The second part will deal with extensive reading, with a focus on how it results in a general or global meaning. The fourth part gives a short comment on how intensive and extensive reading may operate in the same class. The fourth part examines scanning and the fifth, scanning. A final sixth part comments on how scanning and skimming may be used in the same reading.

Intensive Reading

You need to have your aims clear in mind when undertaking intensive reading. Remember this is going to be far more time consuming than scanning or skimming. If you need to list the chronology of events in a long passage, you will need to read it intensively. This type of reading has indeed beneficial to language learners as it helps them understand vocabulary by deducing the meaning of words in context. It moreover, helps with retention of information for long periods of time and knowledge resulting from intensive reading persists in your long term memory. This is one reason why reading huge amounts of information just before an exam does not work very well. When students do this, they undertake neither type of reading process effectively, especially neglecting intensive reading. They may remember the answers in an exam but will likely forget everything soon afterwards.

Brown (1989) explains that intensive reading "calls attention to grammatical forms, discourse markers, and other surface structure details for the purpose of understanding literal meaning, implications, rhetorical relationships, and the like." He draws an analogy to intensive reading as a "zoom lens" strategy . Long and Richards (1987) say it is a "detailed in-class" analysis, led by the teacher, of vocabulary and grammar points, in a short passage."

Intensive Reading, sometimes called "Narrow Reading", may involve students reading selections by the same author or several texts about the same topic. When this occurs, content and grammatical structures repeat themselves and students get many opportunities to understand the meanings of the text. The success of "Narrow Reading" on improving reading comprehension is based on the premise that the more familiar the reader is with the text, either due to the subject matter or having read other works by the same author, the more comprehension is promoted.

Characteristics

- usually classroom based
- reader is intensely involved in looking inside the text
- students focus on linguistic or semantic details of a reading
- students focus on surface structure details such as grammar and discourse markers
- students identify key vocabulary
- students may draw pictures to aid them (such as in problem solving)
- texts are read carefully and thoroughly, again and again

- aim is to build more language knowledge rather than simply practice the skill of reading
- seen more commonly than extensive reading in classrooms

Materials

- usually very short texts - not more than 500 words in length
- chosen for level of difficulty and usually, by the teacher
- chosen to provide the types of reading and skills that the teacher wants to cover in the course
- Skills developed:
- rapid reading practice
- interpreting text by using:
  - o word attack skills
  - o text attack skills
  - o non-text information

Activities

- Intensive reading exercises may include:
- looking at main ideas versus details
- understanding what is implied versus stated
- making inferences
- looking at the order of information and how it effects the message
- identifying words that connect one idea to another
- identifying words that indicate change from one section to another

Munby (1979) suggests four categories of questions that may be used in intensive reading. These include:

Plain Sense - to understand the factual, exact surface meanings in the text

Implications - to make inferences and become sensitive to emotional tone and figurative language

Relationships of thought - between sentences or paragraphs

Projective - requiring the integration of information from the text to one's own background information

Note that questions may fall into more than one category.

Assessment

- Assessment of intensive reading will take the form of reading tests and quizzes.
- The most common systems of questioning are multiple-choice and free-response.

Mackay (1968) , in his book Reading in a Second Language, reminds teachers that the most important objective in the reading class should NOT be the testing of the student to see if they have understood. Teachers should, instead, be spending most of the time training the student to understand what they read.

When it is used

when the objective of reading is to achieve full understanding of:

- logical argument
- rhetorical pattern of text
- emotional, symbolic or social attitudes and purposes of the author
- linguistic means to an end for study of content material that are difficult

Role of the teacher

- The teacher chooses suitable text.
- The teacher chooses tasks and activities to develop skills.
- The teacher gives direction before, during and after reading.
- The teacher prepares students to work on their own. Often the most difficult part is for the teacher to "get out of the way" .
- The teacher encourages students through prompts, without giving answers.

Advantages

- It provides a base to study structure, vocabulary and idioms.
- It provides a base for students to develop a greater control of language
- It provides for a check on the degree of comprehension for individual students

Disadvantages

- There is little actual practice of reading because of the small amount of text.
- In a class with multi-reading abilities, students may not be able to read at their own level because everyone in the class is reading the same material.
- The text may or may not interest the reader because it was chosen by the teacher.
- There is little chance to learn language patterns due to the small amount of text.
- Because exercises and assessment usually follow intensive reading, students may come to associate reading with testing and not pleasure.

Questions Sometimes Asked

Should the text be read aloud first or some explanation given?

- Nuttall (1986) suggests that if the teacher reads the text aloud before starting work on it, they have assumed part of the students' job.
- Others argue that without some help some students could not understand the text.
- Still others argue that it is easy to underestimate students. they may actually understand more than is thought. If students cannot make any progress, the material may be unsuitable.

Extensive Reading

Extensive reading involves reading for pleasure. Because there is an element of enjoyment in extensive reading it is unlikely that students will undertake extensive reading of a text they do not like. It also requires a fluid decoding and assimilation of the text and content in front of you. If the text is difficult and you stop every few

minutes to figure out what is being said or to look up new words in the dictionary, you are breaking your concentration and diverting your thoughts.

Brown (1989) explains that extensive reading is carried out "to achieve a general understanding of a text." Long and Richards (1971, p.216) identify extensive reading as "occurring when students read large amounts of high interest material, usually out of class, concentrating on meaning, "reading for gist" and skipping unknown words."

The aims of extensive reading are to build reader confidence and enjoyment.

Extensive reading is always done for the comprehension of main ideas, not for specific details.

Historical Perspective

Harold Palmer (1917) in Britain and Michael West (1926) in India were the first to pioneer the theory of extensive reading as an approach to foreign language teaching and to reading, in particular. Palmer chose the term "extensive reading" to distinguish it from "intensive reading".

The 1929 Coleman Report on "Modern Foreign Language Study", introducing the Reading Method , recommended the inclusion of extensive reading in its Method (as distinct from inclusive reading).

- Students were to read in the second language without a conscious effort to translate.
- Emphasis was placed on developing independent silent reading and increasing reading rate of individual students.
- Frequency word counts were developed and used as a basis for graded readers.

Broughton(1978) argued for the important role Extensive Reading could play in second language programs. Nuttall (1982) wrote that the idea of Extensive Reading should be "standard practice" in second language learning. She suggested the following "slogan": "The best way to improve your knowledge of a foreign language is to go and live among the speakers . The next best way is to read extensively." (p.168)

- Krashen (1984) supported Extensive Reading because he felt it automatically gave rise to competence in writing. In 1993, he termed it "free voluntary reading".
- Krashen (1995) argued that 'free voluntary reading" could be used a a "bridge" from communicative language competence to academic language competence.
- David Eskey (1995) drew the analogy of reading instruction to teaching swimming strokes to people who hated the water. It would be only through their discovery of the rewards of reading by actually doing it, that they would become people that can and do read.
- Elley (1996), in his report on a study involving 210,000 students and 10,000 teachers in 32 educational systems around the world, concluded that "instructional programs that stress teacher directed drills and skills are less beneficial in raising literacy levels than programs that try to capture students' interest and encourage them to read independently."
- Dupre's research (1997) in French supported the theory that Extensive Reading is more pleasurable and beneficial for language acquisition than grammar instruction and practice.

- Nuttal (1998) argued the case for Extensive Reading programs citing research studies that showed "impressive" gains in reading ability, motivation and attitude, and overall linguistic competence. There was also evidence of gains in vocabulary and spelling.

Although research strongly suggests that extensive reading can boost second language acquisition, few second language learners engage in voluntary reading at their own initiative, (i.e. Reluctant Readers) and require guidance in the form of Extensive Reading programs.

Background Theory

Several theories come into play in Extensive Reading:

Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1982) made a distinction between acquisition and learning. For Krashen, the dominant mode of language learning is in acquisition, the largely subconscious "picking up of the language" which characterizes language in informal settings and which is similar, if not identical, to the way children develop ability in their first language." (p.10) Language acquisition represents unconscious learning which takes place when attention is focused on meaning rather than form. In order to acquire language, Krashen suggested the learner must be exposed to large amounts of second language input that was "meaningful" , interesting, relevant, not grammatically sequenced, and in a low anxiety setting. It is felt that Extensive Reading programs provide such an environment.

The L1=L2 Hypothesis suggests that second language learning, like the first, follows a highly predictable pattern. If the conditions of first language acquisition are approximated by extensive second language reading, the second language learner can achieve native like competence in a classroom. An extension of this suggests that reading for pleasure from appropriate second language texts provides subconscious and progressively more difficult second language input much like that essential for first language acquisition.

Rumelhart (1980) proposed an "interactive model" of the reading process in which reading is a complex task of simultaneously combining "bottom-up" processes (in which the reader analyzes text in small pieces and builds meaning from these) and "top-down" processes (in which the reader makes "guesses" about the content of a passage). It is thought that Extensive Reading programs provide the quantities of reading practice necessary for the automaticity of the "bottom-up" (word recognition) process.

How extensive reading may appear in a language class

Types of programs

Extensive reading may appear as any of the following:

- a complement to an intensive reading program
- an extra-curricular activity where students read out of class

The main focus of a reading course (termed an Extensive Reading Program) where students work with a class set of books, individual reading of material, of their own

choice, with follow-up activities such as reading logs, reading journals, book reports or projects. Although it is less common for extensive reading to form an entire reading course, there are well-established Extensive Reading Programs operating around the world. They have been carried on in many countries, at varying levels of education from Elementary School to College, and in different languages.

Characteristics

- Day and Bamford (1980) put forward ten characteristics identified in successful Extensive Reading Programs. They are duplicated (in abbreviated form) below:
- Students read as much as possible.
- A variety of materials on a range of topics is available.
- Students select what they want to read .
- The purposes of reading are usually related to pleasure, information and general understanding.
- Reading is its own reward.
- Reading materials are well within the linguistic competence of the students in terms of vocabulary and grammar.
- Reading is individual and silent.
- Reading speed is usually faster than slower.
- Teachers orient students to the goals of the program.
- The teacher is a role model of a reader for the students.
- Bell (2001), in his article "Extensive Reading : What is it? Why bother?" gives ten pieces of practical advice on running Extensive Reading programs.

Materials

- With demands for both simplicity and authenticity, the teacher must choose from the following:
- Graded Readers available by major publishers (e.g.. Cambridge University Press , Heinemann, Oxford and Penguin
  - o These are readers with specific levels of word frequency and idiom counts and the introduction of new vocabulary at a planned rate.
  - o Broughton (1978) favors using graded readers where less than one word in every hundred is unfamiliar.
  - o These are a good choice for students whose second language proficiency makes it difficult for them to read texts written for native speakers.

Texts on the same topic

- Reading more than one text on the same topic allows students to bring more background knowledge to each new text read.
- Authentic materials such as newspapers, magazines, that are related to the second language culture

Web resources

- These should we chosen from suggestions by the teacher so that students do not choose those that are too overwhelming

- Stories and articles chosen by the teacher, with the following guidelines:
- The style should include repetition, without being monotonous.
- New vocabulary should not occur at the same place as difficulties of structure.
- The text should break in sections that are not too long. This is to give the reader a feeling of accomplishment when completed.
- Authors should be chosen with less complex structure and less extensive vocabulary range.

The subject matter should be of real interest to the students and suitable for their age level. Rivers (1981) suggests the subject matter should be as close as possible to the type of material the students would read in their first language. Some thought may be given to socio-cultural issues. Should there be an attempt to match materials to students' cultural background? Students bring different knowledge of text types from their first language. Is it feasible to include these in the materials? Annotated reading lists are available, suggesting books that can be read for pleasure and a minimum of frustration for new language learners. Books that are recommended for English as a Second Language include the following:

- Brown, D.S. (1988) A World of Books: An Annotated Reading List for ESL/EFL Students (2nd ed.) Washington, DC: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.
- Brown, D.S. (1994) Books for a Small Planet: A Multicultural-Intercultural Bibliography From Young Young English Learners . Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.

Materials should be chosen that are at or below the reading ability of the student. They are usually at a lower level of difficulty than those chosen for intensive reading. This is for several reasons:

It builds automatic recognition of words

It allows the reader to see words in "chunks" of language, allowing for faster reading.

Activities that may occur

- Reading may be combined with a speaking component. For example, they may interview each other about their reading.
- Reading may be combined with a writing component. For example, after reading the newspaper, students may be asked to write a newspaper report.
- Class time may be included for book exchange, if there is an in-class library.
- Students may set their own goals for their next session.
- Students may progress from reading graded reading material to authentic text . It should be expected that students will "slow down" in their reading then, it it becomes more challenging.

Students may complete any of the following:

1. a reading log (recording number of pages read and at what level)
2. a reading journal (reflections on the text read)

A reading journal may take the following format:

- date, title of book and author

- the category of the book if known by the student
- a brief statement on what the book is about
- a summary of each part as it is read
- student's reactions to each part

Often teachers will respond to the students and if so, the student should leave room in the journal for this.

3. a reflection on what they noticed about their own reading
4. a book report or summary - Helgesen (1997) recommends not spending more than 20 minutes on a report
5. a retelling of part of the text
6. book project

In some Extensive Reading Programs, teachers will allow their students to report on their reading in their native language so as not to make the "proof" of reading more difficult than the reading itself. This, of course, only works if the teacher understands the student's first language. Extensive reading programs are often cited as being more "pleasurable" because there are no "tedious" exercises to complete.

Assessment

There are no reading comprehension exercises or formal assessments in Extensive Reading programs. Course grades for an Extensive Reading program may be determined by marks given for reading reports, reading journals, book reports and projects.

Role of Teacher

The teacher gives recommendations on reading materials, based on student's interests.

- The teacher guides students in choosing appropriate levels of material, beginning with easy books.
- The teacher guides students in choosing a variety of materials of their interest. This may especially be necessary for students that choose the same type over and over.

The teacher guides students in setting specific goals for amounts read.

The teacher provides modeling. If class time is given for reading, the teacher reads at the same time.

The teacher overlooks if students are not aware of the exact meaning of each word. The teacher should not jump in and explain.

The teacher leads pre-reading activities to build interest in the text, such as in the characters, places, themes, and actions. The teacher must be careful to provide just enough to stimulate curiosity but not so much that the need to read is removed.

Role of Student

The student assumes total responsibility for developing reading ability .

The student reads without the use of a dictionary.

The student usually chooses their own material and moves along at their own pace but must push themselves in order to show greater progress.

Advantages

The students may:

- develop a "reading habit"
- gain more confidence in reading
- improve their attitude towards reading and become more motivated to read
- feel more autonomous over their own learning and more likely to take more initiative. - become more " independent readers", being able to read for different purposes and being able to change reading strategies for different kinds of texts
- become more aware of what's available to them to read and how to access materials
- expand sight vocabulary
- acquire "incidental" grammatical competence - that is, it may be acquired even though it was not directly taught
- build background knowledge
- increase reading comprehension
- improve overall language competence
- be more prepared for further academic courses because they have read large quantities

An Extensive Reading program may be combined with writing or combined with speaking practice in a meaningful way (such as when students discuss with each other the books they have been reading.

Broughton (1978) suggested that "It is by pursuing the activity of extensive reading that the volume of practice necessary to achieve rapid and efficient reading can be achieved." (p.92)

Krashen (1993a) suggested that the benefits of free voluntary reading included "enhanced language acquisition and literacy development, more ideas and information, greater success in life, loss of verbal memory, and more fun."

Challenges

An Extensive Reading program may be costly and time-consuming to set up if materials are not already available. It may be difficult to get support from Administration. Students need to have easy access to texts within their language proficiency level. An Extensive Reading program is easiest to establish when the students have a high level of second language proficiency. For intermediate levels, students require a specialized library within their language proficiency range. They need texts they can read without great use of a dictionary.

It may be difficult to keep students challenged to read more difficult texts as the program continues. Some established programs use a "weighing scale" for students to record materials read, giving more "marks" for materials read at a higher level.

Although this has proven to be a motivating or competitive factor in some cases, in others it becomes counter-productive if students try to read texts that are more difficult than they can manage and consequently become discouraged.

Reading each student's journals and reports can be very time-consuming for teachers.

Students who come from a culture in which literacy is not valued may be unwilling to participate in pleasure reading or may not get support at home.

Some teachers prefer a skills based program and do not feel comfortable with Extensive Reading. Some teachers are unaware of how to use Graded Readers and so, provide a limited range of activities for students, limiting their responses. Some teachers feel that time spent on Extensive Reading will take away from time that could be spent on learning language skills. Others will argue that Extensive Reading provides a "richer context" for practice.

Some people feel that if graded readers are used, they can give a false impression of the level of reading that has been achieved. They feel that some students may try "ungraded" materials too soon and may revert to using a dictionary to translate. Some people feel that students may place too much emphasis on the number of pages read instead of on the understanding achieved. Students that have only been exposed to Intensive Reading programs may not believe that Extensive Reading is a "proper" way to learn. Aeberscold (1997) reported that feedback from students in an Extensive Reading program indicated that they liked the "choice" but not the "load"

Scanning

Picture yourself visiting a historical city, guide book in hand. You would most probably just scan the guide book to see which site you might want to visit. Scanning involves getting your eyes to quickly scuttle across sentence and is used to get just a simple piece of information. Interestingly, research has concluded that reading off a computer screen actually inhibits the pathways to effective scanning and thus, reading of paper is far more conducive to speedy comprehension of texts.

Something students sometimes do not give enough importance to is illustrations. These should be included in your scanning. Special attention to the introduction and the conclusion should also be paid. Scanning ia a quick reading, focusing on locating specific information. Scanning involves quick eye movements, not necessarily linear in fashion, in which the eyes wander until the reader finds the piece of information needed. Scanning is used when a specific piece of information is required, such as a name, date, symbol, formula, or phrase, is required. The reader knows what the item looks like and so, knows when he has located what he was searching for. It is assumed then, that very little information is processed into long-term memory or even for immediate understanding because the objective is simply matching.

When it is used

Scanning is used often with technical, scientific or professional materials to locate specific information. Scanning is a valuable skill for second language learners to develop because often they do not require a detailed read of a text. There are many everyday uses for scanning, relevant to a purpose, such as reading a schedule.

Role of Teacher

The teacher selects passages that do include specific information.

The teacher may use authentic materials that are commonly scanned in real life, such as the telephone directory, menus, bus schedules. The teacher may ask students before they scan a text to note how the information is organized in the text. The teacher needs to remind students that as they read carefully to find the required information, they should pay particular attention to titles and keywords.

Role of the Student

The student forms questions before reading. What specific information are they looking for? The student looks for contextual clues. The student tries to anticipate what the answer might look like and what sorts of clues would be useful. The student is aware of the graphic form that the answer may take, such as a numeral, a written number, a capitalized word or a short phrase that includes key words.

Activities

Activities may include exercises that are devised by the teacher in which students scan for a single word or specific text . Activities may include exercises that are often carried on as a competition so students will work quickly.

Students use skills of prediction and anticipation. Students may do any of the following:

- make predictions and guesses
- use titles and tables of contents to get an idea of what a passage is about
- activate prior knowledge about the topic of the passage by answering some questions or performing a quiz
- anticipate what they want to learn about the top
- use titles, pictures, and prior knowledge to anticipate the contents of the text
- use key words, that may have been given to them by the teacher, that do not appear in the text, that allude to the main idea

It is an accepted view today that efficient readers are not passive. They react with a text by having expectations and ideas about the purposes of the text as well as possible outcomes. They reflect on expectations as they read, anticipate what will come next. In other words, they "interact with the text".

Skimming

Skimming is sometimes referred to as gist reading. Skimming may help in order to know what the text is about at its most basic level. You might typically do this with a magazine or newspaper and would help you mentally and quickly shortlist those articles which you might consider for a deeper read. You might typically skim to search for a name in a telephone directory. You can reach a speed count of even 700 words per minute if you train yourself well in this particular method. Comprehension is of course very low and understanding of overall content very superficial.

Skimming is a quick reading to get:

- to know the general meaning of a passage
  to know how the passage is organized, that is, the structure of the text
- to get an idea of the intention of the writer

Skimming is a more complex task than scanning because it requires the reader to organize and remember some of the information given by the author, not just to locate it. Skimming is a tool in which the author's sequence can be observed, unlike scanning in which some predetermined information is sought after.

When it is used

Skimming is used when reading some some general question in mind.

Skimming is used in making decisions on how to approach a text such as when determining if a careful reading is deserving.

Skimming is used to build student confidence and an understanding that it is possible to gain meaning without reading every word in a text.

Skimming is used as part of the SQ3R method of reading, often for speed reading. This method involves the student in surveying, questioning, reading, reviewing and reciting. Skimming is used for the initial survey and for review.

Skimming is a skill that a student may want to develop if they are planning to continue with academic studies. It is often used in reviewing for a test.

Role of the teacher

Before the students start reading, the teacher should guide students to ask themselves the following questions:

- What kind of audience was the text written for? Was it, for example, the general public, technical readers, or academic students?
- What type of text is it? Is it, for example, a formal letter, an advertisement, or a set of instructions?
- What was the author's purpose? Was it , for example, to persuade, to inform or to instruct?

The teacher should make the following clear to students before assigning a skimming exercise:

the purpose of the exercise

how deeply the text is to be read

Role of the student

Students read through the text in the following manner:

Read the title if any.

Read the introduction or the first paragraph.

Read the first sentence of each of the following paragraphs.

Read any headings or sub-headings.

Look at any pictures or phrases that are in boldface or italics

Read the summary or last paragraph.

Activities

Students must locate facts that are expressed in sentences, not single words.

Although speed is essential and the teacher often sets a time limit to the activity, skimming should not be done competitively. Students should be encouraged individually to better themselves. To improve skimming, readers should read more and more rapidly, to form appropriate questions and predictions and then read quickly

Pugh (1978) suggests that to assess skimming, after the students have read and completed the assigned questions, further questions may be asked, "beyond the scope of the purpose originally set" (p.70). If students can answer these questions correctly, it indicates they have read the text too closely.

Reading Aloud and Silent Reading

Reading aloud and reading silently are really two separate skills. Reading aloud may be useful for reporting information or improving pronunciation, but a reading lesson should focus on silent reading. When students read silently, they can vary their pace and concentrate on understanding more difficult portions of the text. They will generally think more deeply about the content and have greater comprehension when reading silently. Try extended silent reading (a few pages instead of a few paragraphs, or a short chapter or book for advanced students) and you may be surprised at how much your learners can absorb when they study the text uninterrupted at their own pace. When introducing extended texts, work with materials at or slightly below your students' level; a long text filled with new vocabulary or complex grammar is too cumbersome to understand globally and the students will get caught up in language details rather than comprehending the text as a whole.

Reading Aloud

Reading aloud forms a foundation for the early literacy framework. By having stories read to them children learn to love stories and reading. Reading aloud involves children in reading for enjoyment and provides an adult demonstration of fluent reading. Children can respond to pictures and text, but the teacher provides full support for children to access the meaning of the story.

Reading aloud to children widens their horizon and understanding about books and the written language. Children develop a sense of story, increase vocabulary, and learn how texts are put together. Children do not have to take responsibility for the mechanics of gaining meaning; instead, they are simply able to experience the satisfaction of obtaining meaning from reading. This will help establish a desire to become readers. Reading aloud is one of the most important things parents and teachers can do with children. Reading aloud builds many important foundational skills, introduces vocabulary, provides a model of fluent, expressive reading, and helps children recognize what reading for pleasure is all about.

Anyone who's ever read a story aloud appreciates the joy in a child's face as the plot and characters come to life. Admit it, grown-ups—even we love to be read to; that's why audio books are so popular. Fact is, everyone, especially children, can feel the excitement of the story as it is narrated by their parents and teachers. You know why? Because reading aloud is an expression of love, an act of giving that means you care

enough to share your time. Articles in this section provide some surprising facts about reading aloud and offer some great tips for a reading session, including cuddling with your kids (and their favorite blankets and stuffed animals), and embarking on new and enduring reading adventures—together.

Strategies for Teachers to Keep in Mind:

1. to children everyday for at least 20 minutes throughout the day. (It's easy to eliminate reading aloud from your schedule, but remember... Reading Aloud is critical to children's reading and writing development.)
2. Read several books a day so children get used to hearing rich language, various text structures, and a variety of genre.
3. Know the book well! You should have read the book before reading to the children and have a personal connection with the book.
4. Choose books that are interesting and engaging.
5. Involve the children when reading aloud.
6. Establish parameters for reading aloud time. Help children understand what you expect them to do or not to do during reading time.
7. Invite the principal and other people to read to the children.
8. Use technologies that allow a child to listen to a text read.
9. After reading, be sure to allow students the opportunity to discuss and ask questions.
10. Give children frequent opportunities to hear texts written by others and relate those writings to their own.
11. The text used in Reading Aloud experiences can be used as a base for other activities. As children relate their experiences and thoughts to those expressed by authors, they begin to form their own narratives in their heads and thus become motivated to be readers and writers.

Read Aloud Do's and Don'ts

DO—

1. Set aside time each day for a story.
2. Vary the length and subject matter of your reading.
3. Occasionally read above children's intellectual levels and challenge their minds.
4. Build background knowledge when needed. It is an important factor in listening.
5. Reading aloud comes naturally to very few people. You may want to practice. Do not read too fast. Let the kids have time to build mental pictures.
6. Preview the book ahead of time.

DO NOT—

1. Don't read stories that you don't enjoy.
2. Don't feel you have to tie every book to class work.

3. Don't select a book that many of the children already have heard or seen on television.
4. Just because a book has won an award does not guarantee that it will make a good read-aloud.

Benefits of Reading Aloud

Reading to young children is one of the very best things that parents can do for them. Infants will delight in being cuddled and hearing the calming voices of their parents even though they don't understand the words. Soon they'll associate reading with attention, love, and pretty pictures.

As children get older, parents can introduce them to picture books and nursery rhymes. Even at a young age, they will be starting to learn a lot about reading. They'll discover that books are read from front to back and that pictures stand for real objects. As you continue to read to them and introduce them to stories, they'll find out that the print on the pages stands for words and that pages are read from top-to-bottom and left-to-right. Reading to young children is excellent preparation for formal reading instruction in school.

So much of the intelligence children will ultimately have is developed before they even get to kindergarten. When you read to them, you are building pathways in their brains needed for successful reading experiences. They will be developing auditory perception that allows them to think about how words sound. Furthermore, reading stimulates children's language development as they are like little sponges imitating everything they hear. Listening to stories will enhance their vocabularies and help them use longer sentences. Another wonderful plus in reading to children is that it increases their attention spans and ability to focus to what is being said. In addition, reading makes children more curious - a trait that must be fostered in young children or they will never acquire it. And of course, their knowledge of the world will expand. More than anything else, reading to young children gives them a desire to read. Many children who are read to begin reading on their own without any formal instruction.

The Importance of Reading for Early Literacy

According to the Department of Education, the size of a child's vocabulary is a strong predictor of reading and success in school. The vocabulary level of an average children's picture book is greater than found on prime time television. This is one of the many reasons it is so important to read out loud with your child every day. It is helpful to look at your child's development and see how this effects the types of books you select for your child. These are only guidelines, and your own child has his own personality and rate of development.

TWOS: 24-36 MONTHS

1. If your child was not talking much before now, she will probably start this year. Reading helps give her lots of words.
2. Older toddlers enjoy stories with repetition, so they can anticipate and follow along.

3. Simple concept books can be introduced, such as books about colors, shapes, or counting.
4. Two year olds are developing very specific likes and dislikes. Keep this in mind and let your child pick out books to hear.
5. This is the year children often make the transition between sturdy board books to paper picture books. Begin to set some limits on how books are treated, butxpect your child to forget these rules.

PRESCHOOL: 3-4 YEARS

1. Most public libraries have a preschool story time. See about enrolling your child.
2. If your child watches television and videos, limit the amount of time and choose programs carefully.
3. Animal stories and other stories with a simple plot are popular with this age group. Silliness and exaggerated humor can be appreciated.
4. Illustrations are still a focal point, so choose books with lots of pictures.
5. Preschoolers can relate what they read to their world. Try a book about FARM animals after a trip to the fair, holiday books, or read about fire engines after you see one on the street.

PRESCHOOL: 4-5 YEARS

1. Pre-kindergarten children are ready for longer stories with fewer pictures.
2. Your child may become interested in the actual words on the page, and pretend to "read." Follow with your finger as you read, pointing to words as you say them. This teaches that we read from left to right and helps show the connection between print and language.
3. Your will still enjoy rhyming text and repetition.
4. Some children are learning to recognize their letters or even write their names.
5. When your child enters school and begins to read on his own, that does not mean you should quit reading aloud. Keep feeding your child stories and language. Set aside twenty minutes a day for reading together. The results will be seen in the years to come.

Tips for Reading Aloud

Here are some suggestions for giving and getting the most out of a very special time -- read-aloud sessions with your child. Remember, it's never too early to start. Begin reading to your child as an infant. Even babies love to hear your voice and to look at colorful pictures.

1. Read to your child every day. If you can't, ask someone else to be your child's designated reader.
2. Try to find a regular time and a quiet, comfortable place for reading together.
3. Turn off other distractions, such as the radio or television.
4. Read slowly enough so that your child has time to take in the story and look at the pictures.

5. Children may enjoy holding the book or turning the pages. Invite your child to point to words on the page or help you read the words. Explain unfamiliar words.
6. Read with expression. Try creating different voices for different characters.
7. Encourage your children to ask questions about the characters, pictures, and words.
8. Talk about the story with your child. Did he or she like it? Why?
9. Your child may want you to read the same story over and over again. After several retellings, ask your child to tell you the story.
10. Older children enjoy reading aloud, too. They can read their favorite parts, or you can take turns reading chapter books.
11. Visit the Between the Lions web site (pbskids.org/lions) for more on children and reading.

Silent Reading

Students read silently for a specified period of time. This method builds confidence in reading skills, but should only be used when students are ready. Sometimes it is nice to just sit quietly with a book and read. No report. No questions to answer. No reading aloud and discussing. Just reading for enjoyment. We want our children to seek out these quiet moments, so sometimes it is best to leave them alone to quietly read for entertainment. Some families rank reading up there in importance with assigned household jobs and treat reading time as a requirement. Others set aside a quiet time each evening as part of a winding down from the activities of the day. However you can fit it into your schedule, reading benefits every member of the family, including you as a parent.

Tips To Increase Silent Reading

Many people do not read well because of poor silent reading habits. Correcting these poor reading practices and replacing them with good reading practices will improve both reading speed and reading comprehension. You can become a better reader by practicing these tips.

1. Improve your reading posture and adjust your attitude. Reading is not a passive activity. Your body position has much to do with your level of engagement with the text. Reading in bed is wonderful for putting you to sleep, but the prone position is not conducive to engaging your mind with a textbook or article. Sit up straight in a straight-backed chair at a desk or table with good lighting and keep your feet flat on the floor. Place two hands on the reading. Not perfectly comfortable? Good! Reading is not supposed to be relaxing; it is supposed to be stimulating. Establish a purpose for your reading, and be realistic and honest with yourself. Not everything should be read with the same reading mindset. Are you reading the article just to tell yourself or others that you did so? Are you reading it to pass a test, to be able to talk at a surface level about the subject, or for in-depth understanding?

2. Improve your concentration. First of all, turn of the iPod® and find a quiet room. Anything competing with full concentration reduces reading speed and reading comprehension. Consciously divest yourself from the thousand other things that you need to or would rather be doing. Good reading does not involve multi-tasking. Stop taking mental vacations during your reading. For example, never allow yourself a pause at the end of a page or chapter—read on! Minimize daydreaming by keeping personal connections to the text centered on the content. Cue yourself you quickly return to the text when your mind first begins wandering. Begin with short, uninterrupted reading sessions with 100% concentration and gradually increase the length of your sessions until you can read for, say 30 minutes. Rome wasn't built in a day and your reading attention span will take time to improve. Take a short, pre-planned break away from your reading area after a reading session. Don't read something else during your break.
3. Improve your reading rhythm. The reading pace should be hurried, but consistent. This does not preclude the need to vary your reading speed, according to the demands of the text, or the need to re-read certain sections. But, do not read in a herky-jerky fashion. Use your dominant hand to pace your reading. Keep three fingers together and pace your reading underneath each line. Move your hand at a consistent, but hurried rate. Intentionally, but only briefly, slow down when reading comprehension decreases. Using the hand prevents re-reading or skipping lines and also improves comprehension. Shortening the stroke of the hand across the page, after practice, will also help expand peripheral vision and improve eye movement.
4. Improve your eye movement. Reading research tells us that good readers have fewer eye fixations per line. When the eyes move from fixation to fixation, there is little reading comprehension. So, focus on the center of the page and use your peripheral vision to view words to the left and right when you are reading columnar text, such as newspapers, articles, etc. Focus one-third of the way into the text line, then two-thirds of the way, for book text. Again, you may need to work up to these guidelines by adding on an additional fixation point, until you can read comfortably.

5. Improve your interactivity. Good silent reading comprehension is always a two-way conversation between author and reader. The text was written by a person—so personalize your reading by treating the reading as a dialogue. This mental conversation improves concentration and comprehension. Prompt yourself to converse by challenging the author with How? and Why? questions. Ask What Do You Mean? Make predictions as to where the plot (if narrative), or argument (if persuasive), or sequence (if expository) will lead. Make connections to other parts of the text or outside of the text.

Standards for Silent Reading

1. Sit erect
2. Hold the book with both hands
3. Read with your eyes and do not move your lips

4. Do not point to the words
5. Do not move your head
6. Know the hard words
7. Understand what you read
8. Get the thought of the story

Improve Your Reading Skills

In the modern age of information, reading truly is a fundamental survival skill. Here are ten tips that anyone can use to improve their reading skills:

1. You don't have to be a great reader to get the point: Some people read fast and remember everything. Others read slowly and take a couple of times to get all the information. It doesn't matter, really, so long as when you read, you get the information you're seeking.
2. Know WHY you're reading: Are you reading for entertainment or to learn something? Decide why you're reading before you start and you'll greatly improve your comprehension and your enjoyment.
3. You don't need to read everything: Not every magazine, letter, and email you receive contains information you need. In fact, most of it is simply junk. Throw it away, hit the delete key! Just doing this will double the amount of time you have available to read.
4. You don't need to read all of what you DO read: Do you read every article of every magazine, every chapter of every book? If so, you're probably spending a lot of time reading stuff you don't need. Be choosy: select the chapters and articles that are important. Ignore the rest.
5. Scan before you read: Look at the table of contents, index, topic headers, photo captions, etc. These will help you determine if, a) you have a real interest in this reading, and b) what information you're likely to get from it.
6. Prioritize your reading: You can't read everything all at once (and wouldn't want to). If it's important, read it now. If it's not, let it wait.
7. Optimize your reading environment: You'll read faster and comprehend more if you read in an environment that's comfortable for you.
8. Once you start, don't stop: Read each item straight through. If you finish and have questions, go back and re-read the pertinent sections. If you don't have questions, you got what you needed and are ready to move on.
9. Focus: Remember, you're reading with a purpose, so focus on that purpose and the material. If you lose interest or keep losing your place, take a break or read something else. You can keep track of where you are by following along with your hand. This simple technique helps you focus and increase your concentration.
10. Practice: The more you read, the better reader you'll become (and smarter, too)! So, feed your mind: read!

READING COMPREHENSION

Reading comprehension is the ability to read text, process it, and understand its meaning. Although this definition may seem simple, it is not necessarily simple to teach, learn or practice. An individual's ability to comprehend text is influenced by their traits and skills, one of which is the ability to make inferences. If word recognition is difficult, students use too much of their processing capacity to read individual words, which interferes with their ability to comprehend what is read. There are a number of approaches to improve reading comprehension, including improving one's vocabulary and reading strategies. According to a study by Madhumathi Pasupathi and Arijit Ghosh, the students with higher level of reading proficiency frequently used reading strategies to comprehend academic texts.

Factors affect reading comprehension

While word identification is a process that results in a fairly exact outcome (i.e., a student either reads the word "automobile" or not) the process of comprehending text is not so exact. Different readers will interpret an author's message in different ways. Comprehension is affected by the reader's knowledge of the topic, knowledge of language structures, knowledge of text structures and genres, knowledge of cognitive and metacognitive strategies, their reasoning abilities, their motivation, and their level of engagement.

Reading comprehension is also affected by the quality of the reading material. Some writers are better writers than others, and some writers produce more complex reading material than others. Text that is well organized and clear is called "considerate text," and text that is poorly organized and difficult to understand can be called "inconsiderate text." The more inconsiderate the text, the more work will be required of a reader to comprehend the text. Readers who do not have the background, abilities, or motivation to overcome the barriers presented in inconsiderate text will have more difficulty comprehending these types of texts.

Students who had trouble learning to decode and recognize words often will have difficulty with reading comprehension. Students who struggle with decoding rarely have a chance to interact with more difficult text and often learn to dislike reading. As a result, these students do not have sufficient opportunities to develop the language skills and strategies necessary for becoming proficient readers.

Readers with poorly developed language skills and strategies will not have the tools to take advantage of the obvious structures and comprehension cues that are part of considerate text nor will they have the extra tools needed to overcome the barriers of inconsiderate text.

The type of instruction that a student receives will also affect reading comprehension. Strategies for improving reading comprehension must be taught directly by teachers. Simply providing opportunities or requiring for children to read will not teach many students the comprehension strategies they need to be proficient readers. These need to be taught directly as students learn to read simple sentences and this direct instruction needs to continue in different forms throughout a student's elementary and secondary school experience.

Different Components of Teaching Reading Comprehension

There are many ways to think about reading comprehension and many factors that affect reading comprehension. Teachers should keep in mind two overriding questions about how to organize how to teach reading comprehension. These questions are, "What strategies should I teach?" and "How should I teach strategies?"

What strategies should I teach? The most practical way of thinking about teaching reading comprehension is to organize instruction according to how you want students to think about strategies. For this reason, the most straightforward way of organizing comprehension strategies is to think about strategies that one might use before reading, duringreading, and after reading.

Before Reading Strategies consist of those strategies that a student learns to use to get ready to read a text selection. These strategies help the student get an idea of what the author might be trying to say, how the information might be useful, and to create a mental set that might be useful for taking in and storing information. These strategies could include previewing headings, surveying pictures, reading introductions and summaries, creating a pre-reading outline, creating questions that might need to be answered, making predictions that need to be confirmed, etc. The primary question for a teacher here is: "What steps (observable as well as unobservable) should I teach students to do regularly and automatically that will prepare them in advance to get the most out of a reading selection that needs to be read more thoroughly?"

When a teacher introduces a reading selection to students, walks students through the text, helps the students get ready to read through the use of advance organizers, or creates pre-reading outlines, he/she is ensuring content learning by compensating for the fact that students have not developed good Before-Reading Strategies. Teachers will need to continue to lead students in these types of before-reading activities to ensure content area learning occurs until students have been taught to fluently use Before-Reading Strategies. Teacher use of before-reading prompts and activities does not necessarily lead students to develop and use Before-Reading Strategies independently without direct and explicit instruction. This is why it is important to directly teach and provide practice that gradually requires students to use Before-Reading strategies.

During Reading Strategies consist of those strategies that students learn to use while they are reading a text selection. These strategies help the student focus on how to determine what the author is actually trying to say and to match the information with what the student already knows. These strategies should be influenced by the Before Reading Strategies because students should be using or keeping in mind the previews, outlines, questions, predictions, etc. that were generated before reading and then using this information to digest what they are reading. The During Reading Strategies that help a student understand during reading include questioning, predicting, visualizing, paraphrasing, elaborating (i.e., comparing what is read to what is known), changing reading rate, rereading, etc. The primary question for a teacher is: "What steps (observable and unobservable) should I teach students to do so that they will regularly and automatically figure out the intended meaning of the text and how it connects to what they already know?"

When a teacher develops reading guides and outlines that need to be completed during reading, requires students to ask and answer questions, creates summaries as they read, etc., they are compensating for the fact that students have not developed good During-Reading Strategies. Teachers will need to continue to lead students in these types of during-reading activities to ensure content area learning occurs until students are taught to fluently use Before-Reading Strategies. Teacher use of during-reading prompts and activities does not necessarily lead students to develop and use During-Reading Strategies independently without direct and explicit instruction. This is why it is important to directly teach and provide practice that gradually requires students to use During-Reading strategies.

After-Reading Strategies consist of those strategies that students learn to use when they have completed reading a text selection. These strategies are used to help the student "look back" and think about the message of the text and determine the intended or possible meanings that might be important. These strategies are used to follow up and confirm what was learned (e.g., answer questions or confirm predictions) from the use of before and during reading strategies. However, After-Reading Strategies also help the reader to focus on determining what the big, critical, or overall idea of the author's message was and how it might be used before moving on to performance tasks or other learning tasks. The primary question for a teacher is: "What steps (observable and unobservable) should I teach students to do so that they will regularly and automatically stop when they are finished reading a text selection and try to figure out the intended meaning of the text to determine what is most important and how they will use it?"

When a teacher reviews a reading selection, leads a discussion on what was important about the author's message, helps students summarize or "look back" at what was read, provides a post-organizer, or asks students to complete a study guide over what was learned from reading text, the teacher is compensating for the fact that students have not developed good After-Reading Strategies. Teachers will need to continue to lead students in these types of before reading-activities to ensure content area learning occurs until students have been taught to fluently use After-Reading Strategies. Teacher use of after-reading prompts and activities does not necessarily lead students to develop and use After-Reading Strategies independently without direct and explicit instruction. This is why it is important to directly teach and provide practice that gradually requires students to use After-Reading strategies.

Strategies

A majority of the research indicates that the most successful way to teach comprehension strategies to students with limited reading proficiency is to use very direct and explicit instruction. The stages of instruction that are most often cited as being effective in helping a student learn a strategy are: (1) orient students to key concepts, assess, and ask students to make a commitment to learn, (2) describe the purpose of the strategy, the potential benefits, and the steps of the strategy, (3) model (thinking aloud) the behavioral and cognitive steps/actions involved in using the strategy, (4) lead verbal practice and elaboration of the key information and steps related to the strategy, (5) provide for guided and controlled practice of the strategy

with detailed feedback from the teacher and/or knowledgeable peers, (6) gradually move to more independent and advanced practice of the strategy with feedback from the teacher and/or knowledgeable peers, and (7) posttest application of the strategy, and help students make commitments to generalize its use. Once the strategy is learned, the teacher must then ensure that students begin to transfer or generalize the strategy to new and different situations. The eighth stage, generalization, includes four distinct phases: (1) orientation and awareness of situations in which the strategy can be used, (2) activation by preparing for and practicing strategies in content-area classes, (3) adaptation of the strategy steps for use in other tasks, and (4) maintenance of the strategy for continued application in a variety of real-life learning and work place settings.

Essential Skills in the Reading Process

The following are the essential skills in the reading process:

(1) Eye-Movements: In the reading process, eyes are important. If we just watch the eyes of a person who is reading, we find that eye-movements are not steady or even or smooth along the lines of the print. A series of jumps or jerks are visible. There are a few pauses or short stops or fixations during the uneven jumps. It is during these fixations that the eyes get to recognize the words or phrases. In English, the eye-movement is from left to right, back left and down a line, left to right again, and so forth.

(i) Perception-Span: The words are known as perception span which is taken in one pause.

(ii) Eye-Span: If the number of letter are divided which are read by number of pauses, we get the number of letters read in each pause. This is known as the 'eye-span'. It varies with the size of the print-the bigger the size of letters, the smaller the eyes span. Moreover, different readers see different number of letters in one pause. Besides, the number of fixations or pauses per line depends on the difficulty of the material that is given for reading, age and the maturity of the reader.

(2) Word Discrimination: The abilities of discriminate letters is showing the good reading and recognize words. This depends upon:

(i) The type of letters: Projecting (like t, p, f, l, d) and non-projecting (like a, o, u), Words containing the former type of letters are more easily recognized than words containing non-projecting letters.

(ii) The shape of words: Words similar in shape like receive, deceive; bid, did; etc. often confuse the beginner.

(iii) The range of learner's experience: Words which are associated with objects and ideas within the learner's experience, and also words which the child has already heard or practised in speech are easily recognised.

(3) Association: The visual signs are connected by the mind and the speech sounds and which they represent. Association implies the ability to recall sounds and meaning immediately on the sight of group of letters.

(4) Interpretation: It is the ability to unlock meaning by adding together a number of associations. Suppose, we come across the sentence.

"The man kept searching his lost child."

The reader's ability to unlock meaning in the above sentence will depend upon:

(i) his/her knowledge of the English syntax;

(ii) sound and meaning associated with each individual word; and

(iii) his/her ability to relate the sentence to its total context.

(5) Reading Speed: The important factor of reading English is the speed of reading. A slow reader is usually a bad reader. Speed much depends upon age and maturity of the learner. Good speed in reading is the normal speed for a particular age level and maturity reached.

(6) Comprehension or Understanding: The reading activity will be useless if the material read is not understood by the reader in first instance or the child has to move backward and forward to comprehend the material here and there.

Of course, general intelligence, interest in a particular subject discussed in the reading material etc., help a lot in reading comprehension. Still, the teacher should carefully help the child in overcoming some of the common reading faults which inhibit the reading process. These faults are: faulty eye-movements, slow speed, head movements, poor word recognition, backward eye movements, etc.

This is How We Read?

According to experts, the right method of teaching is that when a good reader is at work, he does not look at letters, not even at words, one by one. The eyes of a person who is reading do not move smoothly along the lines of the print but move in a series of jumps with very brief stops or fixations in the midst of jumps. That is to say, the reader does not read like:

The pen is on the table.

But as : (The pen is) (on the table)

The letter setting at each fixation is the eye-span.' The longer the eye-span, the more rapidly will the reader be able to read. The eye-span of a good reader is comparatively wide. The teacher's job, therefore, is clear: it is to train pupils to take in several words at a glance and to remove the necessity for going backward to read something a second time.

Need for Developing Reading Ability (Especially at the Early Stage)

The importance of reading in the mother tongue can not denied. It is as much important in a foreign language in fact, in all language learning. Dr. West, who worked for a long time with Indian student, ultimately came to this conclusion that reading should be given the key place in the total scheme of teaching English as a foreign language.

At the early stage, developing of reading ability of child in necessary to enable him:

1. To pronoune English words correctly.
2. To recognize words and understand their meanings is phrases, sentences, and paragraphs.

3. To acquire the habit of rhythmic and uniform eye-sweeps across the printed page which means proper eye-jumps, right pauses, no back-ward movements etc.
4. To read rapidly and fluently and get at the thought with accuracy and normal speed.
5. Making a habit of reading naturally.

It is rightly observed by R.S. Trivedi that; "The teaching of English, therefore, should provide for the cultivation of this vital skill, without which the personality of the pupil will be incomplete and the utility of learning English will be severely doubted. In fact, in Indian conditions, reading will acquire greater importance and professional usefulness, than mere speech, which will have comparatively a limited sphere of operation."

When should Reading Be Introduced?

The principle of depends upon a number of factors. Some children are well-prepared to receive the printed material in English while others are to be prepared for the task. Any person can ask for the time of reading: What is the right time for introducing reading in a programme of foreign language learning? The answer to this question lies in the child's readiness to receive the printed matter quite different from that of his mother-tongue. The success of children in reading depends on their readiness to read. The teacher should bear in mind the individual differences, both psychological and social, when deciding to introduce reading. Linguists are of the opinion that beginning to read is nothing but a transfer stage from auditory signs to visual signs. This means that oral background is necessary for reading to begin.

The function of the teacher in these years is making the sad fact, always beginning the teaching work in English with a reader in the pupil's hands. In fact, the teachers of this foreign language have all along been committing a grave sign against the potential users of this language. Even today, much of the work is done on traditional lines. As a result, neither the students nor the teachers feel the enthusiasm of teaching and learning English. The products of this method are useless speakers and unimpressive readers.

So, reading should be introduced

1. When the pupils have gained sufficient knowledge of the auditory signs and they can tell the difference between sounds and words.
2. When the pupils are fully motivated for the new experience.
3. When the pupils can recognize shapes of printed words and can associate them with spoken words and their meaning.
4. When they can ask questions and enquire about the surrounding environment, including even the printed words.
5. When the pupils can understand and carry out simple oral instructions related to classwork.
6. When they can memorise some material and recite it.

Mechanical reading should be introduced as early as possible. It is advisable to start it just after the students have mastered first two or three basic structures because it will lend variety to the teaching. Moreover, whatever has been learnt orally will be reinforced. Besides, oral drill alone become monotonous after sometime; the introduction of reading at such a stage keeps up their flagging interest."

Teaching Reading to Beginners

Simple material and techniques are the important tools in early reading work. It is worthwhile to take early reading material from the early speech material used. No attempt should be made to puzzle the child with the unfamiliar words or sentence patterns. Let the child gain confidence by learning to read those words and sentences whose meaning they already knows. The work of associating written forms with their corresponding spoken forms and so with their meaning is quite enough for the presents. This is essential first step toward fluent reading and the understanding.

(1) Preparatory Reading

The Preparatory reading is the first stage of reading. At this stage, the teacher will begin by teaching structures and vocabulary till he has laid a reassemble foundation for reading properly. The work at the pre-reading stage may be accomplished with the help of the following materials and techniques:

1. Flash cards which include word cards, sentence cards, picture cards, etc.,
2. Use of black-board
3. Substitution tables,
4. Reading games.

1. Use of Reading Cards: Sometimes, commercially produced reading cards should be prepared by the teacher himself. Children's help may also be sought but only at the later stage. The reading cards are showed in the class are simply cards, that is, show to the class for a brief span of time. What is written on the cards should be bold enough to be seen clearly by children sitting in the back row.

The purpose of these cards is to form a bridge from the oral lessons to the first reading book. It is very important that when the pupils open their English reading books for the first time, they should at once find at least some sentences which they can read with very little difficulty. The reading cards link the reading book with the oral lessons.

Miller's grouping of Reading Cards: Prof. A. Miller has suggested three groups of reading cards:

(i) First, a group of easy sentence cards for e.g.,

It is a cup
It is a bag.
I have a pen.
I have a bag.
He has a book.
He has a spoon,

This is a bag,

This is a bat,

What is this?

What is that?

(ii) In the second steps, the reading cards contain single words. These are chiefly nouns that have been taught in oral lessons going before. The following words are useful for such cards:

Spoon, fan, knife, tray, key, book, bag, cup, bread, glass bottle, pencil, chain, door, box, desk, window, may, blackboard, pen, etc.

(iii) The third group of reading cards show longer sentences, such for e.g.,

The cup is on the saucer.

The book is in the bag.

The box is under the chain.

"Ideally, these sentences should be sentences that have already been taught in the oral lessons and will also appear in the pupils' first reading book."

Procedure for Using Reading Cards: Some procedure of reading can be followed the group of reading cards:

(i) Easy Sentence Cards. The first three reading cards which are to be used

It is a ball.

It is a bat.

It is a cricket.

(a) The teacher speaks in class in his own language that he is about to read English. The teacher writes the above sentences on the black-board in print script. He points to each sentence in turn and reads it aloud. Repeat this two or three times.

It is a ball.

It is a bat.

It is a cricket.

Thus, we direct the pupil's attention to the whole sentences.

(b) The the teacher says, "Point to : It is a cup.'" The pupils put up their hands and the chosen pupil comes to the front and points to the sentence.

With other sentence and different pupils, it should be repeated. Notice that the pupils are not asked to point to or in any other way distinguish between different words. We do not ask them to read or point to the words 'is', or to the word 'it' or even to the words 'cup', 'bad' or 'table'. The commands used by the teacher are:

Point to : 'It is a ball'.

Point to : 'It is a bat.'

Point to : 'It is a cricket.'

Thus, we direct the pupils' attention to the whole sentences.

(c) At the next step, teacher take one sentence and ask for reading. The pupils put up their hands and the chosen pupil reads the sentence.

(d) Repeat this with other sentences and with different pupils.

(e) Now the teacher shows a reading card to the class for about ten seconds. Then he puts it down and the pupils put up their hands. The chosen pupil says the sentence form the reading card. Repeat this with other cards.

(f) Let some pupils show the reading cards and let others read them aloud.

(g) After this, the teacher says to pupils for the different word in sentence. Begin with the three nouns cup, table, bag. The teacher says, point to 'cup'. The pupils put up their hands and the chosen pupil comes and points to the word 'cup'. Repeat this with the two other nouns and then with the other words in the sentences.

(ii) Word Cards: The first six word cards to be used after the easy sentence cards are:

Spoon	fan	knife
tray	key	book

(a) Then the teacher for point the spoon'. The pupils put up their hands and the chosen pupil comes to the front, touches the spoon lying on the table, and says 'This is a spoon.' Then the teacher says, to point to the word 'spoon'.

(b) Now the teacher puts the cards in different places where all the students can read them. Then he takes the card with the word 'spoon' on it and puts it on the table beside the big spoon. As he does this, he says, 'I'm putting the word 'spoon' on it and puts it on the table besides the big spoon.

(c) Then the teacher gives the command, puts the word 'key' beside the key. The pupils put up their hands and the chosen pupil takes the card for 'key' and puts it on the table beside the key.

(d) This time the teacher helps the class reading the word in the context of sentences by putting the small word cards over the nouns on the big sentence cards. For example: if you put the small reading card for the word 'spoon' over the word 'cup' ont the big reading card, 'I have a cup', the pupils can read the sentence 'I have a spoon'.

I have a cup I have a spoon

(e) The teacher displays the matching real objects on the table.

(f) The teacher takes one of the reading cards, shows it to the class and says the word, as, 'spoon'. Repeat this with each reading card.

(g) Then the teacher can give the word card to pupils and ask them to frame sentences according to his instruction.

(h) Now the teacher directs the pupils' attention to the letters of words. For this he gives practice in word building exercise with the help of letter cards.

l Some words are written on the board and the cards showing endings are placed after each one. The pupils will read the new word thus formed for e.g.

Fight	ER
Work	
Play	ING

Heat

(The new words are : Fighter, Worker, Player, heater; fighting, working, playing, heating).

Or, it could be like this:

T
L
S
SH IP

(The new words are : TIP, LIP, SIP, SHIP).

l The teacher gives his pupils a word card and asks them to pick out the letters that make if from a heap of letter cards.

l The teacher asks the pupils whether the two letters in the following columns are same or different.

OP	IT	IF	BDC	CDB	
PP	TF	TF	TF	BDB	BDC
PO	TF	TF	TF	BCD	CBC
00	TF	FF	BCB	DCC	

The pupils should learn the letter name but they need not try to associate the letter sounds as English is an unphonetic language where one letter does not stand for one sound and vice-versa. Working alone with letter and word makes dull, because meaning is less clearly to be seen. Therefore for the purpose of better recognition, it is wiser to use sentences. These sentences are visually the same except for a single letter-group or letter, as 'Give me a pin' and 'Give me a pen', 'Draw a bear' and 'Draw a bean', 'Point to the son' (in a picture) and 'Point to the sun', 'Touch your boots' and 'Touch your books', 'where is your hat?' and 'Where is your hut?' Small differences such as these compel the pupils to look at words and letters closely and to become familiar with their forms.

(iii) Longer sentence. Teaching students the long sentences is the last step like, "Who got the highest marks in the examination" and "which boy was chosen the monitor of this class" etc.

Reading Games: These are useful at the preparatory stage of reading. Here are some examples:

(i) Commands. The pupils read the commands on flash cards and obey them, thus open the door, shut the window, stand up, go to the door, sing a song, etc.

(ii) Sort and read. The teacher speaks a sentence and the pupils have to sort out the flash-card containing the sentence and read it aloud.

(iii) Postman. On the slips of the paper the names of animals and object are written and each pupil assumes one of these names as his own as, Mr. Gaur. Then the slips are folded and put into a bag and one pupil is made a postman while the others stand. He takes out a slip, reads the name, and the boy or girl named sits down. The 'postman' failing to read properly is replaced by another.

(iv) Word Lotto. Pieces of cardboard, 6×8 inches, are divided into 25 squares and the words to be learned written in them, the arrangements of the words being different for each card. As the teacher calls out a given word, the pupils look at their cards carefully to reacognise it and to put a small piece of paper on it. The first pupil who covers all words in a designed row is the winner.

Rhymes and Songs: These have a soothing effect on ears and have effective approach to reading which can be used in addition to sentence cards. The method of getting to grips with the language in its visual forms is especially good when the mother-tongue alphabet is a very different one." The rhyme can be says and sing by the pupil. If they cannot, it is first taught orally. It must be fairly simple. If some words occur several times, that is an advantage. It should be short enough to be printed on one black-board or sheet. Here are two examples:

(i) Jack and Jill went up the hill
To fetch a pail of water.
And Jill came tumbling after.

(ii) Humpty Dumpty sat on a wall.
Humpty Dumpty had a great fall.
All the king's horses and all the king's men.
Couldn't put Humpty together again.

One Last Step: The teacher can prepare the sentence after presenting different cards, word, letter and rhyme charts with the help of the pupils and display them in the class at pupils' eye level. "Reading from flash cards should go on for six to eight weeks before the pupils read the first lesson in their books. If the procedure is followed, the teacher will not be required to read and translate the sentences in the text book. The pupils will automatically understand what they read."

(2) Use of the Blackboard: During the first stage of reading the black board can be used.

Let the teacher start with the names of common objects like pen, pencil, book, table, chair, cup, bag, etc. He writes a few words on the black board, and then reads these names as he shows the objects to the class. "The children repeat these words after him as they try to associate the words with the objects. If some of these objects cannot be brought into the classroom, simple drawings may be drawn on the blackboard and the names of the objects may be written under each drawing words like inkpot, spoon, fan, knife, egg, mango, orange, etc. can be used for reading material. Drill and repetition will help in fixing these words in the pupil's memory.

(3) Use of word-building and Sentence-building Cards: For example, we want to use the word-building cards for word like table, lamp, hand, fan, playing, walking, reading, etc. We can have two sets of cards for e.g.:

BAT BALL HAND FAN

PLAY READ WALK ING

In this stage cards are placed on table after mixing it. The teacher writes a word on the black board say Bat Ball. He reads the word, asks the pupils to read it

after him. Then he calls upon a pupil to come forward and select two cards from those placed on the table to give a reading word Table Lamp. If the pupil is successful, so much the better; otherwise, some other student may be asked to perform the same act. This process is repeated. Sentence-making cards may also be used in the same way.

(4) Reading from Substitution Cards: The use of the substitution table is good device for visual reinforcement Simple substitution tables using the known content words and structures can be prepared by the teacher and pupils are asked to read sentences in sense-groups from the table.

(5) Importance of silent reading: Once students get mastery over the reading loudly, then students are encouraged to read silently. This can be profitably done at the time when pupils are given matching exercises. They will naturally be required to read their word-strips and sentence strips silently before they can produce the right match. They may read aloud after they hit the right match in words and sentences.

In this process the command cards are important which can be prepared and flashed before the student. The students read them silently and perform the action given in the command card. for e.g.,

Rajesh, come to the classroom

Meena, bring atlas form the neighbouring class.

Mohan, pin your card under the right picture.

Raju, match your card with sentence on the board.

The advantage of this is that while everyone in the class is required to read the flashed sentence, the one whose name is on the card is required to act, whereas others are required to sit and watch. The speed of reading is desirable to the learner which can be gained by asking the students to read sentences and phrases. Speed in silent reading can be achieved "by reducing the flashing time gradually."

Various Methods of Teaching Reading

Gone are the days when children in a classroom used to stood up one by one and read one or two paragraphs of the lesson. But it is a sad fact that teachers moving in the old out still follow the same old heckened way and the off-beaten path when they take up a reading lesson. A few more formal methods of teaching reading are briefly described below:

(1) The Alphabetic Method : It starts with parts but reaches to the whole. Every letter in the word is taken as an independent unit quite significant in constituting the word itself. So the students are taught first the names of the letters in the alphabetic order of the language. Then they join these letters to form the complete words.

In this way, each pupil goes from word to word and finishes the sentence. The child will start in something like this

C-A-T = CAT, R-A-T = RAT, F-I-S-H, and so on.

If the child is to be taught to read this sentence- I saw a cat, the teacher will move his finger from one letter to another and read it thus,

(a) s-a-w = saw (b) c-a-t = cat

As a method of teaching reading, we find the following deficiencies in it:

(i) That is to say, an individual letter 'c' is pronounced as\si :\ but is the word itself is becomes \k\. This fallacy is sure to confuse the pupils Similarly, 'Put' is \put\ but 'but' is \b^ t\.

(ii) It is unpsychological. We never see letter but word groups.

(iii) Pupils learn to read without understanding because they are lost in describing the word in letters.

(iv) It is unscientific as it goes against the basic scientific fact that a language has unify and not otherwise.

(v) It is based on wrong assumption that letters of the alphabet in themselves have meaning.

(vi) It is unreal and wasteful. The pupils do not show any interest in the individual letters. They have to be taught words and word groups, not letters.

(vii) It gives a wrong idea to the pupils that there is one-to-one correspondence between letter and sound. The teacher says c\si:\ -a\eI\-t\ti\ = cat\k ae t\.

(2) Phonic Method: It gives more emphasis on sounds which are joined together to give words and sentences. So from the very beginning, the child is acquainted with the sounds and sound-patterns. "A good feature of this method is its rationalisation of the approach to the symbols of the language through pertinent sounds." The teacher also concentrates on teaching words in somewhat regular pattern for e.g.; CAT-RAT-MAT-PAT-SAT-BAT-and so on. This method has some demerits too. These demerits are given below in points.

(i) Uncommon words are made to occur in the sequences in order to make a particular sound in a particular order.

(ii) A large number of words cannot be taught with the help of this method because of their irregular spelling. Difficulty arises when pupils are asked to say a word with silent letter, that is, when they are asked to pronounce knife as/naif/ and not/knaif/.

(iii) This method involves the grasp of certain rules, certain logic. Logic has no place in language study and rules have no meaning for the pupils.

(iv) We do not have the same sound for each letter always. Consonants can be accurately sounded only in combination with vowels. Different sounds for the vowel or consonant is misleading.

(v) It goes against he principle of language unit. The unit of thought is complete sentence, not individual word. This method encourages reading one word at a time.

(3) Look and Say Method: It has similarity with the phonic method as it seeks to teach word as a unit of thought. In this case, the pupils are taught to associate the word with its accompanying picture and thus read at sight. This method covers the disadvantages of the previous method in which meaning was lost in the sound. Here the child learns the word and its sound and at the same time the meaning that the word carries from the accompanying sketch or picture. This method is best brought into action with the help of flash cards. The teacher shows the flash card, pronounces the word and gets it drilled after him by the pupils. This has its own limitations:

(i) Individual words do not convey proper meaning. Meaning has to be taught in context.

(ii) This method involves unnecessary jumps and jerks which are harmful in acquiring good reading habit.

(iii) It encourages the bad habit of reading one word at a time and thus break the unit of the language which lies in complete sentence.

(4) The Sentence Method: This depends on the psychological principle of language that the sentence is the unit of thought. Meaning is better emphasize. Proper stress and intonation can also be taught with this method. From short sentences the pupils proceed to long ones, and thus reading becomes a continuous activity. The language of the sentence to be taught has already been made familiar to the class through oral work. The sentences are based on patterns which can be used again by changing content words here and there as, for example, in

This is a boy. This is a girl.

This is a cat. This is a rat.

This is a dog. This is a doll.

Flash cards and sentence cards can be usefully employed for teaching with the sentence method. The requirements of the good reading is not satisfied by any single method. The teacher should be free to combine different methods to suit his needs at a particular time. The teacher, in fact, chooses the way to enable the pupils read fluently, with understanding, interest, ease and economy.

There is no thumb rule in teaching methods of English. It is the responsibility of the teacher to find out which method is the best applicable method for students. There is no difficulty in teaching children to read. The young teacher should bear in mind that it is easier to teach students to read a new language than to speak it. At the same time, children should not be rushed into learning to read. The basis of sound early reading method is that it presents in the form of signs material about which we have spoken and we must see that this principle is maintained. The material of reading follows the material of speech and when the pupil finds that he already know that material and only to learn to recognise the printed symbols for it, he will soon demonstrate his ability to read to write labels for his pictures and attempt to read new material. The pupils will learn to read easily when the reading material is sufficient, genuine and interesting.

Reading for Global and Local Comprehension

Reading comprehension is defined as the level of understanding of a text. This understanding comes from the interaction between the words that are written and how they trigger knowledge outside the text. Proficient reading depends on the ability to recognize words quickly and effortlessly. If word recognition is difficult, students use too much of their processing capacity to read individual words, which interferes with their ability to comprehend what is read. Many educators in the USA believe that students need to learn to analyze text (comprehend it) even before they can read it on their own, and comprehension instruction generally begins in pre-Kindergarten or

Kindergarten. But other US educators consider this reading approach to be completely backward for very young children, arguing that the children must learn how to decode the words in a story through phonics before they can analyze the story itself.

During the last century comprehension lessons usually comprised students answering teachers' questions, writing responses to questions on their own, or both. The whole group version of this practice also often included "Round-robin reading", wherein teachers called on individual students to read a portion of the text (and sometimes following a set order). In the last quarter of the 20th century, evidence accumulated that the read-test methods assessed comprehension more than they taught it. The associated practice of "round robin" reading has also been questioned and eliminated by many educators.

Instead of using the prior read-test method, research studies have concluded that there are much more effective ways to teach comprehension. Much work has been done in the area of teaching novice readers a bank of "reading strategies," or tools to interpret and analyze text. There is not a definitive set of strategies, but common ones include summarizing what you have read, monitoring your reading to make sure it is still making sense, and analyzing the structure of the text (e.g., the use of headings in science text). Some programs teach students how to self monitor whether they are understanding and provide students with tools for fixing comprehension problems. Instruction in comprehension strategy use often involves the gradual release of responsibility, wherein teachers initially explain and model strategies. Over time, they give students more and more responsibility for using the strategies until they can use them independently. This technique is generally associated with the idea of self-regulation and reflects social cognitive theory, originally conceptualized by Albert Bandura.

Global Comprehension

Global comprehension means understanding the general meaning of what you are listening to or reading. It can be compared to selective comprehension, which means understanding specific information in the text, and detailed comprehension, which means understanding everything. Global, selective and detailed comprehensions have parallels with the three reading skills of skimming, scanning and intensive reading.

Example—

The learners have listened to a story and now try to recreate it by putting jumbled sentences into the correct order.

In the classroom—

Various activity types can test global comprehension. Learners can be asked to sort out jumbled versions of a text, as in the example, produce or complete summaries, answer comprehension questions that test general understanding, such as 'true or false statements, and suggest titles.

Local Comprihension

Comprehension questions test you on your ability to recall and understand what you read in a passage. In a comprehension question, applicants are presented with a passage of text—for example, an excerpt from a judgment or article—and are asked to summarise it and to answer specific questions about it. Comprehension questions are not designed to test applicants' knowledge of the law. No prior knowledge of the law is expected or needed: all of the information necessary to answer the question is provided in the passage. Applicants who have studied or are studying law (for example at A-level) will therefore not be at an advantage over others. Comprehension questions are designed to test applicants' ability to understand the text; to write clearly; and to develop balanced, well-reasoned arguments. The aimof the local comprehension type question is to find out the what the learner has been able to understand the important points in the given passage. Local comprehension questions require you only to recall what a passage "says," whereas more difficult comprehension questions test you on what a passage "means.

Inferences

Inference is just a big word that means a conclusion or judgement. If you infer that something has happened, you do not see, hear, feel, smell, or taste the actual event. But from what you know, it makes sense to think that it has happened. You make inferences everyday. Most of the time you do so without thinking about it. Suppose you are sitting in your car stopped at a red signal light. You hear screeching tires, then a loud crash and breaking glass. You see nothing, but you infer that there has been a car accident. We all know the sounds of screeching tires and a crash. We know that these sounds almost always mean a car accident. But there could be some other reason, and therefore another explanation, for the sounds. Perhaps it was not an accident involving two moving vehicles. Maybe an angry driver rammed a parked car. Or maybe someone played the sound of a car crash from a recording. Making inferences means choosing the most likely explanation from the facts at hand.

An inference is like guessing a possible phenomena. You just like observing without corresponding action. Making an inference is also known as reading between the lines. The reader must put together the information the author provides and the information that the reader already knows to come up with the answer. Ideally, speakers mean what they say and say what they mean. Spoken communication is not that simple. Much of what we understand—whether when listening or reading—we understand indirectly, by inference. Listening involves a complex combination of hearing words, analyzing sentence structure, and attempting to find meaning within the context of the given situation.

The situation with the written word is no different. A text does not contain a meaning. Readersconstructmeaning by what they take the words to mean and how they process sentences to find meaning.Readers draw on their knowledge of the language and of conventions of social communication. They also draw on other factors, such as knowledge of the author ("Would Henry say such a thing?), the occasion ("No one knew such things then!"), or the audience ("He'd never admit that publicly.")

They infer unstated meanings based on social conventions, shared knowledge, shared experience, or shared values. They make sense of remarks by recognizing implications and drawing conclusions. Readers read ideas more than words, and infer, rather than find, meaning.

Consider the following statement:

The Senator admitted owning the gun that killed his wife.

On the face of it, we have a simple statement about what someone said. Our understanding, however, includes much that is not stated. We find meaning embedded in the words and phrases. Unpacking that meaning, we can see that the Senator was married and his wife is now dead—although this is not actually stated as such. (In fact, the sentence is about an admission of gun ownership.) It is as though the single sentence contains a number of assertions:

There is a Senator.

He owns a gun.

He is married.

His wife is dead.

That gun caused her death.

The Senator admitted owning that gun.

Clearly, the original sentence is a clearer and simpler way of conveying all of this information. Writers take note! On a more subtle level, we recognize that a public figure confronts involvement in a major crime. Our understanding need not stop there. We infer that the gun (or at least a bullet) has probably been recovered and identified as the murder weapon—or the notion of an admission would make little sense. We also recognize the danger of unwarranted inferences. We recognize that we do not necessarily know if the Senator's admission is true. We do not really know whether the Senator is in any way responsible for his wife's death, nor do we know that she died of gun shot wounds (she could have been hit over the head with the gun). We do not even know if it was murder—it might have been suicide or an accident.

Are we reading things in here? Or are these meanings truly within the sentence? We are going beyond that the textsays, but not beyond what it actuallymeansto most readers. Inferences such as these are essential to both written and spoken communication. Writers often only hint at what they mean, and mean much more than they actually seem to say. On the other hand, we can see the danger (and temptation) of assuming facts or interpretations for which evidence is not present, and recognize that a critical reader reads with an open mind, open to many possible interpretations.

The following story is often presented as a brain twister. In fact, it's a reading exercise.

A man and his son are driving in a car. The car crashes into a tree, killing the father and seriously injuring his son. At the hospital, the boy needs to have surgery. Upon looking at the boy, the doctor says (telling the truth), "I cannot operate on him. He is my son."

How can this be? Decide on your answer before reading further.

Whether this passage is a brain twister or a reading passage, readers must assume that any lack of understanding is not due to the story, but due to their own lack of understanding. We must work harder to think about how the story might make sense. We quickly see that we have to explain how a doctor can have a son ("I cannot operate on him. He is my son.") when at the same time the father is dead ("The car crashes into a tree, killing the father"). The answer: The doctor is the boy's mother. Many readers are blinded to this meaning by the sexist assumption that the doctor must be a male. A somewhat similar example has been offered by Robert Skoglund, The Humble Farmer of Public Radio in Maine, as follows:

We had visitors a week or so ago. Houseguests. Six of them. One of them was Oscar who teaches geology at the University in Utrecht. Now I love houseguests. Usually. But when they arrived I discovered that two of them couldn't even walk into the house. Had to be carried in. And then I found out they couldn't talk, either. What would you have done if you'd been in my place? How do you handle a situation like that?

Implications for Reading

All reading is an active, reflective, problem-solving process. We do not simply read words; we read ideas, thoughts that spring from the relationships of various assertions. The notion of inference equations is particularly powerful in this regard. Readers can use the notion of inference equations to test whether or not the ingredients for a given inferences are indeed present. To show lying, for instance, a text must show that someone made a statement that they knew was incorrect and that they made that assertion with the specific purpose of deception. If they did not know it was wrong at the time, it's an error, not a lie. If they did not make the statement for the specific purpose of deception, we have a misstatement, not lying.

Analysis

Analysis is the process of breaking a complex topic or substance into smaller parts to gain a better understanding of it. The technique has been applied in the study of mathematics and logic since before Aristotle (384–322 B.C.), though analysis as a formal concept is a relatively recent development. As a formal concept, the method has variously been ascribed to Alhazen, René Descartes (Discourse on the Method) and Galileo Galilei. It has also been ascribed to Isaac Newton, in the form of a practical method of physical discovery (which he did not name or formally describe). Literary theory is the analysis of literature. Some say that literary criticism is a subset of literary theory. The focus can be as diverse as the analysis of Homer or Freud. This is mainly to do with the breaking up of a topic to make it easier to understand.

Extrapolation

To infer or estimate by extending or projecting known information is called extrapolation. Extrapolation is the process of constructing new data points. It is similar to the process of interpolation, which constructs new points between known points, but the results of extrapolations are often less meaningful, and are subject to greater uncertainty. It may also mean extension of a method, assuming similar methods will

be applicable. Extrapolation may also apply to human experience to project, extend, or expand known experience into an area not known or previously experienced so as to arrive at a knowledge of the unknown.

Intensive Reading

Intensive reading involves learners reading in detail with specific learning aims and tasks. It can be compared with extensive reading, which involves learners reading texts for enjoyment and to develop general reading skills.

Example—The learners read a short text and put events from it into chronological order.

In the classroom—Intensive reading activities include skimming a text for specific information to answer true or false statements or filling gaps in a summary, scanning a text to match headings to paragraphs, and scanning jumbled paragraphs and then reading them carefully to put them into the correct order.

Reading Strategies—When deciphering a difficult text, readers are forced to use a variety of strategies that they wouldn't need while engaging in extensive reading. While these strategies don't build overall language skills, they are very important for a learner's ability to use what they do know. Skimming is critically important. Even travelers who may have only a basic knowledge of a language may need to read menus, look for an apartment or fill out forms. In fact, classroom exercises in doing just these tasks is an excellent way to build students ability to skim partially incomprehensible text. For younger learners, TV listings and search engine results are good tools. Dictionary use is another skill that can be developed through intensive reading. Equally important is guessing. Both children and foreign language learners often learn what words mean gradually as they make educated guesses when seeing it in context.

Advantages—Intensive reading has two key advantages. For low level readers, intensive reading is possibly the fastest way to build vocabulary. Some foreign language students are able to successful add 10 or more comprehension words per day. Additionally, reading difficult material forces a learner to develop strategies for for dealing with texts that are too hard to read comfortably.

Drawbacks—The biggest drawback, by far, is the large amount of time spent reading a small amount of text. Intensive Reading Drawbacks- translating nose into Japanese or MalayWhile most people assume that this is necessary in order to be "learning", it isn't necessarily the case. Many studies have shown that the only way people really learn how to use new grammar or vocabulary correctly is by encountering them in a large variety of contexts. In other words, even after you have "learned" a word, it is still extremely beneficial to keep reading material which includes it. Words frequently don't map one to one from one language to another. Take for example the word, "nose". It seems like a simple enough word. It's a noun and it refers to a body part that everyone in the world has, regardless of mother tongue. However, like many things in language learning, the word "nose" is much more complicated than it appears.

Principles of intensive reading—The principles of intensive readings are—

1. **Owerview:** We have two methods to obtain and overview - surveying or skimming. Both are concerned with reading only the more important parts. With either we would start with the summary, if one existed. We would next read the title, the beginning, headings, and endings, and note illustrations. Where headings are missing or inadequate or where unfamiliar material demands a more complete overview, we would resort to skimming with its greater attention to topic and summary sentences, and other cues within the paragraphs. As you get an overview of a long section, you may only survey part and skim the sections that are hard to understand. From this you should get the general theme and main ideas from the important topics and questions discussed and the major conclusions. The principle to guide you is to spend the least amount of time and effort required to secure these elements and only these elements.

The advantage of an overview is its aid in organization. Also when we read the material line-by-line later on, the important points are familiar to us and thus easier to understand and remember. This is what is meant by "double exposure".

2. **Planning Purpose:** Planning your purpose means to take a few seconds before you begin your reading to formalize or clearly state to yourself what you wish to get from the reading. This will give us the most useful "mental set" for getting the information we need.

We need to know:

(i) What information we need;

(ii) How detailed the comprehension should be; and

(iii) Whether the emphasis should be placed on ideas,

(iv) Sequence, specific facts, etc.;

(v) How long we need to retain this information - only

(vi) Until a test the next day or for the rest of our lives;

(vii) How we use the information - to think with, to write a report, to take a test.

All of these aspects of purpose will influence what we are looking for in our reading. Remember, if we have in mind what we are looking for, we are much more likely to find it. What details do we need to remember and for how long is particularly important for guiding note taking or summarizing in a later step.

3. **Questions:** A good time to record questions is after your overview and planning purpose. The question should be in the same sequence as they appear in the material, if possible. This does not prevent adding new questions, but it does prevent forgetting about an important question that occurs to you during the overview. Ideally, the headings can be converted into questions which will provide a suitable outline of the important information in the selection. Where this is not the case, the basic interrogatives or who, what, when, why, and how, frequently supply aid in suggesting important concepts in almost all reading selections.

But at this point, we may ask the question, "Why go to all this trouble ... why not just read the selection two or three times?" If we begin with a careful line-by-line reading and then a re-reading, we find that comprehension and retention are not increased; research has shown us that reading with questions in mind and knowing

we are going to test ourselves later on (as we do in intensive reading), is superior to reading and re-reading and is less time-consuming. The only time you should re-read is when you have no review notes, and when, at a much later date, you need to remember information that you cannot recall. However, re-reading of parts on which you cannot answer in the testing step of intensive reading is always a good idea. You have to respond to learn.

4. **Reading:** The most familiar technique and the heart of intensive reading is to read carefully and thoughtfully. Reading here means not only the familiar line-by-line reading, but line-by-line reading that is guided by our purpose and questions. Also be sure and read the material you covered while obtaining an overview. Also remember that with any technique and purpose, the rate of reading is varied, depending upon the difficulty and familiarity of the material. Speed may be reduced by the thought given to organizing the information, but except for this and the time out to summarize, the rate is like any careful line-by-line reading. The rate must be adjusted so that the desired comprehension is taking place.

5. **Summarizing:** An important part of summarizing is organizing the ideas and supporting points. This organizing should begin in the reading but should be finalized and expressed in notes. Generally, each paragraph will have one or two ideas or important concepts. Also in summarizing, it is important to state in your own words and aloud, the points you wish to remember. The most effective type of summarizing which lends itself to both organizing and testing is an outline of questions reflecting major ideas and concepts. The subpoints are indented so as to show clearly that they are related to the main point in a supporting role.

By using questions as headings, the outline can be started before reading on the basis of the overview. It allows the answers to the questions guiding the reading to automatically be summarized as a few brief points. A topic that does not lend itself to the question style can be included as a statement.

To provide answers to the questions, you should write cues (hints) to remind you of everything you need to remember. Don't write down every point; just cues that will bring the points to mind. There are other techniques you may use. One is underlining. However, its faults tend to outweigh its value. You may tend to underline too much or you probably won't organize the thoughts expressed in the different key sentences as you go along. The key concepts may be implied but never stated in such a manner where they can be underlined with efficiency.

If you must underline, restrict yourself to clear, concise definitions or statements.

Another technique is making marginal notes and questions. You may (with practice and discretion), elaborate, raise questions, and relate and organize certain important concepts or points in this manner. The hazard to be avoided with both these techniques is over doing it! By over doing it, you waste time, generally confuse the key issues, and hinder (rather than facilitate) your learning.

6. **Testing:** The next step is testing yourself. It is vital that you recall rather than just recognize the answers. This means that you test yourself with an essay or a fill-in-the-blank type test. This simply means you must "produce" the answer; just as you often have to in class. This testing seems to "set" or "fix" the information more firmly in

your mind so that you will retain it better. Re-reading and other forms of recognition do not produce as high a level of retention.

Extensive Reading

Extensive reading is an approach to language learning, including foreign language learning, by means of a large amount of reading. The learner's view and review of unknown words in specific context will allow the learner to infer and thus learn those words' meanings. While the mechanism is commonly accepted as true, its importance in language learning is disputed. Extensive reading is contrasted with intensive reading, which is slow, careful reading of a small amount of difficult text – it is when one is "focused on the language rather than the text". Extensive and intensive reading are two approaches to language learning and instruction, and may be used concurrently; intensive reading is however the more common approach, and often the only one used. Extensive reading has been used and advocated in language learning since at least the 19th century.

An alternative approach—Another model for teaching reading exists. This is an 'extensive reading approach' and involves students reading long texts or large quantities for general understanding, with the intention of enjoying the texts. Students are allowed to choose the books they read depending on their interests, and there is not always a follow-up discussion or work in class. In this way students are encouraged to read for pleasure and should become better readers.

Aims of Extensive Reading—The principal objective of undertaking an extensive reading approach is to get students reading in English and liking it. An increase in reading fluency should be another objective. Because of this, reading should be a pleasurable activity for the student, promoted as much as possible by the teacher.

Characteristics

Reading material: Reading for pleasure requires a large selection of books be available for students to choose from at their level. Here, teachers can make good use of graded readers.Setting up a class library is a good way to provide material for students, and because the books are kept in the actual classroom, there is a greater chance that they will be borrowed, and teachers also have more opportunities to refer to them during class.

Student choice: Students choose what they want to read based on their interests. If a student finds a book is too difficult or they don't enjoy it, they can change it for another one.

Reading for pleasure and information: Often students are put off reading when it is tied to class assignments. In an extensive reading programme, the students are reading principally for the content of the texts. Teachers can ask students about the books they are reading informally, and encourage occasional mini-presentations of the books or book reviews, but these should not seem like obligations to the students.

Extensive reading out of class: Teachers can do a lot to help students pursue extensive reading outside of the classroom. Having a classroom library and regularly

encouraging students to borrow books to take home are some things which can help. If books are shelved in the classroom, students can also be given class time to browse and select books.

Silent reading in class: Extensive reading should not be incompatible with classroom practice and methodology. There are teachers who set aside a regular fifteen-minute period of silent reading in class. This silent reading has been said to help structural awareness develop, build vocabulary, and to promote confidence in the language.

Language level: The vocabulary and grammar of the books that students read should not pose a difficulty. The objective of an extensive reading programme is to encourage reading fluency, so students should not be stopping frequently because they do not understand a passage. However, the books should not be too easy as this may well demotivate students, who feel they are getting nothing out of the books.

Use of dictionaries: Reading becomes a chore if students think they have to stop and look up every word they do not understand in a dictionary. For this reason, dictionaries should be avoided. Instead of interrupting their flow, students should be encouraged to jot down the words they come across in a vocabulary notebook, and they can look them up after they have finished reading.

Record keeping: If the teacher takes an interest in and keeps record of what students are reading, then this can in itself encourage students. If a note is also made of which books the students like, then the teacher can also recommend other books to the students. The teacher should also be careful to explain the reasons behind the programme, and to highlight the benefits of extensive reading to them so that they know why they are doing it.

The teacher as role model: If the teacher is also seen to be a reader by the students, then they will be encouraged to read. The teacher can talk in class about books that she or he has been reading, and if they are knowledgeable about the books in the class library, having read them, then they can make genuine recommendations to students about what to read. The teacher can also read aloud to students, as a way of introducing students to different genres or individual books.

Motivation—One of the key factors to the success (or not) of an extensive reading programme is motivation. Capturing student interest is the key. If the materials available are interesting to the students, then they will be far more likely to want to read them. These books should also be at a level appropriate to their reading ability. As mentioned earlier, the texts should not be too difficult so students experience the frustration of not being able to understand the books.

Getting the extensive reading programme off to a good start is also vital. The aim is for an initial successful experience so that students discover they can read in English and that they enjoy it. This positive experience should stimulate them to read more, increasing motivation, enjoyment and a desire to read.

The teacher's Role—The teacher encourages and assists the students with their reading, which the students undertake during and /or after class. Occasional summaries (oral or written) can help with this as they show both that the students are reading and also that they understand what their books are about. The activities can also

help students improve their writing or speaking ability. Another activity teachers can become involved in is individual counselling - this gives the teacher an opportunity to ask students about their reading experiences and can be done by the teacher while the rest of the class are silent reading. Above all, however, extensive reading should be a student-centred and a student-managed activity.

Benefits—It seems obvious that it is better for a student to learn 20 new words while reading 20 pages of a fairly easy and interesting text, than it is to spend 20 minutes memorizing the same words and then struggle through 2 difficult, boring paragraphs and then do various grammar and translation drills. (For a look at one such difficult text look at page four of this report.) However, I'll outline the main points below:

1. It can provide "massive comprehensible input".
2. It can enhance learners' general language competence.
3. It can increase knowledge of previously learned vocabulary.
4. It leads to improvement in writing.
5. It can motivate learners to read.
6. It teaches learners about the culture of the target language users, which will allow learners to more easily join the L2 speech community.
7. It can consolidate previously learned language.
8. It helps to build confidence with extended texts.
9. It facilitates the development of prediction skills.

Difficulties—Using extensive reading in a classroom is, by nature, a difficult thing to do. Different students are at different levels. It takes some work to make a viable curriculum in which not everyone is necessarily reading the same thing at the same time. Some students, who have been studying a foreign language for a while in traditional a class, resist extensive reading at first. They feel that if it isn't hard, it isn't "real learning". It is absolutely vital to explain the rational and benefits to them. Most difficult of all, particularly in an EFL as opposed to an ESL environment, is getting the appropriate reading materials. They can be expensive, hard to find, or simply unavailable, depending on where you are. It also takes some planning to effectively keep track of which students have which books and make sure they are all returned. In my next article on language learning, I'll talk about some of the extensive reading materials that I have found useful.

Reading Strategies

Language instructors are often frustrated by the fact that students do not automatically transfer the strategies they use when reading in their native language to reading in a language they are learning. Instead, they seem to think reading means starting at the beginning and going word by word, stopping to look up every unknown vocabulary item, until they reach the end. When they do this, students are relying exclusively on their linguistic knowledge, a bottom-up strategy. One of the most important functions of the language instructor, then, is to help students move past this idea and use top-down strategies as they do in their native language. Effective language instructors show students how they can adjust their reading behavior to deal

with a variety of situations, types of input, and reading purposes. They help students develop a set of reading strategies and match appropriate strategies to each reading situation.

Strategies that can help students read more quickly and effectively include:

1. Previewing: reviewing titles, section headings, and photo captions to get a sense of the structure and content of a reading selection.
2. Predicting: using knowledge of the subject matter to make predictions about content and vocabulary and check comprehension; using knowledge of the text type and purpose to make predictions about discourse structure; using knowledge about the author to make predictions about writing style, vocabulary, and content.
3. Skimming and scanning: using a quick survey of the text to get the main idea, identify text structure, confirm or question predictions.
4. Guessing from context: using prior knowledge of the subject and the ideas in the text as clues to the meanings of unknown words, instead of stopping to look them up.
5. Paraphrasing: stopping at the end of a section to check comprehension by restating the information and ideas in the text.

Instructors can help students learn when and how to use reading strategies in several ways:

1. By modeling the strategies aloud, talking through the processes of previewing, predicting, skimming and scanning, and paraphrasing. This shows students how the strategies work and how much they can know about a text before they begin to read word by word.
2. By allowing time in class for group and individual previewing and predicting activities as preparation for in-class or out-of-class reading. Allocating class time to these activities indicates their importance and value.
3. By using cloze (fill in the blank) exercises to review vocabulary items. This helps students learn to guess meaning from context.
4. By encouraging students to talk about what strategies they think will help them approach a reading assignment, and then talking after reading about what strategies they actually used. This helps students develop flexibility in their choice of strategies.

When language learners use reading strategies, they find that they can control the reading experience, and they gain confidence in their ability to read the language.

Reading to Learn

Reading is an essential part of language instruction at every level because it supports learning in multiple ways.

1. Reading to learn the language: Reading material is language input. By giving students a variety of materials to read, instructors provide multiple

opportunities for students to absorb vocabulary, grammar, sentence structure, and discourse structure as they occur in authentic contexts. Students thus gain a more complete picture of the ways in which the elements of the language work together to convey meaning.

2. Reading for content information: Students' purpose for reading in their native language is often to obtain information about a subject they are studying, and this purpose can be useful in the language learning classroom as well. Reading for content information in the language classroom gives students both authentic reading material and an authentic purpose for reading.
3. Reading for cultural knowledge and awareness: Reading everyday materials that are designed for native speakers can give students insight into the lifestyles and worldviews of the people whose language they are studying. When students have access to newspapers, magazines, and Web sites, they are exposed to culture in all its variety, and monolithic cultural stereotypes begin to break down.

When reading to learn, students need to follow four basic steps:

1. Figure out the purpose for reading. Activate background knowledge of the topic in order to predict or anticipate content and identify appropriate reading strategies.
2. Attend to the parts of the text that are relevant to the identified purpose and ignore the rest. This selectivity enables students to focus on specific items in the input and reduces the amount of information they have to hold in short-term memory.
3. Select strategies that are appropriate to the reading task and use them flexibly and interactively. Students' comprehension improves and their confidence increases when they use top-down and bottom-up skills simultaneously to construct meaning.
4. Check comprehension while reading and when the reading task is completed. Monitoring comprehension helps students detect inconsistencies and comprehension failures, helping them learn to use alternate strategies.

Word Attack Reading Skills

Developing word attack skills is necessary to help beginning readers and writers become independent and fluent. Word attack skills are the ability to convert graphic symbols into intelligible language.

Reading skills come from the following:

1. Seeing language as made up of units of sound and units of meaning.
2. Seeing print as letters symbolizing sounds, words, and discourse units of language such as sentences, paragraphs, and quotations.
3. Seeing relationships of ideas and the ability to infer, evaluate, and conclude.

The order of recognition for a fluent reader may go back and forth from recognizing letters to recognizing words, phrases, or even larger segments. For new readers, whether recognition begins with the letter or the word depends on the way they

learned to read. As fluency is gained, each reader develops his or her own strategies and interplay of skills. Proficiency in one skill aids proficiency in another.

Examples—Here are some examples of word attack skills:

1. Seeing the component parts of words.
2. Blending these parts into new words.
3. Recognizing syllable patterns.
4. Recognizing symbols for consonant sounds.
5. Recognizing symbols for vowel sounds.
6. Recognizing symbols for tone and other suprasegmental features.
7. Recognizing capital letters (upper case) and knowing when to use them.
8. Recognizing punctuation and how it affects reading for meaning and expression.
9. Recognizing the use of space to mark word breaks and paragraphs.
10. Using the above skills simultaneously with comprehension and critical reading skills.

Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis is a qualitative method that has been adopted and developed by social constructionists. Although discourse analysis can and is used by a handful of cognitive psychologists, it is based on a view that is largely anti-scientific, though not anti-research. Social constructionism is not easy to define, but it is possible to outline some basic assumptions of the approach:

- Psychologists cannot be objective when studying human behaviour. In the scientific approach there is the belief that knowledge can be gained by objectivity (observations made without bias or preconceptions, rather as though the investigator is an alien from another planet and has no preconceived notion of what is being observed). However, this belief has been disputed – people, including researchers, cannot be objective. A researcher is very likely to hold some position (expectation, bias, belief, or set of cultural values) when they are conducting their research. The result is that people can construct their own versions of reality and not necessarily objective versions either.
- Reality is socially constructed. In the scientific approach it is assumed that it is possible to categorise reality, and that ideas or constructs that psychologists use, such as personality and intelligence, are naturally occurring things or categories. However, this ignores the fact that language shapes the categories and constructs we use. Since language is a social and cultural thing, our sense of reality is socially and culturally constructed.
- People are the products of social interaction. In the scientific approach it is assumed that many of the constructs used are 'inner essences'. That is to say that personality, anxiety, drives, and so on, exist somewhere within. However, it may be the case that many of these so-called essences are actually the products of social interaction.

In order to understand these assumptions, let's look at the example provided by Burr (1995) on the issue of personality.

Why Discourse Analysis?

Discourse analysis is a way of understanding social interactions. The researcher acknowledges their own bias and position on the issue, known as reflexivity. The aims of research vary: The aim of one investigator might be to understand power relationships in society in order to bring about change; another may be interested in appearance and how it can shape identify; and another investigator may be interested in an interaction or conversation simply for its own sake (in terms of not knowing what the study might uncover). The research begins with a research question (and not a hypothesis in the formal sense) that is aimed at a theoretical position. A conversation or piece of text is transcribed and then deconstructed. This involves attempting to identify features in the text, such as discourses. A discourse is a particular theme in the text, especially those that relate to identities, for example such as a statement that reiterates a view or claim that men find weddings dull, and so on. Topics that have been studied include men's friendships, family conversations of the royal family, an interview with Princess Diana, media constructions of racism, gender categories in discourse, lesbian motherhood, conversations about marriage, men's talk about fatherhood, and so on.

How to do a Discourse Analysis?

The first point to note is that in order to do a discourse analysis you need to have read a handful yourself first. By reading published articles that use the method, you will have a better understanding of (1) how to do an analysis and (2) some of the theoretical orientations that you will need to know to do your own analysis. Having identified a theory and a chosen item (text or recorded conversation) to analyse, you need to transcribe it in one of the accepted/published ways. The transcript must always appear in the appendices. There are many different forms of discourse analysis, so here we will focus on thematic analysis as an example.

Types of Discourse Analysis

There are numerous "types" or theories of Discourse Analysis. Jacques Derrida's "Deconstruction" would be one; so would Michel Foucault's Genealogy and social criticism and analysis of the uses of discourse to exercise power (such as his analysis of how "Knowledge" is created in our societies and with what purpose or effect); Fredric Jameson's Marxist analysis of Postmodernism itself would provide another interesting reading on the dominant discourse of our time; as would Julia Kristeva's or H?l?ne Cixous' Feminist interpretations of current social practices. Numerous other theories or "readings" exist and the bibliography and list of links will provide further information to allow you to chose the most relevant or appealing to you. The bibliography of preparatory reading to the Module "Critical Theories" of the University of Wales Swansea might also be helpful.

Advantages and Disadvantages

Discourse Analysis and critical thinking is applicable to every situation and every subject. The new perspective provided by discourse analysis allows personal growth and a high level of creative fulfillment. No technology or funds are necessary and authoritative discourse analysis can lead to fundamental changes in the practices of an institution, the profession, and society as a whole. However, Discourse Analysis does not provide definite answers; it is not a "hard" science, but an insight/knowledge based on continuous debate and argumentation.

Using Reading as a Tool for Reference Skills i.e. Use of Dictionary, Encyclopaedia and Internet

Dictionary

A dictionary is a reference book that focuses on defining words and phrases, including multiple meanings. The most frequently used dictionary is a language dictionary that includes the majority of frequently used words in a language. Language dictionaries are made for different types of users: scholars, office workers, schools, and second language learners. Adult English language dictionaries characteristically include hyphenation information, pronunciation guides, part of speech, alternate spellings, etymological information, sample sentences, usage notes, and sometimes synonyms. Cross-references may be used for less-used forms—such as British variations in a dictionary of American English, and charts and illustrations may help amplify the definitions.

There are many competing dictionaries put out by different companies. Not only do they have different forms — paperback, hardbound, and online editions — but they differ in other ways. Each company, for example, uses its own version of phonetic respelling based on the research done by its experts. One company might use the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), while others have proprietary pronunciation symbols, and still others use the letters of the alphabet in a special way to indicate pronunciation. Other differences between dictionaries show up in other features. Many dictionaries include their experts' guidance on grammar, usage, and the history of the English language. Definitions differ slightly, and sample sentences may be the work of the editorial staff or taken from real-world usage, perhaps the first known written use, when possible.

There are other types of language dictionaries besides the standard English dictionary. There are dictionaries for the different dialects of English, dictionaries for other languages, and bilingual dictionaries that help you translate from one language to another. There are dictionaries of living languages and dictionaries of languages that are preserved only in fragments of ancient manuscript, and dictionaries that address specialized areas of language use, such as idioms or political slang.

Variations on the dictionary provide some ingenious new types of reference works. Multi-function dictionaries may combine the properties of a dictionary and a thesaurus. Dictionaries organized thematically assist you when you don't know exactly what word you want. Misspelling dictionaries have entries for the common

misspellings of words so that you can find words even when you don't know how to spell them correctly.

Other dictionaries address specialty areas, like dictionaries of biography and dictionaries of geography. Lacking the full articles of an encyclopedia, they give users a quick introduction to the subject area.

Benefits of Dictionary

There are many ways that a person can find out about words. The best known way to find out about a word is to use a dictionary.

1. **Improve your English**—It's one of the best things that you can do to improve your English.
2. **Learn the Phonetic Alphabet**—At the beginning of most good English dictionaries, you'll find the phonetic table, which tells you how to pronounce the phonetic symbols given with each word. If you learn these symbols, you'll find it much easier to pronounce new words.
3. **Learn how to use the stress marks**—Most English dictionaries show where the stress of a word is by using the mark '. This means that the following syllable is stressed:

'pho-to-graph
pho- 'to-gra-pher
pho-to-'gra-phic

The best way to improve your pronunciation is with correct word stress, as making mistakes with stress causes more misunderstandings than mispronouncing the word.

4. **Make sure you know the grammar of the new word**—If it is a verb, does it need a preposition, such as 'in' or 'of'? Does the verb have an irregular ending?
5. **Look at the definition of the new word**—If you don't understand it, try a simpler dictionary. Good dictionaries give definitions that are simpler than the word they describe.
6. **Look at the example sentence given**—It should show the new word in a way that explains its meaning.

A dictionary will give you the following information about a word:

1. How to spell the word and its special plural form
2. Whether or not the word is capitalized or abbreviated
3. How to break the word into syllables
4. How to pronounce the word
5. The part of speech of a word
6. Different meanings that the word has, as well as synonyms (same meaning) and antonyms (opposite meaning)
7. A sentence or expression with the word used correctly
8. The meanings of important prefixes and suffixes

9. The special uses of the word
10. The history of the word
11. Other words derived from the main word

Special sections in some dictionaries tell you about:

1. Foreign words and phrases
2. Abbreviations
3. Addresses of colleges or government offices
4. The population of cities and countries

Applying the following pointers will save time when you use a dictionary:

1. Know and use proper alphabetical order
2. Use guide words to save time
3. Check all abbreviations and symbols in the special sections
4. If at first you don't succeed in finding the word, don't give up. You might need to check several possible spellings before finding the word
5. Substitute the meaning you find for the word in the sentence. Be sure you select the most appropriate meaning, not merely the first one you come to
6. Try saying the word aloud after you look at the pronunciation key.

How to Use a Dictionary

First, think of the word to look up. Then open the dictionary to as close to the first letter or two of the word as possible. Then either turn back or forward to find the word. To help the search, dictionaries have guide words to help. Guide words are at the top of each page. The first guide word is the first word on a page, and the second guide word at the top of the page is the last word on the page. Using the guidewords, you should find the word you a looking for easily. It will be between the words.

Reasons for using a dictionary—A dictionary is a very important tool for anyone who is learning a new language. With a good dictionary you can do the following:

1. Look up the meaning of an English word you see or hear
2. Find the English translation of a word in your language
3. Check the spelling of a word
4. Check the plural of a noun or past tense of a verb
5. Find out other grammatical information about a word
6. Find the synonym or antonym of a word
7. Look up the collocations of a word
8. Check the part of speech of a word
9. Find out how to say a word
10. Find out about the register of a word
11. Find examples of the use of a word in natural language

To be a good dictionary user, however, it is not enough to know what to use the dictionary for. You must also decide which is the best dictionary for any of the

purposes listed above. As well as this, you need to be able to find what you are looking for quickly; you need to be sure that you have found what you were looking for; and, most importantly, you need to know when to use your dictionary.

Knowing which dictionary to use—Electronic dictionaries are the best choice for ESL students. Most of them contain native-language equivalents and explanations, as well as definitions and example sentences in English. They can speak the English word to you, and they are easy to carry around. However, they are expensive and easy to lose, so put your name on yours!

A cheaper possibility, if you are going to work at the computer, is to use an online dictionary. A very good one for ESL students is the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English. Alternatively, if you open Google and type, for example, define: superstitious, you will get a long list of different definitions of superstitious.

A good monolingual dictionary is recommended for students who already have a high standard of English and want to learn about word use.

Finding words quickly—This is a skill that you need to practise. Ask someone to write down 5 words and see how long it takes you to find them. Of course, you will need to know the English alphabet perfectly, so practise this too. Use the guide words at the top of each dictionary page; and keep practising until you can find any word within 10 seconds. You should also practise finding words in your own language in your bilingual dictionary. If you use an electronic dictionary, take some time at home to learn how it works and, again, practise finding words quickly.

Finding the right meaning of an English word—Very often when you look up a new English word, you find that it has more than one meaning. If you are not sure which one is correct, here's what you can do:

1. First, check through all the meanings and find the one that makes most sense in the context where you found the word. (Very often, many of the different meanings are similar and this should be enough to give you a good idea what the word means.)
2. Second, if you really want to make sure, think what the word is in your own language and look it up in a bilingual dictionary. If one of the English translations is the original word you looked up, then you can be satisfied that you have found the right meaning.

Finding the right spelling—Another problem you may have is when you want to check your spelling but you can't find the word you're looking for. What can you do?

1. If you are sure of the first few letters, just look down the page until you find the right spelling. (Again, it is helpful to check the meaning is the one you expect.)
2. If you are not sure of the first few letters, try some other possibilities. You know for example that some words that start with an -n sound have k as their first letter; e.g. knife, knight. So if you can't find the word under N, try looking in the K pages.
3. If you still can't find the word, think what it is in your language and look it up in your bilingual dictionary.

Finding the right English translation of a word in your language—When you look up a word in your own language in a bilingual dictionary, you will probably find that there is more than one English translation. If you are not sure which to use, you could try a back translation. This means that you look up the English translations one by one in a monolingual dictionary. If a word has a definition that matches the word in your language, you are safe to use it.

Knowing when to use the dictionary—If you look up every new word you see or hear, you will spend your whole day with the dictionary in your hand. That's no good! You have to be clever and choose the right words to check and the right time to do it. Try to follow the advice below and you will become a much more efficient language learner:

1. When you find a new word while reading, finish the sentence (better: the paragraph). If you haven't guessed the meaning and it still seems important, then you can look it up. To avoid interrupting your reading for too long, you should find its meaning in your own language using a bilingual dictionary.
2. When you hear a new word in class (or the teacher has written it on the board), wait and continue listening. What the teacher says next may help you to understand the word. If you look in your dictionary, you will not hear what comes next, and this will make understanding the lesson more and more difficult.
3. If you think the word is very important, you could copy it from the board or write how you think it is spelled. Then later you could ask the teacher or another student what it means.

Encyclopedia

An encyclopedia is a huge set of articles full of information about many, many subjects. The encyclopedia will not give you as much information as a textbook, but it gives a good basic overview of each subject, so that you will have a place to start learning. The articles are in alphabetical order, and there is an index so that you can find each one. You can either use an actual encyclopedia in a library or at home, or you can use one of the online encyclopedia systems available.

An encyclopedia or encyclopaedia is a book or series of books that contain general information about many topics or areas. The world encyclopedia comes from the Greek enkyklia paideia, which means "a general knowledge." The word has been in use for at least 500 years, and used in print for the first time in Encyclopaedia, or Knowledge of the World of Disciplines, which was published in 1559.

The first encyclopedia per se was written in the first century BC by Pliny the Elder with the help of his nephew. The work consisted of 37 volumes and covered everything from anthropology and human physiology to agriculture, painting, and pharmacology. Through the following few centuries, encyclopedias adopted a religious overtone. The first Christian encyclopedia was published in 560 AD, and the first Muslim encyclopedia came to light soon after. One of the longest encyclopedias to ever see the light is also one of the oldest. In 1403, the Yongle Encyclopedia was published in China. It consisted of 11,000 handwritten volumes; most of the original work has been lost through the centuries, and less than 400 volumes survive today.

An encyclopedia is often confused with a dictionary, although they are inherently different. A dictionary offers definition of words, while an encyclopedia explores topics more in depth and often includes illustrations, maps, and photographs. While most encyclopedias are organized alphabetically, some are organized by categories or cross-referenced articles.

In the 20th century, the Encyclopedia Britannica has become the standard for encyclopedia works. Topical encyclopedias have also become more popular, and cover topics as varied as economics, bioethics, or Judaica. Many encyclopedias are now being published in CD-ROM form, with the most notable example being Microsoft's Encarta™; other encyclopedias are now entirely available online, with no print version. One of the most important advantages of online encyclopedias is the fact that they can be edited frequently, so they remain up to date. Traditionally, an encyclopedia was written by a single writer or as a collaborative effort, but new works are being put together by a team of writers who often have no face to face contact whatsoever with each other.

How to Use an Encyclopedia

An encyclopedia is an easy-to-use reference tool found in all libraries. An encyclopedia may be one volume and have a very specific topic as its subject, or an encyclopedia may have multiple volumes that cover a wide range of topics. Because encyclopedias are so easy to use and so accessible, many people use them as their first choice for a reference tool. Following instructions are useful for use an encyclopedia:

1. Decide if you need a general encyclopedia or a specialized one. Most general encyclopedias are multivolume sets and follow a similar format.
2. Examine the directions for the specific encyclopedia you are using. Most encyclopedias are set up in alphabetical format, but not all are. Some encyclopedias require that you know the key word or subject heading in order to find the correct information scattered throughout a variety of volumes. Other encyclopedias devote different volumes to different subjects.
3. Locate the index. Depending on the encyclopedia, the index is usually in the last series of volumes and is in alphabetical order. It gives you page numbers and volume numbers to locate the article you are researching.
4. Read the article. As you do research, you can find other cross-references that can broaden your topic and provide new insight into your research. Also, pay attention to maps, graphs and pictures in the article.
5. Study the outline provided for longer articles. This is a helpful reference tool when organizing your writing.
6. Cite authors correctly. Each encyclopedia has different methods of listing authors. This information is either in the introductory material or in the index.

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN DICTIONARY AND ENCYCLOPEDIA

Encyclopedia and Dictionary are two words that are often confused when it comes to their usage and meanings. Encyclopedia is an information bank. On the other hand, a dictionary is a lexicon that contains meanings and possibly, usages of words. This is the main differences between an encyclopedia and dictionary.

Dictionary shows the definitions of words and an encyclopedia shows many details of many things. An encyclopedias have volumes of books while dictionaries don't (some...). The encyclopedia gives information from either all branches of knowledge while the dictionary is a collection of words in a specific language listed alphabetically, with definition, etymologies, phonetics, pronunciation, abbreviations and other information.

An encyclopedia is a collection of information about various topics under the sun. The topics and subjects include arts, history, geography, civics, politics, geology, zoology, physics, chemistry, mathematics, numismatics and the other related subjects. On the other hand, a dictionary is a compilation of words and their meanings so that it can be used by the student or the researcher to know the exact meanings and the usage of the different words.

Encyclopedia is more concerned with general knowledge. On the other hand, dictionary is not concerned that much with general knowledge. In fact, a dictionary is the writer's tool. He makes used of it whenever he has any doubt regarding the meaning of a given word or its usage.

On the other hand, an encyclopedia has nothing to do with words and their usages. In fact, it has nothing to do with English grammar. On the contrary, a dictionary has everything to do with grammar. It can be said that dictionary and grammar go together. It is said that grammar and dictionary are the two eyes of a writer.

On the other hand, an encyclopedia is considered to be a great reference book for all the researchers of almost all the subjects under the sun. The compilation of an encyclopedia takes a long time usually years. On the other hand, the compilation of a dictionary does not take a long time. In fact, more and more words can be added to the dictionary in future editions.

Internet

The internet in simple terms is a network of the interlinked computer networking worldwide, which is accessible to the general public. These interconnected computers work by transmitting data through a special type of packet switching which is known as the IP or the internet protocol. Internet is such a huge network of several different interlinked networks relating to the business, government, academic, and even smaller domestic networks, therefore internet is known as the network of all the other networks. These networks enable the internet to be used for various important functions which include the several means of communications like the file transfer, the online chat and even the sharing of the documents and web sites on the WWW, or the World Wide Web.

It is always mistaken said that the internet and the World Wide Web are both the same terms, or are synonymous. Actually there is a very significant difference between the two which has to be clear to understand both the terms. The internet and World Wide Web are both the networks yet; the internet is the network of the several different computers which are connected through the linkage of the accessories like the copper wires, the fiber optics and even the latest wireless connections. However, the World Wide Web consists of the interlinked collection of the information and documents which are taken as the resource by the general public. These are then linked by the website URLs and the hyperlinks. Therefore World Wide Web is one of the services offered by the whole complicated and huge network of the internet.

The use of IP in the Internet is the integral part of the network, as they provide the services of the internet, through different layers organization through the IP data packets. There are other protocols that are the sub-classes of the IP itself, like the TCP, and the HTTP.

How to Access the Internet

There are four ingredients needed to access the Internet —(1) an ISP, (2) a modem, (3) a Web browser and (4) an e-mail program.

1. **The Internet Service Provider (ISP)**—Your access to the Internet is through an Internet service provider (ISP), which can be a large company such as America Online or MSN, or any of hundreds of smaller ISPs throughout the country. You are offered unlimited access for a fixed rate per month.
2. **The Modem**—Depending on the kind of service you have, you will need a unit of hardware called a "modem" for connection. Slow-speed dial-up telephone access uses an analog modem, which may already be installed in your computer. If not, one can be plugged into the USB port.
3. **If you sign up for cable or DSL service,** which is from 40 to 100 times faster than telephone dial-up, your provider may send you the appropriate modem, or you can purchase it at your local electronics store. Quite simply, opt for the high-speed service if you can. Dial-up modems are an exercise in extreme patience.
4. **Browsing the Web**—A Windows PC comes with the Internet Explorer Web browser. The Mac comes with Safari. Windows users quite often choose a different browser such as Firefox (www.mozilla.org) or Opera (www.opera.com), which offer additional features and are not as subject to attack by hackers. Likewise, Mac users may opt for Firefox.
5. **The first time you hook up to a new ISP,** you may need their assistance to configure the dial-up or networking software in your computer. After that, all you do is launch the browser, and you are "surfing the Web."
6. **Sending E-Mail**—Your computer also comes with an e-mail program to send and receive mail. Windows comes with Outlook, and the Mac comes with Mail, although many users choose Eudora or Thunderbird, other popular e-mail clients. The first time you connect to a new ISP, you may need help in

configuring your e-mail program to use their mail servers. From then on, you launch the mail program as you would any other.

Role of the Internet in Reading

Some experts say that people are reading less than ever. In one sense that's true, at least for certain forms of writing. However, you might be reading a lot more than you think. There are more and more pieces of writing to read than ever before. However, the medium that we use to read is evolving.

Reading is a task that we've historically associated with printed materials. Novels, textbooks, reference manuals, magazines, newspapers, journals, articles, poems, short stories... all of these great documents were historically printed and distributed on pieces of paper, bound or loose, for centuries. The invention of the printing press rivals the impact of the steam engine on advancing our world and disseminating knowledge to the masses. Both of these inventions are hundreds of years old.

New technologies have had an equally huge impact on our world in a much shorter time. Just think of life without television, radio, and telecommunications: it almost seems impossible to imagine our world without these conveniences. They've become a huge part of modern life and many people spend hours each day using these media. Computers have grabbed a large slice of our available time and energies. To top it all off, the Internet, the medium that allows us to access the information playground that is the World Wide Web, has provided a whole new medium for information exchange. Although printed media still commands significant sales, you can read many of the same materials on-line via the World Wide Web. Books, traditional magazines, and journals are now distributed electronically. Blogs and other information resources (e.g. Wikipedia) are easily accessible, and searchable, on-line. There's plenty of material out there to read on paper and on computer screens. Are we still reading as much as we used to?

Reading habits are typically measured by the number of minutes per day spent reading printed materials. You can also measure these habits by numbers of pages, documents, or books over time as well as the subject matter which is being read. A 2005 Canadian study by the Department of Canadian Heritage, "Reading and Buying Books For Pleasure", compared the results of a similar 1991 study (prior to the massive use of the Internet and the World Wide Web) to more recent research. You might think that the proliferation of video games, new television channels, and on-line games, along with Web surfing, might have had a negative impact on reading. The Internet did have an impact on reading, but the results may be a bit of a surprise.

The World Wide Web has had a negative impact but only on certain kinds of reading. Internet usage has had an impact on magazine and newspaper reading, as well as television watching. However, the time spent reading books for pleasure has stayed constant during between the two studies, although people are managing to read fewer books per year.

Although I don't have a scientific explanation for these trends, I'll speculate on the reasons for the decline in certain types of reading while others increase or stay constant over time. I think the reason lies in the realms of cost and distribution. Put

simply, shorter writing is more easily and more freely available over the Internet than longer documents like novels or non-fiction books.

Look at any major magazine or periodical in North America and you'll find a common attribute: they all have an on-line presence. This is also true for many more specialized magazines with more limited readerships: many magazines, newspapers, newsletters, and other periodicals are now available on-line at any time for the cost of an Internet connection. In addition, many publications that were weekly or monthly in print form are updated much more frequently on the Web. You can get more up-to-date information via periodical Web sites than their printed versions. Blogs and on-line newsletters add to the availability of free information. The incentive to wait for, find, and purchase printed periodicals diminishes everyday.

Contrast this with books. There's no doubt that more and more books are being made available on-line, but the volume and variety of on-line books is relatively small and limited compared to their physical versions. Book publishers are not adopting on-line versions of their books with the same speed and gusto as the periodical publishers. And, unless the books are already in the public domain, publishers generally do not give away copies of new books for free. Just look at Scholastic and J. K. Rowling as an example of how book publishers are not only pursuing printed books, they are actively shunning on-line versions of their books. The Internet was abuzz with rumors and "leaks" of the text of "Harry Potter and the Deathly Hallows" prior to its publication, with the author asking the world-at-large to refrain from posting plot spoilers on the Internet.

There's no doubt that the way we read Web pages, and our on-line content preferences, have a major impact on what we read, how long we read, and how attentively we read when on-line. However, when you consider that much of the Web's content is words, people are still doing a heck of a lot of reading. The biggest change is the media which we read, whereby computer screens are capturing an increasingly large slice of total reading time.

CRITICAL LITERACY IN THE CLASSROOM

Because critical literacy theory focuses on the relationships between language, power, social practice, and access to social goods and services, there are numerous methods of engaging students in becoming critical members of their society. Within the frame of critical literacy, it is important to look at texts, like novels, magazine articles, short stories, films, etc., through a lens that challenges societal norms. Students can evaluate whose knowledge is being privileged in texts and de-construct the message of those meanings. As readers, students must also evaluate the social construction of a text and question the factors that may have influenced the author to create the text in a specific manner. Moreover, using critical literacy, teachers encourage students to look at texts from other perspectives and re-create them from the standpoint of marginalized groups in order to analyze the power relations and social inequities promoted by the texts.

Edward Behrman explains that the development of critical literacy encourages social justice and exploration of language and literature in many forms. Behrman suggests that the specific types of lessons examine power relationships that are found in language and literature and that these practices show students that language is never neutral. Because critical literacy looks different in every classroom, based on the subject matter and the population of students, there is no formula for how teachers engage students in mastery of critical literacy; however, there are some practices that appear in lessons more commonly. Behrman maintains that developing a pedagogy that includes critical literacy is an organic process that continually needs to be revisited and refined.

Behrman reviewed articles, published between 1999 and 2003 in The Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy that focused on lessons and units emphasizing critical literacy pedagogy in middle and high school grades. Behrman's methodology included searching electronic databases for the keyword 'critical literacy.' After refining his search to include articles that contained classroom applications only, Behrman found 36 articles that presented "lessons or units intended to support critical literacy at the upper primary or secondary levels (grades 4-12)." Behrman's search revealed that the most commonly used practices that support critical literacy included: reading supplementary texts; reading multiple texts; reading from a resistant perspective; producing counter-texts; having students conduct research about topics of personal interest; and challenging students to take social action.

Reading supplementary texts

Reading supplementary texts representative of today's changing media and technology allows students to make connections with the literature or content being studied. Supplementary texts also provide the context for students to confront social issues that are often avoided by canonical works and/or are not covered in dated textbooks. Students have the opportunity to critique themes and issues similar to those found in traditional texts, but they can also look at other mediums. Furthermore, teachers who use supplementary texts can encourage conversations about social issues that may not be covered in the typical sterile required reading curriculum of schools. According to Morrell, by offering students the opportunity to review appropriate Internet resources, songs, television programming, and advertisements, as well as many other visual mediums, students have exposure to popular texts they can analyze outside of school as well.

Classroom Application—Practitioners can use lyrics from popular music as supplementary texts in order to engage students in discussion about race, gender, religion, politics, etc. In an article published in Reading Online, Carol Lloyd suggests using popular songs to show students how to make connections between the popular media and political issues. For example, Lloyd recommends using the lyrics of "Buffalo Soldier," written by Bob Marley, as a supplementary text that mentions the freed slaves who fought as soldiers in America during the 19th century; their stories rarely appear in a traditional textbook. An examination of the lyrics can lead to a discussion about the exclusion of this group of Americans from the history books. Similarly, Lloyd shows how teachers can use the lyrics of popular songs to initiate discussion about

economic and political issues faced by Americans. This type of engagement with texts appeals to students' interests, exposes them to new forms of text and also challenges the dominant ideology of the textbook — all of which are essential components of critical literacy.

Reading multiple texts

Incorporating multiple texts based on similar literary themes offers students the opportunity to critique the values or voices that are being promoted. Furthermore, this practice challenges the idea that meaning is fixed and encourages students to use evidence to support their interpretation.19 Students can evaluate the social, cultural, and historical frameworks of texts by analyzing differing perspectives of a single event.

Classroom Application—An example of this practice would be offering students the choice of reading To Kill a Mockingbird, an American novel written by a white, southern female; Wolf Whistle, a novel with a similar theme of racial discrimination written by Lewis Nordan, a white, southern man; A Lesson Before Dying by Ernest J. Gaines, a southern African-American man; or the play A Raisin in the Sun by Lorraine Hansberry, an African-American woman from the Midwest. All of these authors wrote about similar topics and themes during the same time period and were born in the pre-Civil Rights Era. By reading the diverse perspectives of analogous themes and evaluating the voices of these authors, students can assess the perspective of the authors in order to better understand their value systems and why characters were portrayed in a certain manner. A comparative study of these four authors and novels would offer students the opportunity to explore how race, gender, and socio-economic status are portrayed by authors with dissimilar backgrounds.

Reading from a resistant perspective

Behrman suggests that the practice of reading from the perspective of resistance involves students in the interpretation of a text from the viewpoint of the world and not just the common Euro-centric ideology often found in standard texts.20 By considering how people from different backgrounds (i.e., racial, cultural, gender, religious, socio-economic status, sexual orientation) would read the same text, students can gain a better understanding of how the representative group would be affected by a reading of a text. This type of reading would be particularly effective and beneficial in social studies classes because it would offer students multiple perspectives of the same event. By providing the stories of people whose voices typically aren't heard, teachers offer students the opportunity to participate in dialogue about why certain perspectives are normally privileged while others are silenced.

Classroom Application—Behrman's search revealed that some teachers used the resistant-perspective approach and students learned to read a text using a functional grammar (dialectical) or by critiquing the word choice of an author in a song or news report. In learning to read from a resistant perspective, students can confront certain stereotypes promoted by a text and deconstruct the meaning or value being privileged.

Producing counter-texts

Another common practice found in classrooms that promote a critical literacy involves having students produce counter-texts. Essentially, this involves having students generate narratives or other texts, including multi-media creations, from a non-mainstream perspective. "Producing counter-texts can serve to validate the thoughts, observations, and feelings of students and other underrepresented groups." This approach to curriculum offers students occasions to speak from the point of view of those voices that are often silenced or marginalized, thereby empowering them. Classroom Application—Practitioners recommended that counter-texts may be produced in reading logs, journals, weblogs, personal narratives, and student-created videos. When students produce counter-texts and evaluate the process they used in order to construct the text, they validate their own perspectives.

Providing opportunities for student choice

Student choice in any type of research has long been touted by constructivists and critical pedagogues like John Dewey and Howard Gardner as an effective way to involve, encourage, and empower students to actively participate in the construction of knowledge. Similarly, proponents of critical literacy theory in classrooms suggest that by allowing student choice, teachers legitimize interests and knowledge of their students.25 Choosing a topic for research, however, is not considered critical unless students evaluate the problems involved in society and how the conditions of society created this problem.

Classroom Application—An example of providing student choice in assignments is participation in literature circles or book clubs. Students select books based on interest and then conduct research based on a theme or the context of the novel. While reading chosen novels and discussing the historical or political context of the novel, students can evaluate why the author chose to write in a particular manner and hypothesize why the author may have privileged certain themes. Literature circles not only provide students with choices about reading material, but this practice also involves students in discussion about the novel, thus opening dialogue for diverse perspectives.

Textbook

The book you want depends on your level of interest. Do you merely want to broaden your education? Are you a professional in a related field who needs working knowledge of geology? Does your hobby extend into Earth science? Are you a teacher? A textbook is probably best for a professional or a teacher. A textbook or coursebook is a manual of instruction in any branch of study. Textbooks are produced according to the demands of educational institutions. Although most textbooks are only published in printed format, many are now available as online electronic books and increasingly, although illegally, in scanned format in P2P networks.

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Textbook as a Tool

I like to think of textbooks as tools—they are only as good as the person using them. A hammer in the hands of a competent carpenter can be used to create a great cathedral or an exquisite piece of furniture. In the hands of someone else, the result may be a rundown shack or a rickety bench. How you decide to use textbooks will depend on many factors.

I would like to add a personal note of caution here: do not make the mistake of basing your entire classroom curriculum on a single textbook. The textbook needs to be used judiciously. A carpenter, for example, doesn't use only a hammer to build a magnificent oak chest. She may use a plane, chisel, saw, sander, or any number of tools to create the masterpiece she wishes to build. A great classroom program, just like a great piece of furniture, needs many tools in its construction.

When thinking about how you want to use textbooks, consider the following:

1. Use the textbook as a resource for students, but not the only resource.
2. Use a textbook as a guide, not a mandate, for instruction.
3. Be free to modify, change, eliminate, or add to the material in the textbook.
4. Supplement the textbook with lots of outside readings.
5. Supplement teacher information in the textbook with teacher resource books; attendance at local, regional, or national conferences; articles in professional periodicals; and conversations with experienced teachers.

Why Textbooks are Useful

1. Texts are written by experienced teachers and writers, and many of them are quite good.
1. Texts provide a "big picture" of the whole curriculum and guidelines for what to do.
2. It is very easy to jump around, with no clear goal, when you use a variety of materials with no single book as a reference.

When Textbooks Should be Used

1. Textbooks are probably necessary for new teachers, although they should still be supplemented; using a textbook as a guideline lightens new teachers' loads and prevents them from becoming overwhelmed.
2. Textbooks are necessary when a teacher has to plan for five different classes a day.

How to Use Textbooks

Use the text as an "anchor," but supplement it occasionally.

1. It the text doesn't address the variety of needs that are present in the classroom, it will need to be supplemented.
2. If a text used by young children doesn't include a variety of activities, it will need to be supplemented, since young children require frequent changes of activities.

3. Use the same texts that mainstream students use, but adapt them to the needs of your students; having the same books as their native-English-speaking peers helps ELLs build confidence.

ADVANTAGES OF TEXTBOOK IN THE CLASSROOM

Textbooks provide you with several advantages in the classroom:

1. Textbooks are especially helpful for beginning teachers. The material to be covered and the design of each lesson are carefully spelled out in detail.
2. Textbooks provide organized units of work. A textbook gives you all the plans and lessons you need to cover a topic in some detail.
3. A textbook series provides you with a balanced, chronological presentation of information.
4. Textbooks are a detailed sequence of teaching procedures that tell you what to do and when to do it. There are no surprises—everything is carefully spelled out.
5. Textbooks provide administrators and teachers with a complete program. The series is typically based on the latest research and teaching strategies.
6. Good textbooks are excellent teaching aids. They're a resource for both teachers and students.

Disadvantages of Textbook

1. A textbook is only as good as the teacher who uses it. And it's important to remember that a textbook is just one tool, perhaps a very important tool, in your teaching arsenal. Sometimes, teachers over-rely on textbooks and don't consider other aids or other materials for the classroom.
2. As a teacher, you'll need to make many decisions, and one of those is how you want to use the textbook. As good as they may appear on the surface, textbooks do have some limitations.

Reading Club

Reading is an essential skill for everyone. It is the vital foundation of a child's learning and engagement in their school years and for life. Reading club are fun and rewarding in that they change the private and personal experience of reading into a shared one. Reading groups have become increasingly popular in recent years, with many libraries, bookshops and workplaces hosting meetings.

A reading club is a group that meets regularly to read and to discuss what they are reading. Reading clubs are one way to promote reading. They are a good way to establish a reading habit, to expose readers to a variety of literature, including advanced reading materials, to move new readers from "learning" to "reading", to promote reading fluency and comprehension, to promote reading for enjoyment, to provide a social context for promoting literacy, and to teach readers to find information in printed text.

Features

Here are some features of a reading club:

3. A reading club should consist of 15 or fewer people.
4. It should meet regularly.
5. It should have a helper or teacher who has been trained as a leader or facilitator, reads fluently, comprehends well, can write well, and serves as a model for the group.
6. The reading club should have access to local language reading materials. Material should be relevant and interesting and should cause people to think about what they are reading.

Class Library

Classroom libraries help students attain reading achievement. Here, children learning to read need access to meaningful and personally interesting books. Effective teachers of reading incorporate diverse trade books into their reading curriculum, introducing their students to the wide range of genres, authors, and topics. While the best predictor of reading success is the amount of time spent reading, reading achievement is also influenced by the frequency, amount, and diversity of reading activities. By providing access to a rich classroom library, teachers promote greater amounts of reading, increased reading frequency, and more diverse reading experiences among their students, thus helping them to attain greater levels of reading achievement.

Effective teachers of reading know that comprehension is enhanced by reflection and social interaction. Therefore, they provide their students with multiple opportunities to respond to their reading and interact with their peers through a variety of activities such as book clubs and discussions. Increased vocabulary knowledge helps students understand what they read, and reading comprehension is enhanced when students understand the meaning of words. Thus there is a reciprocal benefit to independent reading of trade books — vocabulary growth and reading comprehension. Effective teachers know the reading levels of their students and reading levels of the trade books in their classrooom, so that they can match their students to texts that can be read with success, thus assisting their students to grow as readers.

Important of a Class Library

A classroom library is the heartbeat of a teacher's environment. It is the window into an educator's own personality, and it reflects the importance of literacy in the classroom. I believe every teacher -- no matter what subject he or she teaches -- should have one. We should provide access to books in our classes with the same differentiated approach we bring to any other lesson, assessment, or activity because there are, I believe, four categories of students who pursue books. The Book Hunter: These are students who will seek out the book they want, regardless of locale. They get a mere whiff of a good book in the air, and they pursue it. They understand how to choose books and seek out advice when they need it.

The Library Literate: These are students who won't or can't go to a store, but who are comfortable enough to go to the local library, perhaps seeking advice from the friendly face on the other side of the desk. The Lunchtime Lurker: These are the students who may be comfortable only at the school library. This may also be the only place where they feel safe. Perhaps they escape lunchtime trauma by diving into the dark corners of the library's stacks, surrounded by countless books and those "READ" posters.

The Reluctant Phobe: And then there are students who are so frightened of books, of literacy, and of choice that they feel comfortable only in their classroom library, reaching for books they know exactly where to find, and trusting you, who understands their fears and reading insecurities. And it's up to us the classroom teachers to attract all these students, like moths to a flame. My stacks have every genre and every level: picture books, chapter books, fiction, and nonfiction.

The shelves are also peppered with realia from my own background, giving life and texture to the look of the library. A Shakespeare action figure with a removable quill sits between a full-text edition of A Midsummer Night's Dream and the manga version of As You Like It. My childhood Clash ofz the Titans lunch box bookends the fantasy section, and a knight rides among the historical-fiction section. A figurehead of Captain Morgan that hung in my room all through high school glares down at a sign that reads, "Any who dare not use the proper means of checking out a book." They're all there. Each little tchotchke has a purpose. Each helps entrap students in the web of literacy that is my classroom library. Weave your library into your lessons. Have the students pull golden lines from the books for a homework assignment. Have them design persuasive ads and write reviews to get other students to read a book that they may have loved. To hold them accountable for how much they read, have them recreate book covers once they are done reading a book. By the end of the year, these art pieces will overwhelm the room and be proof of your students' literacy. The classroom library should be an interactive part of your classroom. One day, the books may fall apart with use, but remember, there is no better death for a book than it having been read too much and by too many.

Reading Different Type of Texts

Teaching children to read is both exciting and challenging. It is exciting because the gratification that comes from seeing a beginning reader pick up a book and read on his/her own is like no other experience a teacher can have. It is exciting to see older students become mature and accomplished readers. Teaching reading is challenging because there is so much knowledge that we have gained over the decades and knowing how to use this knowledge becomes critical. Teaching reading is challenging because it is controversial, especially at the beginning levels of instruction.

Much of the contro versy about beginning reading has focused around phonics and decoding and how these jobs of reading should be taught. Teaching reading is challenging because even with all the knowledge we have, there are still many questions that we are unable to answer. In years past, an oversimplified approach was sometimes taken to reading instruction. Teachers usually had a single book that they used for most or even all their students. Sometimes teachers gro uped students and

had diff e rent students reading in different levels of books. However, as we have gained new knowledge it has become much clearer that in order to meet the varying needs of students as they learn to read, we need a variety of types of texts.

The use of diff e rent types of texts is most significant at the beginning levels of reading. The purpose of this paper is to identify and discuss the different types of texts that are needed for effective reading instruction.

Stories (Prose) Reading

Story is an entertainment, for the one spinning the story and for the audience. Story is a learning tool and a teaching tool. A story is defined as a narrative or tale of real or fictitious events. Stories are a nourishment for our hungry souls. Often stories we regard as fiction have elements of truth dressed up to make them more palatable. Stories are magic, taking us everywhere: backwards, forwards or happening right in the present time, transporting us to many places and situations we might never go.

The teller is the magician, creating an atmosphere in which anything is possible. When storytelling is presented well a special kind of energy develops between the teller and the audience it really is magic. Telling stories is like taking a group of people to the cinema. You can think of storytelling as a piece of film being projected on to a screen. The vision of the script writer and director are what the audience sees and interprets.

In a similar way the storyteller shows the pictures seen in his or her mind and passes them to the listeners' minds for interpretation. Each time the story is told the words change, according to the way the teller visualises the images passing through his or her mind. The teller tailors the story to suit that particular audience.

As in all writing, story is an attempt to communicate, to create an effect: laughter, tears, anger, awareness ... or a willingness to keep reading to the end of the story. All that and more. Exactly what story is and how a story ought to be structured is a topic constantly evolving and always in debate. Some of my stories fit the standard criteria for "the short story form" in creative writing classes: many don't. They range from serious to completely giddy. You may like some of them and dislike others. I've worked to make them express what I intended, communicate it, and be as effective as workshopping could make them -- but not everybody is going to like everything. Which is good, because if everybody liked the same thing all of you would eat up all the chocolate in the world and not leave any for me.

ACTIVITIES TO PREPARE CHILDREN FOR READING

1. Using illustrations: It is always a good idea to exploit pictures to help the child understand and visualise the story. The stories have illustrations which can be used to introduce the story, elicit vocabulary they know, introduce difficult words in that story, and generally excite the interest of the child for the story. This illustration is from the story 'Carnival Crime'. Ask learners to look at the picture before reading, and ask questions such as 'who are the people?'; 'what

are they wearing?' (and why?); 'what is the cat holding?'; 'what has happened?'; 'how is the woman feeling?' etc. Learners will be introduced to vocabulary, will be more able to understand the text, and will be more engaged in the reading task.

2. Pre-teaching vocabulary: Many of the stories on LearnEnglish Kids are related to a topic. These topics can have 'specialist' vocabulary which may cause problems in comprehension. You will usually find links to other related exercises on thematic vocabulary which can be taught first. For example, you will find lots of related activities to practise the names of the animals in the story 'ABC Zoo' as well as flashcards that you can download to introduce the animals.
3. Introduce the theme: Many of the stories are related to a topic. It can be a good idea to familiarise learners with the topic before reading, by trying activities related to the topic on the site, by setting a task to find out about the topic (this could even be for homework), or by discussion (in your own language with lower level learners if you like). For example the story 'Football Crazy' is about a girl playing in a boys football team, breaking down barriers, adults treating boys and girls differently. This is an important issue for children. Before reading the story you could ask your learners to name famous footballers, and once you have a list you could see how many famous players are women. Then you can ask more questions such as 'why are there so few famous female football players?', 'what about other sports?' etc.
4. Input cultural background: Many stories assume a knowledge of cultural norms in the UK, for example, the daily school routine. Children are usually interested in finding out the differences between their own culture and the lives of children in the UK. Some stories have more overt cultural background. In the story 'Hairy Henry's Holiday', typical sights of London are mentioned, such as 'Big Ben', 'The London Eye' and 'Madame Tussauds'. You could use a map or guidebook to London to find out what these are before children read or listen to the story.

Activities during reading

1. Use a variety of ways to read: There are many different ways to approach the story. It is quite likely that younger learners will want to read/hear/or listen to the story several times, particularly the shorter, flash-animated ones. This should not be discouraged as it helps learners to equate oral and written forms which is important for the development of reading skills. In the classroom it is important to vary the kind of reading.

(i) The teacher could use a data projector for a class to listen to/read a story as a whole-class activity.

(ii) The teacher could read the whole or parts of the story to a class with the text.

(iii) The learners can read by themselves silently, either on-screen whether at school or even as homework.

(iv) Some stories can be read as texts with illustrations and then children can watch the flash movie version, or this order could be reversed.

2. Sustaining Reading: If the story is very long then it is important to keep the class motivated to read. The teacher could stop at convenient 'cliff-hanger' points and ask the class 'what happens next?' This use of prediction skills makes the learners want to read on to the end of the story to find out if their own idea is correct. In a classroom this could be done as a 'guessing game' if the teacher is controlling the pace of reading. A few of the stories on LearnEnglish Kids have built-in puzzles to keep the learners interested - for example in the story 'Spycat', students have to type in the destinations from anagrams, and finally solve the coded message.
3. Total Physical Response: With very young or active learners the story can be mimed while the teacher reads or the children listen. A story like 'The Snowman' could be used for this. The actions of waking up, running into the garden, building the snowman and the 'melting' are all easy to mime.
4. Characters and Voices: In stories which have a lot of characters you could ask students to read the dialogue of the characters. The teacher could read the dialogue of characters in different voices first. For example the story 'Alan and the Alien' is fairly long, but could be livened up with acting out the alien funny voices and nonsense words! You could even create a class project which involves rewriting this (or another) story as a play which could be performed - perhaps with costumes.
5. Vocabulary help: If a child is reading individually at school or at home they could also use Cambridge Dictionaries Online to check on the meanings of unknown words, if the learner is at a high enough level to use this independently.

For younger learners there are many accompanying worksheets and online interactive games to practise vocabulary from the stories. In particular the Fairy Stories section contains material accessible and motivating to all levels. You can find a wealth of vocabulary materials on Goldilocks, Jack and the Beanstalk and Little Red Riding Hood etc.

Post-reading Activities

1. Quick comprehension check: It is always a good idea to do a quick comprehension check when your learners have finished reading the story, or at the end of each page of text. This may take the form of a few 'gist' questions about the text in oral form, asking children for a response e.g. why is this person sad, which character did the children like etc. This could be done in written form. Many stories have worksheets for follow-up work, for example 'Eric the Engine' has a follow-up worksheet with a sequencing activity to check comprehension.
2. Make a poster/illustrate the story: You can use any story as an opportunity for some creative drawing and illustration, perhaps with vocabulary labels in English. For example, in the story 'Carnival Crime', you could ask a learner to draw the carnival costumes in the story and label them. As a follow-up they

could design their own carnival costume or a costume for a festival in their country.

3. Stimulus for writing: Many stories lend themselves to acting as a stimulus for creative writing, depending on the level of your learners. Younger learners or learners who have a lower level of English could use one of the simpler stories as a model for a story of their own. Examples are 'My Dad' (learners write about a member of their own family) or 'Magic Spell' (learners choose their own ingredients and outcomes). Learners with a higher level of English could write more complex stories, for example, their own story based in a haunted house.
4. Other ideas for follow-up writing are writing a letter to a character in a story, writing diary entries for a character in a story, or writing extra dialogues between the characters.
5. Role-play/acting out: Interpreting stories as role-play can be as simple or complicated as you like. It could start with miming basic actions, then speaking or improvising dialogue. In the classroom the teacher will need to be organised in advance with moving furniture, providing simple props etc. You could even use facepaints.

Poems

A poem is an arrangement of words containing meaning and musicality. Most poems take the form of a series of lines separated into groups called stanzas. A poem can be rhyming or nonrhyming, with a regular meter or a free flow of polyrhythms. There is debate over how a poem should be defined, but there is little doubt about its ability to set a mood. A poem is identifiable by its literary and musical elements. For example, metaphor and alliteration are common in many poems. Another hallmark of a poem is its brevity, or ability to say much in few words. This requires layered meaning, as in the use of symbolism. A common example of symbolism is the bald eagle, which is a bird, but in the United States also represents the nation as a whole. A poem need not rhyme or contain a consistent meter to qualify as such, but those elements are also common to many poems.

A poem can contain any number of features. Usually a poem is broken down into lines and stanzas. They can contain full sentences or just fragments, or a combination. The rules of grammar can be stretched, but this skill is a bit mysterious. Many poets maintain that a poem must demonstrate mastery over one's vernacular even while circumventing it. A poem can be happy or sad, simple or complex, traditional or rebellious. The hallmark of a poem is that it says much in few words. It can exist within a framework of prose, or it can exist on its own. Its chief function is to lend insight, poking its nose into unseen corners, sniffing out signs of life where none were detected before. A poem can evoke awe, inspire action or provide food for thought. It can provide an amusing escape (as in humor), or it can command solemnity (as in religious hymns). A poem can also function as an end unto itself.

The benefits of a poem often begin where those of prose leave off. A poem can stretch the rules of grammar a bit more, using inventive line breaks or punctuation to

accentuate a phrase. Poetry emphasizes the musical use of words for their own sake in addition to providing meaning and context. Brevity is another notable benefit of poetry.

The celebrated American poet Edgar Allan Poe said, "Poetry is the rhythmical creation of beauty in words." He believed that a poem was there to be an aesthetic thing unto itself, not just a vehicle for some other agenda. On the mysterious and ineffable nature of what constitutes a poem, the poet-naturalist Henry David Thoreau said, "My life has been the poem I would have writ / But I could not both live and utter it." In other words, poetry has a life of its own.

Preparation

1. Meet with other teachers and local poets to talk about how to teach poetry to young people.
2. Talk with your school librarian about ordering books and creating a poetry book display.
3. Order a poetry anthology or other poetry books for your class.
4. Attend poetry readings in your community.
5. Contact your state arts council or your local literary center.
6. Reread some favorite poems.
7. Post favorite poems in faculty and staff lounges.
8. Write at least one poem before beginning a unit on poetry.
9. Visit Poets.org to access audio or video archival material for use in the classroom or a special school-wide assembly.

Reading Tips

1. Begin each class with a poem by a different poet.
2. Read a poem over the public address system each morning.
3. Ask students to memorize poems and then recite them from memory.
4. Read poems aloud to your students.
5. Organize a student poetry reading the local library or bookstore.
6. Organize a Skype poetry reading where your students can interact with students from another part of the country or world.
7. Organize a field trip to a local nursing home and have students read poems to the elderly.
8. Ask each student to create his or her own anthology of favorite poems.
9. Introduce a new poetic form each week and give examples of poems that use—or reinvent—the form.

SOME TIPS ON READING YOUR POETRY ALOUD

No doubt, most of the readers will be students with little or no experience in reading poetry out loud, especially to such a large group. And we know that a poem

will live or die depending on how it is read. What follows, then, are a few pointers about the oral recitation of poetry. The readers, by the way, should not read cold; they should be given their poem a few days in advance so they will have time to practice, maybe in the presence of a teacher. Here are a few basic tips:

1. Be loud enough: Seems like a no-brainer, doesn't it, but I'm always surprised by the number of poets I see who don't seem able to recognise or master the importance and art of voice-projection! Not being able to hear everything you say can really make or break other people's enjoyment of your poems... and if they miss a vital line, it might even affect their understanding of what you're trying to do and say with a piece. Yes, getting up in front of people to read your work is daunting, but the more confidently you deliver, the better it will go. And don't go assuming that just because you have a mic in front of you, people can hear you. Audiences are annoyingly polite, and often won't make it obvious if you're not loud enough. There's nothing wrong with taking a minute at the beginning to do a quick soundcheck — just do a spot of preamble or begin with a short poem, and then ask the audience if they can all hear OK. If you see any shaking heads, speak up a bit.
2. Sound Interested: Again, it seems obvious, but for goodness sakes, sound interested in your own stuff! I heard some really great, dynamic poets at StAnza, but not all of them convinced me with their readings — some of them just sounded plain bored with the words they were saying. I'm not sure if this is a "style" right now, but I promise, it doesn't work! If you read in a monotone, disinterested way, your audience will find it really hard not to drift off — they might also not see the true quality of your work. You don't have to crack a joke every other line or go into slam-performance mode... just remember that if you make your words sound interesting, your audience will want to listen instinctively. If you've been reading the same poems for so long that you can't help but sound bored with them, find some new ones to read. If you've got into the habit of reading your poems in a monotone way, practice by reading someone else's poems aloud to yourself — inhabiting other voices and rhythms can really make a difference. And if you're not sure how to read your poems in the first place, get out there and listen to other poets. Note what they do well, and what they do badly. Apply this learning.
3. Don't put on "a poetry voice.": OK, I'll just contradict myself for a second here — everyone has a special voice they reserve for reading their own work. Apart from anything else, this is essentially public speaking, so you're not going to use the same voice as you would if you were ordering a pizza (probably). However, far too often, you'll hear poets (often inexperienced ones, because somewhere along the line they hear that this is what you're supposed to do!) reading in an obviously put-on way. Elongated vowels and exaggerated consonants (particularly 's'!), overlong pauses and lines going up at the end are common things. And OK, sometimes this can sound alright, but all too often it sounds unnatural and sometimes just downright funny. Basically, you should find a way of reading that you feel comfortable with, but you should also make sure

that it doesn't put your audience off, or make you sound daft! If in doubt, try your reading voice out on a brutally honest friend.

4. Involve your audience: This is a bit tricky, admittedly... but when reading, it helps to try and "involve" the audience to some extent. I don't mean panto-style audience participation or anything — you just need to acknowledge the fact that people have shown up and are sitting (hopefully) in silence listening to your work. Preambles are always a good way to get the audience involved and interested in what you're saying, or you can do a quick "thanks for listening" either right at the beginning or right at the end of your set. It's a good idea not to get too engrossed in whatever you're reading off, too... let the audience know that you remember they're there by looking up at them every so often. This might seem daunting but you should get used to doing it sooner rather than later — if all else fails, focus on a friend every time you look up, or look at the back wall or some other spot just above and behind the audience. Try not to look at your feet or the ceiling! If you're new to the whole poetry reading thing, it might seem like a good idea to just get onto the stage, reel off your poems and then get the heck out of there as fast as possible, but the more you acknowledge the people listening to you, the more likely they are to acknowledge you — that means enjoying your stuff, remembering it, coming up to you afterwards to offer tips and encouragement, and possibly even spreading the word about your work.
5. Know when to stop: Particularly when you're reading with other poets, you need to stick to the amount of time you've been given — and if you haven't been given a specific amount of time, pay attention to the audience and try to stop as soon as (or preferably just before!) you realise they might be flagging. This isn't just out of consideration for your fellow readers, it's also out of consideration for your listeners. If you get all the first four of these points down, but end up talking the audience into a coma, all your good work will be undone! Know when it's time to go, and get out of there!

Riddles

A riddle is a statement or question or phrase having a double or veiled meaning, put forth as a puzzle to be solved. A riddle is generally a question devised so as to require clever or unexpected thinking for its answer. Riddles may be considered a form of brain teaser. In general conversation, a riddle is usually presented to someone who knows that a riddle is being asked and accepts the challenge of guessing the correct response. The guesser may get one or multiple guesses. Sometimes the asker gives clues, but sometimes the guesser just does the best she or he can. There is usually one correct answer to a riddle, and it is common for the correct answer to be given, even if the guesser doesn't think of it. Riddles typically use one of several techniques to create the twist that makes them difficult to guess. One common technique is double meanings. If the double meaning is in the words of the riddle, then a kind of equivocation is going on: the asker intends one meaning and hopes that the guesser will understand a different meaning.

Some examples of riddles

1. It is greater than God and more evil than the devil. The poor have it, the rich need it and if you eat it you'll die. What is it?

Ans.—Nothing (Nothing is greater than God, nothing is more evil than the devil, the poor have nothing, the rich need nothing and if you eat nothing you'll die)

2. I am the beginning of the end, and the end of time and space. I am essential to creation, and I surround every place. What am I?

Ans.—The letter e (End, timE, spacE, Every placE).

3. I never was, am always to be. No one ever saw me, nor ever will. And yet I am the confidence of all, To live and breath on this terrestrial ball. What am I?

Ans.—Tomorrow or the future.

4. At night they come without being fetched. By day they are lost without being stolen. What are they?

Ans.—The stars.

5. The person who makes it, sells it. The person who buys it never uses it and the person who uses it doesn't know they are. What is it?

Ans.—A coffin.

Jokes

A joke is something spoken, written, or done with humorous intention. Jokes may have many different forms, e.g., a single word or a gesture (considered in a particular context), a question-answer, or a whole short story. The word "joke" has a number of synonyms. Do you often tell jokes when you speak? Very few students even try to do it. There are two reasons for this. One is that they have trouble remembering jokes and stories. The second reason is that they don't tell the jokes in a natural, funny way. Let me show you how you can tell jokes and make people laugh .

The basic idea is to do exactly what you do when you tell a friend about a movie or TV program that you saw. You don't try to memorize the whole movie or TV program. Instead you tell your friend about the most important things. You start by telling your friend who is involved in the story. Next you describe the situation. You continue by talking about what they did, which is the action. Usually you finish by talking about the exciting ending of the movie or TV program. To help you practice speaking, let's apply this same technique to telling a joke. Students should not try to learn a joke word for word. To speak more natural launguage, learners should tell a joke the same way they would talk about a book or a movie or a TV program.

When students learn to tell jokes, they start with WHO, the characters. For example, you can tell a story about a teacher who was teaching little children. It doesn't matter how you say it, as long as the listener understands who is involved. You could say very simply "There once was a teacher who was teaching small children". That's enough. Or you could give more details by saying something like "There was a kind and beautiful young teacher named Miss Applebee, who was teaching a group of twenty very eager children of about four years of age". Or you could really build up the listener's curiosity by describing the people in even more detail, by saying "I heard a funny story

about a very kind and beautiful, but inexperienced teacher who taught in a big city. Her students, about 20 in number and around the age of four, were all very cute and eager to learn". You can tell the story like this, but you don't have to. The first example, though simple, is just as good, and your listener will understand what you mean.

Moving on to describing the situation, we could start by simply saying "She was teaching her students the names of animals". Of course, you could give much more detail, but this is enough. Just as an example, lets try something more detailed: "This teacher had planned a lesson in which she enlarged some photographs in order to teach the students the names of all kinds of animals". Whatever you say, simple or detailed, the listener should always understand the situation.

The next part, the action, is a bit longer, but as long as you describe the main points, then the exact words are not important. Let's try it like this: "The teacher showed the students a picture of a deer and asked one little boy, 'Bobby, what is this animal?' Little Bobby looked at the picture with a confused look on his face. He replied 'I'm sorry teacher, I don't know'. The teacher did not want to give up, so she found a way to help little Bobby. She asked another question. She said 'Well Bobby, what does your Mommy call your Daddy?'

Now at this point, you have told your listener how the teacher is teaching. You mentioned the pictures and that she is trying to get the little boy to understand "deer" by remembering the similar sounding word "dear". As long as you explain these basic things, any words you use are okay. The listener will have a good image in his or her head of who is involved, where they are, and what they are doing.

Now, however, comes the hardest part, called the "punch line". The "punch line" of a joke is the very last line. It is the part that makes the story funny. You can describe the people, the situation and the action in many different ways, but usually you cannot change the "punch line" or the story will not seem funny. So, you should memorize only the final line, the "punch line" of a story.

Here's the "punch line" of our story: "Bobby looked at the teacher and asked, 'Teacher, is that really a pig?'. Of course, your listener will expect the boy to say the animal is a deer, because we can imagine the boy's mother calling the boy's father "Dear". The boy's surprise answer is what makes people laugh. As with the other parts, you could introduce the "punch line" with more detail. Maybe you could say "Little Bobby thought for a moment, still confused. Suddenly a bright look appeared on his face as he asked the teacher..." and then you can give the same punch line "Is that really a pig?".

Be sure to practice jokes before you tell them. Especially practice telling the "punch line" because that's the most important part. You can find many jokes throughout "College English Magazine". Find some that you like, and just remember WHO is involved, WHAT the situation is, the ACTION, and the PUNCH LINE, and you will be able to entertain your friends every day.

Example

1. A teacher asked student, What is the full form of Maths?
   The student answered, 'Mentaly Affected Teachers Harrasing Students'

2. Teacher: If your father and mother both give you 500Rs., what you will get?
   Student: A new video game.
3. Teacher: You are late today Mohan.
   Mohan: Sir, I obeyed a sign.
   Teacher: What sign?
   Mohan: SCHOOL AHEAD, GO SLOW.
4. Teacher: I think you are chewing gum.
   Ramesh: No Sir, I am Ramesh.
5. Teacher: Ram, come here and point out Africa from this globe.
   Ram: here
   Teacher: Correct! Radha, who discovered Africa?
   Class: Ram!!
6. Teacher: Sir, why doctors wear a mask when they do an operation?
   Student: For safety. If the patient dies, others can't find out who did the operation.
4. A new student came to the class. After asking his name the teacher said, 'What does your father do?'
   Student: Whatever Mom says.

Instraction for Games

Educational games are ideal for engaging students with course content. Most students think they are fun and very helpful - though you may find some students don't actually play the games but prefer to just quiz each other using the questions you provide. Faculty in the School of Nursing say that students find the games so helpful for studying, they complain bitterly when units don't have corresponding games!

Children's English reading skills will continue to advance with practice. Playing games that will help children learn to read will allow them to have fun while enhancing their reading skills. Educational reading games will help children learn to read and to understand what they have read. Literacy is a skill necessary to succeed in education.

Exercise

1. Questions 1 through 5 refer to the following passage:

Each day at the Shantiniketan School starts with the Saraswati Vandana. When painting competitions are held in the school, images of Hindu gods and goddesses are most common. Sanskrit is a favourite subject of many a student. Nothing new about it except that the 1,200 - odd students studying in the Hindu - run school are Muslims.

In 1983, when Ranchodbhai Kiri started Shantiniketan in the all - Muslim Juhapura area of Ahmedabad in Gujarat, only 20 percent of the students were Muslims. But when riots involving the Muslims of Juhapura and the Hindus of nearby Jivrajpark - Vejalpur affected the locality, Hindus started migrating. Today, all the students are Muslims and the school is an unparalled example of harmony. In the 2002, when a

section of inflamed Muslims wanted the school closed, the parents of the students stood like a wall behind it.

Shantiniketan's principal says, "We never thought of moving the school out of the area because of the love and affection of the local Muslims. Indeed, they value the high standard of education which we have set." Such is the reputation of the school that some of the local Muslim strongmen accused of involvement in communal riots are willing to protect the school during the riots.

The parents of Shantiniketan's students believe that it's the best school when it comes to the quality of the teaching. A large number of students have gone for both graduation and post graduation studies. Significantly, the only Muslim teacher in the 40 - member teaching staff, Husena Mansuri, teaches Sanskrit. In fact, she is so happy at the school that she recently declined the principalship of another Muslim - run school. Some of the students' entries in a recent school painting competition mere truly moving. One drew a picture of Bharat Mata with a mosque and temple, while another portrayed a boy tying rakhi to his sister. Trully, Shantiniketan is a beacon of hope that, despite the provocations from both communities, Hindus and Muslims can live side-by-side with mutual respect.

1. **How the Shantiniketan school starts the day?**
   a. National anthem
   b. Prayer
   c. Saraswati Vandana
   d. Puja
2. **Write the subject which is preferred by most of the students.**
   a. Hindi
   b. English
   c. Sanskrit
   d. Gujarati
3. **Who protects the school during the riot times?**
   a. Local Muslims
   b. Hindus
   c. Politicians
   d. Christians
4. **Who is the teacher of Sanskrit?**
   a. Ranchodbhai Kiri
   b. Manisha Vakil
   c. Husena Mansuri
   d. Husena Khatoon
5. **What is the hope despite the communal riots ?**
   a. Hindus and Muslims cannot live side by side
   b. Hindus and Muslims can live side by side

c. Only Hindus can live
d. Only Muslims can live

2. *Questions 6 through 12 refer to the following passage:*

In the 16th century, an age of great marine and terrestrial exploration, Ferdinand Magellan led the first expedition to sail around the world. As a young Portuguese noble, he served the king of Portugal, but he became involved in the quagmire of political intrigue at court and lost the king's favor. After he was dismissed from service by the king of Portugal, he offered to serve the future Emperor Charles V of Spain.

A papal decree of 1493 had assigned all land in the New World west of 50 degrees W longitude to Spain and all the land east of that line to Portugal. Magellan offered to prove that the East Indies fell under Spanish authority. On September 20, 1519, Magellan set sail from Spain with five ships. More than a year later, one of these ships was exploring the topography of South America in search of a water route across the continent. This ship sank, but the remaining four ships searched along the southern peninsula of South America. Finally they found the passage they sought near 50 degrees S latitude. Magellan named this passage the Strait of All Saints, but today it is known as the Strait of Magellan.

One ship deserted while in this passage and returned to Spain, so fewer sailors were privileged to gaze at that first panorama of the Pacific Ocean. Those who remained crossed the meridian now known as the International Date Line in the early spring of 1521 after 98 days on the Pacific Ocean. During those long days at sea, many of Magellan's men died of starvation and disease.

Later, Magellan became involved in an insular conflict in the Philippines and was killed in a tribal battle. Only one ship and 17 sailors under the command of the Basque navigator Elcano survived to complete the westward journey to Spain and thus prove once and for all that the world is round, with no precipice at the edge.

6. The 16th century was an age of great _____ exploration.

a. cosmic
b. land
c. mental
d. common man
e. None of the above

7. Magellan lost the favor of the king of Portugal when he became involved in a political _____.

a. entanglement
b. discussion
c. negotiation
d. problem
e. None of the above

8. **The Pope divided New World lands between Spain and Portugal according to their location on one side or the other of an imaginary geographical line 50 degrees west of Greenwich that extends in a _____ direction.**
   a. north and south
   b. crosswise
   c. easterly
   d. south east
   e. north and west

9. **One of Magellan's ships explored the _____ of South America for a passage across the continent.**
   a. coastline
   b. mountain range
   c. physical features
   d. islands
   e. None of the above

10. **Four of the ships sought a passage along a southern _____.**
    a. coast
    b. inland
    c. body of land with water on three sides
    d. border
    e. Answer not available

11. **The passage was found near 50 degrees S of _____.**
    a. Greenwich
    b. The equator
    c. Spain
    d. Portugal
    e. Madrid

12. **In the spring of 1521, the ships crossed the _____ now called the International Date Line.**
    a. imaginary circle passing through the poles
    b. imaginary line parallel to the equator
    c. area
    d. land mass

3. The following passage refers to questions 13 through 17.

Mount Vesuvius, a volcano located between the ancient Italian cities of Pompeii and Herculaneum, has received much attention because of its frequent and destructive eruptions. The most famous of these eruptions occurred in A.D. 79.

The volcano had been inactive for centuries. There was little warning of the coming eruption, although one account unearthed by archaeologists says that a hard rain and a strong wind had disturbed the celestial calm during the preceding night. Early the next morning, the volcano poured a huge river of molten rock down upon Herculaneum, completely burying the city and filling the harbor with coagulated lava.

Meanwhile, on the other side of the mountain, cinders, stone and ash rained down on Pompeii. Sparks from the burning ash ignited the combustible rooftops quickly. Large portions of the city were destroyed in the conflagration. Fire, however, was not the only cause of destruction. Poisonous sulfuric gases saturated the air. These heavy gases were not buoyant in the atmosphere and therefore sank toward the earth and suffocated people.

Over the years, excavations of Pompeii and Herculaneum have revealed a great deal about the behavior of the volcano. By analyzing data, much as a zoologist dissects an animal specimen, scientists have concluded that the eruption changed large portions of the area's geography. For instance, it turned the Sarno River from its course and raised the level of the beach along the Bay of Naples. Meteorologists studying these events have also concluded that Vesuvius caused a huge tidal wave that affected the world's climate.

In addition to making these investigations, archaeologists have been able to study the skeletons of victims by using distilled water to wash away the volcanic ash. By strengthening the brittle bones with acrylic paint, scientists have been able to examine the skeletons and draw conclusions about the diet and habits of the residents. Finally, the excavations at both Pompeii and Herculaneum have yielded many examples of classical art, such as jewelry made of bronze, which is an alloy of copper and tin. The eruption of Mount Vesuvius and its tragic consequences have provided everyone with a wealth of data about the effects that volcanoes can have on the surrounding area. Today, volcanologists can locate and predict eruptions, saving lives and preventing the destruction of other cities and cultures.

13. Herculaneum and its harbor were buried under _____ lava.

a. liquid
b. solid
c. flowing
d. gas

14. The poisonous gases were not _____ in the air.

a. able to float
b. visible
c. able to evaporate
d. invisible
e. able to condense

15. **Scientists analyzed data about Vesuvius in the same way that a zoologist _____ a specimen.**
    a. describes in detail
    b. studies by cutting apart
    c. photographs
    d. chart

16. **_____ have concluded that the volcanic eruption caused a tidal wave.**
    a. Scientists who study oceans
    b. Scientists who study atmospheric conditions
    c. Scientists who study ash
    d. Scientists who study animal behavior
    e. Answer not available in article

17. **Scientists have used _____ water to wash away volcanic ash from the skeletons of victims.**
    a. bottled
    b. volcanic
    c. purified
    d. sea
    e. fountain

4. The following passage refers to questions 18-22.

The victory of the small Greek democracy of Athens over the mighty Persian Empire in 490 B.C. is one of the most famous events in history. Darius, king of the Persian Empire, was furious because Athens had interceded for the other Greek city-states in revolt against Persian domination. In anger the king sent an enormous army to defeat Athens. He thought it would take drastic steps to pacify the rebellious part of the empire.

Persia was ruled by one man. In Athens, however, all citizens helped to rule. Ennobled by this participation, Athenians were prepared to die for their city-state. Perhaps this was the secret of the remarkable victory at Marathon, which freed them from Persian rule. On their way to Marathon, the Persians tried to fool some Greek city-states by claiming to have come in peace. The frightened citizens of Delos refused to believe this. Not wanting to abet the conquest of Greece, they fled from their city and did not return until the Persians had left. They were wise, for the Persians next conquered the city of Eritrea and captured its people.

Tiny Athens stood alone against Persia. The Athenian people went to their sanctuaries. There they prayed for deliverance. They asked their gods to expedite their victory. The Athenians refurbished their weapons and moved to the plain of Marathon, where their little band would meet the Persians. At the last moment, soldiers from Plataea reinforced the Athenian troops.

The Athenian army attacked, and Greek citizens fought bravely. The power of the mighty Persians was offset by the love that the Athenians had for their city. Athenians defeated the Persians in both archery and hand combat. Greek soldiers seized Persian ships and burned them, and the Persians fled in terror. Herodotus, a famous historian, reports that 6,400 Persians died, compared to only 192 Athenians.

18. Athens had _____ the other Greek city-states against the Persians.

a. refused help to
b. intervened on behalf of
c. wanted to fight
d. given orders for all to fight
e. defeated

19. Darius took drastic steps to _____ the rebellious Athenians.

a. weaken
b. destroy
c. calm
d. irritate
e. Answer not available

20. Their participation _____ to the Athenians.

a. gave comfort
b. gave honor
c. gave strength
d. gave fear
e. gave hope

21. The people of Delos did not want to _____ the conquest of Greece.

a. end
b. encourage
c. think about
d. daydream about
e. Answer not available

22. The Athenians were _____ by some soldiers who arrived from Plataea.

a. welcomed
b. strengthened
c. held
d. captured
e. Answer not available

5. Read the following passage carefully and answer the questions:

The catalytic fact of the twentieth century is uncontrollable development, consumerist society, political materialism, and spiritual devaluation. This inordinate

development has led to the transcendental 'second reality' of sacred perception that biologically transcendence is a part of human life. As the century closes, it dawns with imperative vigour that the 'first reality' of enlightened rationalism and the 'second reality' of the Beyond have to be harmonised in a worthy state of man. The de facto values describe what we are, they portray the 'is' of our ethic, they are est values (Latin est means is). The ideal values tell us what we ought to be, they are esto values (Latin esto 'ought to be'). Both have to be in the ebb and flow of consciousness. The ever new science and technology and the ever-perennial faith are two modes of one certainty, that is the wholeness of man, his courage to be, his share in Being.

The materialistic foundations of science have crumbled down. Science itself has proved that matter is energy, processes are as valid as facts, and affirmed the non-materiality of the universe. The encounter of the 'two cultures', the scientific and the humane, will restore the normal vision, and will be the bedrock of a 'science of understanding' in the new century. It will give new meaning to the ancient perception that quantity (measure) and quality (value) coexist at the root of nature. Human endeavours cannot afford to be humanistically irresponsible.

23. The problem raised in the passage reflects overall on

a. Consumerism
b. Materialism
c. Spiritual devaluation
d. Inordinate development

24. The 'de facto' values in the passage means

a. What is
b. What ought to be
c. What can be
d. Where it is

25. According to the passage, the 'first reality' constitutes

a. Economic prosperity
b. Political development
c. Sacred perception of life
d. Enlightened rationalism

26. Encounter of the 'two cultures', the scientific and the human implies

a. Restoration of normal vision
b. Universe is both material and non-material
c. Man is superior to nature
d. Co-existence of quantity and quality in nature

27. The contents of the passage are

a. Descriptive
b. Prescriptive
c. Axiomatic
d. Optional

28. **The passage indicates that science has proved that**
    a. universe is material
    b. matter is energy
    c. nature has abundance
    d. humans are irresponsible

6. Refer to the following passage for questions 29-34.

Many great inventions are initially greeted with ridicule and disbelief. The invention of the airplane was no exception. Although many people who heard about the first powered flight on December 17, 1903 were excited and impressed, others reacted with peals of laughter. The idea of flying an aircraft was repulsive to some people. Such people called Wilbur and Orville Wright, the inventors of the first flying machine, impulsive fools. Negative reactions, however, did not stop the Wrights. Impelled by their desire to succeed, they continued their experiments in aviation.

Orville and Wilbur Wright had always had a compelling interest in aeronautics and mechanics. As young boys they earned money by making and selling kites and mechanical toys. Later, they designed a newspaper-folding machine, built a printing press, and operated a bicycle-repair shop. In 1896, when they read about the death of Otto Lilienthal, the brothers' interest in flight grew into a compulsion.

Lilienthal, a pioneer in hang-gliding, had controlled his gliders by shifting his body in the desired direction. This idea was repellent to the Wright brothers, however, and they searched for more efficient methods to control the balance of airborne vehicles. In 1900 and 1901, the Wrights tested numerous gliders and developed control techniques. The brothers' inability to obtain enough lift power for the gliders almost led them to abandon their efforts.

After further study, the Wright brothers concluded that the published tables of air pressure on curved surfaces must be wrong. They set up a wind tunnel and began a series of experiments with model wings. Because of their efforts, the old tables were repealed in time and replaced by the first reliable figures for air pressure on curved surfaces. This work, in turn, made it possible for the brothers to design a machine that would fly. In 1903 the Wrights built their first airplane, which cost less than $1,000. They even designed and built their own source of propulsion-a lightweight gasoline engine. When they started the engine on December 17, the airplane pulsated wildly before taking off. The plane managed to stay aloft for 12 seconds, however, and it flew 120 feet.

By 1905, the Wrights had perfected the first airplane that could turn, circle, and remain airborne for half an hour at a time. Others had flown in balloons and hang gliders, but the Wright brothers were the first to build a full-size machine that could fly under its own power. As the contributors of one of the most outstanding engineering achievements in history, the Wright brothers are accurately called the fathers of aviation.

29. **The idea of flying an aircraft was _____ to some people.**
    a. boring
    b. distasteful
    c. exciting
    d. needless
    e. Answer not available

30. **People thought that the Wright brothers had _____.**
    a. acted without thinking
    b. been negatively influenced
    c. been too cautious
    d. been mistaken
    e. acted in a negative way

31. **The Wrights' interest in flight grew into a _____.**
    a. financial empire
    b. plan
    c. need to act
    d. foolish thought
    e. Answer not available

32. **Lilienthal's idea about controlling airborne vehicles was _____ the Wrights.**
    a. proven wrong by
    b. opposite to the ideas of
    c. disliked by
    d. accepted by
    e. improved by

33. **The old tables were _____ and replaced by the first reliable figures for air pressure on curved surfaces.**
    a. destroyed
    b. invalidated
    c. multiplied
    d. approved
    e. not used

34. **The Wrights designed and built their own source of _____.**
    a. force for moving forward
    b. force for turning around
    c. turning
    d. force for going backward
    e. None of the above

7. Read the following passage carefully and answer the questions:

The Taj Mahal has become one of the world's best known monuments. This domed white marble structure is situated on a high plinth at the southern end of four-quartered garden, evoking the gardens of paradise, enclosed within walls measuring 305 by 549 meters. Outside the walls, in an area known as Mumtazabad, were living quarters for attendants, market, serials and other structures built by local merchants and nobles. The tomb complex and the other imperial structures of Mumtazabad were maintained by the income of thirty villages given specifically for the tomb's support. The name Taj Mahal is unknown in Mughal chronicles, but it is used by contemporary Europeans in India, suggesting that this was the tomb's popular name. in contemporary texis, it is generally called simply the illuminated Tomb (Rauza-i-Munavvara).

Mumtaz Mahal died shortly after delivering her fourteenth child in 1631. The Mughal court was then residing in Buhanpur. Her remains were temporarily buried by the grief stricken emperor in a spacious garden known as Zainabad on the bank of the river Tapti. Six months later her body was transported to Agra, where it was interred in land chosen for the mausoleum. This land, situated south of the Mughal city on the bank of the Jamuna, had belonged to the Kachwaha rajas since the time of Raja Man Singh and was purchased from the then current raja, Jai Singh. Although contemporary chronicles indicate Jai Singh's willing cooperation in this exchange, extantfarmans (imperial commands) indicate that the final price was not settled until almost two years after the mausoleum's commencement. Jai Singh's further cooperation was insured by imperial orders issued between 1632 and 1637 demanding that the provide stone masons and carts to transport marble from the mines at Makrana, within his "ancestral domain", to Agra where both the Taj Mahal and Shah Jahan's additions to the Agra fort were constructed concurrently.

Work on the mausoleum was commenced early in 1632. Inscriptional evidence indicates much of the tomb was completed by 1636. By 1643, when Shah Jahan most lavishly celebrated the 'Urs ceremony for Mumtaz Mahal', the entire complex was virtually complete.

35. Marble stone used for the construction of te Taj Mahal was brought from te ancestral domain of Raja Jai Singh. The name of the place where mines of marble is

a. Burhanpur
b. Makrana
c. Amber
d. Jaipur

36 The popular name Taj Mahal was given by

a. Shah Jahan
b. Tourists
c. Public
d. European travellers

37. Point out the true statement from the following:

a. Marble was not used for the construction of the Taj Mahal.

b. Red sand stone is non-visible in the Taj Mahal complex.

c. The Taj Mahal is surrounded by a four-quatered garden known as Chahr Bagh.

d. The Taj Mahal was constructed to celebrate the "Urs ceremony for Mumtaz Mahal".

38. In the contemporary texts the Taj Mahal is known

a. Mumtazabad

b. Mumtaz Mahal

c. Zainabad

d. Rauza-i-Munavvara

39. The Construction of the Taj Mahal was completed between the period

a. 1632-1636 A.D.

b. 1630-1643 A.D.

c. 1632-1643 A.D.

d. 1636-1643 A.D.

40. The documents indicating the ownership of land, where the Taj Mahal was built, known as

a. Farman

b. Sale Deed

c. Sale-Purchase Deed

d. None of the above

8. The following passage refers to questions 41-45.

Conflict had existed between Spain and England since the 1570s. England wanted a share of the wealth that Spain had been taking from the lands it had claimed in the Americas.

Elizabeth I, Queen of England, encouraged her staunch admiral of the navy, Sir Francis Drake, to raid Spanish ships and towns. Though these raids were on a small scale, Drake achieved dramatic success, adding gold and silver to England's treasury and diminishing Spain's supremacy.

Religious differences also caused conflict between the two countries. Whereas Spain was Roman Catholic, most of England had become Protestant. King Philip II of Spain wanted to claim the throne and make England a Catholic country again. To satisfy his ambition and also to retaliate against England's theft of his gold and silver, King Philip began to build his fleet of warships, the Spanish Armada, in January 1586. Philip intended his fleet to be indestructible. In addition to building new warships, he marshaled 130 sailing vessels of all types and recruited more than 19,000 robust soldiers and 8,000 sailors. Although some of his ships lacked guns and others lacked ammunition, Philip was convinced that his Armada could withstand any battle with

England. The martial Armada set sail from Lisbon, Portugal, on May 9, 1588, but bad weather forced it back to port. The voyage resumed on July 22 after the weather became more stable.

The Spanish fleet met the smaller, faster, and more maneuverable English ships in battle off the coast of Plymouth, England, first on July 31 and again on August 2. The two battles left Spain vulnerable, having lost several ships and with its ammunition depleted. On August 7, while the Armada lay at anchor on the French side of the Strait of Dover, England sent eight burning ships into the midst of the Spanish fleet to set it on fire. Blocked on one side, the Spanish ships could only drift away, their crews in panic and disorder. Before the Armada could regroup, the English attacked again on August 8.

Although the Spaniards made a valiant effort to fight back, the fleet suffered extensive damage. During the eight hours of battle, the Armada drifted perilously close to the rocky coastline. At the moment when it seemed that the Spanish ships would be driven onto the English shore, the wind shifted, and the Armada drifted out into the North Sea. The Spaniards recognized the superiority of the English fleet and returned home, defeated.

41. Sir Francis Drake added wealth to the treasury and diminished Spain's _____.

a. unlimited power
b. unrestricted growth
c. territory
d. treaties
e. Answer not available in article

42. King Philip recruited many _____ soldiers and sailors.

a. warlike
b. strong
c. accomplished
d. timid
e. inexperienced

43. The _____ Armada set sail on May 9, 1588.

a. complete
b. warlike
c. independent
d. isolated
e. Answer not available

44. The two battles left the Spanish fleet _____.

a. open to change
b. triumphant
c. open to attack

d. defeated
e. discouraged

45. The Armada was _____ on one side.
a. closed off
b. damaged
c. alone
d. circled
e. Answer not available in this article

9. Read the following passage carefully and answer questions:

Traditional Indian Values must be viewed both from the angle of the individual and from that of the geographically delimited agglomeration of peoples or groups enjoying a common system of leadership which we call the 'State'. The Indian 'State's' special feature is the peaceful, or perhaps mostly peaceful, co-existence of social groups of various historical provenances which manually adhere in a geographical, economic and political sense, without ever assimilating to each other in social terms, in ways of thinking, or even in language. Modern Indian law will determine certain rules, especially in relation to the regime of the family, upon the basis of hwo the loin-cloth is tied, or how the turban is worn, for this may identify the litigants as members of a regional group, and therefore as participants in it traditional law, though their ancestors left the region three or four centuries earlier. The use of the word 'State' above must not mislead us. There was no such thing as a conflict between the individual and the State, at least before foreign governments became established, just as there was no concept of state 'sovereignty' or of any church-and-state dichotomy.

Modem Indian 'secularism' has an admittedly peculiar feature: It requires the state to make a fair distribution of attention amongst all religions. These blessed aspects of India's famed tolerance (Indian kings to rarely persecuted religious groups that the exceptions prove the rule) at once struck Portuguese and other European visitors to the West Coast of India in the sixteenth century, and the impression made upon them in this and other ways gave rise, at one remove, to the basic constitution of Thomas More's Utopia. There is little about modern India that strikes one at once as Utopian but the insistence upon the inculcation of norms, and the absense of bigotry and institutionalized exploitation of human or natural resources, are two very different features which link the realities of India and her tradition with the essence of all Utopians.

46. Which of the following is a special feature of the Indian state?
a. peaceful co-existence of people under a common system of leadership
b. peaceful co-existence of social groups of different historical provenances attached to each other in a geographical, economical and political sense
c. Social integration of all groups
d. Cultural assimilation of all social groups

47. The author uses the word 'State' to highlight

a. Antagonistic relationship between the state and the individual throughout the period of history.

b. Absence of conflict between the state and the individuals upto a point in time.

c. The concept of state sovereignty

d. Dependence of religion

48. Which one is the peculiar feature of modern Indian 'secularism'?

a. No discrimination on religious considerations

b. Total indifference to religion

c. No space for social identity

d. Disregard for social law

49. The basic construction of Thomas More's Utopia was inspired by

a. Indian tradition of religious tolerance

b. Persecution of religious groups by Indian rulers

c. Social inequality in India

d. European perception of Indian State

50. What is the striking feature of modern India?

a. A replica of Utopian State

b. Uniform Laws

c. Adherance to traditional values

d. Absense of Bigotry

10. Refer to the following passage for questions 51-55.

One of the most intriguing stories of the Russian Revolution concerns the identity of Anastasia, the youngest daughter of Czar Nicholas II. During his reign over Russia, the czar had planned to revoke many of the harsh laws established by previous czars. Some workers and peasants, however, clamored for more rapid social reform. In 1918, a group of these people known as Bolsheviks overthrew the government. On July 17 or 18, they murdered the czar and what was thought to be his entire family.

Although witnesses vouched that all the members of the czar's family had been executed, there were rumors suggesting that Anastasia had survived. Over the years, a number of women claimed to be Grand Duchess Anastasia. Perhaps the most famous claimant was Anastasia Tschaikovsky, who was also known as Anna Anderson.

In 1920, 18 months after the czar's execution, this terrified young woman was rescued from drowning in a Berlin river. She spent two years in a hospital, where she attempted to reclaim her health and shattered mind. The doctors and nurses thought that she resembled Anastasia and questioned her about her background. She disclaimed any connection with the czar's family. Eight years later, however, she claimed that she was Anastasia. She said that she had been rescued by two Russian soldiers after the czar and the rest of her family had been killed. Two brothers named

Tschaikovsky had carried her into Romania. She had married one of the brothers, who had taken her to Berlin and left her there, penniless and without a vocation. Unable to invoke the aid of her mother's family in Germany, she had tried to drown herself.

During the next few years, scores of the czar's relatives, ex-servants, and acquaintances interviewed her. Many of these people said that her looks and mannerisms were evocative of the Anastasia that they had known. Her grandmother and other relatives denied that she was the real Anastasia, however.

Tired of being accused of fraud, Anastasia immigrated to the United States in 1928 and took the name Anna Anderson. She still wished to prove that she was Anastasia, though, and returned to Germany in 1933 to bring suit against her mother's family. There she declaimed to the court, asserting that she was indeed Anastasia and deserved her inheritance.

In 1957, the court decided that it could neither confirm nor deny Anastasia's identity. Although it will probably never be known whether this woman was the Grand Duchess Anastasia, her search to establish her identity has been the subject of numerous books, plays, and movies.

51. Some Russian peasants and workers _____ for social reform.

a. longed
b. cried out
c. begged
d. hoped
e. thought much

52. Witnesses _____ that all members of the czar's family had been executed.

a. gave assurance
b. thought
c. hoped
d. convinced some
e. Answer not available

53. Tschaikovsky initially _____ any connection with the czar's family.

a. denied
b. stopped
c. noted
d. justified
e. Answer not available

54. She was unable to _____ the aid of her relatives.

A. locate
B. speak about
C. call upon
D. identify
E. know

55. In court she _____ maintaining that she was Anastasia and deserved her inheritance.

a. finally appeared
b. spoke forcefully
c. gave testimony
d. gave evidence
e. Answer not available

11. Refer to the following passage for questions 56-57.

King Louis XVI and Queen Marie Antoinette ruled France from 1774 to 1789, a time when the country was fighting bankruptcy. The royal couple did not let France's insecure financial situation limit their immoderate spending, however. Even though the minister of finance repeatedly warned the king and queen against wasting money, they continued to spend great fortunes on their personal pleasure. This lavish spending greatly enraged the people of France. They felt that the royal couple bought its luxurious lifestyle at the poor people's expense.

Marie Antoinette, the beautiful but exceedingly impractical queen, seemed uncaring about her subjects' misery. While French citizens begged for lower taxes, the queen embellished her palace with extravagant works of art. She also surrounded herself with artists, writers, and musicians, who encouraged the queen to spend money even more profusely. While the queen's favorites glutted themselves on huge feasts at the royal table, many people in France were starving. The French government taxed the citizens outrageously. These high taxes paid for the entertainments the queen and her court so enjoyed. When the minister of finance tried to stop these royal spendthrifts, the queen replaced him. The intense hatred that the people felt for Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette kept building until it led to the French Revolution. During this time of struggle and violence (1789-1799), thousands of aristocrats, as well as the king and queen themselves, lost their lives at the guillotine. Perhaps if Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette had reined in their extravagant spending, the events that rocked France would not have occurred.

56. The people surrounding the queen encouraged her to spend money _____.

a. wisely
b. abundantly
c. carefully
d. foolishly
e. E.joyfully

57. The minister of finance tried to curb these royal _____.

a. aristocrats
b. money wasters
c. enemies
d. individuals
e. spenders

12. Read the following passage carefully and answer the question.:

Story telling is not in our genes. Neither it is an evolutionary history. It is the essence of what makes us Human. Human beings progress by telling stories. One event can result in a great variety of stories being told about it. Sometimes those stories differ greatly. Which stories are picked up and repeated and which ones are dropped and forgotten often determines how we progress. Our history, knowledge and understanding are all the collections of the few stories that survive. This includes the stories that we tell each other about the future. And how the future will turn out depends partly, possibly largely, on which stories we collectively choose to believe.

Some stories are designed to spread fear and concern. This is because some story-tellers feel that there is a need to raise some tensions. Some stories are frightening, they are like totemic warnings : "Fail to act now and we are all doomed." Then there are stories that indicate that all will be fine so long as we leave everything upto a few especiallv able adults. Currently, this trend is being led by those who call themselves "rational optimists". They tend to claim that it is human nature to compete and to succeed and also to profit at the expense of others. The rational optimists however, do not realize how humanity has progressed overtime through amiable social networks and how large groups work in less selfishness and in the process accommodate rich and poor, high and low alike. This aspect in story-telling is considered by the 'Practical Possibles', who sit between those who say all is fine and cheerful and be individualistic in your approach to a successful future, and those who ordain pessimism and fear that we are doomed.

What the future holds for us is which stories we hold on to and how we act on them.

58. Our knowledge is a collection of

a. all stories that we have heard during our life-time
b. some stories that we remember
c. a few stories that survive
d. some important stories

59. Story telling is

a. an art
b. a science
c. in our genes
d. the essence of what makes us human

60. How the future will turn out to be, depends upon the stories

a. We collectively choose to believe in
b. Which are repeatedly narrated
c. Designed to spread fear and tension
d. Designed to make prophecy

61. Rational optimists :

a. Look for opportunities
b. Are sensible and cheerful

c. Are selfishly driven
d. (a), (b) and (c)
e. (a) only
f. (a) and (b) only
g. (b) and (c) only

62. Humans become less selfish when

a. they work in large groups
b. they listen to frightening stories
c. they listen to cheerful stories
d. they work in solitude

63. Practical Possibles' are the ones who

a. follow Midway Path
b. are doom-mongers
c. are self-centred
d. are cheerful and carefree

13. The following passage refers to questions 64 through 70.

Marie Curie was one of the most accomplished scientists in history. Together with her husband, Pierre, she discovered radium, an element widely used for treating cancer, and studied uranium and other radioactive substances. Pierre and Marie's amicable collaboration later helped to unlock the secrets of the atom.

Marie was born in 1867 in Warsaw, Poland, where her father was a professor of physics. At an early age, she displayed a brilliant mind and a blithe personality. Her great exuberance for learning prompted her to continue with her studies after high school. She became disgruntled, however, when she learned that the university in Warsaw was closed to women. Determined to receive a higher education, she defiantly left Poland and in 1891 entered the Sorbonne, a French university, where she earned her master's degree and doctorate in physics.

Marie was fortunate to have studied at the Sorbonne with some of the greatest scientists of her day, one of whom was Pierre Curie. Marie and Pierre were married in 1895 and spent many productive years working together in the physics laboratory. A short time after they discovered radium, Pierre was killed by a horse-drawn wagon in 1906. Marie was stunned by this horrible misfortune and endured heartbreaking anguish. Despondently she recalled their close relationship and the joy that they had shared in scientific research. The fact that she had two young daughters to raise by herself greatly increased her distress.

Curie's feeling of desolation finally began to fade when she was asked to succeed her husband as a physics professor at the Sorbonne. She was the first woman to be given a professorship at the world-famous university. In 1911 she received the Nobel Prize in chemistry for isolating radium. Although Marie Curie eventually suffered a fatal illness from her long exposure to radium, she never became disillusioned about her work. Regardless of the consequences, she had dedicated herself to science and to revealing the mysteries of the physical world.

64. The Curies' _____ collaboration helped to unlock the secrets of the atom.

a. friendly
b. competitive
c. courteous
d. industrious
e. chemistry

65. Marie had a bright mind and a _____ personality.

a. strong
b. lighthearted
c. humorous
d. strange
e. envious

66. When she learned that she could not attend the university in Warsaw, she felt _____.

a. hopeless
b. annoyed
c. depressed
d. worried
e. None of the above

67. Marie _____ by leaving Poland and traveling to France to enter the Sorbonne.

a. challenged authority
b. showed intelligence
c. behaved
d. was distressed
e. Answer not available

68. _____ she remembered their joy together.

a. Dejectedly
b. Worried
c. Tearfully
d. Happily
e. Irefully

69. Her _____ began to fade when she returned to the Sorbonne to succeed her husband.

a. misfortune
b. anger
c. wretchedness
d. disappointment
e. ambition

70. Even though she became fatally ill from working with radium, Marie Curie was never _____.

a. troubled
b. worried
c. disappointed
d. sorrowful
e. disturbed

14. The following passage refers to questions 71-73.

The Trojan War is one of the most famous wars in history. It is well known for the 10-year duration, for the heroism of a number of legendary characters, and for the Trojan horse. What may not be familiar, however, is the story of how the war began.

According to Greek myth, the strife between the Trojans and the Greeks started at the wedding of Peleus, King of Thessaly, and Thetis, a sea nymph. All of the gods and goddesses had been invited to the wedding celebration in Troy except Eris, goddess of discord. She had been omitted from the guest list because her presence always embroiled mortals and immortals alike in conflict.

To take revenge on those who had slighted her, Eris decided to cause a skirmish. Into the middle of the banquet hall, she threw a golden apple marked "for the most beautiful." All of the goddesses began to haggle over who should possess it. The gods and goddesses reached a stalemate when the choice was narrowed to Hera, Athena, and Aphrodite. Someone was needed to settle the controversy by picking a winner. The job eventually fell to Paris, son of King Priam of Troy, who was said to be a good judge of beauty. Paris did not have an easy job. Each goddess, eager to win the golden apple, tried aggressively to bribe him.

"I'll grant you vast kingdoms to rule," promised Hera. "Vast kingdoms are nothing in comparison with my gift," contradicted Athena. "Choose me and I'll see that you win victory and fame in war." Aphrodite outdid her adversaries, however. She won the golden apple by offering Helen, daughter of Zeus and the most beautiful mortal in the land, to Paris. Paris, anxious to claim Helen, set off for Sparta in Greece.

Although Paris learned that Helen was married, he nevertheless accepted the hospitality of her husband, King Menelaus of Sparta. Therefore, Menelaus was outraged for a number of reasons when Paris departed, taking Helen and much of the king's wealth back to Troy. Menelaus collected his loyal forces and set sail for Troy to begin the war to reclaim Helen.

71. Eris was known for _____ both mortals and immortals.

a. scheming against
b. creating conflict amongst
c. feeling hostile toward

d. ignoring
e. comforting

72. **Each goddess tried _____ to bribe Paris.**
a. boldly
b. effectively
c. secretly
d. carefully
e. Answer not available

73. **Athena _____ Hera, promising Paris victory and fame in war.**
a. disregarded the statement of
b. defeated
c. agreed with
d. restated the statement of
e. questioned the statement of

15. Read the following passage and answer the questions 74 to 78:

While the British rule in India was detrimental to the economic development of the country, it did help in starting of the process of modernizing Indian society and formed several progressive institutions during that process. One of the most beneficial institutions, which were initiated by the British, was democracy. Nobody can dispute that despite its many shortcomings; democracy was and is far better alternative to the arbitrary rule of the rajas and nawabs, which prevailed in India in the pre-British days.

However, one of the harmful traditions of British democracy inherited by India was that of conflict instead of cooperation between elected members. This was its essential feature. The party, which got the support of the majority of elected members, formed the Government while the others constituted a standing opposition. The existence of the opposition to those in power was and is regarded as a hallmark of democracy.

In principle, democracy consists of rule by the people; but where direct rule is not possible, it's rule by persons elected by the people. It is natural that there would be some differences of opinion among the elected members as in the rest of the society.

Normally, members of any organizations have differences of opinion between themselves on different issues but they manage to work on the basis of a consensus and they do not normally form a division between some who are in majority and are placed in power, while treating the others as in opposition.

The members of an organization usually work on consensus. Consensus simply means that after an adequate discussion, members agree that the majority opinion may prevail for the time being. Thus persons who form a majority on one issue and whose opinion is allowed to prevail may not be on the same side if there is a difference on some other issue.

It was largely by accident that instead of this normal procedure, a two party system came to prevail in Britain and that is now being generally taken as the best method of democratic rule.

Many democratically inclined persons in India regret that such a two party system was not brought about in the country. It appears that to have two parties in India – of more or less equal strength - is a virtual impossibility. Those who regret the absence of a two-party system should take the reasons into consideration. When the two party system got established in Britain, there were two groups among the rules (consisting of a limited electorate) who had the same economic interests among themselves and who therefore formed two groups within the selected members of Parliament.

There were members of the British aristocracy (which landed interests and consisting of lord, barons etc) and members of the new commercial class consisting of merchants and artisans. These groups were more or less of equal strength and they were able to establish their separate rule at different times.

74. **In pre-British period, when India was ruled by the independent rulers:**
   a. Peace and prosperity prevailed in the society
   b. People were isolated from political affairs
   c. Public opinion was inevitable for policy making
   d. Law was equal for one and all

75. **What is the distinguishing feature of the democracy practiced in Britain?**
   a. End to the rule of might is right.
   b. Rule of the people, by the people and for the people.
   c. It has stood the test of time.
   d. Cooperation between elected members.

76. **Democracy is practiced where:**
   a. Elected members form a uniform opinion regarding policy matter.
   b. Opposition is more powerful than the ruling combine.
   c. Representatives of masses.
   d. None of these.

77. **Which of the following is true about the British rule in India?**
   a. It was behind the modernization of the Indian society.
   b. India gained economically during that period.
   c. Various establishments were formed for the purpose of progress.
   d. None of these.

78. **Who became the members of the new commercial class during that time?**
   a. British Aristocrats
   b. Lord and barons
   c. Political Persons
   d. Merchants and Artisans

Answer

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
C	C	A	C	B	B	A	A	C	C
11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
B	A	B	A	B	B	C	B	C	B
21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
B	B	D	A	D	A	D	B	B	A
31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
C	C	B	A	B	D	C	C	D	C
41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50
A	B	B	C	A	B	B	A	A	D
51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60
B	A	A	C	B	B	B	C	D	A
61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70
D	A	A	A	B	B	A	A	C	C
71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78		
B	A	A	B	B	B	A	D		

Grammar Focus

5

Focus (abbreviated foc) is a grammatical category that determines which part of the sentence contributes new, non-derivable, or contrastive information. Focus is related to information structure. Contrastive focus specifically refers to the coding of information that is contrary to the presuppositions of the interlocutor. The topic–comment model distinguishes between the topic (theme) and what is being said about that topic (the comment, rheme, or focus).

TENSE

Verbs come in three tenses: past, present, and future. The past is used to describe things that have already happened (e.g., earlier in the day, yesterday, last week, three years ago). The present tense is used to describe things that are happening right now, or things that are continuous. The future tense describes things that have yet to happen (e.g., later, tomorrow, next week, next year, three years from now).

Read the following sentences :

1. I write this letter to plese you.
2. I wrote the letter in his very presence.
3. I shall write another letter tomorrow.

In sentence 1, the Verb write refers to present time.

In sentence 2, the Verb write refers to past time.

In sentence 3, the Verb write refers to future time.

Thus a Verb refer
(1) to present time, (2) to past time, or (3) to future time.
A Verb that reters to present time is said to be in the Present Tense ; as
[The word tense comes from the Latin tempus, time.]
A Verb that refers to past time is said to be in the Past Tense ; for example,
I wrote, I loved.
A verb that refers to future time is said to be in the Future Tense ; for example,
I shall write, I shall love.
Thus there are three main Tenses—
The Present, the Past, the Future.

The Tense of a Verb shows the time of an action or event.

Below we give the chief Tenses (Active Voice, Indicative Mood) of the verb to love.

Present Tense

Singular Numeber	Plural Number	
1st Person	I love	We love
2nd Person	You love	You love
3rd Person	He loves	They love
Past Tense		

Past Tense

Singular Numeber	Plural Number	
1st Person	I loved	We loved
2nd Person	You loved	You loved
3rd Person	He loved	They loved
Future Tense		

Future Tense

Singular Numeber	Plural Number	
1st Person	I shall love	We shall love
2nd Person	You will love	You will love
3rd Person	He will love	They will love

These forms are now used only in poetry.

Read these sentences—

1. I love. (Simple Present)
2. I am loving. (Present Continuous)
3. I have loved. (Present Perfect)
4. I have been loving. (Present Perfect Continuous)

The Verbs in all of these sentences refer sentences refer to the present time. and are therefore said to be in the Presest tense. In sentence I, however, the Verb shows that the action is mentioned simply, without anything being said about the completeness or incompleteness of the action.

In sentence 2, the Verb shows that the action is mentioned as incomplete or continuous, that is, as still going on. In sentence 3, the Verb shows that the action is mentioned as finished, complete, or perfect, at the time of speaking. The tense of the Verb in the sentence 4 is said to be Present Perfect Continuous, because the verb shows that the action is going on continuously, and not completed at this present moment. Thus we see that the Tense of a verb shows not only the time of an action or event, but also the state of an action referred to.

214. Just as the Present Tense has four forms, the Past Tense also has the following four forms :

1. I loved. (Simple Past)
2. I was loving (Past Continuous)
3. I had loved. (Past Perfect)
4. I had been loving (Past Perfect continuous)

Similarly the future Tense has the following four forms :

1. I shall loved. (Simple Future)
2. I shall be loving (Future Continuous)
3. I shall have loved. (Future Perfect)
4. I shall have been loving (Future Perfect continuous)

We may now define Tense as that forme of a Verb which shows the time and the state of an action or event. Carefully study the following table of Tenses of the Verb to love.

Active	I love	I am loving	I have loved

Present

Passive	I am loved	I am being loved	I have been loved	I had been koving
Active	I loved	I was loving	I had loed	I had been

Past

Passive	I was loved	I was being loved	I had been loved
Active	I shall love	I shall be loving	I shall havebeen loving

Future

Passive	I shall be loved	I shall have been loved

It will be seen that there are twelve tenses in the Active Voice, and eight in the Passive.

Exercise

Point out the Verbs in the following sentences and name their Moods and Tenses :—

1. The river flows under the bridge.
2. I shall answer the letter to-night.
3. I knew he was there, for I had seen him come.
4. It has been raining all night.
5. I hear he has passed all right.
6. I had finished when he came.

7. He takes but little pride in his work.
8. I have been living here for months.
9. Be good. sweet maid.
10. By this time to-morrow I shall have reached my home.
11. It is time we left.
12. He told me that he had finished the work.
13. God forgive you!
14. He is waiting for you in the compound.
15. Piper pipe that song again.
16. I am hopping to get a holiday soon.
17. I wish I knew his address.
18. Do noble deeds, not dream them all the day.
19. I shall have plenty of time tomorrow.
20. Though this be madness, yet there is method in it.
21. The king had never before led his troops in battle.
22. It he was guilty, his punishment was too light.
23. We have heard a strange story.
24. The travellers, all of whom had seen the chameleon, could not agree about its colur.
25. Beware lest something worse should happen to you.
26. The farmer is culting the corn which has ripened.
27. I wish my brother were here.
28. She would rather we stayed till tomorrow.

Simple Present

The simple present is a verb tense with two main uses. We use the simple present tense when an action is happening right now, or when it happens regularly (or unceasingly, which is why it's sometimes called present indefinite). Depending on the person, the simple present tense is formed by using the root form or by adding -s or -es to the end.

I feel great! Pauline loves pie. I'm sorry to hear that you're sick.

The other is to talk about habitual actions or occurrences.

Pauline practices the piano every day. Ms. Jackson travels during the summer. Hamsters run all night.

Typically, when we want to describe a temporary action that is currently in progress, we use the present continuous: Pauline can't come to the phone right now because she is brushing her teeth.

HOW TO FORM THE SIMPLE PRESENT

In the simple present, most regular verbs use the root form, except in the third-person singular (which ends in -s).

First-person singular: I write

Second-person singular: You write

Third-person singular: He/she/it writes (note the -s)

First-person plural: We write

Second-person plural: You write

Third-person plural: They write

For a few verbs, the third-person singular ends with -es instead of -s. Typically, these are verbs whose root form ends in o, ch, sh, th, ss, gh, or z.

First-person singular: I go

Second-person singular: You go

Third-person singular: He/she/it goes (note the -es)

First-person plural: We go

Second-person plural: You go

Third-person plural: They go

For most regular verbs, you put the negation of the verb before the verb, e.g. "She won't go" or "I don't smell anything."

The verb to be is irregular:

First-person singular: I am

Second-person singular: You are

Third-person singular: He/she/it is

First-person plural: We are

Second-person plural: You are

Third-person plural: They are

How to Make the Simple Present Negative

The formula for making a simple present verb negative is do/does + not + [root form of verb]. You can also use the contraction don't or doesn't instead of do not or does not.

Pauline does not want to share the pie. She doesn't think there is enough to go around. Her friends do not agree. I don't want pie anyway.

To make the verb to be negative, the formula is [to be] + not.

I am not a pie lover, but Pauline sure is. You aren't ready for such delicious pie.

How to Ask a Question

The formula for asking a question in the simple present is do/does + [subject] + [root form of verb].

Do you know how to bake a pie? How much does Pauline love pie?

Common Verbs in the Simple Present

Infinitive	I, You, We, They	He, She, It	
to ask	ask / do not ask	asks / does not ask	
to work	work / do not work	works / does not work	
to call	call / do not call	calls / does not call	
to use	use / do not use	uses / does not use	
to have	have / do not have	has / does not have	
The Verb to Be in the Simple Present			
Infinitive	I	You, We, They	He, She, It
to be	am / am not	are / are not	is / is not

Simple present tense with 'be'

The verb 'be' is different from the other verbs in this tense. Let's look at 'be' first:

Here's the positive form (positive means a normal sentence, not a negative or a question. This is sometimes called 'affirmative')

Positive	Positive Short Form
I am	I'm
you are	you're
he is	he's
she is	she's
it is	it's
we are	we're
they are	they're

Next, here's the negative. It's very easy. You only add 'not'.

Negative	Negative short form
I am not	I'm not
you are not	you aren't
he is not	he isn't
she is not	she isn't
it is not	it isn't
we are not	we aren't
they are not	they aren't

And finally let's talk about the question form of the present simple with 'be'.

Firstly, here's the 'yes / no' question form:

Yes / No Questions

am I ?

are you ?

is he ?

is she ?

is it ?

are we ?

are they ?

If you'd like to make a 'wh' question, you just put the question word at the front:

Wh Questions

where	am I ?
what	are you ?
why	is he ?
who	is she ?
when	are we ?
how	are they ?

PRESENT SIMPLE TENSE WITH OTHER VERBS

With all other verbs, we make the present simple in the same way.

The positive is really easy. It's just the verb with an extra 's' if the subject is 'he', 'she', or 'it'. Let's take the verb 'play' as an example:

Positive (of 'play')

I play

you play

he plays

she plays

it plays

we play

they play

Don't forget the 's'! Even really advanced students do this!

For a few verbs, there is a spelling change before the 's'. For example, 'study' becomes 'studies'.

There are also few verbs which are irregular in the present simple:

'have' becomes 'has'

'do' becomes 'does'

'go' becomes 'goes'

To make the negative form, you need to use 'do not' (don't) or ' does not' (doesn't).

Negative (of 'play')

I do not play	I don't play
you do not play	you don't play
he does not play	he doesn't play
she does not play	she doesn't play
it does not play	it doesn't play
we do not play	we don't play
they do not play	they don't play

How about the question form of the present simple tense?

We use 'do' or 'does' before the subject to make the 'yes / no' question:

Yes / No questions

do I play ?

do you play ?

does he play ?

does she play ?

does it play ?

do we play ?

do they play ?

Just like with 'be', if you'd like to make a 'wh' question, you just put the question word at the front:

Wh Questions

where	do I play ?
what	do you play ?
why	does he play ?
who	does she play ?
when	do we play ?

how do they play ?

Present Perfect Tense

The present perfect tense refers to an action or state that either occurred at an indefinite time in the past (e.g., we have talked before) or began in the past and continued to the present time (e.g., he has grown impatient over the last hour). This tense is formed by have/has + the past participle.

The construction of this verb tense is straightforward. The first element is have or has, depending on the subject the verb is conjugated with. The second element is the past participle of the verb, which is usually formed by adding -ed or -d to the verb's root (e.g., walked, cleaned, typed, perambulated, jumped, laughed, sautéed) although English does have quite a few verbs that have irregular past participles (e.g., done, said, gone, known, won, thought, felt, eaten).

These examples show how the present perfect can describe something that occurred or was the state of things at an unspecified time in the past.

I have walked on this path before.

We have eaten the lasagna here.

The important thing to remember about the present perfect is that you can't use it when you are being specific about when it happened.

I have put away all the laundry.

I have put away all the la7undry this morning.

You can use the present perfect to talk about the duration of something that started in the past is still happening.

She has had the chickenpox since Tuesday.

Present Continuous

The present continuous verb tense indicates that an action or condition is happening now, frequently, and may continue into the future.

The Present Continuous Formula: to be [am, is, are] + verb [present participle]

Aunt Christine is warming up the car while Scott looks for his new leather coat. They are eating at Scott's favorite restaurant today, Polly's Pancake Diner.

Key words: Verb, present participle, tense, dynamic verbs, stative verbs The present continuous (present progressive) tense is a way to convey any action or condition that is happening right now, frequently, and may be ongoing. It adds energy and action to writing, and its effect helps readers understand when the action is happening. Imagine Aunt Christine has surprised her nephew Scott for his birthday and is going to take him out to his favorite restaurant, Polly's Pancake Diner. If I wanted to tell the story after it happened, I'd use the past tense: They waited at the red light, and Scott worried they might miss their reservation. (Past tense)

Present Continuous

But what I really want to convey is how the event unfolded, showing the action as it is happening:

They are sitting at Scott's favorite booth, the one with the sparkling red plastic seats.(For how long? We don't know, but we do know they are sitting there now.) The waiter is standing behind the counter right now with a notepad in his hand and pencil behind his ear. (Will he ever make it over to the booth? Probably, but not now.) "Are you waiting to open your presents after you eat your pancakes?" said Aunt Christine, taking a sip from her root beer. (Here the present continuous is being used in question

form.) From this narrative point of view, the action is immediate and continuous; there's momentum. Sometimes writers use this tense to add suspense or humor in fictional pieces. What kind of pancakes will Scott and his aunt order? The suspense is killing me!

The Present Continuous Formula

To form the present continuous, follow this formula:

To Be [Am, Is, Are] + Verb [Present Participle]

When to Use the Present Continuous Tense

Use the present continuous tense with the appropriate "to be" verb and a dynamic verb. A dynamic verb shows action and/or process. For example, Scott's little sister is arriving at the diner two hours late because her roller-derby team, Chicks Ahoy, won the national championships early today. As she is walking into Polly's Pancake Diner, she is yelling goodbye to her friends outside, and Scott hopes she doesn't cause a scene since she is always embarrassing him in public.

WHEN NOT TO USE THE PRESENT CONTINUOUS TENSE

Do not use the present continuous tense with stative verbs. Stative verbs show a state of being that does not show qualities of change. These verbs can stay in the simple present. For example, Aunt Christine is preferring the maple walnut pancakes over the banana peanut butter ones that Scott loves.

Aunt Christine prefers the maple walnut pancakes over the banana peanut butter ones that Scott loves.

Here, the stative verb to prefer shows opinion, and therefore should not be conjugated into the present continuous. Stative verb categories include emotion (to love), possession (to belong), and thoughts (to recognize), and none of these should use the present continuous form.

The Exception to the Rule

Some verbs can be both dynamic and stative! Think about the verbs to be and to think. In its dynamic form, the verb to be can show action:

Sarah, Scott's little sister, is being bold by ordering the jalapeno-chipotle pancakes.

But in its stative form, the verb to be is awkward if conjugated in the present continuous.

Sarah is being a tall teenager, who loves her food spicy and her sports dangerous.

Sarah is a tall teenageer, who loves her food spicy and her sports dangerous.

Here are some more examples:

The waiter thinks Scott should save room for pumpkin pie. (Stative and in the simple present)

The waiter is thinking about getting a new job that requires less human interaction, like a veterinarian. (Dynamic and in the present continuous)

IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS AND STYLE

English can be confusing; what is grammatically correct isn't always what you might hear in music, in advertisements, or during regular conversations. The present continuous is often used incorrectly. Consider the the popular slogan for McDonald's: "I'm Lovin' It." This is a grammatically incorrect sentence because to love is a stative verb, so why would McDonald's use it in their advertisements? This marks the difference between grammar and style. Using the present continuous as a means to exaggerate is a stylistic trend, and as such, it would not be surprising to hear this conversation. Scott, glazed with a chocolate mustache, looks over to his aunt and says, "I'm lovin' me some of these chocolate peanut butter banana pancakes!" "I'm hearing what you're saying!" she replies, sprinkling powdered sugar atop the stacks on her plate. Here Scott and his Aunt display their excitement in a silly way, emphasizing their feelings. On the other hand, you would never hear a native speaker say these sentences: Scott is loving his Aunt Christine, a self-proclaimed pancake connoisseur. (People would simply say "Scott loves his Aunt Christine . . .") Sarah is hearing the music from their table-top juke box and resists the urge to dance on the table. (Sarah hears the music. . .)

The Final Say

If you are teaching English or learning it, I'd recommend simply sticking to grammatically correct constructions and leaving the idiomatic expressions to the creators of advertisements and song lyrics. In formal writing, the experts recommend that when you can use fewer words to express a thought, you should, so use the present continuous sparingly—short and sweet can't be beat!

Common Construction in the Present Continuous Tense

Pronoun	To Be	Common Dynamic Verbs	Present Continuous Construction
I	am	to write	I am writing
He, She, It	is	to watch	She is watching
We, You, They	are	to walk	They are walking

Common Dynamic Verbs that USE the Present Continuous

Active Verbs	Process Verbs	Sense Verbs
ask	change	feel (as in touch)
call	grow	hurt
eat	mature	ache
help	arrive	
hit	fall	
jump		
look at		
play		
throw		

Common Stative Verbs that DO NOT USE the Present Continuous

Opinion Verbs	Ownership Verbs	Emotion Verbs
deserve	own	feel
know	belong	hate
recognize	need	love
understand	possess	sound

Present Perfect Continuous Tense

The present perfect continuous tense (also known as the present perfect progressive tense) shows that something started in the past and is continuing at the present time. The present perfect continuous is formed using the construction has/have been + the present participle (root + -ing).

I have been reading War and Peace for a month now

In this sentence, using the present perfect continuous verb tense conveys that reading War and Peace is an activity that began sometime in the past and is not yet finished in the present (which is understandable in this case, given the length of Tolstoy's weighty tome).

Recently and lately are words that we often find with verbs in the present perfect continuous tense.

Mia has been competing in flute competitions recently. (And she will continue to do so.)

I haven't been feeling well lately. (And I am still sick now.)

Have you seen my wallet and keys recently? (Because I sure don't know where they are.)

Of course, not all verbs are compatible with continuous action. Some examples of such verbs are to be, to arrive, and to own.

Incorrect: I have been owning my Mazda since 2007.

Correct: I have owned my Mazda since 2007. (present perfect tense)

Incorrect: Gus has been being late for work recently.

Correct: Gus has been late for work recently. (present perfect tense)

Past Tense

Simple Past Tense

The simple past is a verb tense that is used to talk about things that happened or existed before now. Imagine someone asks what your brother Wolfgang did while he was in town last weekend.

Wolfgang entered a hula hoop contest.

He won the silver medal.

The simple past tense shows that you are talking about something that has already happened. Unlike the past continuous tense, which is used to talk about past events that happened over a period of time, the simple past tense emphasizes that the action is finished.

Wolfgang admired the way the light glinted off his silver medal.

You can also use the simple past to talk about a past state of being, such as the way someone felt about something. This is often expressed with the simple past tense of the verb to be and an adjective, noun, or prepositional phrase.

Wolfgang was proud of his hula hoop victory.

The contest was the highlight of his week.

How to Formulate the Simple Past

For regular verbs, add -ed to the root form of the verb (or just -d if the root form already ends in an e):

Play?Played Type?Typed Listen?Listened Push?Pushed Love?Loved

For irregular verbs, things get more complicated. The simple past tense of some irregular verbs looks exactly like the root form:

Put?Put Cut?Cut Set?Set Cost?Cost Hit?Hit

For other irregular verbs, including the verb to be, the simple past forms are more erratic:

See?Saw Build?Built Go?Went Do?Did Rise?Rose Am/Is/Are?Was/Were

The good news is that verbs in the simple past tense (except for the verb to be) don't need to agree in number with their subjects. Wolfgang polished his medal. The other winners polished their medals too.

How to Make the Simple Past Negative

Fortunately, there is a formula for making simple past verbs negative, and it's the same for both regular and irregular verbs (except for the verb to be). The formula is did not + [root form of verb]. You can also use the contraction didn't instead of did not. Wolfgang did not brag too much about his hula hoop skills. Wolfgang's girlfriend didn't see the contest. For the verb to be, you don't need the auxiliary did. When the subject of the sentence is singular, use was not or wasn't. When the subject is plural, use were not or weren't. The third-place winner was not as happy as Wolfgang. The fourth-place winner wasn't happy at all. The onlookers were not ready to leave after the contest ended. The contestants weren't ready to leave either.

How to Ask a Question

The formula for asking a question in the simple past tense is did + [subject] + [root form of verb].

Did Wolfgang win the gold medal or the silver medal? Where did Wolfgang go to celebrate? Did the judges decide fairly, in your opinion? When asking a question with the verb to be, you don't need the auxiliary did. The formula is was/were + [subject]. Was Wolfgang in a good mood after the contest? Were people taking lots of pictures?

Common Regular Verbs in the Past Tense

Infinitive	Past Tense	Negative
to ask	asked	did not ask
to work	worked	did not work
to call	called	did not call
to use	used	did not use

Common Irregular Verbs in the Past Tense

Infinitive	Past Tense	Negative
to be	was were	was not were not
to have	had	did not have
to do	did	did not do
to say	said	did not say
to get	got	did not get
to make	made	did not make
to go	went	did not go
to take	took	did not take
to see	saw	did not see
to come	came	did not come

Past Perfect Tense

The past perfect, also called the pluperfect, is a verb tense used to talk about actions that were completed before some point in the past.We were shocked to discover that someone had graffitied "Tootles was here" on our front door. We were relieved that Tootles had used washable paint. The past perfect tense is for talking about something that happened before something else. Imagine waking up one morning and stepping outside to grab the newspaper. On your way back in, you notice a mysterious message scrawled across your front door: Tootles was here. When you're telling this story to your friends later, how would you describe this moment? You might say something like: I turned back to the house and saw that some someone named Tootles had defaced my front door! In addition to feeling indignant on your behalf, your friends will also be able to understand that Tootles graffitied the door at some point in the past before the

moment this morning when you saw his handiwork, because you used the past perfect tense to describe the misdeed.

The Past Perfect Formula

The formula for the past perfect tense is had + [past participle]. It doesn't matter if the subject is singular or plural; the formula doesn't change.

When to Use the Past Perfect

So what's the difference between past perfect and simple past? When you're talking about some point in the past and want to reference an event that happened even earlier, using the past perfect allows you to convey the sequence of the events. It's also clearer and more specific. Consider the difference between these two sentences. We were relieved that Tootles used washable paint. We were relieved that Tootles had used washable paint. It's a subtle difference, but the first sentence doesn't tie Tootles's act of using washable paint to any particular moment in time; readers might interpret it as "We were relieved that Tootles was in the habit of using washable paint." In the second sentence, the past perfect makes it clear that you're talking about a specific instance of using washable paint.

Another time to use the past perfect is when you are expressing a condition and a result:

If I had woken up earlier this morning, I would have caught Tootles red-handed.

The past perfect is used in the part of the sentence that explains the condition (the if-clause).

Most often, the reason to write a verb in the past perfect tense is to show that it happened before other actions in the same sentence that are described by verbs in the simple past tense. Writing an entire paragraph with every verb in the past perfect tense is unusual.

When Not to Use the Past Perfect

Don't use the past perfect when you're not trying to convey some sequence of events. If your friends asked what you did after you discovered the graffiti, they would be confused if you said:

I had cleaned it off the door.

They'd likely be wondering what happened next because using the past perfect implies that your action of cleaning the door occurred before something else happened, but you don't say what that something else is. The "something else" doesn't always have to be explicitly mentioned, but context needs to make it clear. In this case there's no context, so the past perfect doesn't make sense.

How to Make the Past Perfect Negative

Making the past perfect negative is simple! Just insert not between had and [past participle].

We looked for witnesses, but the neighbors had not seen Tootles in the act. If Tootles had not included his own name in the message, we would have no idea who was behind it.

How to Ask a Question

The formula for asking a question in the past perfect tense is had + [subject] + [past participle].

Had Tootles caused trouble in other neighborhoods before he struck ours?

Common Regular Verbs in the Past Perfect Tense

Infinitive	Past Perfect	Negative
to ask	had asked	had not asked
to work	had worked	had not worked
to call	had called	had not called
to use	had used	had not used

Common Irregular Verbs in the Past Perfect Tense

Infinitive	Past Perfect	Negative
to be	had been	had not been
to have	had had	had not had
to do	had done	had not done
to say	had said	had not said
to get	had gotten*	had not gotten*
to make	had made	had not made
to go	had gone	had not gone
to take	had taken	had not taken
to see	had seen	had not seen
to come	had come	had not come

*The past participle of "to get" is "gotten" in American English. In British English, the past participle is "got."

Past Continuous Tense

The past continuous tense, also known as the past progressive tense, refers to a continuing action or state that was happening at some point in the past. The past continuous tense is formed by combining the past tense of to be (i.e., was/were) with the verb's present participle (-ing word). There are many situations in which this verb tense might be used in a sentence. For example, it is often used to describe conditions that existed in the past.

The sun was shining every day that summer.

As I spoke, the children were laughing at my cleverness.

It can also be used to describe something that was happening continuously in the past when another action interrupted it.

The audience was applauding until he fell off the stage.

I was making dinner when she arrived.

The past continuous can shed light on what was happening at a precise time in the past.

At 6 o'clock, I was eating dinner.

It can also refer to a habitual action in the past.

She was talking constantly in class in those days.

One final caution: Though the irregularities are few, not every verb is suited to describing a continuous action. Certain verbs can't be used in the past continuous tense. One common example is the verb to arrive.

At noon, he was arriving.

At noon, he arrived .

Past Perfect Continuous Tense

The past perfect continuous tense (also known as the past perfect progressive tense) shows that an action that started in the past continued up until another time in the past. The past perfect continuous tense is constructed using had been + the verb's present participle (root + -ing). Unlike the present perfect continuous, which indicates an action that began in the past and continued up to the present, the past perfect continuous is a verb tense that indicates something that began in the past, continued in the past, and also ended at a defined point in the past.

He had been drinking milk out the carton when Mom walked into the kitchen.

I had been working at the company for five years when I got the promotion.

When, for, since, and before are words that you may see used alongside the past perfect continuous tense.

Martha had been walking three miles a day before she broke her leg.

The program that was terminated had been working well since 1945.

Cathy had been playing the piano for 35 years when she was finally asked to do a solo with the local orchestra.

He had been throwing rocks at her window for five minutes before she finally came out on the balcony and said, "Hey, Romeo."

The Future Tenses

Simple Future Tense

The simple future is a verb tense that's used to talk about things that haven't happened yet.

This year, Rekha will read Ramayana. It will be hard, but she's determined to do it.

Use the simple future to talk about an action or condition that will begin and end in the future.

How to Form the Simple Future

The formula for the simple future is will + [root form of verb].

I will learn a new language. Jyoti will read that book. My brothers will sleep till noon if no one wakes them up. You will see what I mean.

It doesn't matter if the subject is singular or plural; the formula for the simple future doesn't change.

But...

There is another way to show that something will happen in the future. It follows the formula [am/is/are] + going to + [root form verb].

I am going to learn a new language. Jyoti is going to read that book. My brothers are going to sleep till noon if no one wakes them up. You are going to see what I mean.

The "going to" construction is common in speech and casual writing. Keep in mind though that it's on the informal side, so it's a good idea to stick to the will + [root form] construction in formal writing.

How to Make the Simple Future Negative

To make the simple future negative, the formula is will + not + [root form].

Jyoti will not quit before she reaches her goal. Make sure you arrive on time tomorrow because the bus will not wait for you. He will not say anything bad about his boss. I will not finish my homework in time for class. Using the "going to" construction, the formula is [am/is/are] + not + going to + [root form]. Jyoti is not going to quit before she reaches her goal. Make sure you arrive on time tomorrow because the bus is not going to wait for you. He is not going to say anything bad about his boss. I am not going to finish my homework in time for class.

How to Ask a Question

To ask a question in the simple future, the formula is will + [subject] + [root form].

Will Rekha finish Ramayana over the summer? Will I have the discipline to study Spanish every day? What will you buy with the money you found?

The formula for the "going to" construction is [am/is/are] + [subject] +going to + [root form].

Is Rekha going to finish Ramayana over the summer? Am I going to have the discipline to study Spanish every day? What are you going to buy with the money you found?

Common Verbs in the Simple Past

Infinitive	Simple Future	Negative
to be	will be	will not be
to ask	will ask	will not ask
to work	will work	will not work
to call	will call	will not call
to use	will use	will not use
to have	will have	will not have

The "Going to" Construction

Infinitive	I	You, We, They	He, She, It
to be	am going to be am not going to be	are going to be are not going to be	is going to be is not going to be
to ask	am going to ask am not going to ask	are going to ask are not going to ask	is going to ask is not going to ask

Future Perfect

The future perfect is a verb tense used for actions that will be completed before some other point in the future. The parade will have ended by the time Chester gets out of bed. At eight o'clock I will have left.

Key words: Verb, past participle, tense, preposition

The future perfect tense is for talking about an action that will be completed between now and some point in the future. Imagine that your friend Linda asks you to take care

of her cat for a few days while she goes on a trip. She wants you to come over today at noon so she can show you where to find the cat food and how to mash it up in the bowl just right so that Fluffy will deign to eat it. But you're busy this afternoon, so you ask Linda if you can come at eight o'clock tonight instead. "No, that won't work! At eight o'clock I will have left already," she says.

What does the future perfect tell us here? It tells us that Linda is going to leave for her trip some time after right now, but before a certain point in the future (eight o'clock tonight). She probably shouldn't have waited until the last minute to find a cat sitter.

The Future Perfect Formula

The formula for the future perfect tense is pretty simple: will have + [past participle]. It doesn't matter if the subject of your sentence is singular or plural. The formula doesn't change.

When to Use the Future Perfect Tense

Sometimes, you can use the future perfect tense and the simple future tense interchangeably. In these two sentences, there is no real difference in meaning because the word before makes the sequence of events clear:

Hema will leave before you get there. Hema will have left before you get there.

But without prepositions such as before or by the time that make the sequence of events clear, you need to use the future perfect to show what happened first.

At eight o'clock Hema will leave. (This means that Hema will wait until 8 o'clock to leave.) At eight o'clock Hema will have left. (This means Hema will leave before 8 o'clock.)

When Not to Use the Future Perfect Tense

The future perfect tense is only for actions that will be complete before a specified point in the future. In other words, the action you're talking about must have a deadline. If you don't mention a deadline, use the simple future tense instead of the future perfect tense.

Hema will leave.

Hema will have left.

The deadline can be very specific (eight o'clock) or it can be vague (next week). It can even depend on when something else happens (after the parade ends). It just has to be some time in the future.

How to make the Future Perfect Negative

Making a negative future perfect construction is easy! Just insert not between will and have.

We will not have eaten breakfast before we get to the airport tomorrow morning. They will not have finished decorating the float before the parade.

You can also use the contraction won't in the place of will not. They won't have finished decorating the float before the parade.

How to Ask a Question

The formula for asking a question in the future perfect tense is will + [subject] + have + [past participle]:

Will you have eaten lunch already when we arrive? Will they have finished decorating the float before the parade?

Prepositional Phrases that Often Go With the Future Perfect

By this time next week, Hema will have left for her trip. Three days from now, we will have finished our project. At midnight, the party will have ended. Will you have eaten already? Chetan will not have arrived by the time the parade is over. When I travel to France, I will have been to ten countries. My sister will have cleaned the bathroom before the party. As soon as someone buys this chair, I will have sold all the furniture I wanted to get rid of.

Common Regular Verbs in the Future Perfect Tense

Infinitive	I	You, We, They	He, She, It
to be	am going to be am not going to be	are going to be are not going to be	is going to be is not going to be
to ask	am going to ask am not going to ask	are going to ask are not going to ask	is going to ask is not going to ask

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Common Irregular Verbs in the Future Perfect Tense

Infinitive	Future Perfect	Negative	Question
to be*	will have been	will not have been	will I have been...?
to have	will have had	will not have had	will you have had...?
to do	will have done	will not have done	will she have done...?
to say	will have said	will not have said	will we have said...?
to get	will have gotten**	will not have gotten	will they have gotten...?
to make	will have made	will not have made	will you have made...?
to go	will have gone	will not have gone	will he have gone...?
to take	will have taken	will not have taken	will you have taken...?
to see	will have seen	will not have seen	will I have seen...?
to come	will have come	will not have come	will it have come...?

Be careful when using the verb "to be" in the future perfect tense. The construction is easy to confuse with the future perfect continuous tense. The past participle of "to get" is gotten in American English. In British English, the past participle is got.

Future Continuous Tense

The future continuous tense, sometimes also referred to as the future progressive tense, is a verb tense that indicates that something will occur in the future and continue for an expected length of time. It is formed using the construction will + be + the present participle (the root verb + -ing). The simple future tense is a verb tense that is used when an action is expected to occur in the future and be completed. For example, let's suppose you have a meeting tomorrow at five o'clock.

I will arrive at five o'clock

I will arrive is the simple future tense of the verb to arrive. You arrive once; beyond that, you can't keep on arriving. However, once you get there, you may be doing something that goes on continuously, at least for a certain period of time. At five o'clock, I will be meeting with the management about my raise. Will be meeting is the future continuous tense of the verb to meet. The construction will + be + the present participle meeting indicates that the meeting isn't going to happen in an instant, all at once. It will have a duration. The will + be + present participle construction always indicates the future continuous tense.

Satish will be running a marathon this Saturday.

Eric will be competing against Satish in the race.

I will be watching Satish and Eric race.

The Future Continuous Tense Is for Action Verbs Only

It is important to note that the future continuous tense is only used with action verbs, because it is possible to do them for a duration. (Action verbs describe activities like running, thinking, and seeing. Stative verbs describe states of existence, like being, seeming, and knowing.) To use the will + be + present participle construction with a stative verb would sound very odd indeed.

I will be being stressed tomorrow during my science test.

I will be stressed tomorrow during my science test.

When the sun comes out tomorrow, winter will be seeming like a distant memory.

When the sun comes out tomorrow, winter will seem like a distant memory.

After I study, I will be knowing all the answers for the test.

After I study, I will know all the answers for the test.

As you can see, only the simple future tense is suited to stative verbs like to be and to seem.

FUTURE PERFECT CONTINUOUS TENSE

The future perfect continuous, also sometimes called the future perfect progressive, is a verb tense that describes actions that will continue up until a point in the future. The future perfect continuous consists of will + have + been + the verb's present participle (verb root + -ing).When we describe an action in the future perfect continuous tense, we are projecting ourselves forward in time and looking back at the duration of that activity. The activity will have begun sometime in the past, present, or in the future, and is expected to continue in the future.

In November, I will have been working at my company for three years.

At five o'clock, I will have been waiting for thirty minutes.

When I turn thirty, I will have been playing piano for twenty-one years.

Nonaction Verbs Do Not Use the Future Perfect Continuous

Remember that nonaction verbs like to be, to seem, or to know are not suited to the future perfect continuous tense. Instead, these verbs take the future perfect tense, which is formed with will + have + past participle.

On Thursday, I will have been knowing you for a week.

On Thursday, I will have known you for a week.

I will have been reading forty-five books by Diwali.

I will have read forty-five books by Diwali.

The Uses of the Tenses

Simple Present Tense

The Simple Present is used—

(1) To express a habitual action; for example,
He takes milk every morning.
I get up every day at five o'clock.
My watch keeps good time.

(2) To express general truths; for example,
The sun rises in the east,
Honey is sweet.
Fortune favaurs the brave.

(3) In exclamatory sentences beginning with here and there to express what is actually taking place in the present ; for example,
Here comes the bus I
There she goes!

(4) In vivid narrative, as subsitute for the Simple Past ; for example,
Muneesh now rushes forward and deals a heavy blow to Kareem.
Immediately the Sultan hurries to his capital.

(5) To indicate a future event that is part of a plan or arrange. ment ; for example,

We go to Goa next week.

They leave for UAE by the next mail.

We sail for London next Saturday.

When does the college reopen?

Note also the other uses of the Simple Present Tense.

(1) It is used to introduce quotations ; for example,

Keats says, 'A thing of beauty is a joy for ever.'

(2) It is used, insted of the Simple Future Tense, in clauses of time and of condition ; for example,

I shall wait till you finish your lunch.

If it rains we shall get wet.

(3) As in broadcast commentaries on sporting events, the Simple. Present is used, insted of the Present Continuous, to describe activities in progress where there is stress on the succession of happenings rather than on the duration.

(4) The Simple Present is used, instead of the Present Continuous, with the type of verbs referred to in 220 below, We must say, for example, 'I see an aeroplane', not ' I am seeing an aeroplane.'

Present Uses

1: We use the present simple when something is generally or always true.

People need food.

It snows in winter here.

Two and two make four.

2: Similarly, we need to use this tense for a situation that we think is more or less permanent. (See the present continuous for temporary situations.)

Where do you live?

She works in a bank.

I don't like mushrooms.

3: The next use is for habits or things that we do regularly. We often use adverbs of frequency (such as 'often', 'always' and 'sometimes') in this case, as well as expressions like 'every Sunday' or 'twice a month'. (See the present continuous for new, temporary or annoying habits).

Do you smoke?

I play tennis every Tuesday.

I don't travel very often.

4: We can also use the present simple for short actions that are happening now. The actions are so short that they are finished almost as soon as you've said the sentence. This is often used with sports commentary.

He takes the ball, he runs down the wing, and he scores!

Future Uses

5: We use the present simple to talk about the future when we are discussing a timetable or a fixed plan. Usually, the timetable is fixed by an organisation, not by us.

School begins at nine tomorrow.

What time does the film start?

The plane doesn't arrive at seven. It arrives at seven thirty.

6: We also use the present simple to talk about the future after words like ' 'when', 'until', 'after', 'before' and 'as soon as'. These are sometimes called subordinate clauses of time.

I will call you when I have time. (Not 'will have'.)

I won't go out until it stops raining.

I'm going to make dinner after I watch the news.

Conditional Uses

7: We use the present simple in the first and the zero conditionals. (See the conditionals section for more information.)

If it rains, we won't come.

If you heat water to 100 degrees, it boils.

Present Continuous Tense

The Present Continuous is used

(1) For an action going on at the time of speaking ; for example,

She is singing (now),

The boys are playing hockey.

(2) For a temporary action which may not be actually happening at the time of speaking ; for example,

I am reading 'David Copperfield' (but I am not reading at this moment).

(3) For an action that is planned or arranged to take place in the near future ; for example,

I am going, to the picture tonight.

My uncle is arriving tomorrow.

It has been pointed out before that the Simple Present is used for a habitual action. However, when the reference is to a particularly obstinate habit—something which persists, for example, in spite of advice or warning —we use the Present Continuous with an adverb like always, continually, constantly,

My dog is very silly ; he is always running running out into the road.

The following verbs, on account of their meaning, are not normally used in the continuous form :

(1) Verbs of perception, e.g., see, hear, smell, notice, recognize.

(2) Verbs of appearing, e. g., appear, look, seem.

(3) Verbs of emotion, e.g., want, wish, desire, feel, like, love, hate, hope, refuse, prefer.

(4) Verbs of thinking., e.g., think, suppose, believe, agree, consider, trust, remember, forget, know, understand, imagine, mean, mine.

(5) have (= possess), own, possess, belong to, contain, consist of, be (except when used in the passive.)

These verbs are used in the Simple Present. They may, however, be used in continuous tenses with a change of meaning ; for example,

I am thinking of (= considering the idea of) going to America.

Mr. Singh is minding (=looking after) the baby while his wife is out shopping.

Present Perfect Tense

The Present Perfect is used

(1) To indicate completaed activities in the immediate past ; for example,

He has just gone out.

It has just struck ten.

(2) To express past actions whose time is not given and not definite; for example,

Have you read 'Gulliver's Travels'?

I have never known him to be angry.

Mr. Hari has been to Japan.

(3) To describe past events when we think more of their effect in the present than of the action itself ; for example,

Gopi has eaten all the biscuits (i.e., there aren't any left for you).

I have cut my finger (and it is bleeding now).

I have finished my work (= now I am free).

(4) To denote an action beginning at some time in the past and continuing up to the present moment ; for example,

I have known him for a long time.

He has been ill since last week.

We have lived here for ten years.

We haven' t seeen Padma for several months.

The following adverbs (or adverb phrases) can be used with the Present Perfect : Just, often, never, ever (in questions only), so far, till now, yet (in negatives and question) already, since— phrases, for —phrases, today, this week, this month, etc.

Note that the Present is never used with adverbs of past time. We should not say, for example, 'He has gone to Calcutta yesterday'. In such cases the simple Past should be used ('He went to Calcutta yesterday')

The Present Continuous is used for an action which began at some time in the past and is still continuing ; for example,

He has been sleeping for five hours (and is still sleeping).

They have been building the bride for several months.

They have been playing since four o' clock.

This tense is sometimes used for an action already finished. In such cases the activity is emphasized as an explanation of something.

'Why are your clothes so wet?'—'I have been wateing the garden'

Simple Past Tense

The Simple Past is used to indicate an action completed in the past. It often occurs with adverbs or adverb phrases of past time.

The steamer sailed yesterday.

I received his letter a week ago.

She left scnool last year.

Sometimes this tense is used without an adverb of time. In such cases the time may be either implied of indicated by the context.

I learnt Hindi in Nagpur.

I didn't sleep well (i.e., last night).

Babar defeated Rana Sanga at Kanwaha,

The Simple Past is also used for past habits ; for example,

He studied many hours every day.

She always carried an umbrella.

Past Continuous Tense

The Past Continuous is used to denote an action going on at some time in the past. The time of the action may or may not be indicated.

We were listening to the radio all evening.

It was getting darker.

The light went out while I was reading.

When I saw him, he was playing chess.

This tense is also used, with always, continually etc., for persistent habits in the past.

He was always grumbling.

Past Perfect Tense

The Past Perfect describes an action completed before a certain moment in the past ; for example,

I met him in Bhopal in 1970. I had seen him last five years before.

If two actions happened in the past, it may be necessary to show which action happened earlier than the other. The Past Perfect is mainly used in such situations. The Simple Past is used in one clause and the Past Perfect in the other ; for example,

When I reached the station the train had started (so I couldn't get into the train).

I had done my exercise when Hari came to see me.

I had written the letter before he arrived.

Past Perfect Continuous Tense

The Past Perfect Continuous is used for an action that began before a certain point in the past and continued up to that time; for example,

At that time he had been writing a novel for two months.

When Mr. Mukkherji came to the school in 1965 Mr. Anand had aiready been teaching there for five years.

Simple Future Tense

The Simple Future is used for an action that has still to take place; for example,

I shall see him tomorrow.

Tommorrow will be Sunday.

Note that the Simple Future Tense generally expresses pure of colourless future. When the future is coloured with intention, the going to + infinitive construction is preferred, e.g., 'He is going to build a new house.'

Future Continuous Tense

The Future Continuous represents an action as going on at some time in future time ; for example,

I shall be reading the paper then.

When I get home, my children will be playing.

This tense is also used for future events that are planned ; for example,

I' ll be staying here till Sunday.

He will be meeting us next week.

Future Perfect Tense

The Future Perfect is used to indicate the completion of an action by a certain future time ; for example,

I shall have written my exercise by that time.

Before you go to see him, he will have left the place.

Future Perfect Continuous Tense

The Future Perfect Continuous indicates an action represented as being in progress over a period of time that will end in the future; for example,

By next July we shall have been, living here for four years.

When he gets his degree, he will have been studying at Oxford for four years.

Exercise

Chosse the correct verb form from those in brackets:

1. The earth.....round the sun. (move, moves, moved)
2. My friends.....the Prime Minister yesterday. (see, have seen, shall send)

3. I.....him only one letter up to now. (sent, have sent, shall send)
4. I shall telephone you when he.....back. (comes, will come, came)
5. It started to rain while we.....tennis. (are playing, were playing, had played)
6. Can I have some milk before I.....to bed? (go, am going, shall go)
7. He.....asleep while he was driving. (falls, fell, has fallen)
8. I'm sure I.....him at the party last night. (saw, have seen, had seen).
9. He.....a mill in this town. (have, has, is having)
10. He.....here for the last five years. (worked, is working, has been working).
11. He thanked me for what I.....(have done, had done, have been doing)
12. I.....a strange noise. (hear, am hearing, have been hearing)
13. I.....him for a long time. (know, have known, am knowing)
14. We.....English for five years. (study, am studying, have been studying)
15. Don't disturb me. I.....my homework. (do, did, am doing)
16. Abdul.....to be a doctor. (wants, wanting, is wanting)
17. I.....forty next birhday. (am, shall be, have been)
18. If you.....at once, you will arrive by six o'clock, (start, started will start)
19. He.....out five miniutes ago. (has gone, had gone, went)
20. When he lived in Hyderabad, he.....to the cinema once a week. (goes, went, was going)
21. The baby.....all morning. (cries, has been crying)
22. She.....in the concert tomorrow eveming. (is playing, has played, has been playing)
23. I.....Kumar this week. (haven't seem, did't see, am not seeing)
24. This paper.....twice weekly. (is appearing, appearing, appears)
25. By this time next year Prakash.....his University degree. (takes, will take, will have taken)

Exercise

Choose the correct alternative from those given in brackets :1.

1. The Headmaster.....to speak to you. (wants, is wanting, was wanting)
2. I.....a new bicycle last week. (bought, have bought, had bought)
3. Here are your shoes ; I.....them. (Just clean, just cleaned, have just cleaned, have just cleaned)
4. It.....since early morning. (rained, is raining, has been raining)
5. I.....a lot of work today. (did, have done, had done)
6. I.....something burning. (smell, am smelling, have been smelling)
7. He will explan it to you when he.....back. (comes, will come, came)
8. She.....unconscious since four o'clock. (is, was, has been)
9. He used to visit us every week, but he.....now. (rarely comes, is rarely coming, has rarely come)

10. If he.....of your marriage, he will be supprised, (hear, will hear, heard)
11. Every day last week my aunt.....a plate. (breaks, broke, was breaking)
12. I know all about that film because I.....it twice. (was, have seen, had seen)
13. My uncle.....tomorrow,. (arrives, will have been arriving)
14. I.....him since we met a year ago. (didn't see, haven't seen, hadn't seen)
15. We.....our breakfast half an hour ago. (finished, have finished, had finished)
16. She jumped off the bus while it.....(moved, had moved, was moving)
17. When we went to the cinema, the film.....(already started, had already started, would already start)
18. When I pay him tomorrow, he.....everything I owe him. (has received, has been receiving, will have received)
19. Did you think you.....me somewhere before? (have seen, had seen, were seeing)
20. The town.....its appearance completely since 1960. ()
21. When I get home my dog.....at the door waiting for me. (sits, will be siting, has been sitting)
22. We can't have a fire here until we.....the chimney. (sweep. shall sweep, shall be sweeping)
23. I meant to repair the radio, but.....time to do it today (am not having, haven't)
24. The train.....before we reach the station. (left, has left, will have left)
25. Men.....to abolish wars up to now, but maybe they will find a way in the future. (never managed, have managed, will have never managed)

Exercise

1. **When I went back to my hometown three years ago, I found that a lot of changes _____.**
   a. had taken place
   b. have taken place
   c. are taken place
   d. were taken place

2. **I ..... tennis every Sunday morning.**
   a. playing
   b. play
   c. am playing
   d. am play

3. **Don't make so much noise. Noriko ..... to study for her ESL test!**
   a. try
   b. tries
   c. tried
   d. is trying

4. **Jun-Sik ..... his teeth before breakfast every morning.**
   a. will cleaned
   b. is cleaning
   c. cleans
   d. clean

5. **Look ! A hamster _____ by a cat.**
   a. has been chased
   b. was being chased
   c. is being chased
   d. is chased

6. **I'm sorry the house is not available any longer. It _____ to a timber tycoon.**
   a. was being sold
   b. will be sold
   c. is sold
   d. has been sold

7. **Passengers _____ to smoke in the train.**
   a. was not allowed
   b. had not allowed
   c. will not allow
   d. are not allowed

8. **Sorry, she can't come to the phone. She ..... a bath!**
   a. is having
   b. having
   c. have
   d. has

9. **..... many times every winter in Frankfurt.**
   a. It snows
   b. It snowed
   c. It is snowing
   d. It is snow

10. **How many students in your class ..... from Korea?**
    a. comes
    b. come
    c. came
    d. are coming

11. **Weather report: "It's seven o'clock in Frankfurt and ..... ."**
    a. there is snow
    b. it`s snowing

c. it snows
d. it snowed

12. **Firemen who battled the fire reported that is _____ under control after forty minutes.**
a. can be brought
b. was brought
c. has been brought
d. is brought

13. **The students _____ to leave the building immediately.**
a. have been ordered
b. will order
c. ordered
d. have ordered

14. **In future, famous singers _____ to perform at charity concerts.**
a. has been invited
b. will be invited
c. were invited
d. are invited

15. **The roof may have been leaking for the past few weeks but you do not have to worry about it any longer. It _____ now.**
a. is being repaired
b. is repairing
c. was repaired
d. has repaired

16 **The price _____, but I doubt whether it will remain so.**
a. will go down
b. went down
c. was going down
d. has gone down

17. **Babies ..... when they are hungry.**
a. cry
b. cries
c. cried
d. are crying

18. **Jane: "What ..... in the evenings?"**
Mary: "Usually I watch TV or read a book."
a. you doing
b. you do

c. do you do
d. are you doing

19. **Jane: "What ..... ?"**
Mary: "I'm trying to fix my calculator."
a. you doing
b. you do
c. do you do
d. are you doing

20. **The members _____ for a new committee in the coming meeting.**
a. were voting
b. are voting
c. had voted
d. have noted

21. **They _____ ready for his moment for weeks.**
a. get
b. get getting
c. will get
d. have been getting

22. **_____ Pam and Bobby _____ the rules ?**
a. Were, knowing
b. Does, knows
c. Are, knowing
d. Do, know

23. **Shareen _____ her driving test on the first attempt.**
a. is passing
b. passed
c. was passing
d. has been passing

24. **The old lady _____ for a long time before she _____ away.**
a. had been suffering, passed
b. is suffering, passed
c. has suffered, was passing
d. was suffering, had passed

25. **Jane ..... her blue jeans today, but usually she wears a skirt or a dress.**
a. wears
b. wearing
c. wear
d. is wearing

26. I think I ..... a new calculator. This one does not work properly any more.

a. needs
b. needed
c. need
d. am needing

27. Sorry, you can't borrow my pencil. I am using it myself.

a. was using
b. using
c. use
d. am using

28. At a school dance:

Jane: " ..... yourself?"
Mary: "Yes, I'm having a great time!"

a. You enjoying
b. Enjoy you
c. Do you enjoy
d. Are you enjoying

29. I've just finished reading a story called Dangerous Game. It's about a man who ..... his wife because he doesn't want to lose her.

a. kills
b. killed
c. kill
d. is killing

30. I _____ an appointment with the dentist soon.

a. have made
b. will make
c. made
d. make

31. The people next door _____ a lot of noise until past midnight.

a. were making
b. was making
c. are making
d. have making

32. A journalist _____ to interview you later today.

a. had come
b. came
c. has been coming
d. will be coming

33. The clerk _____ the money from the bank by one o-clock.

a. has withdrawn
b. will have withdrawn
c. is withdrawing
d. had been withdrawing

34. Charles _____ his father in the shop until school _____.

a. is helping, starts
b. helped, was starting
c. was helping, will start
d. has helped, is starting

35. What time .....

a. the train leaves?
b. leaves the train?
c. is the train leaving?
d. does the train leave?

36. Jane: "Are you going to the dance on Friday?"

Mary: "No, I'm not. I ..... school dances; they're loud, hot and crowded!"

a. not enjoy
b. don`t enjoy
c. doesn`t enjoy
d. am not enjoying

37. I ..... for my pen. Have you seen it?

a. will look
b. looking
c. look
d. am looking

38. You can keep my iPod if you like. I don`t use it any more.

a. don`t use
b. doesn`t use
c. didn`t use
d. am not using

39. The phone is ringing. Can you answer it, please?

a. rings
b. ring
c. rang
d. is ringing

40. **Each country is responsible to keep _____ for peace in region.**
    a. work
    b. works
    c. worked
    d. working

41. **I'm sorry the house is not available any longer. It _____ to a timber tycoon.**
    a. was being sold
    b. will be sold
    c. is sold
    d. has been sold

42. **I _____ an appointment with the dentist soon.**
    a. have made
    b. will make
    c. made
    d. make

43. **One must consider about any matter before _____ it.**
    a. deciding
    b. decides
    c. decide
    d. decided

44. **She _____ for effective follow up of agenda.**
    a. called
    b. call
    c. will called
    d. be call

45. **Why _____ you break your promise?**
    a. did
    b. does
    c. done
    d. is

46. **Don't worry _____ late tonight.**
    a. when I am
    b. if I'll be
    c. if I am
    d. when I'll be

47. **We're good friends. We _____ each other for a long time.**
    a. have known
    b. have been knowing
    c. know
    d. knew

48. **John _____ tennis once or twice a week**
   a. plays usually
   b. is usually playing
   c. is playing usually
   d. usually plays

49. **It's two years _____ Joe.**
   a. since I saw
   b. that I don't see
   c. since I didn't see
   d. that I haven't seen

50. **_____ a car when they were living in London ?**
   a. Had they
   b. Have they had
   c. Were they having
   d. Did they have

51. **Charles _____ his father in the shop until school _____ .**
   a. is helping, starts
   b. helped, was starting
   c. was helping, will start
   d. has helped, is starting

52. **Do you know, I _____ asked by them to be honest?**
   a. am
   b. is
   c. were
   d. are

53. **My father _____ newspaper after getting up.**
   a. read
   b. is read
   c. am read
   d. reads

54. **The clerk _____ the money from the bank by one o-clock.**
   a. has withdrawn
   b. will have withdrawn
   c. is withdrawing
   d. had been withdrawing

55. **Ai Ling _____ to Manhattan is 1997.**
   a. has been transferred
   b. should be transferred

c. was transferred
d. is transferred

56. Which of these is used to express habitual actions?
a. Present perfect tense
b. Simple present tense
c. Past continuous tense
d. Present continuous tense

57. Choose the correct statement:
a. He sweared that he had not stolen the bag
b. He swore that he had not stolen the bag
c. He was swearing that he had not stolen the bag
d. He swears that he had not stolen the bag

58. The man sitting next to me on the plane was nervous because he _____ before.
a. didn't fly
b. hadn't flown
c. hasn't flown
d. wasn't flying

59. Allen _____ out when Barry arrived.
a. had gone
b. has gone
c. going
d. go

60. We telephoned Carol but she _____.
a. was leaving
b. has left
c. had left
d. have left

61. Doris was sad because she _____ the test.
a. is failed
b. had failed
c. was failed
d. has failed

62. Edward said that he _____ the book from Ramsey the day before.
a. were borrowed
b. was borrowed
c. have borrowed
d. had borrowed

63. **Correct the incorrect statement**
   a. I love it
   b. I was loving it
   c. I have been loving it
   d. I shall be loving it

64. **Look ! A hamster _____ by a cat.**
   a. has been chased
   b. was being chased
   c. is being chased
   d. is chased

65. **Wait for us at home until I _____ from office.**
   a. returned
   b. am return
   c. returns
   d. return

66. **Twelve terrorists _____ in air strike.**
   a. kill
   b. kills
   c. is killed
   d. killed

67. **A journalist _____ to interview you later today.**
   a. had come
   b. came
   c. has been coming
   d. will be coming

68. **Passengers _____ to smoke in the train.**
   a. was not allowed
   b. had not allowed
   c. will not allow
   d. are not allowed

69. **The people next door _____ a lot of noise until past midnight.**
   a. were making
   b. was making
   c. are making
   d. have making

70. **Jeffrey told me that he _____ the pen because he thought it was his.**
   a. has taken
   b. had taken

c. was taken
d. have taken

71. **The girls _____ their housework before they came.**
a. had done
b. are done
c. has done
d. is done

72. **We _____ the room when she arrived.**
a. had cleaned
b. are cleaned
c. have cleaned
d. is cleaned

73. **Mr. Gill _____ the boys before what would happen if he ever caught them smoking.**
a. was told
b. has told
c. had told
d. have told

74. **Mr. Harry _____ the doors before leaving the house.**
a. was locked
b. have locked
c. had locked
d. has locked

75. **They _____ asked to give opinion in their own words.**
a. may be
b. could be
c. might
d. have being

76. **There _____ lots of hidden feelings and emotions behind every faces.**
a. was
b. have being
c. are
d. were be

77. **Which tense does this statement belong to? We leave for Pune by the morning bus.**
a. Simple future tense
b. Simple past tense
c. Simple present tense
d. Future perfect tense

78. **Correct the incorrect statement: He said I owe him money.**
    a. He said I owed him money
    b. He said I had been owing him money
    c. He said I shall owe him money
    d. He said I am owing him money

79. **Mr Yew _____ Jessie good advice but Jessie did not take his advice.**
    a. has given
    b. had given
    c. are given
    d. have given

80. **Fill in the blank: He said that he _____ tomorrow.**
    a. will come
    b. would come
    c. will be coming
    d. has been coming

81. **When I went back to my hometown three years ago, I found that a lot of changes _____.**
    a. had taken place
    b. have taken place
    c. are taken place
    d. were taken place

82. **Jay _____ only three letters home this year. He should write more often.**
    a. are written
    b. have written
    c. has written
    d. was writte

83. **When Mrs. Black reached the shop, Mr. Kevin _____ already _____.**
    a. was ... left
    b. has ... left
    c. have ... left
    d. had ... left

84. **"I _____ to Mrs Sze about your matter. She wants you to see her as soon as possible," Mr. Goh said.**
    a. have spoken
    b. has spoken
    c. had spoken
    d. are spoken

85. When Mariah reached home, Mike _____ dinner.

a. have cooked
b. has cooked
c. had cooked
d. is cooked

86. I _____ along the road for a kilometer when I realized that I was on the wrong road.

a. have driven
b. am driven
c. has driven
d. had driven

87. We _____ watching television when the phone rang.

a. were
b. had
c. has
d. have

88. Which of these tenses does the statement belong to? A letter is being written by me.

a. Present perfect tense (active)
b. Present continuous tense (active)
c. Present continuous tense (passive)
d. Present perfect tense (passive)

89. Fill in the blank with past perfect tense: I met Ruchi in Nagpur yesterday. I _____ her a week before.

a. saw
b. had seen
c. was seeing
d. had been seeing

90. To which of the tenses does the statement belong? I shall be meeting Neha in the market.

a. Future perfect tense
b. Future continuous tense
c. Future perfect continuous tense
d. Simple future tense

91. "I _____ you before that you have to wash the rice before you can cook it !" shouted Mrs Thambi.

a. had told
b. have told

c. am told
d. has told

92. Shaun _____ me that the road could be dangerous. So, I drove carefully.

a. was informed
b. had informed
c. have informed
d. are informed

93. He was only joking, as he _____ many times before.

a. is doing
b. are done
c. has doing
d. had done

Answer

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
A	B	D	C	C	D	D	A	A	B
11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
B	B	A	B	A	D	A	C	D	B
21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
D	D	B	A	D	C	D	D	A	B
31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
B	D	B	A	D	B	D	A	D	D
41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50
D	B	A	A	A	C	A	D	A	D
51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60
A	A	D	B	C	B	B	B	A	C
61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70
B	D	A	C	D	D	D	D	A	B
71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80
A	A	C	C	A	C	C	A	B	B
81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90
A	C	D	A	C	D	A	C	B	B
91	92	93							
B	B	D							

Vocabulary

6

A vocabulary is any body of words someone knows and uses to express themselves in a language. Learning vocabulary is an important part of English language arts or second language classes. Regardless of the type of class you are teaching, it is important that your students learn and practice new vocabulary as often as possible. Vocabulary means "the stock of words used in a language." To have mastery over English language, the vocabulary of the learners should be very rich. In this regard, Frisby has pointed out, "It is obvious that if we do not have words of a language, we can not speak language. On other hand, learning a language does not mean merely learning the words and substituting those words for the corresponding words in our own language". English language has vast vocabulary. So it is impossible for us to learn all the words of this language. For so we have to depend upon a list of selected words that we need in speech, reading and writing. Most of the scholars have the opinion that during the school period, child should have developed a vocabulary of about 2500 to 3000 words. The English Review Committee appointed by UGC reported in 1965, "a selected vocabulary of 2500 to 3000 words should be the main aim during the school period." Therefore, it is important for an elementary teacher to give ample practice of vocabulary at elementary stage. He should devote sometime regularly to enrich the vocabulary of the students.

WHY TEACH VOCABULARY?

There are many aspects to learning a foreign or secondary language, but perhaps one of the most important is that of learning vocabulary – a language area which, in my opinion, is not always given the attention it deserves. I will be introducing you to online resources and tools that are aimed at English Language learners however most if not all of the tips and techniques discussed can be used to learn any language be it Spanish, Mandarin, French or any other foreign language. For more Language Methodology Tips join us on one of our teacher training courses.

By the time a English language native speaker is 5 years old, they have amassed a word bank of about 5,000 words and they will be building that word bank daily. A non-English speaker might be fluent in 5,000 words in their native language but they now have the challenge of learning a new language, in this case English and they need

to close that vocabulary gap. Some might question why we would attempt to teach new English words when perhaps our students aren't always fluent and accurate with the vocabulary they already know. Well, the answer is simple – Vocabulary is their Communication Tool Box.

TYPES OF VOCABULARY

Vocabulary can be divided into two categories :

1. Active vocabulary
2. Passive vocabulary

1. Active vocabulary: The vocabulary which the child uses actively in his speech and writing is called active vocabulary. This vocabulary is also known as the working vocabulary. The child uses the words again and again actively. Such words are known as his active vocabulary.

2. Passive vocabulary: There are some words which a child knows but he does not use such words in his speech and writing. These words remain in his unconscious mind. When he sees these words, he can recognize them. Such words are called to be his passive vocabulary. This vocabulary in also known the recognition vocabulary.

kinds of words

All words can be divided into two main categories :

1. Function words
2. Content words.

1. Function words

Function words are those words which have no meaning of their own. They are used in the sentence structures. Therefore, they are called structural words. Function words are of the following types.

1.	Auxiliaries or helping verbs :	Is, am, are, was, were, has, have, had, do, does, did, can, could, will, would, shall, should, may, might, must etc.
2.	Personal Pronouns :	I, we, you, they, be, she, it, they etc.
3.	Relative Pronouns :	Who, which, that, whom etc.
4.	Interrogative pronouns :	What, when, why etc.
5.	Demonstratives :	This, that, these, those etc.
6.	Prepositions :	In, at, for, of, to, among, from, upon, up, by etc.
7.	Articles :	An, an, the,
8.	Conjunctions :	And, but, yet, but, because, so, either, neither, or, nor.

9.	Negatives :	No, none, nothing etc.
10.	Degree words :	Much, more, most etc.
11.	Structural adverbs :	Always, daily, again, etc.

2. Content words

Content words are the chief items of vocabulary of a language. These words stand for things, actions and qualities. These words also have the meaning of their own. Content words are of the following types :

1.	Nouns :	Book, pen, pencil etc.
2.	Verbs :	Walk, play, read, laugh, sleep etc.
3.	Adjectives :	Good, bad, red, honest, beautiful etc.

PRINCIPLES FOR SELECTION OF VOCABULARY

For the selection of vocabulary, following principles are kept in mind:

1. **Principle of simplicity :** At elementary stage, simple words should be taught first and difficult later. The simplicity of words depends on their form and meaning.
2. **Principle of usefulness :** Out of numberless words, only those words should be selected first that are useful for the students. These words should be suitable for the mental level of the students.
3. **Principle of frequency :** While selecting words, the preference should be given to those words which occur frequently in the reading material of the students. The students find these words frequently occuring in their text books. Once they are familiar with these words, it becomes easy for them when they come across the words in their books.
4. **Principle of structural value :** The words which have more structural value should be given preference for selection.
5. **Principle of productivity:** While selecting words, their productivity should be taken into consideration. By productivity of words, we mean that many other words can be produced out of them by prefixes or suffixes. Such words should be selected by the teacher to enhance the learning speed of the students.
6. **Principle of applicability :** At elementary stage, those words should be selected which can be used in different situations.

PRINCIPLES FOR GRADATION OF VOCABULARY

Gradation of vocabulary mean putting the selected vocabulary in suitable order. The purpose of grading the vocabulary is to put the easier and more useful vocabulary before the difficult and less useful vocabulary. By gradation, the words are put in suitable order and then they are presented to the students one by one. Following points are kept in mind while grading structures :

1. **Simplicity :** Simple words should be taken up at first stage of learning. Difficult words should be taken later.
2. **Usefulness :** Vocabulary should be graded according to usefulness at various stages of course. More useful words should be taken up first.
3. **Teachability :** Those words should be taught first which are easy to teach in classroom situations.

Methods of Teaching Vocabulary

A number of methods can be used for teaching new words to the students at initial stage of learning. Some important methods of teaching vocabulary have been given below :

1. **By showing real objects :** vocabulary can be taught by showing real objects. At elementary stage, the teacher should show the real objects to the students in the classroom. The words table, book, pen, chair, pencil, door, window, flower, tree etc can be taught to the students by showing these objects in real situation. This method is very useful for elementary classes because it brings variety and life to the classroom situation.
2. **By performing actions :** Some new words can be taught to the students by performing actions. Walking, writing, laughing, jumping etc. are such words which can be taught properly by performing actions. The teacher should teach 'walk' by actually walking in the classroom. He should act to 'sleep' while teaching the word sleep'. In the same way, the teacher can teach many words to the students by performing actions.
3. **By showing models :** Sometimes new words can be taught to the students by showing models of actual objects. Their models can be shown to the students. For example, if the teacher wants to teach the words camel, cow, cat, dog, elephant etc. to the students, it is very impossible to bring these objects to the classroom. Their models can be shown to the students. In this way, those words can be taught.
4. **By using charts and pictures :** Some words can be taught to the students by showing charts and pictures of the objects. A large number of charts and pictures are available in the market. The pictures of parts of body, fruits, vegetables, animals, birds, furniture, household articles etc. can be shown in the class to teach the words related to these objects.
5. **By using blackboard :** Blackboard is an important teaching aid for teaching vocabulary. If the teacher is expert in drawing pictures, he can draw the pictures of objects on blackboard. The teacher should write the words and make them associate the words with picture. In this way, some words can be taught to the students with the help of blackboard.
6. **By creating verbal situations :** There are so many words which cannot be taught with the help of teaching aids. To teach such words, verbal situation should be created in the class. If the teacher wants to teach the word 'honest',

he should tell the story of an honest person named Ramesh. Them the teacher will say that Ramesh is an honest person.

7. **By using mother tongue :** When other devices fail, the teacher can teach the vocabulary by using mother tongue. The teacher should tell the meaning of words in mother tongue. So the elementary teacher can use the mother tongue to explain the meanings of such words.
8. **By association :** New words can be taught by associating them with old words. It may be done by asking antonyms, synonyms, past tense, gender etc. For example, if the teacher want to teach the word 'bad', he should ask, "What is the opposite of 'good'?"

Some Important Points About Presenting Vocabulary

The teacher should keep in mind the following points while presenting vocabulary :

(i) The vocabulary should be presented with the help of new structures.

(ii) Only one meaning of a word should be presented at a time.

(iii) One or more than one device should be used in order to communicate meanings.

(iv) There should be repetition and application after presentation.

Practice of Vocabulary

After teaching vocabulary, emphasis should be laid on practice. So the following points should be kept in mind :

(i) The students should prepare their notebooks. They should note down the new words in their notebooks.

(ii) The vocabulary should be learnt with the help of structure.

(iii) The students should proceed from meaningful sentences.

SPELLING

A major problem for the students is very poor spelling. This clearly matters as spelling mistakes disadvantage them in the reading, writing and listening parts of the exam. Two big reasons contribute to English spelling being so complicated, both for second language learners as well as native speakers. The first is that English has borrowed words from so many languages, and as it did it often borrowed the spelling of those words as well. Think about words like hours d'oeuvres and tsunami. They are both English words, but neither follows the patterns we are accustomed to for most English words. The second thing that makes spelling in English tough is that spelling has remained static. Pronunciation of words has changed over the years, but often the spelling of the same words has remained the same. So often English words have spelling patterns which correlate with an extinct pronunciation of those words. These and other factors contribute to make English spelling, well, a challenge. But just because it is a challenge doesn't mean your ESL students have to feel defeated. Here are some tricks for both you and your students to help them conquer the giant of English spelling and become successful writers of English.

Perhaps the best-known way to teach spelling is through weekly spelling tests, but tests should never be considered a complete spelling program. To become good spellers, students need to learn about the English orthographic system and move through the stages of spelling development. They develop strategies to use in spelling unknown words and gain experience in using dictionaries and other resources.

A complete spelling program includes the following components:

Teaching spelling strategies

Matching instruction to students' stage of spelling development

Providing daily reading and writing opportunities

Teaching students to learn to spell high-frequency words

Students learn spelling strategies that they can use to figure out the spelling of unfamiliar words. As students move through the stages of spelling development, they become increasingly more sophisticated in their use of phonological, semantic, and historical knowledge to spell words; that is, they become more strategic. Important spelling strategies include the following:

Segmenting the word and spelling each sound, often called sound it out

Spelling unknown words by analogy to familiar words

Applying affixes to root words

Proofreading to locate spelling errors in a rough draft

Locating the spelling of unfamiliar words in a dictionary

Teachers often give the traditional sound it out advice when young children ask how to spell an unfamiliar word, but teachers provide more useful information when they suggest that students use a strategic think it out approach. This advice reminds students that spelling involves more than phonological information and encourages them to think about spelling patterns, root words and affixes, and what the word looks like.

Two of the most important ways that students learn to spell are through daily reading and writing activities. Students who are good readers tend to be good spellers, too: As they read, students visualize words—the shape of the word and the configuration of letters within it—and they use this knowledge to spell many words correctly and to recognize when a word they've written doesn't look right. Through writing, of course, students gain valuable practice using the strategies they have learned to spell words. And, as teachers work with students to proofread and edit their writing, they learn more about spelling and other writing conventions. In addition to reading and writing activities, students learn about the English orthographic system through minilessons about phonics, high-frequency words, spelling rules, and spelling strategies.

Word Walls

Teachers use two types of word walls in their classrooms. One word wall features "important" words from books students are reading or thematic units. Words may be written on a large sheet of paper hanging in the classroom or on word cards and placed in a large pocket chart. Then students refer to these word walls when they're

writing. Seeing the words posted on word walls and other charts in the classroom and using them in their writing help students learn to spell the words.

The second type of word wall displays high-frequency words. Researchers have identified the most commonly used words and recommend that students learn to spell 100 of these words because of their usefulness. The most frequently used words represent more than 50% of all the words children and adults write!

Making Words

Teachers choose a five- to eight-letter word (or longer words for older students) and prepare sets of letter cards for a making words activity (Cunningham & Cunningham, 1992). Then students use the cards to practice spelling words and to review spelling patterns and rules. They arrange and rearrange the cards to spell one-letter words, two-letter words, three-letter words, and so forth, until they use all the letters to spell the original word. Second graders, for example, can create these words using the letters in weather: a, at, we, he, the, are, art, ear, eat, hat, her, hear, here, hate, heart, wheat, there, and where.

Word Sorts

Students use word sorts to explore, compare, and contrast word features as they sort a pack of word cards. Teachers prepare word cards for students to sort into two or more categories according to their spelling patterns or other criteria (Bear et al., 2008). Sometimes teachers tell students what categories to use, which makes the sort a closed sort; when students determine the categories themselves, the sort is an open sort. Students can sort word cards and then return them to an envelope for future use, or they can glue the cards onto a sheet of paper.

Interactive Writing

Teachers use interactive writing to teach spelling concepts as well as other concepts about written language. Because correct spelling and legible handwriting are courtesies for readers, they emphasize correct spelling as students take turns to collaboratively write a message. It is likely that students will misspell a few words as they write, so teachers take advantage of these "teachable moments" to clarify students' misunderstandings. Through interactive writing, students learn to use a variety of resources to correct misspelled words, including classroom word walls, books, classmates, and the dictionary.

Proofreading

Proofreading is a special kind of reading that students use to locate misspelled words and other mechanical errors in rough drafts. As students learn about the writing process, they are introduced to proofreading in the editing stage. More in-depth instruction about how to use proofreading to locate spelling errors and then correct these misspelled words is part of spelling instruction . Through a series of minilessons, students can learn to proofread sample student papers and mark misspelled words. Then, working in pairs, students can correct the misspelled words.

Proofreading should be introduced in the primary grades. Young children and their teachers proofread collaborative books and dictated stories together, and students can be encouraged to read over their own compositions and make necessary corrections soon after they begin writing. This way, students accept proofreading as a natural part of writing. Proofreading activities are more valuable for teaching spelling than are dictation activities, in which teachers dictate sentences for students to write and correctly capitalize and punctuate. Few people use dictation in their daily lives, but we use proofreading skills every time we polish a piece of writing.

Dictionary Use

Students need to learn to locate the spelling of unfamiliar words in the dictionary. Although it is relatively easy to find a "known" word in the dictionary, it is hard to locate unfamiliar words, and students need to learn what to do when they don't know how to spell a word. One approach is to predict possible spellings for unknown words, then check the most probable spellings in a dictionary.

Students should be encouraged to check the spelling of words in a dictionary as well as to use a dictionary to check multiple meanings or etymology. Too often, students view consulting a dictionary as punishment; teachers must work to change this view. One way to do this is to appoint several students as dictionary checkers: These students keep dictionaries on their desks, and they're consulted whenever questions about spelling, a word's meaning, or word usage arise.

Spelling Options

In English, alternate spellings occur for many sounds because so many words borrowed from other languages retain their native spellings. There are many more options for vowel sounds than for consonants. Spelling options sometimes vary according to the letter's position in the word. For example, ff is found in the middle and at the end of words but not at the beginning (e.g., muffin, cuff), and gh represents /f/ only at the end of a syllable or word (e.g., cough, laughter).

Teachers point out spelling options as they write words on word walls and when students ask about the spelling of a word. They also can teach upper-grade students about these options in a series of minilessons. During each lesson, students can focus on one phoneme, such as /k/, and as a class or small group they can develop a list of the various ways the sound is spelled, giving examples of each spelling.

Spelling Teaching Skills

It is important that any literacy intervention undertaken focuses on the development of both reading and spelling skills.

Phonological Awareness

Spelling words should be introduced by listening to the word (e.g., parent or teacher reads spelling words aloud) before the student even sees the word. This will encourage the student to focus on the sounds in words which can then be mapped to their letters and letter patterns rather than emphasising only the visual features of the word.

When introducing new spelling words, students should be encouraged to identify key aspects of the word's phonological structure before they are shown the word (e.g., How many syllables? What is the first sound? What is the last sound? etc.)

Phonics Knowledge

Children need to understand that speech sounds (phonemes) are represented by one or more letters(graphemes), and that when we spell we choose the most likely representation (e.g., the /k/ sound is commonly spelt with a 'c' as in cat, or a 'k' as in kick). A good way to do this is through Phoneme-Grapheme Mapping, in which a grid is used to map sounds to their corresponding letter/s (see Phoneme-Grapheme Mapping tip sheet for more details on this approach). In order to develop children's phonics knowledge, a structured and systematic program focusing on synthetic phonics is highly recommended. Some examples of highly structured, evidence-based programs include Sounds~Write, Letters and Sounds, and Jolly Phonics. Any program will be most effective when it is undertaken on a regular basis (4-5 days per week) for a limited time (15 -30 minutes). A trained specialist teacher or tutor is the best person to deliver remediation. DSF has a register of trained and recommended tutors. On-line tutoring over the internet is also available for children.

USEFUL RESOURCES TO SUPPORT PHONICS DEVELOPMENT

The DSF Tune into the Sounds of English Pack features colourful information cards detailing the sounds of English and the way we write them down (spelling patterns), in addition to a Phoneme-Grapheme Mapping pad for practicing spelling and a comprehensive and user-friendly Guide to Spelling Rules. The DSF Phonics Activity Pack is an ideal resource for phonics-based intervention at any level. It includes a small magnetic whiteboard with a full set of 78 magnetic alphabet letters, digraphs, trigraphs, and vowel teams. Use the letter tiles to assist with a phonemic approach to spelling and to encourage the blending of sounds and segmenting of words. It also encourages reluctant writers to have a go at spelling.

Computer-based programs are useful and motivating resources for children to reinforce and consolidate their learning. Both Wordshark and the Nessy Learning Program are effective highly-structured, games based computer programs aimed at improving reading and spelling skills.

Spelling Conventions and Patterns

Children need to develop their knowledge of orthographic rules including acceptable letter combinations, letter sequences and the use of certain letters. Spelling conventions provide us with guidelines about the use of letter combinations and sequences and when to use them. For example, the letter 'c' usually represents the /k/ sound when followed by an 'a', 'o' and 'u' as in cat, cot, cut, and it usually represents the /s/ sound when followed by 'e', 'i', and 'y' as in centre, city, cycle. Encourage children to become "word detectives" and look for consistencies in English spelling rules.

Metacognitive and Memory Skills

Children may benefit from using memory 'tricks' and strategies to remember irregular words and complex patterns. These include:

Over-articulation of words to inform spelling choices (e.g., Wed-nes-day, iSland)

Knowledge of word families, including letter patterns in common (e.g., 'wh' question words: when/ who/what/which; words with links in meaning: two/twin/ twice; common orthographic patterns: light/night/sight)

Occasional use of mnemonics (e.g., "Bears Eat Apples Under Trees" for beautiful)

Does it look right? (e.g., friend/frend, teech/teach)

Oz Mnemonics by Alison Rowe is a useful book containing rhymes and ways to remember the spelling of difficult or irregular words.

Morphology and Syntax (Grammar)

Explicit instruction in morphology and syntax teaches children to identify and analyse units of meaning within words (i.e., roots, prefixes and suffixes), and consider their spelling within the context of a sentence.

Knowledge of a word's grammatical function informs spelling choices when typical sounding-out strategies are unsuccessful (meaning trumps pronunciation e.g., musician, not musishan). This includes:

Expanding knowledge of grammatical function within a sentence (e.g., although we say a /t/ at the end of regular past tense verbs as in 'kicked', we always write 'ed' to show the tense).

Expanding knowledge about typical changes at the end of words to indicate grammatical changes (e.g., we always use 's' to signal plural, although it can sound like /z/ as in 'dogs').

Developing knowledge of suffixes to recognise parts of speech (e/g/. –ly = adverbs, -ive = adjectives, -ment & –ion = nouns).

A useful resource to assist in the development of children's knowledge of morphemes are the DSF Magnetic Morpheme Cards. Each magnetic card contains a morpheme – an element of speech which carries meaning. For younger students, these cards can be used in word building activities focusing on basic word endings e.g., -ed, -s.

Semantic Knowledge and Etymology

For older children, developing their knowledge of word origins and meaning is a key component to developing their spelling skills and inform their spelling choices. For example:

Consideration of word meaning will aid in the spelling of homophones (e.g., where/ wear).

Consideration given to the origin of the word will assist in determining the most likely spelling (e.g., /s/ = 'ps' in Greek-derived words like 'psychologist').

Understanding that many long words have a base component which carries meaning, influences the spelling, and remains constant despite the sounds we hear (e.g., definite, finish, infinity).

Teaching Methods for Spelling

Every child develops differently when learning to read and spell. The following teaching methods use the Test-Study-Test Method to help a child learn how to spell words correctly.

Spelling Tests

The Test-Study-Test Method administers 2 spelling tests to identify the words a child misspells and a word study session to remedy any spelling errors.

Take a Spelling Test

On Monday, perform a spelling test. For example, you may administer a test of 10 words for a first grader. If your child is in fourth grade, double the number of words and give a spelling test using 20 words.

Child Corrects Spelling Test

Let your child or student correct their own paper. If a word is misspelled, write the word again using the correct spelling. It is important to make sure they identify the words that are misspelled and rewrite them using the correct spelling. Many children can self-correct their work so offer assistance when needed but let them correct their work. If your child requires supervision, help guide them through this exercise.

Careful Study the Misspelled Words

Your child should study the words she did not spell correctly. Writing the word several times from memory helps a child learn to correctly spell it. When you write something down, you print it on the brain. See below for additional information on word study techniques.

Take Another Spelling Test

On Wednesday, administer another spelling test. If your child spells all the words correct, he does not need to take the test again on Friday. Since he has mastered these words, he should read or write a story in lieu of taking a spelling test. Use your professional judgment to determine the cutoff as to whether or not a child needs to take another test, e.g. 90% or 1-2 errors. The goal is to learn how to spell these words correctly not to torture a child with spelling tests. If your child needs to take another test, carefully study the misspelled words again. Look at each word and help your child identify spelling patterns, syllabication, suffixes or irregularities to help them spell it correctly the next time.

Final Spelling Test

On Friday, if applicable give another spelling test to your child if she misspelled words on the Wednesday test. Let your child chart their final scores.

Word Study

The following 5-step word study can help a child learn how to spell a word correctly.

Look at the word.

Say the word out loud.

Spell the word. Say each letter out loud or to yourself.

Write the word several times. Using your memory, write the word.

Check the spelling of your words written from memory.

If you misspell a word, repeat the process and begin with step 1. The above teaching tips and word study are great tools to assist a child when learning how to spell new words.

Approaches to Teaching Spelling

There are several approaches to learning spelling. Some students may find that one of these approaches works well for them and find another approach difficult. It is important to encourage students to try all spelling approaches.

Auditory approach

Phonics is one of the most important teaching methods used to improve spelling. A phonic approach includes a number of key skills. These are -knowing the sounds of letters, breaking up words into syllables and recognising patterns. Students should:

Build up a good knowledge of the sounds made by each letter, blends (for example bl at the start of black and blue, and str in street and string), and digraphs (words with ch, sh, ph, th and wh).

Sound out and spell the beginning of the word – this will make it easier to locate the word in the dictionary.

Break words into syllables and sound each syllable out one at a time. This is an essential skill in learning to become a more competent speller.

Become aware of common prefixes and suffixes for example un, dis-, con-, --ing, -ed, -tion, - ly.

Recognise patterns – words that sounds the same will usually be spelt in the same way, for example night, right, bright, fight, flight,.

Other auditory approaches

Silent letters can often cause a problem, but pronouncing the word as it is spelt can overcome this, for example Wed-nes-day, Feb- ru-ary, knife. Sometimes silent letters can be remembered by associating it with another form of the word where the letter can be heard distinctly, for example muscle – muscular, sign – signature.

Music or chanting can be used as an auditory memory support for a word that a student finds particularly difficult for example, right – "there's an r", there's an "i", there's a "g, h, t".

Visual approach

The students should keep their own personal spelling dictionary or notebook.

Highlighting the difficult part of a word will help the student to remember the word . As the student checks through their spelling notebook, their attention will be drawn to the word, or to the part of a word that caused difficulty.

Looking for smaller words within words can help with the difficult part of a word: for example hearing, police, secretary, arranged, piece of pie, strawberry. Look-cover-write-check– This is a well know strategy for learning to spell that involves looking at the word, covering it, writing it and then checking to see if the word is correct.

Ask your student to try several possible ways of spelling a word to see if one 'looks right'.

Encourage the students to actively notice words when they are out and about such as street names or the names of shops and businesses. This will help in developing their overall visual memory. Even watching TV can be a good opportunity to notice words on the screen, for example weather maps, news items, advertisements and sub-titles.

Kinasthetic approach

With a weak student, show them how to trace letters of a new word and then practise writing it out.

Use Close exercises for single letters, like the word street, for example: S T _ E E T, S T R E _ T, S _ R E E T

If a spelling is wrong, make sure the student rewrites the whole word and does not just correct over a misspelling. Most importantly, ask the student to use the word in his/her writing.

Mnemonics

A mnemonic is a memory aid. One example of a mnemonic is Richard of York Gave Battle In Vain, to help learners remember the sequence and colours of the rainbow, which are red, yellow, green, blue, indigo and violet. It can be also used as a strategy to remember how to spell a word. For example, a mnemonic to remember how to spell the word necessary is '1 collar and 2 socks', one 's' and two 'c's', as it is a common mistake to forget which letters are doubled. Other mnemonics can be created in the form of nonsense stories. These can help trigger the memory for a learner trying to remember a difficult word. For example, if a student found the middle part of the words hospital difficult, tell a story about someone falling into a pit and being brought to hospital. Another example would be the word accommodation – Telling a story about going on holidays with twin babies who need two cots (cc) and two mattresses (mm), or finally, to create a story about Tom who works in customer service. All of these may help the learner to remember some difficult words. It is a good idea to encourage students to create their own nonsense stories around some difficult words.

Origins

Discussing the origin of words can often help students remember the spelling of difficult words. For example, from the Greek word 'ped', meaning 'foot', comes peddle, pedicure and pedestrian.

Spelling Activity

Activity one

Encourage your learners to look for patterns in spelling. One approach is to use word lists, where words with similar spelling patterns are listed. An example might be the ending –ight and the list would then contain examples such as sight, right, might, fight, flight and so on. Lists like these can be displayed in poster form and added to whenever a new example comes up, or students can also be asked to use their dictionaries to find new examples. They could also be part of their vocabulary workbooks. The simple repetition of the patterns should eventually bring about an improvement.

Activity two

Relate spelling to particular sounds. Brainstorm the different spellings of a particular phoneme, for example, words containing the sound /i:/. This might produce examples such as tree, please, receive, experience and so on. This could also be extended to endings, for example words ending in the phonemes /-eit/. This would produce examples such as eight, plate, fate, weight, state, freight etc.

Activity three

Focus on prefixes and suffixes. Looking at the writing of Arabic learners, I have seen the word management, for example, spelt in a number of different ways, but the ending, in particular, has appeared variously as –mant, -mint and –mnt. Again, brainstorming or making a list of words ending in a particular suffix might help to fix the pattern. Examples here would be parliament, encouragement, statement and improvement.

Activity four

Look at short and long sounds or diphthongs and in particular the difference that the letter 'e' can make to pronunciation. Contrast the sounds in pairs such as:

hat — hate

cap — cape

pin — pine

The relationship between long and short vowels and the doubling of letters might also be worth some attention, e.g.

filled — filed

tapped — taped

Activity five

Reading texts can be used in several ways to assist with spelling. For example, students can be asked to find groups of words, such as all the words in the text ending in –ition or –ation. You can ask them to underline examples of words containing a particular sound (for example /a:/). This might produce, for example, different spellings such as arm, father, calm and past. You can ask them to underline examples of double letters. A text I have in front of me as I write this contains such diverse examples as additional, successful, attract, sightseeing, accommodation and support.

Activity six

All kinds of spelling games will also help, even such obvious ones as hangman. Dictation will also be of use.

Activity seven

It may also help if you get into the habit of writing up new words complete with their phonemic transcription and encourage your learners to record new words in their notebooks as a matter of course.

Activity eight

In general, devote regular time to spelling and draw attention to features of spelling such as double letters, silent letters (the 'k' in know, for example) and unusual spellings (the different pronunciations of –ough, for example). When correcting written work, note any spelling mistakes with a sign in the margin and get the students to self-correct using a dictionary.

PRONUNCIATION

Teaching of English pronunciation is probably the most ignored aspect of English language learning. Where on one hand, teaching reading, writing, speaking and listening are given their due importance in English language teaching, on the other hand pronunciation is not. It is in fact, a much ignored language skill to be consciously taught. The learners are not given the basic knowledge of articulatory phonetics and their pronunciation is 'improved' by just bringing their 'errors' to their notice.

Pronunciation involves far more than individual sounds. Word stress, sentence stress, intonation, and word linking all influence the sound of spoken English, not to mention the way we often slur words and phrases together in casual speech. 'What are you going to do?' becomes 'Whaddaya gonna do?' English pronunciation involves too many complexities for learners to strive for a complete elimination of accent, but improving pronunciation will boost self esteem, facilitate communication, and possibly lead to a better job or a least more respect in the workplace. Effective communication is of greatest importance, so choose first to work on problems that significantly hinder communication and let the rest go. Remember that your students also need to learn

strategies for dealing with misunderstandings, since native pronunciation is for most an unrealistic goal.

Cook (1996) defined pronunciation as the production of English sounds. Pronunciation is learnt by repeating sounds and correcting them when produced inaccurately. When learners start learning pronunciation they make new habits and overcome the difficulties resulting from the first language. According to Yates (2002, 2016), pronunciation is the production of sounds that is used for making meaning. Pronunciation is the production of a sound system which doesn't interfere with communication either from the speakers' or the listeners' viewpoint (Paulston & Burder, 1976). Pronunciation is the way of uttering a word in an accepted manner (Otlowski, 1998). Furthermore, Richard and Schmidt (2002) defined pronunciation as the method of producing certain sounds. ""The Significance of Pronunciation in English Language Teaching (PDF Download Available).

A student's first language often interferes with English pronunciation. For example, /p/ is aspirated in English but not in Spanish, so when a Spanish speaker pronounces 'pig' without a puff of air on the /p/, an American may hear 'big' instead. Sometimes the students will be able to identify specific problem sounds and sometimes they won't. You can ask them for suggestions, but you will also need to observe them over time and make note of problem sounds. Another challenge resulting from differences in the first language is the inability to hear certain English sounds that the native language does not contain. Often these are vowels, as in 'ship' and 'sheep,' which many learners cannot distinguish. The Japanese are known for confusing /r/ and /l/, as their language contains neither of these but instead has one sound somewhere between the two. For problems such as these, listening is crucial because students can't produce a sound they can't hear. Descriptions of the sound and mouth position can help students increase their awareness of subtle sound differences. Here are some ideas for focusing on specific pronunciation features.

Voicing

Voiced sounds will make the throat vibrate. For example, /g/ is a voiced sound while /k/ is not, even though the mouth is in the same position for both sounds. Have your students touch their throats while pronouncing voiced and voiceless sounds. They should feel vibration with the voiced sounds only.

Aspiration

Aspiration refers to a puff of air when a sound is produced. Many languages have far fewer aspirated sounds than English, and students may have trouble hearing the aspiration. The English /p/, /t/, /k/, and /ch/ are some of the more commonly aspirated sounds. Although these are not always aspirated, at the beginning of a word they usually are. To illustrate aspiration, have your students hold up a piece of facial tissue a few inches away from their mouths and push it with a puff of air while pronouncing a word containing the target sound.

Mouth Position

Draw simple diagrams of tongue and lip positions. Make sure all students can clearly see your mouth while you model sounds. Have students use a mirror to see their mouth, lips, and tongue while they imitate you.

Intonation

Word or sentence intonation can be mimicked with a kazoo, or alternatively by humming. This will take the students' attention off of the meaning of a word or sentence and help them focus on the intonation.

Linking

We pronounce phrases and even whole sentences as one smooth sound instead of a series of separate words. 'Will Amy go away,' is rendered 'Willaymeegowaway.' To help learners link words, try starting at the end of a sentence and have them repeat a phrase, adding more of the sentence as they can master it. For example, 'gowaway,' then 'aymeegowaway,' and finally 'Willaymeegowaway' without any pauses between words.

Vowel Length

You can demonstrate varying vowel lengths within a word by stretching rubber bands on the longer vowels and letting them contract on shorter ones. Then let the students try it. For example, the word 'fifteen' would have the rubber band stretched for the 'ee' vowel, but the word 'fifty' would not have the band stretched because both of its vowels are spoken quickly.

Syllables

Have students count syllables in a word and hold up the correct number of fingers, or place objects on table to represent each syllable. Illustrate syllable stress by clapping softly and loudly corresponding to the syllables of a word. For example, the word 'beautiful' would be loud-soft-soft. Practice with short lists of words with the same syllabic stress pattern ('beautiful,' 'telephone,' 'Florida') and then see if your learners can list other words with that pattern.

Specific Sounds

Minimal pairs, or words such as 'bit/bat' that differ by only one sound, are useful for helping students distinguish similar sounds. They can be used to illustrate voicing ('curl/girl') or commonly confused sounds ('play/pray'). Remember that it's the sound and not the spelling you are focusing on. Tongue twisters are useful for practicing specific target sounds, plus they're fun. Make sure the vocabulary isn't too difficult.

Exercise

1. **Would you _____ my dog for me this weekend?**
   a. look
   b. look after
   c. look up

2. **My neighbour _____ eggs yesterday.**
   a. ran
   b. ran out of
   c. ran into
3. **John _____ his leg at the baseball game.**
   a. broke
   b. broke down
   c. broke off
4. **Our boss _____ our meeting until next week.**
   a. put
   b. put off
   c. put down
5. **Could you _____ the music while I'm on the phone?**
   a. turn
   b. turn off
   c. turn around
6. **I don't _____ my new science teacher.**
   a. get up
   b. get over
   c. get on with
7. **We both _____ meeting your new girlfriend.**
   a. look
   b. look up
   c. look forward to
8. **My car _____ on the highway today.**
   a. broke down
   b. broke off
   c. broke away
9. **It will be easier to read if you _____ the lights.**
   a. switch
   b. switch on
   c. switch over
10. **I have to _____ to the finish line and back.**
    a. run away
    b. run out of
    c. run

11. **You can.....my surprise when I heard the news.**
    a. suppose
    b. think
    c. imagine
    d. believe

12. **Many of the earliest.....into the United States established large plantations.**
    a. exiles
    b. immigrants
    c. emigrants
    d. entrants

13. **The judge said that he was.....by the high standards of performance by the riders.**
    a. excited
    b. impressed
    c. interested
    d. imposed

14. **We paid the shopkeeper.....cash.**
    a. in
    b. on
    c. by
    d. with

15. **The crowd stared at the giant and the dwarf as if they were.....monsters.**
    a. credulous
    b. incredible
    c. incredulous
    d. creditable

16. **Tell your brother to come.....because it's going rain in a minute or two.**
    a. indoors
    b. outdoors
    c. within
    d. homewards

17. **I cut my finger on a rusty tin and it became badly.....**
    a. infected
    b. affected
    c. effected
    d. diseased

18. **Violent programmers on television may have a bad.....on children.**
    a. affection
    b. pressure
    c. influence
    d. control

19. **He has always gone.....strange hobbies like collecting bottle-tops and inventing secret codes.**
    a. into
    b. by
    c. in for
    d. through

20. **The local tourist bureau will send you.....about hotels in the area.**
    a. knowledge
    b. information
    c. news
    d. notice

21. **He hit the other boxer so hard that he broke his lower.....**
    a. chin
    b. wrist
    c. shoulder
    d. jaw

22. **Her mother had asked her to do several.....before she went out .**
    a. labours
    b. works
    c. travels
    d. jobs

23. **When he makes a.....by car, he takes his family with him.**
    a. course
    b. passage
    c. voyage
    d. journey

24. **I can't advise you what to do: you must use your own.....**
    a. guesswork
    b. justice
    c. judgement
    d. ideal

25. **Because of the poor harvest, wheat prices have.....in the last six months.**
    a. added
    b. jumped
    c. amounted
    d. gathered

26. **You couldn't any secrets even for an hour in that llttle town.**
    a. keep
    b. get
    c. learn
    d. hear

27. **The police had to.....the crow .**
    a. keep ... to
    b. keep ... under
    c. keep ... back
    d. keep ... on

28. **I should like to.....touch with old friends but I have so little time.**
    a. be out of
    b. be in
    c. keep in
    d. lose

29. **Shut the window and.....the cold .....**
    a. keep ... in
    b. keep ... out
    c. keep ... down
    d. keep ... behind

30. **You can.....your shorthand ability by taking notes in shorthand during lectures.**
    a. keep on
    b. keep in
    c. keep up
    d. keep back

31. **Are you going to attend Dr Barker's.....on "Brain Electronics" tomorrow?**
    a. conference
    b. lecture
    c. meeting
    d. discussion

32. If the boy had the dog alone it wouldn't have bitten him.

a. set
b. left
c. put
d. had

33. Peter begged his neighbor to.....him five pounds until the weekend.

a. lend
b. supply
c. provide
d. hiver

34. He offered to.....her a hand as the suitcase was too heavy for her to carry.

a. lend
b. show
c. loan
d. borrow

35. You should have your eyes tested every year in case the.....of your spectacles need changing.

a. glasses
b. panes
c. lenses
d. prisms

36. A long line of traffic had to wait at the.....until the train had passed.

a. drawbridge
b. junction
c. level crossing
d. subway

37. There is a 20 minute parking.....here, so we must get back to the car very quickly.

a. freedom
b. limit
c. allowance
d. ability

38. As he had no friends or relatives in the town, the traveller tried to find a..... somewhere.

a. lodge
b. landing
c. lodging
d. stay

39. The police must now.....escaped convict in the surrounding counties.

a. search
b. look for
c. look after
d. investigate

40. The children played in the park while their mother.....

a. looked at
b. looked on
c. looked over
d. looked round

41. The room was so quiet that she could hear the.....of her heart.

a. beating
b. tapping
c. knocking
d. striking

42. I cannot undo the.....in this piece of string.

a. bunch
b. lock
c. knot
d. tie

43. .....of money prevented us from taking a holiday this year.

a. Limit
b. Freeze
c. Emptiness
d. Lack

44. It was the longest film I've ever seen; it.....four hours.

a. ended
b. finished
c. lasted
d. stayed

45. It is time to.....the table for dinner.

a. place
b. lay
c. lay out
d. put out

46. After driving for five hours, the driver pulled into.....for a rest.

a. a bypass
b. a flyover

c. a lay-by
d. a roundabout

47. **The guide is.....a line of tourists through the narrow passage with the help of his torch.**
a. conducting
b. bringing
c. leading
d. guiding

48. **She tried to.....out of the window to see the procession more clearly.**
a. bend
b. curve
c. bow
d. lean

49. **She came to England for a year in order to the language.**
a. know
b. become
c. refresh
d. learn

50. **I'm sorry but what he thinks is not of the.....importance to me.**
a. merest
b. lowest
c. worst
d. least

51. **The businessman proved to be an apparently well-behaved.....middle-aged man.**
a. offensive
b. unoffending
c. inoffensive
d. innocent

52. **The use of plastics for shoes.....of leather has ruined shoe repairing as a business.**
a. although
b. as well
c. instead
d. outside

53. **Where do you.....going for your holidays this year?**
a. intend
b. expect

c. pretend
d. guess

54. **Now that he has retired, he lives partly on his pension and partly on the…….. on his post office savings account.**
a. income
b. wages
c. salary
d. interest

55. **Be quiet! It's rude to……..people when they are speaking.**
a. interfere
b. interrupt
c. prevent
d. introduce

Answer:

56. **During the……the audience strolled and chatted in the foyer.**
a. gap
b. pause
c. space
d. interval

57. **She looked everywhere for her book but……had to return home without it.**
a. lastly
b. at the end
c. in the end
d. at the last

58. **Sally married…….the Kennedy family.**
a. with
b. to
c. into
d. among

59. **The boy's allergy to dust caused his skin to……..**
a. itch
b. rub
c. blemish
d. flush

60. **I'm sorry I'm late, I was held up in a traffic……..**
a. block
b. crush
c. jam
d. group

Answer

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
B	B	A	B	B	C	C	A	B	C
11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
C	B	B	A	B	A	A	C	C	B
21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
D	D	D	C	B	A	C	C	B	C
31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
B	B	A	A	C	C	D	C	B	B
41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50
A	C	D	C	B	C	C	D	D	D
51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60
C	C	A	D	B	D	C	C	A	C

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COMMUNICATIVE ENGLISH SKILL-II

ABOUT THE BOOK

Communicative English is a work of long experience and knowledge gained through classroom teaching of communication skills in English and research carried out at the university and college levels. The material in the book has been well tested on learners and professionals and modified after feedback from them. It is designed to give our readers an edge in their careers. As the title of the book Communicative English Skill-II indicates, the book is a comprehensive study of oral and written skills in English.The focus has shifted from teaching rote memorization, grammar and direct translation to the development of the four skills: reading, writing, listening, and speaking. There is an increasing emphasis being placed on using 'Communicative English' in the classroom, with a need for making lessons more interactive and exciting for both students and teachers.

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Rhiannon Thomson pursued her Ph.D. in Linguistics and English Language from Public University,Enniscorthy. Her areas of academic interest and research include language teaching pedagogy,corpus linguistics, language in literature, language through literature, and sociolinguistics. Thomson is a distinguished professor of higher education and serves as a guest faculty for several universities across Europe. She has also won an "Excellence in Graduate Education" award for her outstanding contribution towards the social community.

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