
UNIT 5 DEVELOPMENT OF WRITING SKILL

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5.1 INTRODUCTION

Writing skill, as you know, are among the basic language skills. But of the four language skills, writing is the most difficult. It can be said that writing is nothing but putting down signs and symbols on paper to represent the sounds that we speak. But, as a matter of fact, this is just the first stage in the process of writing. A number of subskills are involved in the skill of writing. The learner has to acquire certain mechanical abilities like forming the letters of the alphabet correctly. Writing words and sentences neatly and legibly leaving space between words, etc., writing in straight lines over the indicated space, using punctuation marks and so on. But this is not all. All this may be termed as mechanics of writing. Effective writing demand much more than this. After acquiring the above mentioned mechanical abilities, a writer also has to think and plan mentally what s/he is going to say and how best s/he can say it.

Writing, like speaking, is also a medium of communication. Writing, however, is a more difficult exercise than speaking. In speaking, the listener is present before us and thus, we can observe his/her reaction and modify our speech accordingly. But in writing, since the reader is not present before us, there is no instant interaction and feedback, and thus we are not in a position to clarify our ideas beyond what we have written. Further, in writing we have to pay greater attention to constructing grammatically correct and meaningful sentences and to organising and presenting our ideas in a sequential, logical and coherent manner. Then only will we be able to express ourselves clearly, precisely and explicitly through our writing.

In view of the above considerations, teaching of writing skills calls for much care and attention on the part of the teacher; more so from the teacher of the primary classes, as it is there that the foundation for effective writing skill is laid.

In this unit, therefore, we have discussed ways and means by which you will be able to help your pupils develop the desired skills to communicate effectively through the various forms of written expression.

5.2 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- write neatly, legibly and correctly the words, phrases and sentences;
- write grammatically correct sentences;
- write simple descriptive sentences, compositions, informal letters and dialogues;
- use appropriate words and phrases to express their ideas accurately; and
- express in writing their thoughts logically, clearly and precisely.

5.3 WRITING READINESS

Like reading, the skill of writing also requires acquiring certain experiences and some competencies by the learner to enable him/her to be “ready” for writing. By being “ready” what is meant is that before starting on formal writing, the learners have developed the following abilities/skills:

- i) eye-hand coordination.
- ii) finger muscle coordination and control,
- iii) visual discrimination (letter perception), i.e., competence to differentiate between different shapes and forms, and
- iv) directionality-habit of writing from left to right.

When the child is mature and ready for writing, he can be given certain specific experiences like drawing, painting, clay-modelling, cutting and pasting for collage etc., in addition to activities like threading beads or stringing leaves together. This should be followed by the making of various shapes i.e., circles, half-circles, strokes, slanting strokes, connected strokes and so on. All such activities will promote finer muscular control and eye-hand coordination leading to writing readiness.

These activities may be followed by such fun activities as joining dots, tracing shapes, copying different forms, colouring enclosed spaces, pattern making and writing within an indicated space.

In a classroom, children are making circles, half-circles and strokes and also colouring enclosed spaces, etc.

Initially chalk and crayons should be used for these activities. Pencils are difficult to control and should be the last material children learn to hold.

Check Your Progress

Note: Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this block.

1. Given below are some incomplete statements. Under each statement three sentences are given. One of them completes the statement most appropriately. Choose the most appropriate sentence and encircle the alphabet (a), (b) or (c) given at the beginning of each of these sentences.
 - i) Writing is one of the language skills, that involves
 - a) a way which is almost all equal to the way of speaking.

- b) putting down on paper, signs and symbols to represent the sounds that we use in speaking, and
- c) the same procedure like reading skills.
- ii) Speaking is relatively easier than writing a language, because
 - a) speaking appears earlier than writing;
 - b) what we speak, we do not write it in our day to day life; and
 - c) speaking is easy to learn.
- iii) Writing involves thinking in a way of.....
 - a) fixing a particular time to write.
 - b) determining the style of writing.
 - c) planning mentally what we are going to express.
- iv) While we write, we think of writing something sequentially because...
 - a) we usually write for a reader who in another person.
 - b) writing sequentially appears good.
 - c) it requires more pages to write.

5.4 ACTIVITIES FOR DEVELOPING WRITING SKILLS

It has already been mentioned that in helping students learn to write, we need to assist them to develop certain subskills. There are several activities and games that we help in this regard especially in the early stages. In order to develop writing skills among your students you will have to adopt certain teaching-learning strategies. These strategies are being presented here in the form of a few activities which could be practiced directly or by developing a few supplementary activities on your own. But these activities should be essentially enjoyable so that more interest can be generated.

5.4.1 Learning to Write Letters

As discussed earlier, in the development of writing skills, the primary stage goes basically through two phases:

- i) Development of ability and skill in the mechanical aspects of writing such as in:
 - a) Form and appearance
 - b) Hand-writing
 - c) Spelling; and
 - d) Punctuation (and in language like English capitalization also).
- ii) Development of skills to communicate in writing according to the need of the situation in grammatically correct language and in an explicit, coherent and logical manner.

Once the learner has been helped to get ready for writing, your next task is to help him/her acquire the above mentioned mechanical abilities in writing.

Suppose, you have to develop in them the following competence as listed in the Minimum Levels of Learning (MLL) statement for language for Class I.

- a) Copy vowels, consonants, matras, conjunct letters,
- b) Writing (from dictation) consonants, vowels, matras and conjunct letters, and
- c) Write simple familiar words and simple sentences.

It is assumed that during the stage of writing readiness, learners have been given enough practice in making of various shapes i.e. circles, half-circles, strokes (horizontal, vertical, slanting and connected), etc.

In case the pupils have not gone through the stage of writing readiness (children who have not received preschool education), train them to master the different strokes mentioned above as all letter figures are combinations of such strokes.

Now analyse the alphabets of the language being taught by you (LI) in terms of shape, simplicity and complexity and on that basis develop an order of teaching them.

After you have decided the teaching order, give a demonstration on the blackboard showing them how the letter is formed. For this you may adopt the following strategy:

Stage 1

- a) Draw lines on the board, then write the letter (say “n”) large enough for everyone to see.
- b) Tell the learners the sound for the letter and give some words in which the letter comes and ask them to repeat the name and sound of the letter.
- c) Show how to form the letter. Write it two or three times and describe the direction this way: look, it starts here, then down, back up again, then round and down. See that it stands on the line.
- d) The learners copy the letter in their notebooks. Ask them to write it several times (separately) along the line from left to right. Move around the class checking their work quickly. Initially students may be asked to draw the letter in the air. This will help them to feel the shape of the letter.

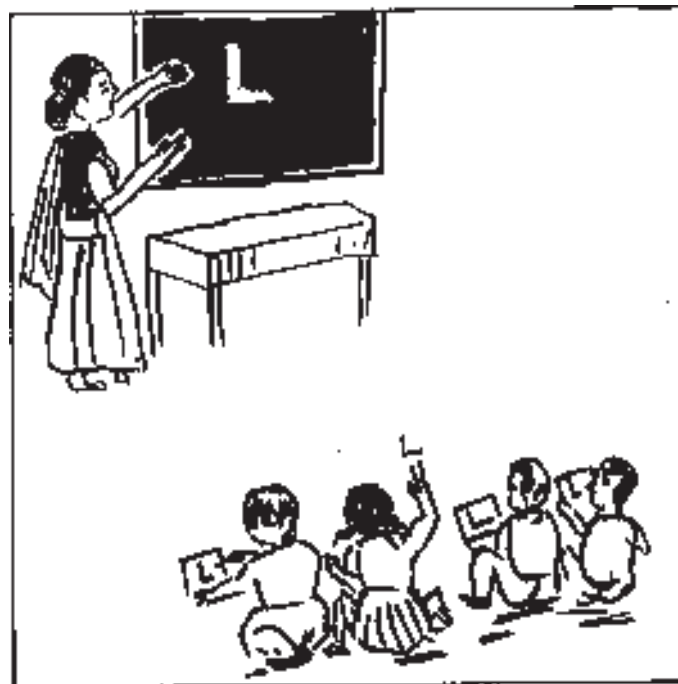


Fig. 5.1: The teacher is showing how to form L on the blackboard. Students are also trying to copy it in their notebooks and some children are drawing the letter in the air.

- e) Insist on regular transcription work—transcription on a model with bold lines first and dotted lines next. Which part of the letter should be confined to the middle line, which should go up and which should come down—check these aspects carefully.
- f) Help them learn to form other letters, proceeding from the simple to complex formations.

Stage 2

Once the learners have learnt the formation of vowels and consonants, give them practice of joining one letter to the other or writing the conjunct letters and the matras (vowel symbols). It can be done in the same way as individual letters.

Draw the joined letters, conjunct letters and the letters with the matras several times and describe the shape by demonstrating the formation movements. Ask the learners to copy several times, you should move round the class for checking.

Stage 3

After the learners have acquired enough practice in writing consonants, vowels, matras and conjunct letters, you can now proceed to the writing of words. Progressively increasing the level of difficulty. The simplest and most controlled form of practice is copying, as copying is a useful exercise where the focus is entirely on writing the words and producing words of their own.

Techniques like the following can make the task of copying interesting and challenging:

- Write a word on the board or show it on a flash card.
- Spell the words.
- Ask the students to write the word from memory.
- Go round the class quickly and check, making sure that the students have joined the letters together.
- Repeat the procedure with other words, and
- As a cross check, ask the individual student to come and write the word on the blackboard.

In this way the learners will have to think what they are writing and they will have to think of the word as a whole and not just as a series of letters.

Another way to make copying more interesting is to write the names of fruits and vegetables, animals and birds on the blackboard and ask the students to write them under separate heads as shown below:

	Fruits	Vegetables
Grape, Orange, Carrot, Potato, Brinjal, Tomato, Banana, Cabbage, Mango, Pea.	Orange	Potato

	Animals	Birds
Cow, Parrot, Buffalo, Goat, Sparrow, Pigeon, Hen, Elephant.	Cow	Parrot

In order to evaluate the pupils' learning you may make use of dictation. Initially give dictation of words with simple letters. Then with matras and then words with-conjunct letters. At a later stage sentences can be introduced where emphasis is being given to spacing as well as to the uniform size of the letters.

5.4.2 Developing a Neat and Legible Handwriting

Handwriting is the principal tool of written expression. As such it is obvious that for adequate communication the handwriting used must be legible.

Handwriting is formed in school life. You should, therefore, be particular about the handwriting of your students.

To develop a neat and legible handwriting, first of all you should give attention to the way they sit, hold pencil or pen and keep the paper/notebook on which they have to write. A good posture, correct holding of the pencil or pen and free and rhythmical arm and hand movements contribute significantly to a good handwriting.

Apart from the above, You should advise your students to keep in mind the following aspects:

- i) Correct formation of letters,
- ii) Uniform and adequate spacing between letters and words, and
- iii) Uniform slant of all letters.

As with any other aspect of teaching, the teaching of handwriting is most effective when both the teacher and the students have a favourable attitude towards handwriting. You as a teacher can help instil this attitude in your students by making certain that you form letters correctly and neatly, by holding the pen, pencil or chalk correctly, by writing smoothly and rhythmically and by being in a good posture.

In addition to this, the following suggestions may also be helpful:

- i) Provide practice frequently but for short durations,
- ii) Insist on neatness in writing. Proper margins, centering of headings, proper use of erasers should be emphasised,
- iii) Children should learn to evaluate their own performance,
- iv) Samples of children's writing should be collected at intervals for analysis of their errors by the other students and by the teachers, and
- v) Constant attention to all details by you is necessary for forming the habit of neat handwriting.

5.4.3 Mechanical Elements of Writing

You have to be careful about the mechanical elements of writing. There is no specific way to teach the mechanical elements of writing. There are a few essential principles which your students must remember. Mechanical elements of writing could be categorised into various parts and some of them are being discussed below:

- i) punctuation;
- ii) capitalization and titles; and
- iii) abbreviations and numbers.

i) Punctuation

Punctuation items are such marks as the comma, the full-stop, the apostrophe, hyphens, quotation marks, the question mark, the colon, the semi-colon, parentheses, and the dash, etc. Writing grammatical sentences makes no sense, unless your students know where to put a question mark or a colon or a semi-colon. Some exercises are given below to help you teach such marks to the primary grades.

Activity 1

Below are some of the punctuation marks. Ask your students to speak orally while making these marks in their copies.

- a) Full stop (.)
- b) Comma (,)
- c) Interrogation mark (?)
- d) Exclamation mark (!)
- e) Colon (:)
- f) Semi-colon (;)
- g) Parentheses (())
- h) Dash (—)
- i) Quotation marks (quotes and em quotes) (“ ”)
- j) Hyphen (-)
- k) Apostrophe as in (Ram’s)

Activity 2

Explain to the students in a tabular form (as given below) where to put the following marks. For example —

Punctuation	Where to put	Example
1) Full stop	At the end of an assertive sentence or to write an abbreviation.	Hari is a boy. Road—Rd. Mister—Mr.
2) Comma	To separate a series of words in the same constructon.	He writes essay neatly, quickly and correctly.
3) Interrogation mark	At the end of a sentence in which some question has asked.	Is he coming?
4) Exclamation mark	At the end of a statement showing exclamation.	What a beautiful place!

Activity 3

Students of upper primary level can be asked to rewrite the following paragraph by putting punctuation marks in the appropriate places.

Mohan come here shouted the class teacher inside the class room Mohan could suddenly guess why he is called by the class teacher He stood up and went to the teacher Why did not you come to school yesterday asked the teacher I was ill Sir replied Mohan Why are you lying teacher shouted again Your mother had rung me up and asked whether you were in school or not As I could not find you in the school I replied accordingly to your mother class teacher added I'm sorry sir I promise not to do so in the near future Mohan apologised It's all right You can go now class teacher said

ii) Capitalization and Titles

Students should be taught where to capitalize a letter or a letter of a word and how to write titles. You will experience your students' progress, if you can conduct the following activities in an effective way.

Activity 4

Ask students to write down each sentence at least once in the space given to the right side of the sentence.

- The old-man is walking.
- I am writing with a pencil.
- Shyam gave a book to Madhu.

Activity 5

Ask students to rewrite the following paragraph with capitalization and title in the appropriate place.

“hey-binu! where are you going?” asked raju.” I am just going down to the market”, binu said. “what for?” raju questioned. “I need an exercise copy for mathematics” binu replied. “come with me to my house. I would give you a new one”, raju said.

Clue: Raju and Binu are the names of two persons.

Activity 6

Ask your students to put a cross inside the boxes given against each statement where capitalization is required.

- a) The first letter in a sentence. (.....)
- b) The first letter of any proper noun. (.....)
- c) The first letter of some important words. (.....)
- d) If any title is written, the first letter of the title. (.....)

iii) Abbreviations and Numbers

Students should be made aware of certain abbreviations or short forms of some words which are frequently used in writing. This is done since writing the full form of the word may take more space and time. Also, the abbreviation may be convenient to write. Here are some activities in this connection.

Activity 7

Ask your students to rewrite (and repeat orally) the following abbreviations:

Department - Deptt.

Example - My friend Mohan is doing B.Ed. from the Deptt. of Education, Roorkee University.

Deputy - Dy.

Example - Mr. Ram is working as Dy. Registrar in a university.

District - Distt.

Example - My home town is in Distt. Gulbarga of Karnataka.

Mister - Mr.

Example - Mr. Ashok is Mohan's father.

Remember, students should not be encouraged to use the short form of the words (abbreviations) frequently. Rather they should be encouraged to use abbreviations in some specific cases such as writing something within a limited space or within a limited time.

If a question is asked "How many people died in the road mishap?". Some young students may write "50 people died in the mishap". This type of answer may not be applicable everywhere. It is definitely not done to start a sentence with numerals. Anyone starting a sentence with numerals should be asked to write starting the sentence with words. Example: "Fifty people died in the mishap".

5.4.4 Learning to Spell Correctly

The ability to spell is surely needed by children in order to carry on their school work successfully and as a preparation for their later study and for their adult life.

All elementary schools should give attention to spelling. How well children learn to spell depends primarily upon their attitude toward spelling. When an attitude of concern for correct spelling has been developed, the children will make efforts to spell words correctly. Therefore as an elementary teacher, your main goal in spelling teaching should be to give your pupils both a consciousness of correct spelling and a spelling conscience — a 'kind of compulsion for correct written expression'. In the words of Tomkinson, 'spellings are caught rather than taught'. Attitudes may be improved if you follow the practices given below:

- i) Having the children study only those words which testing has shown them to be unable to spell. This implies a pretest before spelling instruction.
- ii) Regarding spelling as something important for good communication. This regard may be shown by your own correct spelling and your insistence upon correct spelling of words in children's written work.
- iii) Making children individually, and as a class, aware of their progress in learning spelling. This means the keeping of progress charts so that each child may know his and his class's achievement level.
- iv) Teaching no more words in a given period than a child can successfully learn to spell. Repeated failures simply bring on more failures and frustration.
- v) Making sure that the words the children are learning to spell are words that are important to them in their own writing. You should make your students also aware of the importance of these words by making them realise the frequency of their use in the reading material and written work meant for students.

Spellings, it must be remembered, are more a matter of the eye than of the ear. The eye must get used to the details of a word and detect the mistake, if there is any. The ability to detect a mistake by eye comes through familiarity, and familiarity comes through repeated association with words. You, as a teacher, should collect the common mistakes of your pupils and make them familiar with them by constantly writing them on the blackboard and making the pupils practise them in their notebooks. It is a good practice to ask the students to write the mis-spelt words a number of times. But, remember, never write a wrong spelling on the blackboard to inquire which of the two spellings is correct, because the wrong spelling has as much chance of sticking in the memory as the correct one. Every effort should be made that correct habits of spellings are formed and incorrect avoided.

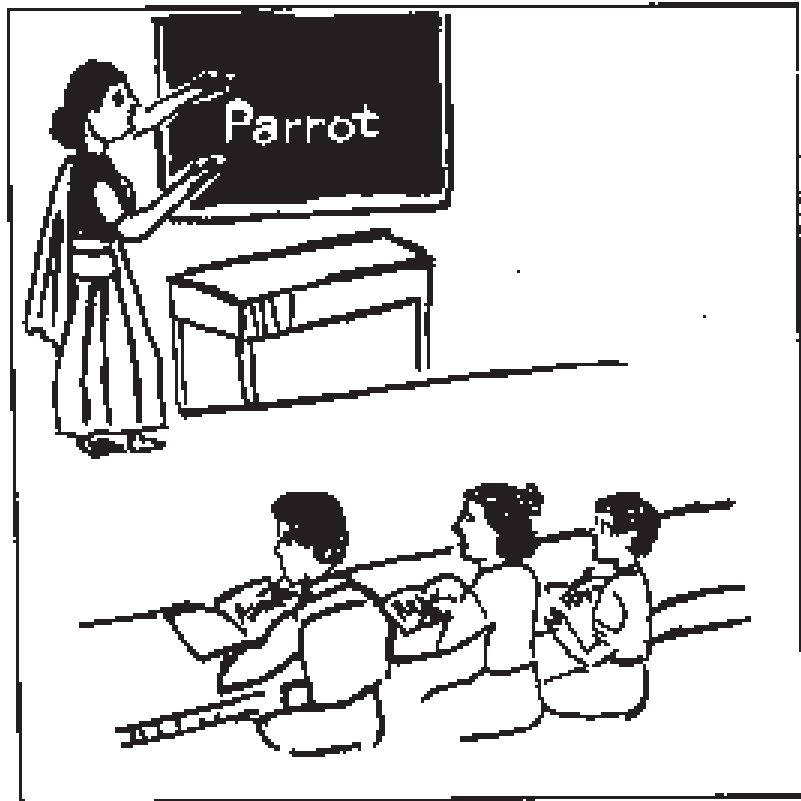


Fig. 5.2: A Teacher is writing 'Parrot' on the Blackboard and the Children are also writing in their Copies

5.4.5 Dictation as a Technique for Developing Writing Skills

Once upon a time, dictation was regarded as a means of improving the spellings of the pupils. It may be true of some schools even now. But now, by and large, it is being accepted that "dictation does not and cannot teach spellings". Dictation nowadays has been regarded as a technique to train pupils to listen carefully, concentrate for the time being and retain what is being spoken and reproduce it in good handwriting at a reasonable speed. Listening to dictation demands concentration on the part of pupils. Besides concentration, it is an exercise in retention and writing neatly and legibly with a good speed.

In dictation, adopting the following procedure would be helpful:

- i) Before dictating a passage, the main idea of the passage should be briefly explained. If the passage is taken from their book, you should point out the story or the lesson from which it is taken. This helps prepare the pupils' minds for what is coming.
- ii) Now read the passage once.
- iii) Write the difficult words on the blackboard. Allow pupils to look carefully at them for two to three minutes before you rub them out. In case of classes

I and II where, instead of a passage, vowels and consonants and words are to be dictated, you should write the letters and words on the blackboard. Ask the students to observe them carefully and then remove them from the board and dictate. The purpose is to help them remember the letter formations.

- iv) While dictating a passage you should carefully group the words you are going to speak at one time. These words should be neither too few nor too many in number. They should be spoken once or at the most twice with small children. The habit of repeating them several times should be avoided. One purpose is to train the children to listen carefully.
- v) In the end, read the passage/words once again so that any omissions that there might have been may be made good.

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this block.

2. Write down four major activities that are meant for developing writing skills.

i)

.....

ii)

.....

iii)

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iv)

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3. Write down one sentence each where the interrogation mark and the exclamation mark are to be used.

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5.5 WRITTEN COMPOSITION

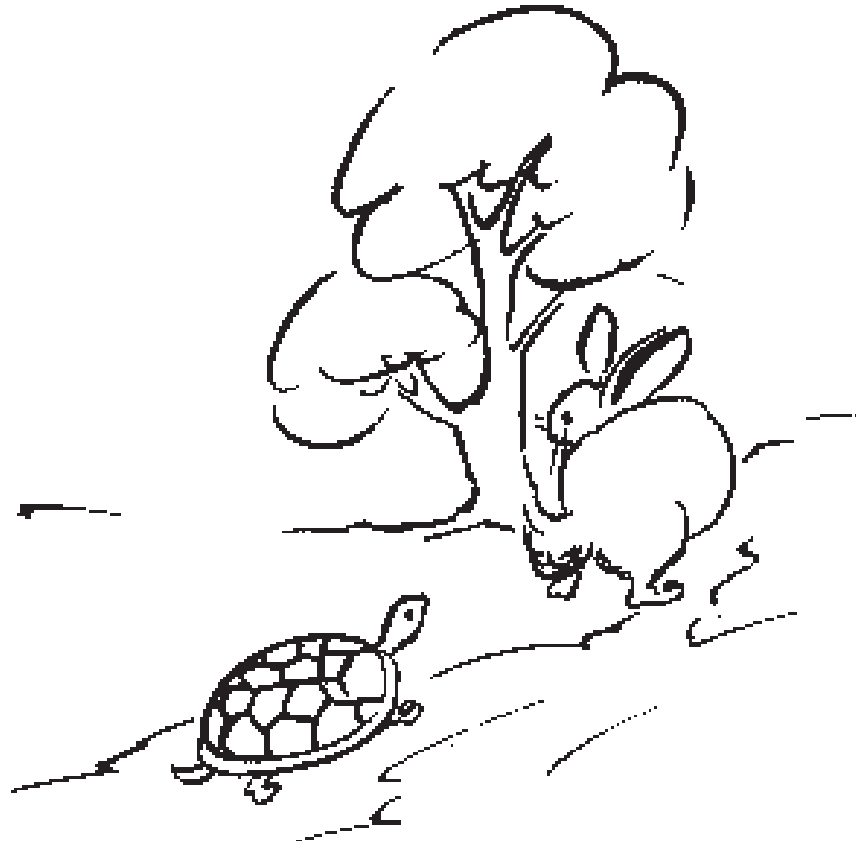
Written composition includes paragraphing, story writing, comprehension, essay writing, letter writing and dialogue writing. When we talk about developing students' ability for written composition, we essentially focus on their ability to write a paragraph or a story, comprehend ideas, and write an essay, letter or dialogues in the elementary grades. As such it is desirable that you should help your students to develop their ability in all these areas of written composition. Of course, as in other activities, there are linkages among the activities that are meant for developing students' ability for any type of written composition.

5.5.1 Paragraphing

In a paragraph, students are expected to write a few sentences which would introduce the subject matter, then the supportive details, i.e., more ideas or information to be written and finally a few sentences must be written to conclude the paragraph. You can start paragraph writing by showing a picture to your students and asking them to write a paragraph on the picture. Students can be asked to write paragraphs on parents, friends and the class-teacher. In upper primary classes, children can be asked to write paragraphs on the places they have seen. If you ever go with your students to any place on a trip or tour, ask them to write a paragraph about the place on the spot. Some such activities are discussed below.

Activity 8

Ask your students to write a paragraph on the picture shown below:



Activity 9

Ask your students to write a paragraph about their mother, father, the postman, and animals (e.g. the cow, the goat, the cat, pet dogs).

5.5.2 Story

A story essentially talks about a person, things, places, personalities etc. Students may vary from one another in writing a story but there must be unity and order among the paragraphs of the story written.

In story writing, the students' previous knowledge plays a major role. Whenever we write a story, we essentially think of our own knowledge and experience of the particular story; then we select the ideas and put them in the form of a few paragraphs. Hence, when you ask your students to write a story, check whether the topic (on which you have asked them to write) is familiar to them. In the language learning classes, our main focus is on the achievement of competence among the learners. If you have chosen a topic like "Village Life" for your students then those who have come from an urban background may not be able to depict a real picture of village life in comparison to the students with a

rural background. Students who are able to write might have seen or read from books about village life. So, whatever they have written, you have to check whether they have come up with valid information about village life and how they have maintained unity and order and how realistic their stories are.

5.5.3 Comprehension of Written Material

Another aspect of composition concerns comprehension of something written. To develop students' ability to comprehend a given paragraph is one of the writing skills.

A comprehension exercise consists of a passage on which a few questions are asked. Comprehension exercises are designed to assess students' ability to understand the content of a passage to infer information from the passage and to write the answers. Hence it is a common activity for developing both reading and writing skills. In writing comprehension, students essentially read the given passage and then answer. It is of equal importance to both the skills of reading and writing skills.

Students in these type of activities generally copy the lines or statements as it is from the given passage. But once they are able to make out the meaning from a text it will not be a problem for them to write the answers on their own instead of simply copying from the passage. Encourage your students to answer in their own words.

Before you start with written comprehension exercises among your students, check whether they are able to:

- i) construct grammatical sentences;
- ii) put punctuation marks in the appropriate place;
- iii) infer information or ideas from a text;
- iv) write answers on their own; and
- v) write answers in their own language (they must not copy the language written in the passage or text).

You are well aware with the comprehension exercises at the elementary grade. What we do in comprehension activities is we generally select a few interesting passages and ask students to read them one by one and write answers to the questions. We also consider the complexity level of the text in comparison with the level of the students. At the elementary level you should select those passages which are very easy to understand as well as familiar to the students. Initially you should start by giving simple texts to read and asking students to answer questions related to "who", "when", "what" and "where".

We have discussed an activity below for written comprehension, where you have to see the differences in terms of answers.

Activity 10

Ask students to read the passage given below and answer the questions that follow:

Passage

“Amar saw a snake on the road while he was going to school. He was about to reach market. Oh! “This snake is coming towards me and it is a wild cobra”, Amar thought. He turned back and started running. Mohammed was coming with his bullock-cart loaded with sand from the Salandi river. “Hey, Amar! why are you running?”

Mohammed asked, “There is a snake running behind me, I am afraid of it”, Amar replied.

“Come up and sit on my cart; I will help you reach your school”, Mohammed said. Amar was late in reaching the school that day.

Set A

- Q.1 Who saw the snake?
- Q.2 What did Amar see on the road?
- Q.3 Who was coming in his bullock-cart?
- Q.4 What is the name of the river?
- Q.5 What is the name of the snake?

Set B

- Q.1 Why was Amar late in reaching school that day?

OR

How did Mohammed help Amar reach school?

OR

What did Amar do when he saw a snake on the road?

Students’ answer on both sets of questions will definitely vary. And it is much easier for the students to answer set-A questions because these questions do not demand long answers like Set-B questions.

5.5.4 Essay

Essay writing is also a written composition activity where students are to express their personal ideas and opinions on a given topic.

As we have discussed earlier the skills are interrelated. You can guess this from the fact that those students who cannot write a paragraph will not be able to write an essay.

Developing students’ ability to write an essay emphasizes first of all their thinking ability. How well do your students think, how well they recall the related pieces of information, and how well do they organise their thoughts and information and express them are some of the aspects to be given importance while guiding your students to write an essay on a given topic.

At the primary stage, when you select topics on which you expect your students to write an essay, you must be sure that the topic is :

- i) known or familiar to the students;
- ii) related to their common life experiences;
- iii) being seen, observed, or felt by the students;
- iv) being read somewhere; and
- v) interesting for students.

5.5.5 Letter

By and large all of us agree that the most important written language activity anyone of us engages in is letter writing. At some time or the other everyone needs to write informal or formal letters. You, as a teacher, must teach your students how to write a letter. Initially they are to be taught how to write a letter to a friend, the parents, the teachers, the relatives etc. Later on they may be given training in writing formal letters.

A letter can be written in various ways, but there are some standard norms on the basis of which we can say it is a letter. These norms are discussed below:

i) Writing the Heading

The Heading of a letter provides the information almost “the place” and “the date”. Heading is generally written at the top right corner of the paper. It should be well punctuated, so that the reader can understand the address. A written format of a heading is given below:

Dr. Neha Mathur	B-35, Kailash Colony New Delhi -110048.
	September 17, 1997

Dear Prof. Gautam,

This is to inform you that a meeting is being convened on September 28, 1997 at 11.30 a.m. to finalise the format of Self-Instructional Material for distance learners. The venue will be the Conference Room. It is therefore requested to confirm your participation in this meeting.

With regards.

Yours sincerely,

(Neha Mathur)

Prof. Y. S. Gautam
A-99, Azad Apartments
I.I.T. Gate
New Delhi.

ii) How to Address

When we write a letter to somebody we must call him/her “something” in a written form.

- a) Letters to family members should be addressed like
- Dear Father/My dear Father
 - Dear Mother/My dear Mother
 - Dear Uncle
- b) Letters to your friends should be addressed like
- Dear Madhu
 - Dear Shri Mohan
 - Dear Shri Das
 - Dear Padmini

c) Letters to teachers

- Dear Sir

iii) How to End a Letter

A letter must not be ended just by writing the writer's name, rather it should be ended in one of the following manners:

- Yours affectionately (to parents and elder relatives)
- Your affectionate friend, Your sincere friend
- Yours truly, Truly yours, Yours very truly
- Yours sincerely. Sincerely yours
- Yours faithfully.

5.5.6 Dialogue

A dialogue means talk between two persons. At the primary stage, students should be guided to practise dialogue writing because it is one of the interesting strategies to develop written composition capability. You can help your students write dialogues on the basis of some such activities.

Activity 11

Ask students to rewrite the following sentences.

- Mother said, "Drink the milk".
- Father said, "Do not jump like that".
- Hari said, "My father is at Bangalore".

Activity 12

Ask students to write the following instructions by adding "Teacher said" at the beginning. For example: Teacher said, "Keep your house clean".

- Keep your dress clean.
- Keep your teeth clean.
- Cross the road safely.
- Do not laugh at blind people.

Activity 13

Ask two students to stand in front of the whole class and prompt them to say the following dialogues. At the end ask your students to write the statements made by both of them.

A Dialogue

- Rahul — Hello, Pooja! Where are you coming from?
 Pooja — Hello, Rahul ! I'm getting back from market.
 Rahul — What's that Pooja!
 Pooja — Where?
 Rahul — In your left hand.
 Pooja — Oh! It's a pencil.

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this block.

4. Write four topics on which you may ask your students to write stories.

i)

ii)

iii)

iv)

5. Read the following statements carefully. Put a (√) mark against the statement you think is correct and a (×) mark against the one you think incorrect.

i) In paragraph writing students need not write sentences while concluding the paragraph.

ii) In story writing students' previous knowledge plays a major role.

iii) There is no linkage among the activities that are meant for developing students' ability in written composition.

iv) At the end of a letter it is enough to write just the name of the writer.

5.6 CORRECTION WORK AND EVALUATION

The correction of written work is a major problem that a teacher faces. Being a teacher you cannot avoid it, rather you should try to check as much as you can. Some of the solutions have been discussed below:

- i) One solution would be to ask the learners to exchange note-books. This would serve very well, where the exercise requires something like filling in the blanks, dictation or a spelling exercise, or is based on usage.
- ii) The learners can work in groups. Cooperative activity with guidance from the teacher encourages students to do their best. The weaker learners are assisted by their more advanced colleagues. There are also fewer note books to be corrected.
- iii) Free composition and letter writing require individual correction, but the amount of correction work required will be significantly reduced if these are introduced to them in a phased manner and are preceded by oral work.
- iv) All written work whether guided or free must be preceded by oral drilling. This will help the writer to be clear in his mind about what he wants to write and how he is going to arrange his matter.

Traditional or routine methods of evaluation take a great deal of time and, as a result, teachers are hesitant to assign written work. This of course only compounds the problem, because no one can learn to write without writing.

There are, however, certain ways in which correction of written work can not only be simplified but made more effective.

- Our primary focus in evaluating written work should not be the detection and correction of errors alone. Of course mistakes should not be ignored

entirely, but if we point out how a piece of writing is defective, we should also point out where the writer has been successful.

- In a real life situation, even good writers examine, evaluate and improve their own written work. It is important, therefore, to train students to identify and correct their own mistakes. It is also helpful to make students work in groups or pairs, so that they can discuss what they are writing.
- Students can be trained to diagnose and correct their own mistakes by gradual stages. To help them, the teacher can follow this procedure.
 - a) Underline the mistake and mention what it is.
 - b) Underline the mistake and let them work out what is wrong.
 - c) Mention in the margin that there is a mistake but do not point it out.
 - d) Put a cross in the margin for each mistake.
- You should, however, correct the mistakes that the students cannot correct for themselves.
- A mistake should not only be corrected but explained also. Explain a mistake.
- Use the mistake as a basis for remedial teaching.

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this block.

6. Complete the following incomplete statements. The first one has been done for you as an example.

i) Although correction of written work is a major problem, **it must not be avoided.**

ii) One solution would be to ask learners
.....
.....

iii) Learners can work in groups where
.....
.....

iv) Free composition and letter writing are to be introduced in a phased manner to
.....
.....

v) All written work whether guided or free must be
.....
.....

vi) Traditional or routine methods of evaluation
.....
.....

vii) Our primary focus in evaluating written work should not be

.....

.....

5.7 LET US SUM UP

We have discussed, in brief, the importance of writing skills and writing readiness, different activities for developing writing skills, written composition, and correction work and evaluation in writing at elementary grade. While discussing different activities for developing writing skills among the elementary grade students, activities that are meant for correct letter formation, copying the letters, words, etc., developing a neat and legible handwriting, learning to spell correctly and use of dictation were discussed. Under written composition activities on paragraph writing, story writing, essay writing have also been discussed. Being a teacher, how you can solve your day-to-day problem of correcting students written work had also been attended to by giving some solutions.

5.8 UNIT-END EXERCISES

1. What do you mean by writing readiness?
2. Why is it important to teach the writing skills?
3. What activities you should conduct among the students for developing writing skills?
4. What guidance will you give learners in Class IV, who are writing a paragraph on “My Summer Holidays”?
5. How can you help students develop written composition?
6. Write down the ways on which you make correction work?

ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Unit 3

1. a) Listening, (b) beginning, (c) simple, complex, (d) what
2. a) The difference between speaking and reading aloud is that in reading aloud we use a written or printed page but while speaking we do not use these.
 - b) Features common to both speaking and reading aloud are:
 - i) stress on words;
 - ii) intonation; and
 - iii) voice-change or modulation.
 - c) What a beautiful flower!
 - d) The difference between the two sentences is that while one is simply making a statement, the other one is in question form that requires a statement as an answer.

3. Students should need to know the following things in order to speak a standard form of language:
 - i) pronounce the sounds of the language correctly;
 - ii) make the necessary distinction between similar sounds in their own language and those in the language they are learning; and
 - iii) prevent sounds and intonation patterns of their own language interfering with the sounds and intonation patterns of the language they are learning.
4.
 - i) tool, cool, school
 - ii) cat, rat, sat
 - iii) would, should
5.
 - i) put
 - ii) poor
 - iii) care

Unit 4

1. The child should be able to differentiate between the shapes and formations and also between the sounds of alphabets. The child must also be able to relate each sound with the appropriate alphabet and must have a fair vocabulary in the standard language.
2.
 - a) Forming of Auditory Images
 - b) Associating Ideas with the Auditory Images
 - c) Combining the unit ideas into a group
 - d) Grouping of words.
3. Reading aloud is very effective in improving the subskills of pronunciation, enunciation, intonation and reading with expression.
4. Intonation indicates the musical element in the language because each language has a musical quality of its own.
5. In silent reading, the whole attention is concentrated on comprehending the meaning and so there is no division of attention. It enables the reader to give his entire attention to meaning, resulting in a better assimilation of the information.
6. After silent reading of a particular paragraph, you may test what the students have learnt through questioning. But the questions should be such that they cannot be answered in the words of the book.
7. When you give a map to a learner to observe it and ask questions about places and locations, he will identify and name them. This will help them to develop their vocabulary.
8.
 - i) The habit of pointing at the word with a finger or pencil.
 - ii) The habit of moving the head from one side to other.
 - iii) Going back repeatedly to the beginning of the sentence, etc.
9. By making the learners aware of these defects and giving them plenty of correct reading practice.

10. The ability to identify and recall facts without which the reading passage will not make sense.
11. The ability to draw inferences or conclusions from the given matter. You can select any story from your region.
12. In intensive reading, the first step is to identify the difficult words and their meanings; Exercises can be given to reinforce the vocabulary learnt. Also the same passage can be used to teach some language items. After silent reading, questions may be asked to test their comprehension. But in extensive reading, there is no language or vocabulary reading because the purpose of extensive reading is reading for pleasure.

Unit 5

1. (i) b. (ii) a. (iii) c. (iv) a.
2. i) Learning to write letters.
ii) Developing neat and legible handwriting.
iii) Learning to spell correctly.
iv) Mechanical elements of writing.
3. Interrogation mark —
i) What is your name?
ii) Where are you going?
Exclamation mark —
i) What a lovely day!
ii) Hurray! We have won the match.
4. i) Faithfulness ii) Hardwork iii) Equality iv) Unity
5. i) (×), ii) (√) iii) (√) iv) (×)
6. ii) to exchange their note book.
iii) weaker learners are to be assisted by their more advanced colleagues.
iv) reduce the burden of individual correction.
v) preceded by oral drilling.
vi) take a great deal of time.
vii) detection and correction of errors alone.

UNIT 5 DEVELOPMENT OF WRITING SKILL

Structure

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Objectives
- 5.3 Writing Readiness
- 5.4 Activities for Developing Writing Skills
 - 5.4.1 Learning to Write Letters
 - 5.4.2 Developing a Neat and Legible Handwriting
 - 5.4.3 Mechanical Elements of Writing
 - 5.4.4 Learning to Spell Correctly
 - 5.4.5 Dictation as a Technique for Developing Writing Skills
- 5.5 Written Composition
 - 5.5.1 Paragraphing
 - 5.5.2 Story
 - 5.5.3 Comprehension of Written Material
 - 5.5.4 Essay
 - 5.5.5 Letter
 - 5.5.6 Dialogue
- 5.6 Correction Work and Evaluation
- 5.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 5.8 Unit-end Exercises

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Writing skill, as you know, are among the basic language skills. But of the four language skills, writing is the most difficult. It can be said that writing is nothing but putting down signs and symbols on paper to represent the sounds that we speak. But, as a matter of fact, this is just the first stage in the process of writing. A number of subskills are involved in the skill of writing. The learner has to acquire certain mechanical abilities like forming the letters of the alphabet correctly. Writing words and sentences neatly and legibly leaving space between words, etc., writing in straight lines over the indicated space, using punctuation marks and so on. But this is not all. All this may be termed as mechanics of writing. Effective writing demand much more than this. After acquiring the above mentioned mechanical abilities, a writer also has to think and plan mentally what s/he is going to say and how best s/he can say it.

Writing, like speaking, is also a medium of communication. Writing, however, is a more difficult exercise than speaking. In speaking, the listener is present before us and thus, we can observe his/her reaction and modify our speech accordingly. But in writing, since the reader is not present before us, there is no instant interaction and feedback, and thus we are not in a position to clarify our ideas beyond what we have written. Further, in writing we have to pay greater attention to constructing grammatically correct and meaningful sentences and to organising and presenting our ideas in a sequential, logical and coherent manner. Then only will we be able to express ourselves clearly, precisely and explicitly through our writing.

In view of the above considerations, teaching of writing skills calls for much care and attention on the part of the teacher; more so from the teacher of the primary classes, as it is there that the foundation for effective writing skill is laid.

In this unit, therefore, we have discussed ways and means by which you will be able to help your pupils develop the desired skills to communicate effectively through the various forms of written expression.

5.2 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- write neatly, legibly and correctly the words, phrases and sentences;
- write grammatically correct sentences;
- write simple descriptive sentences, compositions, informal letters and dialogues;
- use appropriate words and phrases to express their ideas accurately; and
- express in writing their thoughts logically, clearly and precisely.

5.3 WRITING READINESS

Like reading, the skill of writing also requires acquiring certain experiences and some competencies by the learner to enable him/her to be “ready” for writing. By being “ready” what is meant is that before starting on formal writing, the learners have developed the following abilities/skills:

- i) eye-hand coordination.
- ii) finger muscle coordination and control,
- iii) visual discrimination (letter perception), i.e., competence to differentiate between different shapes and forms, and
- iv) directionality-habit of writing from left to right.

When the child is mature and ready for writing, he can be given certain specific experiences like drawing, painting, clay-modelling, cutting and pasting for collage etc., in addition to activities like threading beads or stringing leaves together. This should be followed by the making of various shapes i.e., circles, half-circles, strokes, slanting strokes, connected strokes and so on. All such activities will promote finer muscular control and eye-hand coordination leading to writing readiness.

These activities may be followed by such fun activities as joining dots, tracing shapes, copying different forms, colouring enclosed spaces, pattern making and writing within an indicated space.

In a classroom, children are making circles, half-circles and strokes and also colouring enclosed spaces, etc.

Initially chalk and crayons should be used for these activities. Pencils are difficult to control and should be the last material children learn to hold.

Check Your Progress

Note: Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this block.

1. Given below are some incomplete statements. Under each statement three sentences are given. One of them completes the statement most appropriately. Choose the most appropriate sentence and encircle the alphabet (a), (b) or (c) given at the beginning of each of these sentences.
 - i) Writing is one of the language skills, that involves
 - a) a way which is almost all equal to the way of speaking.

- b) putting down on paper, signs and symbols to represent the sounds that we use in speaking, and
- c) the same procedure like reading skills.
- ii) Speaking is relatively easier than writing a language, because
 - a) speaking appears earlier than writing;
 - b) what we speak, we do not write it in our day to day life; and
 - c) speaking is easy to learn.
- iii) Writing involves thinking in a way of.....
 - a) fixing a particular time to write.
 - b) determining the style of writing.
 - c) planning mentally what we are going to express.
- iv) While we write, we think of writing something sequentially because...
 - a) we usually write for a reader who in another person.
 - b) writing sequentially appears good.
 - c) it requires more pages to write.

5.4 ACTIVITIES FOR DEVELOPING WRITING SKILLS

It has already been mentioned that in helping students learn to write, we need to assist them to develop certain subskills. There are several activities and games that we help in this regard especially in the early stages. In order to develop writing skills among your students you will have to adopt certain teaching-learning strategies. These strategies are being presented here in the form of a few activities which could be practiced directly or by developing a few supplementary activities on your own. But these activities should be essentially enjoyable so that more interest can be generated.

5.4.1 Learning to Write Letters

As discussed earlier, in the development of writing skills, the primary stage goes basically through two phases:

- i) Development of ability and skill in the mechanical aspects of writing such as in:
 - a) Form and appearance
 - b) Hand-writing
 - c) Spelling; and
 - d) Punctuation (and in language like English capitalization also).
- ii) Development of skills to communicate in writing according to the need of the situation in grammatically correct language and in an explicit, coherent and logical manner.

Once the learner has been helped to get ready for writing, your next task is to help him/her acquire the above mentioned mechanical abilities in writing.

Suppose, you have to develop in them the following competence as listed in the Minimum Levels of Learning (MLL) statement for language for Class I.

- a) Copy vowels, consonants, matras, conjunct letters,
- b) Writing (from dictation) consonants, vowels, matras and conjunct letters, and
- c) Write simple familiar words and simple sentences.

It is assumed that during the stage of writing readiness, learners have been given enough practice in making of various shapes i.e. circles, half-circles, strokes (horizontal, vertical, slanting and connected), etc.

In case the pupils have not gone through the stage of writing readiness (children who have not received preschool education), train them to master the different strokes mentioned above as all letter figures are combinations of such strokes.

Now analyse the alphabets of the language being taught by you (LI) in terms of shape, simplicity and complexity and on that basis develop an order of teaching them.

After you have decided the teaching order, give a demonstration on the blackboard showing them how the letter is formed. For this you may adopt the following strategy:

Stage 1

- a) Draw lines on the board, then write the letter (say “n”) large enough for everyone to see.
- b) Tell the learners the sound for the letter and give some words in which the letter comes and ask them to repeat the name and sound of the letter.
- c) Show how to form the letter. Write it two or three times and describe the direction this way: look, it starts here, then down, back up again, then round and down. See that it stands on the line.
- d) The learners copy the letter in their notebooks. Ask them to write it several times (separately) along the line from left to right. Move around the class checking their work quickly. Initially students may be asked to draw the letter in the air. This will help them to feel the shape of the letter.

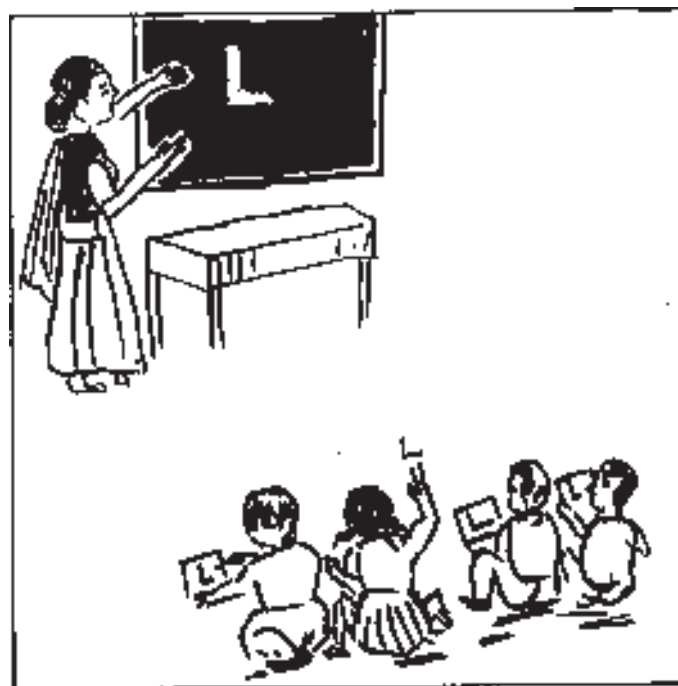


Fig. 5.1: The teacher is showing how to form L on the blackboard. Students are also trying to copy it in their notebooks and some children are drawing the letter in the air.

- e) Insist on regular transcription work—transcription on a model with bold lines first and dotted lines next. Which part of the letter should be confined to the middle line, which should go up and which should come down—check these aspects carefully.
- f) Help them learn to form other letters, proceeding from the simple to complex formations.

Stage 2

Once the learners have learnt the formation of vowels and consonants, give them practice of joining one letter to the other or writing the conjunct letters and the matras (vowel symbols). It can be done in the same way as individual letters.

Draw the joined letters, conjunct letters and the letters with the matras several times and describe the shape by demonstrating the formation movements. Ask the learners to copy several times, you should move round the class for checking.

Stage 3

After the learners have acquired enough practice in writing consonants, vowels, matras and conjunct letters, you can now proceed to the writing of words. Progressively increasing the level of difficulty. The simplest and most controlled form of practice is copying, as copying is a useful exercise where the focus is entirely on writing the words and producing words of their own.

Techniques like the following can make the task of copying interesting and challenging:

- Write a word on the board or show it on a flash card.
- Spell the words.
- Ask the students to write the word from memory.
- Go round the class quickly and check, making sure that the students have joined the letters together.
- Repeat the procedure with other words, and
- As a cross check, ask the individual student to come and write the word on the blackboard.

In this way the learners will have to think what they are writing and they will have to think of the word as a whole and not just as a series of letters.

Another way to make copying more interesting is to write the names of fruits and vegetables, animals and birds on the blackboard and ask the students to write them under separate heads as shown below:

	Fruits	Vegetables
Grape, Orange, Carrot, Potato, Brinjal, Tomato, Banana, Cabbage, Mango, Pea.	Orange	Potato

	Animals	Birds
Cow, Parrot, Buffalo, Goat, Sparrow, Pigeon, Hen, Elephant.	Cow	Parrot

In order to evaluate the pupils' learning you may make use of dictation. Initially give dictation of words with simple letters. Then with matras and then words with-conjunct letters. At a later stage sentences can be introduced where emphasis is being given to spacing as well as to the uniform size of the letters.

5.4.2 Developing a Neat and Legible Handwriting

Handwriting is the principal tool of written expression. As such it is obvious that for adequate communication the handwriting used must be legible.

Handwriting is formed in school life. You should, therefore, be particular about the handwriting of your students.

To develop a neat and legible handwriting, first of all you should give attention to the way they sit, hold pencil or pen and keep the paper/notebook on which they have to write. A good posture, correct holding of the pencil or pen and free and rhythmical arm and hand movements contribute significantly to a good handwriting.

Apart from the above, You should advise your students to keep in mind the following aspects:

- i) Correct formation of letters,
- ii) Uniform and adequate spacing between letters and words, and
- iii) Uniform slant of all letters.

As with any other aspect of teaching, the teaching of handwriting is most effective when both the teacher and the students have a favourable attitude towards handwriting. You as a teacher can help instil this attitude in your students by making certain that you form letters correctly and neatly, by holding the pen, pencil or chalk correctly, by writing smoothly and rhythmically and by being in a good posture.

In addition to this, the following suggestions may also be helpful:

- i) Provide practice frequently but for short durations,
- ii) Insist on neatness in writing. Proper margins, centering of headings, proper use of erasers should be emphasised,
- iii) Children should learn to evaluate their own performance,
- iv) Samples of children's writing should be collected at intervals for analysis of their errors by the other students and by the teachers, and
- v) Constant attention to all details by you is necessary for forming the habit of neat handwriting.

5.4.3 Mechanical Elements of Writing

You have to be careful about the mechanical elements of writing. There is no specific way to teach the mechanical elements of writing. There are a few essential principles which your students must remember. Mechanical elements of writing could be categorised into various parts and some of them are being discussed below:

- i) punctuation;
- ii) capitalization and titles; and
- iii) abbreviations and numbers.

i) Punctuation

Punctuation items are such marks as the comma, the full-stop, the apostrophe, hyphens, quotation marks, the question mark, the colon, the semi-colon, parentheses, and the dash, etc. Writing grammatical sentences makes no sense, unless your students know where to put a question mark or a colon or a semi-colon. Some exercises are given below to help you teach such marks to the primary grades.

Activity 1

Below are some of the punctuation marks. Ask your students to speak orally while making these marks in their copies.

- a) Full stop (.)
- b) Comma (,)
- c) Interrogation mark (?)
- d) Exclamation mark (!)
- e) Colon (:)
- f) Semi-colon (;)
- g) Parentheses (())
- h) Dash (—)
- i) Quotation marks (quotes and em quotes) (“ ”)
- j) Hyphen (-)
- k) Apostrophe as in (Ram’s)

Activity 2

Explain to the students in a tabular form (as given below) where to put the following marks. For example —

Punctuation	Where to put	Example
1) Full stop	At the end of an assertive sentence or to write an abbreviation.	Hari is a boy. Road—Rd. Mister—Mr.
2) Comma	To separate a series of words in the same constructon.	He writes essay neatly, quickly and correctly.
3) Interrogation mark	At the end of a sentence in which some question has asked.	Is he coming?
4) Exclamation mark	At the end of a statement showing exclamation.	What a beautiful place!

Activity 3

Students of upper primary level can be asked to rewrite the following paragraph by putting punctuation marks in the appropriate places.

Mohan come here shouted the class teacher inside the class room Mohan could suddenly guess why he is called by the class teacher He stood up and went to the teacher Why did not you come to school yesterday asked the teacher I was ill Sir replied Mohan Why are you lying teacher shouted again Your mother had rung me up and asked whether you were in school or not As I could not find you in the school I replied accordingly to your mother class teacher added I'm sorry sir I promise not to do so in the near future Mohan apologised It's all right You can go now class teacher said

ii) Capitalization and Titles

Students should be taught where to capitalize a letter or a letter of a word and how to write titles. You will experience your students' progress, if you can conduct the following activities in an effective way.

Activity 4

Ask students to write down each sentence at least once in the space given to the right side of the sentence.

- The old-man is walking.
- I am writing with a pencil.
- Shyam gave a book to Madhu.

Activity 5

Ask students to rewrite the following paragraph with capitalization and title in the appropriate place.

“hey-binu! where are you going?” asked raju.” I am just going down to the market”, binu said. “what for?” raju questioned. “I need an exercise copy for mathematics” binu replied. “come with me to my house. I would give you a new one”, raju said.

Clue: Raju and Binu are the names of two persons.

Activity 6

Ask your students to put a cross inside the boxes given against each statement where capitalization is required.

- a) The first letter in a sentence. (.....)
- b) The first letter of any proper noun. (.....)
- c) The first letter of some important words. (.....)
- d) If any title is written, the first letter of the title. (.....)

iii) Abbreviations and Numbers

Students should be made aware of certain abbreviations or short forms of some words which are frequently used in writing. This is done since writing the full form of the word may take more space and time. Also, the abbreviation may be convenient to write. Here are some activities in this connection.

Activity 7

Ask your students to rewrite (and repeat orally) the following abbreviations:

Department - Deptt.

Example - My friend Mohan is doing B.Ed. from the Deptt. of Education, Roorkee University.

Deputy - Dy.

Example - Mr. Ram is working as Dy. Registrar in a university.

District - Distt.

Example - My home town is in Distt. Gulbarga of Karnataka.

Mister - Mr.

Example - Mr. Ashok is Mohan's father.

Remember, students should not be encouraged to use the short form of the words (abbreviations) frequently. Rather they should be encouraged to use abbreviations in some specific cases such as writing something within a limited space or within a limited time.

If a question is asked "How many people died in the road mishap?". Some young students may write "50 people died in the mishap". This type of answer may not be applicable everywhere. It is definitely not done to start a sentence with numerals. Anyone starting a sentence with numerals should be asked to write starting the sentence with words. Example: "Fifty people died in the mishap".

5.4.4 Learning to Spell Correctly

The ability to spell is surely needed by children in order to carry on their school work successfully and as a preparation for their later study and for their adult life.

All elementary schools should give attention to spelling. How well children learn to spell depends primarily upon their attitude toward spelling. When an attitude of concern for correct spelling has been developed, the children will make efforts to spell words correctly. Therefore as an elementary teacher, your main goal in spelling teaching should be to give your pupils both a consciousness of correct spelling and a spelling conscience — a 'kind of compulsion for correct written expression'. In the words of Tomkinson, 'spellings are caught rather than taught'. Attitudes may be improved if you follow the practices given below:

- i) Having the children study only those words which testing has shown them to be unable to spell. This implies a pretest before spelling instruction.
- ii) Regarding spelling as something important for good communication. This regard may be shown by your own correct spelling and your insistence upon correct spelling of words in children's written work.
- iii) Making children individually, and as a class, aware of their progress in learning spelling. This means the keeping of progress charts so that each child may know his and his class's achievement level.
- iv) Teaching no more words in a given period than a child can successfully learn to spell. Repeated failures simply bring on more failures and frustration.
- v) Making sure that the words the children are learning to spell are words that are important to them in their own writing. You should make your students also aware of the importance of these words by making them realise the frequency of their use in the reading material and written work meant for students.

Spellings, it must be remembered, are more a matter of the eye than of the ear. The eye must get used to the details of a word and detect the mistake, if there is any. The ability to detect a mistake by eye comes through familiarity, and familiarity comes through repeated association with words. You, as a teacher, should collect the common mistakes of your pupils and make them familiar with them by constantly writing them on the blackboard and making the pupils practise them in their notebooks. It is a good practice to ask the students to write the mis-spelt words a number of times. But, remember, never write a wrong spelling on the blackboard to inquire which of the two spellings is correct, because the wrong spelling has as much chance of sticking in the memory as the correct one. Every effort should be made that correct habits of spellings are formed and incorrect avoided.

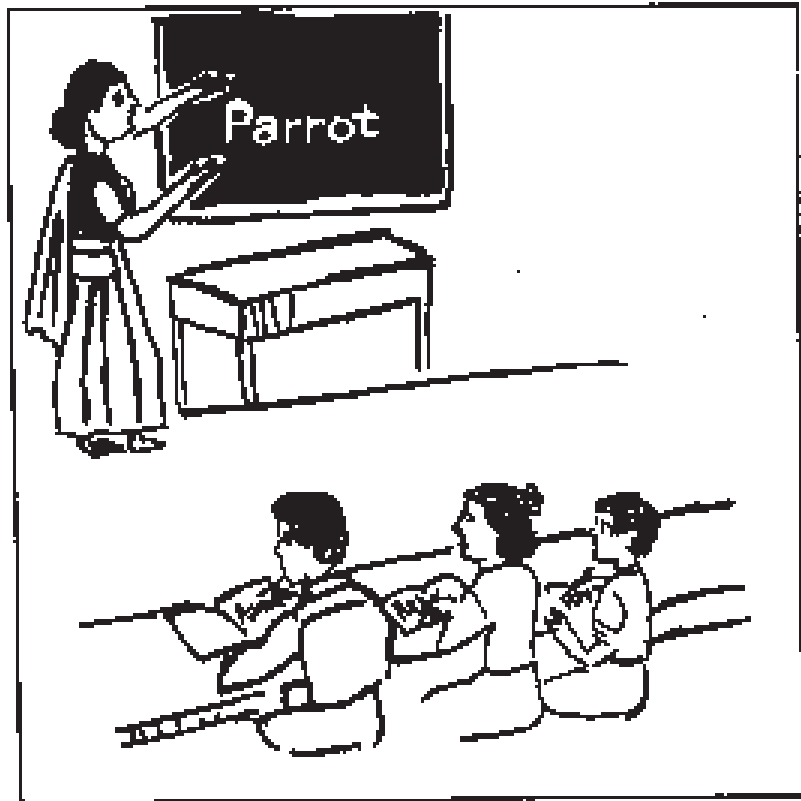


Fig. 5.2: A Teacher is writing 'Parrot' on the Blackboard and the Children are also writing in their Copies

5.4.5 Dictation as a Technique for Developing Writing Skills

Once upon a time, dictation was regarded as a means of improving the spellings of the pupils. It may be true of some schools even now. But now, by and large, it is being accepted that "dictation does not and cannot teach spellings". Dictation nowadays has been regarded as a technique to train pupils to listen carefully, concentrate for the time being and retain what is being spoken and reproduce it in good handwriting at a reasonable speed. Listening to dictation demands concentration on the part of pupils. Besides concentration, it is an exercise in retention and writing neatly and legibly with a good speed.

In dictation, adopting the following procedure would be helpful:

- i) Before dictating a passage, the main idea of the passage should be briefly explained. If the passage is taken from their book, you should point out the story or the lesson from which it is taken. This helps prepare the pupils' minds for what is coming.
- ii) Now read the passage once.
- iii) Write the difficult words on the blackboard. Allow pupils to look carefully at them for two to three minutes before you rub them out. In case of classes

I and II where, instead of a passage, vowels and consonants and words are to be dictated, you should write the letters and words on the blackboard. Ask the students to observe them carefully and then remove them from the board and dictate. The purpose is to help them remember the letter formations.

- iv) While dictating a passage you should carefully group the words you are going to speak at one time. These words should be neither too few nor too many in number. They should be spoken once or at the most twice with small children. The habit of repeating them several times should be avoided. One purpose is to train the children to listen carefully.
- v) In the end, read the passage/words once again so that any omissions that there might have been may be made good.

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this block.

2. Write down four major activities that are meant for developing writing skills.

i)

.....

ii)

.....

iii)

.....

iv)

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3. Write down one sentence each where the interrogation mark and the exclamation mark are to be used.

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.....

5.5 WRITTEN COMPOSITION

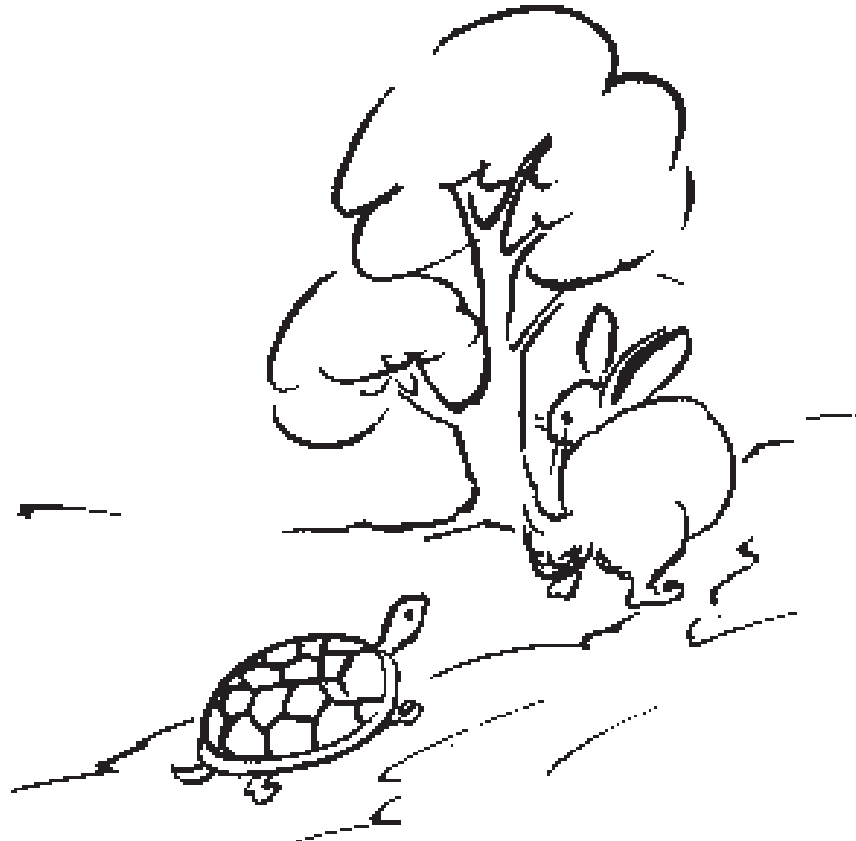
Written composition includes paragraphing, story writing, comprehension, essay writing, letter writing and dialogue writing. When we talk about developing students' ability for written composition, we essentially focus on their ability to write a paragraph or a story, comprehend ideas, and write an essay, letter or dialogues in the elementary grades. As such it is desirable that you should help your students to develop their ability in all these areas of written composition. Of course, as in other activities, there are linkages among the activities that are meant for developing students' ability for any type of written composition.

5.5.1 Paragraphing

In a paragraph, students are expected to write a few sentences which would introduce the subject matter, then the supportive details, i.e., more ideas or information to be written and finally a few sentences must be written to conclude the paragraph. You can start paragraph writing by showing a picture to your students and asking them to write a paragraph on the picture. Students can be asked to write paragraphs on parents, friends and the class-teacher. In upper primary classes, children can be asked to write paragraphs on the places they have seen. If you ever go with your students to any place on a trip or tour, ask them to write a paragraph about the place on the spot. Some such activities are discussed below.

Activity 8

Ask your students to write a paragraph on the picture shown below:



Activity 9

Ask your students to write a paragraph about their mother, father, the postman, and animals (e.g. the cow, the goat, the cat, pet dogs).

5.5.2 Story

A story essentially talks about a person, things, places, personalities etc. Students may vary from one another in writing a story but there must be unity and order among the paragraphs of the story written.

In story writing, the students' previous knowledge plays a major role. Whenever we write a story, we essentially think of our own knowledge and experience of the particular story; then we select the ideas and put them in the form of a few paragraphs. Hence, when you ask your students to write a story, check whether the topic (on which you have asked them to write) is familiar to them. In the language learning classes, our main focus is on the achievement of competence among the learners. If you have chosen a topic like "Village Life" for your students then those who have come from an urban background may not be able to depict a real picture of village life in comparison to the students with a

rural background. Students who are able to write might have seen or read from books about village life. So, whatever they have written, you have to check whether they have come up with valid information about village life and how they have maintained unity and order and how realistic their stories are.

5.5.3 Comprehension of Written Material

Another aspect of composition concerns comprehension of something written. To develop students' ability to comprehend a given paragraph is one of the writing skills.

A comprehension exercise consists of a passage on which a few questions are asked. Comprehension exercises are designed to assess students' ability to understand the content of a passage to infer information from the passage and to write the answers. Hence it is a common activity for developing both reading and writing skills. In writing comprehension, students essentially read the given passage and then answer. It is of equal importance to both the skills of reading and writing skills.

Students in these type of activities generally copy the lines or statements as it is from the given passage. But once they are able to make out the meaning from a text it will not be a problem for them to write the answers on their own instead of simply copying from the passage. Encourage your students to answer in their own words.

Before you start with written comprehension exercises among your students, check whether they are able to:

- i) construct grammatical sentences;
- ii) put punctuation marks in the appropriate place;
- iii) infer information or ideas from a text;
- iv) write answers on their own; and
- v) write answers in their own language (they must not copy the language written in the passage or text).

You are well aware with the comprehension exercises at the elementary grade. What we do in comprehension activities is we generally select a few interesting passages and ask students to read them one by one and write answers to the questions. We also consider the complexity level of the text in comparison with the level of the students. At the elementary level you should select those passages which are very easy to understand as well as familiar to the students. Initially you should start by giving simple texts to read and asking students to answer questions related to "who", "when", "what" and "where".

We have discussed an activity below for written comprehension, where you have to see the differences in terms of answers.

Activity 10

Ask students to read the passage given below and answer the questions that follow:

Passage

“Amar saw a snake on the road while he was going to school. He was about to reach market. Oh! “This snake is coming towards me and it is a wild cobra”, Amar thought. He turned back and started running. Mohammed was coming with his bullock-cart loaded with sand from the Salandi river. “Hey, Amar! why are you running?”

Mohammed asked, “There is a snake running behind me, I am afraid of it”, Amar replied.

“Come up and sit on my cart; I will help you reach your school”, Mohammed said. Amar was late in reaching the school that day.

Set A

- Q.1 Who saw the snake?
- Q.2 What did Amar see on the road?
- Q.3 Who was coming in his bullock-cart?
- Q.4 What is the name of the river?
- Q.5 What is the name of the snake?

Set B

- Q.1 Why was Amar late in reaching school that day?

OR

How did Mohammed help Amar reach school?

OR

What did Amar do when he saw a snake on the road?

Students’ answer on both sets of questions will definitely vary. And it is much easier for the students to answer set-A questions because these questions do not demand long answers like Set-B questions.

5.5.4 Essay

Essay writing is also a written composition activity where students are to express their personal ideas and opinions on a given topic.

As we have discussed earlier the skills are interrelated. You can guess this from the fact that those students who cannot write a paragraph will not be able to write an essay.

Developing students’ ability to write an essay emphasizes first of all their thinking ability. How well do your students think, how well they recall the related pieces of information, and how well do they organise their thoughts and information and express them are some of the aspects to be given importance while guiding your students to write an essay on a given topic.

At the primary stage, when you select topics on which you expect your students to write an essay, you must be sure that the topic is :

- i) known or familiar to the students;
- ii) related to their common life experiences;
- iii) being seen, observed, or felt by the students;
- iv) being read somewhere; and
- v) interesting for students.

5.5.5 Letter

By and large all of us agree that the most important written language activity anyone of us engages in is letter writing. At some time or the other everyone needs to write informal or formal letters. You, as a teacher, must teach your students how to write a letter. Initially they are to be taught how to write a letter to a friend, the parents, the teachers, the relatives etc. Later on they may be given training in writing formal letters.

A letter can be written in various ways, but there are some standard norms on the basis of which we can say it is a letter. These norms are discussed below:

i) Writing the Heading

The Heading of a letter provides the information almost “the place” and “the date”. Heading is generally written at the top right corner of the paper. It should be well punctuated, so that the reader can understand the address. A written format of a heading is given below:

Dr. Neha Mathur	B-35, Kailash Colony New Delhi -110048. September 17, 1997
-----------------	--

Dear Prof. Gautam,

This is to inform you that a meeting is being convened on September 28, 1997 at 11.30 a.m. to finalise the format of Self-Instructional Material for distance learners. The venue will be the Conference Room. It is therefore requested to confirm your participation in this meeting.

With regards.

Yours sincerely,

(Neha Mathur)

Prof. Y. S. Gautam
A-99, Azad Apartments
I.I.T. Gate
New Delhi.

ii) How to Address

When we write a letter to somebody we must call him/her “something” in a written form.

- a) Letters to family members should be addressed like
- Dear Father/My dear Father
 - Dear Mother/My dear Mother
 - Dear Uncle
- b) Letters to your friends should be addressed like
- Dear Madhu
 - Dear Shri Mohan
 - Dear Shri Das
 - Dear Padmini

c) Letters to teachers

- Dear Sir

iii) How to End a Letter

A letter must not be ended just by writing the writer's name, rather it should be ended in one of the following manners:

- Yours affectionately (to parents and elder relatives)
- Your affectionate friend, Your sincere friend
- Yours truly, Truly yours, Yours very truly
- Yours sincerely. Sincerely yours
- Yours faithfully.

5.5.6 Dialogue

A dialogue means talk between two persons. At the primary stage, students should be guided to practise dialogue writing because it is one of the interesting strategies to develop written composition capability. You can help your students write dialogues on the basis of some such activities.

Activity 11

Ask students to rewrite the following sentences.

- Mother said, "Drink the milk".
- Father said, "Do not jump like that".
- Hari said, "My father is at Bangalore".

Activity 12

Ask students to write the following instructions by adding "Teacher said" at the beginning. For example: Teacher said, "Keep your house clean".

- Keep your dress clean.
- Keep your teeth clean.
- Cross the road safely.
- Do not laugh at blind people.

Activity 13

Ask two students to stand in front of the whole class and prompt them to say the following dialogues. At the end ask your students to write the statements made by both of them.

A Dialogue

Rahul — Hello, Pooja! Where are you coming from?

Pooja — Hello, Rahul ! I'm getting back from market.

Rahul — What's that Pooja!

Pooja — Where?

Rahul — In your left hand.

Pooja — Oh! It's a pencil.

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this block.

4. Write four topics on which you may ask your students to write stories.

i)

ii)

iii)

iv)

5. Read the following statements carefully. Put a (√) mark against the statement you think is correct and a (×) mark against the one you think incorrect.

i) In paragraph writing students need not write sentences while concluding the paragraph.

ii) In story writing students' previous knowledge plays a major role.

iii) There is no linkage among the activities that are meant for developing students' ability in written composition.

iv) At the end of a letter it is enough to write just the name of the writer.

5.6 CORRECTION WORK AND EVALUATION

The correction of written work is a major problem that a teacher faces. Being a teacher you cannot avoid it, rather you should try to check as much as you can. Some of the solutions have been discussed below:

- i) One solution would be to ask the learners to exchange note-books. This would serve very well, where the exercise requires something like filling in the blanks, dictation or a spelling exercise, or is based on usage.
- ii) The learners can work in groups. Cooperative activity with guidance from the teacher encourages students to do their best. The weaker learners are assisted by their more advanced colleagues. There are also fewer note books to be corrected.
- iii) Free composition and letter writing require individual correction, but the amount of correction work required will be significantly reduced if these are introduced to them in a phased manner and are preceded by oral work.
- iv) All written work whether guided or free must be preceded by oral drilling. This will help the writer to be clear in his mind about what he wants to write and how he is going to arrange his matter.

Traditional or routine methods of evaluation take a great deal of time and, as a result, teachers are hesitant to assign written work. This of course only compounds the problem, because no one can learn to write without writing.

There are, however, certain ways in which correction of written work can not only be simplified but made more effective.

- Our primary focus in evaluating written work should not be the detection and correction of errors alone. Of course mistakes should not be ignored

entirely, but if we point out how a piece of writing is defective, we should also point out where the writer has been successful.

- In a real life situation, even good writers examine, evaluate and improve their own written work. It is important, therefore, to train students to identify and correct their own mistakes. It is also helpful to make students work in groups or pairs, so that they can discuss what they are writing.
- Students can be trained to diagnose and correct their own mistakes by gradual stages. To help them, the teacher can follow this procedure.
 - a) Underline the mistake and mention what it is.
 - b) Underline the mistake and let them work out what is wrong.
 - c) Mention in the margin that there is a mistake but do not point it out.
 - d) Put a cross in the margin for each mistake.
- You should, however, correct the mistakes that the students cannot correct for themselves.
- A mistake should not only be corrected but explained also. Explain a mistake.
- Use the mistake as a basis for remedial teaching.

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Write your answer in the space given below.

b) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this block.

6. Complete the following incomplete statements. The first one has been done for you as an example.

i) Although correction of written work is a major problem, **it must not be avoided.**

ii) One solution would be to ask learners

iii) Learners can work in groups where

iv) Free composition and letter writing are to be introduced in a phased manner to

v) All written work whether guided or free must be

vi) Traditional or routine methods of evaluation

vii) Our primary focus in evaluating written work should not be

.....

.....

5.7 LET US SUM UP

We have discussed, in brief, the importance of writing skills and writing readiness, different activities for developing writing skills, written composition, and correction work and evaluation in writing at elementary grade. While discussing different activities for developing writing skills among the elementary grade students, activities that are meant for correct letter formation, copying the letters, words, etc., developing a neat and legible handwriting, learning to spell correctly and use of dictation were discussed. Under written composition activities on paragraph writing, story writing, essay writing have also been discussed. Being a teacher, how you can solve your day-to-day problem of correcting students written work had also been attended to by giving some solutions.

5.8 UNIT-END EXERCISES

1. What do you mean by writing readiness?
2. Why is it important to teach the writing skills?
3. What activities you should conduct among the students for developing writing skills?
4. What guidance will you give learners in Class IV, who are writing a paragraph on “My Summer Holidays”?
5. How can you help students develop written composition?
6. Write down the ways on which you make correction work?

ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Unit 3

1. a) Listening, (b) beginning, (c) simple, complex, (d) what
2. a) The difference between speaking and reading aloud is that in reading aloud we use a written or printed page but while speaking we do not use these.
 - b) Features common to both speaking and reading aloud are:
 - i) stress on words;
 - ii) intonation; and
 - iii) voice-change or modulation.
 - c) What a beautiful flower!
 - d) The difference between the two sentences is that while one is simply making a statement, the other one is in question form that requires a statement as an answer.

3. Students should need to know the following things in order to speak a standard form of language:
 - i) pronounce the sounds of the language correctly;
 - ii) make the necessary distinction between similar sounds in their own language and those in the language they are learning; and
 - iii) prevent sounds and intonation patterns of their own language interfering with the sounds and intonation patterns of the language they are learning.
4.
 - i) tool, cool, school
 - ii) cat, rat, sat
 - iii) would, should
5.
 - i) put
 - ii) poor
 - iii) care

Unit 4

1. The child should be able to differentiate between the shapes and formations and also between the sounds of alphabets. The child must also be able to relate each sound with the appropriate alphabet and must have a fair vocabulary in the standard language.
2.
 - a) Forming of Auditory Images
 - b) Associating Ideas with the Auditory Images
 - c) Combining the unit ideas into a group
 - d) Grouping of words.
3. Reading aloud is very effective in improving the subskills of pronunciation, enunciation, intonation and reading with expression.
4. Intonation indicates the musical element in the language because each language has a musical quality of its own.
5. In silent reading, the whole attention is concentrated on comprehending the meaning and so there is no division of attention. It enables the reader to give his entire attention to meaning, resulting in a better assimilation of the information.
6. After silent reading of a particular paragraph, you may test what the students have learnt through questioning. But the questions should be such that they cannot be answered in the words of the book.
7. When you give a map to a learner to observe it and ask questions about places and locations, he will identify and name them. This will help them to develop their vocabulary.
8.
 - i) The habit of pointing at the word with a finger or pencil.
 - ii) The habit of moving the head from one side to other.
 - iii) Going back repeatedly to the beginning of the sentence, etc.
9. By making the learners aware of these defects and giving them plenty of correct reading practice.

10. The ability to identify and recall facts without which the reading passage will not make sense.
11. The ability to draw inferences or conclusions from the given matter. You can select any story from your region.
12. In intensive reading, the first step is to identify the difficult words and their meanings; Exercises can be given to reinforce the vocabulary learnt. Also the same passage can be used to teach some language items. After silent reading, questions may be asked to test their comprehension. But in extensive reading, there is no language or vocabulary reading because the purpose of extensive reading is reading for pleasure.

Unit 5

1. (i) b. (ii) a. (iii) c. (iv) a.
2. i) Learning to write letters.
ii) Developing neat and legible handwriting.
iii) Learning to spell correctly.
iv) Mechanical elements of writing.
3. Interrogation mark —
i) What is your name?
ii) Where are you going?
Exclamation mark —
i) What a lovely day!
ii) Hurray! We have won the match.
4. i) Faithfulness ii) Hardwork iii) Equality iv) Unity
5. i) (×), ii) (√) iii) (√) iv) (×)
6. ii) to exchange their note book.
iii) weaker learners are to be assisted by their more advanced colleagues.
iv) reduce the burden of individual correction.
v) preceded by oral drilling.
vi) take a great deal of time.
vii) detection and correction of errors alone.

UNIT 1 LANGUAGE VARIATION - THE CONTEXT OF SITUATION

Structure

- 1.0 Objectives
- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 What is Language?
- 1.3 Language Variation
 - 1.3.1 Dialect
 - 1.3.2 Style
- 1.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 1.5 Key Words
- 1.6 Questions
- 1.7 Reading List

1.0 OBJECTIVES

Our aim in this Unit is to make you understand the field of stylistics in terms of fundamental questions, such as

- 1) What is language?
- 2) The nature of language variation: dialect, style, register.

In other words, we are placing **stylistics** in the context of the situation

1.1 INTRODUCTION

What is stylistics? It is a study of languages used for a particular purpose, generally for a literary purpose, though it is of course possible to do a stylistic analysis of the language used in advertising, or even in casual conversation. Stylistics is an attempt to characterise the nature of the linguistic features occurring in a particular piece of text (whether spoken or written, though usually the implication is written text). A piece of writing is distinguished from other pieces of writing, not only because of its content, or what it is trying to say, but by how it is said, that is, by the choice of linguistic features, and how these are arranged in the text. Stylistics is concerned with analysing the choice of linguistic features and their arrangement in the text.

But before we embark on a study of stylistics, it is important to begin right at the beginning with the fundamental questions: **What is language?** A lot of what is discussed in this unit will be repetitive – but it is essential to our discussion, and will help you understand the concepts better.

1.2 WHAT IS LANGUAGE?

The concept of what language is has to be closely linked with what it means to know a language. Knowledge of a language, or language proficiency can be thought of in terms of the distinction between 'competence' and 'performance' made by Chomsky. Competence relates to the potential for language ability that the child is born with and

which matures with age. Performance is the expression of this language ability in actual speech and writing.

Competence, being concerned in essence with the ability on the part of the child to produce language as such, is thus, when the competence is narrowed to the knowledge of one specific language, further narrowed down to the representative forms of that language, namely, the standard dialect, or the standard version of the language. Thus, knowledge of the language is knowledge of its standard version. This version is what is codified in dictionaries and grammar books, and is the form used for wider communication.

Secondly, the notion of competence is basically linked with knowledge of syntax, in syntax is the backbone of language. The realm of syntax is the simple sentence, within which operate all the aspects of syntax. The relationship of one sentence to another, to the paragraph in which it occurs, and the total text of which it is a part is not the concern of syntax.

Thirdly, competence relates to **potential for use**, not use itself. Thus, it leaves out of consideration a major aspect of language in use, namely, the use of language in context. Since the only form of language that language users know is language in context, any theory of language which ignores this aspect of language in use cannot be entirely satisfactory.

Shortly after the Chomskyan revolution, sociolinguists like Gumperz, Ferguson, Fishman and so on, became aware that merely the theory of language without the use of that language was not of much value, and hence they insisted that at the very least, any notion of language must include i) non-standard forms of the language, ii) the linguistic context in which it appears and, iii) the speech context in which it is used. Thus language was made to move out of its ivory tower of the isolated sentence into the huffy burly of life in the marketplace. Speech and writing, as they actually occur in their linguistic and sociolinguistic context, and in the dialect / style' register in which they occur was now to be considered language. Control of all these aspects was considered to give rise to 'communicative competence'. Thus, there is a marked distinction between the concepts of 'competence' (linguistic; sentence-based; based on standard variety of language) and 'communicative competence' (sociolinguistic; text- and context-based; based on different varieties of the language).

1.3 LANGUAGE VARIATION

What are these different varieties of individual languages?

Linguistic conventions develop in different social groups, and these serve to separate one language from another. But, over the years, as social groups migrate and change their cultural characteristics, the language spoken submits to change and variation. Linguistic change can also be of another kind - language variation down the centuries. This variation can be 'synchronic' (variation within one time period, in terms of region, class or caste) or 'diachronic' (variation due to time factors).

We are aware of the **diachronic variations** of English. For example, the English used by Chaucer differs radically from that used by Milton and both these are different from that of T.S. Eliot. However, many of us are not aware of **synchronic variation**. Look at the following specimens, all of twentieth century English:

1. "Not me," Lump says, "Judge told me ef I get caught swippin' ady more stuff out'n stores, he'd send me to state's prison sure 'nough" (an uncodified American dialect)

2. Dickie: 'I'm on mother's side. The old boy's so doddery now he can hardly finish the course at all. I timed him today. It took him seventy-five seconds dead from a flying start to reach the pulpit, and he needed the whip coming round the head-----'

(Dickie, an adolescent (hence the slang) in Terence Rattigan's play 'The Winslow Boy')

3. Let us propose, then, as a tentative hypothesis, that a great many items appear in the lexicon with fixed selection and subcategorization features, but with a choice as to the features associated with the lexical categories noun, verb, adjective. (Chomsky: technical writing in Linguistics)
4. There the smoke of the camp was redolent with the scent of burning gum leaves, there was the splash of the lizard taking to its water, the twittering birds in the trees. (literary prose)

All the above are samples of twentieth century writing, yet they vary considerably in terms of the social class of the speaker, his age, the region he comes from, and the type of register he is using, whether literary, technical or otherwise. **These distinctions involve synchronic variation**, which is of three kinds: variation of Dialect, Style, and Register.

1.3.1 Dialect

Dialects may be i) regional or ii) social class/ caste varieties of a language. British and American English are regional dialectal varieties, just as within Britain, also, there are numerous dialects of English- the Lancashire dialect, the Scottish dialect, the Yorkshire variety and so on. The flower girl in Shaw's *Pygmalion*, for example, uses the Cockney dialect:

"There's manners f'yer? Teoo bunches of voylets red into the mad"

Dialectal differences may be phonological, morphological, syntactic or lexical in nature. For example, a feature of the phonological difference between General American English and British R. P. (Received Pronunciation) is the vowel sound in the words 'last' and 'dance' in the two dialects as shown below.

	British R.P.	American English
Pronunciation difference		
last	/lɑ:st/	/læst/
dance	/dɑ:ns/	/dæns/
Syntactic difference:	different from I'll meet them	different than I'll meet up with them
Lexical difference:	petrol	gas
Morphological difference:	dived	dove

Idiolect

We are aware of how any two speakers will differ in their use of English with respect to points of syntax, phonology or vocabulary. For example, some speakers may pronounce 'uncle' as /ʌŋkl/, others may say /ʌŋkəl/ or /ʌŋkil/. One speaker may use 'you know' in each sentence, while another might say, 'See what I mean?', or perhaps no filler at all. The term 'idiolect' is used to indicate the dialect of one person.

Such differences in phonology, morphology, syntax as they occur in the dialect of specific geographical regions may be marked by what are called dialect boundaries.

Thus in an imaginary state in India where some people use the word 'sigri' for stove and others call it 'sigli', the map may indicate the dialect boundary as follows (where 'x' indicates the use of 'sigri' and 'o' indicates the use of 'sigli'):

Isogloss

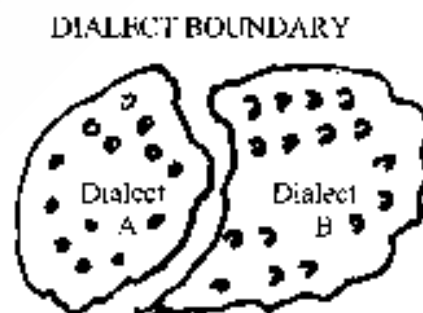
The boundary-line which demarcates the 'sigri' area from the 'sigli' area would be called an 'isogloss'. An isogloss is an imaginary line which divides two areas which differ in the use of a linguistic item.

We can draw a number of isoglosses in a similar fashion indicating other differences, e.g. an initial /s/ and an initial /sh/ in the same word or a terminal /r/ or terminal /c/ in the same word. The isoglosses need not coincide and the map would show a criss-cross of isoglosses as follows:



Bundling of isoglosses

Somewhere in the middle, a number of isoglosses tend to come together. Such a grouping of isoglosses is referred to as 'bundling'. Such a bundling of isoglosses is generally considered as a dialect boundary, as shown below:



Dialects and Languages

What are the criteria by which we may identify dialects of the same language or distinguish one language as different from another? Why do we say that Bhojपुरi and Avadhi are dialects of Hindi and that Punjabi and Hindi are two different languages?

The concept of **mutual intelligibility** is a partial answer. If two speakers of different dialects are mutually intelligible to each other in their day to day communication, then they are speaking the same language. However, this is not a totally valid criterion. Two languages like Hindi and Punjabi may be so closely related that there is bound to be some mutual intelligibility between speakers of the two languages. On the other hand, speakers of two dialects of the same language may not be mutually intelligible as happens in the case of some varieties of Chinese (e.g. Pekingese and Cantonese), as also of Konkani and Marathi.

A dialect is raised to the status of a language through non-linguistic considerations: it gains separate status when it becomes politically and socially powerful.

The Context of
Situation

Haugen (1966) indicates two clearly distinct dimensions involved in the understanding of the terms 'language' and 'dialect': structural and functional dimensions.

The **structural** dimension is descriptive, analysing the structure of languages: the **functional** is concerned with the use the speakers make of the codes, and this falls within the domain of the sociolinguist. In the modern world, says Haugen, "technological and political revolutions have brought Everyman the opportunity to participate in political decisions to his advantage. The invention of printing, the rise of industry and the spread of popular education have brought into being the modern nation-state, which extends some of the loyalties of the family and the neighbourhood or the clan to the whole state. Nation and language have become inextricably intertwined. Every self-respecting nation has to have a language, not just a 'vernacular' or a 'dialect' as a medium of communication, but a fully developed language. Anything less marks it as underdeveloped." Haugen goes on to say that he would rather call underdeveloped languages 'vernaculars' and not 'dialects', because dialects are viable linguistic codes, which are language varieties in their own right, and not at all underdeveloped.

It is, in any case, important to remember that all dialects of a language are equally efficient for purposes of the communication for which they are intended. The dialect which becomes 'prestigious', because it is used by the political leaders and the upper socio-economic classes, becomes the medium of instruction, is used by the press, and for purposes of national communication. Such a dominant dialect can be called the **standard dialect**. However, it is in no way superior to the other dialects, which though non-standard, are not sub-standard in any way. In a village, it might be more appropriate to use the regional variety if one wants to mingle with the people on terms of equality. One of the reasons why the Indian family planning propaganda has failed so miserably in the villages is that speeches are usually made in very stilted, formal language of the standard dialect variety. The regional variety is what would have been appropriate here. For one thing it would have been understood.

Accent

This refers to the peculiarities of pronunciation used by the speaker, or to phonological variations in dialect. Thus, English may be spoken with a British, American or Bengali accent. The standard British accent is known as Received Pronunciation (R.P.). An Indian may speak English with a regional Indian accent or use what has come to be codified as General Indian English (G.I.E.) by Bansal (1969), with pronunciation differences as shown in the examples below:

Word	R.P.	G.I.E.
gate	/geɪt/	/gɛ:t/
home	/həʊm/	/hɔ:m/

1.3.2 Style

Dialectal variation, as we have seen, is governed by differences in social class and region. But linguistic variation can also arise because of the nature of the **speech context** or **social situation**. This type of variation is called 'style'. The same individual has the ability to use different stylistic varieties of the language depending on his/her purpose, or the situation in which it is to be used. Talking to your wife or a friend will be different from talking to your boss. Thus there are formal and informal

the Casual, to the Consultative (Informal), then Formal, and finally Frozen. The more formal the style, the less possibility there is of variation. The extreme of formality is 'frozen' style (e.g. 'Smoking is prohibited'; 'Trespassers will be prosecuted') where the expression is fixed by convention. From the informal to the intimate range, there is scope for considerable variation. We are not required to mind our words so much when speaking informally.

An example of a statement worked through the various styles will make the distinctions clear.

Frozen: Visitors should use the two exits at the rear on their way out.

Formal: Visitors should leave by the exits at the rear.

Consultative: Would you mind leaving by the exits at the rear?

Casual: You could leave by the doors at the back.

Intimate: Out you go by the back door!

Style is required to be appropriate to the speech situation in which the interaction takes place. Various factors are at work to create a speech situation. Firstly, there are the participants in an interaction. The relationship between the participants is of importance. Are they equal in status, or is one considered superior and the other inferior, whether in terms of age, sex, or social status. It may even be that, in the given situation, one person has the upper hand. This factor will affect the language used by the 'superior' and the 'inferior' individuals.

In some situations, the difference is not just of style, but even of dialect or, perhaps, a different language altogether may be required to be spoken by the person perceived as 'lower'. Lower castes, for example, were not allowed to use the upper caste dialect in interacting with the upper caste. They were supposed to indicate their inferiority by using the lower caste dialect. Even if the lower caste person had studied in the city and used the upper caste dialect with facility, on his return to the village, he was expected to return to his old position and signal this by the linguistic code he used. Thus, the distinction between style and dialect is not always clear. It gets blurred in actual contexts of use, where, particularly in multilingual societies, change in style is expressed through change of dialect.

The style of language employed would differ inevitably if a large group was being addressed, or if it was only one or two people. Interaction, moreover, can take place between a person and an unknown group, or a group that is not even present, for example, the readers of a newspaper. Here, again, the style would differ considerably from personal communication, even in writing.

Again, there might be age-based differences in certain cultures and sex-based differences. A younger person might be expected to be more polite than the older one. Similarly, a female, regardless of age, might be expected to be more polite to a male, or *vice versa*. Recorded conversations or dialogue in novels or plays can provide useful data for study in this regard. Norms of politeness are culture-specific, and emerge clearly in interaction situations.

If the expectations of appropriateness of language vary between the two participants in an interaction situation, then tension can arise. This can be observed in both real life and literary uses of language. Lack of appropriateness can lead to rudeness, whether intended or otherwise. It can also lead to lack of comprehension, when one participant assumes some background knowledge on the part of the other, and this does not actually exist. The presuppositions that are expected are missing. Shared

background knowledge and conventions of what requires to be specified in speech are culturally conditioned.

The second important factor relates to time and place. When and where does the interaction occur? Words used at dead of night might take on a different meaning from the same words spoken in broad daylight. Similarly there are occasions for saying things and changes in venue can affect meaning. Court room discourse, when the lawyer is addressing the judge, necessarily makes different demands on the speaker from a casual conversation in the corridor regarding the same matter, and carries a different associative meaning.

Thirdly, the nature of the topic that is being discussed can affect the type of language used. If it requires intellectual discussion, the style may become formal, but if household matters are being discussed, the style may be casual. A different dialect or even a different language may even be used in these circumstances. In India, many people discuss ideas in English, and household matters in their mother tongue. Certainly, there would be a change in the linguistic style, even if dialect or language change was not used to indicate the change in style.

The medium of the discourse, that is, whether speech or writing, can also determine style. A personal letter will be different from a face-to-face interaction, even though the participants and the topic remain the same. Writing does introduce a greater degree of formality than speech. Style varies also according to the mode of the interaction, e.g. telephone conversations, radio and television shows. In the last two modes, the style may again vary depending on whether the show is a newscast, a chat-show, a documentary or a pot-boiler. In the written mode, telegraphic messages, personal/business letters, newspaper articles or scientific treatises will all use different stylistic varieties of the language.

Register

Register refers to linguistic variation determined by subject matter, e.g. scientific writing is a register which is distinguished by the increased use of the passive voice, formulae, technical terminology, etc. For example:

"Neuraminic acid in the form of its alkali-stable methoxy derivative was first isolated by Klenk from gangliosides and more recently from bovine sub-maxillary gland mucin and from a urine mucus-protein, its composition being C₁₂H₁₈NO₈ or perhaps C₁₂N₂NO₈."

Again, the peculiarity of a piling up of adjectives, strings of propositional phrases, and relative clauses, even though the information so conveyed is frequently not properly relevant to the rest of the discourse, is common to the register of Journalism. For example:

"Mr. John William Alloway, a 46-year old plumber, his wife, Florence, aged 33, and their 15 year old son John, escaped unhurt in their nightclothes after a fire broke out at their 200 year old home, Rose Hill Cottage, at Gallows Hill, King's Langley, Herts."

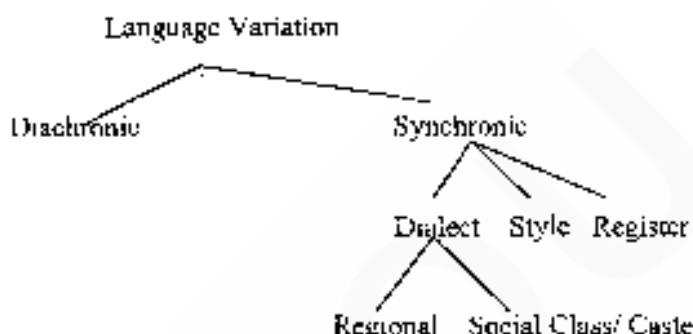
Literary register, on the other hand, is distinguished by its "precision and elegance", to use Quirk's compact phrase, its ability to depict a situation through language that reflects it accurately.

1.4 LET US SUM UP

1. Language can be thought of as a set of linguistic patterns or structures. The field of the operations of linguistics is the simple sentence, isolated from the context in which it occurs. It is also the study of the 'ideal' language, i.e. the

standard version of the language. This is the Chomskyan view of language. The development of sociolinguistics led to an alternative view that is very different. This is that language is basically text- and context-based, and takes account of language variation.

- Language structure tends to change or introduce variations over time and across space, i.e. both diachronically and synchronically, in response to changing social needs. Language variation may be represented diagrammatically as follows:



- 'Style' is conditioned by the following components of the speech situation:
 - The nature of the participants
 - Time, place of interaction
 - Topic of conversation
 - Medium, mode of communication

1.5 KEYWORDS

Competence:	an abstract idealization of a speaker's knowledge of his/her language, excluding such factors as slips of tongue, memory limitations and distraction.
Performance:	The actual linguistic behaviour of particular individuals on particular occasions, including any hesitations, memory lapses, slips of the tongue, etc.
Communicative Competence:	The ability to use a language appropriately in social situations.
Accent:	a particular way of pronouncing a language.
Style:	any particular and somewhat distinctive way of using a language.

1.6 QUESTIONS

Answer briefly in about 50 to 100 words:

- What is meant by 'competence' and 'performance'?
- What are the three ways in which linguistic competence is characterised?

- (3) What is 'communicative competence'? What are the three ways in which it is a break away from the notion of competence? Why is this concept important?
- (4) What are the two kinds of language variation? Exemplify these.
- (5) Explain briefly how a dialect boundary is determined.
- (6) Distinguish between dialect and language. How does a dialect achieve the status of 'language'? Explain briefly.
- (7) What is meant by 'non-standard' dialect? How does it relate to a 'standard' dialect?
- (8) What are the three main types of synchronic variation? Define them briefly.

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UNIT 1 LANGUAGE LEARNING AND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Structure

- 1.0 Objectives
- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 What is Language Learning?
- 1.3 What is Language Acquisition?
- 1.4 The Process of Language Development
- 1.5 Vygotsky and Language Acquisition
- 1.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 1.7 Suggested Readings
- 1.8 Answers

1.0 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit you should be able to:

- Identify the different ways in which learners learn and acquire language;
- Explain how language learning takes place and how language develops and grows in stages; and
- understand the major theories of language learning and development.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

For quite a long time our understanding of language teaching-learning did not regard learning of language from the learners' point of view. It was assumed that the teacher teaches and the learner learns. Whatever the teacher 'gives' to the learner, the learner takes in, and then produces it as language output. It was largely during the twentieth century, with the growth of research in areas of psychology, linguistics and also the biological sciences, insights into language learning grew to create a progressively better understanding both of the nature of language itself and the nature of learning.

In the course of this unit we will look first at views on learning and subsequently the views on acquisition, culminating in ideas on language development. We will refer to the major scholars who have researched in the area.

1.2 WHAT IS LANGUAGE LEARNING?

Acquisition happens as a natural process, learning in an instructed more formal situation. One way of approaching this question is to equate language learning with all other kinds of learning. Learning anything can be regarded as a change in the behaviour pattern, so that a human being can do something, whether it is to walk, or ride a bicycle, or tie shoe-laces, or speak. As the need to

communicate with others is a very basic need for every person, learning how to speak a language is a crucial form of behaviour for humans. And understanding how humans learn language is easier when we observe behaviour rather than inner states of mind or attitudes which we can't observe.

Environment plays a very important role in influencing all kinds of behaviour, whether verbal or non-verbal. The sense-organs of humans and animals are tuned to receiving many kinds of stimulus from the outer world. These lead to responses, which may sometimes be involuntary, such as a reflex action, (like salivation at the sight of food, or knee jerking, or blinking) or it may be voluntary — that is, the organism responds consciously. There is a connection between the sense organs. A baby watches the way the mother's lips move to utter a sound and hears the sound. It moves its lips in the same way to utter the same sound. Basic imitation thus becomes a form of learning. Then the same sound is heard with the same movement and repeated again and again. In this way, the behaviour is reinforced. This forms an observable and predictable behaviour pattern. From the very beginning, a set of habits is formed. When many sounds are heard and repeated, they form set of speech sounds that are the first steps in language learning.

Patterns of **stimulus-response** (also represented as the equation $S>R$) form the basis of the explanation of learning that has been given by the school of Behaviourist psychology.

Learning as Conditioning

Classical Conditioning: The Russian psychologist, Pavlov, was the first to formulate conditioned response (or CR) principle. This principle stems from the possibility of exploiting natural tendencies of an organism to respond in specific ways to stimuli, a stimulus being anything which elicits or calls forth a response of observable behaviour. Salivating of the dog at the sight of food, jerking of the knee in response to a tap below the knee, blinking in response to a flash of light, are all natural reflexes or responses present without prior learning. These are referred to as unconditioned reflexes (UR) in the sense that they are inborn or spontaneous.

According to the classical conditioning theory, if a second stimulus is frequently presented just before or simultaneously with the unconditioned stimulus, then this second stimulus presently comes to elicit the same response. This second stimulus is then referred to as a conditioned stimulus (CS), in the sense that the organism's reaction to it has to be conditioned or learned.

In the now famous Pavlovian experiments, a dog was presented food and it responded by salivating (UR). Then each time that the food was presented a bell was sounded (CS). Eventually the bell elicited the response of salivation. Diagrammatically this can be represented like this:

STIMULUS	RESPONSE
FOOD (UNCONDITIONED)	SALIVATION
FOOD +BELL	SALIVATION
BELL - (CONDITIONED)	SALIVATION

A somewhat more complicated and more widely applicable learning theory is termed **operant** or **instrumental conditioning**. These principles were largely developed by the American psychologist Skinner and represent to some extent a break from the classical stimulus-response models described above. Skinner proposes two kinds of responses – elicited and emitted. Responses elicited by known stimuli he calls respondents; responses emitted without direct reference to known stimuli he calls operants. The operant is postulated as more significant in human learning than the respondent (cf. Skinner, 1938). These responses are called thus because they operate on the environment.

B.F. Skinner experimented on rats to show that responses can even be given without reference to the direct stimuli, and result in change in behaviour.

In his experiment a rat was placed in a dark box with a lever. Each time the lever was pressed, a food pellet dropped. Initially the rat presses the lever accidentally as it moves around the box. Then when it realizes that on pressing the lever it gets food, it learns to ‘operate’ by pressing the lever, thus obtaining food. When the rat now presses a lever, for example, it has changed the state of the environment by its response or **operant**. The objective of the **operant-conditioning procedure** is simply to increase the frequency of the response — so that the rat presses the lever more often. On the basis of this type of animal behaviour, Skinner defined the notion of reinforcement. If a certain action repeatedly leads to a positive or negative result, the odds of recurrence or non-recurrence of this action will increase. Skinner speaks of positive reinforcement if the action recurs more frequently, and negative reinforcement if the action is not repeated.

In classical conditioning, the reinforcement is correlated with the stimuli. In **operant conditioning** on the other hand, the reinforcement is correlated with the response. When an operant has been emitted naturally, it is reinforced by reward, i.e., the naturally emitted desired behaviour is reinforced.

The cry of a child when it is hungry stimulates the mother to give it milk that satisfies its hunger. After some time this behaviour is reinforced and the response is applied to other things that the child wants. The first stimulus in the baby is hunger, leading to a response such as crying. The baby’s crying is a stimulus for the mother, whose response is to get milk. Certainly the first stimulus-response patterns are based on satisfaction of instinctual needs such as hunger, or warmth. As wants increase, the child may also use other responses such as gestures. These may elicit desired responses and the pattern will get reinforced, but if the desired response is not obtained, the reinforcement will get weak, or will be negative i.e. the behavioural pattern will not be formed. Therefore, the pattern of reinforcement through reward is an important aspect of how environmental conditions affect behaviour.

The linguist Bloomfield, who was also a behaviourist, explained this process in the context of language. Language learning is also a pattern of stimulus and response. Bloomfield suggests that a stimulus ‘S’ from the external world gets a response in the form of an action, e.g. if a person is hungry and sees an apple, this is the stimulus ‘S’. If the person then takes the apple and eats it, this is the response ‘R’. If, however, the person says ‘I am hungry, I want the apple’, this is a speech response ‘R’ to the stimulus ‘S’. It may also be a verbal stimulus ‘S’ for another person, who may then respond by an action of getting the apple, ‘R’, or respond by speech ‘R’. Speech stimuli are thus

substitute stimuli, substituting for the action. But they are equally a form of behaviour. Like other kinds of behaviour, verbal behaviour also follows a pattern of stimulus and response leading to habit formation through repetition and reinforcement.

To a large extent, this is useful in understanding language learning. The physical and social environment plays a big role in triggering the patterns of stimulus and response. Many speech sounds uttered in the immediate environment of the learner are observed by the learner to elicit encouraging responses from others. When the learner also imitates the same sounds and produces similar sounds, and gets similar encouragement, the pattern is reinforced. Encouragement is often in the form of actual reward or encouraging speech. Surely the delight on the parents' faces when the child first speaks and says 'Papa' or 'Mama' is a response infinitely valuable for the child, as it will reinforce the association between speech and parental approval which in turn leads to more parental attention and the child will be convinced that these forms of behaviour will enable her to change other people's behaviour towards herself, and the world around her.

Learning is conditioning. Is it conscious? Can we say that repetitive behaviour is conscious or merely habit driven? If a person is constantly repeating the same responses to a given stimuli, how does that person manage to speak words or sentences that she has not heard before? Perhaps a simple stimulus-response pattern works in early stages of learning, given the importance of reward and encouragement, but does learning remain mechanical at all times? Is it different for children and adults? Is learning the same for a second language as it is for the first language? Explaining language as conditioned behaviour may not answer all these questions as language in humans attains much more complexity than animal behaviour.

Check Your Progress 1

- 1 Pick out about five key words from the text that describe the behaviourist point of view.
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

- 2 Which of the following is supported by the ideas given above? Tick the correct statements.
 - i Learners learn by imitating that which they receive as stimulus.
 - ii Reinforcement of a stimulus leads to conditioning.
 - iii Conditioning does not imply a change in behaviour.
 - iv Speech stimuli are a form of behaviour.
 - v Learning is dependent on rewards and punishment.

1.3 WHAT IS LANGUAGE ACQUISITION?

Take the example of grammar. A learner may be made conscious of the rules of grammar and be told that these must be learnt and remembered. This usually takes place in a formal context, such as the classroom. On the other hand, a learner may understand a grammatical rule without being told about the rules, or without attention being drawn to them. In acquisition, there is a cognitive grasp of the underlying structures. This happens in a natural manner, thus it is best to call it acquisition rather than learning.

The understanding of language acquisition began with an idea which was very different from the behaviourist view of language as conditioned learning. As mentioned earlier, one of the questions that the behaviourist view could not answer was that learners begin to speak language structures that they have not heard before. How does that happen? It was **Noam Chomsky** who gave an explanation for this: human beings have an inborn capacity to acquire language, by means of which they can generate infinite utterances. The human brain is 'ready' for language, in the sense that when children are exposed to speech, certain general principles for discovering or structuring language automatically begin to operate. This is called the **Language Acquisition Device (LAD)**. It works at a subconscious level, and includes knowledge about the nature and structure of human language, which may be **universal**. With its help, the learner makes hypothesis about language and tests it with the input s/he receives. Chomsky calls it **competence**, which is the internal knowledge of rules, and distinguishes it from **performance**, which is the actual use of this knowledge in speech or writing.

These ideas about language acquisition came to be called **mentalism**, as opposed to language learning as external behaviour which the behaviourists had emphasized. Some of the important aspects of language acquisition are that it takes place over a period of time in which the language develops not through imitation but through an **internal process of rule-making** by the learner. This is shown through the deviations that we find in the language of children. If child language learning were a form of imitation, the child's language would be exactly the same as the adult's. But this is not so. It means that the child is following an internal pathway in acquiring the language. Moreover, these deviations have been found to be systematic. We can view them as a part of the acquisition process.

Some examples of this are: when they acquire English, children use the regular form of the past tense — e.g. *telled, goed*, etc., instead of what the adults speak i.e. **told, went**, etc. This shows that the children are over generalizing the irregular form from the regular form of these verbs — that is, they are assuming that all verbs will have 'ed' at the end to mark the past. The fact that most children at an early stage in the acquisition of English make this overgeneralization proves that it is systematic. Similarly, the use of the plural is over generalized e.g. *mouses, mans*, etc. While adults use a lot of function words like articles, children do not use them at early stages of acquisition. This conclusively proves that acquisition follows a path of hypothesis-forming, deviation and rule-construction which is a mental ability and not imitative behaviour.

Check Your Progress 2

- 1 Try to think of some deviations that you have found in children’s language as distinct from adult language. Note them down here.

.....
.....
.....

- 2 What is LAD? How does it operate?

.....
.....
.....

1.4 THE PROCESS OF LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

While some things about the learning of language can be understood by the explanations provided earlier, further understanding of the process of language development is needed. It is clear that language acquisition is not present at birth, but takes place through **development of interaction** between the external world and the internal mental processes of the learner.

Firstly, there are cognitive processes taking place in the mind of the learner. The psychologist Piaget explained the developmental stages as those that involve a child’s logical reasoning and other conceptual capacities. These are reflected in the child’s use of language, and they enable the child to discover structures in the language that it receives from the environment. Further, another psychologist Vygotsky explained that these capacities are constantly expanding and modifying the input and are in turn modified and expanded by the language already acquired. Thus cognitive, social and language acquisition skills develop together.

Piaget considered the following stages in the interaction between the child and her environment: **the assimilation stage**, when the child absorbs the stimulus from the environment, and responds with the responses it has already acquired; then it reorganizes its own thinking to develop new patterns of responses. There is an interaction between what Piaget calls the old and new schemata in the child’s cognition.

Piaget then elaborated on the next stage, that of **accommodation**, in which the schemata are more fully reorganized. According to him, the stages through which children pass in their cognitive development are “**the sensori-motor**, from birth to about 24 months, when children understand their environment by acting on it, by touch and sight, assimilating different things from their environment. They are not able to deal with abstract concepts at this stage. Then, at the **pre-operational stage**, from around two to seven years, children develop a symbolic system, becoming familiar with concepts such as number, time, categories, and visual complexities. At this time, they can deal with images, drawing and painting and letters of the alphabet. At the next stage, the **concrete**

operational stage (seven to eleven years), children can perform many more mental operations and are able to conceptualize. At the **formal operational stage**, (eleven years and after), they can make inferences, deductions and deal with abstract concepts. These developments are linked to and often reflected in language acquisition, though the stages are not exactly parallel. A lot depends on individual abilities and on the kind of input which is provided by society and environment.

Following from the above, it can be said that there is an acquisition order: first, the simplified structures are understood and acquired, and then the elaboration of the code takes place. Research done by Slobin has resulted in formulating ‘acquisition principles’ or ‘operating principles’, as follows:

i. Meaning:

Children look for clear cues for underlying meaning: The full form is used before the reduced or compressed form, showing that the full meaning is important for the child. For example, the child prefers ‘the book which he read’ rather than ‘the book he read’, or ‘I would’ rather than ‘I’d’.

ii. Modifications:

Children look for changes in the form of words: Children assume that words are modified systematically, to bring about changes in meaning. A test was done to see what children acquiring English do when given two words: ‘wug’ and ‘gutch’, pointing to pictures of two animals. When shown two of the first, the children said ‘wugs’, while when they were shown two of the second, they said ‘gutches’. This shows an awareness that they could understand the principles on which the two words were being modified. However, they may overgeneralize when faced with exceptions to the rule. So they might add ‘es’ to all similar looking words — house, mouse, louse, etc.

iii. Order:

Children look for the order of words, example: prefixes and suffixes. Children follow consistency, that there is an order of parts of words within words and order of words within sentences. Children in the developmental stage of learning English rarely misplace the elements like *ed talk*, *toy the*. Of course, they may acquire the articles at a later stage, so at an earlier stage they may say simply *toy* rather than *the toy*, but they would not acquire it as *toy the*.

1.5 VYGOTSKY AND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

While **Chomsky** and **Piaget** primarily concentrated on the cognitive aspect, another dimension was added by Vygotsky,

According to Vygotsky, all fundamental cognitive activities including language take place in a matrix of social history. He believed that cognitive skills and patterns of thinking are not determined by innate factors but are the product of the interaction between the individual and the socio-cultural institution in which the individual grows up. Consequently, the history of society in which a child is reared, and the child’s personal history are crucial determinants of the way in which an individual would think (Murray Thomas 1993).

One important tenet in Vygotsky's theory is the “**zone of proximal development**”. The zone of proximal development is the difference between a child's capacity to solve problems on his/her own and his/her capacity to solve them with assistance. The actual developmental level refers to all the functions and activities that a child can perform on his/her own independently, without the help of anyone else. However, the zone of proximal development includes all the functions and activities that a child can perform only with the assistance from someone else. This person who helps the child could be any adult and even a peer. Vygotsky's zone of proximal development has implications for language teachers. One of them is that the social environment of the learner plays a role in determining how the child will learn how to think because according to Vygotsky thought and language are interconnected.

Vygotsky believed that an essential feature of learning is that it awakens a variety of internal developmental processes that are able to operate only when the child is interacting with people in his/her environment and cooperating with his/her peers.

Therefore, when it comes to language learning, the authenticity of the environment and the affinity between its participants are essential elements to make the learner feel part of this environment. These elements are rarely predominant in conventional classrooms. (source: <http://www.sk.com.br/sk-vygot.html>)

Comprehensible Input

Although Vygotsky and Krashen come from entirely different backgrounds, the application of their theories to second language teaching has some similarities. It is now understood that language acquisition is meaning oriented and communication oriented. Language is acquired not when the input is repeated several times, but when that input is understood, when the learner understands what it means and can make use of it. Stephen Krashen, one of the researchers in language acquisition, has called it **comprehensible input**. A learner gets a lot of input from the outside world, but only that input gets acquired which is comprehensible to the learner. According to Krashen, there is a **monitor** in the learner's mind which helps in monitoring the input and makes use of it vis-a-vis the knowledge which has already been acquired, leading to an output. The “monitor” is constrained by three factors: ‘time’, ‘focus on form’ to modify the output, and ‘knowledge of rules’. The monitor allows the learner to self-correct, using the acquired knowledge in production. Thus, the monitor helps to modify, improve upon or correct the acquired system for better accuracy. Something that is crucial to the working of the monitor is the **affective filter**, which, when it is raised, allows the input to be understood. If it is lowered, it prevents input from being understood. Factors like stress and anxiety can **lower the affective filter**. **Therefore a stress-free environment is essential for language acquisition.**

Other studies have shown that the comprehensible input that a child can make use of is of a structured kind. Adults talk to children in a simpler language than they do to other adults. The mother talks in a simplified way to the child, a special language which is known as ‘motherese’. De Villiers and De Villiers summarized the differences between adult language and the language spoken with children as follows:

Level of Difference in Characteristics

Phonological: Altered tone: higher pitch, exaggerated, clear articulation, slower speech, more pauses

Syntactic: Shorter utterances, less complex, less embedded, less broken sentences, repetition, more content words, fewer function words, more questions, more imperatives

Semantic: Limited vocabulary use, concrete referents, less abstract items, limited range of semantic relations

These differences are evident when adults and children interact, as adults (particularly mothers) are mostly conscious of the child’s limited knowledge and range, and try to make language easier for the child to comprehend. It is significant that imperatives abound in adult-child language, as children are mostly being asked to follow instructions, and discouraged if they don’t. However, children also *overhear* normal adult language, and perhaps they can comprehend that, since they sometimes show evidence of such language in interactions. Thus distinguishing between different kinds of input is not always easy or uncomplicated. Some items in language seem simple but are acquired late, while others might be acquired early, for instance, in English, the past tense and subject-verb agreement are parts of the grammar that are acquired late.

Check Your Progress 3

1 From the above discussion, what do you understand of the difference between Chomsky’s, Piaget’s and Vygotsky’s approach? List the differences.

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.....
.....

2 What are the functions of the ‘monitor’ in language acquisition?

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.....
.....

3 From the explanations regarding language learning and acquisition, think about the difference between learning and acquisition, and explain it in your own words.

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.....

1.6 LET US SUM UP

In this Unit we have distinguished between language acquisition and language learning and acquainted you with the major learning theories of the twentieth century.

These include the Behaviourist Learning Theories, the Mentalist/Cognitivist and Procedural Approach, the Developmental Interaction Approach, Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development and Krashen's Monitor Model.

It is essential for an English teacher to understand these theories/approaches because they have influenced second language acquisition theories as well as teaching methodologies. Also, all these theories give an insight into the language learning process of the learner, so to that extent it helps you understand your student better.

1.7 SUGGESTED READINGS

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1.8 ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

- 1 Imitation, reinforcement, conditioning, stimulus-response, repetition, habit-formation
- 2 (i), (ii) and (iv) are correct, (iii) and (v) are not correct.

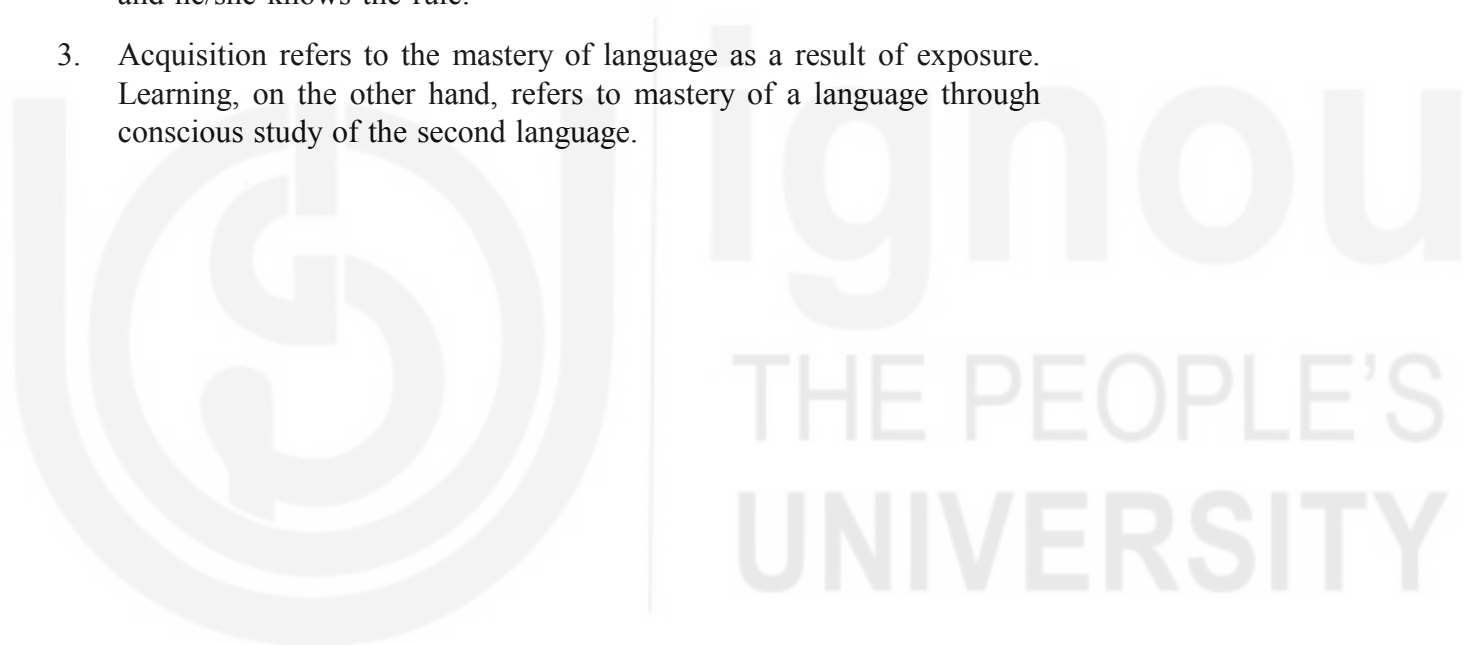
Check Your Progress 2

1. Do it yourself.
2. LAD is the language acquisition device which is innate to all normal children. It is argued that children are born with an innate capacity for language development. The human brain has an innate ability to learn language. When a child is exposed to speech, certain general principles

for structuring language operate automatically against which it tests the input s/he requires. The principle constitutes the child's LAD.

Check Your Progress 3

1. Chomsky and Piaget were interested in the cognitive aspects of learning, and in the case of Chomsky specifically language learning. Vygotsky on the other hand believed that all fundamental cognitive activities including language take place in a matrix of social history. He believed that cognitive skills and patterns of thinking are not determined by innate factors but are the product of the interaction between the individual and the socio-cultural institution where the individual grows up.
2. According to Krashen, the acquisition system initiates utterance, while the learning system performs the role of the 'monitor' or the 'editor'. The 'monitor' acts in a planning, editing and correcting function when three specific conditions are met: that is, the second language learner has sufficient time at his/her disposal, he/she focuses on form or thinks about correctness, and he/she knows the rule.
3. Acquisition refers to the mastery of language as a result of exposure. Learning, on the other hand, refers to mastery of a language through conscious study of the second language.



Unit IV: Analytical study of major thinkers on education and their practice

1. Relevance of educational thoughts of Indian and Western thinkers to the present Education system

• Western Perspectives

The Western Perspective The philosophy of education is a significant area of study both for Western and Indian philosophers. Philosophy of education was not systematically set forth before the twentieth century. In the west only Plato produced a notable philosophy of education (in his "Republic") in pre-twentieth century. He was the first systematic philosopher to work in this field. Plato along with John Dewey believes that philosophy of education occupied a central place in philosophical thought. Dewey, in fact, once suggested that "philosophy may even be defined as the general theory of education."¹ In the following pages we discuss the different views of philosophy of education in Western and Indian perspectives. The western philosophy of education is divided based on the origin of reality. The origin of reality to the idealistic philosopher is quite 22 different from the realistic or the pragmatic philosophers. Therefore the perspective towards the life for the idealistic philosopher is also different from the other philosophers. Depending on the perspective towards the life, the aim of education is also different for the different philosophers.

• Indian Perspectives

Educational foundations in India are also found in the metaphysical, epistemological and axiological outlook of the philosophers. The Indian philosophy of education is distinct about aims, curriculum, methodology and other aspects of education. It is not so inarticulate form to the application of the speculative view. But the exercise of philosophy of education as a systematic study plays a role of restrictive paradigm for the growth of the field. The 45 analytical movement also seems to have had little or no influence on this area of study. In all aspects, as a subject of academic study, as an area of scholarly research and as a perspective for intellectual dialogue and debate, philosophy of education has suffered neglect in Indian philosophy.

• Aims of Education

- 1) Knowledge Aim of Education
- 2) Vocational Aim of Education
- 3) Character Aim of Education
- 4) Cultural Aim of Education

- 5) All-round Development Aim of Education
- 6) Complete Living Aim of Education
- 7) Spiritual Aim of Education
- 8) Citizenship Aim of Education
- 9) Democratic Aim of Education.

▪ **Functions of Education**

There are many functions of education few of them are given below;

- 1) **Transmission of Culture:** Education instill and transmit the social norms values and beliefs into the next generation. Teacher himself or herself have been through the similar phase of learning, after learning the social norms, teachers forward it to the next generation. Though, the exact social norms are not taught and transmitted to the next generation there is few changes in it due to social change and the personal experience of teacher. For instance, scientific theories have progressed and changed over the time, with the help of research and development. The old theories and the development in them are taught to the students.
- 2) **Social integration:** Education unify the individuals in society and create the sense of solidarity among them. It helps the individuals and groups to cooperate with one another and find a common ground for social life. Nations are built because of education because it unify people into an organized unit.
- 3) **Career Selection:** Education helps individual to think about their career which they want to pursue in future. It prepares them for future endeavors. Provide them with all the necessary information regarding the social life and professional life.
- 4) **Techniques of Learning Skills:** Education teaches an individual various techniques of learning professional skills. There are different educational institutions for learning different professional skills. For example if a person wants to pursue a career in engineering, there are engineering colleges and universities which will equip him/her with the skills required for his/her career.
- 5) **Socialization:** Human beings are social animals, in order to learn social skills and social norms of society, one have to socialize. Educational institution provide us the platform, to interact with different people of our own age and common interest. It help us to groom our personality and acquire quality personality traits.
- 6) **Rational Thinking:** Education helps us to think rationally and conclude any event, situation and issue with reasonable explanation.

- 7) **Adjustment in Society:** Education groom the personality of individual which helps him/her to adjust in any environment, group, community and society.
- 8) **Patriotism:** Love for nation and country are instill in people from very young age through educational institution. They learn their duties and obligation towards nation and their country.

▪ **Pedagogy**

Pedagogy most commonly understood as the approach to teaching, refers to the theory and practice of learning, and how this process influences, and is influenced by, the social, political and psychological development of learners. Pedagogy, taken as an academic discipline, is the study of how knowledge and skills are imparted in an educational context, and it considers the interactions that take place during learning. Both the theory and practice of pedagogy vary greatly, as they reflect different social, political, and cultural contexts. Pedagogy is often described as the act of teaching. The pedagogy adopted by teacher's shapes their actions, judgments, and other teaching strategies by taking into consideration theories of learning, understandings of students and their needs, and the backgrounds and interests of individual students. Its aims may range from furthering liberal education (the general development of human potential) to the narrower specifics of vocational education (the imparting and acquisition of specific skills). Conventional western pedagogies view the teacher as knowledge holder and student as the recipient of knowledge (described by Paulo Freire as "banking methods", but theories of pedagogy increasingly identify the student as an agent and the teacher as a facilitator. Instructive strategies are governed by the pupil's background knowledge and experience, situation, and environment, as well as learning goals set by the student and teacher. One example would be the Socratic Method.

Pedagogical practices in the classroom

What is pedagogical practices?

- The learning activities that support the unit of content; the instructional approach such as active learning, constructivist model, student-to-student engagement; teaching to multiple learning styles, variety of assessments. Learn more in: [Evaluating Quality in the Online Classroom](#)
- Methods, strategies, and/or styles of instruction. Learn more in: [Breaking Away: How Virtual Worlds Impact Pedagogical Practices](#)
- The strategies that teachers use to teach students. Strategies are selected according to the beliefs of the teacher, the needs of the learner and the demands of the task. Learn more in: [Using Technology in Pedagogically Responsive Ways to Support Literacy Learners](#)

- Interactions and learning activities that support the delivery of content, such as using the constructivist model, active learning, student-centered activities, supporting multiple student learning styles, etc. Learn more in: Reinventing Critical Digital Literacy to Empower Student-Teachers in Cross-Cultural, Web-Based Learning Environments.

Highly Effective Teaching Practices in classroom

1. **Teacher Clarity:** When a teacher begins a new unit of study or project with students, she clarifies the purpose and learning goals, and provides explicit criteria on how students can be successful. It's ideal to also present models or examples to students so they can see what the end product looks like.
2. **Classroom Discussion:** Teachers need to frequently step offstage and facilitate entire class discussion. This allows students to learn from each other. It's also a great opportunity for teachers to formatively assess (through observation) how well students are grasping new content and concepts.
3. **Feedback:** How do learners know they are moving forward without steady, consistent feedback? They often won't. Along with individual feedback (written or verbal), teachers need to provide whole-group feedback on patterns they see in the collective class' growth and areas of need. Students also need to be given opportunities to provide feedback to the teacher so that she can adjust the learning process, materials, and instruction accordingly.
4. **Formative Assessments:** In order to provide students with effective and accurate feedback, teachers need to assess frequently and routinely where students are in relation to the unit of study's learning goals or end product (summative assessment). Hattie recommends that teachers spend the same amount of time on formative evaluation as they do on summative assessment.
5. **Metacognitive Strategies:** Students are given opportunities to plan and organize, monitor their own work, direct their own learning, and to self-reflect along the way. When we provide students with time and space to be aware of their own knowledge and their own thinking, student ownership increases. And research shows that metacognition can be taught.

▪ **Teacher-Student Relationship**

There are many different ways teachers can build positive relationships with their students. Take some time to reflect on these while you are reading and consider if they are being applied at your son's school.

- 1) **They provide structure:** The majority of students respond positively to a structured environment. Teachers should explain clear expectations to their students. Rules and regulations must be sensible and constantly reinforced. In these situations, a student's trust in their teacher will increase and they will understand that their teacher has their best interests at heart.
- 2) They teach with enthusiasm and passion
- 3) They display a positive attitude
- 4) They make learning fun
- 5) The creation of an enjoyable learning environment encourages student attendance and participation.
- 6) They show an interest in your student's lives outside the classroom
- 7) Teachers should take a genuine interest in the wellbeing of their students.
- 8) They treat students with respect.
- 9) A teacher who respects their students will experience reciprocal respect from their students.
- 10) They create a secure and safe environment for students.
- 11) Teachers need to set expectations where students do not criticise, bully or intimidate each other.
- 12) Developing positive teacher-student relationships takes significant time and effort; however, the benefit on both the teacher and student is immeasurable.
- 13) At The Scots College, positive relationships are viewed as just as important as academic results. We raise fine young men who are ready to learn, lead and serve in their community. Academic excellence is important; however, we want our graduates to achieve so much more – we empower them to change the world.

▪ **Essential Values and Qualities needed in a Teacher to prepare a child for life**

- 1) Expert communication skills
- 2) Superior listening skills
- 3) Deep knowledge and passion for their subject matter
- 4) The ability to build caring relationships with students
- 5) Friendliness and approachability
- 6) Excellent preparation and organization skills
- 7) Strong work ethic
- 8) Community-building skills
- 9) High expectations for all

2. Indian Thinkers : M.K. Gandhi, Rabindranath Tagore, Jiddu Krishnamurti and B.R. Ambedkar

▪ Mahatma Gandhi

Mahatma Gandhi experimented with the ideas of education and schooling through the establishment of Kocharab Ashrams, which posited that for a sound educational philosophy one needs a harmony of intellect, labour and passion. Gandhian philosophy stressed on the simplicity in language, literature and life. Gandhian thinking aimed to synthesize the value of *svadharma* and *swadeshi* and the world of internationalism and brotherhood in the same field (Bhatia, 1992). Education, he would often assert, has to emphasize the needs of the society. It has to be free, compulsory and universal, it has to give importance towards learning of craft, and it has to be delivered in the mother tongue. Moreover, he added that education has to inculcate the dignity of labour as the need of the hour and develop a sense of spirituality in the learner's life. Education has to contribute towards the reformation of the economy of the country, ensure national integrity and help build cohesion and solidarity in the society.

▪ Rabindranath Tagore

Tagore's experimentation resulted in a unique sense of educational philosophy: the belief in unity in humanity. Rabindranath Tagore established Shantiniketan with several objectives towards understanding citizenship, connections between man, nature and education and so forth. However, this later grew as a spiritual centre to change the inner life of participants. Rabindranath Tagore's ideals of educational philosophy resonates the harmony of the diverse facets of life, including, educational, cultural, artistic, political, social and intellectual. Tagore's philosophy aims to develop the spiritual as well as the physical growth of the learner as he believed that the manifestation of personality depends upon the self-realization, spiritual knowledge and health of an individual. Education, he asserted, teaches people to realize the oneness of the globe and establish a universal brotherhood and based on intercultural understanding. In Tagore's humanism, the need of co-relation between man and nature is essential for ensuring peace and justice. He also asserted that since language expresses people's expression so it is essential that the medium of instruction be in mother tongue for the children's education. Tagore gave importance on spiritual and moral education rather than on scriptural knowledge for an integral development of a human. He considered cooperation, selfless activities, love towards fellows and a responsibility towards nurturing social relationships to be the main purpose of one's informed mind. It, he argued, enabled the individual to live as a worthy being (Bhattacharjee, 2014).

▪ **Jiddu Krishnamurti's philosophy of education**

Krishnamurti was not an educator in strict sense of the term, as he had no formal qualifications to either propagate or promote educational goals or establish educational institutions. His concern for what he considered 'right education' was clearly not an attempt to provide temporary solutions to society's problems or seeks to correct them through merely educating people to read or write. Krishnamurti has been described as a 'revolutionary teacher who worked tirelessly to awaken people to awaken their intelligence, to awaken their sense of responsibility, to awaken a flame of discontent', and this commitment to awakening the consciousness of people was undoubtedly based on a 'strong moral passion'. "In this chapter we will be analyzing first the concept of philosophy and education. And then clarify the notion of the philosophy of education and Krishnamurti's contribution towards the philosophy of education.

J. Krishnamurti regards education as of prime significance in the communication of that which is central to the transformation of the human mind and the creation of a new culture. 'Self-knowledge' is considered to be the most important aim of education. For He says: ...education should not encourage the individual to conform to society or to be negatively harmonious with it, but help him to discover the true values which come with unbiased investigation and self-awareness. When there is no self-knowledge, self-expression becomes self-assertion, with all its aggressive and ambitious conducts. Education should awaken the capacity to be self-aware and not merely indulge in gratifying self-expression." Elsewhere he brings out the idea in a more persuasive manner. As he states: Self-knowledge alone can bring tranquility and happiness to man, for self-knowledge the beginning of intelligence and integration. Intelligence is not mere superficial adjustment; it is not the cultivation of the mind, the acquisition of knowledge. Intelligence is the capacity to understand the ways of life, it I the perception of right values. The purpose of education according to Krishnamurti is "not to produce mere scholars, technicians, and job hunters, but integrated men and women who are free of fear: for only between such human beings can there be enduring peace." He was convinced of the fact that conventional education makes independent thinking extremely difficult. Conformity leads to mediocrity. To be different from the group or to resist environment is not easy and is often risky as long as we worship success. The urge to be successful, which is the pursuit of reward whether in the material or in die so-called spiritual sphere, the search for inward or outward security, die desire for comfort-this whole process smothers discontent, puts an end to spontaneity and breeds fear; and fear blocks¹⁴⁰ the intelligent understanding of life. With increasing age, dullness of mind and heart sets in.

▪ **Dr. BR Ambedkar and His Educational Philosophy**

Dr. BR Ambedkar beard many problems due to system of discrimination. He believed that depressed class can only fight with the power of education, without education their values and esteem is not safe. His primary focus was equality education. According to his philosophy, there should be two determinations of education. First, one should obtain it for improvement of society and second it should focus on One's improvement. Education was the essential point in his debates and journals. He emphasized that providing of education should be balanced which help to differentiate cultures and truth. His educational philosophy enforced to the growth of an individual and his environment. His last motto was Educate, Agitate and Organize. Educate: it develops the proper sense and trains a man to think and to do right things, Agitate: it's a positive mental revolution rather than a negative physical revolution, Organize: Educated and agitated brains can organize aimed at a task easily. He said, "Higher education, in my opinion, means that education, which can enable you to occupy the strategically important places in State administration. Brahmins had to face a lot of opposition and obstacles, but they are overcoming these and progressing ahead."

Ambedkar thought that education was of tremendous importance as a foundation of progress. He thought that because people neglected the material needs of life and grew indifferent to the knowledge that enabled them to secure it, our country remained backward and her progress came to a standstill. He did not visualize education simply as a means for the development of a child's personality or as a source of earning ones livelihood. Rather, he considered education as the most powerful agent for bringing about desired changes in society and a prerequisite for organized effort for launching any social movement in modern times. For him education was an instrument to liberate the Dalits from illiteracy, ignorance and superstitions and thus enable them to fight against all forms of injustice, exploitation and oppression. He felt if the Dalits are educated than they could leave their traditional occupation and take up secular occupations thus breaking the age-old caste based structure of divisions of labour in our society.

3. Western Thinkers: Plato, J.J. Rousseau, John Dewey, Paulo Freire

▪ Plato's philosophy of education

Plato regards education as a means to achieve justice, both individual justice and social justice. According to Plato, individual justice can be obtained when each individual develops his or her ability to the fullest. In this sense, justice means excellence. For the Greeks and Plato, excellence is virtue. According to Socrates, virtue is knowledge. Thus, knowledge is required to be just. From this Plato concludes that virtue can be obtained through three stages of development of knowledge: knowledge of one's own job, self-knowledge, and knowledge of the Idea of the Good. According to Plato, social justice can be achieved when all social classes in a society, workers, warriors, and rulers are in a harmonious relationship. Plato believes that all people can easily exist in harmony when society gives them equal educational opportunity from an early age to compete fairly with each other. Without equal educational opportunity, an unjust society appears since the political system is run by unqualified people; timocracy, oligarchy, defective democracy, or tyranny will result. Modern education in Japan and other East Asian countries has greatly contributed to developing their societies in economic terms. Nevertheless, education in those countries has its own problems. In particular the college entrance examination in Japan, Korea, and other East Asian countries caused serious social injustices and problems: unequal educational opportunity, lack of character education, financial burden on parents, and so on. Thus, to achieve justice, modern society needs the Platonic theory education, for Plato's philosophy of education will provide a comprehensive vision to solve those problems in education. There is also some controversy about the relationship between education and economics. It is a popular view common in East and West that businesses should indirectly control or even take over education to economically compete with other nations. However, Plato disagrees with this notion since business is concerned mainly with profit whereas a true education is concerned with the common good based upon the rational principle of individual and social justice.

▪ J.J. Rousseau's philosophy of education

Rousseau was naturalist. His philosophy emerged as a reaction against the contemporary social and political set up. He wrote against theatricality, coercion and cruelty during these times. His philosophy concepts of "Natural state", "Natural man and Natural Civilization". Natural state means that simple framing community or state without evils, corruption and social classes. Natural man means, man is governed and directed by laws of his own nature rather than those of social institutions. "Civilized man born lives and dies in a state of slavery". Rousseau man meddles with them and they become evils. He believed that man would have been happier if he had been allowed to remain in his natural stage. Rousseau has remarked that

“leave the child alone. Let him a natural man rather than a civilized man let him have a state of nature rather than artificial surroundings that stunt the proper growth and arrest his natural development, “Natural civilization is free from artificial surroundings and barriers that pollute the goodness of our nature. ’Return to natural’ was his method to cure all troubles. Human nature i.e. his natural heritage is essentially good and it must be given the fullest opportunities for free development. In the social contract he was stated that “man is born free, but everywhere he is in chains”. He believed that children should be educated in nature and according to nature far from the madding crowd. They become corrupt in his towns in which they live with adults. He was champion of dignity of man. He believed in liberty, equality and fraternity. Rousseau admired the simplicity and purity of nature. He stated that “God makes all things good; man meddles with them and they become evil.” He declared that “Everything is good as it comes from the hands of the Author of Nature, but everything degenerates in the hands of man “According to Rousseau there are three meaning of nature.(1) Isolation from society he wanted that child should be isolated from the society. (2) Innate tendencies of the child- he advocated that innate tendencies are more reliable base for action than the experience gained from society.(3) Contact with Natural environment- He said that natural environment means hills .trees, rivers, plants, woods, animals birds stones and physical forces. He believed that the child should be brought up in natural environment and he will automatically become a natural being.

▪ **John Dewey’s philosophy of education**

John Dewey's experiment in education had captured the attention of teachers at every level of the teaching system. Its radically new teaching practices represented a turning point, not only for formal education but also for larger views of childhood learning. Dewey came to the University of Chicago at the urging of James Hayden Tufts, a colleague at the University of Michigan who joined the Chicago faculty in 1892. Appointed to head the Department of Philosophy, Dewey's experimentalism blended well with the views of George Herbert Mead and Tufts. In addition to fulfilling his departmental obligations and administering the School of Education, Dewey published several books and articles on education and philosophy. *The School and Society* (1899) became a classic among progressive educators. Trained as a philosopher at Johns Hopkins, Dewey was intrigued by the relationship between the individual and society. Firmly committed to a democratic outlook, he considered the school a laboratory to test his notion that education could integrate learning with experience. The University Elementary School or Laboratory School established by Dewey grew quickly. Parents were attracted by a curriculum that emphasized the child instead of the subject matter, where the learning process was at least as important as what was learned, and where curiosity was encouraged. Dewey's success could not overcome his disagreements with administrators and other educators. His relationship with William Rainey Harper deteriorated as Harper's plans to consolidate the Elementary School with Colonel Francis Parker's Chicago Institute under the control of the University

infringed on Dewey's freedom of action. Dewey assumed that he would be given control of the curriculum and the merged school administration, leaving the funding problems in the hands of the University. This was clearly not Harper's view, and when controversy arose over the appointment of Alice Dewey as principal of the University Elementary School, John and Alice Dewey resigned and left for Columbia University. Dewey's interest in education shifted after leaving Chicago and he never again organized a school. For the next half century he concentrated upon philosophical issues, publishing extensively and with great influence upon political, aesthetic, ethical, and epistemological questions. He clung to his liberal humanism, eloquently defending democratic ideals during periods when world and national events seemed to undermine the basis for his beliefs.

▪ **Paulo Freire's philosophy of education**

Paulo Freire was one of the most influential philosophers of education of the twentieth century. He worked wholeheartedly to help people both through his philosophy and his practice of critical pedagogy. A native of Brazil, Freire's goal was to eradicate illiteracy among people from previously colonized countries and continents. His insights were rooted in the social and political realities of the children and grandchildren of former slaves. His ideas, life, and work served to ameliorate the living conditions of oppressed people.

Freire was influenced by three major philosophical traditions in education. They are Anarchist tradition, Marxist-Socialist tradition and Freudian Left. The Anarchist opposed national systems of education because of their conviction that education in the hands of the state would serve the political interests of those in control. They advocated the promotion of personal freedom and autonomy of the learner by removing education from state control. The Marxist-Socialist tradition in education advocated a revolutionary change from a capitalistic political economy to a socialist form of government and economy in order to produce a free and autonomous person. The Freudian Leftists addressed the problem inherent in the Marxist-Socialist assumption that once people become aware of what they view as evil structures, they will be able to bring about the necessary changes. The persons are prevented from acting in their own self-interests because of man's development. They, therefore, advocated sexual freedom, changes and family organization, and libertarian methods of child-rearing and education as the solutions to this structure of authoritarianism.

Philosophical views such as phenomenology, existentialism and Christian Personalism are quite significant influences, seen in his work. Phenomenological ideas of Freire have been shared from Buber, Sartre and Jaspers. It is thus how that the stress on inter-personal relations and dialogue has incorporated in his thought. His concern with conscious and the way people construe the world influenced by existential-

phenomenological views. "Reality is never just simply the objective datum, the concrete fact, but it is also man's perception of it." His discussion of intersubjectivity, intentionality, authenticity and cultural action for freedom can be traced to his existential phenomenological concerns. According to Jean-Paul Sartre, existentialism is human existence. "Everything is indeed permitted if God does not exist, and humans (men) are in consequence forlorn, for they cannot find anything to depend upon either within or outside their self". Sartre states that there is no determinism, only freedom. Humans are free, thus human equals freedom. In existentialism God does not determine the fate of human beings, only humans can determine their fate, by changing and influencing their reality or existence. The existentialist assumptions of Jean-Paul Sartre are reflected in Freire's narratives. To encapsulate Sartre's ideas, existentialism is based on existence preceding essence. From this perspective, Freire argues that humans have the potential and capacity to develop higher-level thinking and social relations. Personalism requires an affirmation of the value of the human person. Although Christianity is seldom mentioned directly in his writings, it is highly important part of his philosophy. De Chardin, Mounier, Neibuhr and generally the liberation theological thinkers who have influenced him. For him, Christian faith essentially means a commitment to social action against exploitation and oppression for a humanized world. His Christianity is one which has entered into a creative dialogue with Marxism unlike the anti-communist Christianity. Liberation theologians like Gutierrez and revolutionaries like Camilo Torres have influenced Freire. The role of church must be the role of liberation, the humanization.

Unit III: Epistemological Basis of Education

- **Meaning of Knowledge, Reason, Belief**

- **Knowledge**

Knowledge is a familiarity, awareness, or understanding of someone or something, such as facts, information, descriptions, or skills, which is acquired through experience or education by perceiving, discovering, or learning. Knowledge can refer to a theoretical or practical understanding of a subject. It can be implicit or explicit it can be more or less formal or systematic. In philosophy, the study of knowledge is called epistemology; the philosopher Plato famously defined knowledge as "justified true belief", though this definition is now thought by some analytic philosophers to be problematic because of the Gettier problems, while others defend the platonic definition. However, several definitions of knowledge and theories to explain it exist. Knowledge acquisition involves complex cognitive processes: perception, communication, and reasoning; while knowledge is also said to be related to the capacity of *acknowledgement* in human beings. The definition of knowledge is a matter of ongoing debate among philosophers in the field of epistemology. The classical definition, described but not ultimately endorsed by Plato, specifies that a statement must meet three criteria in order to be considered knowledge: it must be justified, true, and believed. Richard Kirkham suggests that our definition of knowledge requires that the evidence for the belief necessitates its truth. In contrast to this approach, Ludwig Wittgenstein observed, following Moore's paradox, that one can say "He believes it, but it isn't so," but not "He knows it, but it isn't so. He goes on to argue that these do not correspond to distinct mental states, but rather to distinct ways of talking about conviction. What is different here is not the mental state of the speaker, but the activity in which they are engaged. For example, on this account, to *know* that the kettle is boiling is not to be in a particular state of mind, but to perform a particular task with the statement that the kettle is boiling. Wittgenstein sought to bypass the difficulty of definition by looking to the way "knowledge" is used in natural languages. He saw knowledge as a case of a family resemblance. Following this idea, "knowledge" has been reconstructed as a cluster concept that points out relevant features but that is not adequately captured by any definition.

- **Reason**

A **reason** explains why you do something. The *reason* you go to school is to learn things (and because it's the law). Reason usually has to do with thought and logic, as opposed to emotion. If people think you show good reason, or are reasonable, it means you think things through. If people think you have a good reason for doing something, it means you have a motive that makes sense. *Reason* can also be a verb. You might reason something out, which means that you look at all sides of the issue and then and decide what to do.

- **Belief**

Belief is the attitude that something is the case or true. In epistemology, philosophers use the term "belief" to refer to personal attitudes associated with true or false ideas and concepts. However, "belief" does not require active introspection and circumspection. For example, few ponder whether the sun will rise, just assume it will. Since "belief" is an important aspect of mundane life, according to Eric Schwitzgebel in the Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy, a related question asks: "how a physical organism can have beliefs?" In the context of Ancient Greek thought, three related concepts were identified regarding the concept of belief: *pistis*, *doxa*, and *dogma*. Simplified, *pistis* refers to "trust" and "confidence," *doxa* refers to "opinion" and "acceptance," and *dogma* refers to the positions of a philosopher or of a philosophical school such as Stoicism.

- **Sources of Knowledge: Empirical knowledge, Rational Knowledge, Authentication of Knowledge, Experience , Values and Ideals**

- **Empirical knowledge**

Empirical knowledge is the knowledge or source of knowledge acquired by means of the senses, particularly by observation and experimentation. It is information that verifies the truth or falsity of a claim. In the empiricist view, one can claim to have knowledge only when based on empirical Knowledge. This stands in contrast to the rationalist view under which reason or reflection alone is considered evidence for the truth or falsity of some propositions. It is information acquired by observation or experimentation, in the form of recorded data, which may be the subject of analysis. This is the primary source of empirical evidence. Secondary sources describe, discuss, interpret, comment upon, analyze, evaluate, summarize, and process primary sources. Secondary source materials can be articles in newspapers or popular magazines, book or movie reviews, or articles found in scholarly journals that discuss or evaluate someone else's original research.

Empirical knowledge may be synonymous with the outcome of an experiment. In this regard, an empirical result is a unified confirmation. In this context, the term semi-empirical is used for qualifying theoretical methods that use, in part, basic axioms or postulated scientific laws and experimental results. Such methods are opposed to theoretical ab initio methods, which are purely deductive and based on first principles. In science, empirical knowledge is required for a hypothesis to gain acceptance in the scientific community. Normally, this validation is achieved by the scientific method of forming a hypothesis, experimental design, peer review, reproduction of results, conference presentation, and journal publication. This requires rigorous communication of hypothesis, experimental constraints and controls, and a common understanding of measurement.

▪ **Rational Knowledge**

Rational Knowledge: What is 'good' or 'bad' depends upon what you are trying to achieve, and specific rules, regulations, or laws must have demonstrable, provable, fact-based data to support conclusions. What is 'good' or 'bad' depends upon what you are trying to achieve, and specific rules, regulations, or laws must have demonstrable, provable, fact-based data to support conclusions. A nation that operates its government using almost entirely rational knowledge is The Netherlands. Someone who views the world through the lens of rational knowledge would look at the evidence and either admit he didn't know, or theorize on the most probable likelihood, accepting the possibility that he might be incorrect, meaning he may need to adjust in the future as more evidence is discovered.

In short: **Rational Knowledge = Evidence in search of a conclusion**

▪ **Authentication of Knowledge**

Authenticity is a concept in psychology as well as existentialist philosophy and aesthetics. In existentialism, authenticity is the degree to which an individual's actions are congruent with their beliefs and desires, despite external pressures; the conscious self is seen as coming to terms with being in a material world and with encountering external forces, pressures, and influences which are very different from, and other than, itself. A lack of authenticity is considered in existentialism to be bad faith. The call of authenticity resonates with the famous instruction by the Oracle of Delphi, "Know thyself." But authenticity extends this message: "Don't merely know thyself – be thyself." Views of authenticity in cultural activities vary widely. For instance, the philosophers Jean Paul Sartre and Theodor Adorno had opposing views regarding jazz, with Sartre considering it authentic and Adorno inauthentic. The concept of authenticity is often aired in musical subcultures, such as punk rock and heavy metal, where a purported lack of authenticity is commonly labeled with the epithet "poseur". There is also a focus on authenticity in music genres such as "...house, grunge, garage, hip-hop, techno, and show tunes".

▪ **Experience**

Experience is the first person effects or influence of an event or subject gained through involvement in or exposure to it. The term does not imply that useful or long term learning, or the acquisition of skills necessarily takes place as a consequence of the experience, though the two are often associated, and experience is often used as a proxy for competence. A large amount of learning of knowledge and skills is associated with experience, and experience is a necessary, though not always sufficient component of the learning of physical skills. Terms in philosophy such as "empirical knowledge" or "a posteriori knowledge" are used to refer to knowledge based on experience. A person with considerable experience in a specific field can gain a reputation as an expert. The concept of experience generally refers to know-how or procedural knowledge, rather than propositional knowledge: on-the-job training rather than book-learning. Certain religious traditions and educational paradigms with, for example, the conditioning of military recruit-training stress the experiential nature of human epistemology. This stands in contrast to alternatives: traditions of dogma, logic or reasoning. Participants in activities such as tourism, extreme sports and recreational drug-use also tend to stress the importance of experience. The history of the word experience aligns it closely with the concept of experiment.

▪ **Values and Ideals**

Values are standards or ideals with which we evaluate actions, people, things, or situations. Beauty, honesty, justice, peace, generosity are all examples of values that many people endorse. In thinking about values it is useful to distinguish them into three kinds: Personal values: values endorsed by an individual.

In ethics, **value** denotes the degree of importance of some thing or action, with the aim of determining what actions are best to do or what way is best to live (normative ethics), or to describe the significance of different actions. Value systems are proscriptive and prescriptive beliefs; they affect ethical behavior of a person or are the basis of their intentional activities. Often primary values are strong and secondary values are suitable for changes. What makes an action valuable may in turn depend on the ethical values of the objects it increases, decreases or alters. An object with "ethic value" may be termed an "ethic or philosophic good. Values can be defined as broad preferences concerning appropriate courses of actions or outcomes. As such, values reflect a person's sense of right and wrong or what "ought" to be. "Equal rights for all", "Excellence deserves admiration", and "People should be treated with respect and dignity" are representatives of values. Values tend to influence attitudes and behavior and these types include moral values, doctrinal/ideological values, social values, and aesthetic values.

▪ **Constructivism**

Constructivism is basically a theory based on observation and scientific study about how people learn. It says that people construct their own understanding and knowledge of the world, through experiencing things and reflecting on those experiences. When we encounter something new, we have to reconcile it with our previous ideas and experience, maybe changing what we believe, or maybe discarding the new information as irrelevant. In any case, we are active creators of our own knowledge. To do this, we must ask questions, explore, and assess what we know. In the classroom, the constructivist view of learning can point towards a number of different teaching practices. In the most general sense, it usually means encouraging students to use active techniques (experiments, real-world problem solving) to create more knowledge and then to reflect on and talk about what they are doing and how their understanding is changing. The teacher makes sure she understands the students' preexisting conceptions, and guides the activity to address them and then build on them.

Constructivist teachers encourage students to constantly assess how the activity is helping them gain understanding. By questioning themselves and their strategies, students in the constructivist classroom ideally become "expert learners." This gives them ever-broadening tools to keep learning. With a well-planned classroom environment, the students learn HOW TO LEARN. You might look at it as a spiral. When they continuously reflect on their experiences, students find their ideas gaining in complexity and power, and they develop increasingly strong abilities to integrate new information. One of the teacher's main roles becomes to encourage this learning and reflection process. For example: Groups of students in a science class are discussing a problem in physics. Though the teacher knows the "answer" to the problem, she focuses on helping students restate their questions in useful ways. She prompts each student to reflect on and examine his or her current knowledge. When one of the students comes up with the relevant concept, the teacher seizes upon it, and indicates to the group that this might be a fruitful avenue for them to explore. They design and perform relevant experiments. Afterward, the students and teacher talk about what they have learned, and how their observations and experiments helped (or did not help) them to better understand the concept.

Contrary to criticisms by some (conservative/traditional) educators, constructivism does not dismiss the active role of the teacher or the value of expert knowledge. Constructivism modifies that role, so that teachers help students to construct knowledge rather than to reproduce a series of facts. The constructivist teacher provides tools such as problem-solving and inquiry-based learning activities with which students formulate and test their ideas, draw conclusions and inferences, and pool and convey their knowledge in a collaborative learning environment. Constructivism transforms the student from a passive

recipient of information to an active participant in the learning process. Always guided by the teacher, students construct their knowledge actively rather than just mechanically ingesting knowledge from the teacher or the textbook.

Constructivism is also often misconstrued as a learning theory that compels students to "reinvent the wheel." In fact, constructivism taps into and triggers the student's innate curiosity about the world and how things work. Students do not reinvent the wheel but, rather, attempt to understand how it turns, how it functions. They become engaged by applying their existing knowledge and real-world experience, learning to hypothesize, testing their theories, and ultimately drawing conclusions from their findings. The best way for you to really understand what constructivism is and what it means in your classroom is by seeing examples of it at work, speaking with others about it, and trying it yourself. As you progress through each segment of this workshop, keep in mind questions or ideas to share with your colleagues.

- **How does this theory differ from traditional ideas about teaching and learning?**

As with many of the methods addressed in this series of workshops, in the constructivist classroom, the focus tends to shift from the teacher to the students. The classroom is no longer a place where the teacher ("expert") pours knowledge into passive students, who wait like empty vessels to be filled. In the constructivist model, the students are urged to be actively involved in their own process of learning. The teacher functions more as a facilitator who coaches, mediates, prompts, and helps students develop and assess their understanding, and thereby their learning. One of the teacher's biggest jobs becomes ASKING GOOD QUESTIONS. And, in the constructivist classroom, both teacher and students think of knowledge not as inert factoids to be memorized, but as a dynamic, ever-changing view of the world we live in and the ability to successfully stretch and explore that view. The chart below compares the traditional classroom to the constructivist one. You can see significant differences in basic assumptions about knowledge, students, and learning. (It's important, however, to bear in mind that constructivists acknowledge that students are constructing knowledge in traditional classrooms, too. It's really a matter of the emphasis being on the student, not on the instructor.)

Traditional Classroom	Constructivist Classroom
Curriculum begins with the parts of the whole. Emphasizes basic skills.	Curriculum emphasizes big concepts, beginning with the whole and expanding to include the parts.
Strict adherence to fixed curriculum is highly valued.	Pursuit of student questions and interests is valued.
Materials are primarily textbooks and workbooks.	Materials include primary sources of material and manipulative materials.
Learning is based on repetition.	Learning is interactive, building on what the student already knows.
Teachers disseminate information to students; students are recipients of knowledge.	Teachers have a dialogue with students, helping students construct their own knowledge.
Teacher's role is directive, rooted in authority.	Teacher's role is interactive, rooted in negotiation.
Assessment is through testing, correct answers.	Assessment includes student works, observations, and points of view, as well as tests. Process is as important as product.
Knowledge is seen as inert.	Knowledge is seen as dynamic, ever changing with our experiences.
Students work primarily alone.	Students work primarily in groups.

▪ **What does constructivism have to do with my classroom?**

As is the case with many of the current/popular paradigms, you're probably already using the constructivist approach to some degree. Constructivist teachers pose questions and problems, then guide students to help them find their own answers. They use many techniques in the teaching process. For example, they may:

- prompt students to formulate their own questions (inquiry)
- allow multiple interpretations and expressions of learning (multiple intelligences)
- encourage group work and the use of peers as resources (collaborative learning)

More information on the above processes is covered in other workshops in this series. For now, it's important to realize that the constructivist approach borrows from many other practices in the pursuit of its primary goal: helping students learn HOW TO LEARN.

In a constructivist classroom, learning is . . .



Students are not blank slates upon which knowledge is etched. They come to learning situations with already formulated knowledge, ideas, and understandings. This previous knowledge is the raw material for the new knowledge they will create.

Example: An elementary school teacher presents a class problem to measure the length of the "Mayflower." Rather than starting the problem by introducing the ruler, the teacher allows students to reflect and to construct their own methods of measurement. One student offers the knowledge that a doctor said he is four feet tall. Another says she knows horses are measured in "hands." The students discuss these and other methods they have heard about, and decide on one to apply to the problem.



The student is the person who creates new understanding for him/herself. The teacher coaches, moderates, suggests, but allows the students room to experiment, ask questions, try things that don't work. Learning activities require the students' full participation (like hands-on experiments). An important part of the learning process is that students reflect on, and talk about, their activities. Students also help set their own goals and means of assessment.

Examples: A middle-school language arts teacher sets aside time each week for a writing lab. The emphasis is on content and getting ideas down rather than memorizing grammatical rules, though one of the teacher's concerns is the ability of his students to express themselves well through written language. The teacher provides opportunities for students to examine the finished and earlier drafts of various authors. He allows students to select and create projects within the general requirement of building a **portfolio**¹. Students serve as peer editors who value originality and uniqueness rather than the best way to fulfill an assignment.



1.

In a history class, asking students to read and think about different versions of and perspectives on "history" can lead to interesting discussions. Is history as taught in textbooks accurate? Are there different versions of the same history? Whose version of history is most accurate? How do we know? From there, students can make their own judgments.



Students control their own learning process, and they lead the way by reflecting on their experiences. This process makes them experts of their own learning. The teacher helps create situations where the students feel safe questioning and reflecting on their own processes, either privately or in group discussions. The teacher should also create activities that lead the student to reflect on his or her prior knowledge and experiences. Talking about what was learned and how it was learned is really important.

Example: Students keep journals in a writing class where they record how they felt about the class projects, the visual and verbal reactions of others to the project, and how they felt their own writing had changed. Periodically the teacher reads these journals and holds a conference with the student where the two assess (1) what new knowledge the student has created, (2) how the student learns best, and (3) the learning environment and the teacher's role in it.



COLLABORATIVE

The constructivist classroom relies heavily on collaboration among students. There are many reasons why collaboration contributes to learning. The main reason it is used so much in constructivism is that students learn about learning not only from themselves, but also from their peers. When students review and reflect on their learning processes together, they can pick up strategies and methods from one another.



Example: In the course of studying ancient civilizations, students undertake an archaeological dig. This may be something constructed in a large sandbox, or, as in the Dalton School's "Archaeotype" software simulation, on a computer. As the students find different objects, the teacher introduces classifying techniques. The students are encouraged to (1) set up a group museum by developing criteria and choosing which objects should belong, and (2) collaborate with other students who worked in different quadrants of the dig. Each group is then asked to develop theories about the civilizations that inhabited the area.

INQUIRY-BASED

The main activity in a constructivist classroom is solving problems. Students use inquiry methods to ask questions, investigate a topic, and use a variety of resources to find solutions and answers. As students explore the topic, they draw conclusions, and, as exploration continues, they revisit those conclusions. Exploration of questions leads to more questions. (See the CONCEPT TO CLASSROOM workshop [Inquiry-based Learning](#))

Example: Sixth graders figuring out how to purify water investigate solutions ranging from coffee-filter paper, to a stove-top distillation apparatus, to piles of charcoal, to an abstract mathematical solution based on the size of a water molecule. Depending upon students' responses, the teacher encourages abstract as well as concrete, poetic as well as practical, creations of new knowledge.



EVOLVING

Students have ideas that they may later see were invalid, incorrect, or insufficient to explain new experiences. These ideas are temporary steps in the integration of knowledge. For instance, a child may believe that all trees lose their leaves in the fall, until she visits an evergreen forest. Constructivist teaching takes into account students' current conceptions and builds from there.

What happens when a student gets a new piece of information? The constructivist model says that the student compares the information to the knowledge and understanding he/she already has, and one of three things can occur:

- The new information matches up with his previous knowledge pretty well (it's **consonant** with the previous knowledge), so the student adds it to his understanding. It may take some work, but it's just a matter of finding the right fit, as with a puzzle piece.
- The information doesn't match previous knowledge (it's **dissonant**). The student has to change her previous understanding to find a fit for the information. This can be harder work.

- The information doesn't match previous knowledge, and it is **ignored**. Rejected bits of information may just not be absorbed by the student. Or they may float around, waiting for the day when the student's understanding has developed and permits a fit.



Example: An elementary teacher believes her students are ready to study gravity. She creates an environment of discovery with objects of varying kinds. Students explore the differences in weight among similarly sized blocks of Styrofoam, wood, and lead. Some students hold the notion that heavier objects fall faster than light ones. The teacher provides materials (stories, posters, and videos) about Galileo, Newton, etc. She leads a discussion on theories about falling. The students then replicate Galileo's experiment by dropping objects of different

weights and measuring how fast they fall. They see that objects of different weights actually usually fall at the same speed, although surface area and aerodynamic properties can affect the rate of fall.

▪ Scientific Methods

A biology investigation usually starts with an observation—that is, something that catches the biologist's attention. For instance, a cancer biologist might notice that a certain kind of cancer can't be treated with chemotherapy and wonder why this is the case. A marine ecologist, seeing that the coral reefs of her field sites are bleaching—turning white—might set out to understand why. How do biologists follow up on these observations? How can *you* follow up on your own observations of the natural world? In this article, we'll walk through the **scientific method**, a logical problem-solving approach used by biologists and many other scientists.

The scientific method

At the core of biology and other sciences lies a problem-solving approach called the scientific method.

The *scientific method* has five basic steps, plus one feedback step:

1. Make an observation.
2. Ask a question.
3. Form a **hypothesis**, or testable explanation.
4. Make a prediction based on the hypothesis.
5. Test the prediction.
6. Iterate: use the results to make new hypotheses or predictions.

The scientific method is used in all sciences—including chemistry, physics, geology, and psychology. The scientists in these fields ask different questions and perform different tests. However, they use the same core approach to find answers that are logical and supported by evidence.

Reflective Judgements

In the twenty years since its inception, The Reflective Judgment Model has distinguished itself by its ability to describe the development of reasoning from adolescence to adulthood. An extensive database containing both longitudinal and cross-sectional research has informed the work of developmental and educational psychologists, college faculty, student affairs educators, and those concerned with college outcomes assessment. The Reflective Judgment Model describes changes in epistemic assumptions and how these affect the development of critical or reflective thinking skills and related constructs in young adults and adults, especially college students. John Dewey (1933, 1938) observed that reflective thinking is called for when people recognize that some problems cannot be solved with certainty. Drawing from this observation, King and Kitchener chose the term "reflective judgment" to describe the kind of epistemic cognition that includes the recognition that real uncertainty exists about some issues. The Reflective Judgment Model describes development in reasoning about such issues in late adolescence through adulthood.

Reflective judgment is drawn from the theoretical work of many scholars. Listed below are scholars whose work informed the development of the Reflective Judgment Model, and how their work contributed to the model.

- John Dewey (1933, 1938): definition of reflective thinking; the observation that uncertainty is a characteristic of the search for knowledge
- Piaget (1960, 1970 [1956], 1974): assumptions of stage-related development; the processes of assimilation and accommodation account for changes in the conceptual structures used to understand the world
- Flavell (1963, 1971, 1977): stage models generally assume that there are qualitatively different structures organized into logically coherent systems or stages; stages appear in an invariant sequence
- Perry (1968, 1981): sequential development in college students' underlying assumptions about knowledge, truth, and values
- Broughton (1975, 1978): epistemological development after relativism; earliest stages of epistemological development are more characteristic of children than college students
- Fischer (1980; Lamborn & Fischer, 1988): cognitive skill theory model of the development of complex reasoning; an individual's developmental range falls between optimal and functional levels
- Kegan (1982, 1994): evolution of the self; interpersonal relationships as a developmental continuum

The Reflective Judgment Model describes a dimension of cognitive development based on the work of these scholars.

Unit 2

Idealism:

A. Exponents:

Socrates, Plato, Descartes, Spinoza, Barkley, Kant, Fichte, Schelling, Hegel, Schopenhauer, T.H. Green, Gentile, Froebel Swami Dayanand, R.N. Tagore, Gandhi, Aurobindo and Vivekananda.

B. Fundamental Principles:

1. Mind and thought are real.
2. The outlook is spiritual.
3. Believe in the existence of God.
4. Ultimate reality is spiritual.
5. Universe is created by God.
6. Eternal values like truth, goodness and beauty are perennial and not subject to change.
7. Spiritual laws are universal.
8. Values are pre-determined.
9. It is a monistic concept.
10. It is psycho-centric (mind is at the centre of reality.)

C. Educational Principles:

1. Spiritual is at the base of education. Emphasis is on the spiritual and moral environment.
2. Teacher and curri-culum are the centres of education.
3. Emphasises book learning.
4. Attaches emphasis on discipline of the child.
5. Emphasises on thinking and reasoning.
6. Believes in positive education.

7. Education is the dynamic side of philosophy.

D. Aims of Education:

1. The aim of education is self-realisation.
2. Aims at spiritual development.
3. Development of moral sense.
4. Development of creative power.
5. Development of complete man.
6. Preservation and enrichment of cultural environment.
7. Realization of Truth, Beauty and Goodness.

E. Curriculum:

1. Emphasis is on Ethics and study of humanities.
2. Based on moral, spiritual and intellectual values.
3. Important subjects are religion. Ethics, Art, Language, Literature, music., philosophy, History etc.

F. Methods of Teaching:

1. Advocating a lot of methods. Not advocated a single method.
2. Questioning, conversation, Dialogue, Discussion, Lecture, Inductive and Deductive, Play-way, Story-telling, Exercise or practice, Argumentation, Book study etc..

G. Discipline:

1. Unrestrained freedom is not allowed.
2. Emphasises regulated freedom.
3. Emphasises impressionistic discipline.
4. Self-discipline.

H. Teacher:

1. Teacher's position is very high.
2. He guides, directs, suggests and controls the situation. He is like a gardener whose function is to carefully tend the little plants under his disposition.

I. School:

1. It is the only place for regular and effective education.
2. It is a place for carrying pleasant and joyful activities.

Comparison # Naturalism:

A. Exponents:

Aristotle, August Comte, Hobbes, Bacon, Darwin, Lamarck, Huxley, Spencer, G.B. Shaw, Pestalozzi, J.J. Rousseau, Samuel Butler.

B. Fundamental Principles:

1. Nature alone is entire reality, it is ready-made.
2. The outlook is materialistic.
3. Do not believe in existence of God.
4. Ultimate reality is physical.
5. Universe is the natural creation.
6. There is no spiritual values.
7. Do not believe in value, soul, God, religion and divine spirit.
8. Physical and natural laws are universal.
9. It is a monistic concept.
10. It is naturo-centric (nature is at the centre).

C. Educational Principles:

1. Based on psychology. Child is the centre of education.

2. It emphasises basic instincts, interests and tendencies.
3. Nature is the base. "Follow Nature" is the slogan.
4. Puts emphasis on unrestrained freedom.
5. Opposes bookish knowledge.
6. Believes in negative education.
7. Education is the dynamic side of philosophy.

D. Aims of Education:

1. The aim of education is self-expression.
2. Emphasises the auto-nomous development of personality.
3. Adjustment to environment.
4. Preparation for struggle of existence.
5. Attainment of present and future happiness.

E. Curriculum:

1. Emphasis on Science
2. It is based on need, ability, aptitude and the nature of the child
3. Humanities occupy subsidiary place in the curriculum.
4. Main subjects are Games and Sports, Physical sciences, Physiology, Hygiene, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Sociology, Domestic science.

F. Methods of Teaching:

1. Learning by doing, learning through experience, play-way method, observation, Dalton Plan, Direct method, Heuristic, Montessori. Kindergarten methods.

G. Discipline:

1. Unrestrained freedom, discipline through natural consequences.

2. Emphasises emancipatory discipline

H. Teacher:

1. Teacher is behind the scene.
2. He is not to interfere in the child's activities
3. His role is subsidiary.
4. He is a stage-setter, setting the stage.

I. School:

1. Nature is the best school.
2. School should be a natural and spontaneous field for undertaking free activities by children.

Comparison # Realism:

A. Exponents:

Aristotle, Erasmus, Rebellias, Milton, Lord Montaigne, Locke, Bacon, Comenius, White-head, Bertrand Russell, Mulcaster, Ratke.

B. Fundamental Principles:

1. Physical world is real.
2. Importance on material world which is real.
3. Cause-effect relationship is universal and universally accepted.
4. Fully scientific attitude.
5. Do not believe in the existence of God.
6. Matter is the centre of reality, (matter-centric).
7. Believe in material prosperity and comfortable living.
8. It is a pluralistic concept
9. Physical laws are universal.

10. It is reality-centred.

C. Educational Principles:

1. Based on science only material world is the base.
2. Emphasises child- centered education. Education is to be imparted in accordance with the interests of the child.
3. Emphasises observa-tion, experimentation, and experience.
4. Opposes bookish learning.
5. It is liable to change according to a change in life.
6. Attaches due importance to discipline.
7. Philosophy is developed from education.

D. Aims of Education:

1. Preparing the child for a real life.
2. Development of physical and mental powers of the child.
3. Development and training of senses.
4. Development of a complete man.
5. Adjustment with physical and social environment.
6. Imparting vocational education.

E. Curriculum:

1. Subjects concerning day-to-day life are included.
2. Emphasis on practical and utilitarian subjects.
3. Main subjects are Natural science, Biological science, Physical sciences, Health, Culture, Math's, Geography, History, Astronomy, Sports and Vocational education.

F. Methods of Teaching:

1. Inductive method, objective methods, learning by walking and by experience, correlation teaching, experimental method and heuristic method etc..

G. Discipline:

1. Restricted freedom.
2. Self-discipline.
3. Emphasises a synthetic type of impressionistic and emancipating discipline.

H. Teacher:

1. Teacher's role is supreme.
2. He should present facts in the real form in an intelligent way. He should not add any thing of his own.
3. He should provide opportunities for observation and experimentation.

I. School:

1. It is a socially well-planned institution.
2. It is a mirror of society.

Comparison # Pragmatism:

A. Exponents:

William James, Charles Pierce, Schiller, John j Dewey, Kilpatrick.

B. Fundamental Principles:

1. Reality is in process, it is still in making and not read-made.
2. The outlook is social.
3. Believe in the existence of God to an extent.
4. Ultimate reality is utility.
5. Universe has been created by man.
6. Values are changeable which are created by man.

7. It is anthropo-centric. Human experience at the centre of reality.

8. It is pluralistic.

9. No law is universal. Society is the base.

10. It is anthropo-centric.

C. Educational Principles:

1. Emphasises on social and physical environment.

2. Attaches importance on experimentation, experience and utility.

3. Child is at the centre of all educational activities.

4. Opposes bookish learning.

5. Philosophy is developed from education.

6. Supports restricted freedom of the child.

7. Education is a dynamic and active process.

D. Aims of Education:

1. The aim of education is dynamic in nature.

2. Aims at social efficiency

3. Adjustment with present and to change the present.

4. Aim is more education.

5. Creation of new values.

6. Educational aims change according to times, places and circumstances.

7. No pre-determined or fixed aims.

E. Curriculum:

1. Emphasis on practical and utilitarian subjects.

2. Based on the principle of utility, integration and child's natural interests, and experience.
3. Important place to scientific and social subjects.
4. Important subjects are Health and Hygiene, Physiology, Sociology, History, Geography, Agriculture, Home Science, Mathematics.

F. Methods of Teaching:

1. Learning by activity.
2. Learning through experience.
3. Project method.
4. Experimental method.
5. Integration method
6. Correlation.

G. Discipline:

1. Restricted freedom.
2. Social discipline.

H. Teacher:

1. Teacher occupies an important place in education.
2. He puts the pupil in the position of a discoverer or experimenter.
3. He is not to impose anything on the child.
4. He is a friend, philosopher and guide.
5. He helps the child to solve his problems himself.

I. School:

1. School is a laboratory for experimentation.
2. It is a miniature society.

Existentialism

INTRODUCTION

Existentialism is a way of philosophizing that may lead those who adopt it to a different conviction about the world and man's life in it.

Existentialism is mainly a European philosophy that originated before the turn of the twentieth century, but became popular after World War II (1939 – 45).

The seeds of existentialism may be traced back to an earlier period of the history of philosophy. During the 18th century reason and nature were given more importance, objectivity was very much emphasized, leading to industrial and technological developments and science was given utmost importance. From the scientific viewpoint, man was also regarded as an object. Man became a slave to machines in developing industrial society. Against this situation existentialism emerged as a protest against the society and asserted the supremacy of individuality of man.

EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY OF EXISTENTIALISM

The object of education is to give man the unity of truth...

In the field of education the contribution of existentialism is as follows :

The aim of Education :

Existentialists believe that the most important kind of knowledge is about the human condition and the choices that each person has to make, and that education is a process of developing consciousness about the freedom to choose and the meaning of responsibility for one's choices. Hence, the notion of group norms, authority, and established order – social, political, philosophical, religious, and so on – are rejected. The existentialists recognize few standards, customs to traditions, or eternal truths; in this respect, existentialism is at odds with the ideas of idealism and realism.

Total Development : The existentialists have aimed at total development of personality through education. Education should aim at the whole man. It should aim at character formation and self – realization. In the existentialist classroom, subject matter takes second place to helping the students understand and appreciate themselves as unique individuals who accept complete responsibility for their thoughts, feelings, and actions. Since feeling is not divorced from reason in decision making, the existentialist demands the education of the whole person, not just the mind.

Subjective Knowledge : The present age of science has made too much of objective knowledge, so much so, that the term has come to mean unreal, non-sense, ignorant and irrelevant. The existentialists rightly, point out that subjective knowledge is even more important than objective knowledge. They rightly hold that truth is subjectivity. It is a human value and values are not facts. Reduction of values to facts has led to widespread loss of faith in values. Therefore, along with the teaching of science and mathematics, the humanities, art, literature should be also be given suitable place in curriculum at every stage of education. Most of the ills of the modern man are

due to over – objective attitude. This requires a subjectivist correction in the light of existentialist ideas.

Importance of Environment : The present industrial, economic, political and social environment is valueless. Therefore, it helps confusion and corruption, tensions and conflicts. The existentialists seek to provide an environment proper to self – development and self – consciousness. This environment in the school requires contribution from humanities, arts and literature. These will help in the development of individuality in the educand so that he may cease to become a cog in the social wheel. Rather he should develop to a self – conscious and sensitive individual.

Child – Centred Education : Existentialist education is child – centred. It gives full freedom to the child. The teacher should help the child to know himself and recognize his being. Freedom is required for natural development. Education should convert imperfection into perfection. Education should be according to the individual’s needs and abilities of the child. The relation of the child to himself should be strengthened by education.

Curriculum :

Existentialists prefer to free learners to choose what to study and also determine what is true and by what criteria to determine these truths. The curriculum would avoid systematic knowledge or structured disciplines, and the students would be free to select from many available learning situations. The learners would choose the knowledge they wish to possess. The humanities are commonly given tremendous emphasis. They are explored as a means of providing students with vicarious experiences that will help unleash their own creativity and self – expression. For example, rather than emphasizing historical events, existentialists focus upon the actions of historical individuals, each of whom provides possible models for the students’ own behaviour.

Existentialist’s approach to education is almost an inversion of the realist approach. In the field of curriculum while the realists exclusively emphasize science, the existentialists find out that science and objective education severs our relation with ourselves. Science cannot help in inner realization and achievement of peace. This, however, does not mean that science education should be ignored. It only means besides science the curriculum must include humanities, ethics and religion. In keeping with this viewpoint contemporary engineering colleges have included some philosophy, ethics and social studies, in their curriculum. Without this synthetic approach to curriculum the aim of character formation and personality development will be defeated.

Learning Experiences :

An existentialist curriculum would consist of experiences and subjects that lend themselves to philosophical dialogue and acts of choice making. Because the choice is personal and subjective, subjects that are emotional, aesthetic and philosophical are appropriate. Literature, drama, film – making, art, and so on, are important, because, they portray the human condition and choice – making conditions. The curriculum would stress self – expressive activities, experimentation, and media that illustrate emotions, feelings and insights.

The classroom would be rich in materials that lend themselves to self – expression, and the school would be a place in which the teacher and students could pursue dialogue and discussion about their lives and choices.

The Teacher :

According to the existentialists the teacher creates an educational situation in which the student may establish contact with himself, become conscious of it and achieve self – realization. This requires existential approach in the teacher himself. He should also have an experience of self – realization so that he may be capable of guiding the students in this process. The teacher’s role is to help students define their own essence by exposing them to various paths they may take in life and creating an environment in which they may freely choose their own preferred way.

Existentialist methods focus on the individual. Learning is self- paced, self directed, and includes a great deal of individual contact with the teacher, who relates to each student openly and honestly.

The student :

The student should feel completely free for realizing his 'self'. Under the guidance of the teacher, the student should try to realize his 'self' through introversion. The student accepts the discipline prescribed by the teacher and does not become irresponsible. The purpose of freedom given to him should be to enable him to effect the full development of his individuality.

Religious and Moral Education :

The existentialists particularly lay emphasis upon religion and moral education. Religion allows a person to develop himself. Religious education gives him an understanding of his existence in the cosmos. It shows the religious path of self – realization. It also makes him capable of utilizing faith in self – development. Moral education is closely related to religious education. Both develop the inner self and help in the realization of the infinite within the finite.

CRITICAL EVALUATION

Some critics (mainly traditionalists or Conservatives) claim that existentialism as philosophy for the schools has limited application because education in our society, and in most other modern societies, involves institutionalized learning and socialization, which require group instruction, restriction on individual behaviour and bureaucratic organization. Schooling is a process that limits students’ freedom and that is based on adult authority and on the norms and beliefs of the mass or common culture. The individual existentialist, exerting his or her will and choice will encounter difficulty in school – and in other large, formal organizations.

Unit -1

Meaning.

Education is the touchstone of the civilization and culture of a country. It is an integral part and basis of human life. Education is as old as human existence and shall continue to function as long as the human race lives. It is an essential human virtue. Education fashions and models man for society or transform him into a social and cultural being. Education is important for the progress of individual and society.

In literary senses the word 'Education' owes its origin to the following Latin roots: -

1. 'Educere' which means to bring up a child or nourish him according to certain aims or ends in view.
2. 'Educare' which means drawing out what is best in man.
3. 'Educatum' which refers to train an individual.

Definitions by different thinkers.

1. **Swami Vivekananda.** "The manifestation of divine perfection already existing in man".
2. **M.K. Gandhi.** He says, "By education I mean an all-round drawing out best in child and man - body, mind and spirit.
3. **Dr. Zakir Hussain.** "Education is the process of the individual mind getting to its full possible development.
4. **Froebel.** "Education is the unfoldment of what is already enfolded in the germ. It is the process through which the child makes internal external."
5. **John Dewey.** "Education is the development of all those capacities in the individual which will enable him to control his environment and fulfill his possibilities.
6. **Redden.** "Education is the deliberate and systematic influence existed by the mature upon the immature, through instruction, discipline and harmonious development of physical, intellectual, aesthetic, social and spiritual powers of the human being, according to the individual and social needs and directed towards the union of the educated with his creator, at the final end".

Thus education is not the communication of information by the teacher or the acquisition of knowledge by the child. It is the total development of the personality. It is a process of growth and development thought out life.

Education is life and life is education. Education is not limited to teaching of three Rs or passing an examination and receiving a certificate or degree. It is life itself. It is really life that educates. Lodge has rightly said,

"In the wider sense life is education and education is life..... Whatever broadens our horizon, deepens our insight, refines our reactions and stimulates our thoughts and feelings educates us".

Education is a process. (Tri-polar process). In its modern sense, education is tri-polar process. It involves interaction between the pupil, the teacher and the social environment. A teacher creates situation and provides opportunities for his actual participation. Thus all education takes place in the social setting.

<https://www.slideshare.net/KarlyWood/interdisciplinary-approach-to-teaching>

<https://www.scribd.com/document/330128151/Education-as-a-Liberal-Discipline>

<https://www.flame.edu.in/about-flame/what-is-liberal-education>

<https://www.scribd.com/document/330128151/Education-as-a-Liberal-Discipline>

Conclusion. On basis of this discussion, we can conclude that education a purposeful and deliberate effort made by the parents or teachers to.

1. Develop man in terms of his many sided personality.
2. To develop his innate power.
3. To enable him to adjust to his environment according to his benefits.
4. To establish harmony with things.
5. To develop his body, mind and soul.

NATURE OF EDUCATION

1. Education – a tripolar process. Education is a tri-polar process. It involves interaction among the teacher, the pupil, and the social environment. (social forces).

2. Education – purposeful process. Education is a purposeful process. Both the pupil and the teacher make efforts for achieving purpose or destination.

3. Education – a continuous and life long process. Education is a continuous and lifelong process. It starts when the child is born and continues up to the last moment of death.

4. Education – a process of individual development. Education is a process of individual development. By individual development we mean physical, intellectual, aesthetic, moral, social and spiritual development of individual.

5. Education – a process of individual adjustment. Education is a process of individual adjustment. Education helps the individual in making adjustment with his own self, with parents, relatives, friends, teachers or members of the society at large.

6. Education – a dynamic process. Education is a dynamic and progressive process. It reconstructs a new and better social pattern according to the changing needs of time, place and society.

7. Education – theoretical as well as practical in nature. Theoretical and practical knowledge of education broadens the intellectual horizons of the child, deepens his insight, enhances his efficiency and helps him in solving educational problems.

8. Education – a science as well as an art. Education is both a science as well as an art.

INDIVIDUAL AIM OF EDUCATION

Meaning. Individual aim of education means that education should develop individuals according to their interest, capacities and specialties.

Narrow meaning. In its narrow sense, individual aim is known as self-expression, all-round development of the child and natural development also. In its narrow sense,

individual aim is based on the philosophy of 'naturalism' according to which education should develop the unique individuality of a child in accordance with his instincts.

Wider meaning. In its wider sense, individual aim is known as self-realization. Psychology also corroborates with wider aspects of the development of individuality. This is because psychological researchers have clearly established the fact that each individual is born with his own peculiar and distinct innate tendencies and capacities. Hence, it is the prime function of education to develop each individual fully and completely according to his or her interests, inclinations, aptitudes and capacities in such a way that he or she becomes an able and capable person.

PHILOSOPHY

The term philosophy has a Greek origin. The word philosophy can be traced to the Greek word "philosophia" which is made up of the words – 'philos' (meaning love) and 'sophia' (meaning wisdom). Therefore the literal meaning of philosophy is 'love of wisdom'. Since times immemorial there have been various pursuits of unfolding the mysteries of the universe, birth and death, sorrow and joy. Various ages have produced different thoughts throwing light upon the mystic region. The ultimate truth is yet to be found out. This eternal quest for truth lends to the origin of philosophy. A love of wisdom is the essence for any philosophic investigation.

RELATION BETWEEN PHILOSOPHY AND EDUCATION

Philosophy and education are related like flower and fragrance, skeleton or flesh and blood. They are two flowers of one stem, and two sides of a coin. The former is the contemplative side, while the latter is the active side of the coin. Philosophical knowledge has a fundamental role in clarifying questions of education.

There is close relationship between philosophy and education. Let us have a look at some definitions:

1. Ross. "Philosophy and education are two sides of the same coin. The former is contemplative while the latter is the active side".

2. Dewey. "Philosophy is the theory of education in its most general phase".

3. Fichte. "The art of education will never attain complete clearness without philosophy". After considering these definitions we can describe the relation between philosophy and education as under:

1. Education is philosophy in action. Philosophy provides the purpose or the aim and education makes it practical. Their relationship is just like the relationship between a lame man and a blind man. The lame man is able to see but unable to walk and the blind man is able to walk but unable to see. In order to reach the destination, the blind and the lame should cooperate with each other. The lame man will show the direction and the blind will move accordingly. So is the case with philosophy and education. Philosophy will show the direction and education will proceed in that direction. Education without philosophy is blind and philosophy without education is lame. Thus education is the dynamic side of philosophy. In other words, it is philosophy in action.

2. Philosophy determines the real destination towards which education has to go. Philosophy has always inspired educational theories as well as practice. It determines the real destination towards which education has to go. In the words of Dewey, "education is

the laboratory in which philosophical tenets become concrete and are tested. Philosophy is wisdom; education transmits that wisdom from one generation to the other. Philosophy represents a system of thought; education embraces that thought in content of instructions. Philosophy embodies a way of life. Education is a preparation for life. Philosophy is knowledge obtained by natural reason; education is development of that reason and other power of mind.

3. Great philosophers have been great educators also. Educators who were also great philosophers like Gandhi, Tagore, and Dewey etc have bearing open educational schemes through philosophical view and ideals. Education is the strongest instrument for the realization of the ideals of life, and a civilized attempt to bring about the desired development of human personality. This indicates fact that the plant of education draws its nourishment from the soil of philosophy.

4. Philosophy determines the various aspects of education. Every aspect of education has a philosophical base. There is no aspect of education: aims, curriculum, methods, text-books, discipline, teacher etc which is not influenced and determined by philosophy. It is philosophy, which provides aims to education and these aims determines the curriculum, the methods of teaching, the text books, the role of the teacher and the school discipline. Thus education is the dynamic, active and practical side of philosophy.

5. The ultimate questions of education are the questions of philosophy. Philosophy answers all the ultimate questions of education. Russell comments that “philosophy is an attempt to answer the ultimate questions of education”. Philosophy of education undertakes the systematic discussion of educational problems on the philosophical level.

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN INDOCTRINATION, TRAINING

Indoctrination

The dictionary definition of ‘indoctrination’ is ‘teach (a person or group) to accept a set of beliefs uncritically. Indoctrination is the process of inculcating ideas, attitudes, cognitive strategies or a professional methodology by rote memorizing without critically thinking. It is often distinguished from education by the fact that the indoctrinated person is expected not to question or critically examine the rule they have learned. Indoctrination tells students what to think and believe. In the process of indoctrination, an individual has no choice. He is not allowed to participate effectively or actively in the process. He remains a passive recipient of the content.

Training

Training is the acquisition of knowledge, skills, and competencies as a result of the teaching of vocational or practical skills and knowledge that relate to specific useful competencies. Training has specific goals of improving one's capability, capacity, productivity and performance. Main difference between education and training is that in education we learn about what and why to do, in training we learn how to do. Training means practice, exercise, repetition, training in education will be provided in the formation of good habits, good manners, useful skills and democratic living and healthy attitude. Training tells students what to do and how to do it. Its focus is on the mastery of skills previously polished by innovators and experts. Pilots who train in a flight simulator are not expected to develop new methods for landing an aircraft in an emergency; they are expected to master previously perfected methods. Indoctrination and training both have an important role in the formation of responsible and capable persons. Every sustainable human community has a core set of shared beliefs and commitments. Part of entering into any community is absorbing and assenting to those core beliefs. One common characteristic feature common to all forms of training is that they involve regular exercising, constant repetition and definite end and purpose.

UNIT 7 DEVELOPING SPEAKING/ORAL SKILLS

Structure

- 7.0 Objectives
- 7.1 Introduction
- 7.2 Learner Needs
- 7.3 Accepted Techniques in Teaching Speaking/Oral Skills
 - 7.3.1 The conversation class
 - 7.3.2 The topic based discussion class
 - 7.3.3 Task centred fluency practice
- 7.4 Distinguishing Between the Different Features of Writing and Speaking
- 7.5 The Importance of Group Work in Developing Oral Skills
- 7.6 Characteristics of an Effective Oral Skills Lesson
 - 7.6.1 The simplicity of the task
 - 7.6.2 Preparation
 - 7.6.3 Tangible output or result
 - 7.6.4 Language practice
 - 7.6.5 Interaction
 - 7.6.6 Interest level
 - 7.6.7 Organisation
- 7.7 Role of the Teacher
 - 7.7.1 Presentation
 - 7.7.2 Process
 - 7.7.3 Ending
 - 7.7.4 Feedback
- 7.8 Understanding the Teaching of Oral Skills
- 7.9 Let Us Sum Up
- 7.10 Key Words
- 7.11 Suggested Readings

7.0 OBJECTIVES

This unit will enable you to:

- understand the two major aspects of the teaching of oral skills
- identify and distinguish between the needs of learners
- familiarise yourself with some accepted techniques in teaching oral skills
- understand and differentiate between writing and speaking activities
- understand, analyse and evaluate the importance of group work in developing oral skills

- enumerate and identify the characteristics of an effective speaking class
- study and analyse the different stages of a speaking lesson
- examine the role of the teacher in the oral skills class.

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Oral skills have two major components. First, there are **motor perceptive skills**. These are the means of perceiving, recalling and articulating in the correct order the sounds and structure of a language. Generally, these are developed at the primary level where learners are put through various **look and say exercises**, or **pattern practice**. Usually, there is no context provided and learners develop these skills through **repetition and choral drill**. Martin Bygate likens this stage to 'manipulating the controls of a car on a deserted piece of road far from the flow of normal traffic.... it is like learning to drive without ever going out on the road'.

Concentration on the development of motor perceptive skills led to problems. The learner was not able 'to transfer his knowledge from a language - learning situation to a language - using situation' (Wilkins)

This is what makes the second component of oral skills namely the '**interaction skills**' important. By using this the learner will be able to transfer his/her knowledge from a language learning situation to a language use situation. Interaction skills involve knowing what to say, how to say this and how to establish and maintain contact with the other person. Examples of interaction skills are being able to ask someone the time, describe your flat to a broker, use the telephone to obtain information about train timetables, etc.

In recent years there has been a growing emphasis on the teaching and learning of conversation/oral skills. With the spread of English there is a greater demand for the learner to communicate in the target language rather than acquire a knowledge of correct structure.

For this reason, the controlled exercises used in the language class by teachers, giving practice in structures, has now given way to dynamic and meaningful oral practice.

7.2 LEARNER NEEDS

Above all, the learner needs to be able to speak intelligibly, using appropriate word stress. Some of the important functions s/he must be able to perform with the language are:-

- greeting friends, superiors, strangers
- making telephone calls, asking for information
- expressing reactions to T.V. programmes, films, plays
- seeking and giving information in class and out of class
- asking questions while playing a game, in class, in a debate
- discussing ideas
- participating in debates and discussions
- conversing with friends, strangers, teachers
- responding to questions
- advising friends, juniors, and younger members in the family
- clarifying meaning or intention
- giving a report of an event.

There could be any number of such functions of language.

1. Suggest five more functions of the spoken language which your students may require.

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7.3 ACCEPTED TECHNIQUES IN TEACHING CONVERSATIONAL/ORAL SKILLS

In recent years, more emphasis has been given to oral skills than in the past.

7.3.1 The Conversation Class

One of the accepted ways of teaching speech is to hold a 'conversation class'. The teacher sits with a group of learners and asks them questions about their home, family, work, etc. It is a question and answer session and is not always very productive of learning as it lacks an interesting and clearly defined topic.

7.3.2 The Topic Based Discussion Class

Another kind of fluency-based activity was the topic-based discussion. The teacher planned discussions on interesting topics. This was an improvement on the conversation class because the discussion was now structured and clear. But it lacked a purpose. Learners were not likely to feel motivated to speak on a topic merely to practise their English. This highlights a crucial fact of learning that learners need a reason to speak more than a topic to speak about.

Another disadvantage in the topic-based discussion was that it was carried out with the full class. This could be a group of 30-50 students. In a forty minute period, it is not difficult to calculate the talking time which each student would get. Most often, the discussion would be monopolised by the brighter students while the rest of the class lost interest.

7.3.3 Task Centred Fluency Practice

With the increasing importance being given to Communicative Language Teaching, task-centred fluency practice is being used more and more. In this, a group is given a task to perform through verbal interaction. It may be in the form of a group activity or role play. The group has to perform a task which has a tangible output either in the form of giving a group report, a speech or a presentation. This gives the group a concrete task to work with and clear guidelines regarding its scope. It also provides a basis for feedback.

Check Your Progress 2

1. Have you tried the three types of activities discussed in this section? Which did you find most useful? Give reasons for your answer.

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7.4 DISTINGUISHING BETWEEN THE DIFFERENT FEATURES OF WRITING AND SPEAKING

In order to teach conversation/oral skills effectively, it is important to understand the differences between speech and writing.

The language of speech is not 'spoken' writing. In oral communication we ought not to 'speak like a book'. In speech the kind of vocabulary, the structure of the sentence and its complexity varies greatly from what would be required as writing. Nor do we necessarily speak in grammatically correct sentences.

While speaking, the speaker has to plan, organise the message and also control the language. Repetition, mistakes in vocabulary and message take place. In understanding oral production, on the other hand, the learner has to process the stream of speech which might be difficult in terms of complexity or pace of speaking. While reading, the reader is in a position to re-read what s/he has not understood.

Another major difference between speech and writing is that the speech situation requires the presence of a listener. The speaker talks to a listener who generally provides some feedback on agreement or understanding. It is important for the speaker to make sure that communication is taking place, for if not, the message will have to be adapted and adjusted.

In written communication too, a certain amount of reciprocity is needed. The writer has to anticipate the reader's needs and background information and write in such a way that there are no problems in comprehension. Similarly, the reader has to strive to understand the writer's intentions. But s/he has no way of signalling understanding to the writer. The only feedback s/he provides is whether s/he will continue to read or not.

The reciprocity of the act of speech necessitates that in order to maintain the flow of speech the speaker must take notice of the listener, to allow him or her the chance to speak. It requires the speaker to take turns at speech, and also to adjust, adapt, vary the degree of formality employed according to need.

Check Your Progress 3

Write five differences between speaking and writing. You may refer to Course 3 as well for the answer.

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7.5 THE IMPORTANCE OF GROUP WORK IN DEVELOPING ORAL SKILLS

Group work has been found especially conducive in the development of oral skills. Research has given us the 2/3 formula which shows that in a 40 minute class with a strength of 40 students per class a learner gets less than a minute to participate in the speaking activity. Group work provides a framework whereby a learner can have maximum participation. In a teacher-oriented class, the amount of language practice each learner gets, is much less than in a class where learners work in groups.

Group work gives an opportunity to learners to speak in small groups, at times with their friends, and this reduces the hesitation and embarrassment which a shy learner may feel. Besides helping learners to get rid of their inhibitions, it also builds up a sense of

closeness, owing to the physical proximity and tight structure of groups. Learners feel more motivated, have a sense of belonging, which spurs them on in a particular direction. It helps in establishing a sense of personal rapport. Communication is better when the physical distance between individuals is reduced. In case there are visuals or any other materials to be used they are accessible and easy to share within the group.

Students can also interact as a group with other groups. This can build an atmosphere of healthy rivalry. The time limit or inter-group competition spurs each group to move ahead.

The teacher is also freed from being centre stage and moves freely around the room, giving advice and support when needed. In most schools, teachers need to assess the learner's performance. It also gives them the opportunity to note mistakes for follow-up remedial work and help the slower learner.

Another important feature of group work is that it provides an opportunity for peer teaching. Students are more likely to learn from each other than from the teacher. Mistakes get corrected in a healthy cooperative atmosphere.

Important features of interaction skills such as turn-taking, adjusting one's speech to what the other person knows and wants to hear also get practised. One of the problems of group work is that students may get overexcited, get out of control and the classes may get too noisy. Teachers also find that the purpose of teaching oral skills is defeated if learners lapse into their mother tongue. At times, some learners fail to get 'involved' despite the best efforts of the teacher. In classes that are very large, the teacher may find herself unable to supervise efficiently.

Let us examine the features which constitute a good oral skills lesson and see whether the problems associated with group work can be overcome by thoughtful and efficient organisation.

Check Your Progress 4

How do you use group work in your classes? Discuss the organisation in terms of the number in the group, furniture organisation and placement/movement of students.

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7.6 CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EFFECTIVE ORAL SKILLS LESSON

Some of the important aspects to keep in mind while planning and working on an oral skills lesson are:-

7.6.1 The Simplicity of the Task

The task gives a sense of purpose and direction. It should be interesting for the learner, not be too complex and within the reach of most of the class. If the teacher needs to intervene to spell out or explain the task repeatedly then learners would be wasting much of the discussion time in just listening.

7.6.2 Preparation

The task should be easy to prepare. It should not be too complex in terms of typing, duplicating, recording, etc. Teachers may not be able to hold oral skills classes regularly if the task entails too many hours of preparatory work.

7.6.3 Tangible Output or Result

A task must generate thought and its end result is in the form of a tangible output. The learners may be required to write down the result, give a short talk, make a presentation or report and so on. The tangible output or result helps learners to focus on what has to be done. It provides a clear signal to the teacher, group and others that the task is complete. In addition, it provides a basis for feedback. It is on the basis of the result and the discussions prior to it that the teacher gives feedback to the class, as a group or individually, as the case may be.

7.6.4 Language Practice

The task should be such that it provides for optimum language practice by the learners. If the task is too complex and most of the time is spent puzzling it out with no speech taking place, then the task is not an efficient one.

7.6.5 Interaction

While planning the task, care must be taken to see that the task chosen is interactive. Tasks which are open-ended, i.e. which involve the learners in brainstorming ideas, giving them the opportunity to use their own imaginative and intellectual resources are better than tasks which are 'closed-ended', i.e. which are limited by having one correct answer alone.

7.6.6 Interest Level

Much of the success of an activity depends on how interesting the task is. If the task is 'interesting' the learner motivation is high and the performance good.

If the task is too complex or difficult, learners will get discouraged quickly. If the task is too easy, learners get bored. There has to be a combination of challenge and the probability of success; the task must be hard enough to demand an effort on the part of the group members, but easy enough for it to be clear that success is within their grasp.

The subject matter of the oral skills activity should be interesting. It must be within the range of experience of the learners and at the same time not too familiar. However, it may also be argued that the more imaginative or exotic the discussion material is, the more interesting it will seem to the learners.

7.6.7 Organisation

As discussed earlier, group work is most useful in oral skills development, where learners engage in completing tasks which generate interaction.

Most often, group work fails because of lack of organisation. The teacher can ask learners to form groups of four by turning around and facing those behind. A few students can be shifted to ensure that groups are heterogeneous or homogeneous. At times, it is a good idea to let the groups be semi-permanent for a set of activities as frequent changes especially in the younger learners may lead to restlessness and indiscipline.

Check Your Progress 5

Select a speaking activity task, and discuss it in terms of the criteria mentioned in this section.

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7.7 ROLE OF THE TEACHER

The teacher has an important role in the teaching of oral skills. Although she is not in a frontal position in class, yet the entire activity can fail if the teacher is not clear of her role in the different stages of the activity.

7.7.1 Presentation

The presentation of the task should be made at the very beginning of the class. If it is done after the groups have been formed, or the materials have been given, it is likely that the learners become too involved, distracted or excited with other things and thus fail to concentrate on what is to be done.

The instructions should be crisp, clear and thorough. In case the learners do not understand what is to be done, a 'trial run' can be conducted especially if the activity is short.

7.7.2 Process

The teacher needs to plan out meticulously the various aspects of the process i.e. the way the discussion is held. At times the group needs to elect a secretary to jot down points. The learners may be required to brainstorm or to jot down their own ideas individually before sharing them with the group. The task has to be planned so that each member of the group gets a chance to contribute. At times the learner may be asked to use certain language forms or structures while participating in the discussion.

While the students are discussing, the teacher can clarify ideas, when necessary. She can join a group and contribute to the content if she finds their interest waning. The teacher also monitors if all learners are getting a chance to add to the discussion. The use of the native language can also be discouraged.

At the same time the teacher notes down common errors which the learners are making so that they can be dealt with in the feedback session later. She may find that peer-correction is taking place and will have to make her own decision about when and how to correct.

7.7.3 Ending

Some groups may finish earlier than the others. The teacher can ask them to move on to the next stage. For example, if the tangible output is to present an oral report, the speaker can rehearse the oral report in front of his group. Some groups may take too long to complete the task. If the teacher has been careful in specifying the time limit at the beginning, then, with a few reminders in between, winding up the activity will not be a problem.

7.7.4 Feedback

Often, the learners as well as the teacher may feel that the activity is over once the learners have completed the task. But the task was truly a means of achieving its underlying aim, namely language practice. The activity that the learners have gone through and completed has to be assessed, appreciated, admired and evaluated from the language point of view. This is an integral part of the activity and it can be organised in a number of ways. Learners may be asked to give an oral report, make a display or read aloud. It is done in the whole class mode and rounded off by the teacher with suitable comments.

The teacher also needs to give feedback on the process. Important aspects such as discussion skills are also commented upon. Students can also join in providing comments on each other's performance.

Lastly, the teacher gives feedback on the language used in completing the task. She has already noted the language errors made while learners were interacting and on the basis of that information she plans her future reinforcement or remedial lessons.

7.9 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we made you aware of the need to formally include Spoken English in the language curriculum. We also distinguished between the features of spoken and written English. We emphasized the importance of group work in teaching the spoken skill and suggested some of the features of an effective oral skills lesson. Finally we described the role of the teacher in sustaining and enlivening an oral skills class. We hope you found this unit useful.

7.10 KEY WORDS

cue cards	cards given to learners in a role play game to tell them which role they are to play, and what they are to do (Cue Cards are sometimes called role cards)
fluency	being able to use a language spontaneously and confidently, without lots of pauses and hesitations.
motor perceptive skills	the skill of perceiving and producing the sounds and structure of a language
interaction skill	deciding what to say, when to say it and how to say it.
reciprocity of speech	the need to adapt speech according to the listener's responses
feedback	information given about the result of someone's actions to the person responsible

7.11 SUGGESTED READINGS

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Speaking skills

Introduction:

Speaking:

Speaking is an act of making vocal sounds. We can say that speaking means to converse, or expressing one's thoughts and feelings in spoken language. To speak often implies conveying information. It may be from an informal remark to a scholarly presentation to a formal address.

Speaking skills:

- Speaking skills are the skills that give us the ability to communicate effectively.
- These skills allow the speaker, to convey his message in a passionate, thoughtful, and convincing manner.
- Speaking skills also help to assure that one won't be misunderstood by those who are listening.

Description:

Speaking is the productive skill in the oral mode. It, like the other skills, is more complicated than it seems at first and involves more than just pronouncing words.

There are three kinds of speaking situations in which we find ourselves:

1. interactive,
2. partially interactive, and
3. Non-interactive.

- **Interactive speaking situations** include face-to-face conversations and telephone calls, in which we are alternately listening and speaking, and in which we have a chance to ask for clarification, repetition, or slower speech from our conversation partner.
- Some speaking situations are **partially interactive**, such as when giving a speech to a live audience, where the convention is that the audience does not interrupt the speech. The speaker nevertheless can see the audience and judge from the expressions on their faces and body language whether or not he or she is being understood.
- Few speaking situations may be totally **non-interactive**, such as when recording a speech for a radio broadcast.

In all the above explained conditions speaking is always a headache for most of the people. Although the fear of speaking is common, studies show that ability to speaking can be enhanced by improving speaking skills.

What to do before speaking?

The first step to speaking is to think and the first step to perfect speaking is to think positive. Good speakers have the ability to quickly analyze and absorb the information given to them, assess it fast and to make a decision and communicate that decision to other. Keep in mind to:

1. Be an active listener:

The key ingredient towards making you a person who can think on the spot and respond intelligently is to be an active listener. This means listening carefully and giving your full attention to the words, tone, emotion and logic behind what the other one is saying.

2. Be a quick organiser of thoughts:

All of us have the ability to think fast. The trick is to adopt some frameworks or models to structure new information into something coherent that we can respond with. One can break down issues or ideas into past, present and future.

3. Structure your speech in your mind:

These are useful frameworks to organise ideas and thoughts quickly.

The basic structure of any speech involves:

- Opening
- Body
- Conclusion

It is very useful in delivering speeches and especially for speaking in situations such as table topics during meetings or other times when called upon to "say some words". Thinking before speaking is important for us to add value in terms of communicating our thoughts, ideas and feelings. We can touch lives through deeds and we can touch lives through speech.

Speaking Skills:

Some speaking skills are:

1. Be prepared and practice,

The more you know what you want to say, the better you'll get at it. First, brainstorm the topic of your speech and research it, if you need to. Write down all the points you want to make and then organize them into an outline. Then, practice your speech out loud at least 3 to 5 times.

2. Know your audience,

The better you know your audience or listeners, the easier it will be to connect to them as you speak. When you are able to make that connection, you'll hold their attention.

3. Pay attention to the old KISS principle, that is, Keep It Short and Simple,

When you are speaking don't beat around the bush or try to impress with complex metaphors. Stories, however, can be a powerful public speaking tool, especially when they contain at least a hint of humor. But again, keep them short and on point. Shorter messages leave more impression. They're also easier for your audience to remember.

4. Interact with your audience.

Lectures will rarely have the same impact on an audience that an open discussion will. Look for opportunities to involve your audience in what you are speaking about. Ask for validation of points you are making ("Am I right?" "Has that ever happened to you?") Or allow time for questions. Also, make sure to establish eye contact with your audience, and keep it throughout your speech.

5. Speak with sincerity and passion.

When a person wants to leave a lasting impression with the audience about one's topic then be sure that you are true to yourself and your topic as you speak. Don't be afraid to inject enthusiasm and passion into the speech as well.

6. Close your speech in a memorable way.

Give your audience something to think about as you finish up your speech. Certainly, it's a good idea to summarize your main points one more time, but then finish up with an inspiring story or quote, or leave them with a thought provoking question.

7. Fluency

The main goal is fluency. Remember that one don't have to know many complex grammatical structures to achieve that goal! First of all try to speak as fluent as possible (even making some grammar mistakes). Then, after making one's speaking fluent, one can focus on grammar aspects.

Speaking skills required in meeting:

Speaking skills are very important in business. Those who are at ease conversationally have the ability to "connect" with others which builds rapport and, eventually, relationships. Effective business meeting communication is very much a learnable skill. Here are important tips on speaking well as a meeting participant.

1. Talk to the entire group.

When speaking in groups moves your eyes around and talk to anyone who's listening to what you have to say. "When responding to a question, address the entire group, not just the person who asked the question."

2. Reach out and encourage feedback.

Actively encourage comment and feedback based on what you have to contribute.

3. Mirror the tenor of the meeting.

Another business meeting basic is establishing a comfortable atmosphere where everyone feels at ease. One effective way to achieve that is to establish a consistency in communication. If, for instance, most participants are keeping their remarks short, do the same. If their tone is low and reserved, follow their lead.

4. Don't be a time hog.

Be thorough, but don't take much time to get your message across that you lose others' attention.

Micro-skills:

Here are some of the micro-skills involved in speaking.

- The speaker has to Pronounce the distinctive sounds of a language clearly enough so that people can distinguish them. This includes making tonal distinctions.
- Use the correct forms of words. This may mean, for example, changes in the tense, case, or gender.
- Put words together in correct word order.
- Use vocabulary appropriately.
- Use the language that is appropriate to the situation and the relationship to the conversation partner.
- Make the main ideas stand out from supporting ideas or information.

Barriers while speaking:

There are certain barriers to speaking:

1. Unclear messages.
2. Lack of consistency in the communication process.
3. Incomplete sentences.
4. Not understanding the receiver.
5. Words can have different meanings to different listener.
6. Use of negative words.

Now the question arises how we can improve our speaking skills

How to improve speaking skills:

1. Practice where you can, when you can: Any practice is good whether you speak to someone who is a native English speaker or not.
2. It's important to build your confidence. If possible, use simple English sentence structure that you know is correct, so that you can concentrate on getting your message across.
3. Try to experiment with the English you know. Use words and phrases you know in new situations. Native English speakers are more likely to correct you if you use the wrong word than if you use the wrong grammar. Experimenting with vocabulary is a really good way of getting feedback.

4. Try to respond to what people say to you. You can often get clues to what people think by looking at their body language. Respond to them in a natural way.
5. Try NOT to translate into and from your own language. This takes too much time and will make you more hesitant.
6. If you forget a word do what native English speakers do all the time, and say things that 'fill' the conversation. This is better than keeping completely silent. Try using um, or err, if you forget the word.
7. Don't speak too fast! It's important to use a natural rhythm when speaking English, but if you speak too fast it will be difficult for people to understand you.
8. Try to relax when you speak you'll find your mouth does most of the pronunciation work for you. When you speak English at normal speed, you'll discover that many of the pronunciation skills, such as linking between words, will happen automatically.
9. Remember, when speaking English Try to become less hesitant and more confident. Don't be shy to speak the more you do it, the more confident you'll become. Remember to be polite use "please" and "thank you" if you ask someone to do something for you.

Conclusion:

Unlike a written text where we can re-read information, a speaker has to speak the word. These words can't be removed. There is no opportunity for listeners to recapture the words once they have been said. To maintain listener's attention, speech needs to be well planned.

While speaking consider these:

- Happy is the hearing man; unhappy the speaking man.
 - The difference between a smart man and a wise man is that a smart man knows what to say, and a wise man knows whether or not to say it.
 - Speak well and live well.
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UNIT 1 LANGUAGE VARIATION - THE CONTEXT OF SITUATION

Structure

- 1.0 Objectives
- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 What is Language?
- 1.3 Language Variation
 - 1.3.1 Dialect
 - 1.3.2 Style
- 1.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 1.5 Key Words
- 1.6 Questions
- 1.7 Reading List

1.0 OBJECTIVES

Our aim in this Unit is to make you understand the field of stylistics in terms of fundamental questions, such as

- 1) What is language?
- 2) The nature of language variation: dialect, style, register.

In other words, we are placing **stylistics** in the context of the situation

1.1 INTRODUCTION

What is stylistics? It is a study of languages used for a particular purpose, generally for a literary purpose, though it is of course possible to do a stylistic analysis of the language used in advertising, or even in casual conversation. Stylistics is an attempt to characterise the nature of the linguistic features occurring in a particular piece of text (whether spoken or written, though usually the implication is written text). A piece of writing is distinguished from other pieces of writing, not only because of its content, or what it is trying to say, but by how it is said, that is, by the choice of linguistic features, and how these are arranged in the text. Stylistics is concerned with analysing the choice of linguistic features and their arrangement in the text.

But before we embark on a study of stylistics, it is important to begin right at the beginning with the fundamental questions: **What is language?** A lot of what is discussed in this unit will be repetitive – but it is essential to our discussion, and will help you understand the concepts better.

1.2 WHAT IS LANGUAGE?

The concept of what language is has to be closely linked with what it means to know a language. Knowledge of a language, or language proficiency can be thought of in terms of the distinction between 'competence' and 'performance' made by Chomsky. Competence relates to the potential for language ability that the child is born with and

which matures with age. Performance is the expression of this language ability in actual speech and writing.

Competence, being concerned in essence with the ability on the part of the child to produce language as such, is thus, when the competence is narrowed to the knowledge of one specific language, further narrowed down to the representative forms of that language, namely, the standard dialect, or the standard version of the language. Thus, knowledge of the language is knowledge of its standard version. This version is what is codified in dictionaries and grammar books, and is the form used for wider communication.

Secondly, the notion of competence is basically linked with knowledge of syntax, in syntax is the backbone of language. The realm of syntax is the simple sentence, within which operate all the aspects of syntax. The relationship of one sentence to another, to the paragraph in which it occurs, and the total text of which it is a part is not the concern of syntax.

Thirdly, competence relates to **potential for use**, not use itself. Thus, it leaves out of consideration a major aspect of language in use, namely, the use of language in context. Since the only form of language that language users know is language in context, any theory of language which ignores this aspect of language in use cannot be entirely satisfactory.

Shortly after the Chomskyan revolution, sociolinguists like Gumperz, Ferguson, Fishman and so on, became aware that merely the theory of language without the use of that language was not of much value, and hence they insisted that at the very least, any notion of language must include i) non-standard forms of the language, ii) the linguistic context in which it appears and, iii) the speech context in which it is used. Thus language was made to move out of its ivory tower of the isolated sentence into the huffy burly of life in the marketplace. Speech and writing, as they actually occur in their linguistic and sociolinguistic context, and in the dialect / style' register in which they occur was now to be considered language. Control of all these aspects was considered to give rise to 'communicative competence'. Thus, there is a marked distinction between the concepts of 'competence' (linguistic; sentence-based; based on standard variety of language) and 'communicative competence' (sociolinguistic; text- and context-based; based on different varieties of the language).

1.3 LANGUAGE VARIATION

What are these different varieties of individual languages?

Linguistic conventions develop in different social groups, and these serve to separate one language from another. But, over the years, as social groups migrate and change their cultural characteristics, the language spoken submits to change and variation. Linguistic change can also be of another kind - language variation down the centuries. This variation can be 'synchronic' (variation within one time period, in terms of region, class or caste) or 'diachronic' (variation due to time factors).

We are aware of the **diachronic variations** of English. For example, the English used by Chaucer differs radically from that used by Milton and both these are different from that of T.S. Eliot. However, many of us are not aware of **synchronic variation**. Look at the following specimens, all of twentieth century English:

1. "Not me," Lump says, "Judge told me ef I get caught swippin' ady more stuff out'n stores, he'd send me to state's prison sure 'nough" (an uncodified American dialect)

2. Dickie: 'I'm on mother's side. The old boy's so doddery now he can hardly finish the course at all. I timed him today. It took him seventy-five seconds dead from a flying start to reach the pulpit, and he needed the whip coming round the head-----'

(Dickie, an adolescent (hence the slang) in Terence Rattigan's play 'The Winslow Boy')

3. Let us propose, then, as a tentative hypothesis, that a great many items appear in the lexicon with fixed selection and subcategorization features, but with a choice as to the features associated with the lexical categories noun, verb, adjective. (Chomsky: technical writing in Linguistics)
4. There the smoke of the camp was redolent with the scent of burning gum leaves, there was the splash of the lizard taking to its water, the twittering birds in the trees. (literary prose)

All the above are samples of twentieth century writing, yet they vary considerably in terms of the social class of the speaker, his age, the region he comes from, and the type of register he is using, whether literary, technical or otherwise. **These distinctions involve synchronic variation**, which is of three kinds: variation of Dialect, Style, and Register.

1.3.1 Dialect

Dialects may be i) regional or ii) social class/ caste varieties of a language. British and American English are regional dialectal varieties, just as within Britain, also, there are numerous dialects of English- the Lancashire dialect, the Scottish dialect, the Yorkshire variety and so on. The flower girl in Shaw's *Pygmalion*, for example, uses the Cockney dialect:

"There's manners f'yer? Teoo bunches of voylets red into the mad"

Dialectal differences may be phonological, morphological, syntactic or lexical in nature. For example, a feature of the phonological difference between General American English and British R. P. (Received Pronunciation) is the vowel sound in the words 'last' and 'dance' in the two dialects as shown below.

	British R.P.	American English
Pronunciation difference		
last	/lɑ:st/	/læst/
dance	/dɑ:ns/	/dæns/
Syntactic difference:	different from I'll meet them	different than I'll meet up with them
Lexical difference:	petrol	gas
Morphological difference:	dived	dove

Idiolect

We are aware of how any two speakers will differ in their use of English with respect to points of syntax, phonology or vocabulary. For example, some speakers may pronounce 'uncle' as /ʌŋkl/, others may say /ʌŋkəl/ or /ʌŋkil/. One speaker may use 'you know' in each sentence, while another might say, 'See what I mean?', or perhaps no filler at all. The term 'idiolect' is used to indicate the dialect of one person.

Such differences in phonology, morphology, syntax as they occur in the dialect of specific geographical regions may be marked by what are called dialect boundaries.

Thus in an imaginary state in India where some people use the word 'sigri' for stove and others call it 'sigli', the map may indicate the dialect boundary as follows (where 'x' indicates the use of 'sigri' and 'o' indicates the use of 'sigli'):

Isogloss

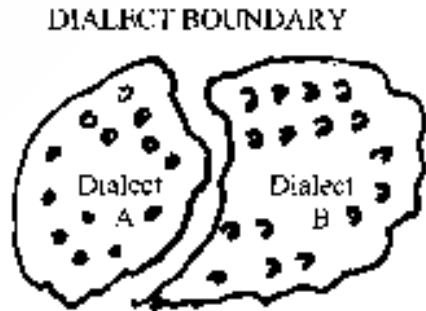
The boundary-line which demarcates the 'sigri' area from the 'sigli' area would be called an 'isogloss'. An isogloss is an imaginary line which divides two areas which differ in the use of a linguistic item.

We can draw a number of isoglosses in a similar fashion indicating other differences, e.g. an initial /s/ and an initial /sh/ in the same word or a terminal /r/ or terminal /c/ in the same word. The isoglosses need not coincide and the map would show a criss-cross of isoglosses as follows:



Bundling of isoglosses

Somewhere in the middle, a number of isoglosses tend to come together. Such a grouping of isoglosses is referred to as 'bundling'. Such a bundling of isoglosses is generally considered as a dialect boundary, as shown below:



Dialects and Languages

What are the criteria by which we may identify dialects of the same language or distinguish one language as different from another? Why do we say that Bhojपुरi and Avadhi are dialects of Hindi and that Punjabi and Hindi are two different languages?

The concept of **mutual intelligibility** is a partial answer. If two speakers of different dialects are mutually intelligible to each other in their day to day communication, then they are speaking the same language. However, this is not a totally valid criterion. Two languages like Hindi and Punjabi may be so closely related that there is bound to be some mutual intelligibility between speakers of the two languages. On the other hand, speakers of two dialects of the same language may not be mutually intelligible as happens in the case of some varieties of Chinese (e.g. Pekingese and Cantonese), as also of Konkani and Marathi.

A dialect is raised to the status of a language through non-linguistic considerations: it gains separate status when it becomes politically and socially powerful.

The Context of
Situation

Haugen (1966) indicates two clearly distinct dimensions involved in the understanding of the terms 'language' and 'dialect': structural and functional dimensions.

The **structural** dimension is descriptive, analysing the structure of languages: the **functional** is concerned with the use the speakers make of the codes, and this falls within the domain of the sociolinguist. In the modern world, says Haugen, "technological and political revolutions have brought Everyman the opportunity to participate in political decisions to his advantage. The invention of printing, the rise of industry and the spread of popular education have brought into being the modern nation-state, which extends some of the loyalties of the family and the neighbourhood or the clan to the whole state. Nation and language have become inextricably intertwined. Every self-respecting nation has to have a language, not just a 'vernacular' or a 'dialect' as a medium of communication, but a fully developed language. Anything less marks it as underdeveloped." Haugen goes on to say that he would rather call underdeveloped languages 'vernaculars' and not 'dialects', because dialects are viable linguistic codes, which are language varieties in their own right, and not at all underdeveloped.

It is, in any case, important to remember that all dialects of a language are equally efficient for purposes of the communication for which they are intended. The dialect which becomes 'prestigious', because it is used by the political leaders and the upper socio-economic classes, becomes the medium of instruction, is used by the press, and for purposes of national communication. Such a dominant dialect can be called the **standard dialect**. However, it is in no way superior to the other dialects, which though non-standard, are not sub-standard in any way. In a village, it might be more appropriate to use the regional variety if one wants to mingle with the people on terms of equality. One of the reasons why the Indian family planning propaganda has failed so miserably in the villages is that speeches are usually made in very stilted, formal language of the standard dialect variety. The regional variety is what would have been appropriate here. For one thing it would have been understood.

Accent

This refers to the peculiarities of pronunciation used by the speaker, or to phonological variations in dialect. Thus, English may be spoken with a British, American or Bengali accent. The standard British accent is known as Received Pronunciation (R.P.). An Indian may speak English with a regional Indian accent or use what has come to be codified as General Indian English (G.I.E.) by Bansal (1969), with pronunciation differences as shown in the examples below:

Word	R.P.	G.I.E.
gate	/geɪt/	/gɛ:t/
home	/haʊm/	/hə:m/

1.3.2 Style

Dialectal variation, as we have seen, is governed by differences in social class and region. But linguistic variation can also arise because of the nature of the **speech context** or **social situation**. This type of variation is called 'style'. The same individual has the ability to use different stylistic varieties of the language depending on his/her purpose, or the situation in which it is to be used. Talking to your wife or a friend will be different from talking to your boss. Thus there are formal and informal

the Casual, to the Consultative (Informal), then Formal, and finally Frozen. The more formal the style, the less possibility there is of variation. The extreme of formality is 'frozen' style (e.g. 'Smoking is prohibited'; 'Trespassers will be prosecuted') where the expression is fixed by convention. From the informal to the intimate range, there is scope for considerable variation. We are not required to mind our words so much when speaking informally.

An example of a statement worked through the various styles will make the distinctions clear.

Frozen: Visitors should use the two exits at the rear on their way out.

Formal: Visitors should leave by the exits at the rear.

Consultative: Would you mind leaving by the exits at the rear?

Casual: You could leave by the doors at the back.

Intimate: Out you go by the back door!

Style is required to be appropriate to the speech situation in which the interaction takes place. Various factors are at work to create a speech situation. Firstly, there are the participants in an interaction. The relationship between the participants is of importance. Are they equal in status, or is one considered superior and the other inferior, whether in terms of age, sex, or social status. It may even be that, in the given situation, one person has the upper hand. This factor will affect the language used by the 'superior' and the 'inferior' individuals.

In some situations, the difference is not just of style, but even of dialect or, perhaps, a different language altogether may be required to be spoken by the person perceived as 'lower'. Lower castes, for example, were not allowed to use the upper caste dialect in interacting with the upper caste. They were supposed to indicate their inferiority by using the lower caste dialect. Even if the lower caste person had studied in the city and used the upper caste dialect with facility, on his return to the village, he was expected to return to his old position and signal this by the linguistic code he used. Thus, the distinction between style and dialect is not always clear. It gets blurred in actual contexts of use, where, particularly in multilingual societies, change in style is expressed through change of dialect.

The style of language employed would differ inevitably if a large group was being addressed, or if it was only one or two people. Interaction, moreover, can take place between a person and an unknown group, or a group that is not even present, for example, the readers of a newspaper. Here, again, the style would differ considerably from personal communication, even in writing.

Again, there might be age-based differences in certain cultures and sex-based differences. A younger person might be expected to be more polite than the older one. Similarly, a female, regardless of age, might be expected to be more polite to a male, or *vice versa*. Recorded conversations or dialogue in novels or plays can provide useful data for study in this regard. Norms of politeness are culture-specific, and emerge clearly in interaction situations.

If the expectations of appropriateness of language vary between the two participants in an interaction situation, then tension can arise. This can be observed in both real life and literary uses of language. Lack of appropriateness can lead to rudeness, whether intended or otherwise. It can also lead to lack of comprehension, when one participant assumes some background knowledge on the part of the other, and this does not actually exist. The presuppositions that are expected are missing. Shared

background knowledge and conventions of what requires to be specified in speech are culturally conditioned.

The second important factor relates to time and place. When and where does the interaction occur? Words used at dead of night might take on a different meaning from the same words spoken in broad daylight. Similarly there are occasions for saying things and changes in venue can affect meaning. Court room discourse, when the lawyer is addressing the judge, necessarily makes different demands on the speaker from a casual conversation in the corridor regarding the same matter, and carries a different associative meaning.

Thirdly, the nature of the topic that is being discussed can affect the type of language used. If it requires intellectual discussion, the style may become formal, but if household matters are being discussed, the style may be casual. A different dialect or even a different language may even be used in these circumstances. In India, many people discuss ideas in English, and household matters in their mother tongue. Certainly, there would be a change in the linguistic style, even if dialect or language change was not used to indicate the change in style.

The medium of the discourse, that is, whether speech or writing, can also determine style. A personal letter will be different from a face-to-face interaction, even though the participants and the topic remain the same. Writing does introduce a greater degree of formality than speech. Style varies also according to the mode of the interaction, e.g. telephone conversations, radio and television shows. In the last two modes, the style may again vary depending on whether the show is a newscast, a chat-show, a documentary or a pot-boiler. In the written mode, telegraphic messages, personal/business letters, newspaper articles or scientific treatises will all use different stylistic varieties of the language.

Register

Register refers to linguistic variation determined by subject matter, e.g. scientific writing is a register which is distinguished by the increased use of the passive voice, formulae, technical terminology, etc. For example:

"Neuraminic acid in the form of its alkali-stable methoxy derivative was first isolated by Klenk from gangliosides and more recently from bovine sub-maxillary gland mucin and from a urine moco-protein, its composition being C₁₂H₁₈NO₈ or perhaps C₁₂N₂NO₈."

Again, the peculiarity of a piling up of adjectives, strings of propositional phrases, and relative clauses, even though the information so conveyed is frequently not properly relevant to the rest of the discourse, is common to the register of Journalism. For example:

"Mr. John William Allaway, a 46-year old plumber, his wife, Florence, aged 33, and their 15 year old son John, escaped unhurt in their nightclothes after a fire broke out at their 200 year old home, Rose Hill Cottage, at Gallows Hill, King's Langley, Herts."

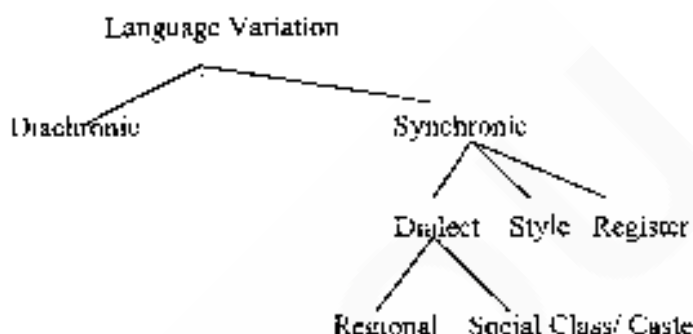
Literary register, on the other hand, is distinguished by its "precision and elegance", to use Quirk's compact phrase, its ability to depict a situation through language that reflects it accurately.

1.4 LET US SUM UP

1. Language can be thought of as a set of linguistic patterns or structures. The field of the operations of linguistics is the simple sentence, isolated from the context in which it occurs. It is also the study of the 'ideal' language, i.e. the

standard version of the language. This is the Chomskyan view of language. The development of sociolinguistics led to an alternative view that is very different. This is that language is basically text- and context-based, and takes account of language variation.

- Language structure tends to change or introduce variations over time and across space, i.e. both diachronically and synchronically, in response to changing social needs. Language variation may be represented diagrammatically as follows:



- 'Style' is conditioned by the following components of the speech situation:
 - The nature of the participants
 - Time, place of interaction
 - Topic of conversation
 - Medium, mode of communication

1.5 KEYWORDS

Competence:	an abstract idealization of a speaker's knowledge of his/her language, excluding such factors as slips of tongue, memory limitations and distraction.
Performance:	The actual linguistic behaviour of particular individuals on particular occasions, including any hesitations, memory lapses, slips of the tongue, etc.
Communicative Competence:	The ability to use a language appropriately in social situations.
Accent:	a particular way of pronouncing a language.
Style:	any particular and somewhat distinctive way of using a language.

1.6 QUESTIONS

Answer briefly in about 50 to 100 words:

- What is meant by 'competence' and 'performance'?
- What are the three ways in which linguistic competence is characterised?

- (3) What is 'communicative competence'? What are the three ways in which it is a break away from the notion of competence? Why is this concept important?
- (4) What are the two kinds of language variation? Exemplify these.
- (5) Explain briefly how a dialect boundary is determined.
- (6) Distinguish between dialect and language. How does a dialect achieve the status of 'language'? Explain briefly.
- (7) What is meant by 'non-standard' dialect? How does it relate to a 'standard' dialect?
- (8) What are the three main types of synchronic variation? Define them briefly.

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ABSTRACT

Two theoretical perspectives are woven together to frame an approach to classroom reading instruction. Viewing reading instruction from a literary perspective and a psychological perspective has the potential to help students understand the distinctions between different text types and the various purposes for reading: information, enjoyment, and emotional engagement. Three vignettes describe actual intermediate-grade reading lessons, specifically focusing on practices relevant to the theories. To help students achieve a high level of engagement and understanding, the classroom reading program needs to incorporate both the literary perspective and the psychological perspective. Studies to explore the use of pseudo-fiction or even novels in teaching content may be needed. More work needs to be done to examine the state of classroom practices in terms of discourse force and the adoption of stance. (Contains 21 references.) (Author/RS)

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 TREATMENT OF DISCOURSE TYPES**

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Western Illinois University

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Texas Tech University

November 1995

Center for the Study of Reading

TECHNICAL REPORTS

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Abstract

Two theoretical perspectives are woven together to frame an approach to classroom reading instruction. Viewing reading instruction from a literary perspective and a psychological perspective has the potential to help students understand the distinctions between different text types and the various purposes for reading—information, enjoyment, and emotional engagement. The report includes a description of classroom reading instruction and ways the theories relate to observed practices.

A VIEW OF READING PRACTICES IN THE INTERMEDIATE GRADES: TREATMENT OF DISCOURSE TYPES

We read for a variety of purposes—for information, for enjoyment, for emotional engagement. Good readers are aware that different types of texts lend themselves to these different purposes (Beach & Appleman, 1984). Therefore, classroom instruction that helps students learn about different text types can contribute to their development as good readers.

In many classrooms, teachers do not emphasize differences in text types and purposes for reading (Roseblatt, 1980). All texts, informational texts as well as stories, are treated the same, and the activities that accompany reading—answering questions, completing worksheets, writing definitions of vocabulary words, and sequencing story events—are used only to promote the short-term goals of skill development and reading comprehension.

As a result, some students may come to view reading as an activity confined only to the classroom setting. Such students are not likely to become life-long readers who engage in functional, relevant, and interest-based reading. Rather, they may come to view reading as an onerous task. For other students, the practice of focusing only on comprehension and engaging in the same activities for different types of text creates confusion and takes them away from an understanding of the everyday purposes for reading. Although many students develop an awareness of text distinctions independent of the classroom reading program, there are many others who rely on classroom programs for development of this awareness. A classroom program should be designed to help all students understand the everyday purposes for reading.

A good reader needs to make certain distinctions about text types and purposes for reading. This report discusses two theoretical perspectives: literary and psychological. We believe the theories can be the basis for classroom reading instruction to help students make the distinctions. Combining the two, we apply the theories to classroom practices and consider issues of text selection and treatment of text types. We present three vignettes that describe actual intermediate-grade reading lessons, specifically focusing on practices relative to the theories. We conclude with some recommended classroom practices and suggestions for future research.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Text Types

Literary text types and expository text types constitute the two major types of discourse structures. Literary as defined here, does not refer to *literary* only in terms of classical literature. Rather, these types encompass a broad category of text types. Generally, literary text types serve to entertain, and expository text types serve to inform. Novels, stories, and poetry fall into the category of literary text types, whereas description, comparison, causation, and persuasion are among the expository text types (Beach & Appleman, 1984). That is not to suggest there is a one-to-one relationship between discourse type and purpose; rather, the distinctions indicated generally apply.

Description of the Theories

The two perspectives, literary and psychological, differ in their approach to reading (e.g., unlike literary theories, psychological theories tend to deal with a wide variety of texts, including popular forms of literature). Yet, two theories derived from these differing perspectives make similar points about the purposes of reading as related to text types. From a literary perspective, Roseblatt (1978) proposed

the transactional theory - herein the reader adopts a stance that results in purposeful reading. From a psychological standpoint, Brewer (1980) advanced the idea that the study of discourse is incomplete without attending to the underlying purpose of the text which he terms the *discourse force*. Although Rosenblatt talks about the reader and Brewer talks about the text, the theories are complementary to each other in that they both address purposes for reading.

Rosenblatt's (1978) theory relates more closely to the reader. She believes that very early in the reading events, a reader adopts a particular stance. According to Rosenblatt, purposes for reader exist on a continuum ranging from a 'predominantly efferent stance' to a 'predominantly aesthetic stance.' When a reader chooses a "predominantly efferent stance," her purpose is to carry away or retain information after the reading event (Rosenblatt, 1978, 1989). Meaning results from an analytic structuring of the ideas, information, directions, conclusions to be retained, used, or acted on after the reading event. An example of efferent reading might be an individual reading accounts of the American Civil War to learn and understand the political and social events that lead to the war. When a reader chooses a "predominantly aesthetic stance," she adopts an attitude of readiness to focus attention on what is being lived through during the reading event. Meaning results from the sensations, images, feelings, and ideas that are the residue of past psychological events involving those words and their referents. An example of aesthetic reading is the reading of a mystery story purely for enjoyment and suspense.

Readers need to be aware of the textual cues that help them adopt a stance (Rosenblatt, 1989). A text indicates to the reader the type of stance that might be adopted. Early in the reading event, a strategic reader uses the textual cues to help her select the stance. Visual arrangements (e.g., those that indicate the text is a poem), linguistic cues, headings, and subtitles can influence a reader in the selection of a stance (Rosenblatt, 1989). Thus, the reader's adoption of a particular stance determines the type of meaning constructed from the text and is seen as reflecting the reader's purposes.

Brewer's (1980) theory relates more closely to the text. Historically, psychologists who studied written discourse tended to view all types of discourse as a means of imparting information. This narrow view of the intent of discourse overlooked the existence of different discourse types that readers encounter in everyday reading. In contrast, Brewer offers a more comprehensive theoretical framework for considering the different types of discourse. His classification scheme is based on the nonlinguistic cognitive structure underlying the written discourse and the "force" of the discourse. Based on the underlying representation, he identifies three types of discourse: descriptive (the underlying form is visual spatial), narrative (the underlying form is a series of coherent events), and expository (the underlying form is abstract logical processes). In addition to structure, the classification of written discourse requires a construct of discourse force. Brewer identifies four types of discourse force: to inform (author's intent is to give information), to entertain (author's intent is to amuse, frighten, excite), to persuade (author's intent is to persuade or convince), and literary-aesthetic (author's intent is to provide an aesthetic experience for the reader, i.e., the discourse is approached as a work of art). Using his scheme, a selection about the American Civil War would be considered an exemplar of expository discourse, while the main discourse force is to inform. A novel of the American West would be classified as narrative discourse, while the main discourse force is to entertain. The reader's purpose is reflected in her understanding of the discourse force.

Similar to Rosenblatt, Brewer gives an account of the reader's use of surface structure; that is, surface structure can offer cues for the type of discourse and the discourse force (Brewer, 1980). For example, expository discourse based on underlying logical structures tends to be organized with terms such as *thus*, *because*, *since*. Vocabulary choices can also serve as a surface cue for discourse force. In the following statements, it would appear that the intent is to inform: "Thousands of miles of scenic America separate the Atlantic Coast and the Pacific Coast." In contrast, the intent to entertain may be the discourse force if one were to read the statement: "Bumping along the interstate highways with two

small, restless children and one large, restless dog, we tried in vain to take in America's natural wonders.'

Interested in affective outcomes, Brewer and Lichtenstein (1981, 1982) specifically applied the notion of discourse force to stories (structural-affect theory). Moving from a focus on story grammar, taking into account only the temporal order of events in a story, Brewer and Lichtenstein, believing that stories were more to entertain than inform, paid attention to the discourse force of stories by differentiating between the event structure and the discourse structure. They suggested that the author of a story manipulates the order of the actual events in the story, thus giving rise to different affective outcomes, for example, surprise, suspense, and curiosity. The manipulation of events along with linguistic devices and literary conventions gives rise to the discourse force. Unlike story grammar, the structural-affect theory captures the affective states that a story can create in the reader.

At this point some clarification about terminology is necessary. Brewer's use of the term literary-aesthetic pertains to *serious literature* while his term *entertainment* describes the more popular forms of written discourse. Rosenblatt does not discuss the popular forms of texts. Her use of the term *aesthetic* applies to "a lived-through experience," which can comprise an emotional experience as well as literary appreciation. We can argue that the discourse force to entertain and literary-aesthetic in the text can give rise to an *aesthetic stance* in the reader. Similarly, the discourse force to inform can give rise to an *effluent stance*. Rosenblatt does not discuss the discourse force to persuade.

As noted earlier, the two theories are complementary. Although Brewer's term *discourse force* directly refers to the author's purpose and Rosenblatt's term *stance* refers to the reader's purposes, nonetheless, both are talking about the purposes of reading.

Text-Based Factors

Brewer (1980) indicates a problem with his classification: There is not a one-to-one relationship between discourse type and discourse force. First, written discourse is not homogeneous. A work may contain smaller units of different discourse types, for example, descriptive discourse may be embedded in narrative discourse. Second, discourse force for a specific genre is not stable. Within the same genre (e.g., western novels), some texts may have an overall force to entertain and some may have an overall force of literary-aesthetic. This critique notwithstanding, Brewer's theory helps conceptualize the purpose of reading.

Rosenblatt's (1989) theory accounts for the coexistence of both stances; she defines them not as dichotomies, but as two ends of a continuum with readers taking a *predominantly* effluent or a *predominantly* aesthetic stance. The question is not one of whether both stances can exist simultaneously, but one of determining which is predominant. Many texts give rise to both kinds of stance, and readers may change their stance during reading. For example, an informative text about travel destinations might at some point give rise to an aesthetic stance where the reader would feel emotional engagement with the places described. On the other hand, a novel about the American West might intrigue the reader with its informative aspects about the geology of the mountain regions and give rise to an effluent stance. Moreover, a reader may choose to read a text with a stance that does not match the intent of the text. For example, in a zoological text, the images that are evoked and the elegance of the writing could create an aesthetic response as well as yield information (Rosenblatt, 1989). Taking a stance other than the one indicated by the text is acceptable when the decision is a conscious one on the part of the reader. Awareness of different options is an important attribute of a good reader.

According to Brewer, discourse can have simultaneous forces. A biography can both entertain and inform; it is not a case of one segment having one force and another a second force. One segment of

discourse can give rise to multiple forces. Just as a mature reader may consciously choose a singular stance, she may impose a discourse force other than the one intended by the author. Take the case of some government documents that contain convoluted syntax and semantics. Reading these documents may serve to entertain. Although this force does not reflect the author's intent, the reading is not wrong. It does not undermine the theory because the reader is not confused about the purpose. She knows that these tracts are not meant to entertain; this force is deliberately imposed on the text.

The Reader's Role

Following from the preceding discussion, literary text types would be read with a primarily aesthetic stance and expository text types would be read with a primarily efferent stance. Taking this position implies that there is a right and a wrong way of reading that reverts back to the point of view espoused by New Criticism, the view that meaning resides in the text. However, Rosenblatt chose the term *transaction* to define the reading event, suggesting that both reader and text are important. Transaction carries "overtones of mutuality, a blending of components" (Rosenblatt, 1985, p. 98); a transaction is something that happens between the reader and the text. Although the choice of stance is based on the text, there is not a supremacy of text over reader. The reader is a creator of meaning but within the constraints of the text. Brewer's classification scheme raises a similar question, that is, is there a right way of reading text? Although discourse force, as discussed, relates to the intent of the author, Brewer acknowledges that the force extracted from discourse is actually a complex interaction between the intent of the author and the intent--and the assumptions--of the reader.

Both Rosenblatt and Brewer express concern about theorists' and researchers' general disregard for discourse types and the tendency to use all texts as information imparting devices regardless of their purpose. According to Rosenblatt (1980), classroom reading programs tend to reflect an efferent bias. Because they typically reflect information to be taken away, it is generally appropriate to read expository text with an efferent stance. On the other hand, literary texts are written for other purposes. In general, they are less appropriate for taking away information or adopting an efferent stance. Unfortunately, the adoption of an aesthetic stance for reading literary text types is often not an option for students in the classroom.

Summary

Rosenblatt and Brewer believe that attention needs to be given to the purposes for reading. Attending to the discourse force of the text or adopting a stance would lead a reader closer to the actual purposes for reading. In our view, if these aspects of text and reader are overlooked, an individual is merely focusing on what we term "the surface level information of the text" or the literal information readily located in the surface elements of the text.

Although both perspectives underscore the interaction of reader (the reader draws on her knowledge/experiences) and text, textual constraints affect the reader's adoption of stance and determination of the discourse force. Adopting a stance other than the one indicated by the text is acceptable when it is a conscious decision made by the reader. Similarly, a reader may elect to read for purposes other than those intended by the author. The purposes established by the reader may be based on her own experiences. For example, a reader who has personally experienced a flood would read an expository text about flooding conditions with not only the purpose of taking away information but also with a "lived-through" emotional involvement unlike that of an individual who had not experienced such an event.

Literary text types generally have a discourse force of either entertaining or providing a literary-aesthetic experience while the stance would be predominantly an aesthetic one. With expository text, the discourse force will generally be one of informing while the stance is an efferent one. In both cases,

purposes for reading are underscored. However, in theorizing, rigidity in matching discourse types to purpose should be avoided. It is possible for a reader to choose to read an expository text for entertainment or for a literary-aesthetic experience, or to read a literary text for information. However, if a reader chooses to read all texts for the same purpose, there is a problem in light of these two theories. The disregard for the existence of various text types and an inherent bias of classroom reading programs can mislead a student regarding the reasons for reading.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE CLASSROOM READING PROGRAM

To help students understand the purposes for reading, attention to the discourse force of different text types and the adoption of stance become important considerations. When classroom reading discussions and activities promote understanding of these aspects of reading, students can be assisted in a move toward becoming eager and independent readers. In this section, we briefly review the treatment of these issues in a classroom setting. We consider two important aspects of a classroom reading program: texts selected for classroom use and the treatment of these texts in the classroom context.

Texts

Attention to the quality of the texts should form an integral part of the reading program in the classroom setting. Basal readers and content area textbooks constitute a major part of the reading material used in the classroom. However, these textbooks are not without criticism. The literary text types (particularly the stories) in basal readers are structured for the purpose of teaching reading skills and comprehension (Beck, 1984). Authentic texts, as opposed to texts written for and narrowly confined to use in classroom reading instruction, are more suitable for inclusion (see Edelsky & Draper, 1989, for a discussion of authenticity). Lacking any complexity or points of genuine interest, basal stories may possess only weak elements of the discourse force (e.g., entertainment and/or a literary aesthetic experience). Stories with only weak elements of force will not be helpful to students in selecting a stance. It should be noted that more attention is currently given to incorporating children's literature into classroom reading instruction (Cullinan, 1987). Inclusion of quality literary text types in classroom reading programs can be attributed, in some degree, to the impetus of the whole language movement (Newman, 1985; Watson, 1989).

The structure of expository text types used in schools has also been criticized. The quality of the writing and the presentation of information does not always enable the reader to easily take away information. Not all texts are *considerate* (Anderson & Armbruster, 1984). For example, texts may not be appropriate for the intended audience or reflect unity, coherence, and a structure that best conveys the informative purpose (e.g., compare/contrast, cause/effect). Although texts in content area textbooks are closer to the discourse force of informing, the weaknesses found in their structure may hinder students' learning and retention of information, important purposes for reading.

Treatment of Texts

In classroom reading programs, two aspects of reading a story have been given special attention: comprehension and structure. Structure is actually linked to comprehension; understanding story structure aids comprehension (Stein & Glenn, 1979). When teachers use stories in the classroom, they focus on comprehension by facilitating students' understanding of the story structure through question and answer activities, discussion of content, and summarization. Story mapping is also an activity which aids in understanding story structure. What seems to be missing is attention to the discourse force of stories. That is, there is little discussion of entertainment and/or literary-aesthetic experiences (e.g., the affective outcomes) in reading a story.

The efferent bias that pervades the classroom is illustrated by Rosenblatt's (1980) anecdote about a classroom situation. She observed a teacher asking the students during a poetry reading lesson, "What facts does this poem teach you?" The purpose of a poet writing a poem about birds, for example, is not primarily to impart information. Rather, the intent is to give rise to affective states, and classroom activities could be designed to reflect that intent.

Because it is appropriate to read expository texts with an efferent stance, this text type fares better in the classroom as far as the treatment of discourse force is concerned. It is here that structure is an important consideration. Focusing on the structural aspects of texts facilitates learning and remembering information (Armbruster, Anderson, & Ostertag, 1987; Taylor & Beach, 1984). However, as pointed out, expository text that is *inconsiderate* can be problematic. Students may find it difficult to take away important information.

In short, we can say that the reading program, particularly in relation to the literary text types, does not pay attention to the discourse force and all text types are treated in the same manner in the classroom.

AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

Guided by the theories outlined, we conducted an exploratory study to determine how the different discourse types, namely expository and literary, were treated in the classroom reading program. Eight reading lessons, which ranged in time from one-half hour to an hour, were observed by both authors. Field notes were taken and all reading materials used in the sessions were collected. We focused on the intermediate grades where it seemed that students should begin to understand the distinctions we've outlined and to apply them to their own reading behaviors. To illuminate the treatment of text types, we offer vignettes of three classroom reading settings. One lesson focused on treatment of an expository text type and two lessons focused on literary text types. We do not make any claims of describing the overall state of instruction practices in the field of reading. We merely attempted to see how the theories of text types work in the classroom context and to gain some direction for future research.

Vignette One

The activities in a combined fifth- and sixth-grade class centered around a text about two children going to visit their grandparents in Florida. Enroute they meet someone who tells them about manatees. This individual talks about characteristics of the manatee and the conditions that threaten its survival. At the conclusion of the text, the two children join a club to save the manatees. The purpose for reading this story is actually to learn about manatees and possibly to learn about endangered species and the concept of extinction. The discourse force of this text is to inform and, hence, the stance should be primarily efferent. There could be emotional involvement if the readers felt strongly about the issue of extinction.

However, although imparting information about manatees appeared to be the purpose of the text, the cues provided in the text may leave the reader doubtful as to its actual intent. The structure of the text is that of a story. The early cues in the text along with its story format suggest an aesthetic stance. However, if we look beneath the structure and examine the content, the intent of the text or the discourse force is to inform; therefore, an efferent stance on the part of the reader is suggested. The purpose for reading this text is to learn about manatees. This type of text is potentially confusing as far as the issue of discourse force and stance is concerned. Students may be more familiar with the story format, and one could reason that acquiring information through stories may be appropriate. Flood (1986) suggests, however, that students need to make the transition from narrative to expository text through the use of subject matter textbooks and classroom practices appropriate to these texts.

During our observation, the children read the text and completed the worksheet entitled "Map of the Story" related to the story. The first part consisted of title, place, characters, and time of year. The

purpose was clearly to outline the setting. The second part consisted of 9 items, each labeled as an event, which helped reconstruct the story. There was a question corresponding to each event. Some examples follow.

- | | |
|----------|--|
| Event 1: | Why were R and B going to Florida? |
| Event 2: | Who did they meet on the plane? |
| Event 6: | What are mammals? |
| Event 7: | What are some other kinds of water mammals? |
| Event 8: | What did the manatees by the power plant look like? |
| Event 9: | Why did Sally say manatees were in danger of becoming extinct? |

Items 6 through 9 with their "events" and questions are particularly interesting. It is evident that these questions have been mislabeled. The so-called events are not actually events. The term *event* suggests a temporal sequence typical of stories, whereas the questions are actually descriptions of the animal.

Although there is nothing wrong with the questions themselves, the format of their presentation further confuses the issue of text purposes. A more reasonable approach would be to focus attention on what R and B learned about the manatees, for example, characteristics of the animals, their endangered status, and the role individuals can assume in saving the manatee. What is of importance is not a chronology of events, but information and conclusions to be retained after the reading event. The accompanying worksheet could have included questions that reflected the actual purposes of the text.

Vignette Two

Activities in a sixth-grade class focused on the use of a literary text type. The students were reading *White Fang* by Jack London (1989). This novel can be clearly described as authentic. It is widely acclaimed and has high emotional content. Therefore, the stance should be primarily aesthetic. The discourse force is to entertain and/or literary-aesthetic. The students had read chapters prior to class, and during our observation the class discussed the gruesome fight involving the lynx, the she-wolf, and the gray cub. The scene described was a violent one and, among other emotions, it created fear and disgust.

The content of the class discussion can be divided into three categories: reproducing surface information (literal information readily located in the text), sequencing and evaluating events, and eliciting an aesthetic response.

1. Reproducing surface information. Some examples include: "What is the purpose of the journey?" "Who outwitted him?" "What happens to the plan?"
2. Sequencing and evaluating events. Examples include: "What happened first?" "What was the most important event?"
3. Eliciting an aesthetic response. Although the text had high emotional content there was only one instance when a child initiated a discussion of that element. He said, "I felt sick when I read it." The teacher responded, "Not sick but sad." The discussion was then terminated.

An analysis of this lesson reveals that the text selection was good in terms of its potential for emotional response. However, reproduction of surface information and sequencing of events may only assist in literal understandings and reflect purposes of "producing surface level information."

Although the high emotional content of the text afforded opportunities for an aesthetic response, this was limited by teacher control. The only evidence for inclusion of the readers' feelings was the reported discussion. Unfortunately, this discussion was teacher dominated and came to an abrupt ending. The inclusion of evaluation was a positive sign; the evaluation of events can help in appreciating the text. However, there was not much opportunity for students to personally respond to questions such as "What was the most important event?" Only one response--out of many possible responses--was elicited.

The lesson illustrates two points. First, the mere choice of authentic text does not necessarily lead to the adoption of stance. Second, the teacher did not pay attention to the discourse force of the novel, nor did she validate the expressed response of the reader.

Vignette Three

In a fifth-grade classroom, we observed a lesson based on another novel, *Souder* by William Howard Armstrong (1989). The novel is based on the struggles of an impoverished African-American family. The discourse force of the novel is literary-aesthetic, and the stance suggested would be predominantly aesthetic.

Based on the chapter they had read, the students were asked to generate two questions. The lesson was not highly structured, and there were no guidelines for formulating the questions. Students formed groups and each group was directed to present one question for the general discussion. The questions generated by the students and the subsequent discussions between the teacher and children can be divided into three categories: reproduction of surface information (literal information readily located in the text), inferential questions, and background questions.

1. Reproduction of surface information. Questions included: "Who is Souder?" "Did he find Souder?" "How did Souder live?"
2. Inferential questions. In this case the teacher added to the children's questions to make an exercise in inferencing. For example, one student asked, "What kind of pants did he wear?" The children responded with laughter. The teacher inquired why this question was important to the story. She elicited the fact that the quality of clothes indicated that the family was poor.
3. Background questions. Students and teachers entered into a discussion about the term, *sharecropper*. One child asked if the family lived on welfare. The teacher situated the story in a historical context by stating that it was before the existence of welfare programs.

The analysis of this reading lesson reveals some interesting points. Even though the teacher gave children the opportunity to generate their own questions, most of the questions were superficial and children did not choose to infuse their feelings about the story into their questions. Although there were some questions that referred to the poverty element in the story, the teacher's comments merely situated the story in an historical context. No references were made to the reader's feelings regarding the meaning of poverty nor to its emotional outcome for the characters. Even though there were questions such as "Why was he laughed at?," there was no discussion of the feelings and emotions of the characters. Here again we observed the use of an authentic text--with the potential for students to adopt an aesthetic stance--in a primarily efficient manner.

PURPOSES FOR READING AND A VIEW OF CLASSROOM PRACTICES

To help students achieve a high level of engagement and understanding, the classroom reading program needs to incorporate both the literary perspective and the psychological perspective. Teachers need to make students aware of different text types and different reasons for reading. Making students aware of these distinctions presupposes two crucial elements for the intermediate-grade reading program: careful selection of texts and a recognition that readers read for different purposes.

It is important that the selected texts and their classroom usage afford students the opportunity of adopting a stance. In the vignettes, we illustrated two problems that can arise with respect to text selection. First, authentic texts were chosen, but the students were not allowed to take a stance suggested by the text. Classroom teachers used literary texts to engage students in a literary experience, but the purpose of reading, as noted by the questioning, became narrowed to what we call "reproducing the surface information of the text." Students in the observed setting were oriented to these purposes, established by the teacher, and only took away names of characters and "surface information." From an observation of these classroom practices, a "lived-through" aesthetic experience was not an option for students.

It could be argued that information was taken away--the adoption of an efferent stance--but we suggested that the definition of efferent implies *useful* information. Accordingly, students should be assisted in their efforts to take away well-organized and useful information from expository text. The use of well-written texts and an awareness of text structure of expository text can facilitate the adoption of an efferent stance.

Second, texts were chosen that are not clearly literary text types nor clearly expository text types. In the first vignette we pointed out that an expository text was presented in a story format, and the discussion encompassed both story elements (e.g., characters) and information. The worksheet accompanying this text created further confusion regarding the purposes for reading. The purpose of this text was to offer information; however, this type of text structure *and* the treatment observed may hinder students in their adoption of an efferent stance.

In summation, including authentic texts in the classroom reading program is not enough. These texts need to be treated in a manner that encourages children to pay attention to the discourse force and to adopt a stance appropriate to the intent of the author. Using both theoretical perspectives, we believe it is important for a reader to consider the text type and the purposes of the text. The danger in taking this position is that it could lead to rigid classroom reading practices. That is not our intent. Our intent is to validate the reader and acknowledge the experiences she brings to the reading event, and at the same time, help her toward an understanding that reading is both for entertainment and for information. Reading outside the classroom is carried out for these genuine and authentic purposes, reading inside the classroom can do no less.

RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS

The study suggests two lines of research.

1. Text Research: Studies to explore the use of pseudo-fiction or even novels in teaching content may be needed. In our study, the use of pseudo-fiction seemed to be the most puzzling with regard to purposes for reading. The question arises as to how these types of text should be used in the classroom. Although it is likely that this form of writing has the advantage of familiarity for the child, it might prove to be confusing to the child due to its blending of purposes. Experimental research might be designed

to determine which is more effective: providing information through expository forms or providing information through pseudo-narrative forms.

2. **Classroom Research:** More work needs to be done to examine the state of classroom practices in terms of discourse force and the adoption of stance. Qualitative studies are needed to compare teachers' and students' purposes for reading inside and outside the classroom. It is likely that teachers may be aware of the actual purposes of reading and adoption of stance outside the classroom but lose sight of it in the unique 'culture of the classroom.' Further, an examination of levels of story comprehension and story interpretation is needed. How a reading program can help students move beyond the surface information to other important goals needs to be studied.

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UNIT 3 READING AND WRITING SKILLS

Structure

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- 3.1 Learning Outcomes
- 3.2 The Reading Process
- 3.3 Stages of Reading
 - 3.3.1 Perception and Word Recognition
 - 3.3.2 Comprehension
 - 3.3.3 Evaluation and Reaction
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3.0 INTRODUCTION

There is virtually no systematic teaching of reading and writing skills at higher levels of education. Consequently learners suffer in developing these skills at advanced stage. Therefore, in this unit we have made an attempt to present the basic concept and nature of reading and various stages in the process of reading. As the learner moves from lower to higher stages of reading, his/her critical and creative levels of comprehension improves a lot, which helps in developing divergent and convergent thinking. Various skills and techniques of reading help the learners as active consumers of information. Skills of skimming and scanning, intensive and extensive reading help the readers to benefit from various forms of reading materials at higher levels.

Recent researches on writing have provided us with an important insight: good writers go through certain processes which lead to successful pieces of written work. They plan the intent and put their thought in an appropriate language and style. The final draft is prepared through reviewing and editing. Writing skills for different

types of written forms differ in its approach and style. These skills could be developed and sharpened by constant practice of reading and writing varied forms and formats of written material.

3.1 LEARNING OUTCOMES

After going through this unit, you should be able to:

- Define 'reading';
- Describe reading process;
- Identify the stages in reading;
- List important reading comprehension skills;
- Teach SQ3R technique to your learners and adopt it effectively for your study purposes;
- Describe writing process;
- Be familiar with different forms of writing; and
- Distinguish the salient features of each of these types of writing skills.

3.2 THE READING PROCESS

Reading is a process whereby a reader brings meaning to and gets meaning from print. This implies that readers bring their experiences as well as their emotions into play in order to derive meaning from text. Reading for meaning is the activity we normally engage in when we read books, journals, newspapers etc. It involves looking at sentences in a text and understanding the message they convey, in other words, making pause of a written text. Reading is thus an active process. When we read, we do not merely sit as passive receivers of the text. We also draw or help us guess what the text will pay next. Thus reading may be defined as a multifaceted and layered process in which a reader by actively interacting with the text, tries to decide what has been encoded by the writer/author. In this process the learner establishes a meaningful communication with the writer.

Thus reading is an interactive process. It is purposeful, selective and text based. The reading speed varies according to one's purpose in reading and the content of the text. It involves complex cognitive skills. Some one has called it a 'psycholinguistic guessing game' as it involves guessing, inferring and predicting the coming events based on the given situation.

Check Your Progress 1

- Notes:** a) Write your answer in the space given below.
 b) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this unit.

State why reading is seen as active interaction with the reading material. Your answer need not exceed eight lines.

.....

.....

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.....

3.3 STAGES OF READING

In the process of reading, the learner passes systematically through the following stages:

- Perception and word recognition
- Comprehension
- Evaluation and reaction
- Application

3.3.1 Perception and Word Recognition

This stage of reading is also known as mechanical aspect of reading or 'reading on the lines'. While going through this stage, the reader first perceives the right word (structure) and its pronunciation. The image or the concept of the word is formed in his/her mind with the association of form, sound and meaning of the word altogether. This recognition of word is based on our past experience. A skilled reader recognizes the word as a whole instead going through each syllable like the beginner reader. Sometimes the advanced reader comprehends the meaning of a phrase/sentence without going through each word separately. At times a word or phrase acquires another meaning in a different context. The word 'rational', for example, besides its general use, is used in mathematics in a special sense.

3.3.2 Comprehension

In the second stage of reading we go deeper into literal meaning of the material read. Thus comprehension requires the abilities of critical thinking and reading. Besides literal comprehension, interpretations are essential for higher order of reading. Interpretation takes the reader beyond the printed page by requiring him/her to put together ideas which the author has not explicitly related to one another in the text. As an outcome of this process, the reader is able to process information and draw conclusions.

At critical level of comprehension the reader considers the relevance, authenticity and utility of a factual material. For example, if the reader is looking at a novel, he/she evaluates the logic of a character's behavior in comparison with his/her own experiences or own observation of characters in other works, e.g. novel or story. Interpretative and critical levels of comprehension is also known as 'reading between the lines'.

Creative reading level of comprehension uses divergent thinking skills to go beyond the earlier discussed levels of comprehension: literal, interpretative and critical reading. At this stage the reader tries to come up with new or effective alternative ideas, solutions etc. to those presented by the author. He/she goes beyond the described situation and creates new situations on the basis of his own experience, inference and imagination. This stage of comprehension is also known as 'reading beyond the lines'.

3.3.3 Evaluation and Reaction

While comprehending the text, the reader goes on determining the utility, appropriateness and reliability of the information and ideas

received. A good reader should always go on evaluating the events, ideas, characters or intentions of the author. At the same time he/she goes on reacting ideally to the material read. For example, if an author justifies the need of freedom of every person in modern times, as a reader of this text, I may react that freedom should also go along with certain responsibilities, and both should have their place for the development of the individual and the society. Higher level of comprehension must always lead to the development of evaluative capacity and appropriate reaction, among the reader, towards, the material read. Evaluation and Reaction should be the by product of critical and creative reading.

3.3.4 Application

The final stage of any reading activity should evolve in the application of acquired knowledge, ideas, experience, skill, attitude and values in one's own life. Whatever positive reactions a person has formed while reading the material must become the part and parcel of his/her personality. Any reading activity should be considered fruitful only if it brings the desirable changes in the readers' thoughts, feelings and actions. The goal of any fruitful reading activity should be the transformation of the personality of the reader by assimilating the positive ideas and values, and applying the same in his/her day to day life.

Check Your Progress 2

- Notes:** a) Write your answers in the space given below.
 b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of this unit.

1) What are the four levels of comprehension?

.....

2) Describe the third stage of reading process, i.e. evaluation and reaction.

.....

3.4 DEVELOPING READING SKILLS

We have understood different stages/levels of reading process in the previous section. While selecting any reading material and teaching the same we should be careful to develop the appropriate reading skills and techniques to achieve the goals of reading. For example, literal comprehension may require the skills of understanding word meaning, sentence and paragraph comprehension. For developing critical and

creative reading, the skills to be employed may be: finding the central idea, generalization, drawing inference, prediction on the basis of given facts, analysis and synthesis, critical evaluation of the material read, etc. Besides these, the following techniques and skills may also be employed for successful readings:

- SQ3R Technique of Reading
- Skimming and Scanning
- Intensive and Extensive Reading

3.4.1 SQ3R Technique of Reading

Students at higher level are normally provided a lengthy list, but they cannot afford to spend time to read everything. Moreover, different texts require different approaches depending on what the learners are expected to get from them. The implication is that the strategy should be flexible in tackling text materials. The one strategy that gained wide acceptance is the SQ3R technique.

SQ3R stands for the initial letters of five steps that should be taken in studying a text. The five steps are:

- 1) Survey
- 2) Question
- 3) Read
- 4) Recall
- 5) Review

Survey

It refers to a quick glance through the preface, chapter headings, summary, index, etc. of the text. Surveying a text helps the readers grasp the main ideas. The preface helps to decide whether or not the book deserves his/her attention. A quick survey of contents tells what topic the author is dealing with and how the themes have been organized. The index tells instantly whether or not the text contains what are needed.

Questioning

After surveying the preface and contents you may ask questions like:

- How far can I depend on this book?
- Will the book be helpful to me as its preface suggests?
- Whether the book deals with the topics that I want to go through in detail?

Since questions are generally more helpful if given at the beginning or end of a chapter by the author himself, it is always better to note them during the survey. Having made your survey and started to question, you are now ready for the third step – reading the text.

Read

Reading text material demands critical and creative skills. Use of these skills for comprehension have already been discussed in section 3.4. Unless we read actively and intensively the intended textual material,

the questions which have been formulated can never be answered satisfactorily.

Recall

What has been read needs to be recalled for retention. Regular attempts to recall will help improve your learning in three ways—improving concentration, giving you a chance to clarify your doubts and remedy your misinterpretations and developing your ability to evaluate, react and apply what you have read.

Review

The purpose of reviewing is to check the validity of our recall. We must review the material read periodically. The best way to do this is to do a quick repeat of the four steps discussed earlier i.e. survey, question, read and recall.

Check Your Progress 3

- Notes:** a) Write your answer in the space given below.
 b) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this unit.

Suppose you are teaching SQ3R technique to your students. Say in about 10 lines whether you would ask them to strictly follow the logical order in which SQ3R is presented. Substantiate your answer.

.....

3.4.2 Skimming and Scanning

By Skimming we mean glancing rapidly through a text to find out its general content, central idea or gist. We do this, for example, when we want to find out whether a certain article is relevant to our own area of study or research, or when we glance over a page of newspaper to see if there is anything worth reading in detail, or when we go through a book to find out its subject matter.

By scanning on the other hand, we mean darting over much of a text to search for a specific item or piece of information that we wish to discover. This skill also involves the ability to reject or pass over irrelevant information. It is the kind of reading we do when, for example we read through a biographical account to find out the date on which a certain event happened, or glance through the telephone directory looking for a person’s telephone number. We may also see the table of contents or index of a book to find out whether certain aspect of a problem has been dealt within the book.

3.4.3 Intensive and Extensive Reading

The aim of intensive reading is to arrive at a detailed and thorough understanding of the text. It involves the learners working through the

short passage and examining it closely and in detail. The material for intensive reading is chosen with a view to developing the student's power of judgment and discriminative reading of interpretation and appreciation. Students learn to read with careful attention and concentration.

Extensive reading, on the other hand, involves reading in quantity for one's own enjoyment. It provides the students an excellent opportunity to increase reading speed, developing reading interests and reading habits. Extensive reading is normally carried out by the students on their own, outside the classroom. It complements the learning that takes place in the classroom as it provides valuable reinforcement of language already presented in the classroom as well as gives students useful practice in skills such as inferring meaning from the context when structures and vocabulary are not familiar.

3.5 THE WRITING PROCESS

Recent research on writing has provided us with an important insight. Good writer goes through certain processes which lead to a successful piece of written work. He/she starts off with a plan and thinks about what is to be conveyed and when. After writing the first draft, the writer is constantly reviewing, revising and engaging in the creative process. In this process the writer goes through the following stages:

- Planning
- Translating
- Reviewing/Editing.

3.5.1 Planning

Before putting pen to paper, a good writer always tries to answer the following questions:

- What subject matter, format and style should I select for my writing?
- Who is supposed to read this?

The planning stage is also known as the prewriting stage. While writing, the plan need not be strictly adhered to. As an author goes on writing, the plan may change slightly according to the mood of the writer or on the demand of the composition. In real life, writing normally arises out of a genuine need to communicate something to somebody but in the classroom that need has to be created in such a way that students are motivated to write on their own.

3.5.2 Translating

Here, translating means putting ones thoughts into appropriate language and style, i.e. finding the right words and sentences as well as choosing the right style of presentation. For example, sometimes in a few sentences while illustrating his/her point of view the authors used to provide appropriate examples. Few authors provide the main central idea in the concluding sentences or at the end of the paragraph. The chosen form of writing may be prose or poetry. If it is prose, its format may be essay, story, letter, dialogue, one act play,

biography or autobiography etc. The style of presentation may be descriptive, reflective, critical or creative. Thus the first draft of writing is prepared as per plan.

3.5.3 Reviewing/Editing

This may be regarded as post-writing stage. Many good writers keep reviewing their work as they write. From writing the first draft to the stage of editing one needs much rethinking and reorganization of ideas and language. The writer has to adopt a reader's perspective here and assess whether the ideas expressed and language used in the composition are easily comprehensible to the reader. At this stage, good writers add or delete the content or linguistic expression according to the demand of the subject matter or the requirement of the reader.

The process of monitoring is in operation right through the above three stages of composition. As we plan, we monitor our ideas; while drafting, we monitor the other mechanisms including punctuation, vocabulary and grammar. Reviewing and editing are also forms of monitoring.

Check Your Progress 4

- Notes:** a) Write your answers in the space given below.
 b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of this unit.

What is the importance of planning, translating and reviewing in the writing process? Write three sentences for each of them in the space given below.

1. Planning

.....

2. Translating

.....

3. Reviewing

.....

3.6 DEVELOPING DIFFERENT TYPES OF WRITING SKILLS

The major types of written composition are:

- Paragraph
- Essay
- Letters
- Reports

We shall discuss below each of these forms of writing and the related skills.

3.6.1 Paragraph Writing

Paragraphs form a part of any continuous piece of writing, e.g. essays, reports, letters etc. The characteristics of well written paragraph are:

- a) It has unity – Each paragraph deals with specific idea. Generally most paragraphs have a topic sentence which contains the key idea of the paragraph.
- b) It has coherence – Each sentence is a paragraph, which logically follows from the previous sentence, and anticipates the next sentence.
- c) It is well organized – Each paragraph has a definite plan. Various types of paragraph organization may be: narration, i.e. time sequence or organization of events, comparison and contrast etc.

While writing a paragraph, the writer should keep in mind the ideas of unity, coherence and proper organization of ideas.

3.6.2 Essay Writing

Essay writing is an important form of written composition. In this form we express our ideas and experiences about any topic in a well organized and effective manner. The expression becomes lurid when supported by lines from poetry etc.

Normally an essay has three parts – introduction, main body and conclusion. We begin the writing of an essay by introducing the main idea or event expressed in the main body of the essay. The quality of an essay is judged by an effective and interesting introduction. The main body of the essay consists of a number of well organized and coherent passages explaining and discussing various aspects of the topic. While concluding the essay, the writer provides the gist of the whole composition in such a manner that it leaves a lasting impression upon the reader.

3.6.3 Letter Writing

Letter enables us to communicate with people who are away from us. Every letter has a writer, a reader and a situation. Some of the purposes for which we write letters are to inform, to invite, to enquire, to complain, to express sympathy, to congratulate, etc.

Letters are of two types: formal and informal. Formal letters are written for business purposes usually among strangers. Informal letters include all correspondence between members of a family, friends, relatives, etc.

The important parts of a letter are: the writer's address, date of writing, the receiver's address, salutation, body of the letter, writer's signature and full name.

3.6.4 Report Writing

A report describes an event or an experience. Reports are of several kinds: newspaper reports, reporting events of a social, political or religious function, national or international games/sports competitions, scientific inventions, business meetings, etc. The following are the salient features of a report:

- 1) A report is brief and complete.
- 2) It is usually written in third person.
- 3) It includes only relevant details.
- 4) It is accurate and has no digressions.
- 5) Ideas are logically arranged.
- 6) It avoids emotional overtones.

3.6.5 Sharpening Your Writing Skills

If you are one who has a hard time finding the right word or expression for writing, don't feel that you are alone. Developing strong writing skills needs practice and patience. For many people writing clearly and concisely does not always come easily. However, there are general ways, you can sharpen your skills. There are some suggestions.

- a) Write everyday or at least as often as you can. Keep a daily journal. Content is not important here, but the act of writing is. Consistency is the key when you develop your writing skills.
- b) Read as much as possible. Exposing yourself to what others have written is a great tool. Read books, newspapers and magazines. This will help you understand more about style, sentence structure and word usage.
- c) Join professional writing class or an online course to help you develop your writing skills.
- d) Learn basic grammar rules. Writing guides such as "The Elements of Style" can be found in the reference section of any library. Once you have mastered the basics, writing skills will be easier to develop.
- e) Prepare to write more than one draft. No one's writing is perfect the first time. Read out loud what you have written – this can help pick up errors you might not have noticed otherwise. Perhaps you can ask a trusted colleague to proofread your work as well.

Check Your Progress 5

- Notes:** a) Write your answers in the space given below.
b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of this unit.

- 1) Write an attractive introduction and conclusion on one of the following topics:
- a) The India of my dream
 - b) The computer age
 - c) Secularism

Introduction

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.....
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Conclusion

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- 2) Differentiate between letter writing and report writing by giving three characteristics of each:

a) Letter Writing:

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b) Report Writing

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.....
.....

3.7 ENHANCING READING AND WRITING BY USING TECHNOLOGY

In this technological world, reading and writing do not limit to only print version, rather they encompass technological medium also. Here, the term 'technology' is treated as 'computer' and 'internet

enabled computer' although it has some other meanings attached with other tools, such as: telephone, audio/video cassettes, radio, etc. Just by seeing the texts of a book learners may not interest in reading, in a similar way by holding a pen in front of a white paper does not arise any interest in writing. The mechanism or procedures required to develop reading and writing skills have been discussed in the previous sections.

In this section, the analysis will focus on how technology improves learners' learning in DE contexts. Learners in the information technology enabled world are pleased to read and write by using technological tools, and more prominently with internet enabled computer and computer machines. Computer as a tool does not only help learners to read the text on screen but also assists them to edit text in parallel with reading. While reading on internet they can listen audio, watch video, and do many other activities of their interest. This is so because of the multimedia insertion in the computer machine. It is assumed that learning becomes interesting and creative in its approach.

Advances in technology have provided learners word processors, e-mail, interactive websites, video games, pod casts, and DVD facilities to use in their reading and writing purposes. These new media facilitate different ways to convey information. Distance learners by adapting technology medium do navigate the required information and become master on new techniques. Thus, it is asserted that to acquire reading and writing skills through technology, one should become proficient in using computer, internet, and related technologies.

Reading online guides learners to acquire critical thinking and research strategies to search for the correct information that they require for their studies. For example, to search a simple information a learner needs to assess a list of suggested sites and then analyze web contents for relevance to the question at his/her hand.

3.7.1 Acquiring Reading and Writing Skills by Using Internet

Reading on internet gives pleasure to learners because, unlike a paper book, it is enabled with texts, videos, audios, and links to different other websites. Some of the reading benefits learners derive from online platforms are as follows, though these are not considered as the complete list.

- i) Learners can get their preferred learning styles, such as; visual, hands-on, auditory, etc.
- ii) Websites offer content clues and organized structures of contents, such as subheads, diagram, and clickable definitions of unfamiliar terms, which help emerging readers to develop stronger comprehension skills.
- iii) Navigating and exploring websites make learners predict what they will read next.

**Learner Support:
Development of Skills**

- iv) By using e-mail tools, they can send their opinions or arguments to their friends and also receive their feedback on time. Hence self-encouraged to read and write on internet platform. This tool provides excellent reading and writing practice in an informal and low-stress setting.
- v) Text that is available in electronic format assists in accommodating learner with disabilities who use screen or text readers (Orkwis & Mclane, 1998)
- vi) With electronic text, learners can change the letters size, appearance, and layout to accommodate their needs.
- vii) Since reading resources and writing activities are available on the internet, and internet sites often contain graphics, sound, video, and animation, hence these motivate learners to excel in their studies.
- viii) Reading supported by graphics, illustrations, drawings, pictures, and other visual illustrations inspires learners to overcome the barriers while reading textual materials.

As many learners, those many learning styles, are their reading styles. Hence, catering education to different learners should have multiple strategic approaches. And, internet can serve this purpose. It accommodates all sorts of learners due to its unique features and creative aesthetic design platforms.

The recent proliferation of electronic text, talking story books, trade books, and internet based textual materials enthrall learners to use various technological tools and methods for their learning activities. Learners with disabilities benefit to a great extent by using technology in their reading and writing purposes. Learners with disabilities have problems with reading fluency, text comprehension skills, vocabulary learning, and abstract reasoning from text presentations from the paper based books. But these are eradicated by using the technology in their learning methods.

According to Orkwis and Mclane (1998) many customized electronic instructional materials and techniques are available. These materials and techniques help learners to access textual information and adapt different learning styles that suit them.

Reading and writing methods have been changed over the past few years after the intervention of internet based electronic materials. There are a few softwares used in reading and writing purposes. These are (Castellani, J. & Jeffs, T., 2001):

- a) Text-reading software
- b) Word-prediction software
- c) Visual concept-organization software
- d) Graphic-based writing software
- e) Writing templates
- f) Fundamental skills software

Text-reading software—integrates word prediction by letter, word, and sentence; highlights and scans words as text is read; provides auditory feedback and speech synthesis; offers definitions, spell-check, and thesaurus support for highlighted words; and abbreviation expansion for commonly used words, phrases, and or large text blocks.

Word-prediction software—offers beginner, intermediate, and advanced user dictionaries; predicts by letter, word, and sentence; highlights and scans words as text is read; provides auditory feedback and speech synthesis; and can often be used with switch/alternative keyboard access.

Visual concept-organization software—provides graphic templates and character webs; offers visual structure for understanding events; cause and effect, and writing outlines; allows for individual user templates; and support for brainstorming.

Graphic-based writing software—provides story-boarding and framing; works with pictures, sound, music, voice recording, and text for story representation; provides spell-check and speech feedback; and integrates pictures found on the internet into writing products.

Writing templates—provide structural frameworks for letter, resume, outlines, checklists, and report writing.

Fundamental-skills software—word attack, sentence mastery, symbol recognition, switch-activated communication software, phonics, electronic storybooks, and simulation software.

Alternative input devices—switch access, Morse code, alternative keyboards, touch screens, voice recognition, and on-screen keyboard.

(see <http://chd.gse.gmu.edu/telecomm/main.html>).

How can reading and writing activities be combined with available technology tools? There are many methods to teach children with disabilities to read and write. Regardless of the reading approach, once students have chosen authentic materials, teachers can decide the best method to work with a student on any given text passage. Providing repeated opportunities for students to build their reading and writing skills through available technology tools starts by having students choose the materials they would like to read. Then adapt these materials so that students can work independently.

On the internet, the interest inventory provides a blue print for selecting writing and reading topics of learners' interest. By searching with the help of internet tools, learners access to their reading level materials of their interest. By using text readers software, learners can track the text, convert text to speech, learn unknown vocabulary and avail opportunity to work on higher level of passages. In addition to these, searching the internet for useful educational text can be overwhelming, given the current limited time for planning.

Text readers have inbuilt features that allow learners to study independently by receiving text-to-speech feedback, built in thesaurus, and spell checkers. Web browsers have the built in capacity to enlarge, change the colour, spacing, and count the number of words in a line. Each of these features can help learners of physically disabled category who have difficulties in reading and comprehension

making. This in turn increases learners' attention and motivation, provides opportunities for them to practice reading strategies and work independently with texts (Castellani, 2000).

Table 1: Reading and Writing with the Internet

Time Frame	Reading Activities	Writing Activities	Using the Internet
Before	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Recognize reading level Identify vocabulary and begin creating word list for new or difficult words, prepare prediction questions or questions specific to the text you have found on the Internet Use fundamental skills, software skills (Laureate) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Recognize writing level Use visual concept organization software, such as inspiration, graphing software (Flowchart) Use fundamental skills software 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Complete Interest Inventory Scan for pictures Prepare (preview) links ahead of time, bookmarks Search for information, locating text sites on grade level Find materials for grade level (Flesch-Kincaid or 90% rule) Find information on the Internet, based on student preferences or by conducting individualized student searches (using browsers that automatically spell check, etc.)
During	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use text readers, grammar, abbreviation expansion Reread text, have computer read, take turns reading with student Use an available electronic dictionary, thesaurus 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Answer questions to expand on story and provide detail Use writing templates and word-prediction software Use graphic-based writing software Turn questions and answers into sentences 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Make decisions about interest and authenticity of materials and student motivation Transfer pictures and text to a disk or word processor for further work with information
After	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provide comprehension activities with extended activities through different learning modalities Look at suggested readings on similar topics by the same author 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Publish and share work with others on the Internet Create a literacy portfolio for each student Create booklets on Internet sites and have students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Create booklets on Internet sites and have students rate the story site (rate the stories) Search for related future reading activities and extensions

3.8 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we learnt that:

Reading is an integrative and interactive process, and it is difficult to give a single definition of reading.

Reading process involves four stages, i.e. perception/word recognition level, comprehension, evaluation/reaction and application levels.

Comprehension consists of literal, critical and creative levels. These levels are also known as reading 'on the lines', 'between the lines' and 'beyond the lines'.

A good reader always evaluates the material read, reacts to it as per his/her own experience and background, and finally applies the assimilated ideas in his/her own life.

Among the various skills of reading, we discussed SQ3R technique – Survey, question, read, recite and review.

The basic skills of reading are skimming for gist, and scanning for specific information.

The two types of reading are: intensive reading that involves examining a text closely and in detail, and extensive reading that involves reading fluently for immodest ending the plot and enjoyment.

Writing is basically a creative process. The writer goes through the stages of planning, translating and reviewing/editing while writing any composition.

A good writer first plans the content, format and style of the writing according to the need and interest of the reader.

After planning he/she translates the subject matter into appropriate language and style. Thus the first draft of the writing is prepared. Later on this draft is reviewed and edited in order to make it comprehensible to the reader.

Writing various forms of composition require respective writing skills which need to be developed and sharpened by constant practice and patience. For example paragraph wiring requires unity and organization of ideas while essay writing requires effective introduction, well organized body and concluding remarks.

A good writer should read prominent author's writings, and develop mastery of the language, expression and style of his/her own.

On the internet, the interest inventory provides a blue print for selecting writing and reading topics of learners' interest. By searching internet tools, learners access to their reading level materials of their interest. By using text readers' software, learners can track the texts, convert texts to speech, learn unknown vocabulary and avail opportunity to work on higher level passages. In addition to these, searching the internet for useful educational text can be overwhelming, given the current limited time for planning.

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3.10 FEEDBACK TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

Check Your Progress 1

When we read a text, whatever it may be, we do not passively absorb what is given in it. We normally interact with it actively and breathe meaning into the words to get the writer's message. Hence, reading is defined as active interaction with the text.

Check Your Progress 2

- 1) Four levels of comprehension are: Literal, interpretative, critical and creative.
- 2) A good reader after comprehending the text, evaluates the events, ideas, characters or the intention of the author. At the same time he/she should react ideationally and intentionally about the author's expressed ideas and intentions etc.

Check Your Progress 3

Although the steps in SQ3R are in logical and natural order, sometimes overlapping and repetitions may be found among them. For example, even while we are passing through survey or reading, we may be repeating our survey while recalling or reviewing.

Check Your Progress 4

- 1) **Planning:** At the pre-writing stage, the writer plans the subject matter, format and style and uses it while writing the composition. Along with this he/she also considers the choice and interest of the reader.
- 2) **Translating:** The first draft is written as per the plan. The language and style of presentation used are appropriate according to form and format of the composition.
- 3) **Reviewing:** In the final draft, the writer rethinks and re-organizes the ideas and language of the composition wherever necessary. Additions and deletions may be carried out as per the demand of the subject matter or the requirement of the reader.

Check Your Progress 5

- 1) The topics should be written as per your own choice and in your own likeness keeping in mind the introduction and the conclusion.
- 2) a) Letters are of two types – formal and informal. Formal letters are written for business purposes while informal letters are written to the members of the family, friends or relatives. The language and expression are also formal or informal as per the types of the letters.
b) Report describes an event or an experience. It is brief and includes only relevant details. It is accurate and ideas are logically arranged.

READING SKILLS / READING TECHNIQUES**(Lesson Structure)**

- 1·0 Objective**
- 1·1 Introduction**
- 1·2 Reading Techniques**
- 1·3 Approach to Reading Techniques**
- (i) Orientation** **(ii) Skimming**
- (iii) Scanning** **(iv) Decoding**
- (v) Global Understanding**
- 1·4 Strategies for Developing Reading Skills**
- 1·5 Reading to Learn**
- 1·6 Types of Reading**
- (i) Skimming** **(ii) Scanning**
- (iii) Intensive Reading** **(iv) Extensive Reading**
- (v) Loud and Silent Reading**
- 1·7 Let us Sum Up**
- 1·8 Exercise**

1·0 Objective :

In this unit, we will understand and learn :

- ◆ the importance of reading as a skill
- ◆ reading as a skill for better understanding
- ◆ types of reading
- ◆ approach to reading techniques

1·1 Introduction :

Reading is a process of the brain where you look at symbols on a page, and your mind sees the patterns of characters and understands the meaning in them. Many people have trouble with reading. Reading is hard for some people and it can take time. For this, one should prepare oneself for reading. Pick books depending on your reading level, no matter what your age. Reading is about enjoying the experience. Read the page carefully. Don't rush but take your time. Most people think that skimming the page is a way of fast

reading, but this is definitely not true. If you don't understand what you are reading, read over the sentence again. If you still don't understand something, ask a good reader near by to explain the sentence. Try to read as much as you can on your free time. Reading will help you in lots of ways; your vocabulary will become larger and more sophisticated.

1.2 Reading Techniques :

One of the first things you learn about teaching is that there are different reading techniques and the student should be aware of which techniques 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 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.

1.3 Approach to Reading Techniques :

There is a five-step approach to reading techniques. They are :

1. Step One : Orientation

Goal : Prereading Preparation

Look carefully at anything that can give you information on the reading : table of contents, the introduction to the story, the title subheadings within the story, glossary etc.

Try to find some of this type of information :

- (a) What kind of text it is; (fairy tale, report)
- (b) Whether it is mainly action or dialogue;
- (c) Whether it is mainly internal thinking or external interaction among characters;
- (d) Whether it is in chronological order; etc.

Next, you should think about what you might associate with any of the results of your orientation. For example, if you have decided that the text is a drama, think about what you expect from a drama.

2. Step Two : Skimming

Goal : To get the general meaning (gist) of the story without trying to decode exactly what each word means.

Read the whole text through silently twice. Do not use a dictionary

Your first reading will help orient you further to the content and make you comfortable with what you don't understand in it.

Focus on what does make sense (cognates, compound words, logical relationships between word and whole phrase, and skip what you don't understand and, trying to go with the flow.

Your second reading will give you a much better feeling for the content. You will notice that some passages were unclear during your first reading are starting to clear up, since what comes to the end often helps you to understand the beginning.

After completing these two readings, stop and make a mental summary of what you have understood. Now invest a sentence summarizing what you think the story is. You may write something like : This story deals with x and b and (love for instance) and it so happens...

3. Step Three : Scanning

Goal : To extract specific pieces of information.

In 'real life', you might scan a train schedule for one kind of information, a travel brochure for different information, and a theatre program for a third type. You can extract certain basic facts only by scanning a text.

Read through the text again very quickly, scanning for the things to focus your attention more clearly on. Now pull things together. Write just enough to indicate the progress of the literary text.

4. Step Four : Decoding

Goal : Thorough comprehension

After you have skimmed and scanned, there will still be stretches of text that offer vocabulary or grammatical difficulties you can't overcome easily. In those cases, detailed word-by-word decoding is necessary. Read the text again, this time slowing down and decoding these sections. Remember to think about structure as well as vocabulary. Establish logical relationships by finding connectors, locate important words in the phrase or sentence.

Now you should be able to paraphrase the author, but not necessarily evaluate the ideas or tell the 'why' about the text. When you are finished reading, try to retell events in your mind and make notes.

5. Step Five : Global Understanding :

Goal : To understand and critically evaluate the 'why' of the text

After all the reading and re-reading, ask yourself some questions.

- (a) Why did the author put this remark or description?
- (b) What is the meaning of a fact alone in relation to other facts in the text

Usually these questions are discussed, but try to figure some of them out by yourself and make notes to contribute to the discussion.

1.4 Strategies for Developing Reading Skills :

A strategy is a plan developed by a reader to assist in comprehending and thinking about texts, when reading the words alone does not give the reader a sense of the meaning of a text. Most researchers and practitioners agree about a core of seven strategies :

1. Activating background knowledge to make connections between new and known information : In many classrooms, this instruction is divided into three categories of connection as defined by Colleen Buddy—text-to-self, text-to-text and text-to-world.

2. Questioning the text : Proficient readers are always asking questions which they read. Sticky notes have become ubiquitous in classrooms in part because they are such a useful tool for teaching students to stop, mark text, and note questions as they read.

3. Drawing inferences : Proficient readers use their prior knowledge about a topic and the information they have gleaned in the text, thus far to make predictions about what might happen next. When teachers demonstrate their reading processes for students through think-alouds, they often stop and predict what will happen next to show how inferring is essential for comprehending texts.

4. Determining importance : In the sea of words, readers must continually sort through and prioritize information. Teachers often assist readers in analyzing everything for text features in non-fiction text like bullets and heading to verbal cues in novels. Looking for these clues can help readers sift through the relative value of different bits of information in texts.

5. Creating mental images : Readers are constantly creating mind pictures as they read, visualizing action, characters or themes. Teachers use picture books with students of all ages, not necessarily because they are easy to read, but because the lush and sophisticated art in these books can be a great bridge for helping students see how words and images connect in meaning making.

6. Repairing understanding when meaning breaks down : Proficient readers don't just plow ahead through text when it doesn't make sense—they stop and use “fix-up” strategies to restore their understanding. One of the most important fix-up tools is re-reading, write teachers demonstrating to students a variety of ways to re-read text in order to repair meaning.

7. Synthesizing information : Synthesis is the most sophisticated of the comprehension strategies, combining elements of connecting, questioning and inferring. With this strategy, students move from making meaning to the text, to integrating then then new understanding into their lives and world view.

1.5 Reading to Learn :

Reading is an essential part of language instruction at every level because it supports learning in multiple ways.

(i) 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.

(ii) Reading for Content Information : Student's 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.

(iii) Reading for Cultural Knowledge and Awareness : Reading everyday materials that are designed for native speakers can give students insight into the lifestyles and worldview of the people whose language they are studying. When students have access to newspapers, magazines and websites, they are exposed to culture in all its variety and monolithic cultural stereotypes begin to breakdown.

When reading to learn, you should follow four basic steps :

(a) Figure out the purpose for reading. Activate background knowledge of the topic in order to predict or anticipate content and identify appropriate reading strategies.

(b) 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.

(c) 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.

(d) Check comprehension while reading and when the reading task is completed. Monitoring comprehension helps students detect inconsistencies and comprehension failure, helping them learn to use alternate strategies.

1.6 Types of Reading :

These are five main types of reading techniques :

- (i) Skimming
- (ii) Scanning

- (iii) Intensive Reading
- (iv) Extensive Reading
- (v) Loud and silent Reading

I. SKIMMING :

Skimming and scanning are reading techniques that use rapid eye movement and keywords to move quickly through text for slightly different purposes .

Skimming is reading rapidly in order to get a general overview of the material. Skimming is like snorketing, telling you what general information is within a section. Use skimming in previewing (reading before you read), reviewing (reading after you read,) determining the main idea from a long section you don't wish to read, or when trying to find source material for a research paper.

Skimming to save time : Skimming can save you hours of labourious reading. Though it is not the most appropriate way to read, it is very useful as a preview to a more detailed reading. But when you skim, you may miss important points or overhad the finer shades of meaning, for which study reading may be necessary.

You can use skimming to overview your textbook chapters or to review for a text. Use skimming to decide if you need to read something at all, for example during the preliminary research for a paper. Skimming can tell you enough about the general idea and tone of the material, as well as its gross similarity or difference from other sources, to know if you need to read at all.

To skim, prepare yourself to move rapidly through the pages. You will pay attention to typographical cues-heading, boldface and italic type, indenting, bulleted and numbered lists. You will be alert for key words and phrases, the names of places and people, dates, nouns and unfamiliar words. In general, follow these steps :

- ◆ Read the table of contents or chapter overview to learn the main division of ideas
- ◆ Glance through the main headings in each chapter just to see a word or two. Read the headings of charts and tables.
- ◆ Read the entire introductory passage and then the first and last sentence only of each following paragraph. For each paragraph, read only the first few words of each sentence or to locate the main idea.
- ◆ Stop and quickly read the sentences containing keywords in boldface or italics.
- ◆ When you think you have found something significant, stop to read the entire sentence to make sure. Then go on the same way. Resist the temptation to stop to read details you don't need.
- ◆ Read chapter summaries when provided.

Good skimmers do not skim everything at the same rate or give equal attention to everything. While skimming is always faster than your normal reading speed, you should slow down in the following situations :

- When you skim introductory and concluding paragraphs
- When you skim topic sentences
- When you find an unfamiliar word
- When the material is very complicated

Activity (an exercise in skimming)

Read the following news item

Patna : The most reputed institution of Patna, Patna Women’s College, cancelled all its on-going semester exams and declared a holiday for the coming two weeks. The reason : An outbreak of chicken-pox in the hostel.

Select an appropriate headline for the news item from the choices given below :

Examinations postponed due to epidemic

Hygiene and our colleges

Chicken-pox hits the Patna Women’s College hostels. Does the underlined headline give you the complete idea and information about the news ? If you choose a different headline, why do you think it is more appropriate ?

II. SCANNING :

Scanning, too, uses keywords and organisational cues. But while the goal of skimming is a bird’s-eye view of the material, the goal of scanning is to locate and swoop down on particular facts.

Facts may be buried within long text relatively that have relatively little else to do with your topic. Skim this material first to decide if it is likely to contain the facts you need. Don’t forget to scan table of contents, summaries, indexes, heading and typographical cues. To make sense of lists and tables, skim them first. If after skimming you decide the material will be useful, go ahead and scan :

- Know what you’re looking for. Decide on a few key words or phrases–search terms.
- Look for only one keyword at a time.
- Let your eyes float rapidly down the page until you find the word or phrase you wait.
- When your eye catches one of your keyword, read the surrounding material carefully

Scanning is a technique that requires concentration and can be surprisingly tiring. You may have to practice at not allowing your attention to wander.

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 a simple piece of information.

Activity

Read the following schedule of '98.3 FM' channel

98.3 FM

Time	Programme
6.00 am	Bhakti Sangeet
7.00 am	Bhule-bisere geet
8.00 am	News
8.30 am	Naye Nagme
9.30 am	Chaya geet
10.30	Hit-mix
11.30 am	Jharoka
12.30 am	Artist of the Fortnight

Quickly find the answer to the following questions

- (a) When do you listen to 'Naye Nagma' ?
- (b) Name one of the early morning shows that gives you memorable moments of the past ?
- (c) At what time do you have 'Artist of the Fortnight' ?
- (d) Name one programme of longer duration than the others.....

III. Intensive Reading :

Your need to have your aims clear in mind when undertaking intensive reading. This is going to be far more consuming than skimming or scanning. If you need to list the chronology of events in a long passage, you will read it intensively. This type of reading is 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.

IV. 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.

V. Loud and Silent Reading :

Our daily reading is done silently because we are engaged in the process of deriving meaning from the passage. But when we read aloud, our concentration is divided between reading and speaking. This makes reading difficult and may cause problems in understanding the matter. But there are something like notices and circulars which have to be read out loudly to students or employees to avoid confusion. In every other situation, silent reading is ideal because it helps in understanding things better.

1·7 Let us sum up :

Thus, the first things that 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. The most important task at hand is to make the students understand their reading techniques and deduce when best to apply especially under exam conditions when time constraints come into play and decisions need to be made depending on this availability and the importance.

1·8 Exercise :

- (a) What do you understand by reading techniques ?
- (b) What are the different strategies for developing reading skills ?
- (c) What are the different types of reading ? Discuss.



UNIT 1 LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Structure

- 1.0 Introduction
- 1.1 Objectives
- 1.2 Language and Cognition
- 1.3 Linguistics
 - 1.3.1 The Structure of Language
 - 1.3.2 The Buildings Blocks of Language
- 1.4 Language Acquisition
 - 1.4.1 Stages of Language Acquisition
 - 1.4.2 Language Acquisition and Cognitive Science
 - 1.4.3 Language and Thought
- 1.5 Theories of Language Acquisition
 - 1.5.1 Behaviouristic Theory
 - 1.5.2 Limitations of Behaviourism Theory
 - 1.5.3 Innateness Theory
 - 1.5.4 Evidence to Support Innateness Theory
 - 1.5.5 Limitations of Chomsky's Theory
 - 1.5.6 Cognitive Theory
 - 1.5.7 Limitations of Cognitive Theories
 - 1.5.8 Inputs or Integrationist Theories
 - 1.5.9 Limitations of Inputs Theories
- 1.6 The Biology of Language Acquisition
 - 1.6.1 Maturational Changes in Brain
 - 1.6.2 Dissociations Between Language and General Intelligence
 - 1.6.3 Neural Networks
- 1.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 1.8 Unit End Questions
- 1.9 Suggested Readings and References.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

People talk or use language incessantly. Language, to cognitive psychologists, is a system of communication in which thoughts are transmitted by means of sounds (as in speech and music) or symbols (as in written words and gestures). As you read this text, you are engaging in one of the mind's most enchanting processes – the way one mind influences another through language. In this process, some cell assemblies in your brain are permanently changed, new thoughts are made, and, in a very real sense, you are changed.

Cognitive psychology concerns both language and thought and has been popular only since the 1950s. Before that, many psychologists believed that the scientific method could not be applied towards the study of a process as private as thinking. From ancient Greek times, only philosophers and metaphysicians studied the nature of language and thought. The metaphysician René Descartes, for example, famously argued, "I think, therefore I am."

Today, thanks to increasingly sophisticated tools for studying brain activity, cognitive psychology is a thriving science. Cognitive psychologists explore such questions as how language affects thought, whether it is possible to create a “thinking” machine, and why humans are motivated to create art.

1.1 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Define and elucidate the concept of language;
- Describe language and cognition;
- Explain theories of language acquisition and their limitations; and
- Explain biology of language acquisition.

1.2 LANGUAGE AND COGNITION

The study of human language is important to cognitive psychologists for the following reasons:

- Human language development represents a unique kind of abstraction, which is basic to cognition. Although other forms of life (bees, birds, dolphins, dogs and so on) have elaborate means of communicating and apes seem to use a form of language abstraction, the degree of abstraction is much greater among humans.
- Language processing is an important component of information processing and storage.
- Human thinking and problem solving can be conceptualised as processes involving language. Many, if not most, forms of thinking and problem solving are internal, that is, done in the absence of external stimuli. Abstraction of puzzles, for example, into verbal symbols provides a way to think about a solution.
- Language is the main means of human communication, the way in which most information is exchanged.
- Language influences perception, a fundamental aspect of cognition. Some argue that how we perceive the world is affected by the language we use to describe it. On the other hand, language development is at least largely based on our perception of language. So the perceptual-language process is one of interdependency; both significantly influence the other. Language from this point of view operates as a window.

The processing of words, speech, and semantics seem to engage specific cerebral areas and thus provide a meaningful link between neuro anatomical structures and language. In addition, the study of pathology of the brain has frequently shown manifest change in language functions, as in the case of aphasia.

1.3 LINGUISTICS

The study of linguistics is the formal description of the structure of language, including a description of speech sounds, meanings, and grammar. Language as

studied by linguists tends to be competency based (dealing with some ideal potential of the speaker-listener), while psychologists generally view language in terms of performance, or how humans use language. The discipline that incorporates both approaches to the study of language is called psycholinguistics.

1.3.1 The Structure of Language

Language is a system of symbols and rules that is used for meaningful communication. A system of communication has to meet *certain criteria* in order to be considered a language:

A language uses symbols, which are sounds, gestures, or written characters that represent objects, actions, events, and ideas. Symbols enable people to refer to objects that are in another place or events that occurred at a different time.

A language is meaningful and therefore can be understood by other users of that language.

A language is generative, which means that the symbols of a language can be combined to produce an infinite number of messages.

A language has rules that govern how symbols can be arranged. These rules allow people to understand messages in that language even if they have never encountered those messages before.

1.3.2 The Building Blocks of Language

Language is organised hierarchically, from phonemes to morphemes to phrases and sentences that communicate meaning

Phonemes are the smallest distinguishable units in a language. In the English language, many consonants, such as *t*, *p*, and *m*, correspond to single phonemes, while other consonants, such as *c* and *g*, can correspond to more than one phoneme. Vowels typically correspond to more than one phoneme. For example, *o* corresponds to different phonemes depending on whether it is pronounced as in *bone* or *woman*. Some phonemes correspond to combinations of consonants, such as *ch*, *sh*, and *th*.

Morphemes are the smallest meaningful units in a language. In the English language, only a few single letters, such as *I* and *a*, are morphemes. Morphemes are usually whole words or meaningful parts of words, such as prefixes, suffixes, and word stems.

Example: The word “disliked” has three morphemes: “dis,” “lik,” and “ed.”

Syntax is a system of rules that governs how words can be meaningfully arranged to form phrases and sentences.

Example: One rule of syntax is that an article such as “the” must come before a noun, not after: “Read the book,” not “Read book the.”

1.4 LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Language acquisition is one of the central topics in cognitive science. Every theory of cognition has tried to explain it; probably no other topic has aroused such controversy. Possessing a language is the quintessentially human trait: all

normal humans speak, no nonhuman animal does. Language is the main vehicle by which we know about other people's thoughts, and the two must be intimately related. Every time we speak we are revealing something about language, so the facts of language structure are easy to come by; these data hint at a system of extraordinary complexity. Nonetheless, learning a first language is something every child does successfully, in a matter of a few years and without the need for formal lessons. With language so close to the core of what it means to be human, it is not surprising that children's acquisition of language has received so much attention. Anyone with strong views about the human mind would like to show that children's first few steps are steps in the right direction.

In the past, debates about the acquisition of language centered on the same theme as debates about the acquisition of any ability – the nature versus nurture theme. However, current thinking about the language acquisition has incorporated the understanding that acquiring language really involves a natural endowment modified by environment (Bates and Goodman, 1999; Dehaene-Lambertz, Hertz-Painter & Dubois, 2006; Lightfoot, 2003; Maratos, 2003). For example, the social environment, in which infants use their social capacities to interact with others, provides one source of information for language acquisition (Snow, 1999; Tomasello, 1999). Thus the approach to studying language acquisition now revolves around discovering what abilities are innate and how the child's environment tempers these abilities. This process is aptly termed innately guided learning (see Elman & associates, 1996; Jusczyk, 1997).

Before examining the various theories of language acquisition, let's take a look at a series of stages that seem to be universal in language acquisition.

1.4.1 Stages of Language Acquisition

Around the world, people seem to acquire their primary language in pretty much the same sequence and in just about the same way. Research on speech perception finds the same overall pattern of progression. They develop from more general to more specific abilities. That is, as infants we are initially able to distinguish among all possible phonetic contrasts. But over time we lose the ability to distinguish nonnative contrasts in favor of those used in our native language environment (see Jusczyk, 1997). Infants have remarkably acute language-learning abilities. They show these abilities even from an early age (Marcus et al., 1999; Pinker, 1997, 1999).

Within the first few years of life, we humans seem to progress through the following stages in producing language:

Cooing, which comprises of vowel sounds mostly. Cooing is the infant's oral expression that explores the production of vowel sounds. The cooing of infants around the world, including deaf infants, is indistinguishable across babies and languages. Infants are actually better than adults at being able to discriminate sounds that carry no meaning for them (Werker, 1989). They can make phonetic distinctions that adults have lost. During the cooing stage, hearing infants also can discriminate among all phones, not just phonemes characteristic of their own language.

Babbling, which comprises consonant as well as vowel sounds; to most people's ears, the babbling of infants growing up among speakers from different language

groups sounds very similar (Oller & Eilers, 1998). At the babbling stage, deaf infants no longer vocalise. The sounds produced by hearing infants change. Babbling is the infant's preferential production largely of those distinct phonemes—both vowels and consonants—that are characteristic of the infant's own language (Locke, 1994).

One-word utterances; these utterances are limited in both the vowels and the consonants they utilise (Ingram, 1999). Eventually, the infant utters his or her first word. It is followed shortly by one or two more. Soon after, yet a few more follow. The infant uses these one word utterances — termed holophrases — to convey intentions, desires, and demands. Usually the words are nouns describing familiar objects that the child observes (example; car, book, ball, baby, toy, nose) or wants (e.g. mama, dada, milk, cookie). By 18 months of age, children typically have vocabulary of 3 to 100 words (Seigler, 1986). The young child's vocabulary cannot yet encompass all that the child wishes to describe. As a result, the child commits overextension error. An *overextension error* is erroneously extending the meaning of words in the existing lexicon to cover things and ideas for which a new word is lacking. For example, the general term for any four legged animal may be 'doggie'.

Two-word utterances and telegraphic speech. Gradually, between 1.5 to 2.5 years of age, children start combining single words to produce two-word utterances. Thus begin an understanding of syntax. These early syntactical communications seem more like telegrams than conversation. The articles, prepositions, and other functional morphemes are usually left out. Hence, linguists refer to these early utterances with rudimentary syntax as *telegraphic speech*. e.g. "want juice", "doggie bite", "mommy sit". These simple pairings of words convey a wealth of information about a child's intentions and needs.

Basic adult sentence structure (present by about age 4 years), with continuing vocabulary acquisition. Vocabulary expands rapidly. It more than triples from 300 words at about 2 years of age to about 1000 words at 3 years of age. Almost incredible, by age of 4, children acquire the foundations of adult syntax and language structure. By age of 5 years, most children also can understand and produce quite complex and uncommon sentence constructions. By age of 10 years, children's language is fundamentally the same as that of adults.

Normal children can differ by a year or more in their rate of language development, though the stages they pass through are generally the same regardless of how stretched out or compressed.

1.4.2 Language Acquisition and Cognitive Science

Language acquisition is not only inherently interesting; studying it is one way to look for concrete answers to questions that permeate cognitive science. The scientific study of language acquisition began around the same time as the birth of cognitive science, in the late 1950's. The historical catalyst was Noam Chomsky's review of Skinner's Verbal Behaviour (Chomsky, 1959). At that time, Anglo-American natural science, social science, and philosophy had come to a virtual consensus about the answers to the questions listed above. The mind consisted of sensorimotor abilities plus a few simple laws of learning governing gradual changes in an organism's behavioural repertoire. Therefore language

must be learned, it cannot be a module, and thinking must be a form of verbal behaviour, since verbal behaviour is the prime manifestation of “thought” that can be observed externally.

Chomsky argued that language acquisition falsified these beliefs in a single stroke: children learn languages that are governed by highly subtle and abstract principles, and they do so without explicit instruction or any other environmental clues to the nature of such principles. Hence language acquisition depends on an innate, species-specific module that is distinct from general intelligence. Much of the debate in language acquisition has attempted to test this once-revolutionary, and still controversial, collection of ideas. The implications extend to the rest of human cognition.

1.4.3 Language and Thought

Is language simply grafted on top of cognition as a way of sticking communicable labels onto thoughts (Fodor, 1975; Piaget, 1926)? Or does learning a language somehow mean learning to think in that language? A famous hypothesis, outlined by Benjamin Whorf (1956), asserts that the categories and relations that we use to understand the world come from our particular language, so that speakers of different languages conceptualise the world in different ways.

Language acquisition, then, would be learning to think, not just learning to talk. This is an intriguing hypothesis, but virtually all modern cognitive scientists believe it is false (see Pinker, 1994a). Babies can think before they can talk.

Cognitive psychology has shown that people think not just in words but in images and abstract logical propositions. Language acquisition has a unique contribution to make to this issue. As we shall see, it is virtually impossible to show how children could learn a language unless you assume they have a considerable amount of nonlinguistic cognitive machinery in place before they start.

1.5 THEORIES OF LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

How do we explain children’s course of language acquisition — most importantly, their inevitable and early mastery? Several kinds of mechanisms are at work. As we will see in the next section, the brain changes after birth, and these maturational changes may govern the onset, rate, and adult decline of language acquisition capacity. General changes in the child’s information processing abilities (attention, memory, short-term buffers for acoustic input and articulator output) could leave their mark as well. Language acquisition is so complex that one needs a precise framework for understanding what it involves.

Over the last fifty years, several theories have been put forward to explain the process by which children learn to understand and speak a language. They can be summarised as follows: (Refer to table below)

Table 1.1: Theory and the central idea associated with author

Theory	Central Idea	Individual most often associated with theory
Behaviourist	Children imitate adults. Their correct utterances are reinforced when they get what they want or are praised	Skinner
Innateness	A child's brain contains special language learning mechanisms at birth	Chomsky
Cognitive	Language is just one aspect of a child's overall intellectual development.	Piaget
Interaction	This theory emphasises the interaction between children and their care givers.	Bruner

We shall consider each of these in turn. Before we do, it is important to recognise that they should not be seen simply as conflicting theories, replacing each other in a sequence. Although Behaviourism is now seen as offering only a very limited explanation, each theory has added to our overall understanding, placing emphasis on different aspects of the process.

1.5.1 Behaviouristic Theory

The behaviourist psychologists developed their theories while carrying out a series of experiments on animals. They observed that rats or birds, for example, could be taught to perform various tasks by encouraging habit-forming. Researchers rewarded desirable behaviour. This was known as positive reinforcement. Undesirable behaviour was punished or simply not rewarded — negative reinforcement. The behaviourist B. F. Skinner then proposed this theory as an explanation for language acquisition in humans. In *Verbal Behaviour* (1957), he stated: “The basic processes and relations which give verbal behaviour its special characteristics are now fairly well understood. Much of the experimental work responsible for this advance has been carried out on other species, but the results have proved to be surprisingly free of species restrictions. Recent work has shown that the methods can be extended to human behaviour without serious modifications.” (cited in Lowe and Graham, 1998, p.68)

Skinner suggested that a child imitates the language of its parents or carers. Successful attempts are rewarded because an adult who recognises a word spoken by a child will praise the child and/or give it what it is asking for. The linguistic input was key — a model for imitation to be either negatively or positively reinforced. Successful utterances are therefore reinforced while unsuccessful ones are forgotten. No essential difference between the way a rat learns to negotiate a maze and a child learns to speak.

1.5.2 Limitations of Behaviourism Theory

While there must be some truth in Skinner's explanation, there are many objections to it.

Language is based on a set of structures or rules, which could not be worked out simply by imitating individual utterances. The mistakes made by children reveal

that they are not simply imitating but actively working out and applying rules. For example, a child who says “drinked” instead of “drank” is not copying an adult but rather over-applying a rule.

The vast majority of children go through the same stages of language acquisition. Apart from certain extreme cases, the sequence seems to be largely unaffected by the treatment the child receives or the type of society in which s/he grows up.

Children are often unable to repeat what an adult says, especially if the adult utterance contains a structure the child has not yet started to use.

Few children receive much explicit grammatical correction. Parents are more interested in politeness and truthfulness. According to Brown, Cazden & Bellugi (1969): “It seems to be truth value rather than well-formed syntax that chiefly governs explicit verbal reinforcement by parents — which renders mildly paradoxical the fact that the usual product of such a training schedule is an adult whose speech is highly grammatical but not notably truthful.” (cited in Lowe and Graham, 1998)

There is evidence for a critical period for language acquisition. Children who have not acquired language by the age of about seven will never entirely catch up. The most famous example is that of Genie, discovered in 1970 at the age of 13. She had been severely neglected, brought up in isolation and deprived of normal human contact. Of course, she was disturbed and underdeveloped in many ways. During subsequent attempts at rehabilitation, her caretakers tried to teach her to speak. Despite some success, mainly in learning vocabulary, she never became a fluent speaker, failing to acquire the grammatical competence of the average five-year-old.

1.5.3 Innateness Theory

Noam Chomsky published a criticism of the behaviourist theory in 1957. In addition to some of the arguments listed above, he focused particularly on the impoverished language input children receive. This theory is connected with the writings of Chomsky, although the theory has been around for hundreds of years. Children are born with an innate capacity for learning human language. Humans are destined to speak. Children discover the grammar of their language based on their own inborn grammar. Certain aspects of language structure seem to be preordained by the cognitive structure of the human mind. This accounts for certain very basic universal features of language structure: every language has nouns/verbs, consonants and vowels. It is assumed that children are pre-programmed, hard-wired, to acquire such things.

Yet no one has been able to explain how quickly and perfectly all children acquire their native language. Every language is extremely complex, full of subtle distinctions that speakers are not even aware of. Nevertheless, children master their native language in 5 or 6 years regardless of their other talents and general intellectual ability. Acquisition must certainly be more than mere imitation; it also doesn't seem to depend on levels of general intelligence, since even a severely retarded child will acquire a native language without special training. Some innate feature of the mind must be responsible for the universally rapid and natural acquisition of language by any young child exposed to speech.

Chomsky concluded that children must have an inborn faculty for language acquisition. According to this theory, the process is biologically determined - the human species has evolved a brain whose neural circuits contain linguistic information at birth. The child's natural predisposition to learn language is triggered by hearing speech and the child's brain is able to interpret what s/he hears according to the underlying principles or structures it already contains. This natural faculty has become known as the Language Acquisition Device (LAD).

Chomsky did not suggest that an English child is born knowing anything specific about English, of course. He stated that all human languages share common principles. (For example, they all have words for things and actions — nouns and verbs.) It is the child's task to establish how the specific language s/he hears expresses these underlying principles.

For example, the LAD already contains the concept of verb tense. By listening to such forms as “worked”, “played” and “patted”, the child will form the hypothesis that the past tense of verbs is formed by adding the sound /d/, /t/ or /id/ to the base form. This, in turn, will lead to the “virtuous errors” mentioned above. It hardly needs saying that the process is unconscious. Chomsky does not envisage the small child lying in its cot working out grammatical rules consciously!

Chomsky's ground-breaking theory remains at the centre of the debate about language acquisition. However, it has been modified, both by Chomsky himself and by others. Chomsky's original position was that the LAD contained specific knowledge about language. Dan Isaac Slobin has proposed that it may be more like a mechanism for working out the rules of language:

“It seems to me that the child is born not with a set of linguistic categories but with some sort of process mechanism — a set of procedures and inference rules, if you will - that he uses to process linguistic data. These mechanisms are such that, applying them to the input data, the child ends up with something which is a member of the class of human languages. The linguistic universals, then, are the *result* of an innate cognitive competence rather than the content of such a competence” (cited in Russell, 2001).

1.5.4 Evidence to Support Innateness Theory

Work in several areas of language study has provided support for the idea of an innate language faculty. Three types of evidence are offered here:

- 1) Slobin has pointed out that human anatomy is peculiarly adapted to the production of speech. Unlike our nearest relatives, the great apes, we have evolved a vocal tract which allows the precise articulation of a wide repertoire of vocal sounds.
- 2) Neuro-science has also identified specific areas of the brain with distinctly linguistic functions, notably Broca's area and Wernicke's area. Stroke victims provide valuable data: depending on the site of brain damage, they may suffer a range of language dysfunction, from problems with finding words to an inability to interpret syntax.
- 3) Experiments aimed at teaching chimpanzees to communicate using plastic symbols or manual gestures have proved controversial. It seems likely that

our ape cousins, while able to learn individual “words”, have little or no grammatical competence. Pinker (1994) offers a good account of this research.

The formation of creole varieties of English appears to be the result of the LAD at work. The linguist Derek Bickerton has studied the formation of Dutch-based creoles in Surinam. Escaped slaves, living together but originally from different language groups, were forced to communicate in their very limited Dutch.

The result was the restricted form of language known as a pidgin. The adult speakers were past the critical age at which they could learn a new language fluently — they had learned Dutch as a foreign language and under unfavourable conditions. Remarkably, the children of these slaves turned the pidgin into a full language, known by linguists as a creole. They were presumably unaware of the process but the outcome was a language variety which follows its own consistent rules and has a full expressive range. Creoles based on English are also found, in the Caribbean and elsewhere.

Studies of the sign languages used by the deaf have shown that, far from being crude gestures replacing spoken words, these are complex, fully grammatical languages in their own right. A sign language may exist in several dialects. Children learning to sign as a first language pass through similar stages to hearing children learning spoken language. Deprived of speech, the urge to communicate is realised through a manual system which fulfils the same function. There is even a signing creole, again developed by children, in Nicaragua (Pinker, 1994).

1.5.5 Limitations of Chomsky’s Theory

Chomsky’s work on language was theoretical. He was interested in grammar and much of his work consists of complex explanations of grammatical rules. He did not study real children. The theory relies on children being exposed to language but takes no account of the interaction between children and their caretakers. Nor does it recognise the reasons why a child might want to speak, the functions of language.

In 1977, Bard and Sachs published a study of a child known as Jim, the hearing son of deaf parents. Jim’s parents wanted their son to learn speech rather than the sign language they used between themselves. He watched a lot of television and listened to the radio, therefore receiving frequent language input. However, his progress was limited until a speech therapist was enlisted to work with him. Simply being exposed to language was not enough. Without the associated interaction, it meant little to him.

Subsequent theories have placed greater emphasis on the ways in which real children develop language to fulfil their needs and interact with their environment, including other people.

1.5.6 Cognitive Theory

The Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget (1896-1980) placed acquisition of language within the context of a child’s cognitive development. He argued that a child has to understand a concept before s/he can acquire the particular language form which expresses that concept. Cognitive theory views language acquisition within the context of the child’s broader intellectual development. Since the cognitive

theory of language acquisition is based on Piaget's theory of cognitive development, a brief description and understanding of this theory is must.

Piaget suggested that children go through four separate stages in a fixed order that is universal in all children. Piaget declared that these stages differ not only in the quantity of information acquired at each, but also in the quality of knowledge and understanding at that stage. He suggested that movement from one stage to the next occurred when the child reached an appropriate level of maturation and was exposed to relevant types of experiences. Without experience, children were assumed incapable of reaching their highest cognitive ability. Piaget's four stages are known as the sensorimotor, preoperational, concrete operational, and formal operational stages.

The *sensory motor* stage in a child is from birth to approximately two years. During this stage, a child has relatively little competence in representing the environment using images, language, or symbols. An infant has no awareness of objects or people that are not immediately present at a given moment. Piaget called this a lack of object permanence. Object permanence is the awareness that objects and people continue to exist even if they are out of sight. In infants, when a person hides, the infant has no knowledge that they are just out of sight. According to Piaget, this person or object that has disappeared is gone forever to the infant.

The *preoperational* stage is from the age of two to seven years. The most important development at this time is language. Children develop an internal representation of the world that allows them to describe people, events, and feelings. Children at this time use symbols, they can pretend when driving their toy car across the couch that the couch is actually a bridge. Although the thinking of the child is more advanced than when it was in the sensory motor stage, it is still qualitatively inferior to that of an adult. Children in the preoperational stage are characterised by what Piaget called egocentric thoughts. The world at this stage is viewed entirely from the child's own perspective. Thus a child's explanation to an adult can be uninformative.

Three-year-olds will generally hide their face when they are in trouble—even though they are in plain view, three-year-olds believe that their inability to see others also results in others' inability to see them. A child in the preoperational stage also lacks the principle of conservation. This is the knowledge that quantity is unrelated to the arrangement and physical appearance of objects. Children who have not passed this stage do not know that the amount, volume or length of an object does not change length when the shape of the configuration is changed. If you put two identical pieces of clay in front of a child, one rolled up in the shape of a ball, the other rolled into a snake, a child at this stage may say the snake piece is bigger because it is rolled out. Piaget declared that this is not mastered until the next stage of development.

The *concrete operational* stage lasts from the age of seven to twelve years of age. The beginning of this stage is marked by the mastery of the principal of conservation. Children develop the ability to think in a more logical manner and they begin to overcome some of the egocentric characteristics of the preoperational period. One of the major ideas learned in this stage is the idea of reversibility. This is the idea that some changes can be undone by reversing an earlier action.

An example is the ball of clay that is rolled out into a snake piece of clay. Children at this stage understand that you can regain the ball of clay formation by rolling the piece of clay the other way. Children can even conceptualise the stage in their heads without having to see the action performed. Children in the concrete operational stage have a better understanding of time and space. Children at this stage have limits to their abstract thinking, according to Piaget.

The *formal operational* stage begins in most people at age twelve and continues into adulthood. This stage produces a new kind of thinking that is abstract, formal, and logical. Thinking is no longer tied to events that can be observed. A child at this stage can think hypothetically and use logic to solve problems. It is thought that not all individuals reach this level of thinking. Most studies show only forty to sixty percent of American college students and adults fully achieve it.

Piaget's suggestion, that cognitive performance cannot be attained unless cognitive readiness is brought about by maturation and environmental stimuli, has been instrumental in determining the structure of educational curricula.

Cognitive theory of language acquisition suggests that a child first becomes aware of a concept, such as relative size, and only afterward do they acquire the words and patterns to convey that concept. Simple ideas are expressed earlier than more complex ones even if they are grammatically more complicated— Conditional mood is one of the last. Conceptual development might affect language development: if a child has not yet mastered a difficult semantic distinction, he or she may be unable to master the syntax of the construction dedicated to expressing it.

The complexity of a grammatical form has a demonstrable role in development: simpler rules and forms appear in speech before more complex ones, all other things being equal. For example, the plural marker -s in English (e.g. cats), which requires knowing only whether the number of referents is singular or plural, is used consistently before the present tense marker -s (he walks), which requires knowing whether the subject is singular or plural and whether it is a first, second, or third person and whether the event is in the present tense (Brown, 1973).

There is a consistent order of mastery of the most common function morphemes in a language. Here's an example from English: first— -ing, then *in* and *on*, then the plural -s, last are the forms of the verb *to be*. Seems to be conditioned by logical complexity: plural is simple, while forms of the verb *to be* require sensitivity to both number and tense.

A good example of this is seriation. There will be a point in a child's intellectual development when s/he can compare objects with respect to size. This means that if you gave the child a number of sticks, s/he could arrange them in order of size. Piaget suggested that a child who had not yet reached this stage would not be able to learn and use comparative adjectives like "bigger" or "smaller".

Object permanence is another phenomenon often cited in relation to the cognitive theory. During the first year of life, children seem unaware of the existence of objects they cannot see. An object which moves out of sight ceases to exist. By the time they reach the age of 18 months, children have realised that objects have an existence independently of their perception. The cognitive theory draws attention to the large increase in children's vocabulary at around this age, suggesting a link between object permanence and the learning of labels for objects.

Clearly there is some link between cognitive development and language acquisition; Piaget's theory helps explain the order in which certain aspects of language are acquired.

1.5.7 Limitations of Cognitive Theories

This theory does not explain why language emerges in the first place. Apes also develop cognitively in much the same way as young children in the first few years of life, but language acquisition doesn't follow naturally from their development. Bees develop the cognitive ability to respond to many shades of colour, but bees never develop any communication signals based on shades of color.

During the first year to 18 months, connections of the type explained above are possible to trace but, as a child continues to develop, so it becomes harder to find clear links between language and intellect. Some studies have focused on children who have learned to speak fluently despite abnormal mental development. Syntax in particular does not appear to rely on general intellectual growth.

1.5.8 Input or Interactionist Theories

In contrast to the work of Chomsky, more recent theorists have stressed the importance of the language input children receive from their care-givers. Language exists for the purpose of communication and can only be learned in the context of interaction with people who want to communicate with the person. Interactionists such as Jerome Bruner (1966,68) suggest that the language behaviour of adults when talking to children (known as child-directed speech or CDS) is specially adapted to support the acquisition process. This support is often described to as scaffolding for the child's language learning. Bruner also coined the term Language Acquisition Support System or LASS in response to Chomsky's LAD. It has been noted that the turn-taking structure of conversation is developed through games and non-verbal communication long before actual words are uttered.

Children do not hear sentences in isolation, but in a context. Many models of language acquisition assume that the input to the child consists of a sentence and a representation of the meaning of that sentence, inferred from context and from the child's knowledge of the meanings of the words

1.5.9 Limitations of Input Theories

These theories serve as a useful corrective to Chomsky's early position and it seems likely that a child will learn more quickly with frequent interaction. However, it has already been noted that children in all cultures pass through the same stages in acquiring language. We have also seen that there are cultures in which adults do not adopt special ways of talking to children, so child directed speech may be useful but may not be essential.

As stated earlier, the various theories should not be seen simply as alternatives. Rather, each of them offers a partial explanation of the process.

1.6 THE BIOLOGY OF LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Human language is made possible by special adaptations of the human mind and body that occurred in the course of human evolution, and which are put to use by children in acquiring their mother tongue.

Most obviously, the shape of the human vocal tract seems to have been modified in evolution for the demands of speech. Our larynxes are low in our throats, and our vocal tracts have a sharp right angle bend that creates two independently-modifiable resonant cavities (the mouth and the pharynx or throat) that defines a large two-dimensional range of vowel sounds (Lieberman, 1984).

It is tempting to think that if language evolved by gradual Darwinian natural selection, we must be able to find some precursor of it in our closest relatives, the chimpanzees. In several famous and controversial demonstrations, chimpanzees have been taught some hand-signs based on American Sign Language, to manipulate colored switches or tokens, and to understand some spoken commands (Gardner & Gardner, 1969; Premack & Premack, 1983; Savage-Rumbaugh, 1991). Though artificial chimp signaling systems have some analogies to human language (e.g., use in communication, combinations of more basic signals), it seems unlikely that they are homologous. Chimpanzees require massive regimented teaching sequences contrived by humans to acquire quite rudimentary abilities, mostly limited to a small number of signs, strung together in repetitive, quasi-random sequences, used with the intent of requesting food or tickling (Terrace, Petitto, Sanders, & Bever, 1979; Seidenberg & Petitto, 1979, 1987; Seidenberg, 1986; Wallman, 1992; Pinker, 1994a). These contrasts sharply with human children, who pick up thousands of words spontaneously, combine them in structured sequences where every word has a determinate role, respect the word order of the adult language, and use sentences for a variety of purposes such as commenting on interesting objects.

This lack of homology does not, by the way, cast doubt on a gradualist Darwinian account of language evolution. Humans did not evolve directly from chimpanzees. Both derived from common ancestor, probably around 6-7 million years ago. This leaves about 300,000 generations in which language could have evolved gradually in the lineage leading to humans, after it split off from the lineage leading to chimpanzees. Presumably language evolved in the human lineage for two reasons: our ancestors developed technology and knowledge of the local environment in their lifetimes, and were involved in extensive reciprocal cooperation. This allowed them to benefit by sharing hard-won knowledge with their kin and exchanging it with their neighbors (Pinker & Bloom, 1990).

1.6.1 Maturational Changes in Brain

The maturation of language circuits during a child's early years may be a driving force underlying the course of language acquisition (Pinker, 1994; Bates, Thal, & Janowsky, 1992; Locke, 1992; Huttenlocher, 1990). Before birth, virtually all the neurons (nerve cells) are formed, and they migrate into their proper locations in the brain. But head size, brain weight, and thickness of the cerebral cortex (gray matter), where the synapses (junctions) subserving mental computation take place, continue to increase rapidly in the year after birth. Long-distance connections (white matter) are not complete until nine months, and they continue to grow their speed-inducing myelin insulation throughout childhood. Synapses continue to develop, peaking in number between nine months and two years (depending on the brain region), at which point the child has 50% more synapses than the adult. Metabolic activity in the brain reaches adult levels by nine to ten months, and soon exceeds it, peaking around the age of four. Synapses wither from the age of two through the rest of childhood and into adolescence, when

the brain's metabolic rate falls back to adult levels. Perhaps linguistic milestones like babbling, first words, and grammar require minimum levels of brain size, long-distance connections, or extra synapses, particularly in the language centers of the brain.

Similarly, one can conjecture that these changes are responsible for the decline in the ability to learn a language over the lifespan. The language learning circuitry of the brain is more plastic in childhood; children learn or recover language when the left hemisphere of the brain is damaged or even surgically removed (though not quite at normal levels), but comparable damage in an adult usually leads to permanent aphasia (Curtiss, 1989; Lenneberg, 1967).

Newport and Gleitman (1995) shows how sheer age seems to play an important role. Successful acquisition of language typically happens by 4 and is guaranteed for children up to the age of six, is steadily compromised from then until shortly after puberty, and is rare thereafter. Maturational changes in the brain, such as the decline in metabolic rate and number of neurons during the early school age years, and the bottoming out of the number of synapses and metabolic rate around puberty, are plausible causes. Thus, there may be a neurologically-determined "critical period" for successful language acquisition, analogous to the critical periods documented in visual development in mammals and in the acquisition of songs by some birds.

1.6.2 Dissociations Between Language and General Intelligence

Humans evolved brain circuitry, mostly in the left hemisphere surrounding the sylvian fissure, that appears to be designed for language, though how exactly their internal wiring gives rise to rules of language is unknown (Zurif, 2000). The brain mechanisms underlying language are not just those allowing us to be smart in general. Strokes often leave adults with catastrophic losses in language (Zurif, 2000; Pinker, 1994a), though not necessarily impaired in other aspects of intelligence, such as those measured on the nonverbal parts of IQ tests.

There are also syndromes showing the opposite dissociation, where intact language coexists with severe retardation. These cases show that language development does not depend on fully functioning general intelligence. One example comes from children with Williams Syndrome, an inherited condition involving physical abnormalities, significant retardation (the average IQ is about 50), incompetence at simple everyday tasks (tying shoelaces, finding one's way, adding two numbers, and retrieving items from a cupboard), social warmth and gregariousness, and fluent, articulate language abilities (Bellugi, et al., 1990).

1.6.3 Neural Networks

Some cognitive neuroscientists have created neural networks, or computer models, that can acquire some aspects of language. These neural networks are not preprogrammed with any rules. Instead, they are exposed to many examples of a language. Using these examples, the neural networks have been able to learn the language's statistical structure and accurately make the past tense forms of verbs. The developers of these networks speculate that children may acquire language in a similar way, through exposure to multiple examples.

1.7 LET US SUM UP

The topic of language acquisition implicates the most profound questions about our understanding of the human mind, and its subject matter, the speech of children, is endlessly fascinating. But the attempt to understand it scientifically is guaranteed to bring on a certain degree of frustration. Languages are complex combinations of elegant principles and historical accidents. We cannot design new ones with independent properties; we are stuck with the confounded ones entrenched in communities. Children, too, were not designed for the benefit of psychologists: their cognitive, social, perceptual, and motor skills are all developing at the same time as their linguistic systems are maturing and their knowledge of a particular language is increasing, and none of their behaviour reflects one of these components acting in isolation.

Learning anything about language acquisition at all, is only because a diverse set of conceptual and methodological tools has been used to trap the elusive answers to these questions: neurobiology, ethology, linguistic theory, naturalistic and experimental child psychology, cognitive psychology, philosophy of induction, theoretical and applied computer science. Language acquisition, then, is one of the best examples of the indispensability of the multidisciplinary approach called cognitive science.

1.8 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Describe some of the processes involved in language?
- 2) Why study of language is important for cognitive psychologists?
- 3) There is a universal course of development every child follows in the learning of language. Describe.
- 4) How do we acquire the ability to use language?
- 5) Compare and contrast the behaviourism and innateness theories of language acquisition.
- 6) Nature and nurture both influence the course of language development. Explain with empirical evidence.
- 7) Illustrate cognitive theory of language acquisition in detail.
- 8) Give a sample of an utterance one might reasonably expect to hear from an 18 month old child.
- 9) Give a detailed biological account of language acquisition.
- 10) Make a worksheet showing the initial stages of language acquisition in a child with elaborate examples and reference studies.

1.9 SUGGESTED READINGS AND REFERENCES

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BED I- CPS 1

पाठ्यचर्या में व्याप्त भाषा

Language across the

Curriculum



शिक्षक शिक्षा विभाग, शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा

उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय, हल्द्वानी



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BED I- CPS 1

पाठ्यचर्या में व्याप्त भाषा

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उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय, हल्द्वानी

अध्ययन बोर्ड		विशेषज्ञ समिति	
<p><input type="checkbox"/> प्रोफेसर एच० पी० शुक्ल (अध्यक्ष- पदेन), निदेशक, शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> प्रोफेसर मुहम्मद मियाँ (बाह्य विशेषज्ञ- सदस्य), पूर्व अधिष्ठाता, शिक्षा संकाय, जामिया मिल्लिया इस्लामिया व पूर्व कुलपति, मौलाना आजाद राष्ट्रीय उर्दू विश्वविद्यालय, हैदराबाद</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> प्रोफेसर एन० एन० पाण्डेय (बाह्य विशेषज्ञ- सदस्य), विभागाध्यक्ष, शिक्षा विभाग, एम० जे० पी० रुहेलखण्ड विश्वविद्यालय, बरेली</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> प्रोफेसर के० बी० बुधोरी (बाह्य विशेषज्ञ- सदस्य), पूर्व अधिष्ठाता, शिक्षा संकाय, एच० एन० बी० गढ़वाल विश्वविद्यालय, श्रीनगर, उत्तराखण्ड</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> प्रोफेसर जे० के० जोशी (विशेष आमंत्रित- सदस्य), शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> प्रोफेसर रम्भा जोशी (विशेष आमंत्रित- सदस्य), शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> डॉ० दिनेश कुमार (सदस्य), सहायक प्रोफेसर, शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> डॉ० भावना पलड़िया (सदस्य), सहायक प्रोफेसर, शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> सुश्री ममता कुमारी (सदस्य), सहायक प्रोफेसर, शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा एवं सह-समन्वयक बी० एड० कार्यक्रम, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> डॉ० प्रवीण कुमार तिवारी (सदस्य एवं संयोजक), सहायक प्रोफेसर, शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा एवं समन्वयक बी० एड० कार्यक्रम, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय</p>		<p><input type="checkbox"/> प्रोफेसर एच० पी० शुक्ल (अध्यक्ष- पदेन), निदेशक, शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> प्रोफेसर सी० बी० शर्मा (बाह्य विशेषज्ञ- सदस्य), अध्यक्ष, राष्ट्रीय मुक्त विद्यालयी शिक्षा संस्थान, नोएडा</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> प्रोफेसर पवन कुमार शर्मा (बाह्य विशेषज्ञ- सदस्य), अधिष्ठाता, शिक्षा संकाय व सामाजिक विज्ञान संकाय, अटल बिहारी बाजपेयी हिन्दी विश्वविद्यालय, भोपाल</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> प्रोफेसर जे० के० जोशी (विशेष आमंत्रित- सदस्य), शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> प्रोफेसर रम्भा जोशी (विशेष आमंत्रित- सदस्य), शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> डॉ० दिनेश कुमार (सदस्य), सहायक प्रोफेसर, शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> डॉ० भावना पलड़िया (सदस्य), सहायक प्रोफेसर, शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> सुश्री ममता कुमारी (सदस्य), सहायक प्रोफेसर, शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा एवं सह-समन्वयक बी० एड० कार्यक्रम, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> डॉ० प्रवीण कुमार तिवारी (सदस्य एवं संयोजक), सहायक प्रोफेसर, शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा एवं समन्वयक बी० एड० कार्यक्रम, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय</p>	
दिशाबोध: प्रोफेसर जे० के० जोशी , पूर्व निदेशक, शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय, हल्द्वानी			
<p>कार्यक्रम समन्वयक: डॉ० प्रवीण कुमार तिवारी समन्वयक, शिक्षक शिक्षा विभाग, शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय, हल्द्वानी, नैनीताल, उत्तराखण्ड</p>	<p>कार्यक्रम सह-समन्वयक: सुश्री ममता कुमारी सह-समन्वयक, शिक्षक शिक्षा विभाग, शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय, हल्द्वानी, नैनीताल, उत्तराखण्ड</p>	<p>पाठ्यक्रम समन्वयक: डॉ० पतंजलि मिश्र सहायक प्रोफेसर, शिक्षा विद्यापीठ, वर्धमान महावीर खुला विश्वविद्यालय, कोटा, राजस्थान</p>	<p>पाठ्यक्रम सह समन्वयक: सुश्री ममता कुमारी सह-समन्वयक, शिक्षक शिक्षा विभाग, शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय, हल्द्वानी, नैनीताल, उत्तराखण्ड</p>
प्रधान सम्पादक डॉ० प्रवीण कुमार तिवारी समन्वयक, शिक्षक शिक्षा विभाग, शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय, हल्द्वानी, नैनीताल, उत्तराखण्ड		उप सम्पादक सुश्री ममता कुमारी सह-समन्वयक, शिक्षक शिक्षा विभाग, शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय, हल्द्वानी, नैनीताल, उत्तराखण्ड	
विषयवस्तु सम्पादक	भाषा सम्पादक	प्रारूप सम्पादक	पूफ संशोधक
सुश्री ममता कुमारी सहायक प्रोफेसर, शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय	सुश्री ममता कुमारी सहायक प्रोफेसर, शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय	सुश्री ममता कुमारी सहायक प्रोफेसर, शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय	सुश्री ममता कुमारी सहायक प्रोफेसर, शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय
सामग्री निर्माण			
प्रोफेसर एच० पी० शुक्ल निदेशक, शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय		प्रोफेसर आर० सी० मिश्र निदेशक, एम० पी० डी० डी०, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय	
<p>© उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय, 2017 ISBN-13-978-93-85740-66-4</p> <p>प्रथम संस्करण: 2017 (पाठ्यक्रम का नाम: पाठ्यचर्या में प्रयुक्त भाषा, पाठ्यक्रम कोड- BED I- CPS 1)</p> <p>सर्वाधिकार सुरक्षित। इस पुस्तक के किसी भी अंश को ज्ञान के किसी भी माध्यम में प्रयोग करने से पूर्व उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय से लिखित अनुमति लेना आवश्यक है। इकाई लेखन से संबंधित किसी भी विवाद के लिए पूर्णरूपेण लेखक जिम्मेदार होगा। किसी भी विवाद का निपटारा उत्तराखण्ड उच्च न्यायालय, नैनीताल में होगा।</p> <p>निदेशक, शिक्षाशास्त्र विद्याशाखा, उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय द्वारा निदेशक, एम० पी० डी० डी० के माध्यम से उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय के लिए मुद्रित व प्रकाशित।</p> <p>प्रकाशक: उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय; मुद्रक: उत्तराखण्ड मुक्त विश्वविद्यालय।</p>			

कार्यक्रम का नाम: बी० एड०, कार्यक्रम कोड: BED- 17

पाठ्यक्रम का नाम: पाठ्यचर्या में व्याप्त भाषा, पाठ्यक्रम कोड- BED I- CPS 1

इकाई लेखक	खण्ड संख्या	इकाई संख्या
डॉ० कृष्णकान्त त्रिपाठी सहायक प्रोफेसर, शिक्षा विद्यापीठ, मिजोरम विश्वविद्यालय, आइजोल, मिजोरम	1	1, 2, 3 व 6
डॉ० पतंजलि मिश्र सहायक प्रोफेसर, शिक्षा विद्यापीठ, वर्धमान महावीर खुला विश्वविद्यालय, कोटा, राजस्थान	1	4 व 5
	2	1, 2, 3 व 4

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पाठ्यचर्या में व्याप्त भाषा

Language across the Curriculum

खण्ड 1: विद्यार्थियों की भाषायी पृष्ठभूमि		
इकाई सं०	इकाई का नाम	पृष्ठ सं०
1	भाषा का विकास: बोली और लिपि	2-22
2	भाषा और शिक्षा	23-36
3	बहुभाषिकता	37-54
4	विद्यालय की भाषा बनाम घर की भाषा या बोली	55-65
5	मानक भाषा के रूप में विद्यालयी भाषा की शक्ति की गतिकी बनाम घर की भाषा या बोली की शक्ति की गतिकी, न्यूनता या कमी का सिद्धांत, निरंतरता या गैर निरंतरता का सिद्धांत	66-77
6	अनुदेशन की भाषा	78-94

खण्ड 2: कक्षा-कक्ष परिचर्चा तथा पठन-बोध की प्रकृति		
इकाई सं०	इकाई का नाम	पृष्ठ सं०
1	कक्षा में संवाद :अर्थ, प्रकार्य, विशेषता एवं अभ्यास, सम्बन्धित विषय क्षेत्र में अधिगम वृद्धि के लिए मौखिक भाषा प्रयोग करने की रणनीति	96-108
2	सीखने के उपकरण के रूप में परिचर्चा, कक्षा- कक्ष में प्रश्नों का स्वरूप, प्रश्नों के प्रकार एवं शिक्षक की भूमिका	109-117
3	विषय क्षेत्र में पठन कार्य: सामाजिक विज्ञान, विज्ञान, गणित एवं विविध साहित्यों की भाषा में, अर्थ प्रकाशक एवं विवरणात्मक विषय वस्तु, संक्षिप्तीकरण विषय वस्तु, हस्तांतरण विषय वस्तु व चिंतनपरक विषयवस्तु की प्रकृति, स्कीमा सिद्धांत	118-134
4	विशेष सन्दर्भों में लेखन : सामाजिक विज्ञान, विज्ञान, गणित एवं विविध साहित्यों की भाषा में लिखने की प्रक्रिया,पढ़ने एवं लिखने के बीच सम्बन्ध स्थापित करना ,बच्चों के संप्रत्यय को समझने के लिए उनके लेखन का विश्लेषण करना: सीखने एवं समझने के लिए तरीके एवं माध्यम के रूप में उद्देश्यपरक लेखन	135-145

खण्ड 1

Block 1

ईकाई 1 - भाषा का विकास: बोली और लिपि

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1.1 प्रस्तावना

भाषा का प्रयोग जितना ही नैसर्गिक, सरल और उपयोगी है, इसको परिभाषित करना उतना ही कठिन है। भाषा मानव की नैसर्गिक जैवीय क्षमता के साथ ही एक सांस्कृतिक विशेषता भी है। जो विभिन्न भाषाओं के मध्य अंतर का आधार है। भाषा किसी समाज के अन्दर अनेकानेक जटिल व्यवस्थाओं के मध्य एक जटिल व्यवस्था (System) है। जिसमें कई उप-व्यवस्थाएं होती हैं। मानव भाषा का विकास कब और कैसे हुआ इसपर कोई एक मत निराकरण नहीं हो सका है। विषय की जटिलता और अनुभवजन्य साक्ष्यों के अभाव के कारण 'भाषायी समाज पेरिस' (Linguistic Society of Paris, 1871) ने इस विषय पर तत्कालीन और भविष्य में किसी भी परिचर्चा पर रोक लगा दी थी (Larson, Dprez & Yamakido, 2010)। यह प्रतिबन्ध पश्चिमी देशों में बीसवीं शदी के अंत तक प्रभावकारी बना रहा है तथापि चोमस्की,

हउसर, फिच (Chomsky, Hauser, Fitch) आदि विद्वानों के इस दिशा में सतत कार्यशील रहने से इस विषय पर लगा प्रतिबंध प्रतीकात्मक रूप से खत्म हो जाता है और अर्थहीन हो जाता है। भाषा की उत्पत्ति के विषय में उपलब्ध अनेकानेक सिद्धांत व श्रोत प्रचलित रहें हैं, उनमें से कुछ पर चर्चा हम आगे के पृष्ठों में करेंगे।

1.2 उद्देश्य

इस इकाई को पढ़ने के उपरांत आप में निम्नलिखित क्षमताएँ अपेक्षित हैं;

1. भाषा के दो तत्वों बोली और लिपि के सम्प्रत्यय को समझ सकेंगे।
2. बोली और लिपि के अंतर को स्पष्ट कर सकेंगे।
3. भाषा (बोली) के विकास की ऐतिहासिक विवेचना कर सकेंगे।
4. भाषा की उत्पत्ति से सम्बंधित विभिन्न श्रोतों, आधारों व सिद्धांतों का मूल्यांकन कर सकेंगे।
5. लिपि के इतिहास को जानते समझते हुए बताने में सक्षम होंगे।
6. लिपि के विभिन्न प्रकारों का वर्गीकरण कर सकेंगे।
7. विभिन्न लिपियों के लिखने के तरीकों में अंतर स्पष्ट कर सकेंगे।
8. विभिन्न भारतीय और विदेशी भाषाओं की लिपियों को बता सकेंगे।

1.3 विभिन्न मानव समूहों द्वारा सम्प्रेषण हेतु बोली का प्रयोग: ऐतिहासिक परिप्रेक्ष्य (Use Of Spoken Languages For Communication By The Various Segments Of Human Groups: A Historical Perspective)

इकाई के इस खंड में हम मानव द्वारा भाषा के प्रयोग के इतिहास पर चर्चा करेंगे। जब कभी भी भाषा के इतिहास की बात आती है तब हमारा ध्यान सर्वप्रथम बोलचाल की भाषा पर ही जाता है। इसमें कोई संदेह नहीं है कि सर्वप्रथम बोली (Spoken Language) का विकास हुआ था। इस तथ्य को हम मनुष्य में भाषा के विकास के अवलोकन से भी सिद्ध कर सकते हैं। आपने देखा होगा कि बच्चे बोलना पहले सीखते हैं और अपनी आवश्यकताओं की पूर्ति के लिए आवाज करते हैं जिन ध्वनियों पर उनको सकारात्मक प्रतिक्रिया मिलती है उन ध्वनियों को वे दोहराते रहते हैं (इस तथ्य के आधार पर भी भाषा की उत्पत्ति का एक सिद्धांत प्रतिपादित किया गया है)। ये देखा गया है कि मानकीकृत भाषा के विकास के उपरांत भी कुछ बच्चे स्वयं के बनाए हुए शब्दों का प्रयोग संदर्भ विशेष में जारी रखते हैं। यह सिर्फ एक शब्द का किसी एक बच्चे के लिए अर्थपूर्ण बनने का संदर्भ है। समस्त मानव प्रजाति के विभिन्न वर्गों/समूहों/प्रखंडों की सामान्य भाषा और विभिन्न भाषाओं के विकास का इतिहास हजारों वर्ष पहले प्रारम्भ हुआ था, जो आज भी जारी है।

भाषा की उत्पत्ति के संदर्भ में सामान्य प्रश्न जो आपके मस्तिष्क में आते हैं और इस विषय पर पूर्व की चर्चा के आधार पर आप यह तो मान सकते हैं कि भाषा एक जटिल और विलक्षण संकल्पना है। इसको परिभाषित करना और इसकी उत्पत्ति के विषय में सही सही कुछ कहना असम्भव नहीं पर दुरुह कार्य अवश्य है। भाषा की उत्पत्ति के सही समय के विषय में सटीक अनुमान लगाना संभव नहीं है। हम यह नहीं जानते हैं कि भाषा का विकास कैसे हुआ, क्योंकि जीवन की उत्पत्ति के प्रारम्भिक पदचिह्नों की भाँति भाषा की उत्पत्ति के संदर्भ में ऐतिहासिक प्रमाण व साक्ष्य प्राप्त नहीं हुए हैं। विद्वानों का अनुमान है कि यही कुछ लगभग एक लाख से पचास हजार वर्षों के बीच बोलचाल की भाषा का विकास हुआ होगा और लिखित भाषा का विकास लगभग पाँच हजार वर्षों पूर्व हुआ होगा। जैसा कि भाषा सभी विषयों की आधार है और एक अंतर्विषयक अनुशासन भी है एक अध् ययन सामग्री की रूप में भाषा अनेकानेक विषय क्षेत्रों के अनतर्गत आती है जिन्हें हम भाषा के आधार कह सकते हैं। इन विभिन्न दृष्टिकोणों से हम भाषा की उत्पत्ति का इतिहास पता करने का प्रयत्न करते हैं।

1.4 भाषा उत्पत्ति से सम्बंधित श्रोत व आधार

भाषा की उत्पत्ति से सम्बंधित सैकड़ों सिद्धांत प्रतिपादित किए गये हैं जिन्हें हम श्रोत व आधार भी कहते हैं। सभी सिद्धांतों की चर्चा करना यहाँ सम्भव और आवश्यक नहीं है। अतः हम कुछ प्रमुख सिद्धांतों व विचारधाराओं की चर्चा करेंगे।

1. **धार्मिक श्रोत:** हम जानते हैं कि विश्व के सभी धर्मों में जो प्रमुख तत्व हैं वह मानव और ईश्वर का अस्तित्व, विशेषताएं और दोनों तत्वों का आपस में सम्बंध की विवेचना करते हैं। भाषा भी एक मनुष्य से जुड़ी विशेषता है। अतः विश्व के प्रमुख धर्मों में भाषा की उत्पत्ति के संदर्भ में भी विवेचना मिलती है। हिंदू धर्म के अनुसार भाषा का जन्म देवी सरस्वती से हुआ। यहूदी और ईसाई धर्म के अनुयायियों का मानना है कि ईश्वर ने सर्वप्रथम आदम को उत्पन्न किया। आदम ने संसार के अन्य प्राणियों के विषय में जो भी कुछ कहा वे शब्द ही उनके नाम हो गए। संसार के आदि पुरुष और स्त्री (आदम और हौवा) जिस भाषा में बात किया करते थे उसी से संसार की समस्त भाषाओं का जन्म हुआ। इस बात को सिद्ध करने, जाँचने और खंडन करने हेतु 25000 वर्षों से 500 वर्षों के पूर्व तक शोध व परीक्षण किए जाते रहे (युले, 2006)। आज के समय में भाषा की उत्पत्ति के इस आधार पर चर्चा करना अनावश्यक माना जाता है (शर्मा, 2010)।
2. **प्राकृतिक ध्वनि श्रोत:** इस विचारधारा के अनुसार प्रारम्भिक शब्दों की उत्पत्ति मनुष्य द्वारा प्राकृतिक ध्वनियों के सुनने और उनकी आवृत्ति करने से हुई। इस विचारधारा के अनुसार काँव काँव की ध्वनि से कौआ शब्द बना। इसी सिद्धांत की एक कड़ी के रूप में यह विचार आता है कि मानव के हर्ष और विषाद के अनुभवों के बाद की स्वभाविक ध्वनियों जैसे कि 'आह' 'ओह' 'वाह' 'हाय' आदि से भाषा का विकास हुआ होगा। यह बात सत्य है कि भाषा में कुछ शब्द ऐसे भी हैं जो जीवों के नाम और उनके व्यवहार से सम्बंध रखते हैं परंतु सम्पूर्ण मानव भाषा की उत्पत्ति की व्याख्या इस

आधार पर नहीं की जा सकती। शब्द विज्ञान(Morphology), जो कि आज एक पूर्ण विकसित विषय माना जाता है, वह किसी भी भाषा के शब्दों की उत्पत्ति के सिर्फ यही श्रोत तो नहीं बताता है। तथापि इस श्रोत का हम पूर्णरूप से खंडन नहीं कर सकते हैं। हो सकता है कि मानव घोषयंत्र का प्रयोग इन्हीं शब्दों के प्रयोग से प्रारम्भ हुआ हो।

3. **मातृभाषा सिद्धांत:** प्राकृतिक श्रोत के ही समान मातृभाषा सिद्धांत के मानने वाले सोचते हैं। इस मत के अनुसार भाषा की उत्पत्ति सर्वप्रथम माता और उसके शिशु के बीच सम्वाद से हुई जो बाद में आंगे चलकर अन्य निकट संबंधियों में सम्वाद का माध्यम बनते हुए समुदाय विशेष की भाषा का रूप ले लेती है।
4. **जैविक संरचना/ शारीरिक अनुकूलन श्रोत:** कुछ विद्वानों का मानना है कि मनुष्य में भाषा का विकास इसलिए हुआ कि उसकी जैविक संरचना अन्य जीवों की तुलना में अधिक अनुकूल थी। इस विचार क्रम में सर्वप्रथम हम मनुष्य के पूर्णतः द्विपदीयचर(दो पैरों पर चलने वाला) होने पर ध्यान देते हैं। इस कारण से मनुष्य के मस्तिष्क तथा घोषयंत्र का समुचित विकास हो सका। अब आप मनुष्य के दांतों पर ध्यान देंगे जो सीधी खड़ी स्थिति में होते हैं। मांसाहारी जीवों की भाँति मानव-दंत भोजन को चीरने में बहुत उपयोगी तो नहीं कहे जा सकते हैं, पर दंताक्षरों (वर्णों: त, थ, द, ध) के उच्चारण में अनूठी भूमिका अदा करते हैं। मानव ओष्ठ की संरचना शब्द उच्चारण की दृष्टि से अधिक अनुकूल होती है जिससे ओष्ठ्य वर्णों (प, फ, ब, भ) का उच्चारण सम्भव हो पाता है। इसी प्रकार से जैवभाषाविज्ञानियों ने हमारे मुख, तालु, जिह्वा, आदि की विशिष्ट संरचना को भाषा के आधार का कारण माना है। मनुष्य में घोषयंत्र का स्थान भी अन्य स्तनपायी (बंदर, बनमानुष आदि) जीवों की तुलना में कुछ नीचे होता जो गलकोश को बड़ा करते हुए ध्वनि-गुंजन की संभावना उत्पन्न करता है। घोषयंत्र की यह स्थिति मानव के द्विपदचारी होने के कारण मानी जाती है।
नीगस के अनुसार मनुष्य का शाकाहारी होना भी भाषा के विकास का कारण बना। मांसाहारी जीवों में कपोलों और मुख का ठीक से विकास नहीं हो पाता है क्योंकि वे भोजन को ठीक से चबाते नहीं हैं। इसके विपरीत मनुष्य मुख व कपोलों का अधिक विकास कर सका इसलिए ध्वनि-भेद में वह अन्य पशुओं से अधिक समर्थ हो सका (Negus, 1946)। मुखविवर के संकुचन और प्रसर से मनुष्य बोलने और गाने में सहायता लेता है। गाने की क्षमता को भी भाषा के विकास का एक उच्च कोटि का पायदान माना जा सकता है, जिसमें गायक को भाषा में प्रयोग होने वाले विभिन्न अंगों का कुशलता से प्रयोग करना होता है।
5. **अनुवांशिक श्रोत:** इस विचारधारा के लोग भाषा को एक अनुवांशिक लक्षण मानते हैं। आप ने देखा होगा कि कुछ बच्चे जो जन्म से बहरे होते हैं, परिणामतः वे हिंदी, अंग्रेजी, गढ़वाली आदि सामान्यरूप से प्रचलित मानक भाषाएँ नहीं सीख पाते हैं। तथापि समयांतराल व अवसर प्राप्त होने पर वे भी संकेत भाषा में सम्प्रेषण करने में सक्षम हो जाते हैं। उनमें से कुछ बच्चे तो समाज में प्रचलित मानक भाषा भी सीखने लगते जिसे देखकर आम जन ईश्वर का चमत्कार कहते हैं। इससे एक बात तो सिद्ध होती है कि मानव शिशु भाषा सम्बंधित एक विशेष क्षमता के साथ ही जन्म लेते हैं।

भाषा की उत्पत्ति के अनेकानेक श्रोत, सिद्धांत, व तर्क प्रस्तुत किए जा चुके हैं तथापि इसकी उत्पत्ति का प्रारंभ और कारण एक रहस्य ही बना है। अनुवांशिकी एक ऐसा विषय है जो तंत्रिका विज्ञान, आणुविक जीव विज्ञान, विकासवादी जीवविज्ञान की मदद से शायद इस पहली का हल निकालने में सक्षम हो। भाषा की उत्पत्ति से सम्बंधित यह खोज अब उस विशेष 'भाषा जीन' (Language-gene) की खोज की ओर अभिमुख होता दिखाई देता है, जो मनुष्य को अन्य प्राणियों से अलग करता है। प्रसिद्ध भाषाविद यूले महोदय भी भाषा की इस पहली का हल मानव अनुवांशिकी में ही मानते हैं। उनका मानना है कि हम भाषा के कुछ गुणों व विशेषताओं का वर्णन तो कर सकते हैं परंतु एक वस्तुनिष्ठ सर्वमान्य परिभाषा प्रस्तुत करना आज भी संभव नहीं है (Yule, 2006, p.16)। लेकिन एक तथ्य तो सर्वमान्यरूप से सिद्ध हो चुका है कि मानव में कुछ जैविक क्षमताएँ तो होती हैं जो किसी भाषा के प्रत्यक्ष अनुदेशन के बिना भी मानव को उस भाषा विशेष को प्रयोग करने की दक्षता प्रदान करती हैं (Larson, Dprez & Yamakido, 2010)। रामविलास शर्मा जी के शब्दों में इस परिचर्चा को एक अंत दिया जा सकता है। शर्माजी कहते हैं कि भाषा रचना का कारण मानव का परिवेश, उसके जिवन की आवश्यकताएँ तथा उसका विशेष शारीरिक गठन है (Sharma, 2010)।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

1. लिखित भाषा की उत्पत्ति कितने वर्षों पूर्व से मानी जाती है?
2. बोलचाल की भाषा की उत्पत्ति को कितने वर्षों पूर्व से माना जाता है?
3. भाषा रचना के कौन-कौन से कारण माने जाते हैं?

1.5 लिपि का विकास और विभिन्न भाषाओं की लिपि (Development of the Alphabets and Scripts of Various Languages)

1.5.1 लिपि

क्या आप जानते हैं कि लिखित भाषा या लिपि का प्रयोग सर्वप्रथम कहाँ हुआ था? लिपि और बोली में क्या अंतर है? और विभिन्न भाषाओं की लिपियों का विकास कैसे हुआ? क्या किसी भाषा की लिपि में कभी आंशिक या पूर्ण परिवर्तन हुआ है? इन्हीं रोचक प्रश्नों के उत्तर जनने के लिए हम आगे बढ़ते हैं। लिपि या लिखित-भाषा को परिभाषित करना और इसके विकास की ऐतिहासिक विवेचना करना, भाषा (बोली) की तुलना में बहुत कठिन कार्य नहीं है। क्योंकि यह एक मूर्त तत्व है। डेनियल (Daniels, 2003) लिपि को इस प्रकार से परिभाषित करते हैं;

“ लिपि न्यूनाधिक स्थाई चिन्हों की प्रणाली या पद्धति होती है जो किसी बोली या कथन विशेष को इस प्रकार से प्रस्तुत करने के लिए

प्रयुक्त होती है कि वक्ता की हस्तक्षेप के बिना लगभग वैसा ही पुनः प्राप्त किया जा सके”।

अर्थात् जो विचार य संदेश वक्ता ने संप्रेषित किए हैं, श्रोता भी लगभग वैसा ही प्राप्त करें या वही अर्थ निकालें। इस परिभाषा में लिपि को एक चिन्हों की प्रणाली बताया गया है। लिपि का उद्देश्य दूरवर्ती सम्वाद को वस्तुनिष्ठ तरीके से स्थापित करना है। शिक्षा तकनीकी, जनसंचार तकनीकी, सूचना-सम्प्रेषण तकनीकी के क्षेत्र में एक बड़ी उपलब्धि में गिना जाता है।

विश्व में कितनी भाषाएं बोली जाती है? इसका एक अंदाजा ही लगाया जा सकता है। प्रत्येक बार की नृजातीय गणना में इनकी संख्या बदलती रहती है। आप विभिन्न पुस्तकों में अलग अलग संस्थाओं द्वारा दिए तथ्यों में अंतर पायेंगे। इससे हमें भ्रमित होने की आवश्यकता नहीं है क्योंकि हम जानते हैं की भाषा एक गतिशील व परिवर्तनशील तत्व है। अभी तक यही कोई 5000 से 7000 के बीच भाषाएं बताई जाती है। विश्व के लगभग 200 देशों में (196) 6000 से अधिक (6909) भाषाओं का प्रयोग किया जाता है। जबकि इन सभी भाषाओं के प्रयोग करने वाले कुल लगभग दो दर्जन लिपियों का प्रयोग करते हैं। भाषाओं की तरह लिपियों की संख्या भी अविवादित रूप से निश्चित नहीं की जा सकती है। यहाँ लिपियों की संख्या की चर्चा करने का उद्देश्य यह है कि आप भाषाओं और लिपियों की संख्या में अंतर देख कर स्वयं समझ जायेंगे कि भाषा और लिपि दो अलग अलग तत्व हैं। लिपि का विकास भाषा के उद्विकास के बहुत बाद में हुआ है तथापि लिपि का इतिहास भी हजारों वर्ष पुराना हो चुका है। बोले जाने वाले अमूर्त शब्दों व भावों को मूर्त स्थायी रूप देने के बहुत से और बहुत तरीकों से प्रयास किए गये (जिनकी चर्चा हम इस खण्ड में आगे करेंगे)। इन अनेकनेक प्रयासों के लम्बे इतिहास में बहुत सी लिपियों ने जन्म लिया। इनमें से कुछ आज भी प्रयोग में हैं और कुछ विलुप्त हो गईं। इसके अलावा कुछ लिपियों में समय और सुविधा के हिसाब से मूलभूत परिवर्तन हुए। कुछ लिपियों ने नई लिपियों को जन्म दिया य अन्य लिपियों का पोषण किया और उनका प्रयोग खत्म हो गया। कुछ श्रोतों के अनुसार शुद्ध लिपियाँ और वर्णमालाएँ 20 ही हैं (worldstandards.eu, & sixtyvocab.com). सभी प्रकार की लिपियों और वर्णमालाओं को जोड़ने पर भी इनकी संख्या 40 से अधिक नहीं हो पाती है। अद्यतन जानकारी के अनुसार विश्व की 7099 जीवित भाषाओं (Ethnologue, 2017) में से सिर्फ 300 भाषाएं लिखित रूप में प्रयोग की जाती हैं (DayTrnaslation, n. d.)। अर्थात् भाषा लिखित रूप में ही हो, यह किसी भी भाषा के अस्तित्व की अनिवार्य शर्त नहीं है। सभी भाषाएं एक लिपि में और एक भाषा सभी लिपियों में लिखी जा सकती है। आइये हम भाषा और लिपि के अंतर को बिंदुवार तरीके से समझने की कोशिश करते हैं;

1.5.2 लिपि और बोली में अंतर

- लिपि या लेखन भाषा की तरह कोई जैविक यह अनुवांशिक कारण नहीं होता है। कोई भी मानव शिशु अपने वातावरण में बोली जाने वाली भाषा को सीखें बिना नहीं रह सकता है। परंतु लिपि इसके विपरीत कोई नैसर्गिक क्रिया नहीं है बिना अनुदेशन (शिक्षण) के कोई बच्चा लिखने और पढ़ने की क्रिया प्रारंभ नहीं कर सकता है।

- बोली की अपेक्षा लेखन एक सचेतन क्रिया है। इसके लिए मानव मस्तिष्क का कोई विशेष हिस्सा निर्धारित नहीं होता है, और न ही इसके लिए कोई विशेष मानव जीन(Gene) आधार है। लिपि प्रकल्पित(Devised) तत्व है, जिसकी रचना सचेतन रूप से की गई है। जबकि भाषा एक उदविकसित (evolved) मानव छमता है। जिसकी उत्पत्ति मानव के लाखों वर्षों के उद्विकास के इतिहास में छिपी हुई है।
- आज सूचना तकनीक के समय में आपके लिए यह समझना कठिन नहीं है कि किसी भी भाषा की लिपि में परिवर्तन किया जा सकता है। आप मोबाइल संदेश भेजते ही होंगे। मोबाइल संदेश की भाषा हिंदी, गढ़वाली, कुमाऊनी कुछ भी रखते हुए रोमन लिपि(अंग्रेजी भाषा की लिपि) का प्रयोग तो कर ही लेते होंगे। अथवा आपने बहुत से अंग्रेजी के शब्द देवनागरी हिंदी वर्णमाला लिपि में लिखे होंगे। जिसमें आपका अपना नाम सर्वाधिक लिखा जाने वाला शब्द होगा। कहने का तात्पर्य यह है की लिपि और भाषा अलग-अलग तत्व है। एक भाषा को सभी लिपियों में लिखा जा सकता है। देश की भाषा या भाषाएं कोई भी हो पर समझने की सुविधा की दृष्टि से हम लिपि विशेष के प्रयोग को कानून द्वारा अनिवार्य भी कर सकते हैं। जैसा कि हमारे देश के सभी सरकारी कामकाज को देवनागरी और रोमन लिपि में ही प्रकाशित किया जाता है। उत्तराखण्ड की प्रशासनिक भाषाएं हिंदी और संस्कृत दोनो ही देवनागरी लिपि में लिखी जाती है।
आप बहुत सी हिंदी भाषा की कहानियों को अंग्रेजी(रोमन) लिपि में कई इंटरनेट साइटों पर पढ़ सकते है। दो भाषाओं के संयुक्त प्रयोग के कारण कुछ ब्लोग (Blog/ वेबसाइट पर लेख व निबंध) लेखकों ने तो रोमनागरी (Romanagari) शब्द का प्रयोग करना शुरू कर दिया है। रोमनागरी एक संयुक्त शब्द (portmanteau word) है जो हिंदी(देवनागरी) लेखों को अंग्रेजी(रोमन) लिपि में लिखे जाने पर प्रयोग होता है जिसमें शब्द देवनागरी के और अक्षर(वर्ण) रोमन लिपि के होते है। इस प्रयोग से आप भाषा और लिपि के स्वतंत्र अस्तित्व को समझ सकते है।
- अपनी गतिशील व प्रवाहमय लक्षण के कारण बोली(भाषा) धीरे-धीरे विकसित होती है और विलुप्त भी हो सकती है। उत्तराखण्ड की 15 बोलियों में से दो (गढ़वाली और कुमायुनी) ही प्रमुखता से बोली जाती हैं और बाकी में से कुछ तो अदृश्य होने की कगार पर हैं। अर्थात जिन्हें उत्तराखण्ड के लोग भी नहीं जानते कि यह बोलियाँ उनकी ही संस्कृति का अंग रही है। ऐसी विलुप्तप्राय बोलियाँ ग्रामीण इलाकों में सिर्फ बिना पढ़ें लिखे या बुजुर्ग लोगो द्वारा प्रयोग में लाई जाती है। ऐसे ही बहुत सी भाषाएं मर चुकी हैं या मृतप्राय हैं क्योंकि उनको बोलने वाले लोग या तो नहीं रहे या तो भाषा परिवर्तन कर चुके हैं। परंतु उन भाषाओं का साहित्य चिरजीवी होता है। सिंधु सभ्यता के अवशेषों से जो लिपि मिली है हम उसका अर्थ निकालने में असमर्थ है क्योंकि वह भाषा अब लुप्त हो चुकी है परंतु आप देख रहे हैं की लिपि आज भी आपके सामने अस्तित्व में है। हम कह सकते हैं कोई भी लिपि तुलनात्मक रूप से भाषा की अपेक्षा अधिक लंबी उम्र की होती है। यह भाषा और लिपि के अंतर के साथ साथ सम्बंध का भी कारण कहा जा सकता है। किसी भाषा को चिरजीवी बना देने के लिए

उसका लिखित भाषा के रूप में होना जरूरी होता है। लिपि के लिखने और प्रयोग के तरीकों में भी परिवर्तन होते हैं पर ऐसे परिवर्तन किसी बोली की तुलना में नगण्य कहे जा सकते हैं।

नेशनल जिओग्रफिक मासिक पत्रिका के अनुसार हर दो सप्ताह (14 दिन) में एक भाषा लुप्त हो जाती है और इस गति के हिसाब से अगली शताब्दी तक विश्व में प्रचलित लगभग 7000 भाषाओं में से आधी ही रह जायेगी(Rymer, 2012)।

- भाषा विज्ञान को जब हम मनोविज्ञान के साथ जोड़कर समझते हैं तब लिपि भाषाविज्ञान के पाले को छोड़कर संकेतशास्त्र य लक्षणविज्ञान (Semiotics) की तरफ खड़ी दिखाई देती है। क्योंकि मनोविज्ञान के अनुसार भाषा एक संज्ञानात्मक अमूर्त क्रिया हो जाती है। जबकि लिपि मूर्त व स्थूल प्रकृति की होती है।
- ज्ञानेंद्रिय प्रयोग के आधार पर भाषा और लिपि में अंतर हो जाता है। छोटी सी बात है कि जो हम सुनते है वह भाषा य बोली है और जो देखते है वह लिपि य लेखन प्रणाली है। यह बात सिर्फ समझने के लिए है वैसे मनुष्य एक ज्ञानेंद्री को रोककर दूसरे का प्रयोग नहीं करता है। पाठन के उदाहरण से हम दोनो के एक साथ प्रयोग को समझ सकते है।

उपरोक्त भाषा और लिपि के अंतर का वर्णन का एक मात्र उद्देश्य यह सिद्ध करना रहा है कि हम भाषा और लिपि के स्वतन्त्र अस्तित्व को समझ सके। एक आम अदमी भाषा और लिपि में अंतर नहीं कर पाता है। परंतु शिक्षकों को यह अंतर समझना आवश्यक होता है। भाषा और लिपि में अंतर के साथ साथ घनिष्ठ सम्बंध होता है, यही कारण है कि हम दोनो को अलग अलग करके नहीं समझ पाते। अब हम अंतर की तरह दोनो में सम्बंध भी सूचीबद्ध कर लें।

1.5.3 लिपि और बोली में सम्बंध

- भाषा (बोली) और लिपि दोनो ही समाज विशेष की संस्कृति का प्रतीक होती है। परिणामतः पहचान और स्वाभिमान का कारण भी बनती है। हम विदेश में अपनी मातृभाषा को बोलने का अवसर मिलने पर सुखद अनुभव करते है। यदि आप अपनी भाषा को बोलने वाले व्यक्ति को उत्तराखंड से बाहर पाते है तो उसे तुरंत ही पहचान लेते है। साथ ही समय उपलब्ध रहने पर परिचय बढ़ाकर अपनी भाषा में वार्तालाप भी करने का अवसर प्राप्त कर लेते होंगे।
- अंतर में हमने समझा कि भाषा को समाज में रहते हुए हम सीख ही लेते है, जबकि लिपि सीखने के लिए शिक्षण की आवश्यकता होती है। लेकिन यह नैसर्गिक अधिगम की प्रक्रिया मातृ-भाषा में ही होती है। अन्य भाषाओं के सीखने के लिए हमें शिक्षण य अनुदेशन की आवश्यकता पड़ती है अन्यथा जब तक कि हम उस भाषा विशेष के लोगों के मध्य रहने न लगे। अतः दोनो में ही शिक्षण की आवश्यकता होती है।
- भाषा सूक्ष्म व अस्थायी तत्व होती है। इस को स्थूल व चिरस्थायी बनाने के लिए लिपि अपना सम्बंध निभाती है।

- दोनो ही अभिव्यक्ति का माध्यम होती है। भ्रमरहित व बाधारहित सम्प्रेषण में दोनों एक दूसरे की पूर्ति करती है। आप शिक्षक के रूप में कोई विषय बच्चों को समझाने का प्रयास करते है। बच्चों की समझ को सुदृढ़ करने और समझ की गारण्टी प्रदान करने के लिए आप अपने व्याख्यान के साथ साथ श्यामपट्ट पर मुख्य बिंदु लिखने की कोशिश जरूर करते होंगे या करेंगे। अतः अभिव्यक्ति के माध्यम के रूप में दोनो अन्योन्याश्रित होती है।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

4. विश्व में लगभग कितनी भाषाएँ बोली जाती है?
5. विश्व में लगभग कितनी लिपियाँ प्रचलित है?
6. नेशनल जिओग्रफिक मासिक पत्रिका के अनुसार कितनों दिनों में एक भाषा लुप्त हो जाती है?
7. बोली और लिपि में कोई दो अंतर बताइये

1.6 लिपि के विकास का इतिहास

लिपि के विकास का इतिहास भी बहुत रोचक और लम्बा है। मानव ने अपनी अभिव्यक्ति को स्थायी बनाने के लिए कई तरह के प्रयोग किए है। जिन्हें हम गुफाओं में प्राप्त चित्रों से शुरू करते हुए, शिलालेखों, ताम्रपत्रों, भोजपत्रों, पुस्तकों, वेबसाइटों आदि आदि पर एक नजर डालकर समझ सकते है। बोली या बोलचाल की भाषा का प्रयोग करते हुए आप अपने सामने वाले व्यक्ति को अपना संदेश य विचार संप्रेषित कर सकते है और एक समय विशेष का प्रयोग ही कर सकते है। बोलचाल की भाषा की सीमा को पार करते हुए एक लिपि (यहाँ लिखित भाषा कहना अधिक उचित होगा) समय और स्थान के परे सम्प्रेषण का कार्य करती है। शायद मनुष्य की यही आवश्यकता उसे लिपि के सर्जन के लिए बाध्य करती है। मानव ने हजारों प्रयोग किए होंगे जिनसे संप्रेषण के अनेकानेक माध्यमों का जन्म हुआ। लिपि विकास किसी भी मानव संस्कृति के लिए क्रांतिकारी घटना रही होगी। जैसा की विश्व की सभी प्राचीन सभ्यताओं में किसी न किसी तरह मूर्त संप्रेषण/अभिव्यक्ति के चिन्ह मिल जाते हैं। इससे हमें एक बात तो समझ लेनी चाहिए कि लिपि किसी भी विकसित सभ्यता का अनिवार्य तत्व होती है। जरा कल्पना कीजिए कि भाषा (बोली) के जन्म से मानव को समूह बनाकर रहने का अवसर मिला होगा। आपसी सहमति बनी होगी। आपसी व्यवहार के नियम बने होंगे। सामूहिक जीवन सुखद, सुरक्षित और सामंजस्यपूर्ण हो गया होगा। आप बोलचाल की भाषा के सहारे सिर्फ सामूहिक जीवन की तो कल्पना कर सकते है पर वर्तमान में विद्यमान देशों और राष्ट्रों की कल्पना नहीं कर सकते। अर्थात वृहद समुदाय के सदस्यों को सामूहिक नियमों का पालन करवाने के लिए लिखित कानून, सरकार, प्रशासन आदि की जरूरत होती है। प्रशासन के लिए लिपि अनिवार्य शर्त होती है। यही कारण है की स्वतंत्रता प्राप्ति के उपरांत हम राष्ट्रभाषा सुनिश्चित तो

नहीं कर सके पर प्रशासनिक भाषा और लिपि हमने सुनिश्चित की या करनी पड़ी। शायद इन सब बातों से आपके मस्तिष्क में लिपि की अनिवार्यता और इसके विकास की आवश्यकता तो स्पष्ट हो चुकी होगी। अब हम लिपि के विकास पर एक ऐतिहासिक नजर डालते हैं।

विश्व की सभ्यताओं के इतिहास में हम देखते हैं कि सर्वप्रथम लगभग पाँच हजार वर्ष पूर्व मेंसोपोटामिया की सभ्यता के शहर सुमैर (वर्तमान ईरान इराक वाला क्षेत्र) में कीलक्षर/कीलाकार लिपि का विकास हुआ था। यह लिपि मिट्टी के फलकों पर उत्कीर्ण की जाती थी (चित्र 1)। इस लिपि में चित्रात्मक व रेखात्मक दोनों ही प्रकार के चिन्हों का प्रयोग किया जाता था।



चित्र 1: मेंसोपोटामिया की कीलाक्षर लिपि (चित्र श्रोत:

<https://www.haikudeck.com/mesopotamia-inventions-education-presentation-2xuiSNCZba#slide3>)

वर्तमान लिपि से स्वरूप से संबंधित प्रतीत होती हुई प्राचीन लिपि 3000 वर्ष पूर्व शिलालेखों में दिखाई देती है। इन हजारों वर्षों के सफर में हजारों पड़ाव मिलते हैं। गुफाओं में प्राप्त चित्रकारी को अधिकतर भाषाविद लिपि का हिस्सा नहीं मानते हैं। लेकिन अभिव्यक्ति को स्थायी करने के लिए चित्र पद्धति ने महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका अदा की है। यह चित्रकारी चित्रकला की विशाल परंपरा का एक हिस्सा ही मानी जाती रही है। जब कोई चित्र/प्रतिकृति (image) सतत रूप से किसी पदार्थ, उत्पाद या परिणाम को वर्णित करने लगती है तब इस तरह के वर्णन को चित्रलिपि (Pictogram) की संज्ञा दी जाती है। हमारी प्राचीनतम सैधव सभ्यता के अवशेषों से पता चलता है कि यहाँ भी चित्रलिपि का प्रयोग किया जाता था (चित्र 2)।



चित्र 2: हणप्पा सभ्यता की चित्र लिपि (चित्र श्रोत:
<https://www.harappa.com/script/parpola8.html>)

जो चर्चा हमें बाद में करनी चाहिए थी वह अभी करना जरूरी हो रहा है। बात यह है कि चित्र के माध्यम से संप्रेषण लिपि के विकास की शुरुआत तो है पर शुद्ध लिपि के विकास के बाद भी हमने चित्र पद्धति का प्रयोग बंद नहीं किया है। आज भी राष्ट्रीय राजमार्गों पर सार्वजनिक स्थलों जैसे कि रेलवे स्टेशन, विमानपत्तन पर चित्र के माध्यम से संप्रेषण किया जाता है (चित्र 3)। इसका कारण है कि चित्रों के माध्यम से संप्रेषण में भ्रम की सम्भावना कम से कम होती है।



चित्र 3: आधुनिक चित्र संप्रेषण चिन्ह (चित्र श्रोत:
<https://www.pinterest.com/tris112397/pictograms/>)

चित्रलिपि में जब अमूर्त विचारों को संप्रेषित करने की क्षमता आ जाती है तब हम इसे विचारलिपि या भावलिपि (Ideogram) कहते हैं। चित्रलिपि और भाव लिपि में सिर्फ तत्व के प्रतिनिधित्व का अंतर है। एक में मूर्त पदार्थों का वर्ण करते हैं और दूसरे में अमूर्त विचारों का वर्णन करते हैं। ★ जब इस सितारे

के चित्र के माध्यम से हम आकाश के तारों का वर्णन करें तो इसे हम चित्रलिपि का एक उदाहरण कह सकते हैं। 'तारा' शब्द लिखने के अलावा हम इस चित्र को बनाकर अपनी बात कह सकते हैं। परंतु जब तारे के चित्र के माध्यम से हम रात्रि, शांति, शीतलता आदि भावों को प्रदर्शित करने लगते हैं तब इसे हम भावलपि की संज्ञा देते हैं। प्राचीन चित्र पद्धति के कई चित्र आज की वर्णमाला के अक्षर के रूप में परिवर्तित हो गए हैं।

चित्रलिपि से वर्णचिन्ह की ओर जाना मानव मस्तिष्क की बढ़ती हुई अमूर्त चिंतन की क्षमता का द्योतक है। जब प्रतीक चिन्ह शब्दों का प्रतिनिधित्व करने लगते हैं तब प्रतीकलिपि (Logograms) का विकास होता है। इसका प्रयोग आज भी होता है। बहुत सी कंपनियों के चिन्ह ही उनके नाम का प्रतिनिधित्व करते हैं। आप बैंक ऑफ इंडिया को लिखने के लिए आप सितारे के चिन्ह का प्रयोग कर सकते हैं। यूनीलीवर कंपनी के लिए (U) का चिन्ह प्रयोग कर सकते हैं। सुमेर की कीलाक्षर लिपि भी एक प्रकार की प्रतीकलिपि ही थी। वर्तमान में चीन की भाषा में प्रतीक चिन्हों का प्रयोग देखा जा सकता है। चीनी वर्णमाला के कई वर्ण एक ध्वनि मात्र को नहीं बल्कि सम्पूर्ण शब्द (या शब्द के अर्थ) को वर्णित करते हैं या शब्द के एक भाग को वर्णित करते हैं।

इस परंपरा से अलग दूसरी प्रणाली है जहां वर्ण-चिन्ह (य चित्र) भाषा के शब्द को नहीं ध्वनि को वर्णित करते हैं। इसे कूटलेखन (Rebus Writing) नाम दिया गया है। जब कभी भी उस ध्वनि का प्रयोग शब्दों में होता है तो उस ध्वनिचिन्ह (कूटचिन्ह) को उस शब्द में जोड़ दिया जाता है। ध्वनिकूट हमें वर्तमान वर्णमाला की ओर अधिक पास ले आते हैं। आज भी हम अपनी अभिव्यक्ति के कूट तैयार करते रहते हैं। कूटध्वनि के अधुनिक उदाहरण से समझ सकते हैं कि एक ध्वनि कैसे एक शब्द को य शब्द के भाग को प्रदर्शित करती होगी। उदाहरण के लिए same too you की जगह same 2 you, Night को ध्वनि कूट में Ni8 भी तो लिख देते हैं और Today को 2Day।

जब कोई प्रतिकृति (Image) भाषा के स्वर या व्यंजन वर्ण का प्रतिनिधित्व न करके शब्दांश/स्वरांश (Syllable) का प्रतिनिधित्व करती है तब हम उसे स्वरांश लिपि (Syllabary) कहते हैं। जापान की भाषा में इस शब्दांश लेखन प्रणाली का प्रयोग किया जाता है। प्राचीन मिस्र और सुमेर की लिपियों में भी शब्दांश लेखन का प्रयोग मिलता है। शब्दांश लिपि हमें वर्तमान वर्णमाला के सबसे निकटतम पायदान तक पहुँचा देती है। जहां एक वर्ण-चिन्ह सिर्फ एक ध्वनि को प्रतिनिधित्व करता है। अरबी और यहूदी जैसी समी (Semitic) भाषाओं की लिपि प्रणाली में सिर्फ व्यंजनों (क ख ग च आदि) की सहायता से ही शब्द लिखे जाते थे। स्वर (अ इ उ आदि) का चिन्ह पाठक को स्वयं अपने विवेक से समझना होता था। यही व्यंजक वर्णमाला वर्तमान भाषाओं की वर्णमाला का सूत्रपात करती है। यहाँ तक हम एक चिन्ह एक स्वर तक पहुँच चुके होते हैं। परंतु शुद्ध स्वर अक्षर (Vowel) के चिन्ह को तैयार नहीं कर सके थे। इतिहास में सर्वप्रथम यूनानियों ने स्वर अक्षरों की पूर्ति करके शुद्ध व पूर्ण वर्णमाला को जन्म दिया।

1.7 विभिन्न भाषाओं की लिपियाँ

विभिन्न भाषाओं की लिपियों के अध्ययनके लिए हम वर्तमान से भूतकाल की ओर बढ़ेंगे अर्थात् जिन लिपियों का हम प्रयोग करते हैं उनकी उत्पत्ति व प्रकृति के अध्ययन करते हुए प्राचीन लिपियों के बारे में संक्षिप्त चर्चा करेंगे।

हमारे प्रदेश उत्तराखंड में मुख्य रूप से तीन भाषाएं हिंदी, संस्कृत, और अंग्रेजी प्रयोग की जाती है। अतः हम इन्हीं भाषाओं की लिपियों पर मुख्य रूप से ध्यान देंगे हैं। अप यह तो सुने ही होंगे कि हिंदी में प्रयुक्त लिपि का नाम देवनागरी लिपि है। आइये इसके बारे में जानते है,

1.7.1 भारतीय लिपियाँ

क. **देवनागरी लिपि:** हिंदी और संस्कृत भाषाएं वर्तमान समय में देवनागरी लिपि में ही लिखी जाती है। हिंदी और देवनागरी लिपि तो एक-दूसरे के पर्याय बन गए हैं। परिणाम स्वरूप देवनागरी को हिंदी लिपि भी कहते हैं इसका एक नाम नागरी लिपि भी है। इसके नामकरण के कारण को भी स्पष्ट रूप से पहचाना नहीं जा सका है। अलग-अलग विद्वान अपनी अपनी कल्पना के आधार पर (क्योंकि साक्ष्य का अभाव है) इसकी व्याख्या करते हैं।

- i. प्रथम मत के अनुसार यह लिपि नगरीय (शहरों की) सभ्यता में जन्मी और प्रचलित रही।
- ii. द्वितीय मतानुसार गुजरात के नागर ब्राह्मणों द्वारा प्रयोग की जाती रही।
- iii. तृतीय मतानुसार यह लिपि देवनागर स्थान में उत्पन्न हुई।
- iv. एकमत के अनुसार यह लिपि काशी और आसपास के क्षेत्र में विकसित हुई। काशी को देवनागर भी कहते हैं। इसलिए इसका नाम देवनागरी हो गया। दक्षिण भारत में इसका नाम 'नंदी-नागरी' लिपि भी है, जो इसका संबंध काशी शिव और प्राचीनतम नगर वाराणसी से जोड़ता है।

इस लिपि का विकास 1000 से 1200 ई० के लगभग प्राचीन नागरी लिपि से माना जाता है। प्राचीन नागरी लिपि के अभिलेख आठवीं शदी से 16 शदी तक दक्षिण भारत में मिलते हैं। देवनागरी लिपि में सामान्यरूप से 52 अक्षर बताये जाते है। जिनमें से 49 अक्षर वर्तमान समय में अधिक प्रचलन में है, और 3 का हिंदी में प्रयोग नगण्य हो गया है। संस्कृत भाषा में जरूर सभी 52 अक्षरों का प्रयोग किया जाता है। संस्कृत में प्रयुक्त अक्षरों के आधार पर देवनागरी लिपि में अक्षरों की संख्या 56/57 तक पहुँच जाती है। प्राचीन समय में संस्कृत भाषा ब्राम्ही लिपि में लिखी जाती रही है। अतः उन अक्षरों को ब्राम्ही लिपि का हिस्सा मानकर छोड़ दिया जाता है। लेकिन हमें याद रखना चाहिए की देवनागरी लिपि का जन्म भी ब्राम्ही लिपि से ही हुआ है।

ख. **ब्राम्ही लिपि:** ब्राम्ही लिपि को कई लिपियों की लंबी श्रंखला की जननी कहा जा सकता है। एक सर्वेक्षण के अनुसार 198 लिपियाँ इस लिपि से निकली है। लगभग सभी भारतीय भाषाओं (उर्दू जैसी

एकाध को छोड़कर) की लिपियों के अलावा नेपाल, बांग्लादेश आदि कई एशियायी देशों की भाषाओं की लिपियाँ इसी से जन्मी है। यह एक प्राचीन भारतीय लिपि है जो 350 ई० पू० से 300 ई० तक भारत के अधिकतम भाग पर प्रचलन में रही। प्रो० ब्यूलर के अनुसार इस लिपि में 41 अक्षर थे जिनमें 9 स्वर और 32 व्यंजन थे (Buhler, 1898)। इस लिपि के नामकरण के पीछे कई मत हैं जो आपस में संबंधित भी है। आइये हम इन मतों को जानें।

- प्रथम मत के अनुसार भगवान ब्रह्मा ने इस लिपि को बनाया था इसलिए इसे ब्राम्ही कहते हैं।
- द्वितीय मत के अनुसार ब्रह्मज्ञान यानी वेद ज्ञान के संरक्षण (स्थायित्व) हेतु इस लिपि की रचना हुई थी।
- तृतीय मत के अनुसार ब्राह्मणों ने इसको बनाया और इसका प्रयोग किया इसलिए इसका नाम ब्राह्मी लिपि हो गया।

कई पाश्चात्य विद्वान भ्रम, अहम आदि विकारों के कारण इसकी उत्पत्ति चीनी या सामी लिपि से मानते हैं। ऐसी कल्पना करना भी अकल्पनीय बात है। सामी से एकाधिक समानता ब्राह्मी लिपि में तो है, परंतु दोनों में एक से अधिक मूलभूत अंतर है। जैसे कि यह लिपि बाएं से दाएं लिखी जाती है जबकि सामी लिपि दाईं से बाईं ओर लिखी जाती है। सामी में केवल 22 अक्षर हैं जबकि ब्राह्मी में 41 अक्षर होते हैं। सर्वाधिक महत्वपूर्ण तथ्य यह है कि ब्राह्मी में वर्णों की आकृति वृत्तात्मक भी है जबकि अन्य विदेशी लिपियों में इस तरह की अक्षर रचना नहीं देखी जाती है। अतः यह एक भारतीय भूभाग पर उत्पन्न लिपि ही है। इस लिपि की दो उत्तरी और दक्षिणी शैलियां मानी जाती हैं। उत्तरी शैली से निम्नलिखित लिपियों का विकास हुआ है;

- गुप्त लिपि:** यह लिपि गुप्त वंश के राजाओं के अभिलेखों, जैसे कि प्रयाग प्रशस्ति आदि अभिलेख, में मिलती है।
- कुटिल लिपि:** यह गुप्त लिपि से ही जन्मी एक लिपि है। इसमें स्वरों की मात्राएं कुटिल या टेढ़ी हो जाती हैं। इसलिए इसको कुटिल लिपि कहते हैं। इससे नागरी और शारदा लिपियों का विकास हुआ है।
- प्राचीन नागरी लिपि:** इस लिपि की पूर्वी शाखा से बंगला लिपि और पश्चिमी शाखा से राजस्थानी, गुजराती, महाराष्ट्री आदि लिपियां विकसित हुई है।
- शारदा लिपि:** इस लिपि का विकास प्राचीन समय में कश्मीर और पंजाब में हुआ। 10वीं शताब्दी के लगभग इस लिपि का प्रयोग होता था। कश्मीरी, गुरुमुखी, डोगरी आदि लिपियां इसी से निकली है।
- बांगला लिपि:** यह लिपि बंगला उड़िया आदि भाषाओं में प्रयोग की जाती है। इस लिपि से असमी, मणिपुरी भाषाओं की लिपियों का जन्म हुआ है।

ब्राह्मी की दक्षिणी शैली से निम्नलिखित लिपियां उत्पन्न हुईं।

- i. **पश्चिमी लिपि:** यह लिपि पांचवी सदी के लगभग प्रयोग में थी। गुजरात, नासिक, कोंकण आदि क्षेत्रों से मिले लेखों में इस लिपि के प्रयोग मिलते हैं।
- ii. **मध्य प्रदेशी लिपि:** यह लिपि चौथी से आठवीं शदी के लगभग प्रयोग में रही। मध्य प्रदेश, बुंदेलखंड, हैदराबाद आदि के लेखों में इस लिपि का प्रयोग होता था।
- iii. **तेलुगु-कन्नड़:** यह लिपि तेलुगु और कन्नड़ भाषाओं की लिपि है।
- iv. **कलिंग लिपि:** यह लिपि सातवीं से ग्यारहवीं शदी के मध्य कलिंग के क्षेत्र में यह लिपि प्रचलन में थी।
- v. **ग्रंथ लिपि:** मलयालम और तेलुगु लिपियां ब्राह्मी की इसी शाखा से निकली मानी जाती हैं। इसमें संस्कृत ग्रंथों की रचना हुई इसलिए इसका नाम ग्रंथ लिपि हो गया।
- vi. **तमिल लिपि:** सातवीं शताब्दी से आज तक यह तमिल भाषा की लिपि है।

उपरोक्त विवेचन से हम कह सकते हैं कि ब्राह्मी लिपि सभी भारतीय भाषाओं की लिपियों की जननी है। ब्राह्मी लिपि को खरोष्ठी लिपि से भी सम्बंधित माना जाता है।

- ग. **खरोष्ठी लिपि:** प्राचीन भारतीय लिपियों में से एक खरोष्ठी लिपि भी है यह लिपि 350 ई० पू० से 200 ई० तक प्रचलन में मानी जाती है। इस लिपि का प्रयोग प्राचीन गांधार (वर्तमान अफगानिस्तान) के क्षेत्र में किया जाता था। उस क्षेत्र में इस लिपि ने गांधारी-प्राकृत और संस्कृत भाषाओं की सेवा की। सम्राट अशोक के शाहबाजगढ़ी और मानसेरा (दोनों ही स्थान पंजाब में है) के अभिलेखों में इस लिपि का प्रयोग मिलता है। अशोक के अलावा शक और कुषाणों के अभिलेख भी खरोष्ठी में ही है। कुछ विद्वान इसे एक भारतीय लिपि मानते हैं और कुछ इसे आर्मेइक लिपि मानते हैं। इसमें 37 वर्ण हैं जिनमें 5 स्वर और 32 व्यंजन होते हैं। अक्सर यह लिपि दाए से बाए लिखी जाती है।
- सभी वर्तमान भारतीय लिपियों में एक समानता देखी जा सकती है। वह इस प्रकार है;**

- लगभग सभी लिपियाँ ब्राह्मी लिपि से जन्मी हैं।
- सभी ध्वन्यात्मक हैं, एवं कवर्ग, चवर्ग आदि में बंटे हैं।
- सभी के लिखने में मात्रा का प्रयोग होता है।
- सबमें संयुक्ताक्षरों का प्रयोग होता है।
- सबके वर्ण रूप में काफी मिलते हैं।
- स्वर, व्यंजन, मात्रा तीनों का अलग प्रावधान है।

1.7.2 विदेशी लिपियाँ

भारतीय लिपियों के विवरण के बाद हम कुछ विदेशी लिपियों से एक संक्षिप्त परिचय करते हैं।

- i. **लैटिन या रोमन लिपि:** इस लिपि का जन्म विदेशी धरती पर जरूर हुआ पर आज हम इसे विदेशी लिपि नहीं कह सकते हैं। आज यह लिपि हमारी द्वितीय प्रशासनिक भाषा की लिपि है और भारत के संविधान द्वारा अधिनियमित भी है। अंग्रेजी भाषा में प्रयुक्त लिपि (ABCD) को रोमन लिपि कहते हैं। वर्तमान में यह सर्वाधिक प्रयुक्त लिपि है इसमें 26 वर्ण होते हैं, जिनमें 5 स्वर और 21 व्यंजन हैं। इन 26 वर्णों की 45 ध्वनियां होती हैं। यह विश्व की अनेक भाषाओं की लिपि है। क्या आप जानते हैं कि लैटिन, फ्रांसीसी, अंग्रेजी जैसी मुख्य भाषाओं के साथ साथ एक भारतीय भाषा भी इस लिपि का प्रयोग करती है। यह भाषा भारत के पूर्वोत्तरी राज्य मिजोरम की मुख्य भाषा है, जिसे मिजो या लुसाई (Mizo/ Lusahai भाषा कहते हैं) जैसा कि यूरोप की अधिकांश लिपियां यूनानी लिपि से ही उत्पन्न हुई हैं अतः यह लिपि भी यूनानी लिपि से ही जन्मी मानी जाती है।
- ii. **यूनानी लिपि:** यह विश्व की प्राचीनतम लिपि में से एक है। इसमें 24 अक्षर होते हैं। इसके ही प्रथम दो अक्षर अल्फा(α) और बीटा(β) के आधार पर ही अंग्रेजी में वर्णमाला को अल्फाबेट कहते हैं। इसे हम यूरोपी लिपियों की जननी कह सकते हैं इसकी उत्पत्ति उत्तरी सामी लिपि से मानी जाती है।
- iii. **सामी लिपि:** सामी लिपि भी प्राचीनतम लिपि में प्राचीनतम कही जा सकती है। इसमें 22 वर्ण होते हैं। इस लिपि का प्रयोग 1000 से 800 ईसापूर्व के आसपास किया जाता रहा। इसकी उत्तरी शाखा से अर्मेइक और फोनेशी लिपियों का जन्म होता है। इसकी दक्षिणी शाखा से अरबी लिपि का विकास हुआ है।
- iv. **अरबी लिपि:** वर्तमान में प्रचलित लिपियों में से यह एक प्रमुख लिपि है। मूलतः इसमें 28 अक्षर होते हैं। यह दाएं से बाएं लिखी जाती है। यह अरब, अफगानिस्तान, फारस आदि स्थानों पर प्रचलित है। फारसी भाषा में चार अक्षर और अधिक जोड़कर 32 अक्षरों के साथ इस लिपि का प्रयोग किया जाता है। भारतीय भाषा उर्दू में फारसी में प्रयुक्त अक्षरों के अलावा पांच अक्षर और अधिक जोड़कर 37 अक्षरों का प्रयोग किया जाता है।
- v. **चीनी लिपि:** यूरोपीय और भारतीय लिपियों से अलग चीनी लिपि भी एक प्राचीनतम लिपि है। इसका विकास 3200 से 2700 ईसा पूर्व के लगभग हुआ था। यह चीन की भाषाओं की प्रमुख लिपि है वैसे मंडारिन ही चीन की मुख्य लिखित भाषा है। यह विचित्र चित्रात्मक लिपि है (汉字 漢字) जिसे विश्व की एक मात्र सनातन लिपि की संज्ञा दी जा सकती है। क्योंकि यह लिपि प्राचीन काल से आज तक प्रचलन में है। इसमें हिंदी या अंग्रेजी की तरह अक्षर ध्वनियां नहीं होती हैं। इसमें हजारों स्वरांश (logograms) प्रयोग किए जाते हैं। चीनी भाषा में साक्षर होने के लिए तीन से चार हजार स्वरांश/अक्षरों/ चित्रों आदि को सीखने की आवश्यकता होती है।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

8. सर्वप्रथम लिपि का विकास कहाँ हुआ?
9. चित्रलिपि और भाव लिपि में क्या अंतर है?
10. देवनागरी लिपि में कुल कितने अक्षर होते हैं?
11. भारतीय लिपियों को दो विशेषताएँ लिखिए।
12. ब्राम्ही लिपि की दक्षिणी शाखा से उत्पन्न दो लिपियों के नाम लिखिए।
13. कौन सी भारतीय भाषा रोमन लिपि में लिखी जाती है?

1.8 सारांश

हमने देखा कि जो भाषाएँ हम लोग इतनी आसानी से प्रयोग करते हैं वे हजारों वर्षों के मानव उद्विकास और प्रयास का परिणाम हैं। सामान्य मानव भाषा के जन्म को पहिचानना एक कठिन कार्य है, पर जो भाषाएँ आजकल प्रचलन में हैं उनकी जड़ों को जरूर पहिचाना जा सकता है। भाषा के बारे में अध्ययन करना एक बहुत बड़ा और जटिल क्षेत्र है। यहाँ जटिल को कठिन नहीं समझना चाहिए। जब भाषा के उद्भव और विकास के तार हमें एक निश्चित स्थान पर नहीं ले जाते हैं; हम किसी एक दृष्टिकोण से भाषा की समग्रता को नहीं देख सकते हैं; जब इसके अध्ययन में विषयों की परत दर परत खुलती जाती है, तब इसे जटिल कहना ही उचित होगा। हम देख सकते हैं कि एक शताब्दी में ही आधुनिक भाषाशास्त्र ने दर्जनों विषयों को जन्म दे दिया है। उदाहरण के लिए भाषाशास्त्र (Linguistics) से जन्मे कुछ विषयों के नाम हम देख सकते हैं: ऐतिहासिक-भाषाशास्त्र, प्रायोगिक-भाषाशास्त्र, सामाजिक-भाषाशास्त्र, मनो-भाषाशास्त्र, तुलानात्मक-भाषाशास्त्र, शैक्षिक-भाषाशास्त्र, निदानात्मक-भाषाशास्त्र इत्यादि। भाषा के विषय में अध्ययन करते हुए हम नये-नये विषयों से रुबरू होते जा रहे हैं। जैसे यह एक रोचक विषय है और हम शिक्षकों को इसकी जानकारी होनी चाहिए। किसी भाषा के इतिहास और जड़ों को जानने से उस भाषा में हमारी रुचि भी बढ़ती है और हमें सीखने में आसानी भी होती है। आज के बहुभाषिक समाज में, विशेषरूप से भारतीय समाज में एक से अधिक भाषाओं को सीखना जरूरी हो जाता है। जैसे जब हमें मालूम हो कि एक से अधिक भाषाओं को जानना संज्ञानात्मक प्रक्रमण को गति प्रदान करता है तब हम स्वयं ही एक से अधिक भाषाओं को सीखने और विद्यार्थियों को सिखाने के लिए स्वप्रेरित होंगे।

1.9 शब्दावली

1. बहुभाषिकता (Multilingualism) - दो या दो से अधिक भाषाओं का अंतर्सम्बंध और अंतरिक्रि
2. बहुभाषी (Polyglot or Multiglot) - एक से अधिक भाषाओं का प्रयोग करने वाला

3. **संप्रेषण (Communication)** - सूचना, संदेश या तथ्यों का आदान प्रदान
4. **शैक्षिक-भाषाविज्ञान (Educational Linguistics)** - भाषा की शिक्षा में भूमिका का अध्ययन करने वाले
5. **द्विपदीयचर (Bipedal)** - दो पैरो पर चलने वाला जीव
6. **घोषयंत्र (larynx)** - गले का एक अंग जो स्वर उत्पन्न करता है
7. **गलकोश (Pharynx)** - मुख के पीछे का हिस्सा (स्वर के परिवर्तन और गुंजन के लिए)
8. **ध्वनि-गुंजन (Resonance)** - मनुष्य में स्वरों को अंतर से उत्पन्न करने की शक्ति
9. **अनुकूलन (Adaptation)** - समायोजन परिस्थिति विशेष में ढाल लेना
10. **स्तनपायी (Mammal)** - अपने बच्चों को दूध पिलाने वाला जानवर
11. **प्रकल्पित (Devised)** -व्यवस्थिति और योजनाबद्ध तरीके से उत्पन्न
12. **तंत्रिका विज्ञान (Neurology)** - एक विषय जिसे अंग्रेजी में Neurology कहते हैं।
13. **अनुवांशिकी (Genetics)** - एक विषय जिसे अंग्रेजी में Genetics कहते हैं।

1.10 अभ्यास प्रश्नों के उत्तर

1. लगभग 5000 वर्ष पूर्व
2. एक लाख से पचास हजार वर्ष पूर्व
3. भाषा रचना के कारण:
 - a. मानव का परिवेश,
 - b. उसके जिवन की आवश्यकताएँ तथा
 - c. उसका विशेष शारीरिक गठन है
4. विश्व में लगभग छह हजार से अधिक भाषाएँ बोली जाती हैं?
5. विश्व में लगभग लगभग दो दर्जन लिपियाँ प्रचलित हैं?
6. 14 दिनों में (दो सप्ताह) दिनों में एक भाषा लुप्त हो जाती है?
7. बोली और लिपि में कोई दो अंतर:
 - a. लिपि या लेखन भाषा की तरह कोई जैविक यह अनुवांशिक कारण नहीं होता है।
 - b. जो हम सुनते हैं वह भाषा य बोली है और जो देखते हैं वह लिपि य लेखन प्रणाली है।
8. सर्वप्रथम लिपि का विकास मेंसोपोटामियाँ में हुआ?
9. चित्रलिपि और भाव लिपि में सिर्फ तत्व के प्रतिनिधित्व का अंतर है।
10. देवनागरी लिपि में कुल 52 अक्षर होते हैं?
11. भारतीय लिपियों कोई दो विशेषताएँ:
 - a. सभी के लिखने में मात्रा का प्रयोग होता है।

- b. सबमें संयुक्ताक्षरों का प्रयोग होता है।
12. ब्राम्ही लिपि की दक्षिणी शाखा से उत्पन्न दो लिपियाँ
- a. मध्य प्रदेशी लिपि
- b. तेलुगु-कन्नड़
13. मिजो भाषा (मिज़ोरम राज्य की भाषा) रोमन लिपि में लिखी जाती है?

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1.12 निबंधात्मक प्रश्न

1. भाषा की उत्पत्ति के विभिन्न आधार कौन से हैं?
2. भाषा की उत्पत्ति से सम्बंधित विभिन्न आधारों में से आप किससे अधिक सहमत हैं और कौन?
3. लिपि के विकास को रेखांकित करते हुए विश्व की विभिन्न लिपियों की चर्चा कीजिए।
4. भारतीय लिपियों के विकास वर्णन करते हुए सिद्ध कीजिए कि खरोष्ठी लिपि अनेक भारतीय लिपियों की जननी है।

इकाई 2- भाषा और शिक्षा

- 2.1 प्रस्तावना
- 2.2 उद्देश्य
- 2.3 'शिक्षण भाषा मुक्त वातावरण में संभव नहीं है' के सामान्य अवधारणा की सार्थकता
- 2.4 भाषा प्रवीणता/ सभी शिक्षकों के लिए भाषा प्रवीणता की अनिवार्यता
 - 2.4.1 भाषा प्रवीणता
 - 2.4.2 शिक्षक के लिए भाषा प्रवीण/ निपुण होना क्यों आवश्यक है?
- 2.5 भाषा शिक्षा के माध्यम के रूप में
- 2.6 शब्दावली
- 2.7 अभ्यास प्रश्नों के उत्तर
- 2.8 संदर्भ ग्रंथ सूची व उपयोगी पाठ्यसामग्री
- 2.9 निबंधात्मक प्रश्न

2.1 प्रस्तावना

भाषा मानव के लिए एक विलक्षण शक्ति, क्षमता और पहिचान है। आप गहनता से विचार करेंगे तो देख सकते हैं कि भाषा का मानव प्रजाति से एक विशिष्ट सम्बंध है। रेयमण्ड विल्लिअम्स (Williams, 1977) महोदय ने तो यहाँ तक कह दिया कि भाषा की कोई भी परिभाषा प्रत्यक्ष य अप्रत्यक्ष रूप से मानवमात्र की परिभाषा है। भाषा को परिभाषित करना अत्यंत दुरूह व अनन्त की खोज करने जैसा है। इसकी अनन्त तरीके से अनन्त परिभाषाएँ दी जा सकती हैं। इसकी अमूर्त प्रकृति के कारण फ्रांसीसी मनोभाषाविज्ञानी (Psycholinguist) जूलिया क्रिस्तेवा (1989) ने कहा कि भाषा आज भी अज्ञात तत्व है। भाषा को समझना और इसकी उत्पत्ति व प्रभाव के बारे में शोध करना किसी एक विषय क्षेत्र की बात नहीं है। दर्शन से लेकर तंत्रिकाविज्ञान जैसे नवीनतम विषयों में मानवभाषा के विषय में अध्ययन किया जाता है। वर्तमान भाषाविज्ञानियों का मानना है कि भाषा की क्षमता को समझने के लिए ठोस अंतर्विषयी सहयोग की आवश्यकता है। इन विषयों में विकासवादी-जीवविज्ञान, नृशास्त्र, मनोविज्ञान और तंत्रिका-विज्ञान आदि प्रमुख हैं।

भाषा का शिक्षा की विषय और क्षेत्र में महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका है क्योंकि भाषा सिर्फ सम्प्रेषण का माध्यम ही नहीं वरन् व्यक्ति के विचारों का आधार होती है। यह तथ्यात्मकरूप से सिद्ध किया जा चुका है कि भाषा या शब्दों का मानव मस्तिष्क पर वृहद असर होता है (Borodotsky, 2001)। उदाहरण हेतु आप मानव के धार्मिक व्यवहार को ले सकते हैं और आप देख सकते हैं कि विभिन्न धर्मों के अनुआयियों

के मध्य जो मतभेद और संघर्ष होता है वह मुख्यतः भाषा का ही संघर्ष है। कुछ धार्मिक शब्द जो किसी धर्म के मानने वालों के लिए उर्जा का श्रोत तथा पवित्रता का आधार होते हैं और उस धर्म विशेष के मानने वाले व्यक्तियों में अनुशासन व संयम का संचार करते हैं, उन्हीं शब्दों का प्रभाव अन्य धर्म के व्यक्तियों के लिए शून्य होता है, और कभी कभी घृणा, विद्वेष आदि नकारात्मक भावनाओं के साथ साथ उर्जा का क्षय भी करते हैं। कहने का अर्थ यह है कि किसी विशेष भाषासमूह का सदस्य होने और संस्कृति विशेष का अनुयायी होने के आधार पर हमारे चिंतन की क्षमता और दिशा दोनों ही प्रभावित होती हैं। भाषा के अभाव में सम्प्रेषण और चिंतन दोनों ही सम्भव नहीं हैं। इस प्रकार हम देख सकते हैं कि भाषा के अभाव में शिक्षा की व्यवस्था का अस्तित्व कल्पनातीत लगने लगता है। भाषा और शिक्षा अन्योन्याश्रित सांस्कृतिक तत्व हैं।

2.2 उद्देश्य

इस इकाई को को पढ़ने के उपरांत आप:

1. भाषा और शिक्षा के सम्बंध की विवेचना कर सकेंगे;
2. शिक्षण में भाषा की भूमिका का मूल्यांकन कर सकेंगे;
3. भाषा प्रवीणता के सम्प्रत्यय को स्पष्ट कर सकेंगे;
4. शिक्षकों के लिए भाषा-प्रवीण होने की आवश्यकता की समालोचना कर सकेंगे;
5. भाषा का शिक्षण माध्यम के रूप में वर्णन कर सकेंगे।

2.3 'शिक्षण भाषा मुक्त वातावरण में संभव नहीं है' के सामान्य अवधारणा की सार्थकता (Significance Of The General Notion That Teaching Cannot Take Place In A Language-Free Environment.)

पिछली इकाई में आप भाषा और लिपि के उद्भव और विकास का अध्ययन कर चुके हैं। भाषा को यदि हम परिभाषित करें तो शायद मानव जीवन से अलग करके परिभाषित नहीं कर सकते हैं। आप कह सकते हैं कि मानव ने भाषा की रचना नहीं की, आप इसे दैवीय शक्ति द्वारा उत्पन्न मान सकते हैं। इसे नैसर्गिक क्षमता य अनुवांशिक क्षमता भी मान भी सकते हैं। परंतु आप इस बात से इंकार नहीं कर सकते कि लिपि की रचना मानव ने की है। लिपि देश और काल की सीमा से परे एक स्थाई तत्व है। जब लिपि सीखने की बात आती है तब अधिगम, शिक्षण, शिक्षालय आदि सम्प्रत्यय अकस्मात् ही सामने आ जाते हैं। दूसरी ओर यदि हम शिक्षालय की आवश्यकता और उत्पत्ति पर विचार करें तो हम समझ सकते हैं कि किसी भी सभ्यता और काल में शिक्षालय की स्थापना किसी समुदाय विशेष ने अपनी संस्कृति व ज्ञान की रक्षा और इनके स्थायित्व और हस्तांतरण के लिए की होगी। एक विशेष संदर्भ में कहा जा सकता है कि आज भी

विद्यालय य शिक्षण संस्थाओं का यही कार्य है। भाषा (बोली और लिपि) की उत्पत्ति और विकास का इतिहास भी मानव संस्कृति की रक्षा, स्थायित्व तथा हस्तांतरण से जुड़ा हुआ है। अतः भाषा और विद्यालय दोनों की उत्पत्ति का उद्देश्य एक ही लगता है। इस प्रकार ये दोनों एक दूसरे के पूरक या अन्योन्याश्रित कहे जा सकते हैं। विद्यालय में चलने वाली प्रक्रिया जिसे शिक्षण अधिगम कहते हैं, के अस्तित्व में आने के दो आधारभूत और अधिव्यापित (Overlapping) कारण हो सकते हैं। प्रथम कारण यह कि समाज/सभ्यता विशेष की भाषा और लिपि हो सकती है जिसे अगली पीढ़ी द्वारा सीखने की आवश्यकता ने शिक्षण और शिक्षालयों को जन्म दिया होगा। द्वितीय स्वयं लिपि और भाषा की उपलब्धता। भाषा उपलब्ध होने से हम अगली पीढ़ी को सांस्कृतिक उपलब्धियां हस्तांतरित कर सकते हैं। यदि भाषा नहीं होती तो मानव में शायद पशुओं से अधिक संप्रेषण नहीं होता। जब संप्रेषण का माध्यम नहीं तो ज्ञान और अनुभव के हस्तांतरण की कल्पना नहीं की जा सकती थी। अतः शिक्षण, विद्यालय आदि आदि की आवश्यकता ही नहीं पड़ती। इस प्रकार भाषा शिक्षण का उद्देश्य और माध्यम दोनों ही बन जाती है। भाषा शिक्षण की प्रक्रिया और परिणाम दोनों में इस तरह से मिश्रित है कि हम अंतर नहीं कर सकते हैं यदि हम शिक्षण से भाषा तत्व को निकाल दें, तो यह शुद्ध दूध में से दूध और पानी अलग अलग निकालने जैसा होगा अर्थात् अनावश्यक विघटन कह सकते हैं।

हम एक दूसरे पहलू से भी भाषा के शिक्षण से संबंध का अध्ययन करते हैं। एक प्रश्न पर ध्यान दीजिए और अपने उत्तर को नीचे दिए हुए रिक्त स्थान पर लिखिए।

शिक्षण क्यों? अथवा शिक्षण की आवश्यकता क्यों?

विभिन्न शब्दों में आपके पास इस प्रश्न के जितने भी उत्तर होंगे उनको हम सार रूप में एक उत्तर में समेट सकते हैं। वह यह है कि शिक्षण बच्चों को अधिगम कराने य सिखाने के लिए किया जाता है।

अब अधिगम क्या है?

यहाँ आपके मस्तिष्क पर दबाव डाले बिना बताना चाहूँगा कि जब बच्चा अपने पर्यावरण से अंतर्क्रिया करते हुए अपने अनुभवों का अर्थ समझ लेता है या एक विशेष अर्थ को गढ़ लेता है तब हम उसे सीखना कह सकते हैं। साधारण अर्थ में सीखना एक अर्थ निरूपण की प्रक्रिया (Meaning Making Process) है, जो कि भाषा की प्रक्रिया से अलग नहीं है (Halliday, 1993)। हेलीडे के अनुसार जो भाषा की सारोत्पत्ति(Ontogenesis) की प्रक्रिया है वही समान प्रक्रिया सीखने की भी है। जब कोई बच्चा भाषा सीखता है तो सीखने की जड़ या बुनियाद को सीखता है(Learning to Learn)। विद्यालय में शिक्षक और विद्यार्थियों के मध्य संवाद के माध्यम से शिक्षा की प्रक्रिया भाषा के आदान प्रदान(शिक्षण) की प्रक्रिया हो जाती है। भाषा का प्रयोग एक ऐसी प्रक्रिया है जिससे हमारे अनुभव ज्ञान में परिवर्तित होते हैं। अतः हम भाषा और अधिगम को अलग-अलग करते हुए नहीं समझ सकते हैं। दूसरी ओर हम जानते हैं कि अधिगम और शिक्षण दोनों एक प्रक्रिया के दो पहलू हैं। अतः अधिगम और शिक्षण; शिक्षण और

भाषा एक दूसरे से सम्बंधित हो जाते हैं। विद्यालयी संदर्भ में अधिगम का आधार शिक्षण होता है और शिक्षण का आधार भाषा।

जब हम किसी भी विषय को पढ़ाते हैं तब हम उसमें क्या पढ़ाते हैं? उदाहरण हेतु विज्ञान में बल, ऊर्जा आदि और वाणिज्य में कराधान, लेखा आदि। ये बल, ऊर्जा, कराधान, लेखा, आदि सभी शब्द विशेष ही हैं। जब कोई बच्चा किसी विषय के संदर्भ विशेष में प्रयुक्त तकनीकी शब्दों का अर्थ समझने लगता है, तब वह उस विषय को समझने लगता है। हमेशा से अमूर्त संप्रत्ययों (Concepts) और विशेष अवधारणाओं को व्युत्पत्तिशास्त्रीय (Etymological) आधार पर विश्लेषित और स्पष्ट करने की परंपरा रही है, जोकि भाषा शास्त्र का एक अंग ही है। जब भी कोई शिक्षक भाषाशास्त्रीय तकनीकों का प्रयोग करते हुए शिक्षण करता है तब उसका शिक्षण अधिक सार्थक और प्रभावी होता है। हम अक्सर सुनते हैं कि अमुख शिक्षक/विद्यार्थी में सम्प्रत्ययी समझ (Conceptual Understanding) अच्छी है या इसका अभाव है। इस समझ का आधार सम्प्रत्ययों का व्युत्पत्तिशास्त्रीय विश्लेषण करने का गुण होता है। हम देख सकते हैं कि भाषा इस प्रकार एक शिक्षण की तकनीक भी बन कर उभरती है।

शिक्षण की प्रक्रिया को जो परिणाम है, जिसे हम ज्ञान कहते हैं, वह कोई भी सूचना/ज्ञान नहीं होता है बल्कि समाज विशेष द्वारा स्वीकृत वैधता प्राप्त ज्ञान ही विद्यालयों में हस्तांतरित किया जाता है। और इसका माध्यम सिर्फ और सिर्फ भाषा (लिपि) ही हो सकती है। भाषा द्वारा प्राप्त ज्ञान की पहचान की जा सकता है और उसका पुनः परीक्षण किया जा सकता है (Akinanaso, 1992)। अंत में एक बात और ध्यान देने वाली है कि शिक्षण अधिगम प्रक्रिया प्रमुख रूप से एक संज्ञानात्मक (Cognitive) प्रक्रिया है। बच्चा सीखता तभी है जब वह संज्ञानात्मक रूप से सक्रिय अधिगमकर्ता होता है; अर्थात् जब वह चिंतन (Thinking) करता है। हम जानते हैं कि भाषा चिंतन प्रक्रिया का आधार ही नहीं बल्कि उसका हिस्सा भी होती है। अतः भाषा के अभाव में चिंतन और चिंतन के अभाव में शिक्षण-अधिगम प्रक्रिया की कल्पना करना भी कल्पना से परे है। अतः हम कह सकते हैं कि भाषा-मुक्त वातावरण में या भाषा विहीन वातावरण में शिक्षण की संभावना नहीं है। भाषा शिक्षण-अधिगम की आवश्यक शर्त है। इस लिए शिक्षण वृत्ति (Teaching Profession) को अपनाने वाले व्यक्ति भाषा प्रवीण होने जरूरी है। भाषा-प्रवीणता के सम्प्रत्यय की चर्चा हम इसी इकाई में आगे करेंगे।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

1. अधिगम से क्या तात्पर्य है?
2. भाषा और अधिगम किस प्रकार सम्बंधित है?
3. सम्प्रत्ययी समझ (Conceptual Understanding) का क्या आधार है?

2.4 भाषा प्रवीणता और सभी शिक्षकों के लिए भाषा प्रवीणता की अनिवार्यता (Proficiency in A Language/Languages as An Imperative for all Teachers)

2.4.1 भाषा प्रवीणता

अभी तक आप भाषा के संप्रत्य को अच्छी तरह से समझ ही चुके होंगे। यदि आप प्रवीणता शब्द के अर्थ को जानते हैं तो आसानी से भाषा प्रवीणता के संप्रत्य और महत्व को समझ सकते हैं।

प्रवीणता से तात्पर्य किसी कार्य को कुशलता पूर्वक करने की क्षमता से है। इस प्रकार हम भाषा प्रवीणता को किसी व्यक्ति के अन्दर किसी भाषा को कुशलता पूर्वक प्रयोग करने की क्षमता कह सकते हैं। अब बात यह आती है कि भाषा को तो हम सभी प्रयोग करते हैं, जो पढ़े लिखे नहीं हैं वे लोग भी सामाजिक अंतर्क्रिया के लिए भाषा का प्रयोग करते ही हैं। फिर यह कुशलतापूर्वक भाषा प्रयोग से क्या तात्पर्य है? इस प्रश्न का एक निहितार्थ यह है कि भाषा के प्रयोग में कुछ कौशल (Skill) तो निहित जरूर है, जो व्यक्ति को सीखने पड़ते होंगे। यदि आप विभिन्न राजनीतिज्ञों, वकीलों, धार्मिक उपदेशकों के भाषणों व प्रवचनों पर ध्यान दें तो आप कुशलतापूर्वक और अकुशलतापूर्वक भाषा प्रयोग के अंतर को समझ सकते हैं। शिक्षण-वृत्ति (Teaching Profession) भी एक ऐसा कार्य है जिसमें भाषा के कौशलों को सीखना और अभ्यास करना अनिवार्य शर्त होती है। वे कौन से भाषा कौशल है जो एक शिक्षक को अभ्यास के साथ सीखने चाहिए? आप यदि भाषा के अवयवों पर ध्यान देंगे तो आसानी से उत्तर प्राप्त कर सकते हैं किसी भी भाषा में चार मूलभूत कौशल होते हैं जिन्हें भाषा के प्रयोगकर्ता को सीखना होता है। यह चारों कौशल अंतर्सम्बंधित और अधिव्यापित भी है। सिर्फ अध्ययन सुविधा के लिए हम अंतर करके समझने की कोशिश कर रहे हैं।

- i. सुनना अथवा श्रवण (Listening)
- ii. बोलना (Speaking)
- iii. पढ़ना (Reading)
- iv. लिखना (Writing)

भाषा के सीखने में हम इन्हीं चार मूलभूत कौशलों को अर्जित करते हैं। अर्जन की विधियाँ व प्रविधियाँ इस इकाई के विषय क्षेत्र में नहीं आती है, अतः भाषा अर्जन कैसे करते हैं इसकी चर्चा नहीं करेंगे। इन चार प्रमुख तथा मूलभूत कौशलों के अलावा सहित्यिक-संस्कृतिक कौशल भी होते हैं। आगे बात यह आती है कि कोई भी सामान्य व्यक्ति भाषा को सुनना और बोलना जानता ही है और यदि वह साक्षर भी है तो पढ़ना और लिखना भी जानता है, तो क्या हम उसे भाषा प्रवीण नहीं कह सकते हैं? इस प्रश्न के उत्तर के पहले हम जान लें कि प्रवीणता के संप्रत्य में दो तत्व अनिवार्य रूप से होते हैं:

- i. शुद्धता (Clarity) और
- ii. प्रवाह (Fluency)

अतः जो व्यक्ति किसी भाषा का शुद्धता के साथ प्रवाहमय तरीके से प्रयोग करता है, तो उसे हम भाषा-प्रवीण कहते हैं। भाषा प्रवीणता को हम भाषा प्रयोग के विभिन्न आयामों या चारों कौशलों के आधार पर परख सकते हैं। यह चार भाषा कौशल प्रथमदृष्टया तो सामान्य सी बात लगते हैं परंतु इनमें कुशलता प्राप्त करना एक लंबी साधना का कार्य है। एक भाषा प्रवीण व्यक्ति के लिए भाषा को विभिन्न पक्षों का ज्ञान होना प्रथम शर्त होती है और भाषा के ये पक्ष भाषा के विभिन्न कौशलों और उनके विकास से अभिन्न रूप से जुड़े हुए हैं। इन्हें भाषाशास्त्र के उपविषयों के रूप में जाते हैं जो कि इस प्रकार हैं;

- i. ध्वनि विज्ञान (Phonology)
- ii. शब्द विज्ञान (Morphology)
- iii. व्याकरण/संरचना (Syntax)
- iv. अर्थविज्ञान (Semantics)

भाषा के इन पक्षों को सीखना ही भाषा सीखना होता है। अब भाषा के इन पक्षों का ज्ञान हमारे भाषा प्रयोग को कैसे प्रभावित करता है? इसको भी समझ लेते हैं। इन पक्षों का ज्ञान किसी भाषा की ध्वनि को भ्रमित हुए बिना सुनने, शुद्ध व स्पष्ट उच्चारण करने/बोलने, लिखे हुए शब्दों को पढ़ने और उनका अर्थ समझने तथा स्पष्टता व शुद्धतापूर्वक लिखने की कुशलता प्रदान करता है। अर्थात् सभी कौशलों का विकास करता है। साथ ही भाषा के चारों कौशलों पर प्रवाहमयता का संप्रत्यय भी लागू होता है। प्रवाहमय बोलना, पढ़ना, और लिखना तो हम आसानी से समझते हैं परंतु प्रभावपूर्ण सुनना थोड़ा अनोखा लगेगा। आपने अनुभव किया होगा कि हम(सभी सामान्य व्यक्ति) किसी भी वक्तव्य को सक्रियता के साथ ध्यानपूर्वक अर्थ समझते हुए लंबे समय तक नहीं सुन सकते हैं। बशर्ते कि हमारी उस विषय में विशेष रुचि हो या हम विशिष्ट व कुशल श्रोता हों। कुशल श्रोता वह होता है जो अपने संज्ञानात्मक प्रक्रियाओं पर नियंत्रण स्थापित कर लेता है। अर्थात् कुशल श्रोता उच्च-संज्ञानात्मक(Metacognitive) रणनीतियों साथ सुनता है। यह कौशल सुनने के अभ्यास से विकसित हो पाता है। प्रथम भाषा ज्ञान तो अचेतन अवस्था में भी होता रहता है लेकिन यदि आप द्वितीय भाषा को उदाहरण के रूप में लेते हैं तो आप समझ सकते हैं कि द्वितीय भाषा अंग्रेजी(उदाहरणार्थ) के भाषणों, व्याख्यानों, गीतों को समझने के लिए हमें सुनने में भी कुशलता प्राप्त करनी होती है। समझते हुए या अर्थसहित शब्दों को सुनने के लिए भाषा के श्रवण कौशल में भी शुद्धता और प्रवाह की आवश्यकता होती है।

2.4.2 शिक्षक के लिए भाषा प्रवीण/निपुण होना क्यों आवश्यक है?

भाषा सूचना, तथ्यों और सामान अर्थों में ज्ञान की वाहक होती है। यदि आप शिक्षक-वृत्ति से संबंधित कार्यों पर थोड़ा सा भी ध्यान देंगे तो आप स्वयं ही समझ जाएंगे कि भाषा-निपुणता एक शिक्षक होने के लिए अनिवार्य शर्त है। हम इस विषय पर बिंदुवार चर्चा करेंगे।

1. जो ज्ञान एक शिक्षक प्राप्त करता है वह भाषा के माध्यम से ही प्राप्त करता है और भाषा के माध्यम से ही अपने विद्यार्थियों को सौंप देता है। यदि आप ज्ञान को सामान्य अर्थ से अलग

रचनात्मकतावादी(Constructivist) संदर्भ में ही समझना चाहते हैं तब भी भाषा के बिना ज्ञान संभव नहीं है। क्योंकि भाषा हमारी चिंतन प्रक्रिया की हिस्सा होती है। हम एक भाषाई समुदाय के सदस्य होने के नाते एक विशेष प्रकार से सोच रखने लगते हैं(Borodotsky, 2001)। अतः यह कहना प्रत्येक तरह से वैध ही होगा कि एक शिक्षक शिक्षण से पूर्व जो ज्ञान और कौशल अर्जित करता है वह भाषा के माध्यम से ही करता है और जो ज्ञान वह अगली पीढ़ी में संप्रेषित करता है वह भी भाषा के माध्यम से ही करता है।

2. यदि आप कक्षाकक्ष संप्रेषण के संप्रत्य को समझ रहे हैं तो आपको यह समझने में कठिनाई नहीं होगी कि भाषा ही संप्रेषण का मुख्य माध्यम होती है। भाषा के बिना संप्रेषण पानी के बिना नाव चलाने जैसा ही होगा। संप्रेषण (Communication) की प्रक्रिया में भाषा एक अनिवार्य तत्व है। यहाँ सांकेतिक भाषा को भी शामिल करते हुए कह सकते हैं कि भाषा नहीं संप्रेषण नहीं (No language, No Communication)।
संप्रेषण की सामान्य प्रक्रिया में कुछ बाधक तत्व होते भी हैं। इन बाधक तत्वों में एक बड़ा वर्ग भाषायी बाधक तत्वों का होता है। कक्षाकक्ष में प्रभावी और पक्के(insured) संप्रेषण के लिए शिक्षकों में शैक्षिक-भाषाविज्ञान का ज्ञान होना परम आवश्यक हो जाता है। विषय कोई भी हो पर भाषा के बिना संवाद स्थापित करना और उसको नियंत्रित और निर्देशित करना संभव नहीं है। अतः सभी शिक्षकों को अनिवार्यरूप से भाषा निपुण होना चाहिए है।
3. भाषा की प्रकृति की अच्छी समझ होने से शिक्षक अपने वक्तव्यों और व्याख्यानों को कुशलतापूर्वक संरचित कर सकते हैं। वह अपने प्रश्नों को इस प्रकार से संरचित कर सकते हैं कि विद्यार्थियों का मस्तिष्क-उद्वेलन (Brain-Storming) सम्भव हो सके।
4. भाषा निपुण शिक्षक भाषा विषय नहीं भी पढ़ाते हो तब भी अपने सामान्य व्यवहार से विद्यार्थियों में भाषा ज्ञान का संचार करते रहते हैं। अर्थात् भाषा का क्रियात्मक ज्ञान भूमिका-प्रतिमान (Role Modelling) पद्धति से चलता रहता है।
5. भाषा निपुण शिक्षक बच्चों के उत्तरों के पूर्ण न होने पर भी उनको समझ लेते हैं, बच्चों के उत्तरों की पूर्ति करके उन्हें प्रोत्साहित कर सकते हैं। इस पूर्ति करने के उदाहरण से आप सहमत नहीं भी हो सकते हैं। लेकिन यदि आप स्मरण कर सके तो आपके बोलने और लिखने में आपकी माता, प्रथम शिक्षिका/शिक्षक और घर में बड़े लोगों द्वारा शब्द/ध्वनि/ अक्षर पूर्ति और संशोधन का विशेष योगदान रहा है। शिक्षकों को भी बच्चों के अपूर्ण वाक्यों को स्वीकार करते हुए पूर्ण करना होता है।
6. भाषा निपुण शिक्षक बच्चों की बातों की अच्छी समझ रखते हैं। जिससे उन्हें बच्चों की समझ और पूर्व-ज्ञान का पूर्ण-ज्ञान होता है। शिक्षक बच्चों के मध्य होने वाले संवाद के प्रारूप को भलीभांति समझते है। और इन सब बातों के विश्लेषण से वे शिक्षण की दिशा पहचानने और निर्धारित करने में निपुण हो जाते हैं। इस प्रकार भाषा-निपुणता शिक्षण-निपुणता की आधार ही नहीं अपितु आवश्यक शर्त हो जाती है।

7. भाषा निपुण शिक्षक बच्चों में भाषा-विकास के चरणों को अच्छे से समझते हैं और तदनु रूप विकास की प्रक्रिया को पोषित और संवर्धित करते हैं। वे बच्चों की भाषायी गलतियों को अवसरनुकूल संभालते, नियंत्रित करते और सुधारते हैं। भाषा निपुण शिक्षक बच्चों के जीवन में प्रथम-भाषा और उनकी घर की भाषा के महत्व को समझते हुए उसको खत्म नहीं करते हैं, बल्कि उसका बच्चों में ज्ञान के संवर्धन हेतु प्रयोग करते हैं। वे अपनी भाषा या विद्यालयी भाषा बच्चों पर थोपते नहीं हैं। अर्थात् स्कूल की भाषा(अकादमिक भाषा) को गृह भाषा की कीमत पर नहीं सिखाते हैं। फलतः शैक्षिक भाषाशास्त्र का ज्ञानी शिक्षक सभी वर्ग और संस्कृतियों के बच्चों का विकास करने में सक्षम होता है। ऐसे शिक्षक बहुभाषायी कक्षा में भाषायी अल्पसंख्यक बच्चों का उचित ध्यान रख पाते हैं।
8. विद्यालय पूर्व बच्चों में अलग-अलग भाषाओं का विभिन्न स्तर पर विकास होता है। हो सकता है कि अपनी मातृभाषा में बच्चा बहुत उत्कृष्ट प्रगति किया हो पर देखा गया है कि भाषाशास्त्र और भाषा-विकास के उचित ज्ञान के अभाव में शिक्षक उस भाषा विकास को नकार देते हैं। देखा गया है कि अंग्रेजी माध्यम विद्यालयों में बच्चे द्वारा हिंदी या अपनी मातृभाषा के प्रयोग पर अर्थदण्ड भी लिया जाता है। शैक्षिक भाषाविज्ञान का सत्य ज्ञानी शिक्षक इस तरह के दण्ड निर्धारण तो दूर बल्कि अपनी उपस्थिति में इस तरह कई नियम स्वीकार नहीं कर सकता है।
9. प्रौढ़ स्तर के व्यक्तियों के लिए तय मानकों का प्रयोग करते हुए बच्चों की भाषा प्रगति का मूल्यांकन खतरनाक हो सकता है। यह मानक बच्चे के अंदर हीन भावना उत्पन्न करते हुए बच्चे को हमेशा हमेशा के लिए कक्षा में चुप रहने वाला बना सकता है। एक भाषा निपुण शिक्षिका/शिक्षक एक अच्छे मूल्यांकनकर्ता भी साबित होते हैं, क्योंकि उन्हें भाषा की प्रकृति और विकास के चरणों का सही ज्ञान होता है।
किसी भी विषय का शिक्षक हो उसको अपने विषय के शिक्षण और मूल्यांकन हेतु भाषा के मूलभूत कौशलों का प्रयोग करना और छात्रों से करवाना पड़ता है। शिक्षक बच्चों द्वारा लिखे उत्तरों का भाषाशास्त्रीय विश्लेषण करते हुए उसके सही होने या सही के निकट होने का निर्णय कर सकने में सक्षम होते हैं।
10. शिक्षकों को समाज के शिक्षित सदस्य होने के नाते उस समाज की भाषा की प्रकृति, व्याकरण, शब्द संरचना आदि की जानकारी होना अनिवार्य होता है। वे अपने समुदाय की भाषा को संवर्धित करते रहते हैं। भाषा का कार्य क्या है? और यह अपना कार्य कैसे करती है? इसकी जानकारी होने से वे सामाजिक अंतर्क्रिया को एक उचित दिशा प्रदान कर सकते हैं। साथ ही शिक्षक स्वयं अच्छे पाठक और लेखक भी हो सकते हैं।
11. आप जानते ही हैं कि भाषा एक संस्कृतिक तत्व और समाजीकरण की प्रक्रिया की प्रमुख आधार और घटक होती है। जब बच्चा 5 से 6 वर्ष की आयु में विद्यालय आता है तब उसकी मातृभाषा के माध्यम से सामाजीकरण की प्रक्रिया काफी हद तक हो चुकी होती है। यदि इस समय हम गृह-भाषा को विद्यालय परिसर में प्रतिबंधित कर देते हैं और विद्यालयी भाषा को अनिवार्य कर देते हैं

(जैसा कि तथाकथित अंग्रेजी माध्यम की विद्यालयों में हो रहा है) , तो हम अबतक हुए सामाजिकरण के प्रतिफल को बर्बाद कर देते हैं। भाषा के सामाजिक संदर्भ को समझने वाला भाषा निपुण शिक्षक सामाजिकरण की प्रक्रिया के महत्व को समझता है। वह प्रत्येक बच्चे की मातृभाषा तो नहीं सीख सकता है पर कक्षाकक्ष में एक उदारता पूर्ण माहौल बनाकर बच्चों की विद्यालयी भाषा सीखने तक उनकी पूर्व अर्जित क्षमताओं को क्षय होने से बचा सकता है। विद्यालय और घर की भाषा अलग अलग होने पर भी विद्यालय को सामाजिक विकास की दृष्टि से हानिकारक नहीं होना चाहिए। यह तभी संभव है जब शिक्षक भाषा और संस्कृति के सम्बन्ध को समझ रखता हो और बालक के विकास में इसके प्रभाव को अंदाजा लगाने में सक्षम हो।

उपरोक्त विश्लेषण और चर्चा से यह नहीं समझना चाहिए कि सभी शिक्षक भाषा-शिक्षक का प्रशिक्षण प्राप्त करें, या सभी शिक्षक भाषा शिक्षण का कार्य ही करें। बल्कि इसका तात्पर्य यह है कि शिक्षक भाषा प्रयोग के प्रति संवेदनशील हो तथा भाषा की संरचना और कार्य की समझ रखते हो। किसी व्यक्ति के जीवन में, किसी परिवार में, किसी समाज में भाषा/मातृभाषा/सामुदायिक भाषा का क्या महत्व होता है इसकी समझ रखते हो। शिक्षक को शैक्षिक-भाषाविज्ञान की जानकारी होना आवश्यक है क्योंकि वह एक संप्रेषक है, शिक्षक है, मूल्यांकन करता है, क्योंकि वह समाज का एक शिक्षित व्यक्ति है, क्योंकि वह सामाजिकरण की प्रक्रिया का प्रतिनिधि है (Fillmore and snow, 2000).

2.5 भाषा शिक्षा के माध्यम के रूप में (Language as a Medium of Teaching)

जैसा कि पूर्व में भी चर्चा की जा चुकी है कि भाषा का क्षेत्र अत्यधिक वृहद है। इसका क्षेत्र विस्तार व्यक्ति के समस्त कार्य-व्यापार और विषयों तक है। यही कारण है कि भाषा के विषय में विज्ञान, मानविकी, सामाजिक विषयों, तकनीकी विषयों आदि सभी क्षेत्रों में किसी न किसी रूप में अध्ययन किया जाता है। प्रसिद्ध समाज-भाषाशास्त्री (Socio-Linguist) हैलीडे महोदय ने भाषा की तीन परिप्रेक्ष्य बताए हैं।

1. भाषा सीखना (एक विषय के रूप में): हिन्दी, अंग्रेजी, संस्कृत, तमिल आदि भाषाओं का अध्ययन करना।
2. भाषा द्वारा सीखना (माध्यम के रूप में): हिन्दी माध्यम से विज्ञान, गणित, इतिहास विषयों का अध्ययन करना।
3. तृतीय भाषा के विषय में सीखना (किसी भाषा के विषय में भाषाशास्त्रीय विवेचना): अंग्रेजी भाषा की प्रकृति, ध्वनिशास्त्र, शब्दशास्त्र, संरचना आदि की विवेचनात्मक और विश्लेषणात्मक अध्ययन करना।

यहां हम द्वितीय संदर्भ 'भाषा शिक्षा के माध्यम के रूप में' का अध्ययन करेंगे। जब हम भाषा एक माध्यम की चर्चा करते हैं तो इसका सीधा संबंध उस भाषा से होता है जो विद्यालय में पाठ्यचर्या के

निष्पादन हेतु प्रयोग की जाती है। भाषा का यह कार्य अपने आप में गहन निहितार्थ रखता है। भाषा का सम्प्रेषण के माध्यम के रूप में कार्य करना एक ऐसी विशेषता है जो हमें मानव सभ्यता की जड़ की ओर सोचने के लिए बाध्य करती है। हमें लगता है कि भाषा में व्यक्ति के विचार, सूचना, ज्ञान आदि को दूसरे व्यक्ति तक पहुँचाने की क्षमता ने ही समाज की पृष्ठभूमि रखी होगी। क्योंकि कोई भी समाज स्थायी नियमों और परंपराओं से संगठित होता है, जो कि एक स्पष्ट सम्प्रेषण के माध्यम के अभाव में सम्भव नहीं हो सकता है। विद्यालय की संकल्पना भी यहीं से उद्भूत होती हुई प्रतीत होती है। जब एक पीढ़ी अपनी संचित ज्ञान व उपलब्धियाँ दूसरी पीढ़ी को हस्तांतरित करने का प्रयास करती है और भाषा जैसे उपकरण के द्वारा हस्तांतरित करने में सक्षम भी होती है, तब विद्यालय जैसी संस्था का उदय होता है। प्रसिद्ध रूसी मनोवैज्ञानिक वायगोत्स्की (Vygotsky, 1962) ने भी इसी संदर्भ में भाषा के दो कार्य बताये हैं। प्रथम भाषा एक मनोवैज्ञानिक उपकरण है जो हमारी चिंतन और तर्क की प्रक्रिया में सहायता करती है और दूसरा भाषा एक सांस्कृतिक उपकरण के रूप में कार्य करती है। वायगोत्स्की के दोनो ही संदर्भ भाषा को शिक्षण की प्रक्रिया से जोड़ते हैं। प्रथम ज्ञान रचना प्रक्रिया (चिंतन) और दूसरा संरचित ज्ञान (संस्कृति) की ओर इशारा करता है। उन्होंने सामूहिक ज्ञान को ही संस्कृति कहा है। अतः सामूहिक ज्ञान या संस्कृति के आदान-प्रदान-प्रसार हेतु भाषा एक प्रमुख माध्यम है। इस सांस्कृतिक प्रसार की प्रक्रिया के लिए जो एक स्थान निश्चित हो जाता है उसे हम विद्यालय कहते हैं। जब इन्हीं सांस्कृतिक उपलब्धियों को लिखित भाषा के माध्यम से स्थायित्व और वैद्यता प्रदान करके एक संरचित रूप प्रदान कर दिया जाता है तब हम इसे पाठ्यचर्या कह सकते हैं और इस पाठ्यचर्या के निष्पादन को शिक्षण कहा जाता है जो किसी न किसी भाषा के माध्यम से ही संभव है। यहाँ हम देख सकते हैं कि शिक्षण ही नहीं अपितु सम्पूर्ण शिक्षा व्यवस्था के उद्भव और संचालन में भाषा की मुख्य भूमिका है।

जब हम भाषा एक शिक्षण माध्यम की बात करते हैं तब किसी एक भाषा विशेष की बात नहीं कह सकते हैं। शिक्षण का माध्यम एकभाषी, द्विभाषी और बहुभाषी भी हो सकता है। यह कोई मानकीकृत भाषा जैसे कि हिंदी अंग्रेजी आदि हो सकती है और कोई उप-भाषा या बोली भी हो सकती है जैसे कि गढ़वाली, कुमाऊनी आदि।

प्रायः सभी विद्यालयों में शिक्षण के एक प्रमुख भाषा होती है जो कि एक विद्यालय प्रबंध समिति या सरकार द्वारा निर्धारित की जाती है। शासकीय प्रावधानों के अलावा शिक्षक और बच्चों की भाषा भी शिक्षण अधिगम के निर्धारण का कार्य करती है। उदाहरण के लिए सरकार ने हिंदी भाषा को शिक्षण माध्यम के रूप में स्वीकार किया है और शिक्षक व छात्र कुछ विद्यालयों में गढ़वाली य कुमाऊनी उपभाषाओं में संवाद करते हैं। इस उदाहरण को नकारात्मक रूप से नहीं लेना चाहिए। शिक्षण-अधिगम की सुगमता हेतु शिक्षण के माध्यम में परिवर्तन किया जा सकता है। इसका कारण आप जानते ही है कि शिक्षण का लक्ष्य बच्चों के व्यवहार परिवर्तन (अधिगम) करना और उनमें सूझ विकसित करना होता है। साथ ही आप यह भी जानते ही है कि कोई भी व्यक्ति अपनी प्रथम भाषा में शीघ्रता से समझता है। अतएव प्रभावशाली और भाषा प्रवीण शिक्षक किसी एक भाषा पर आश्रित नहीं रहता है। आज का समय

बहुआयामी, बहुभाषायी व बहुतकनीकी सुलभ है। हमें भाषा एक विषय से अलग भाषा एक माध्यम के संप्रत्यय को भी अच्छे से समझना होगा। हम जान रहे हैं कि भाषा सभी विषयों की आधारशिला है और कहीं ना कहीं किसी न किसी प्रत्येक विषय का शिक्षण भाषा शिक्षण ही होता है। अतः भाषा एक माध्यम के रूप में प्रत्येक विषय के ज्ञान में केंद्रीय भूमिका अदा करती है। बच्चे जिस भाषा को समझते हो, समझने के साथ उस में चिंतन करने की क्षमता रखते हो, वही भाषा एक उचित शिक्षण माध्यम हो सकती है।

शिक्षण का माध्यम होना भाषा के बहुआयामी कार्यों का एक पक्ष मात्र है। भाषा सिर्फ संप्रेषण का माध्यम नहीं है लेकिन संप्रेषण भाषा का एक प्रमुख कार्य है। हम स्पष्ट, प्रत्यक्ष व मूर्त कार्य कह सकते हैं। इसके अलावा भाषा का चिंतन प्रक्रिया का हिस्सा होना, संस्कृति का हिस्सा होना, समाजीकरण की प्रक्रिया का माध्यम होना आदि सभी अमूर्त व अप्रत्यक्ष कार्य कहे जा सकते हैं। आप जब अपनी कक्षा (Classroom) में बच्चों के सामने हो तब बच्चों से एक प्रश्न कर सकते है कि आप कहाँ है? उत्तर होगा कि कक्षा में/क्लास में। तब आप बच्चों से पूछिए कि क्लास कहाँ है? यहाँ उपस्थिति और दृष्टिगोचर वस्तुओं में आप किसे कक्षा कहते है? अनेक उत्तर बच्चों की तरफ से आपको प्राप्त हो सकते है। जैसे कोई कमरे को कक्षा कहेगा, कमरे में मेज, कुर्सी, श्यामपट आदि की उपस्थिति को कक्षा कहेगा। लेकिन यह सब वस्तुएं किसी अन्य कक्ष में भी हो सकती है जो किसी वार्ता या किसी सम्मेलन या परिचर्चा के लिए प्रयोग किया जाता हो। कक्षा-कक्ष(Classroom) के संप्रत्यय को निर्धारित करने वाला कारक शिक्षक और विद्यार्थियों के बीच में अंतर्क्रिया और संवाद होता है। इस संवाद का आधार भाषा ही होती है। इस प्रकार हम कह सकते हैं भाषा सिर्फ शिक्षण का माध्यम नहीं है बल्कि शिक्षण का पर्याय व सारतत्व है जो कक्षा-कक्ष के संप्रत्यय को सही रूप से परिभाषित करती है। भाषा के बिना शिक्षण की प्रक्रिया की कल्पना नहीं की जा सकती है। आप जरा सोचिए कि आप एक शिक्षक हैं और आप भाषा का प्रयोग किए बिना शिक्षण कार्य कर रहे हैं, शायद कल्पनातीत होगा। अंत में यही कह सकते है कि शिक्षक द्वारा भाषा का प्रयोग ही शिक्षण है।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

4. भाषा प्रवीणता में कौन से दो तत्व शामिल है?
5. भाषा के किन्ही दो पक्षों के नाम लिखिए।
6. शिक्षक को शैक्षिक-भाषाविज्ञान की जानकारी क्यों होनी चाहिए?
7. हैलीडे महोदय ने भाषा के कितने परिप्रेक्ष्य बताये है?

2.6 शब्दावली

1. अंतर्सम्बंधित (Interrelated) - एक दुसरे से सम्बंधित या जुड़ा हुआ होना
2. अधिव्यापित (Overlapping) - एक दूसरे पर अच्छादित होना।

3. बहुभाषिकता (Multilingualism) - दो या दो से अधिक भाषाओं का अंतर्सम्बंध और अंतर्क्रिया
4. बहुभाषी (Polyglot or Multiglot) - एक से अधिक भाषाओं का प्रयोग करने वाला
5. संप्रेषण (Communication) - सूचना, संदेश या तथ्यों का आदान प्रदान
6. शैक्षिक-भाषाविज्ञान (Educational Linguistics) - भाषा की शिक्षा में भूमिका का अध्ययन करने वाले विषय
7. व्युत्पत्तिशास्त्रीय (Etymological) - शब्दों की उत्पत्ति और अर्थ निष्पत्ति से सम्बंधित विषय
8. संज्ञानात्मक (Cognitive) - ज्ञान और समझ प्राप्त करने की मानसिक प्रक्रिया से सम्बंधित
9. मस्तिष्क-उद्वेलन (Brain-Storming) - एक शिक्षण प्रविधि जिससे बच्चों में समस्या समाधान की क्षमता विकसित होती है।
10. भूमिका-प्रतिमान (Role Modelling) - एक शिक्षण अधिगम की विधि जिसमें बच्चे अनुकरण से सीखते हैं।
11. घटक (Factor) - एक वृहद तत्व या व्यवस्था का हिस्सा होना

2.7 अभ्यास प्रश्नों के उत्तर

1. अधिगम/सीखना एक अर्थ निरूपण की प्रक्रिया
2. जो भाषा की सारोत्पत्ति (Ontogenesis) की प्रक्रिया है वही समान प्रक्रिया सीखने की भी होती है।
3. सम्प्रत्ययी समझ का आधार सम्प्रत्ययों का व्युत्पत्तिशास्त्रीय विश्लेषण करने का गुण होता है।
4. भाषा प्रवीणता के दो तत्व:
 - a. शुद्धता
 - b. प्रवाह
5. भाषा के पक्ष:
 - a. ध्वनि विज्ञान (Phonology)
 - b. शब्द विज्ञान (Morphology)
6. शिक्षक को शैक्षिक-भाषाविज्ञान की जानकारी होनी चाहिए क्योंकि वह एक संप्रेषक है, शिक्षक है, मूल्यांकन करता है, क्योंकि वह समाज का एक शिक्षित व्यक्ति है, क्योंकि वह समाजीकरण की प्रक्रिया का प्रतिनिधि है।
7. हैलीडे महोदय ने भाषा के तीन परिप्रेक्ष्य बताये हैं।

2.8 संदर्भ ग्रंथ सूची व उपयोगी पाठ्यसामग्री

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2.9 निबंधात्मक प्रश्न

1. भाषा और शिक्षा के सम्बंध पर संक्षिप्त टिप्पणी लिखिए।
2. शिक्षण में भाषा की भूमिका की विवेचना किजिए।
3. भाषा प्रवीणता से आप क्या समझते हैं और शिक्षकों के लिए भाषा प्रवीण होना क्यों आवश्यक है?
4. 'भाषा नहीं संप्रेषण नहीं'(No language, No Communication)। इस वक्तव्य पर अपनी सहमति या असहमति तर्क सहित प्रस्तुत करें।

इकाई 3 - बहुभाषिकता

Multilingualism

- 3.1 प्रस्तावना
- 3.2 उद्देश्य
- 3.3 बहुभाषिकता
- 3.4 कक्षा- कक्ष में भाषायी विभिन्नता
- 3.5 भाषाई पारिस्थितिकी
- 3.6 बहुभाषिकता एक संसाधन के रूप में
- 3.7 विद्यार्थियों की भाषाई पृष्ठभूमि
- 3.8 सारांश
- 3.9 शब्दावली
- 3.10 अभ्यास प्रश्नों के उत्तर
- 3.11 संदर्भ ग्रंथ सूची व उपयोगी पाठ्यसामग्री
- 3.12 निबंधात्मक प्रश्न

3.1 प्रस्तावना

पिछली इकाइयों के अध्ययन से आप यह समझ सकते हैं कि भाषा की अवधारणा सरल के साथ-साथ अत्यधिक जटिल भी है। क्योंकि भाषा के संदर्भ में पूर्णरूपेण से कहना अत्यंत ही कठिन कार्य है। अलग-अलग विषयों के दृष्टिकोण से भाषा को कई तरह से परिभाषित किया जा सकता है। पिछली इकाई में हमने भाषा को मुख्य रूप से एक मौखिक और लिखित प्रतीकों की व्यवस्था के रूप में समझा था। यह भाषा की एक दृश्य व स्थूल अवधारणा है। यदि हम थोड़ा अंदर की परतों की ओर झांकने का प्रयास करते हैं तो और भी तथ्य समझ में आने लगते हैं। समाज-भाषिक(Sociolinguistic) दृष्टिकोण से भाषा सिर्फ प्रतीक चिन्हों की व्यवस्था मात्र नहीं होती है वरन भाषा किसी समाज के विचारों, मान्यताओं, विश्वासों, प्रतीकों, संवाद व सामाजिक रीति रिवाजों की वाहक भी मानी जाती है। किसी भाषा के शब्दों और व्याकरण के नियमों को सीख लेने मात्र से हम उस भाषा में कुशलता प्राप्त नहीं कर सकते हैं, बल्कि हमें उस भाषा के प्रयोग के संस्कृतिक नियमों को भी सीखना पड़ता है। इसे भाषा का प्रयोगशास्त्र (pragmatics) कहते हैं। यहां चर्चा का विषय pragmatics नहीं बल्कि भाषा की अवधारणा में समाहित जटिल संदर्भ य अंदर की परतें हैं, जिनका ज्ञान होना एक शिक्षक होने के नाते जरूरी हो जाता है। भाषा के विषय में यदि यह कहा जाए कि जितने चश्मे उतने रूप, तो यह अतिशयोक्ति नहीं कहा जा

सकता है। भाषा के विषय में तुलसीदास जी की एक पंक्ति सटीक लगती है “जाकी रही भावना जैसी.....”। वस्तुस्थिति के विश्लेषण से ऐसा प्रतीत होता है कि भाषा-नीति और भाषा-शिक्षण के विषय में सरकारों, शिक्षक-शिक्षा संस्थानों, शिक्षकों, शिक्षण संस्थाओं आदि की भावना ठीक नहीं रही है। भारत ही नहीं वरन विश्व के अनेक बहुभाषायी देशों की स्थिति समान ही है। हमारी राजनीतिक व्यवस्था का एकभाषी होना या द्विभाषी होना एक मजबूरी या कमजोरी कही जा सकती है। जिससे कि एक या दो भाषाओं को ही प्रशासकीय भाषा का दर्जा प्राप्त हो सकता है। जबकि समाज में तो बहुत सी भाषाएं प्रचलित होती हैं। हमने पिछली इकाई में पढ़ा ही है कि संपूर्ण विश्व में लगभग 7000 भाषाएं बोली जाती हैं। हमारे देश में ही लगभग 1000 मातृभाषाएं और बोलियां प्रयोग की जाती हैं। अतः बहुभाषिकता इस धरा की एक सामान्य विशेषता है। हमारा देश तो बहुभाषी देशों का एक विशिष्ट मानक उदाहरण है, जहाँ प्रत्येक शिक्षित व्यक्ति (प्राथमिक स्तर पर भी) द्विभाषी या त्रिभाषी होता है। लेकिन इस संदर्भ में शिक्षित होना कोई शर्त नहीं है व्यवसायिक व रोजगार सम्बंधी कारणों से भी लोग बहुभाषी हो जाते हैं। आप ध्यान देंगे तो पायेंगे कि बहुभाषिकता के कारण अनेक हैं।

द्विभाषिकता या बहुभाषिकता कोई शिक्षा के द्वारा पोषित तत्व ही नहीं है। यह एक नैसर्गिक सामाजिक लक्षण है। कुक (Cook, 2002) महोदय के अनुसार “**दो भाषाओं का होना या प्रयोग उतना ही सामान्य तथ्य है जितना कि दो फेफड़ों का होना**”। उनके अनुसार तो सिर्फ एक भाषा का प्रयोग एक दुर्लभ घटना है। फिर भी हमारी अज्ञानता ने इस नैसर्गिक व्यवस्था को काफी नुकसान पहुंचाया है। यद्यपि राजनीतिक, प्रशासनिक, शैक्षिक नीतियों के कारण बहुत सी भाषाएं विलुप्त होने की कगार पर हैं तथापि बहुभाषिकता समाज में विद्यमान है और ऐसा प्रतीत होता है कि भविष्य में भी रहेगी। बड़े-बड़े शहरों में कई भाषाओं के बोलने वाले विभिन्न भाषा क्षेत्रों से लोग आते हैं, और एक बड़े शहर का निर्माण करते हैं। अतः बड़े शहरों की शिक्षा व्यवस्था किसी एक भाषा पर निर्भर नहीं कर सकती है। हम शिक्षकों को विद्यार्थियों की प्रथम भाषा के प्रति थोड़ा संवेदनशील होने की आवश्यकता होती है जिससे कि जो प्रथम भाषा में उनका ज्ञान है उसको हम सही तरीके से शिक्षा में प्रयुक्त कर सकें। जब हम जानते हैं कि समझ (Understanding) का सबसे उत्तम माध्यम प्रथम भाषा ही होती है तब विद्यालय पर बहुभाषिकता के साथ अनुकूलन की अपेक्षा और अधिक बढ़ जाती है। बहुभाषिकता सिर्फ कई भाषा के बोलने वालों के समूह का लक्षण नहीं है बल्कि एक व्यक्ति भी बहुभाषी होता है। यह कोई आज का तथ्य नहीं बल्कि एक ऐतिहासिक सत्य है। हम बहुत सी भाषाएं पूर्ण रूप से और आंशिक रूप से प्रयोग करते हैं। जैसा कि उदाहरण के लिए (1) हम घर की बोलचाल में और भावनाओं को व्यक्त करने में अपनी मातृभाषा का प्रयोग करते हैं जोकि कुमाऊनी, गढ़वाली, नेपाली, भोजपुरी, बुंदेलखंडी आदि विभिन्न संदर्भों में अलग-अलग हो सकती हैं। (2) जबकि प्रशासनिक और वाणिज्यिक क्रियाकलापों में हम अपनी दूसरी भाषा का प्रयोग करते हैं वह अलग अलग राज्यों के लोगों के लिए अलग अलग होती है:— हिंदी भी हो सकती है, बंगाली भी हो सकती है। (3) हमारा जो व्यवहार क्षेत्र है वह सिर्फ दो भाषाओं के आधार पर ही पूर्ण नहीं हो रहा है इसके अलावा भी हम अंतर्राष्ट्रीय व्यवहारों के लिए, शिक्षा के लिए, शोध के क्षेत्र में अंग्रेजी का, जापानी का, चीनी भाषा का, फ्रांसीसी या जर्मनी भाषा का प्रयोग भी करते हैं। यह तो रही तीन

भाषाओं की आवश्यकता का एक उदाहरण लेकिन ये तीन भाषाएँ हमारे जीवन में भाषा की आवश्यकता को पूर्ण नहीं कर पा रही हैं। (4) हम विश्व के सभी धर्मों में देख सकते हैं कि धार्मिक साहित्य और सांस्कृतिक साहित्य प्राचीन शास्त्रीय भाषाओं में ही प्राप्त है। बौद्ध धर्म के मानने वालों के लिए पाली और प्राकृत भाषाओं के ज्ञान की जरूरत होती है; इसाई लोग हेब्रू, ग्रीक, लेटिन भाषाओं पर आज भी निर्भर करते हैं; और हिंदू लोग अपने धार्मिक और सांस्कृतिक क्रियाकलापों के लिए संस्कृत भाषा, तमिल भाषा आदि पर निर्भर करते हैं। इस प्रकार हम देख सकते हैं कि हम किसी न किसी तरह से द्विभाषी ही नहीं अपितु बहुभाषी ही हैं।

3.2 उद्देश्य

इस इकाई के अध्ययन के पश्चात आप-

1. बहुभाषिकता के सम्प्रत्यय को समझ सकेंगे;
2. बहुभाषिकता के विस्तार व प्रकृति का चित्रण कर सकेंगे;
3. बहुभाषिकता की एक संसाधन के रूप में व्याख्या कर सकेंगे;
4. कक्षा व विद्यालय में भाषाई विभिन्नता की स्थिति को समझ सकेंगे;
5. भाषाई पारिस्थितिकी के सम्प्रत्यय को समझते हुए अपने आस-पास उसका संरक्षण कर सकेंगे;
6. विद्यार्थियों की भाषाई पृष्ठभूमि को समझ सकेंगे;
7. विद्यार्थियों की भाषाई पृष्ठभूमि को ध्यान में रखते हुए अपने शिक्षण की योजना बना सकेंगे।

3.3 बहुभाषिकता की अवधारणा (Concept of Multilingualism)

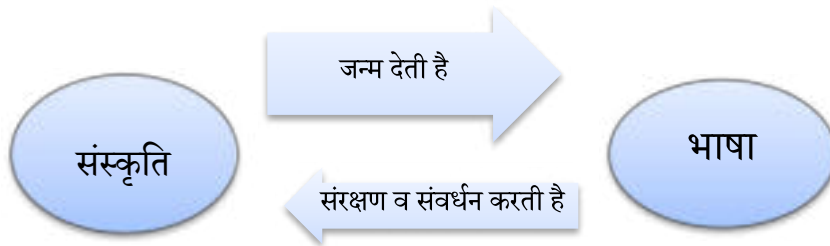
इकाई के प्रारंभ में ही हमने भाषा के जटिल स्वरूप की चर्चा की है। क्योंकि एक जटिलतम सम्प्रत्यय बहुभाषिकता को समझने के लिए भाषा के इस जटिल पक्ष की ओर ध्यान आकर्षित करना जरूरी था। यहाँ जटिल का अर्थ कठिन य दुरुह ही सिर्फ नहीं समझना है। साधारण अर्थों में आप उलझा हुआ भी समझ सकते हैं पर यह याद रहे कि उलझा हुआ हमेशा बेतरतीब ही नहीं होता है। बहुभाषिकता के ताने-बाने की तुलना एक बहुरंगी व बहुतंतुनुमा (multicolored & multi-fabric) वस्त्र से की जा सकती है। एक मिश्रित रंगों व मिश्रित तंतुओं की बारीक बनावट जैसे जटिल वह उलझी हुई सी होती है वैसे ही बहुभाषिकता का परिदृश्य है। बहुभाषिकता हमारे देश का एक प्राचीनतम यथार्थ है। एक कहावत भी आपने सुनी ही होगी “कोस कोस पर बदले पानी और चार कोस पर बानी” कहने का भाव यह है कि हमारे देश में प्रत्येक 1 कोस (लगभग 3 किमी) पर पानी बदल जाता है और प्रत्येक चार कोस पर बानी या बोली बदल जाती है। बचपन में मैंने यह कहावत जब सुनी थी तब मेरा बाल-मन इस कहावत का मन ही मन विरोध कर बैठा था। इसका कारण सीधा सा था कि मेरे गांव से मात्र एक किलोमीटर की दूरी पर छोटे से गांव में बोली जाने वाली बोली और मेरे गांव की बोली में काफी अंतर था। शिक्षा व्यवस्था द्वारा मानक खड़ीबोली-हिंदी को बढ़ावा देने के बावजूद आज लगभग दो दशकों के बाद भी

दोनों गांव की बोली में अंतर देखा जा सकता है। इस उदाहरण का निहितार्थ पुरानी कहावत को अस्वीकार करना नहीं है अपितु बहुभाषिकता की व्यापकता को सामने लाने की एक कोशिश मात्र है। हम शिक्षकों को ऐसे बहुभाषी समुदाय की सेवा करनी होती है और जब हम विद्यालय द्वारा निर्धारित भाषा का ही प्रयोग करते हैं तो कहीं ना कहीं भाषाई अल्पसंख्यक लोगों के प्रति अन्याय हो ही जाता है। यह दोनों गांवों, जिनका उदाहरण यहाँ दिया गया है, के लिए आज भी एक ही विद्यालय है और उस समय भी इसी विद्यालय में सभी बच्चे पढ़ने जाते थे। जब कभी वह बच्चे अपने गांव की बोली में जवाब देते थे तो शिक्षक उनको डांटते भी थे और अन्य छात्र उनके विशेष तरीके से बात करने पर हंसते भी थे जबकि शब्दों का अंतर नहीं था सिर्फ शब्द-स्वरूप, और लहजे (Tone) का अंतर था। एक लम्बे समय तक उस गाँव की शिक्षा का स्तर संतोषजनक नहीं रहा है। जिसके अनेक कारणों में से भाषा-भेद, और भाषा के आधार पर भेद-भाव व पूर्वाग्रह रहे हैं। लेकिन आज हम सभी भाषाओं और बोलियों के प्रति सहिष्णु होने लगे हैं।

उत्तराखंड और उत्तर प्रदेश को खासतौर पर हिंदी भाषी राज्य माना जाता है। हिंदी भाषी राज्यों में भी विशुद्ध हिंदी भाषी कहा जाता है। यह सत्य अन्य राज्यों, विशेष रूप से दक्षिण भारतीय व उत्तर पूर्वी राज्यों के लोगों, का सत्य कहा जा सकता है। बाहर से ऐसा ही दिखाई देता है। हम भी तो मिर्जा, नागा, त्रिपुरी, मणिपुरी आदि व्यक्तियों में ही अंतर नहीं कर पाते हैं, तो भाषा तो बहुत दूर की बात है। लेकिन उत्तराखंड के वासी होने के नाते आप यहाँ की भाषा तथा भाषाई पारिस्थितिकी (Language Ecology) को अच्छे से समझ सकते हैं। मोटे तौर पर कहा जा सकता है कि गढ़वाली और कुमाऊंनी को मिलाकर उत्तराखंड में लगभग 15 भाषाएं (Dialects) प्रयोग की जाती हैं (Dialects of Uttarakhand, n.d.)। जबकि प्रशासकीय भाषा का दर्जा हिंदी व संस्कृत को प्राप्त है। यही स्थिति उत्तर प्रदेश की भी है। प्रशासकीय भाषा (official Language) का दर्जा उर्दू व हिंदी को प्राप्त है जबकि बहुत बड़े पूर्वी भाग पर भोजपुरी का बोलबाला है। जो भारत में हिंदी का हिस्सा मानी जाती है परंतु सिर्फ मानक हिंदी को सुनने की आदत वाले कानों के लिए लगभग समझ के बाहर की बात है। भोजपुरी, बुंदेलखंडी, अवधी, ब्रज, सभी को हिंदी की उपभाषाओं के रूप में मान्यता प्राप्त है। यदि भाषाओं के आधार पर राज्यों के गठन की स्थापना जारी रही तो भविष्य में ये भाषायी क्षेत्र अलग राज्य भी हो सकते हैं। सीतापुर, कानपुर, लखनऊ, कन्नौज आदि अनेक जिलों की भाषा के आधार पर कोई अलग पहचान नहीं है फिर बहुभाषिकता के लक्षण विद्यमान हैं। एक उदाहरण से हम समझने की कोशिश करते हैं जो कि एक सत्य घटना पर आधारित है। सन् 2015 में कानपुर जिले के रहने वाले एक शिक्षक सीतापुर जिले के प्राथमिक विद्यालय में नियुक्ति प्राप्त करते हैं। एक दिन शिक्षक ने विद्यार्थी से पूछा कि तुम्हारी पुस्तक कहाँ है? विद्यार्थी ने उत्तर दिया 'बह गयी'। शिक्षक ने आश्चर्यचकित होकर पूछा कि क्या तुम्हारे गांव में बारिश के समय पर बाढ़ आई थी? शिक्षक ने यह प्रश्न बड़ा उत्सुक होकर किया और उस पर कुछ बच्चे हंसने भी लगे क्योंकि उस गांव में बाढ़ की कोई संभावना नहीं थी। बात इतनी सी है कि उस क्षेत्र में 'बहने' का अर्थ 'खोने' से होता है। बच्चे का जवाब था कि पुस्तक खो गई है। जो कि थोड़ी दूरी पर बैठे स्थानीय शिक्षक ने संवाद को बीच में रोकते हुए बताया था। कहने का तात्पर्य है कि एक ही भाषा क्षेत्र में सिर्फ बोलने की शैली व लहजे

का ही अंतर नहीं है बल्कि शब्दों के अर्थ भी अलग-अलग हैं। इसे अंतःभाषाई (intra-lingual) विभिन्नता कहते हैं। अतः हम देख सकते हैं की अंतर-भाषाई (Inter-lingual) विभिन्नता के साथ-साथ अंतःभाषाई विभिन्नता भी व्याप्त है। यह एक सूक्ष्मतर स्तर का अंतर है, जो कि शिक्षक से संवेदनशीलता की मांग करता है। यहाँ शिक्षकों से विद्यार्थियों की सभी विभिन्न भाषाओं को सीखने की अपेक्षा नहीं रखी जा रही है पर शिक्षक सभी भाषाओं को उचित महत्त्व देते हुए बहुभाषिकता के लिए एक सही माहौल बना ही सकते हैं। विद्यालय में शैक्षिक अंतर्क्रिया के लिए हम सिर्फ एक भाषा के ऊपर निर्भर नहीं रह सकते हैं। नवीनतम विचारधारा के अनुसार शिक्षकों के प्रश्न की भाषा और विद्यार्थियों के उत्तर की भाषा में भी अन्तर हो सकता है। इस भाषा परिवर्तन के उपागम य पद्धति को पराभाषिक-शिक्षणशास्त्र (Translanguaging Pedagogy) की उपाधि दी गई है। यह एक नया तरीका है जिसमें शिक्षक विद्यार्थी को वह भाषा प्रयोग करने देता है जिसे वह सबसे अधिक और अच्छे से जानता है। कोई एकभाषी शिक्षक भी पराभाषिक प्रणाली का अनुगमन कर सकता है (Grosjean, 2016). यह विचारधारा कक्षा शिक्षण में भाषा उदारता और किसी एक माध्यम-भाषा पर निर्भरता से मुक्ति में विश्वास करती है।

हम शिक्षक सांस्कृतिक संरक्षण की बात तो करते हैं पर भाषाई संरक्षण पर तनिक भी ध्यान नहीं रखते। इसके विपरीत देखने को मिलता है कि कुछ तथाकथित अंग्रेजी माध्यम के विद्यालयों में विद्यार्थियों द्वारा मातृभाषा के प्रयोग किए जाने पर अर्थदण्ड भी दिया जाता है। कही न कही यह बच्चों के प्रति, उनकी मातृभाषाओं के प्रति समाज के प्रति एक अपराध ही कहा जायेगा। यदि कोई शिक्षक थोड़ा भी चिंतनशील प्राणी है तो वह जान सकता है कि सांस्कृतिक संरक्षण भाषायी संरक्षण से ही प्रारम्भ होता है। जब हमारा देश बहुसांस्कृतिक देश है तब भाषाई विभिन्नता तो होगी ही। किसी एक के होने से दूसरा स्वाभाविक है। द्विभाषिकता और बहुभाषिकता अपने आप में बहुसांस्कृतिकता को आलिस करती है अर्थात बहुभाषावाद में बहुसंस्कृतिवाद निहित है। पुनः आप यह बात चक्रीय सम्बंध द्वारा समझ सकते हैं (चित्र 1) कि एक संस्कृति किसी भाषा को जन्म देती है, पल्लवित करती है और प्रतिफल स्वरूप वही भाषा संस्कृति को पहचान देती है, संवर्धन और उसका वर्धन करती है। अतः भाषा और संस्कृति एक दूसरे पर अन्योन्याश्रित है। और यह चक्र सततरूप से गतिशील रहता है।



चित्र 4: भाषा और संस्कृति की अन्योन्याश्रिता

इस प्रकार यदि हम बहुभाषावाद की बात करते हैं तो बहुसंस्कृतिवाद से हम अलग नहीं हो सकते हैं। किसी भी संस्कृति को समझने के लिए उस संस्कृति विशेष की भाषा को समझना ही पड़ेगा क्योंकि भाषा किसी भी संस्कृति का एक विशेष और अनिवार्य अंग है। बच्चे बहुत सी अलग अलग तरह की भाषाओं के साथ विद्यालय में आते हैं और उनकी इन भाषाओं से जुड़ी अलग-अलग संस्कृतियां भी होती हैं। और हम यह भी जानते हैं कि बच्चा (व्यक्ति) अपनी संस्कृति विशेष का ही उत्पाद होता है। उसको समझने के लिए उसकी संस्कृति को समझना अनिवार्य है और संस्कृति समझने की प्रथम शर्त भाषा को समझना है। इसको समझने की विधियों की चर्चा हम इस इकाई के अंतिम भाग में करेंगे। अभी हम भाषाई विभिन्नता की मौजूदगी पर चर्चा करते हैं।

3.4 कक्षा-कक्ष में भाषायी विभिन्नता (Language Diversity in the Classroom)

भाषायी और सांस्कृतिक विभिन्नता हमारे देश की विशिष्ट पहिचान और शक्ति है। किसी समाज में भाषायी विभिन्नता होने पर ही उस समाज को बहुभाषिक समाज कहा जाता है। अतः बहुभाषिकता और भाषाई विभिन्नता दोनों सम्प्रत्यय एक ही वस्तुस्थिति को चित्रित करते हैं। जैसा कि आप जानते हैं कि विद्यालय समाज का ही लघुरूप होता है अतएव बहुभाषिक समाज में विद्यालयों में आने वाले बच्चों की भाषाएँ भी विभिन्न ही होंगी। यह सिर्फ बड़े-बड़े शहरों की स्थिति ही नहीं है अपितु छोटे-छोटे से गाँवों में विभिन्न पृष्ठभूमि के बच्चे स्कूल में पहुँचते हैं लेकिन आश्चर्यजनक और दुःखद स्थिति है कि शिक्षक भाषाई विविधता के लिए एकदम तैयार नहीं होते हैं (Edward, 2010)। जबकि एडवर्ड के अनुसार सभी गुणवत्तापूर्ण शिक्षा जो गुणात्मक शिक्षा य अच्छी शिक्षा कहलाने के योग्य है वह बहु-सांस्कृतिक ही होती है। इस बात को समझने के लिए आप अपने पूर्व-अनुभवों का प्रयोग कर सकते हैं। आप अपने समुदाय विशेष (गाँव/शहर) की भाषा को समाज के अंदर रहते हुए आत्मसात कर ही लेते हैं। यह एक स्वाभाविक प्रक्रिया है विद्यालय में जाने की क्या आवश्यकता है? ऐसा सोचने और ऐसा करने से आपकी गतिविधियों का क्षेत्र काफी सीमित हो जाता है। हम एक स्थान पर रहकर जीवन पार करने वाले और उसी वातवरण के अनुभव रखने वाले लोगों को नकारात्मक शब्दों में 'कूप-मंडूक' भी कहते रहे हैं। अर्थात् अंतर-सांस्कृतिक समझ कहीं ना कहीं ज्ञान का प्रतीक है व ज्ञान से संबंधित है। आज से एक य दो दशक पीछे के समाज पर अगर ध्यान दें तो जनसंचार के माध्यम का इस स्तर तक विकास नहीं हुआ था। समाज में विशेष रूप से ग्रामीण समाज में जो दो चार तरह के लोग ज्ञानी होते थे या माने जाते थे उनमें से हम कह सकते हैं कि शिक्षक हुआ करते थे। शिक्षकों के अलावा साधुसंत, व्यापारी और रोजगार के लिए दूसरे प्रदेशों में काम करने वाले श्रमिक हुआ करते थे। यह सभी व्यक्ति गतिशील थे और अंतर्सांस्कृतिक व अंतर्देशीय समझ रखते थे। हमारे देश की सबसे अधिक भाग में बोली और समझी जाने वाली आधुनिक हिंदी भाषा के विकास में साधुसंतों और व्यापारियों का विशेष योगदान रहा है। अंग्रेजी के विकास में भी व्यापारियों व ईसाई मिशनरियों का ऐतिहासिक योगदान है। अतः सारांश यह है कि भाषा के विकास में, सांस्कृतिक-

आर्थिक समृद्धि में और राजनैतिक समझ में अंतर-भाषाई और अंतर-सांस्कृतिक अनुभवों का विशेष योगदान है। इस समझ का विकास करना शिक्षा का एक उद्देश्य भी है। ज्ञान(शिक्षा) का एक रूप अंतर्सांस्कृतिक समझ है। शायद इस तथ्य को जानने पर हमने ज्ञान की सर्वोच्च पीठ को विश्वविद्यालय कहा होगा। जहाँ समस्त विश्व का ज्ञान (संस्कृति, भाषा, विज्ञान) अध्ययन के लिए उपलब्ध हो। संस्कृतिक (भाषाई सहित) विभिन्नता एक प्रकार से शिक्षा का आधार और पाठ्यवस्तु भी है। अतः हम शिक्षकों का दृष्टिकोण समेकित होना चाहिए। किसी एक भाषा और संस्कृति के प्रति विशिष्ट लगाव और किसी दुसरे के प्रति पूर्वाग्रह य दुराव कही न कही शिक्षा की मूल अवधारणा के विरुद्ध ही प्रतीत होता है।

उपरोक्त चर्चा से अभी तक दो बातें स्पष्ट हो चुकी हैं कि भाषाई विभिन्नता एक सार्वभौमिक सत्य है और एक से अधिक भाषाओं का ज्ञान रखना एक शक्ति व योग्यता के अंतर्गत आता है। कुछ विद्वानों का मत है कि जो शिक्षक अपने विद्यार्थियों के द्वारा विभिन्न भाषाओं के प्रयोग के विषय में उदार, खुले दिमाग के और पूर्वाग्रह से रहित होते हैं वे विद्यार्थियों में भाषाई रुचि और विकास के संवर्धन में अधिक सफलता प्राप्त करते हैं (Lars and Trudgill, 1990)। अर्थात् भाषाई विभिन्नता के प्रति संवेदनशील शिक्षक अपने विषयों में सामान्य रूप से सभी क्षमताओं को विकसित करने में सफल होने की अधिक संभावना रखते हैं। शिक्षकों में इस तरह की अभिवृत्ति का विकास तभी होता है जब वे अपने विद्यालय क्षेत्र की **भाषाई परिस्थितिकी** से भलीभाँति परिचित हो। अब भाषाई परिस्थितिकी से क्या तात्पर्य है? आइये इस अवधारणा पर भी चर्चा कर लेते हैं।

3.5 भाषाई पारिस्थितिकी (Language Ecology)

भाषाई परिस्थितिकी एक ऐसा विषय है जो भाषाओं, लोगों, और पर्यावरण(विश्व) के आपसी संबंधों का अध्ययन करता है (Dua, 2008)। एक पारिस्थितिक तंत्र में शामिल भाषाएं सह-अस्तित्व रखती हैं। कई भाषाएं साथ-साथ उद्भूत और विकसित होती हैं, एक दूसरे को प्रभावित भी करते हैं। भाषाओं का आपसी संबंध शक्ति, दबाव, आकर्षण, प्रभुत्व व आदान-प्रदान आदि लक्षणों द्वारा चिन्हित होता है। सह अस्तित्व और सह-उद्भव का सबसे अच्छा उदाहरण हिंदी खड़ी बोली और उर्दू भाषा के विकास का है। दोनों के विकास के इतिहास पर यदि आप नजर डालेंगे तो आप समझ सकते हैं कि भाषा की परिस्थितिकी तंत्र में राजनीतिक तंत्र की बहुत बड़ी भूमिका होती है। आप यह भी समझ सकते हैं कि राजनीतिक और सामाजिक तंत्र में किसी भी प्रकार के बदलाव से भाषाई परिस्थितिकी में भाषाओं का स्थान किस प्रकार अदल-बदल होता रहता है। आप भारत में अंग्रेजी के आगमन, प्रसार व वर्चस्व के सूक्ष्म अवलोकन से जान सकते हैं कि बाजार (आर्थिक ताकतों) का तथा राजनीतिक सत्ता का भाषा-नीति और प्रयोग पर क्या प्रभाव पड़ता है। हिंदी के विकास में भी भारतीय व्यापारियों का विशेष योगदान माना जाता है। भाषा की स्थिति के संदर्भ में हम राजनीतिक, सामाजिक और आर्थिक कारकों की अक्सर बात करते हैं। लेकिन एक और सशक्त कारक व क्षेत्र है जिसे धर्म कहते हैं। जाने-अनजाने, चाहे-अनचाहे धर्म और भाषा का भी अनुबंधन हो ही जाता है। सबसे बड़ा उदाहरण धर्म के आधार पर बना मुस्लिम देश पाकिस्तान है जो

अपनी भौगोलिक क्षेत्र में व्याप्त भाषाओं को छोड़ते हुए भारतीय भूभाग पर जन्मी और विकसित हुई उर्दू भाषा को अपनी राष्ट्रीय भाषा के रूप में स्वीकार करता है। जहाँ सिर्फ 8% आबादी उर्दू भाषा का प्रयोग करती है (BBC, 2015); लेकिन उर्दू का सम्बंध स्लाम से जुड़ने से वह पकिस्तान की एकलौती प्रशासनिक भाषा का दर्जा प्राप्त कर लेती है। भारत में ईसाई बहुल क्षेत्रों में कुछ हद तक अंग्रेजी का स्तर तुलनात्मक रूप से बेहतर देखा जा सकता है, क्योंकि अंग्रेजी और ईसाईयत अनौपचारिक रूप से जुड़ चुके हैं। यद्यपि अंग्रेजी की भारत में राजनीतिक और शैक्षिक पहचान अधिक है। संस्कृत भाषा का भी सनातन धर्म (हिंदू धर्म) से अटूट संबंध रहा है। इस प्रकार हम देख सकते हैं कि भाषा समाज में सांस्कृतिक, आर्थिक, राजनैतिक व धार्मिक व्यवस्थाओं से जटिल रूप से आबद्ध रहती है। किसी एक व्यवस्था में परिवर्तन सामाजिक परिस्थितिकी में भाषा/भाषाओं की स्थिति को प्रभावित करती है; और भाषाई परिस्थितिकी में परिवर्तन लाती है। परिणामतः भाषाई स्वरूप, लिपि, प्रतीक, चिन्ह, संरचना आदि में परिवर्तन का कारण बनती है। राजनीतिक संगठन और राज्य की कार्यप्रणाली भाषाई परिस्थितिकी के स्वरूप, परिवर्तन, संरक्षण, और विकास में अग्रणी भूमिका अदा करती है। राज्य द्वारा भाषानीति, भाषा-शिक्षा, साक्षरता, शिक्षाण-माध्यम आदि का चयन विभिन्न भाषाओं के आपसी संबंधों का निर्धारण करता है साथ ही भाषा तंत्र में भाषा के स्थान को प्रभावित व सुनिश्चित करता है। स्थानीय परिस्थितिकी में हम शिक्षकों की महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका रहती है। इसकी सूक्ष्म समझ से हम अपनी भूमिका सकारात्मक रूप से अदा कर सकते हैं। जिससे की भाषाओं का संरक्षण ही नहीं वरन भाषाई विभिन्नता(बहुभाषिकता) से हम संसाधन के रूप में लाभ प्राप्त कर सकें।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

1. समाभाषिक दृष्टिकोण से भाषा की अवधारणा क्या है?
2. भारत में लगभग कितनी भाषाएँ य बोलियां प्रयोग की जाती है?
3. समझ का सबसे अच्छा माध्यम कौन सी भाषा होती है?
4. उत्तर प्रदेश की प्राशासनिक भाषाएँ कौन सी है?
5. पराभाषिक-शिक्षणशास्त्र (Trans-languaging Pedagogy) किसे कहते है?

3.6 बहुभाषिकता एक संसाधन के रूप में (Multilingualism as a Resource)

बहुभाषिकता एक शाश्वत सत्य है। शिक्षकों को बहुभाषिकता के प्रति संवेदनशील होना चाहिए। यह लगभग प्रत्येक देश व समाज का सामान्य सत्य है। परंतु इस प्राकृतिक-सामाजिक विशेषता को अज्ञानतावश हमेशा से दबाने या नष्ट करने की कोशिश की जाती रही है। इसका सबसे बड़ा उदाहरण सन् 1971 से पहले पाकिस्तान द्वारा बंगलादेश (तत्कालीन पूर्वी-पकिस्तान) में बंगाली भाषा पर प्रहार है, और

दूसरा उदाहरण तुलसीदास जी द्वारा रामचरित मानस को लोकभाषा अवधी में लिखने पर तत्कालीन काशी के पण्डितों का विरोध, जिससे कि उनको काशी छोड़कर अन्यत्र जाना पड़ा था। कई प्रकार की शक्तियाँ इस नृशंसता में शामिल रही है। आज हमारे देश में बहुभाषिकता को संवैधानिक रूप से स्वीकार किया गया है, फिर भी यथार्थ के धरातल पर इसके पुष्पन के लिए उपयुक्त वातावरण नहीं बन पाया है। कहीं ना कहीं एक भाषा विशेष से हमारा लगाव होना इसका प्रमुख कारण रहा है। स्वतंत्रता के बाद भी हम कहीं हिंदी का और कहीं अंग्रेजी का विरोध देख सकते हैं। मातृभाषा य राष्ट्रभाषा के प्रति प्रेम होना उसके प्रति सम्मान होना कोई गलत बात नहीं है। बल्कि यह कई मायनों में लाभकारी लक्षण है। मातृभाषा य राष्ट्रभाषा से प्रेम किसी दूसरी भाषा य विदेशी भाषा के प्रति घृणा का कारण नहीं होना चाहिए। भाषाएँ नदियों के समान है जो आसपास की जमीन को आर्द्रता प्रदान करती हैं, और हरियाली लाती हैं। यह वह जमीन है जहाँ हम विचारों की खेती करते हैं। आज भाषा-विज्ञानियों, राजनीति-सिद्धांतशास्त्रियों, समा-भाषाशास्त्रियों, भाषा-नीति निर्माताओं आदि सभी ने बहुभाषिकता को संसाधन माना माना है। अब हम बिंदुवार ढँग से बहुभाषिकता के लाभों पर चर्चा करते हैं।

- यह आप पिछली इकाई में भी पढ़ चुके हैं कि कोई भाषा चिंतन की प्रक्रिया में बाधक नहीं बल्कि उसकी वाहक होती है। जितनी अधिक भाषाओं का ज्ञान आपको होता है आप उतने अधिक तरीके से किसी बिंदु, विषय, घटना के बारे में सोच सकते हैं और अधिक ज्ञान प्राप्त कर सकते हैं। (NCERT, 2005)।
- सामाजिक दृष्टि से भी बहुभाषिकता विकास के लिए सकारात्मक आधार उपलब्ध कराती है। हम पहले भी चर्चा कर चुके हैं कि बहुभाषिकता सतही स्तर पर सरल और आंतरिक जटिलता लिए हुए एक विशेष सांस्कृतिक स्थिति होती है। यह एक ऐसी जटिल स्थिति है जहाँ दो या दो से अधिक भाषाओं की अंतर्क्रिया भाषाई, साहित्यिक, सांस्कृतिक विकास और ज्ञान की रचना को प्रभावित और पुष्ट करती हैं।
- बहुभाषिकता की स्थिति भाषा के विकास, सामाजिक-सांस्कृतिक वृद्धि, सामाजिक-राजनीतिक गतिशीलता में महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका अदा करती है। इसका अल्पसंख्यक भाषाओं के संरक्षण और प्रयोग पर विशेष ध्यान रहता है जिससे कि सामाजिक भाषाई संसाधनों को बनाए रखा जा सके और उनका दोहन किया जा सके।
- बहुभाषिक-वैचारिकी एक तरह से सामाजिक-सांस्कृतिक संरक्षक का कार्य करती है। इस विचाधारा से समाज में कई भाषाएँ साथ साथ विद्यमान रहती है। इस तथ्य का विशद समा-भाषिक महत्व है। यह भाषाओं को विलुप्त होने से बचाता है। कोई भाषा का विलुप्त होना एक साधारण नुकसान नहीं होता है। भाषा के साथ साथ संस्कृति का नुकसान होता है। लुप्तप्राय भाषा के बोलने वाले लोग (भाषायी अल्पसंख्यक) एक नई भाषा सीख सकते हैं, जो कि अक्सर बहुसंख्यक भाषा होती है। लेकिन कुछ बातों की भरपाई कभी नहीं हो सकती। जैसे हर भाषा में

कुछ शब्द होते हैं जो स्थानीय वस्तुओं, रिशतों, प्राकृतिक-जीव- जंतुओं-घटनाओं का बोध कराते हैं उन सबका नुकसान होता है। आप विचार कर सकते हैं कि अंग्रेजी भाषा, जिसे आज की स्थिति में विदेशी भाषा नहीं कहा जा सकता है, में बुआ, मौसी, मामी, चाची आदी रिशतों के लिए अलग अलग शब्द नहीं हैं फलस्वरूप अंग्रेजी संस्कृति में इन रिशतों का विशेष महत्त्व भी नहीं ।

- हमने पिछली इकाई में पढ़ा था कि हम एक भाषाई समुदाय के सदस्य होने के नाते एक विशेष प्रकार से सोच रखने लगते हैं (Borodotsky, 2001)। बोरोदोत्स्की के शोधों से पता चला है एक भाषा विशेष हमारे संज्ञानात्मक प्रक्रिया का हिस्सा होती है और हमें विशेष क्षमताएँ प्रदान करती है। उन्होंने प्रयोग द्वारा सिद्ध किया कि अंग्रेजी भाषा में गहरे नीले और हल्के नीले रंगों को डार्क ब्लू और लाइट ब्लू (Dark Blue & Light Blue) कहकर काम चलाया जाता है जबकी रूसी भाषा में इसके लिए अलग अलग शब्द होते हैं। रूसी लोग गहरे नीले रंग को 'सिनी' (Siniy) कहते हैं और हल्के नीले रंग को गोलूबाय (Goluboy) कहते हैं। इस साधारण से शब्दों के अंतर का बहुत बड़ा अंतर उनके प्रत्यक्ष और समझ पर पड़ता है। उन्होंने ने पाया कि विभिन्न प्रकार के नीले रंगों को दिखाने से रूसी लोग जल्दी से अंतर कर पाते हैं। ऐसे ही एक शोध में पाया गया कि उत्तरी आस्ट्रेलिया की एक जनजातीय (Kuuk Thaayorre) के लोगों में हम लोगों से अच्छा दिशा बोध होता है। क्योंकि उनकी भाषा में दाँया- बाँया शब्द नहीं होता है वे हमेशा मुख्य-दिशाओं के संदर्भ में ही बात करते हैं जैसे (उदाहरणार्थ) यदि उनको बताना होगा कि आपके दहिने हाथ कि बटन (Cuff-Button) खुली है तो वे उस समय आपकी खड़े होने की स्थिति को समझ कर बोलेंगे कि आपके उत्तरी-पूर्व हाथ की बटन खुली है (Borodotsky, 2009)। कहने का तत्पर्य विभिन्न भाषाओं से के साथ विभिन्न संज्ञानात्मक और संकृतिक उपलब्धियाँ जुड़ी हुई हैं। किसी भाषा को बोलने वाले जब उस भाषा का प्रयोग करना छोड़ देते हैं या खत्म हो जाते हैं (भाषा परिवर्तन आदि कारणों से) तो वह भाषा मृत-भाषा की कोटि में आती है। किसी भी भाषा के मृत होने से उस भाषा से जुड़ा विशेष ज्ञान भी नष्ट हो जाता है। एक जगरूक ज्ञान समाज में शिक्षक की भूमिका यही है कि वह सभी भाषाओं व बोलियों के प्रति उदार रहे जिससे कि भाषाई परिस्थितिकी में संतुलन बना रहे और बच्चों को मातृभाषा में सीखने के अवसर भी मिलते रहे।
- भाषा एक उन्नत व जटिल संज्ञानात्मक व्यवस्था भी है, जो (व्यक्ति की क्षमता के आधार पर) संज्ञान के लिए सशक्त उत्प्रेरक और परावर्तक मानी जाती है (Bowerman & Levinson, 2001)। बहुभाषिकता हमारे मस्तिष्क को एक विशेष प्रकार के लोचनीयता प्रदान करती है।
- शोध योजना कोई भी रही हो पर सभी तरह के शोधों से यह सिद्ध हो चुका है कि विशेष सामाजिक-भाषायी परिस्थितियों में द्विभाषिकता का संज्ञानात्मक प्रभाव सकारात्मक होता है। यदि धनात्मक द्विभाषिकता है तो बच्चे निश्चित रूप से संज्ञानात्मक लाभ प्राप्त करते हैं।

(Cummins,1981)। द्विभाषी बच्चे कई संज्ञानात्मक क्षमताओं के आधार पर लाभ की स्थिति में होते हैं। उदाहरणार्थ प्याजे के संरक्षण-कार्य (Piagetian conservation task), संप्रत्यय निर्माण, सृजनात्मकता, सादृश्य तर्कना, वर्गीकरण कौशल, तार्किक क्षमता, उच्च-संज्ञानात्मक क्षमताएं आदि में द्विभाषी बच्चे अधिक सक्षम होते हैं।

- भाषा अर्जन में भी द्विभाषिक या बहुभाषिक जागरूकता आनुषंगिक होती है। दो भाषाओं का ज्ञान रखने वाला तीसरी भाषा को तुलनात्मक रूप से जल्दी सीखने के साथ साथ उसमें कार्यात्मक दक्षता हासिल कर सकता है।
- बहुभाषी बच्चों में एक परिष्कृत भाषा जागरूकता होती है और वे अपने भाषा व्यवहार पर विशेष नियंत्रण रखते हैं। जो बदले में उनको न केवल द्वितीय भाषा में निपुणता हासिल करने में सहायक होता है बल्कि उनके संज्ञानात्मक व मानसिक विकास में एक महत्वपूर्ण क्रियात्मक भूमिका अदा करता है।
- वायगोत्स्की ने भी अपने भाषा विकास सिद्धान्त में बहुभाषिक क्षमताओं पर विशेष जोर दिया वायगोत्स्की के अनुसार व्यक्तिगत भाषा में भाषा के प्रयोग के द्वारा समझने की प्रक्रिया को विनियमित करने और विचार के उपकरण के रूप में भाषा पर कार्यकारी नियंत्रण बढ़ना बच्चों की बुद्धि के विकास के लिए लाभकारी होता है। और बहुभाषिकता की स्थिति भाषा-प्राक्रमण(Language Processing) और भाषा नियंत्रण को गति प्रदान करती है।
- Bialystock (1991) के अनुसार भाषा निपुणता उम्र, अनुभव और अनुदेशन से बढ़ती है। उन्होंने भाषा प्रयोग के तीन ज्ञानक्षेत्र बताये है –भाषा का मौखिक प्रयोग, साक्षरता व बहुभाषिक कार्य (Spoken, Literacy/Written & Multilingual Tasks)। उनके अनुसार भाषा-प्रसंस्करण (Language Processing) के दो तत्व हैं – विश्लेषण और नियंत्रण। भाषा प्रसंस्करण के विकास का जो क्रम होता है वह द्वि/बहुभाषी बच्चों में अनिवार्य रूप से एकभाषी बच्चों से अलग होता है। दो भाषाओं में निपुणता का विकास इन्हीं विश्लेषण और नियंत्रण क्षमताओं के उच्चतर शिखरों की ओर बढ़ना होता है। द्विभाषी बच्चों के पास दोनों प्रक्रियाओं में तेजी से निपुणता हासिल करने का अवसर रहता है। यही दोनों प्रक्रियाएँ विभिन्न क्षेत्रों (मौखिक, साक्षरता, और बहुभाषिकता) में भाषा प्रयोग के आधार के रूप में होती हैं। शिक्षकों को बच्चों में भाषा-प्रक्रमण के इन तत्वों के विकास के चिन्हों व लक्षणों को पहिचानना होता है। क्योंकि इन्हीं के आधार पर शिक्षण-विधि और संप्रेषण रणनीति का निर्णय किया जा सकता है।
- द्विभाषी बच्चे शब्दावली पर नियंत्रण में आंतरिक सुविधा का लाभ प्राप्त करते हैं।
- अनुवाद या अनुकृति एक बहुभाषिक कौशल है। बहुभाषी बच्चे प्रारंभिक अवस्था से ही स्वाभाविक अनुकृति में निपुणता प्राप्त कर लेते हैं।

- भाषा और संज्ञान दोनों ही बड़ी पेचीदगी से सांस्कृतिक व्यवस्था के अभिन्न अंग हैं। इनकी समझ ही शिक्षकों में एक विशेष शिक्षण-शास्त्रीय (Pedagogical) समझ विकसित करती है। शिक्षकों में बहुभाषिकता का लक्षण य बहुभाषिक संवेदनशीलता उनके शिक्षण शैली और संप्रेषण कौशल को गतिशीलता प्रदान करती है।
- बहुभाषिकता शब्दों के लाक्षणिक और व्यंजनात्मक अर्थों को व्यक्त करने के कौशल में वृद्धि करती है।
- दो य दो अधिक भाषाएँ सामाजिक वयैक्तिक स्तर पर एक दूसरे के पूरक के रूप में कार्य करती हैं। द्विभाषी बच्चे सामाजिक अंतःक्रिया में भाषा कूट परिवर्तन (Code Switching) के माध्यम से अधिक सफलता प्राप्त करते हैं।
- हम अंतर और समानता खोज कर भी सीखते हैं। द्विभाषी बच्चे दो भाषाओं के शब्दों के अंतर और विश्लेषण के द्वारा किसी वस्तु या सम्प्रत्यय को स्थायी रूप से आत्मसात कर लेते हैं।

3.7 विद्यार्थियों की भाषाई पृष्ठभूमि (Language Backgrounds of the Students)

अभी तक की चर्चा से हमने यह जाना कि बहुभाषिकता एक सामान्य सत्य है। यह कोई समस्या नहीं जैसा कि कई शिक्षक सोचते हैं बल्कि यह एक संसाधन है। आप जनते हैं कि शिक्षक का कार्य नैसर्गिक भाषाई-परिस्थितिकी को संरक्षित करना है व पोषित करना है ना कि उसको नष्ट करना। इस हेतु शिक्षकों को विभिन्न भाषाओं के प्रति सम, संवेदनशील व ग्रहणशील होना चाहिए। पुनः हम ध्यान दे कि हमारे विद्यालय में विभिन्न भाषायी और सांस्कृतिक पृष्ठभूमि से विद्यार्थी आते हैं। और जैसा कि हम जानते हैं कि बच्चों की भाषा और संस्कृति को समझे बिना हम उनके लिए उचित शिक्षा की व्यवस्था नहीं कर सकते हैं क्योंकि उनकी परिस्थिति में वह शिक्षा प्रासंगिक नहीं हो सकती है। कई कारणों में शिक्षा की अप्रासंगिकता भी एक कारण है कि प्रारम्भिक शिक्षा का मुफ्त व अनिवार्य होते हुए भी कई अभिवावक अपने बच्चों को विद्यालय नहीं भेजते। जैसा कि हम शिक्षक जमीनी स्तर पर कार्य करते हैं यह हमारी जिम्मेदारी बनती है कि हम विद्यालय द्वारा प्रदत्त शिक्षा की सार्थकता बनाये रखें और यह तभी सम्भव है जब हम अपने विद्यार्थियों की भाषायी और सांस्कृतिक पृष्ठभूमि से अच्छी तरह से वाकिफ हो। हम पिछली इकाइयों में चर्चा कर चुके हैं कि भाषा शिक्षा का माध्यम व शिक्षा का अंग है; और बच्चों की प्रथम भाषा उनकी समझ के लिए सबसे उत्तम माध्यम है तो कहीं न कहीं यह बात तार्किक है कि शिक्षकों को बच्चों के भाषाई पृष्ठभूमि य प्रथम भाषा को समझना जरूरी है। दूसरी एक बात और महत्वपूर्ण है कि सिर्फ हम उदारता और दया भाव से बच्चों की मातृभाषा में कक्षाकक्ष-अंतर्क्रिया को बढ़ावा दे तो ऐसा सोचना मात्र ही गलत है। यदि आप शिक्षा में समता की बात करते हैं। यदि आप एक समेकित शिक्षा व्यवस्था में विश्वास करते हैं तो सबको समान शिक्षा के अवसर प्रदान करने के लिए हमको उनकी भाषाई

अधिकारों का ध्यान रखना ही पड़ेगा। कक्षा में भाषाई विभिन्नता को ध्यान रखने फायदा सिर्फ विद्यार्थियों को ही नहीं होता है बल्कि हम शिक्षकों को भी होता है। शिक्षक अपने बच्चों के पृष्ठभूमि के बारे में जितना अधिक जानते हैं उतना उनका काम आसान हो जाता है। कई दशकों से होते आ रहे शैक्षिक शोधों से यह बात स्वयं सिद्ध सी हो चुकी है कि बच्चों की शैक्षिक उपलब्धि पर उनकी भाषाई, सांस्कृतिक, पारिवारिक पृष्ठभूमि का असर पड़ता है। तब हम बच्चों की पृष्ठभूमि के विषय में गम्भीरता से अध्ययन क्यों नहीं करते?

आपने शिक्षा-साहित्य में पढ़ा होगा कि उत्तम शिक्षक वह होता है जो बच्चों को अभिप्रेरित करता है। आपने अभिप्रेरणा और अधिगम के अन्योन्याश्रितता का भी अध्ययन किया ही होगा। जब हम जानते हैं कि अभिप्रेरणा के बिना अधिगम संभव नहीं है तो शिक्षक का मुख्य कार्य विद्यार्थियों को प्रेरित करना हो जाता है। अपने विद्यार्थियों को पढ़ाने के लिए और अपने विषय को रूचिपूर्ण ढंग से प्रस्तुत करने के लिए आपको पता होना चाहिए कि वे कौन सी बातें हैं जो विद्यार्थियों को प्रेरित करती हैं? इस प्रश्न के उत्तर के लिए आपको इसके आधार प्रश्न का उत्तर भी खोजना होगा। वह यह कि विद्यार्थियों के विद्यालय में आने को क्या और कौन सी बात प्रेरित करती है? इस प्रश्न के उत्तर से न केवल शिक्षकों का शिक्षण रूचिपूर्ण होता है अपितु विद्यालय द्वारा प्रदान की जाने वाली शिक्षा प्रासंगिक भी होती है। ऐसा इसलिए क्योंकि बच्चों के विद्यालय आने की अभिप्रेरणा में अभिभावकों द्वारा विद्यालय भेजने की अभिप्रेरणा व उनकी अपेक्षाएं भी संलिप्त रहती हैं। इनका ज्ञान शिक्षकों को होना अनिवार्य है। आप सोच रहे होंगे कि शिक्षक अभिभावकों की अपेक्षाओं की जानने के कार्य को कैसे कर सकते हैं? इसके लिए संवाद सबसे उचित माध्यम है। अभिभावकों से संवाद स्थापित करके आप न केवल उनकी अपेक्षाओं को जानने लगते हैं बल्कि आप अपने विद्यार्थियों के भाषाई पृष्ठभूमि भी समझ जाते हैं; जो कक्षाकक्ष अंतर्क्रिया को प्रभावी बनाने के लिए जरूरी है।

हमारे आसपास अप्रशिक्षित शिक्षकों की कमी नहीं है कई विद्यालयों में प्रथम डिग्री (B.A./B.Sc.) प्राप्त लोग पढ़ा रहे हैं। जिन्होंने शिक्षा में कोई उपाधि (जैसे B.Ed.) प्राप्त नहीं की है। इस तत्व से एक बात सामने आती है कि कोई भी व्यक्ति किसी भी कक्षा में कोई भी विषय पढ़ा सकता है। परन्तु शिक्षा का उद्देश्य पूरा होने की गारंटी तब होती है जब आप बच्चों के सर्वांगीण विकास को प्रोत्साहित करते हैं। यह तभी संभव है जब आप बच्चों की पृष्ठभूमि को समझते हों। विद्यार्थियों के पारिवारिक, सामाजिक-सांस्कृतिक मानसिक आदि परिप्रेक्ष्यों को समझने की पहली शर्त विद्यार्थियों की भाषाई पृष्ठभूमि को समझना है। विद्यार्थियों की पृष्ठभूमि की समझ ही आपको संपूर्ण (Complete) शिक्षक बनाती है। बच्चों की भाषाई व अन्य प्रकार पृष्ठभूमियों को समझने के लिए कौन-कौन सी विधियां, प्रविधियां और रणनीतियां अपनाई जा सकती हैं अब हम इसकी चर्चा करते हैं।

- प्रथम रणनीति है संवाद। बच्चों के साथ अनौपचारिक संवाद स्थापित करके शिक्षक बच्चों के भाषाई पृष्ठभूमि को समझ सकते हैं। साथ ही साथ उनमें भाषा के विकास के स्तर को भी समझ सकते हैं। तदनु रूप वे अपनी कक्षाकक्ष अंतर्क्रिया की योजना तैयार कर सकते हैं।

- द्वितीय पद्धति अवलोकन य निरीक्षण है। अवलोकन और परीक्षण के द्वारा शिक्षक बच्चों के ना केवल भाषाई पृष्ठभूमि को समझ सकते हैं बल्कि उनके सामाजिक संबंध, समूह गतिशीलता आदि का भी पता लगा सकते हैं।
- आपने देखा होगा कि कुछ बच्चे अंतर्मुखी प्रकार के होते हैं और कुछ बहिर्मुखी प्रकार के होते हैं। अंतर्मुखी प्रकार के बच्चे हमेशा शांत रहना पसंद करते हैं। ऐसे में संवाद स्थापित करने की समस्या उत्पन्न हो जाती है और भाषाई पृष्ठभूमि के समझना कठिन हो जाता है। शिक्षक को संवाद पर जमी हुई बर्फ की परत को तोड़ना होता है। इसके लिए एक रणनीति अपनाई जा सकती है कि हम खेलों का आयोजन करें। विशेष रूप से हम स्थानीय खेलों का आयोजन करें और उन खेलों में बच्चों की समूह अंतरक्रिया का अवलोकन करें। क्योंकि स्थानीय खेलों में बच्चे बड़ा ही सहज और प्राकृतिक रूप से व्यवहार करते हैं। अगर हम कुछ मानक खेलों का आयोजन करते हैं, जो कि जिला य राज्य के स्तर पर खेले जाते हैं तो अच्छा होगा कि शिक्षक भी उन खेलों में सहभागी बने; और इस प्रकार सहभागी अवलोकन करने से शिक्षक बच्चों की भाषाई पृष्ठभूमि के बारे में अधिक जानकारी प्राप्त कर सकते हैं।
- भाषा परीक्षण एक ऐसी विधि है जिससे बच्चों की भाषाई पृष्ठभूमि को विस्वसनीय तरीके से समझा जा सकता है। यदि बच्चों की प्रथम भाषा विद्यालय भाषा से अलग है और बच्चों की प्रथम भाषा लिखित भाषा भी है तो शिक्षक मानक परीक्षणों का भी प्रयोग कर सकते हैं। दोनों (प्रथम और विद्यालयी) भाषाओं के लिए इन परीक्षणों का प्रयोग किया जा सकता है।
- आपके विद्यालय में कक्षा 6, 9 व 11 कई स्तरों पर कुछ विद्यार्थी सीधे नामांकन प्राप्त करते होंगे। इस प्रकार वे पूर्व की कक्षाएं कहीं दूसरी जगह से उत्तीर्ण करके आये होंगे। ऐसे में विद्यार्थियों की भाषा व शैक्षिक पृष्ठभूमि जानने के लिए आप बच्चों के विद्यालयी दस्तावेजों का विश्लेषण कर सकते हैं। इसके अलावा उनाके पूर्व के विद्यालय की साख और प्रोफाइल के आधार पर भी आप कुछ अंदाजा लगा सकते हैं।
- बच्चों की रुचियों को जानने के लिए हम एक सर्वेक्षण भी कर सकते हैं जिसमें बच्चे कुछ प्रश्नों के लिखित जवाब दें। जैसे कि 'मुझे क्रिकेट खेलना पसंद है'। यह परीक्षण आविष्कारणी(Inventory) के प्रकार का हो सकता है, जो शिक्षक संदर्भ विशेष को ध्यान में रखते हुए स्वयं तैयार कर सकते हैं। इससे मनोभाषिक पृष्ठभूमि के अलावा अन्य व्यक्तित्व से संबंधित जानकारियां भी प्राप्त की जा सकती हैं।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

6. बहुभाषिकता के कोई दो संज्ञानात्मक लाभ बताइए।
7. उर्दू भाषा का जन्म किस देश में हुआ?

8. भाषा प्रक्रमण में कौन कौन से दो तत्व हैं?
9. अनुवाद किस तरह का कौशल माना जाता है?
10. विद्यार्थियों की पृष्ठभूमि की समझ क्यों आवश्यक है?

3.8 सारांश

आज हमारे सामने दो परस्पर विरोधी स्थितियाँ उत्पन्न हो चुकी हैं। एक तो बढ़ते शिक्षा के स्तर, व्यापारिक गतिविधियों, शहरीकरण आदि कारणों से समाज में बहुभाषिकता में बढ़ोत्तरी हुई है, वहीं दूसरी ओर अल्पसंख्यक भाषा-भाषी लोग शैक्षिक, सामाजिक आर्थिक आदि कारणों से मानक भाषाओं को सीख रहे हैं और आर्थिक शैक्षिक महत्व की प्रभुत्वशाली भाषाओं से आकृष्ट होकर भाषा परिवर्तन तेजी से कर रहे हैं। आगे चलकर उनकी नई पीढ़ी अपनी मूलभाषा (Native Language) का प्रयोग पूर्णरूप से बंद कर दे रही है। इससे विरोधाभास यह हो रहा है कि बहुभाषी लोगो में वृद्धि हुई है और भाषाएँ कम हो रही हैं। एक अनुमान के हिसाब से प्रत्येक चौदह दिनों में एक भाषा मर जाती है। यदि यह क्रम जारी रहता है तो अगली शताब्दी तक विश्व में उपलब्ध लगभग 7000 भाषाओं में से सिर्फ आधी ही रह जायेगी (Rymer, 2012)। हम जानते हैं कि भाषा की हानि जैवविविधता की हानि से कम घातक नहीं है (Muhlhauser, 1996)। अतः भाषाई पारिस्थितिकी में संतुलन बना रहे इस हेतु शिक्षकों को विशेषरूप से बहुभाषिकता की समझ होनी चाहिए और विद्यालय में विद्यार्थियों द्वारा किसी भी भाषा के प्रयोग के प्रति उदार होना चाहिए। शिक्षकों में यह जागरूकता होना अति अनिवार्य है कि द्विभाषिकता य बहुभाषिकता हानिकारक नहीं, बल्कि शिक्षा में तो यह एक संसाधन है। लेकिन दूसरी भाषा का ज्ञान प्रथम भाषा की कीमत पर नहीं होना चाहिए। शिक्षकों व विद्यालयों को धनात्मक द्विभाषिकता को प्रोत्साहित करना चाहिए न कि ऋणात्मक द्विभाषिकता को। धनात्मक द्विभाषिकता से तात्पर्य यह है कि विद्यार्थी दूसरी भाषा को सीखते हुए अपनी प्रथम भाषा को बनाये रखते हैं य उसमें भी विकास करते हैं (Lambert, 1975).

3.9 शब्दावली

1. **भाषाई परिस्थितिकी (Language Ecology)**- एक विषय जो विभिन्न भाषाओं की उनके पर्यावरण में उनकी स्थिति का अध्ययन करता है।
2. **समा-भाषिक (Sociolinguistic)**- भाषा के सामाजिक पक्ष से सम्बंधित।
3. **प्रशासकीय भाषा (official Language)**- जो भाषा प्रशासन के काम काज की भाषा हो।
4. **बहु-सांस्कृतिक (Multicultural)**- कई संस्कृतियों की विशेषताओं को समाहित किए हुए।

5. **अभिवृत्ति (Attitude)**- किसी वस्तु और व्यक्ति के विषय में सोचने और विश्वास करने का दृष्टिकोण।
6. **पुष्पन**: अनुकूल मौसम पाकर विकसित होना
7. **मूलभाषा (Native Language)**- जौ भाषा व्यक्ति किसी स्थान विशेष का वासी होने के कारण बचपन से प्रयोग कर्ता है।
8. **धनात्मक द्विभाषिकता (Additive Bilingualism)**-दूसरी भाषा में ज्ञानार्जन प्रथम भाषा को भी बनाये रखे।
9. **प्रयोगशास्त्र (Pragmatics)**-भाषाशास्त्र की एक शाखा जो भाषा का किसी संदर्भ विशेष में प्रयोग के तरीकों का अध्ययन करती है।

3.10 अभ्यास प्रश्नों के उत्तर

1. समा-भाषिक (Sociolinguistic) दृष्टिकोण से भाषा किसी समाज के विचारों, मान्यताओं, विश्वासों, प्रतीकों, संवाद व सामाजिक रीति रिवाजों की वाहक मानी जाती है।
2. भारत में लगभग 1000 भाषाएँ व बोलियाँ प्रयोग की जाती हैं?
3. प्रथम भाषा य मातृभाषा ही समझ का सबसे अच्छा माध्यम होती है?
4. हिंदी व उर्दू उत्तर प्रदेश की प्राशासनिक भाषाएँ हैं?
5. पराभाषिक-शिक्षणशास्त्र (Translanguaging Pedagogy) उस स्थिति को कहेंगे जब शिक्षक विद्यार्थी को वह भाषा प्रयोग करने दे जिसे विद्यार्थी सबसे अधिक और अच्छे से जानता है। यह विचाधारा कक्षा शिक्षण में भाषा उदारता और किसी एक माध्यम भाषा पर निर्भरता से मुक्ति में विश्वास करती है।
6. बहुभाषिकता के दो संज्ञानात्मक लाभ:
 - a. तार्किक क्षमता का विकास
 - b. उच्च-संज्ञानात्मक क्षमताएं में बढोत्तरी।
7. उर्दू भाषा का जन्म भारत देश में हुआ?
8. भाषा प्रक्रमण में विश्लेषण और नियंत्रण। से दो तत्व हैं?
9. अनुवाद या अनुकृति एक बहुभाषिक कौशल है।
10. विद्यार्थियों की पृष्ठभूमि की समझ ही आपको संपूर्ण(Complete) शिक्षक बनाती है।

3.11 संदर्भ ग्रंथ सूची व उपयोगी पाठ्यसामग्री

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3.12 निबंधात्मक प्रश्न

1. बहुभाषिकता क्या है? और यह किस प्रकार से एक संसाधन हो सकती है?
2. कक्षा में भाषाई विभिन्नता का वर्णन करते हुए, बच्चों की भाषाई पृष्ठभूमि को समझने की विधियों की विवेचना किजिए।

इकाई 4 - विद्यालय की भाषा बनाम घर की भाषा या बोली

School Language vs Home Language or 'Dialects'

- 4.1 प्रस्तावना
- 4.2 घर की भाषा
- 4.3 घर की भाषा (मातृभाषा) का महत्व
- 4.4 घर की भाषा बनाम विद्यालय की भाषा
- 4.5 शिक्षा के माध्यम के रूप में मातृभाषा का महत्व
- 4.6 सारांश
- 4.7 संदर्भ ग्रंथ सूची
- 4.8 निबंधात्मक प्रश्न

4.1 प्रस्तावना

पिछले इकाई में आपने बहुभाषिकता (Multilingualism) और कक्षा-कक्ष में बहुभाषिक परिस्थितियाँ होने के बावजूद कैसे विद्यार्थियों को शिक्षित किया जाय के बारे में अध्ययन किया। इस अध्याय में आप घर की भाषा या मातृभाषा और विद्यालय में इस्तेमाल की जाने वाली भाषा के बारे में अध्ययन करेंगे।

शिक्षा और शिक्षण प्रक्रिया बिना सूचनाओं (Information) तथा विचारों (Thoughts) के आदान प्रदान के संभव नहीं है। शिक्षक या विद्यार्थी होने के नाते आप अपने प्रधानाचार्य से अथवा छात्रों से कुछ न कुछ कहते हैं या विद्यार्थी आपसे कुछ पूछते हैं या प्रधानाचार्य बुलाकर आपको आदेश देते हैं, प्रशंसा या आलोचना करते हैं, उपरोक्त सभी क्रियाओं में किसी न किसी माध्यम की आवश्यकता होती है। जैसे - लिखकर, संकेत द्वारा, बोलकर या अन्य किसी माध्यम द्वारा। इन सब के लिए आप किसी न किसी भाषा का प्रयोग आवश्यक रूप से करेंगे। विचारों के आदान प्रदान के लिए किसी भाषा का ज्ञान अत्यन्त आवश्यक है। सामान्यतः यह देखने में आया है कि एक छोटा बच्चा अपने घर में जिस तरह की भाषा में समवाद स्थापित करने का अभ्यस्त होता है उस तरह की भाषा का प्रयोग विद्यालयों में एवं कक्षाओं में होता ही नहीं है। जब वह इस तरह की परिस्थिति से दो-चार होता है तो उसका आत्मविश्वास डगमगा जाता है और वह विद्यालयी क्रियाकलापों से कन्नी काटने लगता है। यदि शिक्षक विद्यार्थी के इस तरह की समस्या को ध्यान में रखे तो काफी हद तक समस्या का समाधान किया जा सकता है। किन्तु दुर्भाग्य से हमारे यहाँ के शिक्षा व्यवस्था में इस पर ध्यान न देने की परम्परा ही विकसित हो गई है। कई

मामलों में तो मातृभाषा या घर की भाषा में संवाद करने की स्थिति में विद्यार्थियों को दण्डित करने के मामले भी प्रकाश में आये हैं।

प्रसूत इकाई में आप घर की भाषा (मातृभाषा) का अर्थ, महत्व और विद्यालय की भाषा का अभिप्राय तथा विद्यालय भाषा बनाम घर की भाषा का विस्तार से अध्ययन करेंगे।

4.2 घर की भाषा (The language of Home)

घर की भाषा से तात्पर्य उस भाषा से है जो बच्चा अपने घर पर बोलता है। यदि दूसरी भाषा में कहा जाय तो यह कि बच्चा जिस भाषा में अपने भाई, बहन और माता-पिता के साथ संवाद स्थापित करता है। मातृभाषा बच्चा अपनी मां से सीखता है। पर मां की भाषा को मातृभाषा नहीं कहते हैं। बच्चा जन्म के बाद अपने परिवेश से जो भाषा सीखता है, उसे मातृभाषा कहते हैं। मातृभाषा बच्चे को उपहार स्वरूप मिलती है। माता, पिता, भाई, बहन या घर के अन्य बड़े लोग बच्चे को भाषा का संस्कार देते हैं।

भाषाविज्ञानियों के अनुसार बच्चों को ऐसी भाषा में पढ़ाने के विचार का समर्थन करते हैं जो बच्चे आसानी से समझते हों। वे मानते हैं कि बच्चा जब विद्यालय में आता है तो अपने सामाजिक-सांस्कृतिक परिवेश से काफी कुछ सीखकर आता है। इस सीखने में उसके घर की भाषा भी शामिल होती है। इसलिए बच्चों को शुरुआती कक्षाओं में उनकी भाषा में ही पढ़ाना चाहिए। इससे बच्चों का शिक्षण एक ऐसी भाषा में होना सुनिश्चित किया जा सकेगा जिसके साथ वे सहज होंगे। यानि सुनकर समझने वाले स्तर तक उनका परिचय इस भाषा से होगा। घर की भाषा के साथ खास बात यह होती है कि बच्चा इस भाषा को सहजता (Effortlessly) के साथ आस पास के माहौल (Environment) से सीखता है। दूसरे शब्दों में यदि कहा जाय तो बच्चा घर की भाषा को इस तरह से सीखता है कि इसमें सीखने जैसी कोई बात ही नहीं रह जाती है। इस बात में कहीं दो राय नहीं हैं कि छात्र अपना अधिकांश समय घर और समुदाय में अनौपचारिक (Informal) रूप से सीखने में लगाते हैं। हालांकि, पाठ्यपुस्तक को ही निर्देशों का मुख्य मानने की प्रवृत्ति का अर्थ यह है कि छात्र जिस कौशल, ज्ञान और अनुभवों के साथ कक्षा में आते हैं, शिक्षक उन्हें अनदेखा कर सकते हैं। बच्चे जब पहली बार विद्यालय आते हैं, तो जिन अपरिचित लोगों, दिनचर्या और भाषा से उनका सामना होता है, उससे वे अचंभित हो जाते हैं। विद्यालय के शिक्षक विद्यार्थियों के ज्ञात सांस्कृतिक अभ्यासों और भाषाओं की विविधता को महत्व देकर, उन्हें इस नए माहौल में ज्यादा सुरक्षित महसूस करा सकते हैं। बच्चों को हर दिन घर-आधारित शिक्षा और विद्यालय-आधारित शिक्षा के बीच एक पुल पार करना पड़ता है।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

1. घर की भाषा से आप क्या समझते हैं ?
2. आप अपने विद्यार्थी के उसके घर के भाषा एवं मानक भाषा में सामंजस्य कैसे स्थापित करेंगे ?

4.3 घर की भाषा (मातृभाषा) का महत्त्व(Importance of home language (Mother tongue)

भाषा समाज की संस्कृति का आवश्यक तत्व है। वास्तव में भाषा सामाजिक संगठन (Social Organisation) की सभी क्रियाओं(activities) का आधार है। व्यक्ति की प्रत्येक क्रिया पर भाषा का प्रभाव पड़ता है और वह जो भी क्रिया करता है, उसमें महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका निभाती है। यहां एक तथ्य पर ध्यान देना जरूरी है कि बच्चा अपने लंबे जीवनकाल में अन्य भाषाओं और संस्कृतियों (Cultures) के संपर्क में भी आयेगा। इसलिए हमें उसे अन्य भाषाओं को सीखने के लिए तैयार करना जरूरी है। जिसकी जरूरत उन्हें भविष्य में होगी। उदाहरण के तौर पर हिंदी, अंग्रेजी इत्यादि। इसके अभाव में बच्चों को कई तरह की समस्याओं का सामना करना होता है कि क्योंकि उनके शिक्षक बच्चों को क्षेत्रीय भाषाओं में समझाते हैं और उनकी किताबें हिंदी या अंग्रेजी में होती हैं। अंग्रेजी पढ़ाने वाली स्थिति तो और भी खतरनाक होती है बच्चे को हर शब्द का हिंदी में अनुवाद करके पढ़ना होता है। मैनगो मतलब आम, वाटर मतलब पानी। ऐसी स्थिति में एक बच्चे को कई तरह की चुनौती (Challenges) का सामना करना होता है और वह उस भाषा में अपनी रुचि खो देता है।

बच्चों को सही तरीके से पढ़ना सिखाना भी जरूरी है। पढ़ने को समझ के साथ जोड़कर देखने के लिए प्रोत्साहित करने की जरूरत है। उनको उदाहरणों के माध्यम से भाषा का इस्तेमाल करने की कला से अवगत कराना चाहिए। मसलन समझ का पढ़ने के साथ वेसा ही रिश्ता है जैसा सुनने और समझने का है। यानी दोनों साथ-साथ चलने वाली प्रक्रियाएं हैं। निम्न बिन्दुओं के आधार पर मातृभाषा शिक्षा के महत्त्व को समझा जा सकता है।

1. **शिक्षा का आधार (Base of Education)** – बालक की मातृभाषा शिक्षा का आधार होती है। उसे एक स्वतंत्र विषय के रूप में अध्यापन के साथ-साथ शिक्षा के माध्यम के रूप में भी स्वीकार करना चाहिए। बालक को लिखना और पढ़ना सिखाने के लिए भाषा शिक्षण की आवश्यकता होती है। भाषा शिक्षा में मातृभाषा को ही स्वीकार करना अधिक उचित होता है।
2. **अभिव्यक्ति में स्वाभाविकता (Naturalness in Expression)**– एक बालक के लिए अपने विचार अभिव्यक्त करने हेतु मातृभाषा सबसे उपयुक्त भाषा होती है। बालक अपने विचारों और भावनाओं को सरल और स्पष्ट रूप से मातृभाषा में प्रकट कर सकता है। ऐसा वह अन्य किसी भाषा में नहीं कर सकता है। इसलिए मातृभाषा से विचार अभिव्यक्ति में स्वाभाविकता आती है।
3. **मातृभाषा प्रभावोत्पादक (Effectiveness of Mother tongue)** – बालक की मातृभाषा पर अच्छी पकड़ होती है। मातृभाषा में बोलने के लिए बालक को विचार नहीं करना पड़ता। इससे अभिव्यक्ति में स्वाभाविकता आती है। जो दूसरों पर प्रभाव डालने में महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका निभाती है। इसलिए मातृभाषा प्रभावोत्पादक होती है।

4. **सरसता एवं पूर्णता की अनुभूति (The notion of simplicity and completeness)** - व्यक्ति जन्म के बाद से ही मातृभाषा का प्रयोग करने लगता है। व्यक्ति चाहे कितनी ही भाषाएं सीख जाए लेकिन उसे उसमें सरसता और पूर्णता की अनुभूति नहीं होती है। बालक को मातृभाषा के ज्ञान से ही सरसता एवं पूर्णता की अनुभूति होती है।
5. **सृजनात्मकता का विकास (Development of Creativity)** – बालक की सृजनात्मक शक्ति का विकास मातृभाषा में ही अधिक होता है। व्यक्ति चाहे कितनी ही भाषाओं का ज्ञान प्राप्त कर ले, लेकिन उनमें साहित्य कार्य करना बहुत कठिन कार्य होता है। मातृभाषा में साहित्य कार्य करना सरल होता है क्योंकि वह बचपन से ही उसके साहचर्य में होता है।
6. **व्यक्ति के विकास में सहायक (Helpful in personality development)** – परिवार और समाज व्यक्ति की प्रथम पाठशाला होती है। परिवार और समाज से ही वह अच्छे संस्कार ग्रहण करता है। यह कार्य मातृभाषा में ही किया जाता है। माता-पिता और परिवार वाले मातृभाषा में ही बालक को अच्छे बुरे में अन्तर करना सिखाते हैं। यह उनके व्यक्तित्व के विकास में सहायक होता है।
7. मातृभाषा हमारी संस्कृति का अभिन्न होती है। किसी भी मानव संस्कृति को समझने और आत्मसात करने के लिए **सांस्कृतिक एकता में सहायक (Helpful in Cultural Unity)** आवश्यक है कि हमें पहले उनकी भाषा को समझें। मातृभाषा द्वारा ही मनुष्य एक दूसरे को समझते हैं और एक दूसरे से अपने विचारों व भावनाओं का आदान प्रदान करते हैं। मातृभाषा द्वारा ही हम अपने रीति रिवाजों को एक पीढ़ी से दूसरी पीढ़ी तक पहुंचाते हैं। मातृभाषा द्वारा ही व्यक्ति एक दूसरे से सम्पर्क करते हैं। मातृभाषा ही मानव सभ्यता और संस्कृति का आधार है। मातृभाषा के बिना मानव संस्कृति की कल्पना भी नहीं की जा सकती है।
8. **सामाजिक कुशलता (Social Expertise)**– सामाजिक जीवनयापन के लिए व्यक्ति की मातृभाषा का ज्ञान आवश्यक है। मातृभाषा द्वारा ही व्यक्ति का मानसिक और भावनात्मक विकास होता है। इसके द्वारा ही व्यक्ति के व्यक्तित्व का गठन होता है। मातृभाषा द्वारा ही व्यक्ति का नैतिक विकास होता है। समाज में मातृभाषा ही व्यक्ति के विचारों के आदान प्रदान का माध्यम होती है। इससे सामाजिक कुशलता आती है।
9. **भावाभिव्यक्ति का साधन (Instrument of self expression)** – व्यक्ति के लिए भावाभिव्यक्ति का सर्वोत्तम साधन मातृभाषा है। व्यक्ति मातृभाषा से अपने विचारों और भावनाओं को सरल और स्पष्ट तरीके से व्यक्त कर सकता है। मातृभाषा में बोलने के लिए उसे विचार करने की आवश्यकता नहीं होती है। वह सहज भाव से विचार अभिव्यक्त कर सकता है। व्यक्ति के शारीरिक और मानसिक विकास के साथ-साथ मातृभाषा ही व्यक्ति का विचारों और भावाभिव्यक्ति के स्वाभाविक साधन के रूप में विकसित होती रहती है।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

3. घर की भाषा के महत्व पर प्रकाश डालें ?
4. “भाषा समाज की संस्कृति का आवश्यक तत्व है”। इस कथन के संदर्भ में अपने विचार व्यक्त करें।

4.4 घर की भाषा बनाम विद्यालय की भाषा (Home Language Vs School Language)

इसमें कोई संदेह नहीं कि प्राथमिक विद्यालय में पढ़ने वाले अधिकतम बच्चे अपने घर-परिवार, समुदाय में बोली जाने वाली भाषा ही बोलते हैं। यह भाषा हिन्दी के स्वीकृत मानक खड़ी बोली से इतर होती है। हमारे प्रदेश में बोली जाने वाली ऐसी भाषाओं में अवधी, ब्रज, भोजपुरी, बुन्देली, कुमाऊँनी, गढ़वाली आदि प्रमुख हैं। स्कूलों में शुरुआत से ही बच्चों को मानक भाषा सीखाने पर जोर दिया जाने लगता है जिससे बच्चे भाषा सीखने से कतराने लगते हैं। बच्चे घर पर बोली जाने वाली भाषा के असर के कारण मानक भाषा के प्रयोग में "अशुद्धियाँ" करते हैं - "उसने कही", "हम लोगों ने जाना है" आदि। इस पर उन्हें डांट पड़ती है, जबकि शुरु में ही शुद्धता पर जोर देने से भाषा सीखने में एक बड़ी रुकावट खड़ी हो जाती है। इसका एक दुष्परिणाम यह भी होता है कि अध्यापक विद्यार्थियों को बार-बार टोकने लगते हैं। शिक्षकों की बार-बार टोका-टाकी और चुप कराने से बच्चों में घर की भाषा के प्रति हीनभावना भी पैदा हो जाती है और वे आत्मविश्वास के साथ खुलकर अपनी बात नहीं कह पाते। कक्षा में सार्थक / अर्थपूर्ण बातचीत के पर्याप्त अवसर नहीं उपलब्ध हैं। इस तरह का दबाव या अनुशासन रहता है कि बच्चे चुपचाप कार्य करें। भाषा सीखाने में मौखिक पक्ष की अक्सर उपेक्षा की जाती है। इससे बच्चे आगे की कक्षाओं में अपनी बात कहने में हिचकते हैं। इससे मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति (oral expression) जैसे सशक्त माध्यम का प्रयोग और विकास नहीं हो पाता। जबकि यह भाषा शिक्षण का जरूरी पहलू है।

बच्चे अपने घर-परिवेश और समुदाय (Community) में हो रही बातों को ध्यान से सुनते रहते हैं तथा उनके साथ हो रहे हाव-भावों को देखते-समझते हैं। हाव भाव के साथ प्रयोग होने वाले संकेतों के साथ अर्थ समझते और निकालते हैं। शुरु में बच्चे संकेतों के आधार पर बात को पकड़ने का प्रयास करते हैं। स्वयं भी वे हाव-भावों एवं संकेतों का माध्यम के रूप में प्रयोग करते हैं। धीरे-धीरे वे कहने की कोशिशों और उनके परिणामों को जानने लगते हैं। फिर वे अपने आस-पास प्रचलित शब्दों को पकड़ना शुरु कर देते हैं। शब्द गूँजते समय वे उस दौरान आस-पास हो रहे व्यवहारों को भी देखते हैं। एक दौर ऐसा आता है जब वे सुनना-समझना तेज कर देते हैं। इस प्रकार वे सुनकर, समझने की ओर बढ़ते हैं। जब उन्हें यह समझ आती है कि वे शब्दों को बोलकर कुछ हासिल कर सकते हैं तो वे उनका उपयोग करने लगते हैं। क्रमशः उनका काम चलाऊ शब्दभंडार बढ़ता जाता है। बच्चे अपने कथनों और उनके प्रभाव से अपनी स्वयं की एक अलग तरह भाषा विकसित करते हैं। विद्यालय आने से पहले बच्चे काफी कुछ बोल सकते हैं। ध्यान

देने वाली बात यह है कि बच्चा भाषा ऐसे समय सन्दर्भ से सीखता है, जहां उसका ध्यान भाषा केंद्रित नहीं है। भाषा सीखने में सुनने बोलने, पढ़ने-लिखने का क्रम तो है, लेकिन दरअसल हमेशा ऐसा ही नहीं होता है। क्या जब 'सुनना' होता है तो 'बोलना' रुका रहता है या 'बोलने' के समय 'सुनना' स्थगित रहता है? यह सब साथ-साथ भी चलता रहता है - सुनना, बोलना, पढ़ना इत्यादि।

क्या विद्यालय में बच्चों को शुरु में सुनने-बोलने (Listening-speaking) के पर्याप्त अवसर दिये जाते हैं? बच्चा जब विद्यालय में पहली बार आता है तो परम्परागत शिक्षण (Conventional teaching) में शिक्षक उससे सीधे लिखने-पढ़ने का कार्य कराने लगते हैं। वह समझ ही नहीं पाता कि क्यों कुछ आकृतियां जबरन उसे दिखाई पढ़ाई और लिखाई जा रही हैं। कहने की आवश्यकता नहीं है कि यही मूल समस्या है। वास्तव में वह घर जैसा वातावरण चाहता है। विद्यालय नामक इस जगह पर उसके अपने अनुभवों को सुनने वाला कोई नहीं है, उसकी 'अपनी भाषा' के लिये कोई जगह नहीं होती। अध्यापक के लिये जरूरी है कि पहले वह बच्चे की भाषा को स्वीकार करे, तब उसे अपनी विद्यालय की भाषा (मानक भाषा) की ओर ले जाये। विद्यालय में बच्चों को विद्यालय की भाषा (मानक भाषा) सुनने, समझने, बोलने के अधिक मौके देना चाहिये। लेकिन इसका मतलब यह नहीं कि बच्चों की घरेलू भाषा (Home language) को छोटा माना जाय या उपेक्षित किया जाय।

शिक्षक की भूमिका (The Role of the Teacher)

शिक्षकों द्वारा यह क्रम अपनाने से बच्चों को शायद अधिक मजा आयेगा और भाषा सीखने की गति तीव्र होगी। कक्षा में ऐसे वास्तविक और रोचक सन्दर्भ बनाये जायें जिनमें तरह-तरह से भाषा का उपयोग करना हो। बच्चों के अनुभव सुनना, उनमें आपस में 'गपशप' करवाना, उन्हें कहानियां-कविताएं सुनाना, कहानियां-कविताएं कहलवाना ऐसी ही गतिविधियां हैं। इनके जरिये उन्हें मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति के लिये प्रेरित किया जा सकता है। मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति के साथ उन्हें अभिनय या अंग - संचालन के मौके देना भी जरूरी है। बच्चों के पसंद के विषयों पर छोटे-छोटे भाषण देने के मौके भी मिलने चाहिये। जब उन्हें लगेगा कि विद्यालय भी घर जैसा है, यहाँ बहुत मजेदार बातें सिखाई / कराई जाती हैं, तो हमारा विश्वास है कि वे स्वाभाविक रूप से बोलेंगे। बच्चों को विद्यालय व कक्षा में बातचीत के पर्याप्त मौके दिये जायें। यह कार्य उनकी भाषा के विकास में मददगार होगा। बातचीत भाषा सिखाने का जादुई माध्यम है। मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति के पर्याप्त अभ्यास के बाद ही लिखित कार्य की ओर कदम बढ़ाना ठीक रहेगा।

भाषा-ज्ञान के सन्दर्भ में गिजुभाई द्वारा 1932 में ही कही गई एक और बात आज भी प्रासंगिक है -

“इधर बालकों को जल्दी से जल्दी अक्षरज्ञान और अंकज्ञान दिलाने का मोह बढ़ता जा रहा है, हमें उस मोह को तोड़ना है। हर कोई शाला में और बाहर एक ही प्रश्न पूछता है: 'इस शाला का अभ्यासक्रम क्या है?' इस शाला में बालक क्या पढ़ते हैं? कितना सीखे हैं?' लेकिन कहीं भी इस बात को लेकर पूछताछ नहीं की जाती कि बालकों का कितना विकास हुआ है। हमें इस बात पर ध्यान देना है कि बालकों का

सम्मान कैसा है, किस उम्र में वे अक्षरज्ञान और अंकज्ञान ले सकते हैं। बालक की स्वाभाविक प्रवृत्ति और शक्ति को जान कर ही और उसके अनुकूल रह कर ही हम उसे ज्ञान प्रदान कर सकते हैं।..... बालक को अक्षरज्ञान कराते समय आँख और स्पर्श का एक साथ उपयोग होना चाहिए..... उन्हें अक्षरों की पहचान का अवसर दिया जाना चाहिए।” {‘प्राथमिक शाला में शिक्षक, गिजुभाई-ग्रंथमाला-10’, प्रकाशक: मांटेसरी-बाल-शिक्षण-समिति, राजलदेसर (चुरू) पृ. 62, 69}

यदि गिजुभाई के इस कथन को ध्यान में रखते हुए बात की जाय तो यह बात स्पष्ट रूप से कही जा सकती है कि बच्चा जब विद्यालय में आना प्रारम्भ करता है तो उस के पास अपनी स्वयं की भाषा पहले से होती है, जिसका प्रयोग वह अपनी समझ के मुताबिक करता है। उसके पास अपनी शब्दावली या शब्दकोष होता है। जिस का प्रयोग वह प्रमुख तौर पर बोलचाल में करता है (कहते चलें कि अगर हम इस बात से सहमत हैं तो हमें यह भी मानना होगा कि बच्चे का दिमाग उस समय एक कोरी स्लेट नहीं होता है – उस पर भाषा-ज्ञान के सन्दर्भ में बहुत कुछ अंकित हो चुका होता है)। भाषा की कक्षा में यदि हम इस बात का ध्यान रखते हुए चलें तो बच्चे के साथ आदान-प्रदान सहज होने की अधिक सम्भावना रहेगी। बच्चे के पास पहले से मौजूद शब्दावली को हम आधार बनाते हैं तो उसकी रुचि और ध्यान तो हम खींच ही सकते हैं, उसका विश्वास भी जीत सकते हैं – और उसका आत्मविश्वास बढ़ा सकते हैं।

अब असली समस्या यह है कि घर की भाषा और विद्यालय भाषा में सामंजस्य कैसे स्थापित किया जाय। इसके लिए खेल, कहानियाँ और पहेलियों के माध्यम है जिसके रास्ते हम बच्चों की प्रवृत्ति के अनुकूल कार्य करते हुए उनके भाषा-ज्ञान में सामंजस्य और समृद्धि ला सकते हैं। जाने-माने शिक्षाविद प्रो. कृष्ण कुमार अपने लेख ‘कहानी कहाँ खो गई?’ में हमारा ध्यान इस ओर दिलाते हैं कि

“बच्चों को कहानी सुनाने (Story- telling) की एक लम्बी परम्परा भारत में रही है.... कहानी परम्परागत रूप में जिन परिस्थितियों में सुनाई जाती थी, वे आज के पारिवारिक और सामाजिक जीवन में उपलब्ध नहीं हैं.....लेकिन परिवार और समाज की नई परिस्थितियों में बच्चों को कहानी सुनाने की उतनी ही ज़रूरत है जितनी पहले थी.....[क्योंकि] लोक कथाओं और परीकथाओं की संरचना छोटे बच्चों की सोचने की शैली से मेल खाती है, और यही इन कहानियों के प्रति छोटे बच्चों के आकर्षण का खास आधार है..... इन कहानियों को सुनते हुए छोटे बच्चे अपनी मातृभाषा की बुनियादी लयों के सम्पर्क में आते हैं। शब्द और वाक्य रचना का एक पूरा भण्डार उनके हाथ लगता है। इस भण्डार से वंचित रह जाने वाले बच्चे कुछ बड़े होकर जब पढ़ना और लिखना सीखते हैं, तब उनके लिए भाषा एक यांत्रिक चुनौती बन जाती है। वह सहज ज़रूरत या इच्छा नहीं बन पाती। बाद में वे ध्यानपूर्वक सुनने, संयत ढंग से बोलने या संवाद में हिस्सा लेने जैसी क्षमताओं का विकास नहीं कर पाते।” (‘दीवार का इस्तेमाल और अन्य लेख’, एकलव्य का प्रकाशन, पृष्ठ 18-19).

प्रो. कृष्ण कुमार द्वारा कही गई बात में कुछ अधिक जोड़ने की आवश्यकता नहीं है – वे जो कह रहे हैं, उसमें भाषा-शिक्षण के लिए कहानी का महत्व स्पष्ट है। कहानी सुनाना भी एक कला है और इस कला का प्रयोग यदि एक शिक्षक कक्षा में कर पाता है तो उस भाषा के अलग-अलग पहलू वह बच्चों के लिए

उजागर कर रहा होगा – विशेष तौर से उच्चारण, बोलने में उतार-चढ़ाव तथा भाषा का वाक्य-विन्यास इत्यादि। शिक्षक की ओर से थोड़ी सी मेहनत की जाए और इस ओर ध्यान देने की प्रवृत्ति हो तो यकीनन इस प्रक्रिया से बच्चे बहुत कुछ हासिल कर सकते हैं। महत्वपूर्ण यह भी है कि इसके चलते शिक्षक और बच्चों में आत्मीयता का सम्बन्ध बनेगा। वह चाहे खेल-खेल में भाषा-प्रयोग की बात हो या फिर कहानियों-पहेलियों के माध्यम से बच्चे की भाषा को समृद्ध करने की बात, ये प्रक्रियाएँ इस बात का उदाहरण हैं कि बच्चे की 'कच्ची' भाषा को किस प्रकार विद्यालय के औपचारिकता भरे वातावरण में भी स्थान दिया जा सकता है। साथ ही इस बात की ओर भी इशारा करती हैं कि किस प्रकार उनकी भाषा के 'कच्चेपन' को परिपक्वता की ओर ले जाया जा सकता है।

भाषा-ज्ञान के सन्दर्भ में दो बातें समझना बेहद ज़रूरी होने के साथ-साथ महत्वपूर्ण भी हैं। पहली बात यह कि, जितना अधिक हम बच्चे को भाषा के सम्पर्क में आने के मौके देंगे (भाषा सुनने-लिखने-बोलने-पढ़ने के मौके) उतना ही अधिक समृद्ध उसकी शब्दावली (Vocabulary) होगी और उतनी ही भाषा के इस्तेमाल की गहरी समझ विकसित होगी। दूसरा, यह सही है कि एक शिक्षक पर पाठ्यक्रम पूरा करने का दबाव लगातार रहता है मगर इस दबाव में आए बिना, हो सके तो पाठ्यक्रम (Curriculum) में ही गुंजाइश निकालते हुए, नहीं तो उसके बाहर जाते हुए भी, कुछ भाषा सम्बन्धी काम हम बच्चों के साथ करें तो यकीनन उनकी भाषा सम्बन्धी दक्षताएँ (Language related competencies) बेहतर होंगी। आम तौर पर विद्यालय में भाषा-ज्ञान की औपचारिक शुरुआत वर्णमाला से की जाती है। इसके कारण हम बच्चों के पास पहले से उपलब्ध भाषा-ज्ञान जो कि वह अपने माहौल में सीखता है और शब्द-भण्डार की ओर ध्यान नहीं दे पाते। पढ़ाने के अपने तरीकों में हमें इस बात का ध्यान रखने की कोशिश की ओर बढ़ना चाहिए ताकि बच्चे के पास पहले से उपलब्ध खजाने का लाभ भाषा-शिक्षण के लिए मिल पाए।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

5. भाषा के सन्दर्भ में गीजू भाई के विचारों के महत्व को प्रतिपादित करें। ?
6. "घर की भाषा बनाम विद्यालय की भाषा सम्बंधित विभिन्न आयामों को आप किस तरह से देखते हैं ? स्पष्ट करें।
7. भाषा ज्ञान के संदर्भ में शिक्षक की भूमिका कैसी होनी चाहिए ?

4.5 शिक्षा के माध्यम के रूप में मातृभाषा का महत्व (The Importance of Mother Tongue as the Medium of Education)

मातृभाषा में अन्य विषयों की तरह एक विषय ही नहीं है बल्कि यह समस्त विषयों के अध्ययन का माध्यम भी है। व्यक्ति में भाषा से संबंधित ज्ञान जितना अधिक गहरा और व्यापक होता है, उतनी ही

तीव्रता और सरलता से अन्य विषयों का ज्ञानार्जन करता है। यदि व्यक्ति को मातृभाषा के अतिरिक्त किसी अन्य भाषा में शिक्षण कार्य करवाया जाता है, तो वह उतना स्वाभाविक और बोधगम्य नहीं होता है जितना मातृभाषा में। अतः मातृभाषा में शिक्षण न केवल व्यक्ति के भाषायी और साहित्यिक ज्ञान में वृद्धि करता है बल्कि उसके अन्य विषयों के ज्ञान का मार्ग भी प्रशस्त करता है। बालक बचपन से ही मातृभाषा के साहचर्य (association) में रहता है, इसलिए उसका भाषायी ज्ञान सम्पन्न और समृद्ध होता है और उसकी अभिव्यक्ति भी कर पाता है। जैसे-जैसे व्यक्ति मातृभाषा के माध्यम से शिक्षा ग्रहण करता जाता है-वैसे वैसे उसकी भाषा और भी समर्थ और सम्पन्न होती जाती है। मातृभाषा और शिक्षण की भाषा एक होने से शिक्षण में संबंध स्थापित हो जाता है। व्यक्ति को जो कुछ भी पढाया जाता है वह सहज ही ग्रहण कर लेता है और यह ज्ञान स्थायी होता है। गांधी जी ने मातृभाषा को व्यक्ति के लिए बहुत ही आवश्यक माना है उन्होंने कहा है कि “मनुष्य के मानसिक विकास के लिए मातृभाषा उतनी ही आवश्यक है जितना कि बच्चे के शारीरिक विकास के लिए मातृभाषा माता का दूध”। गांधीजी मातृभाषा को शिक्षा का माध्यम बनाने के पक्ष में थे। उच्च शिक्षा का माध्यम मातृभाषा न होने से दुःखी होकर गांधीजी कहा कि “यदि मैं कुछ दिनों के लिए तानाशाह हो जाऊं तो मातृभाषाओं को तत्काल ही उच्च शिक्षा का माध्यम बना दूँ। इसके लिए भले ही उन प्रोफेसरों को हटाना पड़े जो अपने को मातृभाषा में पढाने में असमर्थ कहने में गर्व समझते हैं।” अनेक प्रयासों के बाद माध्यमिक स्तर तक मातृभाषाओं को शिक्षा का माध्यम बनाया गया है। लेकिन आज में भी उच्च शिक्षा और विश्व विद्यालय शिक्षा का माध्यम अंग्रेजी ही है। इसकी वजह से भारत में मातृभाषाओं की स्थिति दयनीय है। भारत ज्ञान-विज्ञान की दृष्टि से आज भी पिछड़ा हुआ है। जब तक मातृभाषा को उच्च शिक्षा का माध्यम नहीं बना दिया जाता, तब तक न तो मातृभाषा का विकास हो सकता है ना ही देश की उन्नति हो सकती है। मातृभाषा को उच्च शिक्षा का माध्यम न बनाया जाने के पीछे यह तर्क दिया जाता है कि भारत में उच्च स्तर की पाठ्य पुस्तकों का अभाव है। मातृभाषा को उच्च शिक्षा का माध्यम बनाया जाने के बाद ही मातृभाषा में पुस्तकें लिखी जा सकती है। टैगोर ने इस संबंध में लिखा है कि “मातृभाषा भाषा माध्यम होने पर उसमें पाठ्य पुस्तकें अपने आप लिखी जाएगी। जब वह माध्यम नहीं है तो इसमें पाठ्य पुस्तकें क्यों लिखी जाएगी। पाठ्य पुस्तकों के अभाव में मातृभाषाओं को माध्यम न बनाना वैसी ही बात है जैसे वृक्ष उस समय तक न बड़े जब तक पत्ते पहले न निकल आये या सरिता अपना प्रवाह रोक दें जब तक उसके तटों का निर्माण नहीं हो जाये”

अतः मातृभाषा को उच्च शिक्षा का माध्यम बनाकर उसे अधिक सम्पन्न और समृद्धशाली बना सकते हैं।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

8. शिक्षा के माध्यम के रूप में मातृभाषा के महत्व को प्रतिपादित करें। ?
9. गांधी जी के मातृभाषा के संदर्भ में विचारों को स्पष्ट करें।

4.6 सारांश

हमारे शिक्षा व्यवस्था के साथ गड़बड़ी यह है कि हम पाठ्यपुस्तक, कक्षाएं और परीक्षा व्यवस्था की तिकड़ी के दबाव के चलते हमारी विद्यालयी शिक्षा में बहुत कुछ है जिससे बच्चे वंचित रह जाते हैं। विद्यालय में भाषा से सम्बद्ध बंधे-बंधाए पाठ्यक्रम के चलते बच्चा अपनी स्वाभाविक, जीवन्त भाषा से दूर होता चला जाता है। शिक्षक होने के नाते यह भी हमारे लिए विचारणीय मुद्दा है कि विद्यालयी शिक्षा के तहत इस्तेमाल होने वाली भाषा की औपचारिकता का सम्बन्ध बच्चे की अनौपचारिक भाषा की जीवन्तता के साथ कैसे स्थापित किया जाए।

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4.8 निबंधात्मक प्रश्न

1. मातृभाषा के महत्त्व का उल्लेख कीजिए।
2. मातृभाषा शिक्षण के उद्देश्यों का वर्णन करो।
3. "शिक्षा का माध्यम मातृभाषा होनी चाहिए।" इस कथन पर अपने विचार का उल्लेख करो।

इकाई 5 - मानक भाषा के रूप में विद्यालयी भाषा की शक्ति की गतिकी बनाम घर की भाषा या बोली के शक्ति की गतिकी, न्यूनता या कमी का सिद्धांत , निरंतरता या गैर निरंतरता का सिद्धांत

(Power dynamics of the 'Standard' Language as the School Language vs. Home Language or 'Dialects'; (Deficit Theory; Discontinuity Theory)

- 5.1 प्रस्तावना
- 5.2 उद्देश्य
- 5.3 मानक भाषा के रूप में विद्यालयी भाषा की शक्ति-गतिकी बनाम घर की भाषा
- 5.4 मानक भाषा एवं घर के भाषा के मध्य द्वन्द को कम करने में शिक्षक की भूमिका
- 5.5 निरंतरता एवं गैर निरंतरता का सिद्धांत
- 5.6 न्यूनता या कमी का सिद्धांत
- 5.7 सारांश
- 5.8 शब्दावली
- 5.9 संदर्भ ग्रंथ सूची
- 5.10 निबंधात्मक प्रश्न

5.1 प्रस्तावना

भाषा एक साधन है जिसके द्वारा मनुष्य अपने भावों या विचारों को अभिव्यक्त करता है। भाषा जन्मजात नहीं होती है, इसका प्रयोग कहने, लिखने या संकेत के उद्देश्य से किया जाता है। यह सतत विकास के क्रम द्वारा प्राप्त किया गया होता है। दूसरे शब्दों में यह कहा जा सकता है कि भाषा मानव की सामाजिकता एवं बौद्धिकता के गर्भ से उत्पन्न होता है। इसके द्वारा मानव आज आर्थिक, वैज्ञानिक, राष्ट्रीय सामाजिक एवं अन्तरराष्ट्रीय सभी क्षेत्रों में अपने विचार के आदान-प्रदान में समर्थ हैं। भाषा मनुष्य के लिए एक ध्वनि संकेत की तरह है। इसका विचारों के लिये भी प्रयोग किया जाता है, इसी कारण मनुष्य सबको परख पाता

है। अब यहां एक बहुत महत्वपूर्ण प्रश्न उठता है कि क्या निरर्थक शब्द संकेत भी भाषा ही है। इस प्रश्न के उत्तर में यह कहा जा सकता है कि भाषा का प्रयोग सापेक्ष स्तर में लिया जाता है। भाषा समाज सापेक्ष होती है एवं मानव सापेक्ष भी। समाज एवं मानव से विभक्त होकर इसका न कोई महत्व है और न ही कोई अस्तित्व ही। भाषा मानव द्वारा अर्जित एक अनूठी उपलब्धि है। यह अर्जित उपलब्धि पीढ़ी दर पीढ़ी संप्रेषित सम्बर्धित और परिष्कृत होती रहती है। भाषा के सन्दर्भ में एक उल्लेखनीय बात यह है कि इसके विकास के विभिन्न सिद्धांत एवं आयाम हैं, प्रस्तुत इकाई में हम गतिशील मानक भाषा की शक्ति के साथ-साथ भाषा विकास के दो महत्वपूर्ण सिद्धांत न्यूनता या कमी का सिद्धांत, निरंतरता या गैर निरंतरता का सिद्धांत का अध्ययन करेंगे।

5.2 उद्देश्य

इस इकाई का अध्ययन के पश्चात आप-

1. निरंतरता एवं गैर निरंतरता सिद्धांत के महत्व को समझ सकेंगे।
2. निरंतरता के सिद्धांत को समझ सकेंगे।
3. न्यूनता या कमी का सिद्धांत के महत्व को समझ सकेंगे।
4. भाषा के शक्ति - गतिकी को समझ पायेंगे।
5. मानक भाषा एवं घर की भाषा सम्बंधित द्वन्द को समझ सकेंगे।

5.3 मानक भाषा के रूप में स्कूल के भाषा की शक्ति- गतिकी बनाम घर की भाषा (Power Dynamics of Standard Languages as the School Language Vs Home Language)

आइये, अब भाषा का मानक रूप किसे कहते हैं इस पर विचार विमर्श किया जाय। किसी भाषा क्षेत्र के पढ़े लिखे और शिष्ट लोग विचार- विनिमय, कार्य व्यापार, शिक्षा, साहित्य, धर्म, राजनीति आदि में जिस भाषा का प्रयोग करते हैं वह उस क्षेत्र की मानक (standard) या आदर्श भाषा मानी जाती है। यह भाषा व्याकरण सम्मत होती है तथा इसमें एकरूपता भी पायी जाती है। यही भाषा शिक्षा का माध्यम होती है। सामान्यतः इसी में पात्र पत्रिकाएं भी प्रकाशित होती हैं। इसका क्षेत्र विकसित होता है। उस सम्बन्धित भाषा क्षेत्र के अन्य भाषा बोलने वाले लोग भी इसी भाषा को बोलने और लिखने का प्रयत्न करते हैं। मानक भाषा का लिखित रूप उसके मौखिक रूप की अपेक्षा अधिक परिष्कृत होता है, परन्तु उसका लिखित रूप उसके मौखिक रूप की अपेक्षा अधिक स्वाभाविक होता है।

जब बालक अपने विद्यालय के प्रारम्भिक वर्षों में दो या दो से अधिक भाषाओं को समझने की योग्यता विकसित करता है तो वह भाषा को किसी न किसी प्रकार से प्रयोग करने की गहन समझ विकसित कर लेता है। वह भाषा को निखारने के लिए और अधिक अभ्यास करता है, जिसके लिए परिस्थितियाँ उसके शिक्षक द्वारा तैयार करके दी जाती हैं। वह अपनी मातृभाषा और अन्य भाषा में तुलना करता है। शोध से पता चला है कि दो भाषाओं को जानने वाले व्यक्ति में विचारने की क्षमता अधिक होती है। इसके परिमाण स्वरूप वह सूचनाओं के विभिन्न पहलुओं पर विचार कर सकता है।

प्राथमिक शिक्षा का सबसे अधिक महत्वपूर्ण पहलू है बच्चे का भाषा सीख पाना। यह तो सभी मानते हैं। यह सबसे अधिक महत्वपूर्ण पहलू क्यों है? इसके जवाब में बहुत सारी बड़ी सूची बनाई जा सकती है। भाषा ही बच्चे के लिए स्रोत का काम करती है और वह अभिव्यक्ति का भी औजार है। इसी से होकर शिक्षा के अन्य पहलुओं तक बालक की पहुँच हो पाती है विज्ञान (Science), गणित (Maths), सामाजिक अध्ययन (Social Studies) आदि भाषा में खासतौर पर औपचारिक व पुस्तक की भाषा पर पर्याप्त क्षमता हासिल किए बिना समझ पाना संभव ही नहीं है। भाषा के माध्यम से ही बालक विचार का ताना-बाना बुन पाता है, निर्णय के लिए तर्क गढ़ पाता है। यह भूमिका मात्र माध्यम के रूप में नहीं है। अक्सर इस पर विचार करते समय भाषा की भूमिका को समझने में एक खास तरह का एकांगीपन भी आ जाता है। जैसे यह समझा जा सकता है कि भाषा एक साधन है जो इन सब उद्देश्यों के लिए आवश्यक है ऐसा साधन जो हथौड़े की तरह या फिर दीवार पर चढ़ने के लिए उसके साथ खड़ी एक सीढ़ी की तरह। जिस प्रकार उद्देश्य छत पर चढ़ना है व सीढ़ी साधन उसी प्रकार भाषा भी एक साधन है, संप्रेषण (Communication) का, विचार कर पाने का, विज्ञान, गणित आदि सीखने, निर्णय ले पाना, आदि का एक साधन है जो हमसे इतर है और सबके लिए एक सा ही है। यह बात एक तरह से ठीक है पर अधूरी है असल में जितनी ठीक है उतनी गलत भी है। भाषा साधन होने के साथ-साथ बहुत कुछ और भी है यह हमारे व्यक्तित्व व अहम का आधार है, हमारी संस्कृति व समझ का भंडार भी है।

इंसान अपने आस-पास की दुनिया को केवल महसूस ही नहीं करता; वह उसे अपने लिए अर्थ भी देता है। मुझे आसमान में बादल दिखता है इस देखने से मैं जो महसूस करता हूँ, मेरे मस्तिष्क पर जो प्रभाव पड़ता है, मेरे काम पर जो प्रभाव पड़ता है, वह आसमान में अलग-अलग आकार व रंगवाली आकृति मात्र देखने का प्रभाव नहीं है वह मेरे और 'बादल' के बीच और उस समय की मेरी स्थिति के बीच अंतःक्रिया का प्रभाव है। भूमंडलीकरण के दौर में आज एक भाषा का ज्ञान पर्याप्त नहीं है। बच्चे की मातृभाषा दूसरी भाषा के विकास में महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका निभाती है। जो बालक अपनी मातृभाषा की मजबूत नींव के साथ विद्यालय जाता है, उसमें विद्यालयी भाषा की उच्च योग्यता विकसित होती है। भारत में आज भी उच्च शिक्षा मातृभाषा में प्रदान नहीं की जाती है। इससे मातृभाषा अंग्रेजी की तुलना में पिछड़ती जा रही है। लेकिन अंग्रेजी के महत्व को नाकारा नहीं जा सकता है। विश्व के दूसरे देशों के व्यक्तियों से संपर्क करने के लिए अंग्रेजी की आवश्यकता होती है। अंग्रेजी के बिना दूसरे लोगों की भावनाओं, विचारों और अभिव्यक्ति को समझा नहीं जा सकता है।

एक और महत्वपूर्ण मसला है भाषा व बोली का जिसे हम मानक भाषा बनाम घर की भाषा का द्वन्द का कह सकते हैं। जिस भी मंच पर भाषा शिक्षण या भाषा के महत्व की बात होती है यह मसला जरूर उठता है। प्रारम्भ में जब बच्चा अपने घर से विद्यालय आता है उस समय वह केवल घर की भाषा ही बोल पाने में सक्षम होता है उस घर की भाषा को बोली का दर्जा भी प्रदान किया गया है। बच्चा तब हीन भावना से ग्रस्त हो जाता है जब उसे यह बात समझ में आती है कि उसकी बोली को दूसरे दर्जे की भाषा समझा जा रहा है। ऐसी परिस्थितियों में वह बच्चा बोलना ही बंद कर देता है और कुंठा का शिकार हो जाता है। इसके साथ ही साथ यह माना जाता है कि भाषा तो वह होती है जिसका अपना साहित्य व व्याकरण होता है, उसकी लिपि होती है, वह मानकीकृत व शुद्ध होती है। बच्चा जो भाषा अपने घर से आता है वह भाषा नहीं है क्योंकि वह तो एक क्षेत्र विशेष के लोगों द्वारा बोली जाती है, उसका न साहित्य है, न व्याकरण और न लिपि। अतः स्कूल के पहले दिन से ही बच्चों को मानकीकृत और शुद्ध भाषा सिखाने का प्रयास किया जाता है और यदि बच्चे अपनी घरेलू भाषा का प्रयोग विद्यालय में करता है तो उन्हें डाँट दिया जाता है। बच्चे यह समझ नहीं पाते कि उन्हें डाँटा क्यों जा रहा है? घर में आस-पास परिवेश में हर तरफ वही भाषा बोली जाती है पर स्कूल में अध्यापक के सामने जब वह बोलता है तो उसे गलत कहा जाता है। बात यहीं समाप्त नहीं होती है, जैसा कि हम यह जानते हैं कि भाषा व्यक्ति की संस्कृति व पहचान होती है। बच्चे को अपनी घरेलू भाषा का उपयोग न करने देना उसकी पहचान व संस्कृति पर सीधा प्रहार हातो है। बार-बार डाँट खाने के कारण जो बच्चे इतनी बातचीत करते हैं, वो धीरे- धीरे बात करना ही बन्द कर देते हैं।

यदि भाषा विज्ञान की दृष्टि से देखा जाए तो भी भाषा व बोली में कोई फर्क नहीं होता। भाषा का भी व्याकरण होता है और बोली का भी। यह बात जरूर है कि बोली का व्याकरण लिखित रूप में उपलब्ध नहीं होता, किन्तु इसका तात्पर्य यह नहीं है कि व्याकरण हातो ही नहीं। यही बात साहित्य पर भी लागू होती है। हो सकता है कि कई 'बोलियों (भाषाओं)' में लिखित साहित्य न हो लेकिन मौखिक साहित्य जरूर होता है। भोजपुरी, अवधी, मैथिली-गढ़वाली, कुमायूनी जिन्हें हम बोलियाँ कहते हैं उनमें तो बहुत साहित्य उपलब्ध है। इसी तरह यह कहा जाता है कि भाषा का क्षेत्र विस्तृत होता है और बोली एक सीमित क्षेत्र में बोली जाती है।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

1. भाषा के मानक रूप से आप क्या समझते हैं ?
2. बोली एवं भाषा के व्याकरण में क्या अंतर है ? स्पष्ट करें।

5.4 मानक भाषा एवं घर के भाषा के मध्य द्वन्द को कम करने में शिक्षक की भूमिका: (The Role of Teacher in Reducing the Conflict between Standard Language and Home Language)

अब हम यह समझेंगे कि स्कूल की भाषा एवं घर की भाषा में सामंजस्य कैसे स्थापित करेंगे और इसमें शिक्षक की क्या भूमिका है –

1. **बच्चे के पूर्व अर्जित ज्ञान का स्वागत:(Acknowledge the previous knowledge of the child)** - बच्चा जिस क्षेत्र और भाषा से संबंध रखता है उससे संबंधित जानकारी भी अपने साथ लाता है। विद्यालय में आने पर शिक्षक के द्वारा कुछ भी पूछे जाने पर वह अपने पूर्व अर्जित ज्ञान के आधार पर उत्तर बहुत हास्यास्पद और कभी-कभी कुछ सोचने और समझने के लिए बाध्य करने वाला होता है। ऐसे में शिक्षक को उसके पूर्व अर्जित ज्ञान का स्वागत करने हुए ध्यानपूर्वक सुनते और समझते हुए स्नेह एवं दुलार के साथ उसे सीखने का अवसर देना होगा। ऐसा करने बच्चे आपस में एक-दूसरे की भाषा, संस्कार, विचार और मान्यताओं से अनजाने में ही परिचित हो जाते हैं। इस तरह सरलता से वह बहुत सी बातें कब सीख जाते हैं और भाषा की जो दीवार ज्ञान अर्जन में अडचन बनी हुई थी कब गिर जाती है, पता ही नहीं चलता और भाषा सीखने की क्षमता विकसित होती जाती है।
2. **बच्चे के घर और विद्यालय में बोली जाने वाली भाषा के बीच में जुड़ाव:(The link between home language and the school language of the child)** -बच्चा विद्यालय अपनी एक विशेष भाषा (क्षेत्रीय विशेषता) के साथ आता है। ऐसे में शिक्षक को उसकी भाषा और विद्यालय की भाषा (मानक भाषा) के बीच में जुड़ाव करते हुए उसे धीरे-धीरे सहजता से लेते हुए बोधगम्यता और मानकता की ओर ले जाना होता है। बच्चे जो भाषा पहले बोलना शुरू करते हैं (मातृभाषा या प्रांतीय भाषा) उसी में उनकी समझ बनती है और उसी में वे अर्थ निकालते हैं। ये अर्थ बच्चों के लिए क्या मायने रखते हैं इस को समझना होगा। इसके लिए शिक्षक को कुछ अतिरिक्त मेहनत और नयी तैयारी करनी पड़ सकती है लेकिन बच्चों को भाषा सिखाने के लिए यह एक सार्थक कदम हो सकता है। इससे शिक्षक को बच्चों को उनकी घर की बोली में स्वीकृत करते हुए उनको नयी चीजों को सार्थक तरीके से समझाने में मदद मिलेगी। कभी-कभी ऐसी स्थिति भी आती है कि घर की और शिक्षण की भाषा एक ही होती है परंतु भाषा एर क्षेत्रीय प्रभाव अत्यधिक होता है। ऐसे में पाठ के सदर्भ में व्यवहार और अभ्यास के नियमों का आधारभूत ज्ञान कराकर अभ्यास से मानकता तक पहुँचा जा सकता है।
3. **बच्चे की मातृभाषा को प्रोत्साहन (Encourage the mother tongue of the child) :-** मातृभाषा को महत्व देने से एक विशेष लाभ यह होता है कि बच्चे आपस में एक-दूसरे के क्षेत्र विशेष से परिचित होते हैं और खेल-ही-खेल में सैकड़ों शब्द सीख जाते हैं क्योंकि विद्यालय वह स्थान है जहाँ सभी क्षेत्रों के बच्चे आते हैं। भारत के संविधान की आठवीं अनुसूची में वर्णित 22 भाषाएँ हैं। विद्यालय आने वाला प्रत्येक बच्चा इन 22 भाषाओं में से किसी-न-किसी एक भाषा को

समझने वाला होता है। अब यदि दैनिक जरूरत की वस्तुओं के नामों का ही अभ्यास कराया जाए (उदाहरण के लिए-खाना,पहनावा ,त्यौहार) तो इन भाषाओं के कितने ही शब्द बच्चे सीख जाएंगे जो अध्ययन में सरलता का आधार तो बनेगा ही साथ ही इससे अप्रत्यक्ष रूप से अन्य भारतीय भाषाओं का विकास भी होगा। ऐसा वैज्ञानिक तौर पर माना भी जाता है कि बच्चे के पूर्ण ज्ञान, भाषिक क्षमता और मानसिक विकास का सही प्रयोग सामान्यतः मातृ भाषा में ही संभव होता है और बच्चा ज्यादा अच्छी तरह समझ पाता है। इससे भाषिक और सांस्कृतिक दूरी को पाटने में भी मदद मिलेगी। वैसे भी अगर आप किसी से कहें कि आप दो-तीन भाषाएँ सीख लीजिए, तो सरलता से यह बिलकुल संभव नहीं होगा। परन्तु उपरोक्त विधि प्रयोग का आधार बनाया जाए तो यह शायद उतना कठिन नहीं होगा जितना प्रथम स्तर पर होगा। हमें यह नहीं भूलना चाहिये कि कोई भी भाषा अपनी सहयोगी भाषाओं के साथ ही विकसित होती है। बच्चे कि मातृभाषा को प्रोत्साहन मिलने पर उसे अपने में प्रस्तुत करने का मौका मिलेगा। हो सकता है शुरू में वह गलत उच्चारण करे, उसको आप धीरे-धीरे सही करें। उसको सृजन शक्ति का विकास हो सके, वह अपने को संदर्भ से केंद्रित कर सके और अपनी सृजनात्मकता को विकसित कर सके।

4. **बच्चे की सहज अभिव्यक्ति और शैली कों महत्व (The importance of simple expression and style of the child)** – कई बार शिक्षक अभिव्यक्ति की बजाय सही उच्चारण पर अधिक बल देता है, जिससे बच्चा बहुत भयभीत हो जाता है और जीवन भर के लिए उस अभिव्यक्ति क्षमता को खो देता है, जो उसकी अपनी थी साथ ही सहयोग के बिना अर्जित की गयी अभिव्यक्ति करने में कामयाब भी नहीं हो पाता है। यह बच्चे के लिए गंभीर स्थिति होती है। ऐसे में गंभीर स्थिति होती है। ऐसे में शिक्षक को धीरे-धीरे एक-एक करके संशोधन करना होगा, अभ्यास कराना होगा। जहाँ बच्चा अभिव्यक्ति ना कर पाए वहाँ उसे शब्दों का सहारा देकर उसकी अभिव्यक्ति क्षमता को विकसित करना होगा। जैसे (ष,स,क्ष,श्र) कुछ शब्दों का उच्चारण जो क्षेत्रीय प्रभाव के कारण फर्क होता है।
5. **व्यवहार और अभ्यास के नियमों का ज्ञान:(To make aware with the rules of behaviour and exercise)-** बच्चे को व्याकरण के नियमों के आधार पर भाषा को सही तरीके से सिखाने के प्रयास में शिक्षक को चाहिए कि वे बच्चे को व्याकरण की अवधारणा को विविध प्रकार के पाठों के संदर्भ में पहचानना और उसका उचित प्रयोग करना सिखाएँ।
6. **यंत्रवत् भाषा से बचाव:(To save him from mechanical language)** - भाषा को वर्णों और कुछ हद तक अर्थ के आधार पर तो सीखा जा सकता है परंतु गहनता और पूर्णता से नहीं सीखा जा सकता क्योंकि यंत्रवत् तरीके से कई शब्दों को उस अर्थ में संप्रेषित नहीं किया जा सकता जिस अर्थ में उन्हें संप्रेषित करना होता है। यदि नियम याद कराने को वाक्य का आधार बनाएँगे तो सीखने में अत्यधिक कठिनाई होगी जिसमें भाषा को सहजता से नहीं सीखा जा सकेगा। यहाँ अनिवार्य रूप से याद रखना होगा कि व्यवहार और अभ्यास के आधारभूत नियमों के अभ्यास के बिना भाषा सीखना संभव नहीं हो पाएगा।

इस तरह भाषा सिखाने की प्रक्रिया में शिक्षक द्वारा सहजता को आधार बनाकर बच्चे को धीरे-धीरे बेहतर दुनिया और ज्ञान से जोड़ने के लिए प्रारंभ से ही विचरण कराना होगा। यह काम उसके आत्मगौरव और आत्मविश्वास को ठेस पहुँचाए बिना आहिस्ता-आहिस्ता करना होगा। इससे एक लाभ यह भी होगा कि अपनी जड़ों से बिना जुड़े रहने के कारण मन में अपनी भाषा के प्रति किसी प्रकार की हीन भावना महसूस नहीं होगी और ऐसे बच्चे का प्रांतीय भाषा, मातृभाषा और शिक्षण की भाषा पर पर्याप्त अधिकार होगा।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

3. मातृभाषा के प्रोत्साहन के विभिन्न तरीके कौन कौन से हो सकते हैं ? प्रकाश डालें।
4. बच्चे के घर की भाषा एवं विद्यालय के भाषा में जुड़ाव कैसे स्थापित कर सकते हैं ?
5. मानक भाषा एवं स्कूल की भाषा में सामंजस्य स्थापित करने में शिक्षक की क्या भूमिका है? स्पष्ट करें।

5.5 निरंतरता एवं गैर निरंतरता का सिद्धांत: (Theory of Continuity and Discontinuity)

मानव प्रजाति में भाषा की उत्पत्ति कई सदियों के लिए विद्वानों के विचार विमर्श का विषय रहा है। इस के बावजूद, मानव भाषा का परम मूल या उम्र पर कोई आम सहमति नहीं बन पायी है। प्रत्यक्ष साक्ष्य के अभाव में इस समस्या का अध्ययन एक कठिन विषय बन गया है। परिणामस्वरूप, भाषा का मूल अध्ययन करने के इच्छुक विद्वानों ऐसे जीवाश्म रिकॉर्ड, पुरातात्विक साक्ष्य, समकालीन भाषा विविधता, मानव भाषा और अन्य जानवरों के बीच मौजूदा संचार की प्रणालियों के बीच भाषा के अधिग्रहण का अध्ययन, और तुलना के रूप में सबूत के द्वारा अन्य प्रकार से अनुमान लगाने की कोशिश करनी चाहिए। कई महानुभावों का तर्क है कि भाषा का उद्भव शायद आधुनिक मानव व्यवहार से संबंधित हैं, लेकिन इस संबंध के निहितार्थ और दिशात्मकता के बारे में थोड़ा संदेह भी है।

अनुभवजन्य सबूत के इस कमी के कारण बहुत से विद्वानों ने इसे गंभीर शोध का विषय नहीं माना है। 1866 में पेरिस के भाषाई सोसायटी (Linguistic Society) इस विषय पर किसी भी मौजूदा या भविष्य की बहस पर प्रतिबंध लगा दिया। यह प्रतिबन्ध बीसवीं सदी की आखिर तक पश्चिमी दुनिया के बहुत से देशों में प्रभावशाली बना रहा है। आज के इस युग भाषा का प्रादुर्भाव कैसे हुआ होगा की बहुत सी परिकल्पनाएं हैं। इस के बावजूद, चार्ल्स डार्विन के सिद्धांत द्वारा एक सौ साल पहले, प्राकृतिक चयन द्वारा भाषा के विकास के विषय पर कुर्सी अटकलों का भी दौर चला। इसके बाद से 1990 के दशक में, भाषाविदों (Linguists), पुरातत्वविदों (Archeologists), मनोवैज्ञानिक (Psychologists), मानवविज्ञानियों ने नए तरीकों के साथ समाधान करने का प्रयास किया है।

मानवीय भाषा की उत्पत्ति (Origin of human language) एवं बात व्यवहार के माध्यम के रूप में इसे लेंबर्ग द्वारा दो भागों में विभाजित किया गया। पहले भाग के सिद्धांत को निरंतरता का सिद्धांत कहा गया जो कि मूलतः डार्विन के सिद्धांत से प्रभावित सिद्धांत है। दूसरे भाग को गैर निरंतरता का सिद्धांत कहा गया जो इस बात का समर्थन करता था कि मानवीय भाषा को दूसरे जीव जंतुओं की भाषा से तुलना नहीं की जा सकती तथा इसे समझने के लिए मानवीय भाषा का ही अध्ययन करना पड़ेगा। गैर निरंतरता के सिद्धांत को समझने के लिये केवल भाषा की उत्पत्ति को समझना ही पर्याप्त नहीं है। हालांकि इस बात पर अभी चर्चा एवं विवाद दोनों है कि भाषा ग्रहण करने की क्षमता अन्तर्निहित है या वातावरण केंद्रित। कुछ विद्वानों का यह तर्क है कि इस तरह की क्षमता अन्तर्निहित है क्योंकि चिम्पान्जीयों को मानवीय परिवेश में रखे जाने के बाद भी उनमें भाषा की योग्यता पैदा नहीं हो पाती जबकि एक गूंगे एवं बहरे बच्चे को जब हम मानवीय परिवेश में रखते हैं तो भी वह बोलने एवं सुनने की एक जटिल संरचना बना लेता है।

भाषा की उत्पत्ति को निम्न मान्यताओं के आधार पर समझा जा सकता है -

1. " निरंतरता सिद्धांत " ऐसे मान्यताओं पर बने हुए है जिसमें इस बात पर सहमति है कि भाषा एकाएक अस्तित्व में नहीं आयी होगी क्योंकि भाषा की संरचना बहुत ही जटिल होती है। निरंतरता सिद्धांत इस बात पर बल देता है कि भाषा का प्रादुर्भाव अवश्य ही हमारे पूर्वजों के पहले प्री- भाषाई सिस्टम से विकसित हुआ होगा।
2. गैर निरंतरता सिद्धांत इसके विपरीत होकर अपनी बात कहता है। इस सिद्धांत की मान्यता है कि भाषा जैसी अनूठी विशेषता को हम गैर- मनुष्यों के साथ तुलना नहीं कर सकते। यह सिद्धांत इस बात पर भी बल देता है कि अवश्य ही इस तरह की योग्यता का विकास मानव विकास के क्रम में ही हुआ होगा।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

6. निरंतरता के सिद्धांत से आप क्या समझते हैं ?
7. गैर- निरंतरता के सिद्धांत से आप क्या समझते हैं ?
8. निरंतरता एवं गैर- निरंतरता के सिद्धांत में अंतर स्पष्ट करें।

5.6 न्यूनता या कमी का सिद्धांत (Deficit Theory)

न्यूनता या कमी का सिद्धांत इस बात पर बल देता है कि कोई भी भाषा का एक मानक स्वरूप (Standard Form) होता है। इस मानक स्वरूप के हिसाब से ही किसी लेख या भाषिक टुकड़े की गुणवत्ता को जांचा या परखा जाता है। जैसा कि भाषा का स्वभाव होता है कि उसका प्रवाह सर्वदा कठिनता से सरलता के

तरफ होता है। इसी प्रवाह के कारण भाषा का स्वरूप मानक स्वरूप से दूर हो जाता है। जिस भाषा में इस प्रवाह का आभाव होता है वह भाषा मृतप्राय हो जाती है। कई विद्वानों ने अपने-अपने तरफ से इस न्यूनता को परिभाषित करने की कोशिश की है।

इसे यदि हम जेंडर और भाषा के द्वन्द के रूप में देखें तो बात ज्यादा स्पष्ट होगी। जैसा कि नाम से ही यह दृष्टिगोचर है कि न्यूनता या हास का सिद्धांत में पुरुषों की भाषा महिलाओं की भाषा से इत्र देखने की संकल्पना निहित है। यह सिद्धांत इस मान्यता पर आधारित है कि भाषा की संरचना पुरुष केन्द्रित (Male-Centred) है और इसमें महिलाओं के लिए अति न्यून स्थान प्रदान किया गया है। यह मान्यता इस बात पर बल देती है कि पुरुषों की भाषा महिलाओं की भाषा से हर प्रकार से बेहतर एवं श्रेष्ठ है। साइमन दी बुआ की पुस्तक द सेकेण्ड सेक्स (The Second Sex, 1949) न्यूनता/ हास के सिद्धांत का साहित्य के क्षेत्र में एक श्रेष्ठ नमूना कहा जा सकता है।

आधुनिक भाषा विज्ञान के क्षेत्र में न्यूनता या हास के सिद्धांत का प्रथम नमूना डेनमार्क के वैयाकरण जेस्पर्सन (1922) के कार्य में स्पष्टतः दिखाई देता है। जेस्पर्सन महोदय के अनुसार महिलाओं की बातचीत का पैटर्न महिलाओं के बातचीत के पैटर्न से बिल्कुल इतर होता है। अपने अतिमहत्वपूर्ण पुस्तक “द ग्रामर ऑफ इंग्लिश” (The grammar of English, 1922) के चौथे अध्याय जिसका शीर्षक “The Woman” है में उसने चार महत्वपूर्ण भाषिक विभिन्नता रेखांकित की। ये चारों निम्नलिखित हैं

1. The Verbal Taboo
2. Competing language
3. Conversational Language
4. Conservative Language

अपनी इसी पुस्तक में आगे चलकर जेस्पर्सन ने बताया कि पुरुष भाषा के प्रयोग में महिलाओं से बेहतर होते हैं। उसने कहा कि महिलायें बहुत ही सीमित शब्दों (Limited Vocabulary) का प्रयोग करती हैं। उनकी बातचीत के दौरान Pretty, Nice, Just, Very and Sweet जैसे क्रिया विशेषणों (Adverb) का प्रयोग आधिक्य में होता है। इसके विपरीत वह यह भी बात कहता है कि महिलायें नए शब्दों का आविष्कार भी करती हैं। आगे चल कर अपनी इसी पुस्तक में उसने यह भी प्रतिपादित भी किया कि महिलायें अपने शब्द प्रयोग में पुरुषों की अपेक्षा अधिक रूढ़िवादी (Conservative) होती हैं। अन्त में जेस्पर्सन ने महिलाओं के भाषिक दृष्टि से भाषिक तीव्रता के स्थान पर भाषिक मंद होने की मान्यता की पुष्टि की।

उदाहरण के लिए – पुरुष की भाषा को मानक भाषा एवं महिला की भाषा को गैर - मानक भाषा समझा जाता है। जेस्पर्सन के बाद एक अन्य भाषाविज्ञानी जिसका नाम राबिन लैकाफ (Robin Lakoff) था ने 1975 में *Language and Woman's Place* नामक पुस्तक में अपनी इस बात को प्रतिपादित किया है। अपनी बात रखते हुए लैकाफ महोदय ने यह बात प्रतिपादित किया है कि चूँकि समाज में महिलाओं का स्थान पुरुषों की अपेक्षा निम्नतर आकाँ गया है इसलिए भाषा पर भी यही बात लागू होती

है। भाषा का स्वभाव भी निरपेक्ष न हो कर पुरुष केन्द्रित हो जाता है। उसने उसी पश्चिमी धारणा को बल प्रदान किया जिसकी शुरुआत जेस्पर्सन ने किया था। राबिन लैकाफ जो कि एक अमेरिकी भाषाविद था ने एक अतिमहत्वपूर्ण दस्तावेज सन 1973 में *Language and Woman's Place* शीर्षक लेख प्रकाशित हुआ जो कि कालांतर में सन 1975 में एक पुस्तक के रूप में भी प्रकाशित हुआ। इस पुस्तक के प्रकाशन को भाषा एवं जेंडर के अध्ययन में एक मील का पत्थर तथा एक नयी सदी का प्रारम्भ माना जाता है। इस पुस्तक का महत्व इसलिए भी ज्यादा है क्योंकि जेस्पर्सन के कार्य से इतर यह फेमिनिज्म की दूसरी धारा से प्रभावित थी इसलिए यह फेमिनिस्ट लिंग्वीस्ट का बेहतरीन नमूना भी माना जाता है। वास्तविकता में महिला मुक्ति की क्रान्ति का आह्वान अमेरिका में सन 1970 में हो चुका था। इसमें इसलिए भी लैकाफ के विचारों का महत्व बढ़ जाता है क्योंकि प क्योंकि पहले चल रहे आंदोलन के विचारों को और अधिक बेहतर बनाए जाने में उपयोगी सिद्ध हुआ। लैकाफ के अनुसार चूंकि महिलायें समाज में हाशिए पर रहीं है इसलिए भाषिक रूप से उतनी मजबूत नहीं हो पायी जितनी की पुरुष हैं।

लैकाफ के पुस्तक तीन मुख्य उद्देश्य थे

- भाषा क्या बता सकती है, लैंगिक असमानता के बारे में जो कि भाषा में मौजूद है।
- क्या भाषाविद सामाजिक असमानता को भाषा में सुधार करके ठीक कर सकते हैं।
- भाषा और जेंडर पर शोध कार्य को बढ़ावा देना।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

- न्यूनता या कमी के सिद्धांत से आप क्या समझते हैं ?
- न्यूनता सिद्धांत को लेकर के लैकाफ महोदय के विचारों को स्पष्ट करें।

5.7 सारांश

भाषा, मानव की सामाजिकता एवं बौद्धिकता के गर्भ से उत्पन्न होता है। इसके द्वारा मानव आज आर्थिक, वैज्ञानिक, राष्ट्रीय, सामाजिक एवं अंतर्राष्ट्रीय सभी क्षेत्रों में अपने विचार के आदान-प्रदान में समर्थ हैं। भाषा मनुष्य के लिए एक ध्वनि संकेत की तरह है। इसका विचारों के लिये भी प्रयोग किया जाता है इसी कारण मनुष्य सबको परख पाता है। निरंतरता सिद्धांत ऐसे मान्यताओं पर बने हुए है जिसमें इस बात पर सहमति है कि भाषा एका-एक अस्तित्व में नहीं आयी होगी क्योंकि भाषा की संरचना बहुत ही जटिल होती है। निरंतरता सिद्धांत इस बात पर बल देता है कि भाषा का प्रादुर्भाव अवश्य ही हमारे पूर्वजों के पहले प्री-भाषाई सिस्टम से विकसित हुआ होगा। गैर निरंतरता सिद्धांत इसके विपरीत होकर अपनी बात कहता है। इस सिद्धांत की मान्यता है कि भाषा जैसी अनूठी विशेषता को हम गैर-मनुष्यों के साथ तुलना नहीं कर सकते। यह सिद्धांत इस बात पर भी बल देता है कि अवश्य ही इस तरह की योग्यता

का विकास मानव विकास के क्रम में ही हुआ होगा। न्यूनता या कमी का सिद्धांत इस बात पर बल देता है कि कोई भी भाषा का एक मानक स्वरूप होता है। इस मानक स्वरूप के हिसाब से ही किसी लेख या भाषिक टुकड़े की गुणवत्ता को जांचा या परखा जाता है। जैसा कि भाषा का स्वभाव होता है कि उसका प्रवाह सर्वदा कठिनता से सरलता के तरफ होता है। इसी प्रवाह के कारण भाषा का स्वरूप मानक स्वरूप से दूर हो जाता है।

5.8 शब्दावली

1. **निरंतरता सिद्धांत** : निरंतरता सिद्धांत ऐसे मान्यताओं पर बने हुए है जिसमें इस बात पर सहमति है कि भाषा एकाएक अस्तित्व में नहीं आयी होगी क्योंकि भाषा की संरचना बहुत ही जटिल होती है। निरंतरता सिद्धांत इस बात पर बल देता है कि भाषा का प्रादुर्भाव अवश्य ही हमारे पूर्वजों के पहले प्री- भाषाई सिस्टम से विकसित हुआ होगा।
2. **गैर निरंतरता सिद्धांत** : गैर निरंतरता सिद्धांत इसके विपरीत होकर अपनी बात कहता है। इस सिद्धांत की मान्यता है कि भाषा जैसी अनूठी विशेषता को हम गैर- मनुष्यों के साथ तुलना नहीं कर सकते। यह सिद्धांत इस बात पर भी बल देता है कि अवश्य ही इस तरह की योग्यता का विकास मानव विकास के क्रम में ही हुआ होगा।

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5.10 निबंधात्मक प्रश्न

1. मानक भाषा एवं घर के भाषा के द्वन्द को कैसे कम किया जा सकता है? स्पष्ट कीजिए।
2. निरंतरता सिद्धांत एवं गैर- निरंतरता सिद्धांत में क्या अंतर है स्पष्ट कीजिए।
3. गैर- निरंतरता सिद्धांत के संप्रत्यय को स्पष्ट कीजिए।
4. कमी या न्यूनता के सिद्धांत से आप क्या समझते हैं ? स्पष्ट कीजिए।

इकाई 6 - अनुदेशन की भाषा

- 6.1 प्रस्तावना
- 6.2 उद्देश्य
- 6.3 अनुदेशन की भाषा
- 6.4 गृहभाषा
- 6.5 विद्यालय-भाषा
- 6.6 अनुदेशन की माध्यम भाषा का चयन
 - 6.6.1 कारण
 - 6.6.2 समस्याएँ
 - 6.6.3 समाधान
- 6.7 द्वितीय भाषा पाठ को समझने में विद्यार्थियों की कठिनाइयों को सुलझाना
- 6.8 शब्दावली
- 6.9 अभ्यास प्रश्नों के उत्तर
- 6.10 संदर्भग्रंथ सूची व उपयोगी पाठ्यसामग्री
- 6.11 निबंधात्मक प्रश्न

6.1 प्रस्तावना

पिछली इकाई में हमने पढ़ा है कि भाषा एक विषय ही नहीं बल्कि शिक्षण का माध्यम भी होती है। भाषा विहीन वातावरण में शिक्षा की प्रक्रिया की कल्पना नहीं की जा सकती है। भाषा शिक्षा के माध्यम के साथ साथ शिक्षा का कारण भी है। हम जानते हैं कि शिक्षा चिंतन की प्रक्रिया का अंग है और माध्यम भी है। इस प्रकार शिक्षा और चिंतन अन्योन्याश्रित है। उधर शिक्षा और भाषा दोनो संस्कृति के अभिन्न अंग हैं जो कि विद्यालय और पाठ्यक्रम की उत्पत्ति को आधार प्रदान करती है। जैसा कि संस्कृतिक संरक्षण, विकास व हस्तांतरण शिक्षा की प्रक्रिया के मूलभूत लक्ष्य हैं। शिक्षा की आवश्यकता य उत्पत्ति का कारण भाषा के उद्भव की प्रक्रिया में समाहित है। यदि भाषा नहीं होती तो शायद आज शिक्षा की आवश्यकता भी नहीं पड़ी होती। शिक्षा के उद्देश्य, पाठ्यक्रम, माध्यम आदि तत्वों की अवधारणा में भाषा की आधारभूत भूमिका है। जिनकी चर्चा हम इससे पूर्व की इकाइयों में कर चुके हैं।

लेकिन इस इकाई में हम भाषा के एक प्रमुख पहलू जो कि शिक्षा य अनुदेशन के माध्यम के रूप में भाषा का अध्ययन करेंगे। अनुदेशन के माध्यम के चुनाव के क्या कारण है? कौन सी भाषा अनुदेशन के लिए उचित भाषा हो सकती है? कौन कौन सी शक्तियां विद्यालयी भाषा के चयन में निर्णायक होती है? आदि प्रश्नों के उत्तर हम इस इकाई में खोजने की कोशिश करेंगे। इसके आलावा हम उन विधियों व प्रविधियों की चर्चा करेंगे जिनके द्वारा आप अपने विद्यार्थियों को उन पाठों को समझने में आने वाली कठिनाइयों का समाधान कर सकेंगे जो पाठ उनकी गृहभाषा य स्थानीय भाषा में नहीं होते है। गृह भाषा व स्थानीय भाषा को शिक्षा साहित्य में सामान्यतः प्रथम भाषा कहा जाता है। प्रथम भाषा से इतर जो भी भाषा है उसे द्वितीय भाषा कहा जाता है। जैसे बहुभाषाई विद्यालय व समाज में तृतीय व चतुर्थ भाषा का भी अस्तित्व है परंतु किसी भी प्रकार की भ्रांति से बचने के लिए हम यहाँ प्रथम भाषा से इतर पाठ (पाठ्यवस्तु) को द्वितीय भाषा य गैरस्थानीय भाषा पाठ से ही संबोधित करेंगे।

6.2 उद्देश्य

इस इकाई को को पढ़ने के उपरांत आप;

- अनुदेशन की भाषा की अवधारणा को समझ सकेंगे;
- गृहभाषा की अवधारणा को स्पष्ट कर सकेंगे;
- विद्यालयी भाषा की अवधारणा को स्पष्ट कर सकेंगे;
- संदर्भ विशेष में गृहभाषा और विद्यालयी भाषा में अंतर स्पष्ट कर सकेंगे;
- विद्यालय में माध्यम भाषा के चुनाव में कौन-कौन सी शक्तियां अपनी भूमिका अदा करती इसको समझ सकेंगे और स्मालोचना कर सकेंगे;
- अध्यापन के समय समुचित माध्यम भाषा का चयन कर सकेंगे;
- द्वितीय भाषा पाठ को समझने में विद्यार्थियों की कठिनाइयों का समाधान कर सकेंगे।

6.3 अनुदेशन की भाषा

अभी तक हमने शिक्षा में भाषा की भूमिका और शिक्षण की माध्यम के रूप में भाषा का अध्ययन किया है। अनुदेशन शब्द इस इकाई में नया शब्द है। हो सकता है कि आपने इस शब्द को किसी अन्य खंड में पढा हो, नहीं तो पढ़ेंगे। यद्यपि इस इकाई की विषय वस्तु से अलग है तथापि हम समझ के प्रवाह को बनाये रखने के लिए अनुदेशन के सम्प्रत्यय को पहले समझ लेते है। साधारण शब्दों में अनुदेशन शिक्षण(Teaching) की वृहद प्रक्रिया का एक अंग य प्रकार कहा जा सकता है। संज्ञान रहे कि

अनुदेशन(Instruction) के अलावा अनुबंधन(Conditioning), प्रशिक्षण (Training), और मतशिक्षण (Indoctrination) शिक्षण के प्रारूप य प्रकार कहे जाते हैं(Mangal & Mangal, 2010)। अनुदेशन का ध्येय विद्यार्थियों में ज्ञान संचार करना और उनकी समझ को बढ़ाना होता है। यदि आप कक्षाकक्ष प्रक्रिया पर थोड़ा ध्यान देंगे तो समझ जायेंगे कि कक्षा शिक्षण का जो प्रारूप है वह मुख्यरूप से अनुदेशन ही है। अतः अनुदेशन शिक्षण का निकटतम अंग है। शिक्षा साहित्य में भी शिक्षण और अनुदेशन शब्दों को एक दूसरे के स्थान पर प्रयोग कर लिया जाता है, जबतक कि इन शब्दों के अंतर का बोध कराने की आवश्यकता जैसा कोई विशिष्ट संदर्भ न हो। यहाँ इस इकाई में भी हमारा ध्येय विद्यालय में माध्यम भाषा पर चर्चा करना है। अतः हम भी शिक्षण और अनुदेशन शब्दों में से किसी भी शब्द को प्रयोग करते हुए अपनी चर्चा को आगे बढ़ाएँगे। जैसा कि हमने इससे पूर्व पढ़ा है कि भाषा विहीन वातावरण में शिक्षण सम्भव नहीं है तो हम समझ सकते हैं कि अनुदेशन कि प्रक्रिया भाषा विशेष पर निर्भर करती है।

अभी तक विभिन्न संदर्भों में हुई चर्चाओं में हमने जाना है कि अनुदेशन का एक मातृ उद्देश्य विद्यार्थियों में समझ का विकास करना होता है। अर्थात् बच्चे सीखे इस लिए हम शिक्षक अनुदेशन/शिक्षण की विभिन्न तकनीकियों का प्रशिक्षण प्राप्त करते हैं। सिर्फ शिक्षण-अधिगम की विधियों, प्रविधियों, सूत्रों की समझ रखने मात्र से हम सफल शिक्षक नहीं बन सकते हैं। ये सभी उपकरण हमारे शिक्षण की नौका के शक्तिशाली पतवार हो सकते हैं पर क्या पानी के बहाव की समझ के बिना क्या हम अच्छे नाविक बन सकते हैं? भाषा उस जलराशि के समान है जिसपर शिक्षण की, अधिगम की, और चिंतन की नाव चलती है। अतः भाषा तो शिक्षा का आधारभूत तत्व है। इसलिए एक शिक्षक को और विद्यालय व्यवस्था को अनुदेशन की भाषा के चयन में पर्याप्त संवेदनशील, विवेकशील और न्यायसंगत होना चाहिए। शिक्षण-अधिगम की प्रक्रिया में किसी एक भाषा का प्रयोग होना तो तय ही है, पर सबसे जटिल प्रश्न अब यह उठता है कि यह कौन सी भाषा हो सकती है? इस प्रश्न के उत्तर के साथ कई विकल्प हैं जैसे कि गृह-भाषा, स्थानीय भाषा, विद्यालयी भाषा, प्रशासनिक भाषा, विद्यार्थियों की भाषा, शिक्षक की भाषा, बाजार (व्यवसाय) की भाषा इत्यादि। इन सभी भाषा विकल्पों को दो प्रमुख भागों में वर्गीकृत किया जा सकता है। ये दो रूप हैं गृह-भाषा और विद्यालय-भाषा। हम इन दो भाषा रूपों में अपनी चर्चा को केंद्रित करके रखेंगे। वैसे एक बात पूर्व में ही समझ ले कि ये कोई भाषा के प्रकार नहीं है संदर्भ विशेष में ये दो अलग अलग भाषाएँ हो सकती हैं य एक ही भाषा हो सकती है , य अनेक भाषाएँ भी हो सकती हैं(बहुभाषाई परिप्रेक्ष्य में)। अब हम इन दोनों गृहभाषा और विद्यालय-भाषा की अवधारणाओं को समझ लेते हैं।

6.4 गृहभाषा

गृहभाषा शब्द अपने आप में आत्म-व्याख्यात्मक शब्द है। आप समझ सकते हैं कि यह वह भाषा है जो विद्यार्थी के घर में प्रयोग की जाती है। शिक्षा साहित्य में इसे गृह-भाषा, मातृभाषा, प्रथम-भाषा, स्थानीय

भाषा, आस-पड़ोस आदि कई नामों से संबोधित किया जाता है। शिक्षक होने के नाते हमें मातृभाषा की विशेषताओं को जानना जरूरी होता है। यह वह भाषा है जिसमें हम (हमारे विद्यार्थी भी) सबसे अधिक अंतर्क्रिया करते हैं, य सबसे अधिक प्रयोग करते हैं। हम इस भाषा में सिर्फ अधिक प्रभावशाली और त्रुटिरहित वक्ता ही नहीं होते हैं बल्कि यह भाषा हमारी पहचान भी होती है। आप अनुभव कर सकते हैं कि जब कभी आप उत्तराखंड के बाहर कि यात्रा पर होते हैं उदाहरणार्थ बस में होते हैं, ट्रेन में होते हैं, य बाजार में होते हैं और यात्रा के दौरान आप किसी ऐसे व्यक्ति से मिलते हैं जो आपकी गढ़वाली या कुमाऊनी भाषा का प्रयोग करता है, तब आप उसकी तरफ एक सहज खिंचाव महसूस करते हैं। उसे जानने की कोशिश करते हैं। यदि आप को समय मिलता है तो आप उससे बातचीत भी करना चाहते हैं। अर्थात् आप सहज ही किसी को भाषा प्रयोग से ही पहिचान लेते है। आप अपनी मातृ-भाषा में बात करते समय कभी थकान महसूस नहीं करते है, जबतक कि थकान का कोई अन्य कारण न हो। गृह-भाषा का संबंध किसी बहुसंख्यक या अल्पसंख्यक भाषा से नहीं है। यह सिर्फ कुछ लोगों द्वारा बोली जाने वाली भाषा हो सकती है और यह हजारों करोड़ों लोगों द्वारा बोली जाने वाली भाषा भी हो सकती है। गृह भाषा का संबंध स्थान विशेष से भी नहीं होता है उत्तराखंड के किसी स्थान पर बोली जाने वाली भाषा उत्तराखंड के उन लोगों के लिए भी मातृ-भाषा/गृह-भाषा ही कहलाएगी जो उत्तराखंड से बाहर किसी अन्य राज्य य अन्य देश में रहने लगे है। अतः किसी क्षेत्र विशेष में शिक्षण करने से आपको यह नही मान लेना चाहिए कि सिर्फ स्थानीय भाषा-भाषी परिवारों के बच्चे ही आपकी कक्षा में आयेंगे। आत्मव्याख्यात्मक होते हुए भी गृहभाषा की अवधारणा संदर्भ विशेष में जटिल हो जाती है। कभी कभी विद्यार्थियों की गृहभाषा को पहिचानना बहुत ही कठिन कार्य हो जाता है। यहाँ हम गृह-भाषा की कुछ विशेषताओं को रेखांकित करते हैं;

- भाषा बच्चों के घर में प्रयोग की जाने वाली भाषा है;
- यह वह भाषा है जो व्यक्ति की सामाजिक-सांस्कृतिक पहिचान बन जाती है;
- इस भाषा में हमारे स्वरयंत्र (भाषा के प्रयोग में आने वाले यंत्र) बड़ी सहजता से कार्य करते हैं;
- यह अनौपचारिक भाषा होती है जिसके व्याकरण की चिंता प्रयोग के समय हमें नहीं करनी होती है;
- प्रशासनिक भाषा की तुलना में गृह-भाषा बहुत ही सहज बोलचाल की और दैनिक वार्तालाप की प्रकृति वाली भाषा होती है;
- यह वह भाषा है जिसे बच्चा सर्वाधिक जानता है;
- इस भाषा में विद्यार्थी के सीखने की सर्वाधिक संभावनाएँ होती है;
- यह समझ का उत्तम माध्यम कही जाती है;
- इसे प्रथम-भाषा य मातृभाषा कहा जाता है। क्योंकि हमारा प्रथम परिचय इस भाषा से अपनी माँ के साथ (प्रथम संबंधियों के साथ भी) प्रथम भाषिक-क्रियाकलापों में/के द्वारा होता है।

जब बच्चा हमारे सामने कक्षा में आता है तब वह सामाजिक वार्तालाप के मूलभूत कौशलों में सक्षम होता है। हम शिक्षकों को नहीं भूलना चाहिए कि विद्यालय पर्यावरण से बाहर भी समाजीकरण के माध्यम से बच्चों का बौद्धिक-सामाजिक विकास होता है। बच्चे में प्रथम भाषा के माध्यम से सामाजिक वार्तालाप की क्षमताएं विकसित होती हैं। सामाजिक अन्तरक्रिया से भाषा का और भाषा के माध्यम से सामाजिक, संवेगात्मक, संज्ञानात्मक आदि पक्षों के विकास का मार्ग प्रशस्त होता है। बच्चों में इस भाषाई विकास का उनकी आगे की शिक्षा में बड़ा महत्वपूर्ण उपयोग हो सकता है। हम शिक्षक बच्चों की गृह-भाषा का प्रयोग बच्चों को समझने में तथा उनको समझाने में, दोनों ही प्रकार से कर सकते हैं। यदि बच्चों की गृह-भाषा हमारी भाषा या विद्यालय की भाषा से अलग होती है तब भी हमें इसके प्रति उपेक्षा का व्यवहार नहीं करना चाहिए। हम जानते हैं कि भाषा मानसिक, संवेगात्मक, व सामाजिक विकास की आधारशिला होती है। विद्यालय पूर्व और विद्यालय प्रवेश के उपरांत भी बच्चे का कुछ विकास इन सभी क्षेत्रों में सामाजिक वातावरण में रहते हुए हो रहा होता है। यदि हम बच्चे पर विद्यालय की भाषा आरोपित करते हैं और उसकी गृह-भाषा के प्रयोग को अवरुद्ध कर देते हैं तो यह उसी प्रकार होगा कि हम अपने पास के सैकड़ों सिक्कों को फेंककर किसी एक सिक्के की खोज में निकल पड़े।

6.5 विद्यालय-भाषा

विद्यालय भाषा का मुख्य प्रयोग विद्यालय के परिसर में शिक्षकों और बच्चों के बीच वार्तालाप, विद्यार्थियों के मध्य आपसी वार्तालाप और विद्यार्थी समूहों में वार्तालाप के माध्यम के रूप में होता है। विद्यालय भाषा किसी भी शिक्षा व्यवस्था की रीढ़ होती है, क्योंकि संपूर्ण शैक्षिक वातावरण विद्यालय भाषा पर निर्भर करता है। यह विद्यालय भाषा विद्या-भवन में वातावरण की तरह कार्य करती है। इससे पूर्व की इकाई में आप पढ़ चुके हैं कि भाषा विहीन वातावरण में शिक्षण-अधिगम प्रक्रिया संभव नहीं है। विद्यालय का संचलन भाषा पर उसी प्रकार निर्भर करता है जैसे कि हमारा जीवन हमारी धमनियों में रक्त के प्रवाह पर निर्भर करता है। अतः इस बात से आप समझ सकते हैं कि एक शुद्ध, समर्थ और संपन्न भाषा विद्यालय के लिए अधिक उपयोगी होती है।

विद्यालय वह स्थान है जहां विभिन्न परिवारों, समुदायों और संस्कृतियों के बच्चे ज्ञान की प्राप्ति के लिए आते हैं, और ये बच्चे अपनी विभिन्न भाषाओं के साथ आते हैं इन बच्चों की भाषाएं स्कूल की भाषा से साम्य भी रख सकती हैं और भिन्न भी हो सकती हैं। वर्तमान के बहुभाषिक/बहुसांस्कृतिक वातावरण में सभी बच्चों की भाषाएं विद्यालय की भाषा से साम्य रखें ऐसा संभव नहीं है। कोई भी विद्यालय व्यवस्था एक या दो भाषाओं को ही अपनी माध्यम भाषा के रूप में चुन सकती है। भाषा सिर्फ व्यक्ति की ही पहचान नहीं होती है यह विद्यालय की भी पहचान होती है। कोई भी विद्यालय हो किसी भी प्रकार का हो उसकी एक प्रमुख माध्यम भाषा तो होती ही है जिसे हम विद्यालय-भाषा कहते हैं। आप देख सकते हैं कि विद्यालयों का मूल्यांकन उनकी माध्यम-भाषा के आधार पर हो रहा है। कुछ विद्यालय सिर्फ अंग्रेजी माध्यम के नाम पर ही अधिक शिक्षण-शुल्क प्राप्त करते हैं। सरकारी विद्यालयों में माध्यम के रूप

में प्रायः राज्य की प्रशासनिक भाषा ही होती है। विद्यालय-भाषा पाठ्यपुस्तकों में, विद्यालय सूचनाओं में (सूचनापट्ट पर), परीक्षाओं में, कक्षा-कक्ष अंतर्क्रिया में, शिक्षकों के निर्देशन इत्यादि विद्यालयी व्यवहारों में प्रयोग होती है। इसे हम अकादमिक भाषा भी कहते हैं। विद्यालय भाषा काफी औपचारिक भाषा होती है। इसका वाक्य-विन्यास शब्द प्रयोग दैनिक बोलचाल की भाषा से अलग होता है। हिंदी गृह-भाषा के रूप में और हिंदी विद्यालय भाषा के रूप में थोड़ा अंतर हो जाता है। विद्यालय में प्रयोग की जाने वाली हिंदी एक मानक हिंदी होती है। एक ही विद्यालय के विभिन्न शिक्षकों में आप अनुदेशन की भाषा का अंतर देख सकते हैं। कभी-कभी तो देखा गया है कि शिक्षकों द्वारा प्रयुक्त हिंदी मानक से इतर और इतनी अधिक दुरुह हो जाती है कि बच्चे शिक्षकों की बातों को समझने के लिए मानसिक संघर्ष करते रह जाते हैं। हम शिक्षकों को ज्ञान रहना चाहिए कि यदि बच्चे हमारी भाषा ही नहीं समझ पा रहे हैं तो हमारे कक्षा में सभी क्रियाकलाप व्यर्थ ही साबित होंगे। अतः कक्षा में प्रयुक्त अनुदेशन की भाषा का चयन बहुत ही सावधानी से बच्चों के संज्ञानात्मक स्तर के अनुरूप करना चाहिए।

6.6 अनुदेशन की माध्यम भाषा का चयन

विद्यालय में अनुदेशन की भाषा का चयन करना अत्यधिक जटिल प्रक्रिया है। क्योंकि अनुदेशन की भाषा के चयन के भिन्न-भिन्न आधार हो सकते हैं जिनमें से मानवीय अधिकार, संवैधानिक अधिकार, सामाजिक-सांस्कृतिक परिप्रेक्ष्य, आर्थिक परिप्रेक्ष्य आदि प्रमुख हैं। इसके आलावा भाषाई समानता का मुद्दा भी सामने आता है जो कि अत्यधिक जटिल है जिसकी चर्चा इस इकाई की विषयवस्तु के क्षेत्र से बाहर की बात है। शिक्षक होने के नाते हमें इतना याद रखना जरूरी है कि विश्व की विभिन्न भाषाओं में असमानता तो है पर यह असमानता भाषा की संरचना और प्रणाली के स्तर पर ही है; कार्यात्मक स्तर पर सभी भाषाएँ समान हैं। अर्थात् कोई भी भाषा अपने परिवेश विशेष में माध्यम भाषा का कार्य करने में सक्षम होती है। भाषाविज्ञान में हुए शोधों से यह सिद्ध हो चुका है कि सभी भाषाएँ जिस किसी संस्कृति विशेष में वे प्रयोग की जाती हैं उस संस्कृति में संप्रेषण के लिए सक्षम और अधिक व्यवहारिक माध्यम होती हैं। कुछ मायनों में स्थानीय भाषाएँ अधिक सक्षम भी कही जा सकती हैं। उदाहरण के लिए आप कोई ऐसी वनस्पति को ले जो सिर्फ आपके उत्तराखंड में पाई जाती हो, उस वनस्पति का नाम तथा उसके गुणों का वर्णन करने की क्षमता जितनी आपकी स्थानीय भाषा में होगी उतनी विश्व की अन्य भाषाओं में नहीं होगी। वैसे किसी भी भाषा को आंतरिक रूप से कम या अधिक सम्पन्न/उर्वर नहीं कहा जा सकता है (Coulmas, 1991)। जब यह बात सिद्ध है कि विश्व की सभी भाषाएँ किसी पदार्थ, और विचार को व्यक्त करने में सक्षम हैं तब हम शिक्षकों का और शिक्षण संस्थाओं का किसी एक भाषा पर विशेष आग्रह क्यों होता है? इसका क्या कारण है कि अविभावक और विद्यार्थी के द्वारा किसी एक भाषा (उदाहरणार्थ अंग्रेजी) माध्यम की माँग क्यों रहती है? ये प्रश्न हमको विद्यालय-भाषा चयन के कारणों की समीक्षा के लिए प्रेरित करते हैं। आइये अब हम भाषा चयन के कारणों पर चर्चा करते हैं।

क. **कारण:** किसी विशेष भाषा के प्रति अधिक लगाव होना य उसको शैक्षिक संस्थाओं में विशेष महत्व दिया जाना एक जटिल पहलू है। हम इसका एक रेखीय कार्य-कारण सम्बंध सिद्ध नहीं कर सकते हैं। भाषा असमानता के पीछे विभिन्न राजनैतिक, सामाजिक, आर्थिक, शैक्षिक आदि शक्तियां सक्रिय होती हैं, जिनकी चर्चा अग्रलिखित बिन्दुओं में की गई है: –

- आपने पिछली इकाई में पढ़ा ही है कि आर्थिक गतिविधियों का य बाजार का भाषा के विकास पर प्रभाव पड़ता है। गाँव-गाँव में अंग्रेजी माध्यम के विद्यालयों का बढ़ता हुआ प्रचलन आर्थिक जगत की भाषाई माँग का द्योतक है। अंग्रेजी के उदाहरण के अलावा भी भाषा प्रयोग में बाजार के प्रभाव का एक व्यवहारिक उदाहरण अंतर्राष्ट्रीय कंपनियों द्वारा क्षेत्रीय भाषाओं में सेवा केंद्रों को खोलने का है। भारत में अंग्रेजों के समय से ही अंग्रेजी व्यावसायिक और प्रशासनिक भाषा का दर्जा हसिल कर चुकी थी। स्वतंत्रता के उपरांत भी अंग्रेजी का अंतरराष्ट्रीय बाजार पर प्रभाव होने के कारण इसको पूर्णतया छोड़ा नहीं जा सकता। पुनः उदारीकरण और वैश्वीकरण के दौर में अंग्रेजी भाषा में निपुण कर्मियों की माँग बढ़ गई है। सभी व्यवसायिक (Professional) पाठ्यक्रमों में और कुछ संस्थानों में गैर व्यवसायिक पाठ्यक्रमों में भी सम्प्रेषणात्मक अंग्रेजी की कक्षाओं का आयोजन किया जाने लगा है। आज हमारे देश के लगभग सभी राज्यों के व्यावसायिक शिक्षा संस्थानों में माध्यम भाषा के रूप में अंग्रेजी को ही अपनाया जाता है।
- भाषा पर राजनीतिक निर्णयों का भी असर पड़ता है। आपको याद होगा की 90 के दशक में अविभाजित उत्तरप्रदेश(उत्तराखंड को मिलाकर) के मुख्यमंत्री मुलयम सिंह जी का हिंदी के प्रति विशेष राजनैतिक लगाव था जिसके कारण वे अंग्रेजी को विद्यालयों में, लोक सेवा आयोग की परीक्षाओं में वैकल्पिक विषय का स्थान ही दिए थे। जबकि कालांतर में केंद्र सरकार द्वारा गठित राष्ट्रीय ज्ञान आयोग अंग्रेजी के अध्ययन को कक्षा एक (प्रथम) से प्रारम्भ करने की संस्तुति कर्ता है (NKC, 2009)। हमारे संविधान निर्माताओं ने भी संविधान के अनुच्छेद 343 के द्वारा अंग्रेजी को सिर्फ पंद्रह वर्ष के लिए प्राशासनिक भाषा का दर्जा दिया था। आशा थी कि तबतक हिंदी पूर्ण रूप से इस कार्य के लिए सक्षम हो जायेगी। लेकिन प्राशासनिक भाषा अधिनियम, 1963 के द्वारा अंग्रेजी को केंद्र स्तर पर सह-प्राशासनिक भाषा के रूप में स्थायी स्थान दे दिया गया। इस प्रकार अंग्रेजी के साथ अब दो शक्तियां राजनैतिक और आर्थिक जुड़ गई जिसका असर शिक्षण संस्थानों में अंग्रेजी के प्रयोग और पठन-पाठन पर सकारात्मक रूप से पड़ा है। राजनीतिक इच्छाशक्ति का यह असर होता है कि पूरे भारत में सिर्फ तमिलनाडू ही एक ऐसा राज्य है जहां एक भी नवोदय विद्यालय नहीं है। क्योंकि इन विद्यालयों में अनिवार्य रूप से त्रिभाषा-सूत्र का अनुगमन किया जाता है, और तमिलनाडू इस सूत्र को नहीं मानता है। इस सूत्र को ना मानने का एक कारण तमिल भाषा से लगाव के साथ साथ हिन्दी भाषा के विरोध की राजनीति भी है।

- किसी भाषा के मानविकी, सामाजिक, तकनीकी, वैज्ञानिक साहित्य की सम्पन्नता भी उस भाषा के शैक्षिक व सामाजिक स्थान का निर्धारण करती है। सन 1835 में मैकाले ने भी इसी आधार पर अंग्रेजी माध्यम विद्यालयों को वित्तीय सहायता देने की संस्तुति की थी। यद्यपि यह आज सिद्ध हो चुका है कि सभी भाषाएँ सम्प्रेषण के लिए समान रूप से सक्षम होती है तथापि विद्यालयी और प्रशासनिक भाषा के चयन में यह एक प्रमुख तर्क है कि अंग्रेजी भाषा अधिक सम्पन्न भाषा है। इसके लिए स्थानीय भाषा के समर्थकों, शिक्षकों और लेखकों की जिम्मेदारी बनती है कि वे अपनी भाषा को अंतर्राष्ट्रीय स्तर की भाषाओं के समान सम्पन्न बनाये जिससे कि बच्चों को मातृभाषा माध्यम से शिक्षा शुलभ हो सके।
- किसी भाषा के माध्यम भाषा के रूप में प्रयोग के कुछ वैधानिक कारण भी होते हैं। हमारे संविधान में अनुच्छेद 350A के माध्यम से प्रावधान है कि भाषाई अल्पसंख्यकों के बच्चों की प्राथमिक स्तर तक की शिक्षा के लिए अनुदेशन का माध्यम बच्चों की मातृभाषा ही हो (Govt. of India, 2007)। पुनः शिक्षा के अधिकार अधिनियम, 2009 की धारा 29(2f) में प्रावधान किया गया है कि जहां तक व्यवहार में सम्भव हो अनुदेशन की भाषा बच्चों की मातृ-भाषा ही हो (Govt. of India, 2009)। इससे पूर्व भी राष्ट्रीय पाठ्यचर्या की रूपरेखा 2005 में भी मातृ-भाषा में अनुदेशन पर जोर दिया गया है (NCERT, 2005, p. 37)।

ख. **समस्याएँ:** अनुदेशन की भाषा के निर्धारण में अनेकानेक समस्याएँ आती हैं। यह हम जानते हैं कि कोई भी विद्यालय, प्रशासन इकाई या सरकार कुछ निश्चित भाषाओं में सुगमता से नियमित कार्य सम्पादन कर सकती है। द्विभाषी विद्यालय तो मिल जाते हैं पर बहुभाषी विद्यालय की कल्पना ही की जा सकती है। सभी बच्चों को उनकी मातृभाषा में शिक्षा उपलब्ध कराना किसी एक विद्यालय के अंदर ही सुनिश्चित करना सम्भव नहीं है। परिणामतः बच्चों की मातृ-भाषा में शिक्षा के अवसर उपलब्ध न होने से य तो बच्चे स्कूल छोड़ देते हैं य असफल हो जाते हैं। आज भी विश्व में पांच से सात करोड़ के बीच ऐसे बच्चे हैं जो विद्यालय से वंचित हैं (Ball, 2014)। बोलना बच्चों की स्वाभाविक क्रिया है पर विद्यालय का भाषाई वातावरण अलग होने से बच्चे अक्सर शांत रहने लगते हैं। इस दुर्घटना में हम शिक्षकों का भी बड़ा योगदान रहता है। देखा गया है कि जब कभी बच्चे आपनी मातृभाषा का प्रयोग कक्षा में करते हैं तो शिक्षकों का अग्रह रहता है कि वे विद्यालयी भाषा का प्रयोग ही करें। कुछ गैर-शासकीय अंग्रेजी माध्यम विद्यालयों में तो अर्थदण्ड भी लिया जाता है। जबकि सरकारी विद्यालयों में राज्य की प्रशासनिक भाषा ही विद्यालय की माध्यम भाषा होती है। सरकार की यह एक परिसीमा भी कही जा सकती है और जरूरत भी। कोई राज्य अपने क्षेत्र विशेष में बोली जाने वाली सभी भाषाओं में शिक्षा उपलब्ध नहीं करा सकता है। इनमें से अधिकतर तो उपभाषाएँ ही होती हैं जैसे गढ़वाली, भोजपुरी, बुंदेलखंडी आदि। इन उपभाषों में पर्याप्त शब्दिक और शैलीगत अंतर होता है जैसे उत्तर प्रदेश के भोजपुरी क्षेत्र के ग्रामीण बच्चों को विशेष प्रयत्न के द्वारा विद्यालय

में प्रयोग की जाने वाली हिंदी भाषा सीखनी पड़ती है क्योंकि अभी तक भोजपुरी भाषा को एक अलग पूर्ण मानक भाषा का दर्जा नहीं मिला है। कुछ ऐसी स्थिति गढ़वाल और कुमाऊं क्षेत्र के बच्चों के साथ भी होती है।

हमने पढ़ा भी है कि सबसे बेहतर अधिगम मातृभाषा के माध्यम से ही होता है। आज विभिन्न शोधों से सिद्ध हो चुका है कि विशेष रूप से प्राथमिक स्तर पर प्रथम भाषा साक्षरता और अधिगम के लिए सबसे बेहतर विकल्प होती है (UNESCO, 2008)। अतः जब हम प्रथम भाषा/गृहभाषा को विद्यालय में रोक देते हैं तो हम सीखने के अवसरों कम कर देते हैं। बच्चों के सीखने में कठिनाइयों को बढ़ाते हैं न कि उनका समाधान करते हैं। इस प्रकार हम शिक्षक अपनी मूल जिम्मेदारी जो कि बच्चों को अधिगम समस्याओं का समाधान है उससे भटक जाते हैं। उधर दूसरी ओर हम बच्चों में हीन भावना का विकास करते हैं। आप सोच रहे होंगे कैसे? हमने पढ़ा है कि भाषा व्यक्ति की पहिचान होती है। यह गृहभाषा ही होती है जिसमें हमारी अस्मिता, संस्मरण, संस्कार आदि, अर्थात् सम्पूर्ण संस्कृति निहित होती है। जब हम बच्चे की गृहभाषा को मिटाने की कोशिश करते हैं तब हम उसकी पहिचान य आत्म-सम्प्रत्यय (Self-concept) के भाव में हस्तक्षेप करते हैं (NCERT, 2005, p. 36)।

ग. समाधान: अभी तक की चर्चा से कुछ बातें सामने आती हैं कि वैधानिक नियम है कि बच्चों की शिक्षा मातृभाषा में ही होनी चाहिए पर प्रशासन की यह सीमा है कि सभी बच्चों विभिन्न मातृभाषाओं में विद्यालय नहीं चलाये जा सकते हैं। इसका समाधान क्या हो सकता है आइये इसपर चर्चा करते हैं।

- आज बढ़ते बहुभाषिक/बहुसांस्कृतिक वातावरण में एक ही विद्यालय में विभिन्न भाषाई पृष्ठभूमियों से बच्चे आते हैं। ऐसे में उन्हें उनकी मातृभाषा में अनुदेशित करना एक जटिल समस्या है। लेकिन यह विद्यालय प्रशासन के स्तर की समस्या है। यदि हम शिक्षक बच्चों की मातृभाषा का ज्ञान रखते हैं और उनकी समझ के खातिर उसका प्रयोग करते हैं तो यह एक सकारात्मक हस्तक्षेप होगी।
- हम अनुदेशन की निश्चित भाषा से परेय जाकर अपना शिक्षण कार्य को समपन्न कर सकते हैं। यदि हम बच्चों की भाषा को नहीं भी जानते हैं तब भी हमें उनकी भाषा का आदर करना चाहिए। इसके गम्भीर मनो-सामाजिक सकारात्मक प्रभाव होते हैं। हम कक्षाकक्ष के अंदर सत्र के प्रारंभ में य कभी कभी विशेष भावों को व्यक्त करने में बच्चों को उनकी अपनी भाषा में बोलने का अवसर दे सकते हैं। ऐसी स्थिति में शिक्षक उनकी भाषा को समझने की कोशिश कर सकते हैं; य किसी द्विभाषी बच्चे से उस बच्चे के शब्दों का भावार्थ पूछ सकते हैं। क्योंकि हमारा उद्देश्य बच्चों को समझना भी है और उनको बिना समझे हम उनको पढ़ा तो नहीं सकते। इस तरह की उदार प्रवृत्ति का शिक्षा की गुणवत्ता पर सार्थक असर पड़ता है।

- अक्सर देखा गया है कि शिक्षक पुस्तकों में वर्णित शिक्षणशास्त्र का अनुगमन करते हैं। जबकि यह विषय स्वयं में अत्यधिक गत्यात्मक (Dynamic) है। शिक्षकों को चाहिए कि वे अपने परिवेश के अनुरूप अपनी शिक्षण पद्धति का विकास करें। इसके लिए शिक्षकों का शोध-उन्मुख और नवाचारी होना जरूरी होना चाहिए। आप इस कार्यक्रम (B. Ed.) की पाठ्यचर्या के अन्य खंडों में शैक्षिक नवाचार और क्रियात्मक अनुसंधान को पढ़ेंगे ही। अतः यहाँ सिर्फ इनके प्रयोग के लिए स्मरण कराया जा रहा है।
- पराभाषिक-शिक्षणशास्त्र(Translanguaging-Pedagogy) की विचारधारा बहुभाषिक विद्यालयों में भाषा प्रयोग से सम्बन्धित हमारे संदेहों का समाधान कर सकती है। यह विचारधारा कक्षा शिक्षण में भाषा उदारता और किसी एक माध्यम-भाषा पर निर्भरता से मुक्ति में विश्वास करती है। हम शिक्षकों को अपने शिक्षण में पारा-भाषिक होना चाहिए जिससे कि बच्चे अपनी अमूर्त चिंतन क्षमताओं को कक्षा में व्यक्त करने में सक्षम हो सके। इस विचारधारा के अनुसार एक उदाहरण: आप सामाजिक विषय या विज्ञान के शिक्षक हैं और आप हिन्दी या अंग्रेजी भाषा में विद्यार्थियों से प्रश्न करते हैं, बच्चे आपके प्रश्न को समझ जाते हैं, वे उसका सही उत्तर भी सोच लेते हैं पर उसको व्यक्त करने के लिए उनके पास पर्याप्त शब्द हिन्दी या अंग्रेजी भाषा में नहीं हैं। यहाँ हमारा उद्देश्य तो बच्चों को विषय ज्ञान कराना है, जो कि पूरा हो रहा है, तो क्यों न हम बच्चों को उनकी अपनी मातृभाषा- गढ़वाली, कुमाउनी आदि में उत्तर देने की स्वतन्त्रता दें।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

1. शिक्षण के प्रकार कौन से हैं?
2. सन 1835 में किसने अंग्रेजी भाषा माध्यम शिक्षा को प्रश्रय दिया?
3. अनुदेशन के लिए सबसे उत्तम माध्यम कौन सी भाषा होती है?
4. भारतीय संविधान के किस अनुच्छेद में मातृभाषा के माध्यम से शिक्षा की बात कही गई है?
5. पराभाषिक-शिक्षणशास्त्र क्या है?
6. मातृभाषा के माध्यम से शिक्षा ना होने पर कौन सी समस्याएँ आ सकती हैं?

6.7 द्वितीय भाषा पाठ को समझने में विद्यार्थियों की कठिनाइयों को सुलझाना

पठन (Reading) एक महत्वपूर्ण कौशल है जो शिक्षा के प्रथम तल (साक्षरता स्तर) से शिखर तक (विश्वविद्यालय शिक्षा) तक विद्यार्थी और शिक्षक दोनों की गुणवत्ता का निर्धारण करता है। शायद इसी कारण से 16वीं शदी के प्रसिद्ध निबंधकार बेकन ने अपने अंग्रेजी भाषा के निबंध 'ऑफ स्टडीज'(Of

Studies) में लिखा है कि अध्ययन एक व्यक्ति को पूर्ण बनाता है ("Reading maketh a full man.....")। पाठक विभिन्न अलग-अलग उद्देश्यों के लिए द्वितीय भाषा य विदेशी भाषा की पाठ्यवस्तु को पढ़ते हैं, जैसे कि सूचना प्राप्त करने, जीवकोपार्जन, आनन्द, अध्ययन (उपाधि/डिग्री प्राप्त करने) के लिए, संवाद के लिए इत्यादि। किसी भी विद्यालय में किसी गैर-स्थानीय य विदेशी भाषा का शिक्षण के लिए चयन उस भाषा से जुड़े विभिन्न सामाजिक, आर्थिक, राजनीतिक, भाषाई लाभों को देखते हुए किया जाता है। अतः कई बार द्वितीय-भाषा जो कि हमारी गृहभाषा नहीं होती है की विषयवस्तु को समझना एक आवश्यकता बन जाती है। साथ ही यह हम भलीभाँति जानते हैं कि द्वितीय भाषा के पाठ को समझना तुलनात्मकरूप से कठिन होता है। अतएव हम शिक्षकों की जिम्मेदारी बनती है कि हम इस तथ्य को समझे और अपने विद्यार्थियों की गैर-स्थानीय भाषा पाठ को समझने में कठिनाइयों का निराकरण करें। इस इकाई में अभी तक हमने 'अनुदेशन की भाषा' पर चर्चा की है, अब इस भाग में हम 'भाषा(पठन/Reading) के लिए अनुदेशन की चर्चा करेंगे'। एक प्रश्न आपके सामने रखता हूँ:

जब हम शिक्षक भाषा का शिक्षण करते हैं तो हम क्या सिखाते हैं?

उत्तर बहुत ही सरल है। भाषा के चार आधारभूत तत्व या कौशल सिखाते हैं, जिन्हें सुनना, बोलना, पढ़ना, और लिखना (Listening, Speaking, Reading & Writing) कहते हैं। इन चारों भाषा कौशलों को अलग-अलग नहीं किया जा सकता है। एक का शिक्षण और विकास दूसरे के विकास को सकारात्मक रूप से प्रभावित करता है। पठन (Reading) कौशल को द्वितीय भाषा, विशेष रूप से अंग्रेजी सीखने में विशेषरूप से लाभकारी पाया गया है। एक शिक्षा अधिकारी व शिक्षक-प्रशिक्षक डॉ० वेस्ट (Dr. West) जिन्होंने अंग्रेजी शासनकाल में पूर्वी भारत (बांगलादेश, असम आदि क्षेत्रों को मिलाकर) में सर्वेक्षण किए थे, ने माना है कि भारतीय विद्यार्थी पठन कौशल में जल्दी निपुणता प्राप्त करते हैं। यह पठन में निपुणता आगे चलकर लेखन और बोलने के कौशलों में आसानी से रूपांतरित हो जाती है। उनके अनुसार पठन सीखने की आरंभिक अवस्था है (Dr. West, 1960)। अतः पठन कौशल के लिए अनुदेशन भाषा-विकास और सभी विषयों में विद्यार्थियों की समझ को बढ़ाने के लिए अनिवार्य शर्त है। पढ़ने के कई प्रकार हो सकते हैं जैसे कि गहन (Intensive), व्यापक(Extensive), क्रमवीक्षण (Scanning), वेगवीक्षण(Skimming), सक्रिय(Active), निष्क्रिय(Passive) पठन आदि। गहन व्यापक, क्रमवीक्षण, वेगवीक्षण आदि पठन के प्रकार के साथ साथ पठन की रणनीतियां भी कहीं जा सकती हैं। जिनका प्रयोग करके हम एक अच्छे सक्रिय पाठक हो सकते हैं। हमें एक बात और याद रखनी है कि द्वितीय भाषा की विषयवस्तु के पठन य अध्ययन का परिप्रेक्ष्य प्रथम भाषा से अलग होता है। यह आप स्वयं के अनुभवों को याद करके समझ सकते हैं। अपनी स्थानीय भाषा से अलग भाषा के मूल-पाठ (Text) को पढ़ने में विद्यार्थियों को विभिन्न प्रकार की कठिनाइयां होती हैं और साथ ही इसके अध्ययन के लिए पृथक पठन रणनीतियां भी होती हैं। हम शिक्षकों को विद्यार्थियों की कठिनाइयों का निराकरण करना होता है जिसके लिए हमें स्वयं इन कठिनाइयों की जानकारी, कारणों, निराकरणों के साथ साथ

द्वितीय भाषा पाठ की समझ के संदर्भों आदि की जानकारी भी होनी चाहिए। आइये हम इन सब बिन्दुओं पर बिन्दुवार ढंग से चर्चा कराते है: –

1. यहाँ बात एक ऐसी भाषा के पाठ को समझने की है जो विद्यार्थियों की संस्कृति और वातावरण से अलग है। उस भाषा के संदर्भ बच्चों के समझ के बाहर हो सकते हैं। अतः शिक्षकों को विद्यार्थियों के स्तर के हिसाब से पाठ्यवस्तु पढ़ने के लिए देनी चाहिए और पठन कौशल के मूल्यांकन के लिए विभिन्नकृत मूल्यांकन प्रविधियों का प्रयोग करना चाहिए। इससे हम द्वितीय भाषा के पाठ को समझने की कठिनाइयों और गलतियों के होने की संभावना ही कम कर देते है।
2. द्वितीय भाषा की पाठ्यवस्तु को समझने में बच्चों को सुविधा हो इसलिए हम शिक्षकों को चाहिए कि बच्चों के प्रथम भाषा ज्ञान का सदुपयोग करें। प्रथम भाषा की पाठ्यवस्तु से हम सदृश और विषम पाठ्यवस्तु को उदाहरण के रूप में प्रस्तुत कर सकते है।
3. शिक्षकों को अधिगम सिद्धांतों में सामाजिक और संज्ञानात्मक अधिगम सिद्धांतों; तथा चौमस्की (Chomsky) वाइगोत्सकी (Vygotsky), हेलीडे (Halliday) के भाषा सिद्धांतों को ध्यान में रखना चाहिए और विद्यार्थियों की द्वितीय भाषा पाठ को समझने की कठिनाइयों का निवारण करना चाहिए। जबतक हमे यह पता नहीं होगा की भाषा अधिगम और अर्जन कैसे होता है, और प्रथम भाषा और द्वितीय भाषा अर्जन में कौन कौन से कारक सक्रिय होते है तब तक हम न तो उनकी कठिनाइयों का निदान कर पाएंगे और न ही समाधान।
4. अनुलिपि और भावलिपि (Translation & Paraphrasing) भी बच्चों को गैर स्थानीय भाषा पाठ को समझने में मदद कर सकती है। यह एक शिक्षण विधि भी है और संज्ञानात्मक विकास का मानक भी। अतः हम शिक्षक अनुलिपि (अनुवाद) को माध्यम के रूप में प्रयोग करके बच्चों में पाठ की समझ का विकास कर सकते है। इसके आलावा हम बच्चों में अनुलिपि की क्षमता का विकास करके उन्हे गैर-स्थानीय भाषा पाठ को समझने में आत्मनिर्भर भी बना सकते है।
5. जो विद्यार्थी किसी भाषा की पाठ-संरचना (Text-Structure) को समझते हैं वे उस भाषा की पाठ्यवस्तु के अर्थ को भी आसानी से समझ जाते हैं। पाठ संरचना की समझ की भाषा को सीखने व समझने मे महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका होती है। अतः हम शिक्षक बच्चों को पाठ की संरचना का विश्लेषण करके बच्चों में संरचनात्मक जागरूकता का विकास कर सकते हैं और इस प्रकार उनकी कठिनाइयों का स्थायी समाधान कर सकते है।
6. द्वितीय भाषा की शब्दावली में बच्चों को संपन्न बनाकर पाठ को समझने की कठिनाइयों का निवारण किया जा सकता है। इसके लिए शब्द-खेल, शब्दाक्षरी (अंत्याक्षरी की तरह) आदि का संयोजन कर सकते है। इसके अलावा शब्द-शिक्षण की मनोरंजक विधियां (जैसे कि कहानी विधि का प्रयोग करके) बच्चों की द्वितीय भाषा के शब्द-ज्ञान का विस्तार किया जा सकता है। परिणामतः बच्चे उस भाषा के पाठ को समझ सकेंगे। पठन के दौरान पाठ में आए नए शब्दों का शब्दकोश के माध्यम से ज्ञान कराया जा सकता है उसके बाद बच्चों को पाठ को पुनः पढ़ने के लिए निर्देशित किया जा सकता है। अब दोबारा पढ़ते समय बच्चे उस पाठ को अधिक समझ सकेंगे। इस प्रकरण में शब्द-शिक्षण के

लिए कहानी विधि के प्रयोग का उदाहरण किसी को असंगत लग सकता है। इसकी विस्तृत चर्चा करने का अवसर यहाँ नहीं है अतः मैं सिर्फ उदाहरणार्थ कुछ में से एक पुस्तक जो कि विल्फ्रेड फंक महोदय द्वारा लिखी है का सुझाव देकर आगे बढ़ता हूँ (संदर्भ-सूची देखे- Funk, 2011)।

7. इसके पर्याप्त साक्ष्य हैं कि पढ़ना सीखने के लिए व्यापक-पठन (Extensive Reading) अत्यधिक सहायक होता है। अतः शिक्षकों को पढ़ने के लिए संसाधन और वातावरण तैयार करना चाहिए। पाठ्यचर्या के साथ-साथ अनुपूरक बाल साहित्य सावधानी से चयनित किया जा सकता है। कक्षा-कक्ष पुस्तकालयों की भी व्यवस्था की जा सकती है। बच्चों को हम पढ़ने के लिए प्रेरित कर सकते हैं। विद्यार्थियों को व्यापक पठन के लिए प्रेरित करने के लिए सबसे अच्छा उदाहरण है कि शिक्षक स्वयं आदर्श पाठक बने और विद्यार्थियों के समक्ष एक प्रतिमान प्रस्तुत करें। नए-नए साहित्य को पढ़ने के बाद बच्चों के साथ हम चर्चा करें इससे बच्चे उन पुस्तकों को पढ़ने के लिए प्रेरित होंगे। परिणामतः पढ़ने से पढ़ने की क्षमता का विकास होगा (learning to read by reading)
8. जो बच्चे प्रथम पीढ़ी के पढ़ने वाले हैं उनके घर में पर्याप्त सहयोग और वातावरण उपलब्ध नहीं होता है। इन्हें शिक्षा साहित्य में 'प्रथम पीढ़ी अधिगमकर्ता First Generation Learner) कहा जाता है। जिनके माता-पिता शिक्षित होते हैं वे बच्चे कुछ शब्द ज्ञान (प्रथम भाषा और द्वितीय भाषा) के साथ विद्यालय आते हैं। एक आदर्श मध्यवर्गीय शिक्षित परिवार के बच्चे को विद्यालय पूर्व औसतन 1000 घंटे का गृह अनुदेशन(Tuition) मिल चुका होता है (Adams, 1990)। यद्यपि एडम महोदय का सर्वेक्षण भारत से बाहर का है पर हमारे यहाँ की स्थिति कमोबेश ऐसी ही होती है। शिक्षित और अशिक्षित माता-पिता का यह अंतर सम्पूर्ण विद्यालयी शिक्षा के दौरान बना ही रहता है। हम शिक्षकों को इस अंतर को समझते हुए बच्चों को पाठ्यवस्तु पढ़ने के लिए देनी चाहिए। यदि संसाधनों की कमी ना हो तो प्रथम पीढ़ी पाठको के लिए उपचारात्मक अनुदेशन (Remedial Teaching) की व्यवस्था भी करनी चाहिए।
9. उचित पठन-रणनीतियों (Reading Strategies) का शिक्षण भी आवश्यक है। पाठ्यवस्तु को पढ़ने में कुछ संज्ञानात्मक/परा- संज्ञानात्मक रणनीतियां बच्चे अपना सकते हैं जैसे कि अपने आपसे प्रश्न करना कि इस पाठ को पढ़ने से हम क्या सीख सकते हैं? पाठ को पढ़ने से पहले, पढ़ने के दौरान और पढ़ने के बाद में 'क्या', 'कैसे', 'क्यों' की कसौटी पर पाठ को कसना चाहिए। हम शिक्षक बच्चों को ऐसा करके दिखा सकते हैं। एक कोई प्रकरण लेकर हम क्लास में पढ़ें और फिर उस पर हम प्रतिक्रिया(Reflection) दें। सस्वर पठन और सस्वर चिंतन (loud reading and loud thinking/reflection) के द्वारा बच्चों को पठन-रणनीतियों का प्रशिक्षण दिया जा सकता है।
10. पाठ्य सामग्री आधारित अनुदेशन(Content Based Instruction) द्वितीय भाषा अनुदेशन के संदर्भ में अत्यधिक प्रभावशाली माना गया है (Mohan, 1990)। इस अनुदेशन विधि के माध्यम से शिक्षण करने के दौरान पाया गया है कि बच्चे पढ़ने के लिए अधिक प्रेरित होते हैं, उनमें पढ़ने की रणनीतियों का विकास होता है, व्यापक पठन के अवसर बढ़ते हैं और विद्यार्थियों की शब्दावली का विस्तार भी होता है।

11. बच्चों के स्तर के हिसाब से हम अक्षर, शब्द, य वाक्य शिक्षण की विधियों का प्रयोग कर सकते हैं। सस्वर वाचन (Loud Reading) से हम बच्चों की शब्द-ध्वनि की समझ का आकलन भी कर सकते हैं। जैसा की हम जानते हैं कि चारों भाषा कौशल एक दूसरे से जुड़े हुए हैं अतएव सही ध्वनि सही अर्थ को समझने में सहायक होती है। इस लिए हम बच्चों कि पठन क्षमताओं को ध्वनिशास्त्रीय शिक्षण विधियों के प्रयोग द्वारा भी संवर्धित कर सकते हैं।

निष्कर्ष रूप से हम कहा सकते हैं कि गैर-स्थानीय य विदेशी भाषा के पाठ को समझने कि क्षमता का विकास एक दीर्घकालिक प्रक्रिया है। विद्यार्थियों में इसके विकास हेतु हम शिक्षकों को सततरूप से धैर्यपूर्वक विभिन्न शिक्षण विधियों व रणनीतियों का प्रयोग करना होता है। इन विधियों को हम भाषा शिक्षण और भाषा विकास से संबन्धित पुस्तकों में पढ़ सकते हैं।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

7. बेकन ने किस निबन्ध में पठन का लाभ बताया है?
8. भाषा शिक्षण में किन कौशलों का विकास किया जाता है?
9. डॉ वेस्ट के पठन के विषय में क्या विचार है?
10. पठन के दो प्रकार लिखिए।
11. गैर स्थानीय भाषा के पाठ को समझने में बच्चों की कठिनाइयों का निवारण कैसे करेंगे?

6.8 शब्दावली

1. **आत्म-व्याख्यात्मक (Self-explanatory):** जिसकी व्याख्या करने की आवश्यकता ना हो।
2. **वाक्य-विन्यास (Sentence Structure):** व्याकरण का अंग जिससे हम विभिन्न प्रकार के वाक्यों में शब्दों का स्थान निर्धारित कराते हैं।
3. **भाषा की संरचना और प्रणाली:** भाषाएँ एक वैज्ञानिक व्यवस्था होती हैं जिसकी एक संरचना (लिखित व मौखिक) के कुछ नियम होते हैं।
4. **सम्प्रेषणात्मक अंग्रेजी:** अंग्रेजी भाषा के अध्ययन का एक विषय जिसमें संवाद क्षमता के विकास पर बल दिया जाता है।
5. **मूल-पाठ(Text):** पाठ, विषयवस्तु य लिखित सामाग्री।

6.9 अभ्यास प्रश्नों के उत्तर

1. शिक्षण के प्रकार:
 - क. अनुदेशन(Instruction)
 - ख. अनुबंधन(Conditioning),

ग. प्रशिक्षण (Training), और

घ. मतशिक्षण (Indoctrination)।

2. सन 1835 में मैकाले ने अंग्रेजी भाषा माध्यम शिक्षा को प्रश्रय दिया?
3. अनुदेशन के लिए सबसे उत्तम माध्यम मातृभाषा होती है?
भारतीय संविधान के अनुच्छेद अनुच्छेद 350A में मातृभाषा के माध्यम से शिक्षा की बात कही गई है?
4. पराभाषिक-शिक्षणशास्त्र की विचाधारा कक्षा शिक्षण में भाषा उदारता और किसी एक माध्यम-भाषा पर निर्भरता से मुक्ति में विश्वास करती है।
5. मातृभाषा के माध्यम से शिक्षा ना होने पर निम्नलिखित समस्याएँ आ सकती है:
क. विद्यार्थियों विषय कि समझ कम हो सकती है।
ख. विद्यार्थी असफल हो सकते है।
ग. बच्चे विद्यालय छोड़ सकते है।
घ. बच्चों के अंदर भाषा को लेकर हीन भावना का विकास हो सकता है।
ड. बच्चों के आत्म-सम्प्रत्यय को ठेस लग सकती है।
6. बेकन ने 'ऑफ स्टडीज' (Of Studies) निबन्ध में पठन का लाभ बताया है?
7. सुनना, बोलना, पढ़ना, और लिखना (Listening, Speaking, Reading & Writing)
8. डॉ वेस्ट के अनुसार पठन सीखने की आरंभिक अवस्था है
9. पठन के दो प्रकार : – गहन (Intensive), व्यापक(Extensive) पठन।
10. गैर स्थानीय भाषा के पाठ को समझने में बच्चों की कठिनाइयों का निवारण निम्नलिखित तरह से कर सकते है?
क. बच्चों की द्वितीय भाषा शब्दावली का विस्तार करके।
ख. अनुलिपि विधि से।
ग. विभिन्नीकृत पाठ्यवस्तु निर्धारित करके।
घ. उपचारात्मक शिक्षण की व्यवस्था करके।

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6.12 निबंधात्मक प्रश्न

1. गृहभाषा और विद्यालय भाषा में क्या अंतर है? दोनों अवधारणाओं की विस्तृत विवेचना किजिए।
2. विद्यालयी भाषा के निर्धारण के कारणों की समीक्षा कीजिए।
3. गैर-स्थानीय भाषा पाठ को समझने में विद्यार्थियों की सहायता करने की आपकी क्या योजना है?

खण्ड 2

Block 2

इकाई 1- कक्षा में संवाद :अर्थ , प्रकार्य, विशेषता एवं अभ्यास, सम्बंधित विषय क्षेत्र में अधिगम वृद्धि के लिए मौखिक भाषा प्रयोग करने की रणनीति

The discourse in classroom: Meaning, functions, characteristics and practices; Development of strategies for using oral language in the classroom for promoting learning in the subject area.

- 1.1 प्रस्तावना
- 1.2 उद्देश्य
- 1.3 कक्षा में संवाद की प्रकृति
- 1.4 मौखिक भाषा की विशेषताएं
- 1.5 मौखिक भाषा के तत्व
- 1.6 विषय सम्बंधित क्षेत्र में अधिगम वृद्धि के लिए मौखिक भाषा प्रयोग करने की रणनीति
- 1.7 सारांश
- 1.8 शब्दावली
- 1.9 संदर्भ ग्रंथ सूची
- 1.10 निबंधात्मक प्रश्न

1.1 प्रस्तावना

भाषा मानव समाज का सर्वाधिक महत्वपूर्ण आविष्कार है। ध्वनि के विविध स्वरों और प्रस्तुतीकरण के अन्यान्य रूपों के माध्यम से सृष्टि के समस्त प्राणी परस्पर सूचनाओं एवं भावनाओं का सम्प्रेषण करते हैं। हमारे आज के आधुनिक शिक्षा व्यवस्था में हम ज्यादातर भाषा के लिखित एवं मौखिक स्वरूप पर निर्भर रहते हैं। मौखिक भाषा की सहायता से ही विद्यार्थी एवं शिक्षक कक्षा में संवाद स्थापित कर पाने में सफल होते हैं जो कि उनके ज्ञानार्जन का मूल आधार होता है। विज्ञान हो या कला वाणिज्य हो या संगीत सभी तरह के विषयों का मूल ज्ञान संवाद एवं मौखिक भाषा से ही प्राप्त किया जाता है। अतः विभिन्न विषयों

के अधिगम में भी मौखिक भाषा संवाद स्थापित करने के लिए एवं ज्ञानार्जन के लिए अति महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका अदा करती है।

1.2 उद्देश्य

इस इकाई को पढ़ने के बाद आप-

1. कक्षा में संवाद की प्रकृति को समझ सकेंगे।
2. मौखिक भाषा के महत्व को समझा सकेंगे।
3. मौखिक भाषा के उद्देश्यों को बता सकेंगे।
4. मौखिक भाषा में दक्ष होने की रणनीतियों को समझा सकेंगे।
5. मौखिक भाषा की आवश्यकता को बता सकेंगे।

1.3 कक्षा में संवाद की प्रकृति (Nature of Discourse in Classroom)

कक्षा कक्ष में संवाद का अपना ही महत्व है क्योंकि कक्षा में संवाद के द्वारा ही अधिकांश अधिगम संपन्न होता है। इसके अभाव में अधिगम की कल्पना ही संभव नहीं है। बेहतर अधिगम के लिए बेहतर संवाद भी आवश्यक है। बेहतर संवाद से तात्पर्य स्वस्थ संवाद से है जिसमें कि विद्यार्थी एवं शिक्षक दोनों की भरपूर सहभागिता हो। एकांगी बातचीत (One way talk) का कक्षा में कोई विशेष महत्व नहीं होता है क्योंकि यह कक्षा कक्ष को शिक्षक केंद्रित बना देता है। यदि कक्षा में संवाद दोनों ही तरफ से (विद्यार्थी एवं शिक्षक) के तरफ से आवश्यकतानुसार ठीक ढंग से हो रहा है तो इस तरह का अधिगम सदैव बेहतर होता है। कक्षा में संवाद की प्रकृति को निम्न तरीके से समझा जा सकता है।

1. लोकतांत्रिक संवाद परिस्थिति (Democratic Discourse Situation)
2. अलोकतांत्रिक संवाद परिस्थिति (Non- Democratic Discourse Situation)

लोकतांत्रिक संवाद परिस्थिति (Democratic Discourse Situation): लोकतांत्रिक संवाद परिस्थितियाँ वो परिस्थितियाँ होती हैं जिनमें विद्यार्थी एवं शिक्षक को सामान अधिकार प्राप्त होते हैं। इस तरह के संवाद में विद्यार्थी अपनी सभी समस्याओं का निदान बिना किसी डर एवं हिचक के कर लेता है। आधुनिक विद्यार्थी केंद्रित शिक्षा प्रणाली इसी संवाद परिस्थिति पर केंद्रित होती है। इस तरह के संवाद परिस्थिति में अधिगम प्रक्रिया बहुत तेज एवं स्पष्ट होती है। यह संवाद परिस्थिति अधिगम प्रक्रिया को बेहतर बनाने के साथ साथ नयी चीजों को सीखने के लिए भी एक बेहतर माहौल उपलब्ध कराता है।

अलोकतांत्रिक संवाद परिस्थिति (Non- Democratic Discourse Situation): अलोकतांत्रिक संवाद प्रकृति विद्यार्थी केंद्रित न होकर शिक्षक केंद्रित होती है। इसमें विद्यार्थियों के स्थान पर शिक्षक की प्रधानता होती है। इस तरह के संवाद में विद्यार्थी के पास अधिगम होने की संभावना बहुत कम होती है।

इस विधि में सामान्यतः शिक्षक भाषण विधि (lecture method) से पढाता है जिससे विद्यार्थी को प्रश्न पूछने की संभावना घट जाती है एवं वह अपने समस्याओं का समाधान नहीं कर पाता है। उपरोक्त दोनों विधियों में लोकतांत्रिक संवाद विधि ज्यादा प्रभावशाली एवं लोकप्रिय मानी जाती है। मनोवैज्ञानिकों ने भी लोकतांत्रिक संवाद विधि को ही महत्वपूर्ण एवं उपयोगी माना है।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

1. कक्षा में संवाद की प्रकृति पर एक टिप्पणी लिखिए ?
2. लोकतांत्रिक संवाद परिस्थिति से आप क्या समझते हैं ?
3. अलोकतांत्रिक संवाद परिस्थिति से आप क्या समझते हैं ?
4. लोकतांत्रिक एवं अलोकतांत्रिक संवाद परिस्थिति में अंतर स्पष्ट करें ?

1.5 मौखिक भाषा की विशेषताएं (Characteristics of Oral Language)

सामान्यतया बालक अनुकरण (Imitation) द्वारा मौखिक भाषा का प्रयोग स्वतः ही करने लगता है परन्तु विद्यालय में औपचारिक रूप से इस कौशल को विकसित करने का प्रयास किया जाता है। विशेषकर भाषा के अध्यापक को इस बात का ज्ञान अवश्य होना चाहिए कि वह मौखिक भाषा- कौशल को विकसित करने की दृष्टि से छात्रों को किस तरह से बोलना सिखाये और उनके मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति कौशल को क्या दिशा प्रदान करे। इसके लिए उसे मौखिक भाषा के निम्न गुणों की जानकारी होना आवश्यक है।

1. **अवसर के अनुकूल (According to Occasion)** : अवसर के अनुसार ही भाषा का प्रयोग होना चाहिए। जीवन के विभिन्न अवसरों पर हर्ष, उल्लास, शोक, दुःख, दया, सहानुभूति एवं प्यार आदि भावों को व्यक्त करना पड़ता है। इन भावों के अनुकूल ही उचित हाव- भाव के साथ मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति करनी चाहिए।
2. **शिष्टता (Humbleness)** : किसी भी व्यक्ति के साथ वार्तालाप करते समय शिष्टाचार का ध्यान रखना चाहिए। अशिष्ट मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति सामाजिक संबंधों को बिगाड़ देती है।
3. **श्रोताओं के अनुकूल भाषा (Language as per the standard of the listener):** जिस स्तर के व्यक्तियों से बात की जाए उसी प्रकार की भाषा का प्रयोग करना चाहिए।
4. **स्वाभाविकता (Naturality)** : बोलने में स्वाभाविकता होनी चाहिए। बनावटी बोली का प्रयोग हास्यास्पद हो जाता है। अस्वाभाविक भाषा वक्ता को अविश्वसनीय बना देती है। स्वाभाविक भाषा एवं अभिव्यक्ति विश्वसनीय होती है।

5. **मधुरता (Sweetness):** मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति में मधुर वाणी का प्रयोग करना चाहिए। वाणी की मधुरता ही व्यक्ति को मित्र बना लेती है और कठोरता शत्रु बना देती है। मीठी वाणी का प्रयोग का किसी व्यक्ति से सहजता से काम निकाला जा सकता है।
6. **प्रवाहिकता (Fluency):** मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति में उचित प्रवाह होना चाहिए। विराम चिन्हों के उचित पालन से अभिव्यक्ति में सम्यक गति व प्रवाह आ जाता है। कान्हा कम रूकना है, कहाँ पूर्ण विराम देना है, कहाँ प्रश्नसूचक गति देनी है, कहाँ विस्मयजनक, इन बातों के उचित पालन से अभिव्यक्ति बहुत प्रभावशाली बन जाती है।
7. **सर्वमान्य भाषा (Universal Language) :** मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति में सर्वमान्य भाषा का प्रयोग करना चाहिए। अप्रचलित शब्दों के प्रयोग से वार्तालाप नीरस बन जाता है।
8. **सरलता (Simplicity):** जो भी बात कही जाए उसके लिए सरल व सुबोध भाषा का प्रयोग करना चाहिए। अभिव्यक्ति का लाभ तभी है जब वह श्रोता को समझ में आ जाए।
9. **शुद्धता (Correctness) :** बोलते समय शुद्ध भाषा का प्रयोग करना चाहिए। उच्चारण भी शुद्ध होना चाहिये। अशुद्ध उच्चारण व अशुद्ध भाषा के वक्तव्य प्रभावहीन हो जाता है।
10. **स्पष्टता (Clarity) :** बोलने में स्पष्टता होनी चाहिए। जो भी बात कही जाए स्पष्ट एवं साफ़ होनी चाहिए। बात को घुमा – फिराकर नहीं बल्कि सीधे शब्दों में साफ़- साफ़ कहना चाहिए।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

5. मौखिक भाषा के कौन से गुण इसको अन्य माध्यमों से अलग बनाते हैं ?
6. मौखिक भाषा के विशेषताओं पर प्रकाश डालें।
7. मौखिक भाषा के प्रवाहिकता पर एक टिप्पणी लिखें।

1.6 मौखिक भाषा के तत्व (Elements of Oral Language)

मौखिक भाषा जन सामान्य के व्यवहार की वस्तु है और इसका उद्भव सामाजिक जीवन के विविध व्यवहारों के संचालन के लिये ही हुआ। समाज समय, परिस्थितियों और आवश्यकताओं के अनुसार बदलता रहता है और भाषा उसी की अनुगामी बनी रहती है। किन्तु भाषा का त्वरित परिवर्तन किसी भी प्रकार आवश्यक और उपयोगी नहीं है। इसलिए भाषा के स्वरूप को स्थायित्व दिए जाने की ज़रूरत है। इस आवश्यकता की पूर्ति के लिए भाषा के तत्वों का अध्ययन और उसके संरक्षण का प्रयास किया जाता है। इसी के साथ भाषा के स्वरूप को समझने और सही भाषा प्रयोग के लिये भाषा का व्यावहारिक विश्लेषण किया जाना चाहिए।

- i. **वाक्य शब्द और अक्षर :** मौखिक भाषा वाक्यों के माध्यम से अभिव्यक्त होती है। वाक्य मौखिक भाषा के मौलिक इकाई है। मौखिक भाषा में यदि कभी शब्द या क्षर का एक इकाई के रूप में प्रयोग होता है तो वह भी वाक्य का स्थानपन्न होता है। उदाहरण के लिए यदि “क्या तुम बाजार गए थे ? इस प्रश्न के उत्तर में हाँ कहा जाता है ति इसका तात्पर्य है कि हाँ में बाजार गया था। इस प्रकार वाक्य मौखिक भाषा की मौलिक इकाई है। बालक जब परिवार की भाषा के अनुकरण से मातृभाषा ग्रहण करता है तो वाक्य रूपी शब्दों से ही भाव सम्प्रेषण करता है। यदि वह पानी कहता है तो तात्पर्य होता है कि प्यास लगी है। इस प्रकार से भाषा सीखने और प्रयोग करने का स्वाभाविक क्रम वाक्यों से आरम्भ होता है।
- ii. **विषयानुकूल भाषा शैली :** समाज में व्यवहार के लिए विभिन्न अवसरों पर, विभिन्न विषयों के बारे में और विभिन्न लोगों से बातचीत का तरीका सीखना आवश्यक है। शिक्षित और अशिक्षित, ग्रामीण व शहरी लोगों की भाषा में अंतर होता है। इसी क्रम में औपचारिक और अनौपचारिक, कार्यालयी और व्यापारिक भाषा रूपों में अंतर होता है।
- iii. **उचित स्वर गति, बालाघात और विराम :** समाज में भाषा – प्रयोग एक संवेदनशील मुद्दा है। इसके लिए अनेक प्रकार के की कुशलताओं और सावधानियों की अपेक्षा होती है। इसमें स्वर और गति शामिल हैं। स्वर का तात्पर्य है बोलते हुए आवाज की उच्चता या मंदता और गति का तात्पर्य है बोलते हुए जल्दी-जल्दी या धीरे-धीरे बोलना। सदा ऊँची या नीची आवाज में बात करना सफल वाकशैली नहीं कही जा सकती।
- iv. **विषय / भावानुकूल शब्दचयन :** भाषा में एक प्रकार के भावों और स्थितियों को प्रकट करने के लिए एक सामान प्रतीत होने वाले शब्द पाए जाते हैं। इन शब्दों के भाव और अर्थ में किंचित अंतर होता है जो कथन को अधिक प्रभावी बनाने में उपयोगी होता है। जनसाधारण इन शब्दों में स्पष्टतः भेद नहीं कर पाते इसलिए जो शब्द सामने पड़ता है उसी का प्रयोग कर डालते हैं।
- v. **हाव भाव एवं अंग संचालन :** भाषा समाज की जीवन्तता और गतिशीलता की कुंजी है। बात करते हुए मनुष्य तो क्या पशु भी अंग संचालन अवश्य करते हैं। इससे कथ्य जीवंत और अधिक अर्थपूर्ण हो जाता है। हाव- भाव का तात्पर्य है बात करते हुए माथे की सिकुडन तथा शरीर के ने हिस्सों के हरकतों से कथ्य कपो अधिक स्पष्ट और भावपूर्ण बनाने का प्रयास करना। इसी प्रकार का प्रयास जब हाथों की अंगुलियां, मुट्टी, बाजू और कन्धों की सहायता से होता है तो अंग-संचालन कहलाता है। वास्तव में जैसे भाव अपनी अभिव्यक्ति के लिए शब्दों का आश्रय लेते हैं वैसे ही हाव-भाव एवं अंग-संचालन भी अभिव्यक्ति को अधिक अर्थपूर्ण बनाने का उपक्रम करते हैं।
- vi. **मौलिकता, स्वाभाविकता तथा सहजता:** भाषा किसी व्यक्ति की निजी व स्वानुभूत भावनाओं, आवश्यकताओं और विचारों के सम्प्रेषण का माध्यम है। हम समाज के सानिध्य एवं अनुकरण से भाषा सीखते अवश्य हैं लेकिन उसका प्रयोग हमारे आवश्यकताओं के अनुरूप होता है न कि

अन्यों की नक़ल या उत्प्रेरण से। भाषा के शब्द उसके सभी प्रयोक्ताओं के व्यक्तिगत अंतर्भावों के प्रकाशन के माध्यम होते हैं।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

8. उचित स्वर गति, बालाघात और विराम से आप क्या समझते हैं ?
9. मौलिकता, स्वाभाविकता तथा सहजता को परिभाषित कीजिये।
10. वाक्य शब्द और अक्षर का मौखिक भाषा में क्या महत्व है ?
11. मौखिक भाषा के तत्व पर प्रकाश डालें।

1.7 विषय सम्बंधित क्षेत्र में अधिगम वृद्धि के लिए मौखिक भाषा प्रयोग करने की रणनीति (Strategies For Using Oral Language in the Classroom to Promote Learning in the Subject Area)

मनुष्य एक सामाजिक प्राणी है वह अपने सोच एवं विचार को एक दूसरे तक लेन- देन करना चाहता है। इस काम के लिए वह भाषा के दोनों रूपों का प्रयोग करता है। वाणी (Speech) व लिखित रूप (Written form)– जब व्यक्ति, ध्वनियों के माध्यम से, मुख के अवयवों के मदद से, उच्चरित भाषा का प्रयोग करते हुए अपने विचारों को प्रकट करता है तब उसे मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति कहा जाता है। इस तरह से मुख से अभिव्यक्त होने वाली भाषा मौखिक भाषा (Oral Language) है और मुख के अवयवों के द्वारा भावों एवं विचारों की अभिव्यक्ति मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति है। मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति भाषायी चार कौशलों में से एक कौशल है। साधारण भाषा में इसे बोलचाल कहा जाता है। समाज में हम अपने अधिकांश कार्य व्यवहार बोलचाल द्वारा ही सम्पन्न करते हैं। यह विचारों के आदान प्रदान का सरलतम माध्यम है। लिपि के आविष्कार से पूर्व समस्त ज्ञान बोल कर ही दिया जाता था और यह क्रम कई पीढ़ियों तक चलता रहता था। आज भी जीवन के सभी क्षेत्रों में सफलता प्राप्त करने के लिए मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति में कुशलता है।

मौखिक भाषा का महत्व (Importance of Oral Language): मानव जीवन की जितनी भी मूलभूत जरूरतें हैं, उनमें भावों एवं विचारों की अभिव्यक्ति भी एक अनिवार्यता है। जीवन के हर क्षेत्र में मौखिक भाषा का अपना ही महत्व है। इसके महत्व को निम्नलिखित दृष्टि से देखा जा सकता है –

- i. मौखिक भाषा के प्रयोग से कुशल व्यक्ति अपनी वाणी से जादू जगा सकता है। भारत के परिप्रेक्ष्य में हम अटल बिहारी बाजपेयी के शास्त्रीय भाषणों (Classical speeches)का

- उदाहरण ले सकते हैं कि किस प्रकार से उन्होंने अपने भाषणों के दम पर देश में ही नहीं बल्कि अन्तरराष्ट्रीय जगत में भी अपनी अनूठी पहचान बनायी।
- ii. बालक के अंदर जिज्ञासा जन्म लेती है वह तरह के प्रश्न पूछ कर अपनी इस जिज्ञासा को शांत करता है और प्रसन्नता का अनुभव करता है। इससे उसके स्वाभाविक विकास में सहायता मिलती है। उसके आत्म विश्वास में वृद्धि होती है और व्यक्तित्व में निखार आता है।
 - iii. भाषा शिक्षण का एक स्वाभाविक क्रम है – बोलना, सुनना, पढ़ाना और लिखना। बालक को मौखिक भाषा का प्रयोग सुनाने और बोलने में दक्ष बनाता है। यह बोल- चाल हे पढ़ने – लिखने के कौशल को विकसित करने का आधार बनता है।
 - iv. मौखिक भाषा ही अभिव्यक्ति का सहज एवं सरलतम माध्यम है। मौखिक भाषा में ही मनुष्य अपने भावों को स्वाभाविक रूप में दूसरे के सामने व्यक्त कर पाता है।
 - v. दैनिक जीवन में सभी कार्य- कलापों में मौखिक भाषा ही प्रयोग होती है। अपने समाज में, परिवार में अन्य सदस्यों के साथ विचारों का आदान – प्रदान करने के लिए तथा अपनी बात उनसे कहने व उनकी बात समझने के लिए भाषा के इसी रूप का प्रयोग करना होता है।
 - vi. मौखिक भाषा के द्वारा विचारों को नए ढंग से आदान- प्रदान में बढ़ोत्तरी की जाती है। अशिक्षित व्यक्ति बोलचाल के द्वारा ही ज्ञान अर्जित कर लेता है।
 - vii. वार्तालाप, बोलचाल या प्रश्नोत्तर द्वारा सीखी गयी विस्ववास्तु अपना स्थायी प्रभाव छोड़ती है। इस प्रकार विद्यालय में शिक्षण – पद्धति को रोचक व प्रभावशाली बनाने में भी मौखिक भाषा का अत्यधिक महत्व है।
 - viii. सामाजिक जीवन में सामंजस्य स्थापित करने एवं सामाजिक संबंधों को सुदृढ़ बनाने में भी मौखिक भाषा की प्रमुख भूमिका होती है।
 - ix. राजनीतिक जीवन में आधुनिक युग में तथा सफलता की दृष्टि से भी मौखिक भाषा का अपना महत्व है। एक नेता अपनी भासन- कला के द्वारा ही जन- समुदाय को अपना बना लेता है और अपनी बातचीत के द्वारा अपने संपर्क में आने वाले व्यक्तियों को प्रभावित कर लेता है।
 - x. विद्यालयी पाठ्यक्रम में सभी विषयों की शिक्षा में मौखिक भाषा ही प्रमुख माध्यम होता है।
- मौखिक भाषा ही सभी विषयों का ज्ञानार्जन करने का मूल आधार है। मौखिक भाषा के बिना सीखना और सिखाना दोनों ही कठिन है। अतः प्रारंभिक स्तर पर से ही मौखिक भाषा की शिक्षा प्रदान की जानी आवश्यक है ताकि उच्च कक्षा तक पहुँचते- पहुँचाते उनकी अभिव्यक्ति में शुद्ध, स्पष्टता, सुबोधता, मधुरता, प्रवाहिकता, स्वाभाविकता एवं प्रभावोत्पादकता पूरी तरह से विकसित हो जाए। इसके लिए अध्यापक निम्नलिखित शिक्षण विधियों एवं साधनों का प्रयोग कर सकता है –
- i. **वार्तालाप** - पाठ्य – पढ़ाते समय या किसी अन्य अवसर पर व शिक्षक को चाहिए की बातचीत करे। हर छात्र को वार्तालाप में भाग लेने के लिए प्रेरित करना चाहिए। वार्तालाप का विषय बच्चों के ज्ञान व अनुभव की परिधि के अंदर का होना चाहिए। यदि कोई बच्चा

- उत्सुकता प्रश्न पूछे तो उसके प्रश्न का उत्तर दे कर उसकी उत्सुकता को संतुष्ट करना चाहिए। वार्तालाप में छात्रों से भी प्रश्न पूछकर उनके मुख से उत्तर निकलवाने का प्रयास करना चाहिए।
- ii. **प्रश्नोत्तर** – मौखिक शिक्षा देने के लिए प्रश्नोत्तर एक अच्छी विधि है। सामान्य विषयों पर या पाठ्यपुस्तक से सम्बंधित पाठों पर छात्रों से प्रश्न पूछने चाहिए। छात्रों से पूर्ण रूप से उत्तर स्वीकार करना चाहिए। यदि उत्तर अपूर्ण या अशुद्ध हो तो उसे साहनुभूति पूर्वक पूर्ण या शुद्ध करवाया जाये।
- iii. **चित्र- वर्णन** : चित्र देखने में छोटे बच्चे रुचि लेते हैं। इस प्रकार किसी चित्र को दिखाकर उस पर प्रश्न पूछ कर बच्चों से चित्र वर्णन कराना चाहिए। जैसे गाय का चित्र दिखाकर गाय के बारे में अनेक बातें बता सकता है। इसी प्रकार चित्र के द्वारा कहानी कही जा सकती है। मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति के लिए चित्र- वर्णन एक रोचक प्रणाली है।
- iv. **स्वतंत्र आत्मप्रकाशन का अवसर** : बच्चों को समय – समय पर अलग- अलग तरह के अनुभव होते हैं। अलग – अलग घटनाओं, दृश्यों या व्यक्तिगत जीवन से सम्बंधित इन अनुभवों को सुनाने के लिए अवसर देकर अध्यापक मौखिक भाषा का अभ्यास करा सकता है।
- v. **अनुच्छेद – सार या पाठ का सार** : पाठ्य – पुस्तक या अन्य किसी पत्रिका का कोई पाठ या रचना पढ़कर उसका सार तत्व बताने के लिए कहा जाता है। छात्र रचना की प्रमुख बातें संक्षेप में व्यक्त करते हैं। इसी प्रकार किसी पाठ का कोई अनुच्छेद पढ़कर उसका सार बताने के लिए कहा जाता है।
- vi. **वाद- विवाद** : पूर्व – निर्धारित विषय पर इसमें बालक विचारों का आदान प्रदान करते हैं। कुछ बालक विषय के पक्ष में और कुछ विपक्ष में अपने विचार प्रस्तुत करते हैं।
- vii. **भाषण**: पूर्व निर्धारित कोई रुचिकर विषय देकर, अध्यापक छात्रों को भाषण देने का अवसर प्रदान कर सकता है। भाषण मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति का एक आसान साधन है। भाषा का विषय छात्रों के मानसिक स्तर के अनुसार होना चाहिए। ज़रूरत के अनुसार छात्रों उचित मार्गदर्शन भी करना चाहिए। समय- समय विभिन्न भाषण प्रतियोगिताओं का आयोजन करके छात्रों को भाषण में भाग लेने के लिए प्रोत्साहन करने का प्रयास भी करना चाहिए।
- viii. **नाटक- कला**: नाटक मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति के सभी गुणों को विकसित करने के लिए एक उपयोगी साधन है। इसमें भाग लेने वाले विद्यार्थी को पात्र के चरित्र के अनुसार सही हाव- भाव, उतार चढ़ाव के साथ एवं प्रवाह के साथ संवाद प्रस्तुत करने होते हैं। इस प्रकार उचित नाटक का चुनाव कर, अध्यापक को छात्रों को नाटक मंचन में पूर्ण सहयोग देना चाहिए। इससे छात्र पूरी लगन के साथ मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति की विविध शैलियों को सीखते तथा उसका अभ्यास करते हैं।
- ix. **कविता पाठ** : छोटे बच्चे गीत सुनाने व सुनाने दोनों में ही काफी रुचि लेते हैं। अतः कवितायें याद कराके उन्हें कविता पाठ के लिए प्रेरित करना चाहिए। उचित हाव – भाव व अंग संचालन

के साथ कविता पाठ करने में उन्हें बहुत आनंद का अनुभव होता है। इसलिए कविता पाठ मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति की शिक्षा देने का एक उपयोगी साधन है।

- x. **अन्त्याक्षरी प्रतियोगिता :** इस साहित्यिक क्रिया में बालक कविताओं को कंठस्थ करते हैं और प्रतियोगिता के समय पहले दल के द्वारा कही गयी कविता जिस वर्ण पर समाप्त होती है, उसी वर्ण से शुरू होने वाली कविता सुनाते हैं। इससे बच्चों में कविता के प्रति रुचि उत्पन्न होती है और मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति का अभ्यास भी होता है।
- xi. **सस्वर वाचन :** पाठ्य – पुस्तक का पाठ शुरू करते समय शिक्षक को चाहिए कि वह स्वयं अनुच्छेद का वाचन करे। फिर विद्यार्थियों से वाचन कराएं जिससे कि मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति का संकोच दूर हो जाए।
- xii. **कहानी के माध्यम से पाठ को रोचक बनाना :** बच्चे कहानियों को बहुत पसंद करते हैं। अतः अध्यापक को चाहिए कि वह पहले स्वयं ही कहानी सुनाये और फिर बच्चों को उसी कहानी को सुनाने के लिए कहे। इससे श्रवण कौशल एवं मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति कौशल दोनों को विकसित करने में सहायता मिलती है।

मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति दोष कारण, निदान तथा उपचार

बोलते समय तथा सस्वर पठन करते समय तुतलाना, हकलाना, शब्दों का चबाना आदि मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति दोष कहलाते हैं। मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति दोष के मुख्यतः तीन कारण होते हैं: १. शारीरिक विकार २. भय और आतंक का वातावरण और ३. मानसिक अवरुद्धता।

- i. **शारीरिक विकार :** मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति का सीधा संबंध वागेन्द्रियों अथवा उच्चारण अवयवों – जिह्वा, कंठ, दांत, नाक, तालू आदि से है। इनमें किसी प्रकार विकार उत्पन्न होने से उच्चारण स्पष्ट नहीं हो पाता। मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति के अधिकांश दोष उच्चारण सम्बन्धित होते हैं, जैसे तुतलाना, भारी आवाज़ होना, अतिरिक्त अनुनासिकता, शब्दों को चबाना आदि। श्रवणेन्द्रियाँ (कान) में दोष भी मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति में आड़े आता है, जिसके कारण उच्चारण दोष आ जाता है। जो बच्चे ठीक से सुन नहीं पाते उन्हें बोलने में भी कठिनाई होती है।
- ii. **भय और आतंक का वातावरण :** चाहे घर हो या विद्यालय, भय और आतंक का वातावरण बच्चे का सांवेगिक संतुलन बिगाड़ देता है। क्रोधी माता-पिता के बच्चे हकलाने लगते हैं। अध्यापक की लगातार डांट फटकार से बच्चे में आत्मविश्वास की कमी हो जाती है, जो उसकी मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति को दोषपूर्ण बना देती है।
- iii. **मानसिक अवरुद्धता :** बालक की मानसिक अवरुद्धता उसकी मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति में बाधक होती है। ऐसे बालक की बुद्धिलब्धि का स्तर सामान्य बच्चों की तुलना में दो वर्ष पीछे होता है और वो अपेक्षाकृत देर से बोलना सीखते हैं।

वागेन्द्रीय य दोष वाले बच्चों को निम्न लक्षणों से पहचाना जा सकता है।

- i. ऐसे बच्चे सामान ध्वनि वाले वर्णों में अन्तर नहीं कर पाते और एक ही सामान उसका उच्चारण करके पढ़ते हैं, जैसे श व स। वे अल्पप्राण व महाप्राण वाले ध्वनियों में भी ठीक से विभेद नहीं कर पाते। जैसे- क, ख, ट, ठ आदि।
- ii. ऐसे बच्चे बोलते या पढ़ते समय हकलाते हैं, कभी एकवर्ण पर और कभी एक शब्द पर ही उनकी वाणी रुक जाती है। जिससे अगला शब्द या वर्ण देर से मुखरित होता है। इस कारण उनकी मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति में प्रवाह नहीं रह पाता है।
- iii. ऐसे बच्चे बोलते समय तुतलाते हैं जिससे श्रोता को उसका कथन समझने में कठिनाई होती है। फलतः उनमें हीनता की भावना घर कर जाती है तथा वो दूसरे से बातचीत करने में घबराने लग जाते हैं।

उपचारात्मक सहायता हेतु मार्गदर्शक निर्देश : अभिव्यक्ति सम्बन्धित दोषों तथा उनके कारणों का पता लगा लेने के बाद अध्यापक उन्हें सुधारने के लिए निम्न लिखित उपचारात्मक सहायता कर सकते हैं।

- i. तुतलाने वाले बच्चों को निरंतर बोलने का अभ्यास करवाएं। यदि निरंतर अभ्यास से भी उनमें कोई सुधार नहीं होता है तो किसी अच्छे डाक्टर से परामर्श का सुझाव दें।
- ii. तुतलाने व हकलाने वाले बच्चे को बोलने के अतिरिक्त अवसर अवश्य प्रदान करें। उनका मनोबल ऊँचा करने के लिए उन्हें अतिरिक्त अवसर अवश्य प्रदान करें। उनके साथ प्रेम एवं सहानुभूतिपूर्ण रवैया अपनाएँ। इस बात का विशेष ध्यान रखा जाना चाहिए कि इन बच्चों के उच्चारण का कक्षा के अन्य बच्चे मजाक न उड़ाएं।
- iii. इन बच्चों के साथियों को प्रोत्साहित करें कि वे इनके साथ घुल मिल जाएं और उनका उच्चारण ठेक करने में उनकी हर प्रकार से सहायता करें।
- iv. कठिन ध्वनियों का शुद्ध उच्चारण करने के लिए और सीखाने के लिए टेप रिकार्डर, अन्य दृश्य श्रव्य साधनों तथा विभिन्न सॉफ्टवेयर का इस्तेमाल किया जाना चाहिए।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

12. मौखिक भाषा के महत्व पर प्रकाश डालिए।
13. मौखिक भाषा से आप क्या समझते हैं?
14. भाषा शिक्षण का स्वाभाविक क्रम क्या है?
15. मौखिक भाषा के पांच महत्व को उदाहरण सहित समझाएं।
16. नाट्य कला एवं कविता पाठ किस तरह से मौखिक भाषा के परिमार्जन में सहायक है?
17. प्रश्नोत्तर एवं वार्तालाप के अंतर को स्पष्ट करें।
18. स्वतंत्र आत्मप्रकाशन का अवसर से आप क्या समझते हैं?
19. मौखिक भाषा के परिमार्जन लिए अध्यापक किस तरह के शिक्षण विधियों एवं साधनों का प्रयोग कर सकता है?

20. विषय सम्बंधित क्षेत्र में अधिगम वृद्धि के लिए मौखिक भाषा प्रयोग करने की रणनीति पर प्रकाश डालें।

1.8 सारांश

भाषा मानव समाज का सर्वाधिक महत्वपूर्ण आविष्कार है। ध्वनि के विविध स्वरों और प्रस्तुतीकरण के अन्यान्य रूपों के माध्यम से सृष्टि के समस्त प्राणी परस्पर सूचनाओं एवं भावनाओं का सम्प्रेषण करते हैं। कक्षा कक्ष में संवाद का अपना ही महत्व है क्योंकि कक्षा में संवाद के द्वारा ही अधिकांश अधिगम संपन्न होता है। इसके अभाव में अधिगम की कल्पना ही संभव नहीं है। यदि कक्षा में संवाद दोनों ही तरफ से (विद्यार्थी एवं शिक्षक) के तरफ से आवश्यकतानुसार ठीक ढंग से हो रहा है तो इस तरह का अधिगम सदैव बेहतर होता है। कक्षा में संवाद की प्राकृति को निम्न तरीके से समझा जा सकता है।

1. लोकतांत्रिक संवाद परिस्थिति
2. अलोकतांत्रिक संवाद परिस्थिति

मनुष्य एक सामाजिक प्राणी है वह अपने सोच एवं विचार को एक दूसरे तक लेन- देन करना चाहता है। इस काम के लिए वह भाषा के दोनों रूपों का प्रयोग करता है। वाणी (Speech) व लिखित रूप (Written form)– जब व्यक्ति, ध्वनियों के माध्यम से, मुख के अवयवों के मदद से, उच्चरित भाषा का प्रयोग करते हुए अपने विचारों को प्रकट करता है तब उसे मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति कहा जाता है। ऐसे तो बालक अनुकरण द्वारा मौखिक भाषा का प्रयोग स्वतः ही करने लगता है परन्तु विद्यालय में औपचारिक रूप से इस कौशल को विकसित करने का प्रयास किया जाता है। विशेषकर भाषा के अद्यापक को इस बात का ज्ञान अवश्य होना चाहिए कि वह मौखिक भाषा- कौशल को विकसित करने की दृष्टि से छात्रों को किस तरह से बोलना सिखाये और उनके मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति कौशल को क्या दिशा प्रदान करे

1.9 शब्दावली

1. **लोकतांत्रिक संवाद परिस्थिति (Democratic Discourse Situation):** लोकतांत्रिक संवाद परिस्थितियाँ वो परिस्थितियाँ होती हैं जिनमें विद्यार्थी एवं शिक्षक को सामान अधिकार प्राप्त होते हैं।
2. **अलोकतांत्रिक संवाद परिस्थिति (Non-Democratic Discourse Situation) :** अलोकतांत्रिक संवाद प्रकृति विद्यार्थी केंद्रित न होकर शिक्षक केंद्रित होती है। इसमें विद्यार्थियों के स्थान पर शिक्षक की प्रधानता होती है।

3. **वाक्य शब्द और अक्षर (Sentence, word and letter) :** मौखिक भाषा वाक्यों के माध्यम से अभिव्यक्त होती है। वाक्य मौखिक भाषा के मौलिक इकाई है। मौखिक भाषा में यदि कभी शब्द या क्षर का एक इकाई के रूप में प्रयोग होता है तो वह भी वाक्य का स्थानपन्न होता है
4. **वाद- विवाद (Debate) :** पूर्व – निर्धारित विषय पर इसमें बालक विचारों का आदान प्रदान करते हैं। कुछ बालक विषय के पक्ष में और कुछ विपक्ष में अपने विचार प्रस्तुत करते हैं।
5. **हाव भाव एवं अंग संचालन :** हाव- भाव का तात्पर्य है बात करते हुए माथे की सिकुडन तथा शरीर के ने हिस्सों के हरकतों से कथ्य कपो अधिक स्पष्ट और भावपूर्ण बनाने का प्रयास करना। इसी प्रकार का प्रयास जब हाथों की अंगुलियां, मुट्ठी, बाजू और कन्धों की सहायता से होता है तो अंग- संचालन कहलाता है।

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1.11 निबंधात्मक प्रश्न

1. मौखिक भाषा के परिमार्जन लिए अध्यापक किस तरह के शिक्षण विधियों एवं साधनों का प्रयोग कर सकता है ?
2. मौखिक भाषा का मानव जीवन में क्या महत्व है ? प्रकाश डालिए ।
3. मौखिक भाषा के तत्व कौन –कौन से हैं ? स्पष्ट करें ।

इकाई 2 - सीखने के उपकरण के रूप में परिचर्चा, कक्षा- कक्ष में प्रश्नों का स्वरूप, प्रश्नों के प्रकार एवं शिक्षक की भूमिका

Discussion as Tool for Learning, the Nature of Questioning in the Classroom, Types of Questions and Teachers Role

- 2.1 प्रस्तावना
- 2.2 उद्देश्य
- 2.3 सीखने के उपकरण के रूप में परिचर्चा
- 2.4 कक्षा- कक्ष में प्रश्नों का स्वरूप
- 2.5 प्रश्नों के प्रकार
- 2.6 शिक्षक का नियंत्रण
- 2.7 सारांश
- 2.8 शब्दावली
- 2.9 निबंधात्मक प्रश्न
- 2.10 संदर्भ ग्रंथ सूची

2.1 प्रस्तावना

व्यक्ति बहुत सी ज्ञान की बातें एक दूसरे सुन कर जान पाता है और इस तरह का प्राप्त ज्ञान तुलनात्मक दृष्टि से स्थायी भी होता है । किसी भी भाषा का ज्ञान , बोध एवं उपयोग केवल कक्षागत परिस्थितियों में पाठ्यवस्तु के घटकों और भाषा तत्वों के ज्ञान और अभ्यास से परिपूर्ण नहीं होता । भाषा सजीव और संवेदनशील परम्परा है। वह वक्त समाज और परिस्थितियों के साथ जीती है और उन्हें गति प्रदान करती है। इसलिए भाषा का पूर्ण व्यावहारिक ज्ञान केवल पाठ्यपुस्तकों के अध्ययन से , और परीक्षाएं प्राप्त कर के नहीं पाया जा सकता । किसी भी विषय को सीखने के लिए विभिन्न प्रकार के उपागमों का प्रयोग करना चाहिए । इन उपागमों में परिचर्चा एक अति महत्वपूर्ण उपागम है । प्रस्तुत इकाई में हम लोग परिचर्चा के महत्व एवं कक्षा –कक्ष में विभिन्न प्रकार के प्रश्नों के प्रयोग पर प्रकाश डाला गया है ।

2.2 उद्देश्य

इस इकाई के अध्ययन के पश्चात आप-

1. सीखने के उपकरण के रूप में परिचर्चा के महत्व को समझ सकेंगे ।
2. कक्षा-कक्ष में प्रश्नों के विभिन्न स्वरूप को जान पाएंगे
3. प्रश्नों के विभिन्न प्रकारों के उपयोग के बारे में समझ पाएंगे ।
4. कक्षा- कक्ष में शिक्षक का नियंत्रण कैसा होना चाहिए जान पाएंगे ।

2.3 सीखने के उपकरण के रूप में परिचर्चा (Discussion as a tool for learning)

परिचर्चा का अर्थ है – किसी विषय के सभी पहलुओं पर विचार- विमर्श । परिचर्चा के लिए विषय सामयिक घटनाओं और चर्चा में आये सन्दर्भों से चुना जा सकता है । इस प्रकार की गतिविधि के लिए अलग से समय निकालने या तैयारी की आवश्यकता नहीं होती । किसी दिन कक्षा में पहुँचाने पर आप यदि पायें कि विद्यार्थी किसी विषय विशेष पर चर्चा के लिए उत्सुक हैं तो परिचर्चा के शुरुआत की जा सकती है । यह विषय खेल, राजनीति, कोई विशेष घटना या निर्णय भी हो सकता है। परिचर्चा ले लिए ज्यादा समय भी खर्च करने की आवश्यकता भी नहीं होती । शिक्षक चुने हुए विषयों पर विद्यार्थियों को अपने –अपने विचार प्रस्तुत करने के अवसर दें और अंत में अपने विचारों का समावेश करते हुए चर्चा का सार प्रस्तुत कर दें । ऐसी चर्चा अनेक बार कोई पाठ या प्रकरण पढते हुए भी सामने आ सकती है । आवश्यकता इस बात को समझने की है की ऐसी चर्चाएं या विचार विमर्श कभी भी व्यर्थ या समय की बर्बादी नहीं होते, अपितु विद्यार्थियों को विषय और भाषा ज्ञान के साथ साथ प्रस्तुतीकरण का अवसर भी प्रदान करते हैं । परिचर्चा के दौरान कुछ बातों का ध्यान रखा जाए तो इसे ज्यादा उपयोगी बनाया जा सकता है । सबसे पहली बात यह की परिचर्चा का विषय किसी न किसी प्रकार से विद्यार्थियों से संबद्ध होना चाहिए और उनके लिए उपयोगी भी । दूसरी बात की विद्यार्थियों को चर्चा के विषय से भटकने न देने के लिए शिक्षक को पूर्णतः सचेत रहना चाहिए । यदि विद्यार्थी अपने विचार प्रस्तुत करते हुए विषय से भटक रहें हों तो शिक्षक को हस्तक्षेप करना चाहिए और चर्चा को पुनः विषय पर केंद्रित करना चाहिए । तीसरी बात कि सभी विद्यार्थियों की अपनी विचार रखने की स्वतन्त्रता और पर्याप्त अवसर मिलना चाहिए। जो पक्ष में जो कुछ कहना चाहें वह पक्ष में अपनी बात रखे, किन्तु विपक्षियों को भी हतोत्साहित नहीं किया जाना चाहिए । अंतिम बात प्रश्नोत्तर, विचार विनिमय और स्पष्टीकरण जैसी परिचर्चा के सभी गतिविधियों के दौरान प्रतिभागियों की भाषा सधी हुयी, आवेश एवं प्रतिशोध से मुक्त और संयत होनी चाहिए, ताकि चर्चा किसी परिणाम तक पहुंचे और सभी पक्षों के प्रतिभागियों को सत्य का परिचय मिल सके ।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

1. परिचर्चा से आप क्या समझते हैं ?
2. परिचर्चा के लिए आवश्यक तत्वों का उल्लेख करें।
3. परिचर्चा के दौरान किन बातों का ध्यान रखना चाहिए।

2.4 कक्षा – कक्ष में प्रश्नों की प्रकृति (The nature of questions in classroom)

प्रश्न पूछने का कौशल कक्षा – कक्ष की परिस्थितियों हेतु एक बहुत ही महत्वपूर्ण कौशल है। इस कौशल के द्वारा अध्यापक कक्षा में रुचि बनाए रखने के साथ- साथ विद्यार्थियों के ज्ञान एवं निष्पत्ति का वस्तुनिष्ठ मूल्यांकन भी करता है। हमारे शिक्षा व्यवस्था में विद्यार्थियों की निष्पत्ति को जानने और समझने के लिए अध्यापक यदि केवल औपचारिक माध्यम (सत्रांत परीक्षा) पर निर्भर रहेगा तो वह उसके व्यक्तित्व के अन्य पहलुओं का निरपेक्ष मूल्यांकन कर पाने में शायद ही सक्षम हो पाए। इसलिए अध्यापकों को कक्षा-कक्ष परिस्थितियों में भे भिन्न भिन्न तरह के प्रश्न पूछ कर उनके आत्मविश्वास में वृद्धि के साथ- साथ आत्म प्रकाशन के सहज अवसर भी प्रदान करने चाहिए। हम यह बात ठीक तरीके से जानते हैं कि आधुनिक समय में व्यक्ति अपने मनोभावों का प्रकटीकरण भाषाके माध्यम से दो रूपों में कर सकता है।

१. मौखिक भाषा
२. लिखित भाषा

मानव प्रधानतः अपनी अनुभूतियों तथा मनोभावों की अभिव्यक्ति सहजता से मौखिक भाषा में ही करना पसंद करता है। लिखित भाषा, गौण तथा उसकी प्रतिनिधि मात्र है, क्योंकि भावों की अभिव्यक्ति का साधन साधारणतः सर्वप्रथम उच्चारित भाषा ही होती है। इसलिए भी विद्यार्थियों से प्रश्न पूछते रहना चाहिये जिससे कि उनके मनोभावों का प्रकाशन होते रहे। विद्यालयों में हिन्दी, संस्कृत, अंग्रेज़ी, आदि विभिन्न भाषाएँ पढ़ाई जाती हैं। इसके अतिरिक्त भी विभिन्न विषय यथा भूगोल, इतिहास, विज्ञान पढाये जाते हैं। इन सभी विषयों को पढ़ाने के लिए अध्यापक पुस्तक पढवा कर अपने कर्तव्यों की इतिश्री समझ लेते हैं। छात्र यदि कुछ भी बातचीत करता है तो सामान्यतया उसे डांट दिया जाता है। मनोवैज्ञानिकों और भाषाशास्त्रियों ने अपने प्रयोगों के आधार पर यह मत व्यक्त किया है कि बोलचाल के द्वारा ही विद्यार्थी जल्दी सीखता है। प्रश्नोत्तर विधि की सबसे बड़ी विशेषता यही है कि इसके द्वारा विद्यार्थियों को बोलने का अवसर मिलता है।

कक्षा- कक्ष में प्रश्न पूछने का उद्देश्य (Objective of questioning in classroom): ऐसे तो जीवन के हर एक क्षेत्र में किसी भी कार्य को करने के बाद इस बात की जांच की जाती है कि उस कार्य में कर्त्ता को कितनी सफलता मिली है, परन्तु शिक्षा के क्षेत्र में यह और भी ज़रूरी हो जाता है कि शिक्षण

प्रक्रिया को जिस उद्देश्य की प्राप्ति के लिए पूरा किया गया है उन उद्देश्यों की पूर्ति में कितनी सफलता मिली है एवं उन उद्देश्यों की प्राप्ति किस स्तर तक हुयी है। किसी भी विषय में निर्धारित ज्ञान, कौशल तथा योग्यताओं को तुरंत पता लगाने के लिए कक्षा में प्रश्न पूचना आवश्यक होता है। भाषा- शिक्षण में कक्षा में प्रश्न पूछने की आवश्यकता निम्न रूप में स्पष्ट कर सकते हैं

१. छात्रों की कमजोरियों को दूर करने एवं उनकी प्रगति में सहायता के लिये (**To eliminate the weakness of student and for their development**): कक्षा में अध्यापक जब प्रश्न पूछता है तो विद्यार्थी एवं अध्यापक दोनों को किस बिंदु पर और अधिक परिश्रम करने की आवश्यकता है का नुमान चल जाता है एवं अध्यापक के मार्गदर्शन में विद्यार्थी विशिष्ट अभ्यास कर अपनी कमजोरियों को दूर कर भाषा सम्बंधित विशेष योग्यताओं को विकसित करने के लिए प्रयासशील होते है।
२. छात्रों को अध्ययन के लिए प्रेरित करना (**To motivate the students for study**) : प्रश्न पूछने से विद्यार्थियों को पढ़ाई करने की भी प्रेरणा मिलती है। जो विद्यार्थी नियमित रूप से अध्ययन कार्य नहीं करते अध्यापक को उन्हें विशेष रूप से प्रश्न पूचना चाहिए जिससे उनके अंदर अध्ययन की आकांक्षा बनी रहे।
३. शिक्षण विधियों के उचित चुनाव एवं प्रयोग में सहायक : शिक्षण प्रक्रिया एक त्रिध्रुवीय प्रक्रिया है। शिक्षण उद्देश्य के निर्धारण के पश्चात उनकी प्राप्ति के लिए अध्यापक शिक्षण कार्य को क्रियान्वित कर्ता है। शिक्षण क्रिया को कुशलता पूर्वक संपन्न करने के लिए अध्यापक विभिन्न प्रकार के शिक्षण विधियों का प्रयोग करता है। कक्षा में विभिन्न तरह के प्रश्न पूछने से विद्यार्थियों के निष्पत्ति का अनुमान शिक्षक हो जाता है।
४. शैक्षिक एवं व्यावसायिक मार्गदर्शन में सहायक : कक्षा में प्रश्न पूछने के दौरान शिक्षक को विद्यार्थी के अभिरूचि के क्षेत्र का पता चल जाता है। जिससे कि वह आसानी से शैक्षिक एवं व्यावसायिक मार्गदर्शन प्रदान कर सकता है।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

4. कक्षा- कक्ष में प्रश्न पूछने के उद्देश्यों पर प्रकाश डालें ?
5. कक्षा- कक्ष में प्रश्नों की प्रकृति किस प्रकार की होनी चाहिए ? प्रकाश डालें ।
6. कक्षा कक्ष में प्रश्न पूछना किस प्रकार से छात्रों की कमजोरियों को दूर करने एवं उनकी प्रगति में सहायक सिद्ध हो सकता है ?

2.5 प्रश्नों के प्रकार एवं शिक्षक का नियंत्रण (Types of Questions and Teachers control)

शिक्षा का उद्देश्य विद्यार्थियों के व्यवहार में सकारात्मक परिवर्तन लाना है ताकि वे अपनी अन्तर्निहित शक्तियों का अधिकाधिक विकास कर सकें। शिक्षण इस उद्देश्य की साधना की प्रक्रिया है। शिक्षण प्रक्रिया अपने लक्ष्य एवं उद्देश्य में कितनी सफलता प्राप्त किया है इसका सटीक ज्ञान होना अति आवश्यक है। विद्यार्थियों को ठीक प्रकार का ज्ञान हुआ है या नहीं इसका पता लगाने के लिए सबसे सरल एवं सीधा माध्यम कक्षा में पूछा जाने वाला प्रश्न है। इन प्रश्नों की सहायता से शिक्षक कक्षा में अपना नियंत्रण भी स्थापित करता है। प्रश्नों की सहायता से शिक्षक कक्षा में अनुशासन के साथ ज्ञान वर्धन का कार्य भी करता है।

कक्षा में मूलतः निम्न तीन के प्रश्न पूछे जाने चाहिए।

- विचारात्मक प्रश्न :** विचारात्मक प्रश्न मूलतः निबंधात्मक प्रश्न होते हैं। इन प्रश्नों का कोई एक उत्तर नहीं होता है। अपने विचार प्रस्तुत करने की इस प्रकार के प्रश्नों में पूर्ण स्वतंत्रता होती है।
- विस्तृत उत्तर वाले निबंधात्मक प्रश्न :** ऐसे प्रश्नों में स्वतंत्र अभिव्यक्ति कि लिए स्वतंत्रा होने के साथ साथ प्रश्नों के उद्देश्य भी स्पष्ट होते हैं और उत्तर की सीमा भी बहुत हद तक निर्धारित रहती है।
- भाषा परीक्षा एवं वस्तुनिष्ठ प्रश्न:** केवल निबंधात्मक एवं लघु उत्तरात्मक प्रश्नों से ही भाषा एवं साहित्य की परीक्षा नहीं की जा सकती है। वस्तु निष्ठ प्रश्नों के ऊतर में स्वतंत्र भाव या विचार प्रकाशन की छूट नहीं रहती है।

प्रश्नोत्तर विधि के लाभ (Advantages of question answer method): प्रश्नोत्तर विधि का सबसे महत्वपूर्ण लाभ यह है कि इससे विद्यार्थियों में आत्मविश्वास की वृद्धि के साथ-साथ उनके मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति का कौशल भी बेहतर होता है। इसलिए विद्यार्थियों से उनकी रुचि, अनुभव तथा योग्यता के आधार पर ही प्रश्न पूछे जाने चाहिए। प्रश्न वार्तालाप के रूप में भी पूछे जा सकते हैं। प्रश्न की भाषा सरल स्पष्ट तथा विचारोदबोधक होनी चाहिए। प्रश्नोत्तर विधि के निम्न लाभ हैं

- विद्यार्थी में अपने अनुभव, भाव तथा विचारों को को शुद्ध, स्वाभाविक, स्पष्ट तथा प्रभावपूर्ण शब्दों में बोलकर व्यक्त करने की योग्यता उत्पन्न करता है।
- संकोच एवं झिझक को दूर कर दुसरे के सम्मुख युक्तिपूर्ण ढंग से अपना मत व्यक्त कर सकने की कुशलता पैदा करता है।
- उत्तर देते समय अपनी बात तार्किकता एवं मधुरता से के साथ रखने के हुनर का विकास होता है।
- इससे बोलचाल के सामान्य दोष का निवारण भी होता है।

कक्षा में शिक्षक की भूमिका (The role of teacher in classroom): बच्चों को समुचित शिक्षा तथा सफल अध्यापन में शिक्षक की भूमिका काफी महत्वपूर्ण होती है। अतः यहाँ हम शिक्षक की भूमिका निम्न स्तंभों में देखने का प्रयास करेंगे।

- i. कक्षा के अंतर्गत शिक्षक की भूमिका सर्वप्रथम एक मनोवैज्ञानिक (Psychologist) के रूप में होती है। शिक्षक के लिए यह आवश्यक है कि वह कक्षा में उपस्थित बच्चों की आवश्यकताओं (Necessities), प्रेरणाओं (Motivations) एवं मनोवृत्तियों (Attitude) की जानकारी रखे। शिक्षक बच्चों को समझने में जिस सीमा तक सफल होते हैं उसी सीमा तक कक्षा में उनका नियंत्रण एवं अध्यापन प्रभावी होता है तथा बच्चे शिक्षण से लाभान्वित भी हो पाते हैं।
- ii. शिक्षक की भूमिका एक सलाहकार (Counsellor) की भांति भी है। ऐसे बच्चे भी होते हैं जो अपने आप को उपेक्षित तथा तिरस्कृत महसूस करते हैं। इन्हें हम पृथक बालक (Isolated Children) कहते हैं। अतः एक सफल शिक्षक ऐसे बच्चे की सहायता करता है तथा उसके समायोजन समस्या (Adjustment Problem) के समाधान का प्रयास करता है। इसी तरह पढ़ाई छोड़ना (Drop Out), गैहाजिर होना (Absenteeism) आदि के कारणों को जानने तथा इनके निराकरण के लिए सफल शिक्षक प्रयास करता है।
- iii. कक्षा के अंतर्गत शिक्षक सबसे महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका नेता की होती है। शिक्षक अपने वर्ग का नेता होता है। नेतृत्व के कई प्रकार होते हैं जिनमें सत्ताधारी नेतृत्व, प्रजातांत्रिक नेतृत्व एवं न अड़चन डालने वाला नेतृत्व मुख्य है। शिक्षक किस प्रकार के नेतृत्व की भूमिका अदा करता है, इस बात पर उसके अध्यापन की प्रभावशीलता निर्भर करती है। इस सम्बन्ध पर अनेक प्रयोगात्मक अध्ययन किये गए हैं और यह देखने का प्रयास किया गया है कि किस प्रकार का नेतृत्व बच्चों को सही शिक्षा के लिए उपयोगी है।
सत्ताधारी नेतृत्व का अर्थ ऐसे नेतृत्व से है, जिसमें शिक्षक सब कुछ होता है। शिक्षक ही विद्यार्थियों को आदेश देता है और विद्यार्थी उसके आदेशों का पालन करते हैं। इस तरह के नेतृत्व में शिक्षक सक्रिय होता है और शिक्षार्थी निष्क्रिय, दूसरी ओर प्रजातांत्रिक नेतृत्व के अंतर्गत अधिकारों का विकेन्द्रीकरण (Decentralisation) पाया जाता है। शिक्षक तथा शिक्षार्थियों के बीच मैत्रीपूर्ण सम्बन्ध, सहयोग एकता का भाव आदि विशेषताएं देखी जाती हैं। न अड़चन डालने वाला नेतृत्व का तात्पर्य ऐसे नेतृत्व से है जिसके अंतर्गत शिक्षक नेता के रूप में केवल नाम का रहता है वह बच्चों को पूरी स्वतंत्रता दे देता है और उनके व्यवहारों में किसी तरह की बाधा अपनी ओर से नहीं डालता है।
- iv. भिन्न – भिन्न प्रकार के नेतृत्व के परिणामों को देखने के लिए कई सारे प्रयोगात्मक अध्ययन (Experimental Studies) किये गए। खास कर प्राजातान्त्रिक नेतृत्व (Democratic Leadership) तथा सत्ताधार नेतृत्व (Authoritarian leadership) के प्रभावों को देखने के लिए लेविन, लिपिट तथा ह्वार्ट (Levin, Lipit and White, 1939) तथा लिपिट एवं ह्वार्ट (Lipit and White, 1943) ने बच्चों पर अध्ययन किया, उन्होंने देखा कि सत्ताधारी नेतृत्व के अंतर्गत

बच्चों के व्यवहार प्रजातांत्रिक नेतृत्व से भिन्न हुए। शिक्षा को ध्यान में रखते हुए प्रजा तांत्रिक नेतृत्व पर बल दिया गया है। शीन (Schein, 1979) के अनुसार बड़े संगठन के लिए प्रजातांत्रिक नेतृत्व तथा छोटे संगठन के लिए सत्ताधारी नेतृत्व अधिक सफल है। न अड़चन डालने वाला नेतृत्व (Laissez faire leadership) किसी भी संगठन के लिए उपयुक्त नहीं है। यह बात वर्ग या क्ष परिस्तिती में भी शिक्षक की भूमिका पर भी लागू हो सकती है।

- v. कक्षा में शिक्षक एक विशेषज्ञ (Expert) की भूमिका में होता है। अतः शिक्षक को अपने अध्यापन विषय की पर्याप्त जानकारी होनी चाहिए ताकि छात्रों को अध्यापन से अधिक से अधिक लाभ मिल सके। शिक्षक को शिक्षा के उद्देश्य से अवगत होना चाहिए कि शिक्षा वर्तमान समय में बाल केंद्रित (Child Centred) हो चली है। और इसका उद्देश्य है कि बालक का सर्वांगीण विकास (All-round Development) हो अर्थात् मानसिक विकास (Mental Development) , शारीरिक विकास (Physical Development) , हस्तकौशल विकास (Hand skill development) तथा हृदय विकास का समुचित रूप से हो सके।
- vi. शिक्षक का एक आवश्यक गुण है स्नेह, सहानुभूति , प्यार, क्षमाशीलता (Forgiveness) तथा त्याग (Sacrifice)। ये सभी गुण वास्तव में एक माता के गुण कहलाते हैं। इसी अर्थ में कहा जाता है कि कक्षा में शिक्षक को अपने छात्रों के साथ ऐसा सद्भाव रखना चाहिए जैसा माताएं अपने बच्चों के प्रति रखती है। लेकिन माता की भूमिका में शिक्षक को संवेगों (Emotions) पर नियंत्रण भी रखना चाहिए।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

7. कक्षा में शिक्षक की भूमिका (The role of teacher in classroom) पर प्रकाश डालें।
8. कक्षा में विभिन्न प्रकार के नेतृत्व पर प्रकाश डालें ?
9. शिक्षक की भूमिका एक सलाहकार (Counsellor)की भांति होती है। इस कथन की व्याख्या करें
10. कक्षा में मूलतः कितने प्रकार के प्रश्न पूछे जाने चाहिए ? उदाहरण सहित समझाएं।

2.6 सारांश

किसी भी भाषा का ज्ञान , बोध एवं उपयोग केवल कक्षागत परिस्थितियों में पाठ्यवस्तु के घटकों और भाषा तत्वों के ज्ञान और अभ्यास से परिपूर्ण नहीं होता। भाषा सजीव और संवेदनशील परम्परा है। वह वक्त समाज और परिस्थितियों के साथ जीती है और उन्हें गति प्रदान करती है। इसलिए भाषा का पूर्ण व्यावहारिक ज्ञान केवल पाठ्यपुस्तकों के अध्ययन से , व्याकरण के अभ्यास से और परीक्षाएं प्राप्त कर के नहीं पाया जा सकता। भाषा सीखने के लिए विभिन्न प्रकार के उपागमों का प्रयोग करना चाहिए। इन

उपागमों में परिचर्चा एक अति महत्वपूर्ण उपागम है। विद्यार्थियों को ठीक प्रकार का ज्ञान हुआ है या नहीं इसका पता लगाने के लिए सबसे सरल एवं सीधा माध्यम कक्षा में पूछा जाने वाला प्रश्न है। इन प्रश्नों की सहायता से शिक्षक कक्षा में अपना नियंत्रण भी स्थापित करता है। प्रश्नों की सहायता से शिक्षक कक्षा में अनुशासन के साथ ज्ञान वर्धन का कार्य भी करता है।

2.7 शब्दावली

1. **परिचर्चा** : किसी विषय के सभी पहलुओं पर विचार- विमर्श करना
2. **सत्ताधारी नेतृत्व** : सत्ताधारी नेतृत्व का अर्थ ऐसे नेतृत्व से है, जिसमें शिक्षक सब कुछ होता है। शिक्षक ही विद्यार्थियों को आदेश देता है और विद्यार्थी उसके आदेशों का पालन करते हैं। इस तरह के नेतृत्व में शिक्षक सक्रिय होता है और शिक्षार्थी निष्क्रिय।
3. **प्रजातांत्रिक नेतृत्व** : प्रजातांत्रिक नेतृत्व के अंतर्गत अधिकारों का विकेन्द्रीकरण (Decentralization) पाया जाता है। शिक्षक तथा शिक्षार्थियों के बीच मैत्रीपूर्ण सम्बन्ध, सहयोग एकता का भाव आदि विशेषताएं देखी जाती हैं।
4. **अड़चन डालने वाला नेतृत्व (Laissez faire leadership)** : न अड़चन डालने वाला नेतृत्व का तात्पर्य ऐसे नेतृत्व से है जिसके अंतर्गत शिक्षक नेता के रूप में केवल नाम का रहता है वह बच्चों को पूरी स्वतंत्रता दे देता है और उनके व्यवहारों में किसी तरह की बाधा अपनी ओर से नहीं डालता है।

2.8 संदर्भ ग्रंथ सूची

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2.9 निबंधात्मक प्रश्न

1. सीखने के उपकरण के रूप में परिचर्चा से आप क्या समझते हैं ?
2. कक्षा- कक्ष में प्रश्नों का स्वरूप पर प्रकाश डालें ।
3. प्रश्नों के प्रकार एवं शिक्षक का नियंत्रण से आपका क्या अभिप्राय है ? स्पष्ट करें ।
4. कक्षा में शिक्षक की भूमिका (The role of teacher in classroom) पर प्रकाश डालें ।

इकाई 3- विषय क्षेत्र में पठन कार्य : सामाजिक विज्ञान, विज्ञान, गणित एवं विविध साहित्यों की भाषा में , अर्थ प्रकाशक एवं विवरणात्मक विषय वस्तु, संक्षिप्तीकरण विषय वस्तु, हस्तांतरण विषय वस्तु व चिंतनपरक विषयवस्तु की प्रकृति, स्कीमा सिद्धांत

Reading in the content areas: Social Science, Science, Science, Mathematics and Literature of relevant languages, nature of Expository texts vs. Narrative texts, Transactional texts vs. Reflexive texts, schema theory, Text structures; examining content area textbooks; reading strategies for children- note making, summarizing

- 3.1 प्रस्तावना
- 3.2 उद्देश्य
- 3.3 पठन कौशल की अवधारणा
- 3.4 पठन प्रक्रिया का अभिप्राय
- 3.5 विषय क्षेत्र में पठन कार्य : सामाजिक विज्ञान, विज्ञान, गणित एवं विविध साहित्यों की भाषा में
- 3.6 अर्थ प्रकाश विषय वस्तु बनाम विवरणात्मक विषय वस्तु
- 3.7 हस्तान्तरण विषय वस्तु बनाम चिंतन परक विषय वस्तु (Reflective Text)
- 3.8 सारांश
- 3.9 अभ्यास प्रश्न
- 3.10 संदर्भ ग्रन्थ सूची
- 3.11 निबंधात्मक प्रश्न

3.1 प्रस्तावना

भाषा के मूल चार कौशलों (सुनना, बोलना, पढ़ना, लिखना) में से पढ़ना (पठन) एक महत्वपूर्ण क्रिया है। इस कौशल में बालक लिखित या मुद्रित पाठ्यांश वर्णों, शब्दों, वाक्यों या अनुच्छेदों को जोर-जोर से बोलकर या मन में पढ़कर उनका भाव ग्रहण करता है। यदि दिए गये अनुच्छेद को पढ़ने के बाद उसमें से प्रश्न पूछे जाएं और बालक अनुकूल उत्तर नहीं दे पाता है तो यह इस बात को स्पष्ट करता है कि बालक ने अनुच्छेद का वाचन ही किया है, पठन नहीं। पठन-सामग्री के अन्तः भाव को समझकर दूसरों को समझा सकने में सफल होना ही पठन का मुख्य उद्देश्य है। अर्थात् किसी लिखित या मुद्रित पाठ्य वस्तु, भाषा या चित्र को देखकर उसके भाव या आशय को समझना या उसका अर्थ ग्रहण करना ही पठन (Reading) कहलाता है।

3.2 उद्देश्य

1. विद्यार्थी पढ़ने के अर्थ को समझ सकेंगे।
2. विभिन्न विषयों के सन्दर्भ में पढ़ने के महत्व को जान सकेंगे।
3. विभिन्न विषयक्षेत्र में पढ़ने की अवधारणा को समझ सकेंगे।
4. पठन प्रक्रिया को समझ सकेंगे।

3.3 पठन कौशल की अवधारणा (संप्रत्यय) (Concept of Reading)

पठन कौशल को समझने हेतु इसके मुख्य अवयवों को समझना अतिआवश्यक है। यह अवयव हैं- शब्दों को पहचानना तथा समझ कर पढ़ना। समझकर पढ़ना तभी संभव हो पायेगा जब हम शब्दों के अर्थ समझते हों। यह एक स्थापित तथ्य है कि पढ़ना सीखने पर लिखना और सरल हो जाता है। अतः पढ़ने के समुचित कौशल ही विद्यार्थियों की प्रगति के निर्धारक हैं। हम अक्सर यह देखते हैं कि कक्षा पाचवीं तक के बच्चे भी ठीक से पढ़ नहीं पाते हैं। यह बात केवल हमारे देश पर लागू नहीं होती वरन्, अमेरिका एवं कई अन्य विकसित देश भी बच्चों की पढ़ने की अक्षमता को लेकर चिंतित है। यदि हम अमेरिका के बारे में जानें तो यह बात सामने उभर कर आती है कि वहां पठन कौशल में सुधार हेतु “नो चाइल्ड लैफ्ट बिहाइंड (No child left behind)” 2002 के समर्थन में रीडिंग पहले कार्यक्रम लाया गया था, जिसमें वहाँ पर राज्यों को प्राथमिक कक्षाओं के पठन कौशल विकास पर वैज्ञानिक तरीकों को अपनाने हेतु सहायता दी जाती है।

3.4 पठन प्रक्रिया का अभिप्राय (The process of reading process)

जो लोग पढ़ नहीं सकते उनके लिए पढ़ना एक रहस्य या आश्चर्यजनक होता है। कई साल पहले विशेषज्ञों को भी यह मालूम नहीं था कि जब बच्चा पढ़ना सीखता है, तो दरअसल करता क्या है? अपने अनुभव और परम्परा के आधार पर शिक्षकों ने कुछ विधियों की खोज की जैसे वर्णमाला विधि, उच्चारण विधि, शब्द विधि इत्यादि। पढ़ने की प्रक्रिया में महत्वपूर्ण है अंकित सूचना को ग्रहण करना। हमारी आंखें जब अक्षरों, विराम चिन्हों, शब्दों और शब्दों के बीच छोड़ी गयी जगहों का मुआयना करती है, तो हमारा मस्तिष्क इस ग्राफिक (हाथ से लिखि गई या छपी हुई) सामग्री की सम्पूर्ण मात्रा पर ध्यान नहीं देता। यदि ऐसा होता तो छोटी-छोटी सूचनाओं पर गौर करने से मस्तिष्क की क्षमता पर अत्यधिक बोझ पड़ता और अधिकांश लोग जिस रफ्तार से पढ़ते हैं, वह असम्भव हो जाता है। पारम्परिक विधियों से पढ़ना सीखने वाले कई बच्चों के साथ यही होता है। वे हर शब्द को अक्षरों की छोटी इकाईयों में तोड़ता है और इस तरह शब्दों का अर्थ ग्रहण करने हेतु मस्तिष्क की क्षमता पर बहुत ज्यादा बोझ डाल देती है। एक प्रवीण पाठक की आंखें ऐसा बोझ पड़ने नहीं देती, क्योंकि वे पेपर पर अंकित ग्राफिक सूचनाओं के सीमित, चुने हुए अंश से जूझती है। प्रवीण पाठक शब्द के पूरे अक्षरों व वाक्यों के सारे शब्दों पर ध्यान नहीं देता। पढ़ते समय पाठक की आंखें सामग्री के एक छोटे से अंश पर गौर करती हैं, शेष वह अनुमान के जरिये ग्रहण करता है, जो समझ से पूर्ण होता है। इस अनुमान का आधार होता है -अक्षरों की आकृतियाँ, शब्द, उनके साथ संयोजन और सामान्य दुनिया से पाठक का पहले से मौजूद परिचय। पढ़ना एक एकाकी प्रक्रिया नहीं है, उसमें कई प्रक्रियाएं शामिल हैं। पढ़ते समय भाषा के उपयोग से जुड़े तीन तरह के संकेत हमारे ध्यान में आते हैं –

- i. अक्षरों की आकृतियाँ और उनसे जुड़ी ध्वनियाँ।
- ii. शब्दों के अर्थ।
- iii. वाक्य विन्यास।

पढ़ने की पूरी प्रक्रिया में अक्षर पहचान महत्वपूर्ण है। इसके पीछे मान्यता यह भी है कि लिखित भाषा अक्षरों का समूह है, जिसमें प्रत्येक अक्षर एक ध्वनि का प्रतिनिधित्व करता है। अक्षर को देख कर उससे जुड़ी ध्वनि का उच्चारण कर देना पढ़ना नहीं माना जाता है। वास्तव में पढ़ने का सर्वोत्तम तरीका पढ़ना है पढ़कर ही पढ़ना सिखा जा सकता है। जैसे – साईकिल व उसे चलाने के बारे में बारीक जानकारी होने का यह अर्थ नहीं कि व्यक्ति के द्वारा साईकिल चला ली जाएगी। साईकिल चलाने के लिए तो उस पर बैठकर व चला कर ही सिखा जा सकता है। ठीक जैसे तैरना सीखने के लिए पानी में उतरना ही पड़ता है। निष्कर्षतः पहले दिन से ही पढ़ाने की सार्थक सामग्री होना आवश्यक है। यह सार्थकता उस विद्यार्थी के संदर्भ में आंकी जानी चाहिए, जो उस सामग्री का पाठक है। इस संदर्भ में यह तथ्य महत्वपूर्ण है कि पढ़ने के लिए दी जाने वाली सामग्री किस भाषा में है। जिस भाषा में सामग्री उपलब्ध कराई जा रही है, उस भाषा से बालक परिचित है। भाषा का समग्र रूप तो बालक के इस्तेमाल में उभरता है, चाहे वह लिखने में हो, बोलने में हो या पढ़ने में। अतः बच्चे को भाषा के अधिकाधिक प्रयोग के मौके मिलने चाहिए।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

1. भाषा के मुख्य कौशल कौन-कौन से हैं ?
2. पढ़ने की प्रक्रिया से आपका क्या अभिप्राय है ? स्पष्ट करें।
3. छोटे बालकों के पठन अवबोध के समय शिक्षक को किस प्रकार की चुनौतियों का सामना करना पड़ता है ?

3.5 विषय क्षेत्र में पठन कार्य : सामाजिक विज्ञान, विज्ञान, गणित एवं विविध साहित्यों की भाषा में

कहने की जरूरत नहीं है कि पढ़ने के कौशल का सीधा संबंध बच्चों की संप्राप्ति से होता है। बच्चा जब पढ़ना नहीं जानता है तो उसमें लिखित सामग्री के प्रति अरुचि पैदा होती है। यह अरुचि पढ़ने के कौशल में और कमी करती है। परिणाम पढाई में पिछड़ना, हीनता से ग्रसित होना और अंत में विद्यालय छोड़ देना है। यह एक अघोषित तथ्य समझा जा सकता है कि यदि विद्यार्थी में पढ़ने के समुचित कौशल नहीं है तो वह कैसे कोई गद्यांश पढ़ और लिख सकता है ? कैसे वह विज्ञान में संघनन या वाष्पीकरण जैसी प्रक्रिया स्पष्ट कर सकता है ? कैसे वह भूगोल के पाठों को समझ सकता है ? और कैसे वह गणित के इबारती प्रश्न हल कर सकता है ? कैसे वह इतिहास की घटनाओं का अपने शब्दों में वर्णन कर पायेगा। कई बार बच्चे जोड़-घटाने, भाग की क्रियाएँ तो कर सकते हैं एक कारण समझकर पढ़ना न आना होता है यह तथ्य गणित के साथ ही नहीं वरन् सभी विषयों के साथ लागू होता है।

सामान्यतः मान लिया जाता है कि प्राथमिक स्तर कक्षा पाँच उत्तीर्ण करते ही बच्चों में पठन कौशल में वृद्धि की आवश्यकता नहीं है क्योंकि यह समुचित स्तर की होती है। यह मिथक है क्योंकि विद्यालयों में इस कौशल के मापन के समुचित उपकरण अपनाए ही नहीं जाते हैं, जिसके कारण बच्चों को सुधार के अवसर प्राप्त नहीं होते हैं। साथ ही यह भी चिंतनीय है कि हमारे देश में अध्यापक पठन कौशल के मूल्यांकन के लिए प्रशिक्षित नहीं होते हैं। यह तथ्य राष्ट्रीय पाठ्यचर्या की रूपरेखा-2005 में भी उल्लिखित है।

सामान्यतः विद्यालयों में अध्यापकों को बच्चे पुस्तक की कोई गद्यांश या पद्यांश पढ़कर सुनाते हैं, जिससे अध्यापक पठन कौशल का निर्णय कर देते हैं। यह बहुत ही सतही प्रक्रिया है व भ्रामक एवं अनुपयोगी है। पठन कौशल के सुधार कार्यक्रम हेतु विद्यालयों में स्थान ही नहीं दिया जाता है। इसे अभिलेखित करना भी आवश्यक है क्योंकि बच्चों के लिखित परीक्षाओं में दिए गए उत्तर इस बात के पर्याप्त संकेतक होते हैं कि उन्हें सीखा हुआ लिखने में परेशानियाँ हैं जो कि पढ़ने के समुचित कौशल होने के कारण उत्पन्न हुई होती हैं।

यह मान्यता कि कथा-उपन्यास पढ़ना समय नष्ट करना है पठन को हतोत्साहित करने का बड़ा कारण है। पढ़ने के कौशल लिए रोचक व विविधापूर्ण वाहुल्यता में उपलब्ध सामग्री की आवश्यकता है। पढ़ने के कौशल के विकास को तीन चरणों में देखा जा सकता है।

प्रथम चरण में उसकी बातचीत की भाषा के कौशल सुनने व बोलने के कौशलों को संवर्धित करना आवश्यक है। कक्षाओं में बातचीत, कहानी कहना, सुनना-सुनाना, सुनकर निष्कर्ष प्रस्तुत करना, चित्रों से कहानी कहना, कविता सुनना, लयात्मक कविता बनाना जैसे कार्यक्रम होने चाहिए। इन प्रक्रियाओं से बच्चों की शब्दावली विस्तारित होती है। शब्दों पर चर्चा करना जैसे- आम पर, शहर पर, नदी पर, इत्यादि-इत्यादि ध्वनियों का समझकर पढ़ने की क्षमता से गहरा संबंध है।

द्वितीय चरण में शब्द पहचान व अक्षर ज्ञान के बाद, वाक्य वाचन हो सकता है। इसमें लय व ध्वनि का खास ध्यान रखा जाना चाहिए। इस चरण में भी प्रथम चरण की गतिविधियाँ जारी रखी जानी चाहिए। वाक्य एवं दृष्टांत ऐसे होने चाहिए, जो दैनिक जीवन से हों। ऐसे होने चाहिए, जो दैनिक जीवन से हों। ऐसे वाक्य अपनेपन व जुड़ाव का अहसास देते हैं। मानक भाषा और मानक शब्दों पर शुरूआती चरण में अत्यधिक जोर देना पठन दक्षता के विकास में बाधक हैं, तथापि बच्चे के शब्द भंडार के विकास पर ध्यान केंद्रित किया जाना चाहिए। लेकिन यह शब्द भंडार लिखाकर, रटाकर नहीं वरन् दैनिकचर्या का हिस्सा होना चाहिए। पढ़ते समय कोई भी पाठक यदि प्रचलित शब्दावली पाता है तो पढ़ने और समझने की गति बढ़ जाती है जो उसे लिखित सामग्री से जोड़कर रखती है।

पुस्तकों का चयन एक विशिष्ट क्षेत्र है जिस पर ध्यान दिए जाने की आवश्यकता है। साथ ही पठन दक्षता संवर्धन हेतु भाषा के पाठ्यक्रम की पुस्तकों से इतर कहानी, चित्रकथा, चित्रकहानी की पुस्तकें ली जाएं। कहानियाँ लंबी नहीं होनी चाहिए। इन कहानियों के पात्रों पर चर्चा की जाएं बच्चों को अपनी कहानी या किस्सा लिखने और कहने हेतु अवसर दिए जाएं।

विभिन्न विषयों की पुस्तकें चुनते समय उनमें भाषा की सरलता, सहजता पर खास ध्यान दिया जाए। यदि पुस्तक में सामग्री की भाषा कठिन है तो उसे अध्यापक वैकल्पिक रूप से सरल भाषा में लिखवाएँ या ऐसे पाठों को चाहे विषय कोई भी हो को छोड़ने या किसी अन्य पुस्तक से लिया जाए, अभ्यास हेतु पुस्तक के स्थान पर एक पृष्ठ की कहानी या कोई घटना दी जा सकती है। यह छूट अध्ययपकों को दी जानी आवश्यक है।

केवल भाषा ही नहीं, अन्य विषयों के माध्यम से भी पठन कौशल के विकास पर ध्यान दिया जाना चाहिए। विश्लेषण करने, गद्यांशों का सारांश लिखने, उन पर चर्चा करने जैसी गतिविधियाँ की जानी चाहिए। इतिहास में केवल वह तिथियाँ दी जाएं, जो अति महत्वपूर्ण हों वरना इतिहास में घटनाएँ कम व तिथियाँ अधिक होने से प्रारंभिक कक्षा के बच्चों में पढ़ने में अरूचि पैदा हो सकती है। लियो नार्डो डा विन्सी ने कहा था- बिना इच्छा के अध्ययन करना याददाश्त खराब करता है और कुछ भी ग्रहण नहीं होता है। यह कथन मार्गदर्शक है।

इस प्रकार सभी विषय की पुस्तकों की भाषा एवं सामग्री का प्रस्तुतीकरण अत्यंत महत्व रखता है क्योंकि यह एक भ्रांति है कि पठन कौशल का विकास केवल भाषा की पुस्तकों से या भाषा के अध्यापकों के द्वारा ही किया जाता है।

तृतीय चरण में कक्षा पाँचवी से आठवीं में पठन कौशल के विकास हेतु वैज्ञानिक आलेख लंबी कहानी, छोटे रोचक बाल उपन्यास रखे जा सकते हैं। छात्र सेमिनार, तीव्र गति पठन, सामग्री पर चर्चा

इत्यादि कार्यक्रम कराए जा सकते हैं। टेलीविजन से समाचार संकलन, द्विभाषी फिल्म जिसमें वह फिल्म बच्चे को ज्ञात भाषा से अलग भाषा के उपशीर्षक प्रस्तुत करती फिल्म इत्यादि कार्यक्रम किये जा सकते हैं। पठन कौशल के कार्यक्रमों व परीक्षण का उद्देश्य उतीर्ण या अनुतीर्ण करना नहीं वरन् बच्चों की पठन दक्षता के स्तर की पहचान व संवर्द्धन होना चाहिए। विद्यार्थी को पढ़ने की सामग्री चुनने की छूट दी जानी चाहिए। इस प्रकार प्रत्येक विद्यालय में पठन कौशल विकास का कार्यक्रम रखा जाना चाहिए।

यदि बच्चों में उनके स्तर के अनुकूल पठन कौशल विकसित हो जाते हैं, तो उनकी विभिन्न विषयों को समझने, तथ्यों को विश्लेषण करने, सार ग्रहण करने, सारांश लिखने, संश्लेषण व विश्लेषण करने की क्षमताएँ भी उचित स्तर की होती हैं जो उनकी उपलब्धि को बढ़ाती हैं। विभिन्न देशों में किए गए शोध अध्ययन इस तथ्य की पुष्टि करते हैं। पाठ्यक्रम समाप्ति के स्थान पर लक्ष्य दक्षता प्राप्ति होना आवश्यक है और पठन कौशल भी सम्प्राप्ति के मूल्यांकन का भाग होना चाहिए, यह अभिलेखन भी होने चाहिए।

अतः विद्यालयी प्रक्रियाओं में पढ़ने के कौशल को समुचित स्थान दिए जाने की आवश्यकता है। इसके लिए समुचित कार्यक्रम बनाये जाने की आवश्यकता है। जिसकी शुरुआत होती है पढ़ने की सामग्री रोचक बनाने एवं पाठ्यक्रम में पठन कौशल को समुचित स्थान दिए जाने से। विद्यार्थी को उनकी पढ़ने के कौशल में उत्तरोत्तर वृद्धि के लिए उनको प्रोत्साहित किए जाने की आवश्यकता होती है। पढ़ने के कौशल को एक विस्तारित प्रारूप में देखने की आवश्यकता है। यह केवल प्राथमिक स्तर (कक्षा पहली से पाँचवी) का ही विषय नहीं है, वरन् इसे प्रारंभिक शिक्षा (कक्षा पहली से आठवीं) में समग्रता के साथ पूरे चक्र में देखे जाने की आवश्यकता है और लगातार ध्यान दिए जाने की आवश्यकता है।

विद्यालयों में पढ़ने के कौशल विकास को एक आंदोलन के रूप में लिए जाने की आवश्यकता है। साथ ही इसे सेवापूर्व व सेवारत प्रशिक्षण का अंग बनाया जाना चाहिए। इस हेतु प्रशिक्षण सामग्री को समग्रता से विकसित करने की भी आवश्यकता है।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

1. विद्यालयी प्रक्रियाओं में पढ़ने के कौशल को समुचित स्थान किस प्रकार से दिया जा सकता है?
2. पठन कौशल की अभिवृद्धि के लिए कौन से तीन चरण होते हैं ? व्याख्या करें।

3.6 अर्थ प्रकाशक विषयवस्तु (Expository Text) Vs विवरणात्मक विषयवस्तु (Narrative Text)

शिक्षण का उद्देश्य बालको को विषय के प्रति ज्ञान प्राप्त हो जाना नहीं है बल्कि इसका मुख्य उद्देश्य बालको में पढ़ने के प्रति रूचि जाग्रत करना है। इस हेतु बालकों को पाठ्य पुस्तक के अलावा अन्य

पुस्तकें या मैगजीन आदि के अध्ययन करने के लिए प्रेरित करे जिससे उनमें पठन करने रूचि बढ़े। पठन अवबोध के निम्न प्रकार है –

1. **अर्थ प्रकाशक विषयवस्तु (Expository Text):** अर्थप्रकाशक विषयवस्तु का अर्थ है विषयवस्तु से सम्बंधित तथ्यों को सरल व स्पष्ट रूप में प्रस्तुत या उजागर करना है अर्थात् विषयवस्तु की वास्तविकता एवं सत्यता से अवगत करता है। इस प्रकार की विषय वस्तु लेखन का उद्देश्य पाठक को सूचना प्रदान करना होता है। इस टेक्सट के द्वारा प्रदान सूचनाएँ व तथ्य उद्देश्यपूर्ण व विश्वनीय श्रोतों से प्राप्त होते हैं। यह सत्य व सहज रूप से शिक्षण केन्द्रित विषय वस्तु को पाठक तक पहुँचाने का कार्य करता है। इन टेक्सट का लेखन स्पष्ट, आत्मकेंद्रित व संगठित होता है। इसके माध्यम से केंद्र बिंदु पर जल्दी व प्रभावी ढंग से पहुंचा जा सकता है। क्योंकि ये टेक्सट सूचना आधारित होती है तथा इन सूचनाओं को निम्न के द्वारा प्राप्त किया जा सकता है। उदाहरणतः : पाठ्यपुस्तक, समाचार अभिलेख, अनुदेशन, मानक पात्र, भाषायी पुस्तकें, स्व-सहायक पुस्तकें, देश आदि।

अर्थप्रकाशक विषयवस्तु को क्यों सीखे ?

सोच या विचार को विकसित करने में अर्थप्रकाशक विषयवस्तु हमारी मदद करता है। अर्थप्रकाशक विषयवस्तु लेखकों के द्वारा संरचनात्मक तत्वों का उपयोग कर विषय वस्तु को अपने विचारों के साथ जोड़ते हुए व्यवस्थित करते हैं। जो बालक विषय वस्तु की संरचनात्मक तत्वों के विचारों को समझ लेता है वो आसानी से इस प्रकार की विषय वस्तु का विश्लेषण करना सीख जाता है। विषय वस्तु की विशेषताएँ पढ़ाने वाले को सूचनाओं को संगठित करने व पहचान बताने का कार्य करती है। जैसे कोई हैडिंग (मुख्य बिंदु या प्रकरण) से बालकों को उनकी सहायता से अवगत करना। किसी विषय वस्तु की हैडिंग से परिचित होने पर विद्यार्थी उससे सम्बंधित कुछ विशिष्ट सूचनाएँ मिल जाती हैं जिनके आधार पर पूर्व में प्राप्त ज्ञान से बालक उससे जोड़ लेता है और विषयवस्तु को लम्बे समय तक अपनी स्मृति में संग्रहित कर लेता है। अर्थात् बिना हैडिंग के किसी भी प्रकार सूचना का विस्तार करना अँधेरे में तीर चले के समान है।

2. **विवरणात्मक विषयवस्तु (Narrative Text) -** जब हम काल्पनिक उपन्यास, नाटक, कहानी या घटना की बात करते हैं, तो वास्तव में हम विवरणात्मक विषय वस्तु के सम्बन्ध में बात कर रहे होते हैं। विवरणात्मक विषय वस्तु का मुख्य उद्देश्य मनोरंजन करना तथा पाठक का ध्यान आकर्षित करना है। इनका लेखन सूचना देने, शिक्षा देकर अभिवृत्ति को बदलने या सामाजिक विचारों या मतों के प्रति अभिवृत्ति प्रस्तुत करने से है। इसके अंतर्गत चारित्रिक विशेषताएँ समय व जगह के अनुसार बदलते रहते हैं तथा कहानियों में एक या एक से अधिक घटना/ समस्याएँ इस तरह क्रमबद्ध होती हैं कि उनका समाधान एक के बाद एक कड़ी से सुलझता चला जाता है।

विवरणात्मक विषय वस्तु के प्रकार

विवरणात्मक विषय वस्तु कई प्रकार की होती है जिनमे काल्पनिक व तथ्यात्मक दोनों का सहयोग होता है। निम्न लेख संक्षिप्तीकरण के अंतर्गत है- परियों की कहनी, रोमांचक कहानियाँ, डरावनी कहानियाँ, झूठ आधारित काल्पनिक कहानियाँ, ऐतिहासिक संक्षिप्तीकरण, लोक कथाएँ, अनुभव आधारित घटनाएँ, व्यक्तिगत अनुभव आधारित कथाएँ, जासूसी या रहस्यमयी पहेलियाँ।

विवरणात्मक विषयवस्तु की विशेषताएँ

- बोले जाने वाले संवादों का काल परिवर्तनशील होता है। जैसे – वर्तमान काल से भविष्य काल तक।
- पात्रों की विशेषताओं को उनके व्यक्तित्व एवं अभिनय के रूप में परिभाषित किया जाता है। जैसे राम या रावण का अभिनय करने वाला पात्र का प्रस्तुतीकरण इनके गुणों के अनुसार ही होगा।
- वर्णात्मक भाषा का प्रयोग किया जाता है जिससे पाठक के दिमाग में सर्जनात्मक / काल्पनिक चित्र की छवि बने और वह कहनी या संक्षिप्तीकरण के बे में पूर्वानुमान लगा सके जिससे उसका कहनी पढ़ने या देखने में रूचि बनी रहे।

विवरणात्मक विषयवस्तु की संरचना

परम्परागत विवरणात्मक की विषय वस्तु की संरचना के लिए निम्न क्रियाओं को केंद्र में रखना होता है-

- अभिनवन (orientation)
- समस्या या जटिलता (problem or complication)
- समाधान (resolution)

विवरणात्मक लेखन निम्न पदों में पूर्ण होता है –

- Plot- कहानी में क्या होने वाला है?
- Setting – कहानी कब, कहाँ और कैसे शुरू होगी।
- चारित्रिकरण (Characterisation) – कौन मुख्य पात्र होगा और वह कैसा लगेगा।
- संरचना (Structure)-कहानी की संरचना कैसी होगी, कहानी कहाँ से शुरू होगी, समस्या क्या होगी व समाधान क्या होगा।
- थीम (Theme)- कहानी की मुख्य थीम या केंद्र क्या होगा, इस कहानी के माध्यम से लेखक क्या सन्देश या सीख देना चाहता है।

अतः विवरणात्मक विषय वस्तु वह काल्पनिक उपन्यास या कहानियाँ होती है जो भावनाओं व संवेगों से परिपूर्ण होती है जो मनोरंजन कराने के उद्देश्य से लिखे जाते हैं। वही दूसरी तरफ एक्सपोजिटीव टेक्सट वह

है जो तथ्यों को शैक्षणिक व उद्देशपूर्ण तरीके से प्रस्तुत करते हैं। यह टेक्सट सूचना प्रदान करने का कार्य करते हैं।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

1. अर्थप्रकाशक विषयवस्तु से आप क्या समझते हैं ?
2. विवरणात्मक विषयवस्तु से आप क्या समझते हैं ?

3.7 हस्तांतरण विषय वस्तु (Transactional Text) Vs चिंतनपरक विषय वस्तु (Reflexive Text)

1. **हस्तांतरण विषय वस्तु (Transactional Text)**—हस्तांतरण विषय वस्तु वह है जिसमें प्रश्न पूछना और उन प्रश्नों का जवाब देना समाहित हो अर्थात् किसी क्रिया के प्रति प्रतिक्रिया उत्पन्न करना या आचार विचार व भावों का सम्प्रेषण के माध्यम से विनिमय करना ही 'हस्तांतरण विषयवस्तु' कहलाता है। जैसे एक मित्र के आये हुए पत्र के जवाब में दूसरा मित्र उसे प्रशंसनीय पत्र लिखता है। शब्दों के आधार पर हस्तांतरण विषय वस्तु को दो भागों में विभाजित किया जाता है—

a. **वृहद हस्तांतरण विषयवस्तु (Long Transactional Text)**—वह टेक्सट जो 80 या उससे अधिक व 200 से 250 से कम शब्दों के होते हैं उन्हें लॉन्ग हस्तांतरण विषयवस्तु कहते हैं। लॉन्ग हस्तांतरण विषयवस्तु के अंतर्गत निम्न टेक्सट आते हैं—

- ऑफिसियल या फॉर्मल लेटर (Official or Formal Letter)
- फ्रेंडली लेटर (Friendly Letter)
- आन्तरिक ज्ञापन (Internal Memorandum)
- एजेंडा एंड मिनट्स ऑफ़ मीटिंग (Agenda and minutes of the meeting)
- संक्षिप्त लेख लिखना (Writing a short article)
- डायलोग (Dialogue)
- साक्षात्कार (Interview)
- रिव्यू (Review)
- समाचार पत्र अभिलेख (Newspaper Article)

- मैगज़ीन अभिलेख (Magzine Article)
- न्यूज़ पेपर कॉलम (Newspaper Column)
- व्यक्तिगत वृत्त (Curriculum Vitae or CV)
- शोक सन्देश (Obituary)
- ब्राउशर (Broucher)
- एडिटोरियल (Editorial)

b. **संक्षिप्त हस्तांतरण विषयवस्तु (Shorter Transactional Text)**- वह टेक्सट जो 80-100 शब्दों से कम में लिखे जाते हैं संक्षिप्त हस्तांतरण विषयवस्तु कहलाते हैं। संक्षिप्त हस्तांतरण विषयवस्तु के अंतर्गत निम्न टेक्सट आते हैं-

- आमंत्रण पत्र (Invitation)
- डायरी (Dairy)
- पोस्टकार्ड (Postcard)
- निर्देश पुस्तिका (Direction)
- अनुदेशन (Instruction)
- विज्ञापन (Advertisement)
- विज्ञापन पुस्तिका (Flyer)
- पोस्टर (Poster)
- प्रपत्र भरना (Filling in a Form)
- ई-मेल लिखना (Writing Email)
- फैक्स भेजना (Sending Fax)

c. **चिंतनपरक विषय वस्तु (Reflexive Text)**- लेखक अपने लेखन कार्य के माध्यम से अपने स्वयं के विचारों, संवेगात्मक क्रियाओं एवं भावों को इस रचनात्मक ढंग से प्रस्तुत करता है कि पाठक भी उन्हें पढ़कर स्वयं को उन्हीं भावों में डूबा हुआ महसूस करता है जिसका उसके जीवन पर बहुत गहरा प्रभाव पड़ता है। लेखक के गहन विचार एवं संवेगात्मक भाव ही सम्पूर्ण संसार के पाठकों के विचारों एवं भावों को प्रभावित करते हैं। जैसे की लेखक के स्वयं के सपने व आकांक्षाओं पर लेख लिखता है। उदाहरण - 'अपने जीवन काल के पंसदीदा टीचर के बारे

में बताना'। 'जीवन के बारे में स्वयं के विचार तथा जीवन कैसे जिया जाए'। जैसे विषयों पर अपने विचारों में लेख लिखना।

चिंतनपरक विषय वस्तु को लिखने के लिए किन-किन बातों का ध्यान रखना चाहिए –

- i. विषय वस्तु सैद्धान्तिक होती है।
- ii. भाव व संवेग मुख्य भूमिका निभाते हैं।
- iii. लेखन का कुछ भाग कुछ अधिक विस्तृत हो सकता है जिसके अंतर्गत लेखक उन बातों को विस्तार से बताता है जिसके द्वारा पाठक विविध व उद्देशपूर्ण घटनाओं के माध्यम से भावनाओं को पुनः प्रकट करता है।
- iv. उन विचारों व भावनाओं को प्रदर्शित करना जो अति संवेदनशील व व्यक्तिगत भागीदारी के रूप में लेखक के द्वारा महसूस किये जा चुके हो।

अतः हस्तांतरण विषय वस्तु वह है जिसमें विचार व भावों को सम्प्रेषण के माध्यम से विनिमय या किसी क्रिया के प्रति प्रतिक्रिया के रूप में दिया जाता है वही दूसरी तरफ चिंतनपरक विषय वस्तु है जिसमें लेखक स्वयं के विचार, सपनों व आकांक्षाओं को कथा या कहानी के रूप में प्रस्तुत करता है।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

3. हस्तांतरण विषयवस्तु से आप क्या समझते हैं ?
4. चिंतनपरक विषयवस्तु से आप क्या समझते हैं ?

3.8 स्कीमा क्या है? (What is Schema?)

स्कीमा - स्कीमा (Schema) से तात्पर्य ऐसी मानसिक संरचना से है जो व्यक्ति विशेष के मस्तिष्क में सूचनाओं को संगठित तथा व्याख्यायित करने हेतु विद्यमान होती है। यह स्कीमा दो प्रकार का होता है। पहला

1. साधारण स्कीमा (General Schema)

2. जटिल स्कीमा (Complex Schema)

साधारण स्कीमा से तात्पर्य 'स्कीमा मोटरकार खिलौने के स्कीमा से तात्पर्य समझा जा सकता है। इसी प्रकार अंतरिक्ष का निर्माण कैसे हुआ का स्कीमा जटिल स्कीमा का उदाहरण है।

स्कीमा सिद्धान्त इस बात को प्रतिपादित करता है कि पाठ्य अंश से सीखने एवं समझने के लिए हमें इसे अपने पूर्वज्ञान से जोड़ना ही पड़ेगा। (रूमेल हार्ट, 1980), वास्तव में स्कीमा शब्द का पहली बार प्रयोग बारलेट द्वारा सन् 1932 में किया गया जिसमें उसने स्कीमा की पूर्व प्रतिक्रियाओं एवं अनुभवों का सक्रिय संगठन कह कर प्रतिपादित किया।

भाषा के संदर्भ में स्कीमा सिद्धान्तों को स्पष्ट करते हुए जो सबसे महत्वपूर्ण बात कही जाती है वह यह है कि लिखा हुआ कोई भी वाक्य या वाक्यों के समूह अपने आप में कोई विशेष अर्थ नहीं रखता है। बल्कि वह तो केवल एक दिशा की तरफ इंगित करता है जिससे कि पाठक स्वयं उसके अर्थ का निर्माण कर सके। पाठक अपने पूर्वज्ञान के आधार पर उस वाक्यांश का अर्थ ग्रहण करता है। यह प्रारंभिक पाठक का पूर्व ज्ञान एवं ज्ञान संरचना स्कीमेटा के मान से जाना जाता है। किसी भी पाठक का स्कीमेटा एक ऊपर से नीचे के क्रम में व्यवस्थित रहता है। जिसमें कि साधारण ज्ञान ऊपर के क्रम तथा विशेष ज्ञान नीचे के क्रम में व्यवस्थित रहता है। स्कीमा सिद्धान्त के अनुसार किसी भी वाक्यांश को समझने हेतु पाठक का पूर्व ज्ञान एवं वाक्यांश के बीच समन्वय स्थापित करना आवश्यक होता है। ठीक तरीके से समझने हेतु पूर्वज्ञान एवं वर्तमान पठन के बीच समन्वय स्थापित होना ही चाहिए -

स्कीमेटा के प्रकार (Types of Schemata)

- i. औपचारिक स्कीमेटा (Formal Schemata)
- ii. विषयवस्तु संबंधी स्कीमेटा (Content Schemata)
- iii. सांस्कृतिक स्कीमेटा (Cultural Schemata)
- iv. भाषाई स्कीमेटा (Linguistic Schemata)

1. औपचारिक स्कीमेटा (Formal Schemata) - औपचारिक स्कीमेटा से तात्पर्य विभिन्न प्रकार के आलाकारिक संरचनात्मक वाक्यांशों के संदर्भ का पूर्व ज्ञान से है। यदि दूसरे शब्दों में कहा जाय तो औपचारिक का स्कीमों से तात्पर्य विभिन्न प्रकार के संप्रत्ययों के प्रस्तुतीकरण से है। विभिन्न प्रकार के पाठ जैसे कहानियां, पत्र, भाषण, कविताएं, गद्यांश आदि की पहचान एक दूसरे से भिन्नता के आधार पर ही होता है। इनके आधार में निहित संरचना है उसे औपचारिक स्कीमेटा कहा जाता है। उदाहरण के लिए बहुत सी कहानियों के आधार में जो स्कीमेटा होता है। वह निम्न प्रकार का होता है।

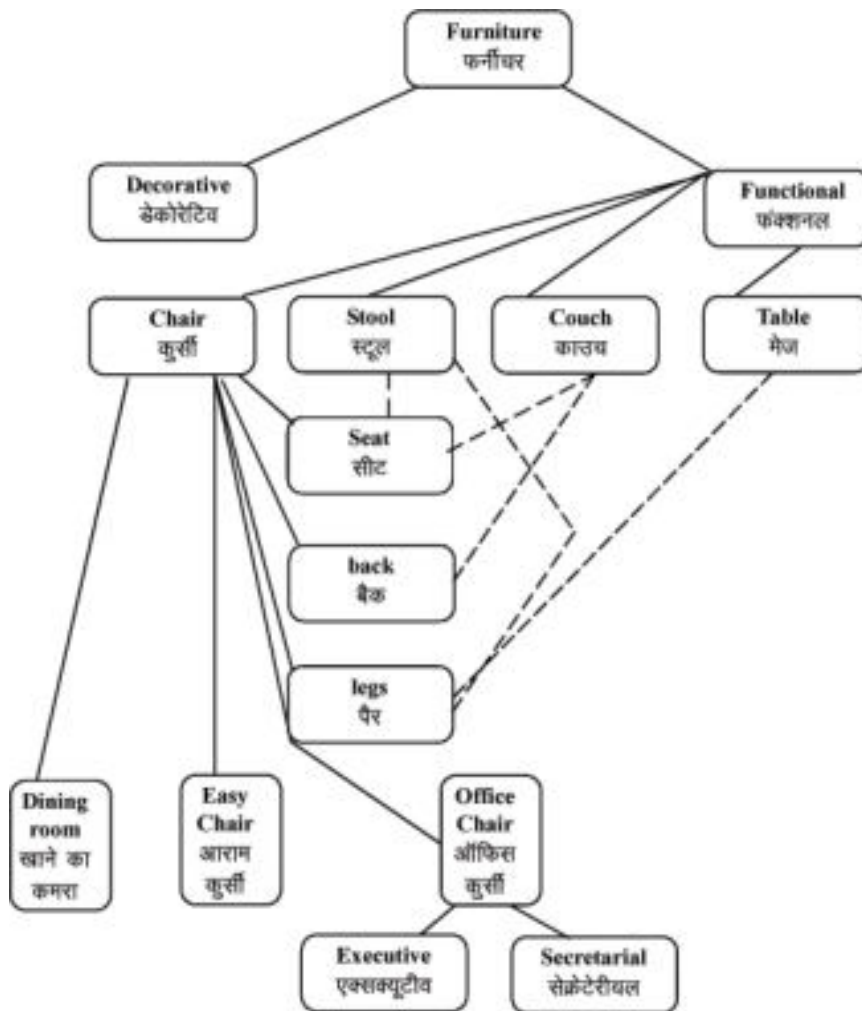
कहानी = व्यवस्था (स्थिति + स्थिति) + प्रकरण + घटनाक्रम + प्रतिक्रिया

Story = Setting State + state + episode + event + reaction

कहानियाँ इस तरह की पृष्ठभूमि में होती हैं जिससे कि समय, स्थान एवं चरित्र की पहचान हो सके तथा साथ ही साथ विभिन्न प्रकरण विभिन्न प्रतिक्रियाओं को जन्म देता है। विभिन्न प्रकार की विधाएं में विभिन्न प्रकार संरचनाएं होती हैं।

2. **विषयवस्तु संबंधी स्कीमेटा (Content Schemata)** - विषयवस्तु संबंधी स्कीमेटा से मूलतः वाक्यांश (पाठ) के विषय वस्तु संबंधी पृष्ठभूमि ज्ञान से संबंधित है। (कैरेली एण्ड एस्टर होल्ड, 1983), इसका जुड़ाव किसी शीर्षक विशेष के संप्रत्ययात्मक ज्ञान एवं सूचना है जो कि एक व्यवस्थित तरीके से जुड़ा हुआ होता है। विषय वस्तु संबंधी स्कीमेटा विशेष घटनाओं एवं वस्तुओं का एक खुला सेट होता है। उदाहरण के लिए यदि हम किसी रेस्तराँ में उपलब्ध सर्विस, मीनू, विभिन्न प्रकार के भोजन का ऑर्डर देना, बिल अदा करना, टिप देना आदि की सूचना से होगा। विषय-वस्तु संबंधी स्कीमेटा ज्यादातर सांस्कृतिक बाध्य (Cultural- bound) होता है। इसलिए सांस्कृतिक स्कीमा को सामान्यतया विषय वस्तु स्कीमा में वगीकृत किया जाता है।
3. **सांस्कृतिक स्कीमेटा (Cultural Schemata)** -- जॉनसन (1981) एवं कैरेली (1981) के अध्ययनो ने इस बात को पुष्ट किया है कि किसी पाठ (वाक्यांश) में निहित सांस्कृतिक ज्ञान पाठक के स्वयं के सांस्कृतिक पृष्ठभूमि से द्वन्द्व करता है। स्वयं के सांस्कृतिक पृष्ठभूमि से संबंधित पाठ या वाक्यांशों को दूसरे सांस्कृतिक पृष्ठभूमि से पाठ या वाक्यांश के मुकाबले समझना सहज एवं आसान होता है। विभिन्न सांस्कृतिक समूह उसी पाठ या वाक्यांश को अलग अलग समझते हैं और उसकी व्याख्या करते हैं। किसी पाठ के पूर्ण रूप से समझने के लिए उसकी सांस्कृतिक पृष्ठभूमि (Cultural Background) की समझ अति-आवश्यक है।
4. **भाषाई स्कीमेटा (Linguistic Schemata)** - भाषाई स्कीमा का संबंध व्याकरण एवं शब्दों के ज्ञान से है। यह किसी भी पाठ को समझने में अति महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका अदा करता है। इसकी (1988) के अनुसार अच्छे पाठक किसी पाठ-विशेष को अच्छी तरह व्याख्यायित करने के साथ साथ उसे अच्छी तरह से डिकोड (Decode) भी करते हैं। बिना अच्छी डिकोडिंग दक्षता (Decoding skill) के कोई भी अच्छा पाठक बन ही नहीं सकता है।

स्कीमेटा की प्रकृति (The Nature of Schemata): स्कीमा सिद्धांत की मूल धारणा यह है कि मानव स्मृति मूलतः शब्दार्थ की तरह व्यवस्थित है न कि वर्णमाला क्रमों के अनुसार और न ही ध्वन्यात्मकता के अनुसार। इसके अलावा स्मृति एक थैसारस की तरह व्यवस्थित है न कि एक शब्दकोष की तरह। कोई भी व्यक्ति विशेष प्रत्येक तरह की वस्तु की तरह स्कीमेटा रखता है चाहे वो वस्तु दिखने में साधारण हो या क्लिष्ट हो। जैसे व्यक्ति कलम, फूटबाल या चश्मा का स्कीमेटा रखता है वैसा ही वह प्यार (Love), क्रोध (Anger) या फिर जलन जैसे संप्रत्ययों का स्कीमेटा भी रखता है। वह भिन्न - भिन्न क्रियाओं का भी स्कीमेटा रखता है जैसे किसी वस्तु को खरीदना, फुटबाल खेलना या फिर सेमीनार में उपस्थित होना इत्यादि। एक कुर्सी की स्कीमा उसी तरह की हो सकती है जैसा कि चित्र संख्या – १ में दिखाया गया है।



A Partial Semantic Network of “CHAIR”

यह कई अलग स्कीमेटा का एक समूह भी हो सकता है। किसी भी वस्तु को कुर्सी कहे जाने के लिए कोई निश्चित गुण या विशेषताएं होता है। जैसे की एक कुर्सी में एक सीट, दो हैंडल एवं, बैक, काउच, होना अनिवार्य है तभी उसको कुर्सी कह सकते हैं। इसी तरह से घर की कुर्सी, आफिस की कुर्सी, दैनिक कमरे की कुर्सियों के अलग- अलग गुण होंगे।

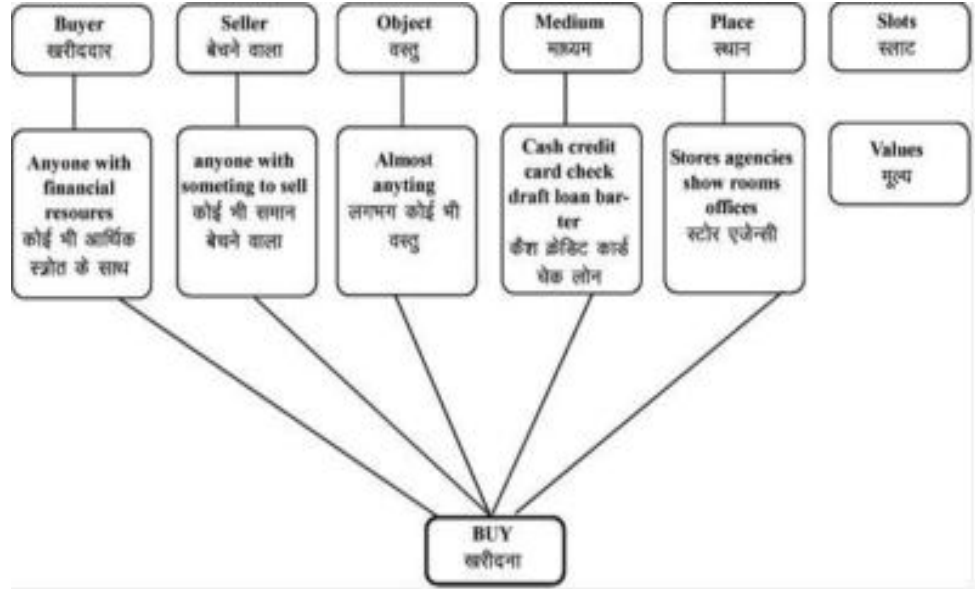


Fig. A partial representation of what might exist in a person's 'buy' schema.

अमूर्त सत्ताओं (Abstract Entities) जैसे – प्रेम (Love), क्रोध (Anger), जलन (Envy) इत्यादि जैसे के लिए स्कीमेटा एक संप्रत्यय (Concept) की ही तरह होता है। किन्तु विभिन्न क्रियाओं एवं घटनाओं के लिए स्कीमेटा संप्रत्ययों की तरह न होकर विमाओं की तरह होती है। चित्र संख्या २ प्रासंगिक एवं क्रमबद्ध विमाओं की भांति किसी वस्तु को खरीदने की स्कीमेटा का उदाहरण प्रस्तुत कर रहे हैं।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

5. स्कीमा क्या होता है? स्पष्ट करें।
6. साधारण स्कीमा एवं जटिल स्कीमा में अंतर स्पष्ट करें।
7. स्कीमेटा के विभिन्न प्रकारों का वर्णन करें।
8. स्कीमेटा की प्रकृति से आपका क्या तात्पर्य है?
9. किसी व्यक्ति के किसी वस्तु के खरीदने का स्कीमा का निर्माण या प्रारूप कैसा हो सकता है? निरूपण करें।

3.9 सारांश

प्रस्तुत इकाई में पठन अवबोध को समझाते हुए यह बताया गया है कि पठन कौशल अन्य तीनों कौशलों से अधिक महत्वपूर्ण है। पठन का अर्थ जोर से पढ़ना या मौन वाचन करना है जिससे लिखित या मुद्रित

सामग्री का अर्थ भाव समझ में आ जाए । बिना अर्थ भाव समझे पढ़ना केवल शब्दों पर निगाह घुमाना है ।

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3.11 निबंधात्मक प्रश्न

1. किसी व्यक्ति के किसी वस्तु के खरीदने का स्कीमा का निर्माण या प्रारूप कैसा हो सकता है ? निरूपण करें।
2. अर्थप्रकाशक विषयवस्तु से आप क्या समझते हैं ?
3. विवरणात्मक विषयवस्तु से आप क्या समझते हैं ?
4. हस्तांतरण विषय वस्तु के प्रकारों को उदाहरण सहित बताइए ?
5. चिंतनपरक विषय वस्तु को लिखने के लिए किन-किन बातों का ध्यान रखना चाहिए ?

इकाई 4 - विशेष सन्दर्भों में लेखन : सामाजिक विज्ञान, विज्ञान, गणित एवं विविध साहित्यों की भाषा में लिखने की प्रक्रिया, पढ़ने एवं लिखने के बीच सम्बन्ध स्थापित करना , बच्चों के संप्रत्यय को समझने के लिए उनके लेखन का विश्लेषण करना : सीखने एवं समझने के लिए तरीके एवं माध्यम के रूप में उद्देश्यपरक लेखन

Writing in the specific content areas: Social Sciences, Science, Mathematics, and Literature of Relevant Languages, Making Reading-Writing Connections, Process of Writing, Process of Analyzing Children's Writing to Understand their Conceptions: Ways and Means of Writing with a Sense of Purpose Writing to Learn and Understand

- 4.1 प्रस्तावना
- 4.2 उद्देश्य
- 4.3 लेखन कौशल का अभिप्राय
- 4.4 लिखने की प्रक्रिया
- 4.5 लिखने एवं पढ़ने के मध्य सम्बन्ध
- 4.6 विशेष सन्दर्भों में लेखन : सामाजिक विज्ञान, विज्ञान, गणित एवं विविध साहित्यों की भाषा में लिखने की प्रक्रिया
- 4.7 बच्चों के संप्रत्यय को समझने के लिए उनके लेखन का विश्लेषण करना : सीखने एवं समझने के लिए तरीके एवं माध्यम के रूप में उद्देश्यपरक लेखन
- 4.8 सारांश
- 4.9 संदर्भ ग्रंथ सूची
- 4.10 निबंधात्मक प्रश्न

4.1 प्रस्तावना

विद्यार्थी ने जो कुछ पढ़ा, या उसे जो भी ज्ञान दिया गया, उस ज्ञान का भली-भांति आत्मीकरण करने के लिए, उसका कुशलतापूर्वक उपयोग करने की क्षमता का विकास करने, उसकी जांच करने अथवा प्राप्त ज्ञान के विषय में उसकी अभिव्यक्ति का विकास करने, उसके विकास का मूल्यांकन करने, उसमें मौलिकता की शक्ति का विकास करने अथवा मौलिकता की योग्यता की गति व दिशा का ज्ञान व मूल्यांकन करने हेतु जो कार्य विद्यार्थी को दिया जाता है उसे ही लिखित कार्य कहा जाता है। हमारे देश में आकादमिक उपलब्धि (Academic Achievement) की सफलता मूलतः लिखने की योग्यता पर ही निर्भर है चूँकि जो बेहतर तरीके से लिख सकता है वही अपने आप को ठीक ढंग से परीक्षा में प्रस्तुत कर सकता है। लिखना एक तरीके से बात करने के सामान है। जैसे ही हम लिखते हैं हम किसी से बात करते हैं हालांकि अधिकतर जिससे से हम बात कर रहे होते हैं वह हमारे सामने उपस्थित नहीं होता है। हम वर्तमान की परिस्थितियों या घटनाओं की याद ताज़ा रखने के लिए भी लिखते हैं। एक अध्यापक को लिखने की शिक्षा ठीक उसी प्रकार देनी चाहिए जैसे की वह बात करने की शिक्षा पा रहा हो। चूँकि जब तक बच्चा स्कूल आता है तब तक वह नए नए वाक्य बनाना सीख चुका होता है हालांकि अभी वह उन वाक्यों का क्रमबद्ध प्रयोग करने में माहिर नहीं होता है।

4.2 उद्देश्य

इस इकाई क अध्ययन करने के पश्चात आप-

1. लेखन कौशल का अभिप्राय स्पष्ट कर सकेंगे।
2. लिपि की शिक्षा की आवश्यकता को समझ सकेंगे।
3. लिखने एवं पढ़ने के मध्य जो अंतर्संबंध है उसे समझ सकेंगे।
4. लिखने की प्रक्रिया का अर्थ बता सकेंगे एवं परिभाषित कर सकेंगे।

4.3 लेखन कौशल का अभिप्राय (Meaning of Writing Skill)

भाषा एक कौशल है। इस कौशल पर पूर्ण अधिकार पाने के लिए विद्यार्थियों में सुनने, बोलने, पढ़ने एवं लिखने के कौशल का विकास करना जरूरी है क्योंकि भाषा का इस्तेमाल दो तरीकों से ही होता है – मौखिक एवं लिखित। मौखिक रूप पर अधिकार करने के लिए सुनना और बोलना तथा लिखित रूप पर अधिकार करने के लिए पढ़ना और लिखना। इन चारों कौशलों को विकसित करना ही मुख्य उद्देश्य है। व्यक्ति जिन ध्वनियों का प्रयोग विचारों की अभिव्यक्ति के लिए करता है उसे मौखिक भाषा कहते हैं। इन्हीं ध्वनियों को जिन विशिष्ट चिन्हों के माध्यम से लिखित रूप में व्यक्त किया जाता है, उन्हें लिपि कहते हैं। प्रत्येक भाषा की अपनी एक लिपि होती है। देवनागरी हिन्दी भाषा की लिपि है एवं रोमन अंग्रेजी भाषा की लिपि है। सामान्य रूप से लिखकरविचारों की अभिव्यक्त करना लेखन कौशल या

लिखित अभिव्यक्ति कहा जाता है। लिपि का ज्ञान प्राप्त करने के पश्चात भाषा के लिखित रूप में प्रयोग कर व्यक्ति अपने भावों एवं विचारों को लेखन कौशल के द्वारा स्थायित्व प्रदान करता है।

लिपि की शिक्षा की आवश्यकता (Requirement of Script Writing): बच्चों में लेखन कौशल का विकास करने के लिए लिपि की शिक्षा अत्यंत आवश्यक है। जिस तरह ध्वनियों के पूर्ण ज्ञान के बिना उच्चारण शुद्ध नहीं हो सकता एवं मुखिक अभिव्यक्ति में पूर्णता नहीं आ सकती, उसी प्रकार लिपि के ज्ञान के बिना विद्यार्थी न तो शुद्ध वर्तनी का प्रयोग कर सकता है और न ही विचारों को लिखित रूप में अभिव्यक्त कर सकता है। जब तक विद्यार्थी को लिखना पढ़ना नहीं आता तब तक भाषा पर उसका पूर्ण अधिकार नहीं हो सकता। अतः भाषा पर पूर्ण अधिकार कराने एवं अभिव्यक्ति कौशल को पूरी तरह से विकसित करने के लिए बच्चे को लिपि का पूर्ण ज्ञान देना अति आवश्यक है। लेखन कौशल या लिखित अभिव्यक्ति के महत्व को हम निम्न रूप से स्पष्ट कर सकते हैं।

1. लिखित भाषा विद्यार्थी के हाथ और मस्तिस्क में संतुलन बना कर रखती है।
2. लिखित भाषा ही साहित्य के भण्डार में वृद्धि करती है। यदि लिपि न होती तो आज साहित्य कान्हां से आता? यदि लेखन कौशल न होता तो नई- नई रचनाएं कान्हां से आती?
3. आधुनिक शिक्षा प्रणाली की प्रमुख विशेषता परीक्षा है। इसके बिना शिक्षा प्रणाली की कल्पना भी नहीं की जा सकती। लेखन- कौशल के द्वारा ही विद्यार्थी की योग्यता का मूल्यांकन किया जाता है।
4. देश- विदेश में हो रहे ज्ञान- विज्ञान आदि से परिचित कराने का मुख्य साधन लिखित भाषा ही है।
5. व्यावसायिक एवं औद्योगिक प्रगति का आधार भी लिखित भाषा ही है। मौखिक रूप से कार्य- व्यवसाय में सफलता प्राप्त नहीं की जा सकती है। हर व्यवसाय में तरह- तरह के रिकार्ड आदि लिखकर रखने पड़ते हैं।
6. आज तो लेखन एक स्वतंत्र व्यवसाय के रूप में भी मानव जाति का कल्याण कर रहा है अनेक व्यक्ति अपनी लेखनी की कला से ही अपनी रोजी-रोटी की व्यवस्था कर रहे हैं।
7. अपने विचारों को सुरक्षित रखने के लिए लिखित अभिव्यक्ति की आवश्यकता है। लिखाकर हम अपने विचारों को वर्षों के लिए स्थायित्व प्रदान कर सकते हैं।
8. जीवन के अनेक ऐसे क्षेत्र हैं जन्हां केवल मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति से काम नहीं चल सकता है। दूर रहने वाले मित्र या संबंधी को अपना सन्देश देने, एक दूसरे के साथ कोई कार्य करने या अन्य कोई समाचार पहुंचाने के लिए लिखित भाषा की आवश्यकता होती है।
9. दैनिक जीवन का विवरण रखने, घर पर दैनिक हिसाब किताब रखने आदि व्यावहारिक कार्यों लिखित भाषा का प्रयोग करना पड़ता है।
10. शिक्षा ग्रहण करते समय पठित सामग्री को संगठित करने प्रश्नों का उत्तर तैयार करने, पाठ का सार तैयार करने, गृहकार्य करने आदि में लिखाण – कौशल इत्यादि की आवश्यकता पड़ती है।

11. हमारे पूर्वजों की सभ्यता और संस्कृति को लिखित भाषा ने ही हम तक पहुंचाया है। इसी प्रकार हमारी संस्कृति आगे आने वाली पीढ़ी तक भी लिखित भाषा के ही माध्यम से ही हस्तांतरित होती रहेगी।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

1. लेखन कौशल से आप क्या समझते हैं ?
2. लिपि की शिक्षा की आवश्यकता पर प्रकाश डालें।
3. लेखन कौशल या लिखित अभिव्यक्ति के महत्व को स्पष्ट करें।

4.4 लिखने की प्रक्रिया (Process of Writing)

भाषा सीखने का एक स्वाभाविक क्रम है – सुनना, बोलना और लिखना। भाषा की शिक्षा देने के लिए प्राथमिक स्तर से ही बच्चों में इन चारों कौशलों को विकसित करने का प्रयास किया जाता है।

पहली अवस्था (First Stage)

बच्चों को पहले मौखिक भाषा के शिक्षा दी जाती है, उसके पश्चात पढ़ना सीखाया जाता है और उसके तुरंत पश्चात लेखन- कौशल का शिक्षण आरम्भ किया जाता है। जैसे ही बच्चे अक्षरों का उच्चारण कर उनके लिपिबद्ध रूप को पहचानने लगते हैं, वैसे ही इन अक्षरों के लिपिबद्ध रूपों को लिखना सीखना भी शुरू कर दिया जाता है। यह कार्य तभी शुरू किया जाना चाहिए जब बच्चों की उंगलियां कलम पकड़ने की अभ्यस्त हो जाएं।

लेखन कौशल को विकसित करने के लिए सर्वप्रथम बच्चों को मानसिक रूप से तैयार करना चाहिए, क्योंकि लिखना शुरू करने से पहले से यह जानना आवश्यक होता है कि बच्चा लिखने के लिए तैयार है या नहीं। यह बात सर्वविदित है कि लिखना सीखना मौखिक या वाचन- कौशल से कठिन होता है। बच्चे को लिखना सीखाने के लिए अध्यापक को निम्न प्रयास करना चाहिए।

- i. पेन्सिल से कागज़ पर या चाक से श्यामपट्ट पर तरह- तरह की रेखाएं खींचने का अभ्यास कराना चाहिए।
- ii. अध्यापक बालक को कोई बोर्ड पर बड़े अक्षर लिख कर उनके चारों तरफ अंगुली घुमाने का बच्चों से अभ्यास कराये ताकि उनके अंदर का डर दूर हो।
- iii. तरह – तरह के बीज, दाने, मोती आदि की सहायता से भी खेल –खेल में वर्णों की आकृतियाँ बनाने का अभ्यास कराया जा सकता है।
- iv. **कक्षा का आकर्षक वातावरण (The attractive environment of Classroom)**– कक्षा के कमरे में आकर्षक रंग – बिरंगे चित्र एवं चार्ट टांगने चाहिए। चार्ट में चित्र, शब्द व वर्ण बने होने चाहिए। कक्षा की दीवारों पर फर्श से २ फुट उन्हें श्यामपट्ट बने होने चाहिए। रंग- बिरंगी चाक राखी

होनी चाहिए। इन चार्टों व चित्रों से वर्णों की आकृतियाँ बच्चे के मांस-पटल पर अंकित हो जाती हैं और चाक से वह मनचाही रेखाएं खींचता है तथा चाक पकड़ने का अभ्यास करता है।

इस प्रकार के विभिन्न साधनों व क्रियाओं के माध्यम से बच्चों की उँगलियों की मांसपेशियों को कलम पकड़ने तथा विभिन्न दिशाओं में घुमने का अभ्यास कराने के पश्चात ही वर्णों की रचना सिखानी चाहिए। इससे पहले बच्चों के लिखना नहीं सीखाना चाहिए।

दूसरी अवस्था (Second Stage)

वर्णों की रचना सीखना (Learning the shape of the letters) : लेखन कौशल की शिक्षा के यह दूसरी अवस्था है। जब बच्चा लिखना सीखने को तैयार हो जाए तो उसे विधिवत रूप से वर्णमाला के सभी वर्णों को लिखना सीखाना चाहिए। वर्णों को लिखना सीखाने के कई विधियाँ हैं। अध्यापक इनमें से कोई सी भी विधि को अपना सकता है।

- i. **चित्र विधि (Pictorial Method):** वास्तव में लिपि का विकास ही चित्रों के द्वारा हुआ है। वैसे भी बछ्हा चित्र बनाने में ज्यादा रुचि रखता है। अतः इस विधि में बच्चों को खेल खेल में ही लिखना सीखा दिया जाता है।
- ii. **मांटेसरी विधि (Montessori Method) :** श्रीमती मांटेसरी ३ वर्ष की आयु के पश्चात बच्चे को वर्ण-रचना सीखाने का समर्थन करती हैं। इस विधि में बच्चे को सर्वप्रथम लकड़ी या गत्ते के बने अक्षर दिए जाते हैं और उन पर उंगली फेरने को कहा जाता है, फिर उनके बीच पेन्सिल चलाने को कहा जाता है। जब उनकी उंगली साध जाती है तब स्वतंत्र रूप से वर्ण लिखने को कहा जाता है।
- iii. **अनुसरण विधि(Imitation Method) :** इस विधि में अध्यापक बच्चे को स्लेट या तख्ती पर पेन्सिल से वर्ण लिख देता है। अब उसे लिखे हुए वर्ण के ऊपर स्याही के साथ कलम चलाते हैं।
- iv. **रेखा विधि (Line Method):** इस विधि में बच्चे को विभिन्न प्रकार की रेखाएं खींचने का अभ्यास कराया जाता है। जैसे- खड़ी रेखा, पड़ी रेखा, तिरछी रेखा, अर्द्ध वृत्त, पूर्ण वृत्त आदि। फिर रेखाओं को मिला कर वर्ण रचना सीखाई जाती है।
- v. **पेस्टालाजी की रचनात्मक विधि (Constructivist approach of Pestalozzi):** इस विधि में अक्षरों को टुकड़े में विभक्त करके एक-एक टुकड़े की आकृति बनाने का अभ्यास कराया जाता है और फिर सभी टुकड़ों को मिलाकर पूरा अक्षर बनाना सीखाया जाता है। जो अक्षर सरल होते हैं उन्हें पहले बनाना सीखाया जाता है।

तीसरी अवस्था (Third Stage)

शब्दों तथा वाक्यों की रचना की शिक्षा

वर्णों की रचना सीख लेने के पश्चात बच्चे वर्ण मिलाकर शब्द बनाना और उसके पश्चात वाक्य लिखना सीखते हैं। लेखन शिक्षण की इस अवस्था में बच्चों पर ज्यादा ध्यान देने की आवश्यकता है। इस समय बच्चे में लिखने से सम्बंधित जैसी आदतें विकसित हो जाती हैं, वे आगे भी चलती रहती हैं। अतः इस

अमय बच्चे को सुन्दर, सुडौल व स्पष्ट रूप से लिखने का अभ्यास कराना चाहिए। इसके लिए निम्न विधियों का प्रयोग किया जा सकता है।

- i. **सुलेख लिखने का अभ्यास कराना** : इस अवस्था में सुलेख लिखने का अभ्यास कराना बच्चों के लिए लाभकारी सिद्ध हो सकता है।
- ii. **अनुलिपि** : अनुलिपि का तात्पर्य जैसा लिखा है वैसा ही लिखना है।
- iii. **प्रतिलिपि** : प्रतिलिपि किसी भी छपी हुई पुस्तक में से देख- देखकर गद्यांश या पद्यांश लिखा जाता है। इसके लिए अध्यापक को यह ध्यान रखना चाहिए कि प्रतिलिपि की सामग्री बच्चे के मानसिक स्तर एवं रुचि के अनुसार हो।
- iv. **श्रुतलिपि** : प्रतिलिपि में बच्चे देखकर लिखते हैं, किन्तु श्रुत लिपि में बिना देखे, सिर्फ सुनकर लिखते हैं। इसमें अध्यापक बोलते जाता है और छात्र सुन-सुन कर लिखते जाते हैं। इससे विद्यार्थियों का सुन कर लिखने का अभ्यास होता रहता है।

चौथी अवस्था – (Forth Stage)

लेखन अभ्यास करना (Practices of Writing) : लेखन कौशल का यह चतुर्थ एवं आखिरी चरण है। अब तक बच्चों को देखकर व सुनकर सुन्दर लेख के ज़रिए सहबद एवं वाक्य लिखने का अभ्यास हो जाता है। अब बच्चों को देखकर एवं सुनकर सुन्दर लेख के ज़रिए वाक्य लिखने का अभ्यास हो जाता है। अब बच्चों को अपने भावों व विचारों को तार्किक क्रम में, व्याकरण के अनुसार भाषा का प्रयत्न करते हुए लिखने का अभ्यास करना होता है, जिससे उनमें लेखन कौशल पूरी तरह विकसित हो सके। इसके लिए कक्षा में समय- समय पर लिखित कार्य कराते रहने की कोशिश की जानी चाहिए।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

4. लिखने की दूसरी अवस्था – वर्णों की रचना का विस्तार से वर्णन करें।
5. लिखने के लिए तैयार करने की अवस्था का विस्तार से वर्णन करें ?
6. लिखने की मांटेसरी विधि से आप क्या समझते हैं ?
7. चित्र -विधि की व्याख्या करें ?

4.5 लिखने और पढ़ने का संबंध (Connection between Reading and Writing)

हमें यह बात समझनी होगी कि पढ़ना लेखन को प्रभावित करता है और लिखना पढ़ने को प्रभावित करता है। विभिन्न शोधों में यह पाया गया है कि यदि कोई व्यक्ति बहुत ज्यादा पढ़ने का कार्य करता है वह उतना ही बढ़िया लेखक भी होता है। यदि हम विद्यार्थियों को विभिन्न प्रकार के साहित्य यथा कहानी,

कविता, उपन्यास या निबंध पढ़ने के लिए प्रेरित करते हैं तो उनकी भाषा और बेहतर निखर करके हमारे सामने आती है। बहुत वर्षों तक विद्यार्थियों को पढ़ना और लिखना अलग अलग सिखाया जाता था, किन्तु विगत दस वर्षों के शोध ने यह प्रमाणित एवं स्पष्ट कर दिया है कि लिखना एवं पढ़ना एक ही सिक्के के दो पहलू हैं। शोध में यह बात भी निकल कर सामने आयी कि भाषिक विकास लिखने एवं पढ़ने के अंतर्संबंध परनिर्भर करता है।

हम अपने विद्यालयों में विद्यार्थियों को दो तरह से सिखाते हैं। पहला अध्यापक कुछ ज्ञान की बात उदाहरण देकर सीखाता है एवं दूसरा विद्यार्थी अपने पाठ्यक्रम में निर्धारित पुस्तक को पढ़ कर सीखता है। हम सब यह बात ठीक तरह से जानते हैं कि लेखन की प्रक्रिया का मुख्य उद्देश्य ज्ञान को लिखित रूप में स्थानांतरित करता है वहीं दूसरी तरफ हम यह आसानी से समझ सकते हैं कि जो कुछ भी लिखा जाता है वह पहले से ही हमारे दिमाग में होता है, इसलिए हम यह कह सकते हैं कि पढ़ना, लिखने में महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका अदा करता है। छोटे बच्चों को यदि लिखने का ठीक से अभ्यास करवाया जाय तो उनका पढ़ने के हुनर का भी विकास होता क्योंकि लिखने बार बार अभ्यास करने से अक्षर पहचानना आसान हो जाता है और पढ़ने में भी सहायता मिलती है।

4.6 विशेष सन्दर्भों में लेखन: सामाजिक विज्ञान, विज्ञान, गणित एवं विविध साहित्यों की भाषा में लिखने की प्रक्रिया (Writing in the Specific Content Areas: Social Sciences, Science, Mathematics, and Literature of Relevant Languages)

इस बात में कोई भी संदेह नहीं है कि लिखना एक हुनर है जिसमें हम अपने विचारों को अभिव्यक्ति प्रदान करते हैं। विषय कोई भी हो चाहे सामाजिक विज्ञान हो, चाहे विज्ञान हो या गणित या साहित्य या फिर भाषा हर विषय में लिखने का विशेष महत्व है। हमारी आज की शिक्षा व्यवस्था में किसी भी विद्यार्थी की सफलता लिखने पर ही निर्भर है इसलिए लिखने का महत्व और भी बढ़ जाता है। सामान्यतया लिखने की योग्यता का विकास करने का ठेका आज कल भाषा शिक्षक के जिम्मे ही होता है, किन्तु यह ठीक नहीं है। अलग अलग विषयों में लेखन कार्य संपादित करने की अलग अलग हुनर होता है। जिस हुनर की आवश्यकता साहित्य या सामाजिक विज्ञान के विषय में लिखने में होगी वह निश्चित रूप से विज्ञान या गणित जैसे विषयों से अनिवार्यतः भिन्न होगी। अतः लेखन कौशल विकसित करने का कार्य केवल भाषा के अध्यापक का है ऐसा नहीं है। लिखने की योग्यता का विकास करने हेतु विभिन्न विषयों के ज्ञान के साथ साथ उन विषयों में किस तरह से लेखन कार्य संपादित होगा भी अति महत्वपूर्ण है।

4.7 बच्चों के संप्रत्यय को समझने के लिए उनके लेखन का विश्लेषण करना : सीखने एवं समझने के लिए तरीके एवं माध्यम के रूप में उद्देश्यपरक लेखन (Process of analyzing children's writing to understand their conceptions : ways and means of writing with a sense of purpose writing to learn and understand)

जब कभी हम भाषा शिक्षण के उद्देश्यों की चर्चा करते हैं तब हम विद्यार्थियों में बोलने, सुनने, पढ़ने, और लिखने के कौशल का विकास करने की बात करते हैं। इसके साथ-साथ बच्चों में अपने विचारों को प्रभावशाली ढंग से रखने एवं अभिव्यक्त करने की योग्यता का विकास करने को प्राथमिकता देते हैं। विद्यार्थी के अंदर जब तक अपने विचारों को प्रभावशाली ढंग से रखने या अभिव्यक्त करने की क्षमता विकसित नहीं होती है तब तक उसका भाषा पर पूरा अधिकार नहीं हो पाता। इसलिए रचना शिक्षण जिसे उद्देश्य परक रचना शिक्षण (Purpose Writing) भी कहते हैं, की आवश्यकता पड़ती है। सामान्यतया मनुष्य अपने विचारों की अभिव्यक्ति दो तरह से करता है- बोलकर (मौखिक रूप में) एवं दूसरा लिखकर (लिखित रूप में)। उद्देश्य परक लेखन के मुख्य उद्देश्य निम्नलिखित होते हैं –

१. उद्देश्य परक लेखन का ज्ञान
२. लिख कर अभिव्यक्त कर सकने की क्षमता
३. रचना कार्य में मौलिकता लाना

उपर्युक्त तीनों उद्देश्यों की पूर्ति उद्देश्यपरक लेखन के अंतर्गत की जानी चाहिए। यदि आप इन उद्देश्यों को भली-भांति देखेंगे तो यह पता चलता है कि पहले उद्देश्य में हमारा ध्येय रचना कार्य के विभिन्न रूपों की जानकारी कराना होगा। यह ध्यातव्य है कि पूर्व प्राथमिक स्तर पर इनकी जानकारी स्तारानुकूल ही संभव हो सकेगी।

द्वितीय उद्देश्य के अंतर्गत हमने लिख कर अभिव्यक्त करने की योग्यता प्राप्त करने की योग्यता को स्थान दिया है। इसमें पत्र, प्रार्थना पत्र, वर्णन, विवरण निबंध, कहानी या अति लघुसंवाद दिए गए हैं। इनकी भी अपनी-अपनी सीमाएं हैं। हमारी परीक्षा प्रणाली मूलतः लिख कर अभिव्यक्त कर सकने की क्षमता पर निर्भर है। जिसकी लेखन शैली जितनी अच्छी है वो अपने आप को उतना ही योग्य सिद्ध कर पाता है। उपन्यास, कहानियाँ, संस्मरण, डायरी, लेख, निबंध आदि विभिन्न तरह के उद्देश्यपरक लेखन लिख कर अभिव्यक्त कर पाने की क्षमता पर ही निर्भर हैं।

मौलिकता लाने के सम्बन्ध तीसरा उद्देश्य, उद्देश्यपरक लेखन के क्षेत्र में अत्यधिक महत्वपूर्ण है। इससे पूर्व हम निबंधादी के अंतर्गत प्रायः रटी – रटाई बातें ही देखा या जांचा करते थे, परन्तु आज के युग में यह आवश्यक हो गया है कि छात्र इस विषय में मौलिकता का परिचय दे। जब हम मौलिकता की बात करते हैं तो इसका अर्थ आप को यह नहीं लेना चाहिए कि इस स्तर पर छात्र को एक लेखक ही बना दें। यहां

इसका अभिप्राय उसमें मौलिकता की उद्भावना करना होगा। जो कुछ वह लिखे उसमें उसके अपने अनुभव की बात उसके अपने ढंग से आनी चाहिए। उसकी भाषा अपनी हो उसके भाव अपने हों। इस विषय में एक बात महत्वपूर्ण और भी है जिसका वर्णन करना यहां उचित होगा। मौलिकता का अर्थ असंबद्ध, अप्रासंगिक या क्रमरहित लेखन से कदापि नहीं है। इसका अर्थ विचारों, अनुभवों या शैली की मौलिकता है, किन्तु विषयांतर कदापि नहीं। इतना होते हुए भी आप बहली- भांति जानते हैं कि प्रारम्भ में विद्यार्थी अप्रासंगिक, क्रमहीन बातें तो लिखेगा ही, अतः इस परिस्थिति में प्रयाप्त धैर्य, स्नेह व सहानुभूतिपूर्वक सहयोग की वृत्ति ही अपनानी होगी।

बच्चों के संप्रत्यय को समझने के लिए उनके लेखन का विश्लेषण करना (Process of analyzing children's writing to understand their conceptions): सामान्यतया बच्चों के लेखन शैली को विकसित करने के लिए कुछ निर्धारित विषयों पर ही लिखने के लिए दिया जाता था किन्तु अब स्वतंत्र लेखन को प्रधानता दी जाती है। जब बच्चा स्वयं से कुछ लिखने के लिए चुनता है तो वह उस विषय के साथ न्याय कर पाने में सफल हो पाता है। बच्चे के लेखन से बच्चों के संप्रत्यय के बारे में भी आसानी के साथ पता लगाया जा सकता है। लेखन उनके सम्प्रत्यय निर्माण में अति महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका निभाता है। बच्चे अपने आस-पास बहुत सी बातें देखते हैं और उन्हीं के आधार पर वे उन विशेष चीजों के बारे में धारणा का निर्माण करते हैं।

अभ्यास प्रश्न

8. उद्देश्यपरक लेखन से आप क्या समझते हैं ?
9. उद्देश्यपरक लेखन के उद्देश्यों को स्पष्ट करें।
10. रचना कार्य में मौलिकता लाना से आप क्या समझते हैं ?
11. लिख कर अभिव्यक्त करने योग्यता से आप क्या समझते हैं ?

4.8 सारांश

हमारे देश में आकादमिक उपलब्धि की सफलता मूलतः लिखने की योग्यता पर ही निर्भर है चूँकि जो बेहतर तरीके से लिख सकता है वही अपने आप को ठीक ढंग से परीक्षा में प्रस्तुत कर सकता है। लिखना एक तरीके से बात करने के सामान है। जैसे ही हम लिखते हैं हम किसी से बात करते हैं हांलाकि अधिकतर जिससे से हम बात कर रहे होते हैं वह हमारे सामने उपस्थित नहीं होता है। हम वर्तमान की परिस्थितियों या घटनाओं की याद ताज़ा रखने के लिए भी लिखते हैं। एक अध्यापक को लिखने की शिक्षा ठीक उसी प्रकार देनी चाहिए जैसे की वह बात करने की शिक्षा पा रहा हो कहने का तात्पर्य है कि लिखना सिखाने की प्रक्रिया बिल्कुल स्वाभाविक होनी चाहिए। चूँकि जब तक बच्चा स्कूल आता है

तब तक वह नए नए वाक्य बनाना सीख चुका होता है हालांकि अभी वह उन वाक्यों का क्रमबद्ध प्रयोग करने में माहिर नहीं होता है। भाषा सीखने का एक स्वाभाविक क्रम है – सुनना, बोलना और लिखना। भाषा की शिक्षा देने के लिए प्राथमिक स्तर से ही बच्चों में इन चारों कौशलों को विकसित करने का प्रयास किया जाता है। बच्चों को पहले मौखिक भाषा के शिक्षा दी जाती है, उसके पश्चात पढ़ना सीखाया जाता है और उसके तुरंत पश्चात लेखन- कौशल का शिक्षण आरम्भ किया जाता है। जैसे ही बच्चे अक्षरों का उच्चारण कर उनके लिपिबद्ध रूप को पहचानने लगते हैं, वैसे ही इन अक्षरों के लिपिबद्ध रूपों को लिखना सीखना भी शुरू कर दिया जाता है। यह कार्य तभी शुरू किया जाना चाहिए जब बच्चों की उंगलियां कलम पकड़ने की अभ्यस्त हो जाएं।

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4.10 निबंधात्मक प्रश्न

1. लिपि की शिक्षण की आवश्यकता एवं लेखन कौशल के महत्व पर प्रकाश डालें।
2. उद्देश्य परक लेखन से आप क्या समझते हैं? स्पष्ट करें।
3. लेखन कौशल या लिखित अभिव्यक्ति के महत्व को स्पष्ट करें।
4. पढ़ने एवं लिखने के मध्य के अंतर्संबंध को स्पष्ट करें।
5. विशेष सन्दर्भों में लेखन जैसे सामाजिक विज्ञान, विज्ञान, गणित एवं विविध साहित्यों की भाषा में लिखने की प्रक्रिया से आपका क्या अभिप्राय है ?

Paper 101 unit 4

Juvenile Delinquency in India- Causes and Prevention

INTRODUCTION

Juvenile delinquency is the criminal activity charged by a person who is under the age of 18 years. In recent period these criminal activities are increasing rapidly due to many reasons and circumstance. In most of the places juveniles charged with serious crimes, such as robbery or murder which are transferred to criminal courts and tried as an adult. Sometimes prosecutors make this decision, or sometimes allow transfers require a hearing to consider the age and record of the juvenile, the type of crime, and the likelihood that the youth can be helped by the juvenile court. As a result of a get tough attitude involving juvenile crime, many counties have revised their juvenile codes to make it easier to transfer youthful offenders to adult court.

In very simple words, juvenile delinquency is the participation in illegal activities by minors. A juvenile delinquent is a person who is typically under the age of 18 and commits an act that otherwise would have been charged and tried as adults. So it is quite clear that juvenile delinquency is also a part of all those behavioural change that occurs in a persons life while passing the stormy phase of adolescence, though it is not found in every adolescent. The degree of delinquency varies from one to another and it remain unnoticed unless and until the particular act becomes the concern of the society. Since adolescence is the transitional period of life, during this phase one passes through rapid revolutionary changes in one's physical, mental, moral, spiritual, sex and social outlook. They become emotionally unstable and frequent mood change is observed. It is the period of anxieties, worries, conflicts and complexities. Therefore during this period they do certain things in order to satisfy one need or the other which often lead them to become delinquent.

Delinquent children belong to that category of exceptional children who exhibit considerable deviation in terms of their social adjustment and are consequently also labeled as socially deviant or social handicapped. They display criminal behaviour and are punishable under legal procedure. Violation of social norms and values threaten the peace of the society, and are therefore considered as criminal acts. The nature and kind of the crime may range from very mild to severe, however, they are all antisocial, and hence are subjected to legal criminal acts. In these sense, they are very much like criminals and antisocial elements. In legal terminology, however, they are referred to as delinquents and not as criminals. On whole, juvenile delinquency is a legal term which denotes act of varying degrees of social consequences from mere naughtiness to major assault punishable by law.

WHO IS JUVENILE

A juvenile is a person who is under the age of 18. The age limit below which it should not be permitted to deprive the child of his or her liberty should be determined by the law. Juvenile can be defined as the child who has not

attained a age at which he, like an adult under the law , can be held liable for his criminal activities. The juvenile is the child who is alleged to have committed some act or omission on the part of the child declared as a crime. Juvenile and minor in legal terms are used in a different context. The word Juvenile is used when reference is made to the young criminal offenders and the word minor relates to legal capacity or majority. To make the meaning more clear resort can profitably be made to some other source. The concept of the juvenile varies from State to State for convenience.

WHAT IS JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

Juvenile delinquency is the participation by a minor between the ages of 10 and 17, in illegal activities. When an individual deviates from the course of a normal social life his behaviour is called 'Delinquent'. When a juvenile, below an age specified under a statute exhibits behaviour which may prove to be dangerous to society and or for him, he may be called a juvenile delinquent. Juvenile delinquents are those offenders including boys and girls who are under 18 years of age. A Juvenile delinquent is a young person incorrigible or habitually disobedient.

ACT OF DELINQUENCY MAY INCLUDE:

1. Running away from home without the permission of parents.
2. Habitual behavior beyond the control of parents.
3. Spending time idly beyond limits.
4. Use of vulgar languages.
5. Committing sexual crime.
6. Visiting gambling center etc.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF JUVENILE JUSTICE LAW IN INDIA

Prior to the enactment of the juvenile justice (Care and Protection of Children) Act, 2000 which came into force w.e.f. December 30, 2000, the juvenile justice Act, 1986 was the governing law on the subject. Before this act was introduced w.e.f. October 2, 1987 the Children Act, 1960 was operative throughout the country. The States were, however, authorized to enact their own laws for the care and protection of the delinquent children and juveniles. A perusal of the working of the Children Act, 1960 (subsequently repealed by j. j. Act, 1986) would indicate that greater attention was required to be given to children who were found in situations of social maladjustment, delinquency or parental neglect. It was deemed necessary that a uniform juvenile justice system should be introduced throughout India which would take into account all aspects of the social, cultural and economic change in the country. India, being a signatory to the convention, drew up a comprehensive uniform legislation to replace the Children Act, 1960 and the State enactments framed there under. Consequently Juvenile Justice Act, 1986 was enacted which came into force w.e.f. October 2, 1987.

CAUSES OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

Understanding the causes of juvenile delinquency is an integral part of preventing a young person from involvement in inappropriate, harmful and

illegal conduct. Four primary risk factors can identify young people inclined to delinquent activities: individual, family, mental health and substance abuse. Often, a juvenile is exposed to risk factors in more than one of these classifications.

Individual Factors

Several risk factors are identified with juvenile delinquency. A minor who has a lower intelligence and who does not receive a proper education is more prone to become involved in delinquent conduct. Other risk factors include impulsive behaviour, uncontrolled aggression and an inability to delay gratification. In many instances, multiple individual risk factors can be identified as contribution to a juvenile's involvement in harmful, destructive and illegal activities.

Family Factors

A consistent pattern of family risk factors are associated with the development of delinquent behaviour in young people. These family risk factors include a lack of proper parental supervision, ongoing parental conflict, neglect and abuse (emotional, psychological or physical). Parents who demonstrate a lack of respect for the law and social norms are likely to have children who think similarly. Finally, those children that display the weakest attachment to their parents and families are precisely the same juveniles who engage in inappropriate activities, including delinquent conduct.

Mental Health Factors

Several mental health factors are also seen as contributing to juvenile delinquency. It is important to keep in mind, however, that a diagnosis of certain types of mental health conditions-primarily personality disorders – cannot be made in regard to child. However, there are precursors of these conditions that can be exhibited in childhood that tend to end up being displayed through delinquent behaviour. A common one is conduct disorder. Conduct disorder is defined as "a lack of empathy and disregard for societal norms." (Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fourth Edition, American Psychiatric Association, 2004.)

Substance Abuse Factors

Substance abuse is found in a majority of cases of juvenile delinquency. Two trends are identified in regard to substance abuse and minors. First, juveniles are using more powerful drugs today than was the case as recently as 10 years ago. Second, the age at which some juveniles begin using drugs is younger. Children in elementary schools are found to be using powerful illegal drugs. The use of these illegal substances or the use of legal substances illegally motivates young people to commit crimes to obtain money for drugs. Additionally, juveniles are far more likely to engage in destructive, harmful and illegal activities when using drugs and alcohol.

PREVENTION OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

Prevention is necessary for such children. First of all, we should identify such juveniles and thereafter give him treatment. They will become habitual offender if they are not timely prevented from committing the offence. The most effective

way to prevent juvenile delinquency has indisputably been to assist children and their families early on. Numerous state programs attempt early intervention, and federal funding for community initiatives has allowed independent groups to tackle the problem in new ways. The most effective programs share the following key components. There are so many Jurists and criminologists who suggested many provisions for the prevention of juvenile delinquency. Some of the provisions are very useful for the welfare of the juveniles and their development.

Delinquency Prevention is the broad term for all efforts aimed at preventing youth from becoming involved in criminal, or other antisocial, activity. Increasingly, governments are recognizing the importance of allocating resources for the prevention of delinquency. Prevention services include activities such as substance abuse education and treatment, family counseling, youth mentoring, parenting education, educational support and youth sheltering.

PREVENTIVE PROGRAMMES OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

There may be two kinds of programmes for preventing the juvenile delinquency;

1. Individual Programme Individual programme involves the prevention of delinquency through counseling, psychotherapy and proper education.

2. Environmental programme Environmental programme involves the employment of techniques with a view to changing the socio-economic context likely to promote delinquency.

These two forms of preventive approaches are reflected in the following strategies, which are adopted in crime prevention programmes.

I. Individual Programme

a) Clinical Programme

The object of this clinic is to provide aids through Psychiatrists Clinical Psychologists and Psychiatric Social workers to help the Juveniles delinquents in understanding their personality problems. Taft and England have listed the function of clinics as follows

- ▶ To participate in discovery of pre delinquents.
- ▶ To investigate cases selected for study and treatment.
- ▶ To treat cases itself or to refer cases to other agencies for treatment.
- ▶ To interest other against in psychiatrically oriented types of treatment of behavioral disorders in children.
- ▶ To reveal the community unmet needs of children.
- ▶ To cooperate in training of students intending to specialize in treatment of behavioural problems

b) Educational Programme

The impacts of educational institutions are very significant in the countries where almost every child going to school and preventive programme can be launched in an effective manner through the schools. Teachers should not discriminate among the students; they should be treated equally and provided the moral education which is very helpful to the students for their life stand. Moral education is a significant factor for the students, which decide their life.

They should be able to understand the difference between right and wrong ideas which are favourable for them and which are not.

c) Mental Hygiene

This method is also helpful in prevention and treatment of Juvenile delinquency. To prevent the mental conflict and to bring about a proper mental adjustment in childhood and value of mental therapy in curing a mental disturbance cannot be over-emphasized. The mission of life must be determined and energies must be directed towards the fulfillment of the high mission. Development of high sentiment and values in child also prevent Juvenile Delinquency. In October 1944, on occasion of inauguration of the Indian Council for Mental Hygiene Dr. K.R. Masani, the then Director of Indian Institute 72 of Psychiatry and Mental Hygiene, said that the application of mental Hygiene was wide and varied and in Education, Law, Medicine, Public health, Industry, mental hygiene played an important role in preventing the delinquency and crime.

d) Parent education

Every community should ensure opportunities for parental educations, which will help making good homes, improve family relationship, and education and care of children. Some educational programmes inform parents on how to raise healthy children.

e) Recreational programmes

The recreational programmes are a good check on delinquency. Recreation programs enable youths to mix up with other adults and children in the community and develop friendship. Such positive friendships may assist children in later years. Youth programs are designed to fit the personalities and skills of different children and may include sports, dancing, music, rock climbing, drama, karate, bowling, art, and other activities. It is believed that the energies of youth can be very well channelized into pursuits like sport games and other healthy activities, which would counteract delinquent among the participants. The establishment of recreational agencies like sports, playgrounds community centers, concerts drama, puppet shows are very necessary for preventing the delinquency and developing social group work and youth groups. In rural areas, recreational agencies should provide open air meeting halls, playgrounds for sports and cultural activities. Youth organizations and groups/agencies should take and assume the responsibility for organizing these programmes so that Juvenile may be kept away from delinquency.

f) Removal of inferiority complex

Inferiority complex, fear, apprehension may sometimes lead the child to commit crime under wrong and misplaced belief/impression of proving himself. Children deserve encouragement to become confident and good spirited person. Discouragement pulls them behind in their life. They should be properly to face various good and bad phases of life and their failures should not be criticized. Praise cheer, sympathy and love should be showered to banish inferiority complex.

II. Environmental programme

a) Community Programmes

The basic aim of community programme is to reach the people in need of help instead of people approaching the workers and agencies. Another significance of this programme is that the participation of the local community is considered to be more important and role of professional leadership is sought to be kept at the minimum level. Marshal B. Clinard has outlined the key supposition of these programmes as follows:

- ▶ Local people will participate in efforts to change neighborhood conditions.
- ▶ And they do not accept an adverse social and physical environment as natural and enviable
- ▶ Because self-imposed changes in the immediate Environment will have real significance to the resident and consequently will have more permanent effect.

a) Publicity

This method can also be very useful in preventing the Juvenile Delinquency. The newspapers, magazines, radio, television and motion pictures etc. should show the juvenile delinquency in proper perspective honestly and should also present real reports about the various wrong done by the juveniles and analyze its true causes and also protect the juvenile against false and misleading reporting. The actual position should be presented and produced before the society about their delinquent behavior so that they may be properly assessed.

b) Parental love and affection

Child needs unconditional, immediate and true love, care and protection of his mother and father. On account of deprivation of such love and care the child may develop frustration and dissatisfaction leading to crime. So parental love, care and protection is very necessary for the child to prevent him for committing or doing the crime. So parental love, care and protection is very necessary for the child to prevent him for committing or doing the crime.

c) Family Environment

Family factors which may have an influence on offending includes the level of parental supervision, the way parents discipline a child, parental conflict or separation, criminal parents or siblings, and the quality of the parent-child relationship. Many studies have found a strong correlation between a lack of supervision and offending, and it appears to be the most important family influence on offending.

CONCLUSION:

Exploitation of children has been a long standing practice. These delinquent go through a lot of abuse which vary in nature as physical, sexual, or psychological or as a combination. The abuse has a long lasting and profound effect on a child's life. The problem of child abuse is a serious one and it is unlikely that it gets solved any sooner. Also the reason why this has prolonged is that the society has affected the children in a negative way and in the society there are factors such as family influence, social environment, mental disorder and sexual abuse. This develops in young people low self-influence, social environment, mental disorder and sexual abuse. This develops in young people

low self-esteem and they go through mental trauma which later correlates with delinquent behavior.

What needs to be done is the question that arises before us. We cannot uproot this menace but there are solutions to keep a control on the problem of Juvenile Delinquency. In the best interest of the delinquent he or she should be rehabilitated as early as possible and integrated back in the society. Also the State must protect the rights of these children and come up with reformative methods and instill in them values that can socially uplifts them and give them a new found confidence so that they can play a constructive role in the society.

Importance of Writing Skill to Develop Students' Communication Skill

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Abstract: *Communication skills play a very important role in today's professional world. The ability to communicate effectively is one of the most sought after skills in all the fields of work. To communicate effectively, one must have effective language skill, as language is the key to communication. Though we can communicate with non-verbal language like signs and gestures, but without language, communication will be ineffective. Language enables interaction which as a result, facilitates the process of communication. Therefore, one's ability to communicate is directly linked with one's ability to use the language. Language is a skill; therefore, to learn a language, one must learn the skills of language. Language has four sub skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Among these four sub skills, English language learners (ELL) find writing as a difficult skill. There is a growing concern in today's academic and professional world that today's students or professional are focusing less on the writing skill. Due to the lack of practice or perceived lack of importance, writing as a skill is often overlooked. The present paper will attempt to find out the importance of writing skill and navigate various strategies and techniques to enhance the writing skill.*

Keywords: Communication Skills, English Language Learners, ESL, Writing Skills

Introduction

Communication skills play a very important role in today's professional world. Communication connects us to the outer world as well as with our inner self. The ability to communicate our ideas effectively is one element that governs almost everything in our life both personal life and our professional life. In the present day world of rapid globalization and technological advancement, communication skill has emerged to play a dominant role. The ability to communicate effectively is one of the most sought after skills in all the fields of work. Be it a student or a professional, everybody needs to develop their communication skills so that they can effectively express their ideas. Be it spoken or written, communication skills enable one to represent them fairly to achieve excellence. To communicate effectively, one must have effective language skill, as language is the key to effective communication. Though we can communicate with non-verbal language like signs and gestures, but without language, communication skill will be ineffective because language enables one to give a definitive shape to one's thoughts, ideas, knowledge, emotions, and desires. Language enables interaction among the receiver and sender which as a result, facilitates the process of communication. Therefore, one's ability to communicate is directly linked with one's ability to use the language.

Language as a Tool of Communication

Language arose out of human need to communicate. Language makes effective communication possible. As observed by Raman and Sharma, (2011), one does not need to be a linguist in order to acquire good language skills, but having the basic knowledge of the language will certainly help to understand the intricacies of writing and speaking clearly. Language is considered to be a skill therefore, to learn a language one must learn the skills of language. For example, to learn a foreign or a second language (L2) such as English, one must learn the skills of it to become effective communicators. Language has four sub skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Among these four sub skills: listening and reading are considered to be receptive skills whereas, speaking and writing are considered to be productive skills. Developing a language will require developing all the four sub skills.

Importance of English Language

There are approximately 6500 spoken languages in the world today. Among all these languages, English is the second most spoken language in the world (Rao, 2019). English is the only language which is widely spoken all over the world and it is the most commonly studied foreign language in the world. Apart from being an international language, English is the language of business, trade and commerce, international relationships, higher education, employment, internet, travel and tourism, scientific research, engineering and technology and so on. Learning English today not only helps us to move along with the changing time, but also helps us in reaching out to people from across the world. Having a good English skill is the need of the hour and learning it will help one to achieve growth and success in all spheres of life.

Sub Skills of Language

English is studied as a second language (L2) in India, and is used as a medium of instruction in school, colleges, and universities. Learning the L2 unlike the first language (L1) is not easy. The route to L2 learning is not predetermined and nor can we predict the factors that might singlehandedly help in the L2 acquisition. Therefore, English language learners (ELL) need more practice and hard work in acquiring the language. In order to communicate well in English, the ELLs have to acquire all the four skills of the English language, viz. listening, speaking, reading and writing. Among these four skills, listening and reading are called receptive or passive skills since the ELLs simply receive and understand these skills and manifest it via speaking and writing, the productive or active skills. Since the ELLs ought to produce the language using these two skills therefore, learning them is central to achieving effective communicative competence. English as a second language learners feel more comfortable while speaking and writing in their mother tongue, but their communication becomes apparent while they are speaking or writing in English. While learning English, ELLs face various problems in learning the basic skills of the English language. Out of these four basic skills, an ELL learner faces more challenges in developing the writing skill. Writing as skill requires more time and practice to master. Due to the complexity of its phonological, morphological, semantic and syntactic structure (Rao, 2019), ELLs often face challenges in developing it. There is a growing concern in today's academic and professional world that, today's students or professionals are focusing less on the writing skill. Due to the lack of practice or importance given to building it, writing as a skill has taken a back seat. The present paper will attempt to find out the importance of writing skill and navigate various strategies and techniques to enhance the writing skill

Advantages of Writing Skill

As mentioned by Richards & Renandya (2002), Writing includes numerous considerations and choices to be made regarding "higher lever skills", such as content, structure and organization, and "lower level skills", such as punctuation, choice of appropriate vocabulary and grammatical structures. Writing enables a learner to develop their thinking and imaginative abilities and allows them to record their ideas. Writings enables record keeping which ensures documentation. This as a result, helps the learner to recover or revisit their ideas by bringing back their old and almost forgotten memories for use in the present. Writing as skill unlike speaking, allows the learner to ideate and create words and sentences after due diligence. It provides an order to one's thoughts and enables it to be presented in a structure way. While writing, a learner can choose the right vocabulary, form the right sentence construction, apply cohesion and present the ideas in a correct full way.

Writing not only helps a student in their academic pursuit, but also helps an employee to express their ideas effectively. If a student has good writing skill, it will not only help them in working on their grades, but will also prepare them for the professional world. Writing will help learners to learn how to draft personal and official letters. Learners will be able to prepare their resumes or CVs attractively. Writing helps learners in building their analytical, rational and critical thinking skills. Writing will help in

building report writing skills and help in improving learner's presentation skills. Practicing writing will help the learners to answer the questions accurately in the routine and competitive exams. It will help learners to perform well in their competitive exams and interviews. Writing enables the learners to be more eloquent, concise and elegant than their actual speech, which as a result will eventually help in building effective oral communication skill.

Common Errors in Writing

Class room teaching and learning provides the necessary learning ground for a learner to identify, assess, and work on their writing errors. But, a workplace expects its employees to be effective writers so that it does not hinder the regular day to day affairs of the organization by causing unwanted communication error. Errors place an important role in the L2 acquisition process. According to researchers, errors are crucial in identifying the learner's ability in achieving their goals and determining how far the learners have advanced and what remains to be learned and taught, Coder, (1967). Identifying the errors will help the English language teacher to be better equipped, more sensitive and aware of the difficulties faced by students while writing. This as a result, will enable the English language teacher to apply corrective measures and help in minimizing the occurrence of error.

Let Us Look At Some of the Common Errors in Writing

Composition error: Most learners have issues in the process of organizing their piece of writing. It is commonly observed that, learners find it difficult to compose on their own. And even if they do, there are many run-on sentences. From choosing the words to framing sentences and eventually forming paragraphs to build text, learners often struggle to create it by maintain coherence.

Grammatical error: In order to be correct, it important that a sentence has less grammatical errors. Understanding the language grammar is essential for a learner to write correctly. Some of the common grammatical errors are: sentence structure, verb tense form, voice; active and passive voice, subject-verb agreement, word order, preposition, articles, plurality, possessive case, person; first, second, and third person.

Punctuation: Punctuation plays a crucial role in business English writing. Following the rules of punctuation is instrumental in bringing clarity to writing. While careful use of punctuation enhances the meaning of what we write, where else, careless usage or no usage of it can confuse our writing. It is commonly observed that, students lacks proper knowledge of using the commas, colon, semi colon, ellipsis, parenthesis, hyphens, dashes, exclamatory marks, full stop, etc. which as a result affects the meaning of a text and hampers the overall tonality.

Spelling: It is the act of correctly assembling the letters in a word which is an essential feature in successful writing. Spelling is not only important for achieving clarity in our writing but also helps in determining the merit of communication. Correctly spelt words not only indicate strong literacy development but also enhance one's employment opportunities. A misspelled word, terminology, phrase, address, etc. in business writing communication can have serious implications on the sender's competence and can tarnish the reputation of both the employee and the organization. Due to the lack of practice in writing, spelling errors have become a common place in writing.

Diction: Diction refers to the choice of words one use while speaking or writing. In order to achieve accuracy in business English writing, it is important that the right word is used. Words are ambiguous in nature, that is, a word that has almost the same denotation (dictionary definition) can have very different connotations (implied meanings). This is particularly true in business writing because words and terminology can evolve a nuanced meaning that describes a particular idea, concept, or phenomenon derived from the particular organizational setup.

Tone: The overall tone refers to the attitude conveyed in a piece of writing. Due to the asynchronous nature of writing, it is important that the writer keeps in mind the tonality of the writing. Tone in writing can be formal, informal and semi-formal, which largely indicate the relationship between the sender and the receiver. Tone is not only implied through the right choice of words, but also through the length of a text, and the use of acronyms etc. It is commonly observed that, a student often uses colloquial or regional words in formal writing thus by, misplacing the tone of the writing.

Effective Teaching of Writing to ELL

Writing as a skill requires continuous practice on the part of the learner to develop. It is well known to all that teaching writing skills is one of the complex tasks for any English language teachers. Learners too find it challenging to get good command over writing skills because of its complexity in spelling, grammatical structure, usage, coherence, organization and so on. As (Rao, 2019) says, “The teachers should understand the level of the students and try to adopt relevant teaching strategies of improving their writing skills that are more suitable for them. Some of the techniques, methods or approaches that can be used in the classroom to develop and practice writing skill are as follows.

Comprehension activities: English syllabus should be designed in such a way that it incorporates many comprehension activities within the lessons. A communicative English syllabus enables the learners to focus on all the four sub skills of language. The English language teacher should look in to all the comprehension exercises and if possible, adapt and create more activities focusing on writing to build up the comprehension skills of the learners. Exercises on grammar and sentence construction should be methodically taught, whereas, spelling and punctuation rules should be continuously assessed.

Note taking: It is the act of recording information from different sources from the purpose of writing. Actively taking notes in the class will help the learners to work on their writing. It will not only enable them to prepare answers for exam or help in their academic success, but also to build the habit of writing. Actively taking notes in the class can help in better understanding of the concepts. Good note-taking will improve learner’s focus and build active listening skills. It will also help in the comprehension of material, and retention.

Story writing: ELLs should be encouraged to write small stories. These stories can be either familiar or creative. Allowing the learners to create their own stories will help in strengthening their imagination and creative powers. Story writing exercises can be conducted in various forms. It can be individual, pair, or a group activity. Stories can be written after orally presenting the outlines, showing pictures or providing content words for navigational support. Either of the ways, story writing will help the learners to build the composition skill and allow them to write more freely.

Translation: It is the process of rendering written content from one language to another. In a multilingual classroom where learners struggle with writing in English, translation activity can empower a learner to learn English from their already available languages. Modern translation activity from L1 to L2 is seen as an effective tool of language learning. If done in groups, translation activities can help in building communicative competence by focusing on accuracy and clarity.

Dictogloss activities: This is also known as running dictation activity. Dictogloss is a classroom dictation activity where learners listen to a passage, note down key words and then work together to create a reconstructed version of the text. The aim of a dictogloss activity is to build learner’s listening and writing skills. It enables a learner to recreate a heard text in their own way. This activity can be done in groups or individual. Apart from it, adding language games focusing on writing and creating on activity based learning will help the learners to focus more on writing and build their competence in it.

Conclusion

The biggest challenge faced by students at their workplace is when they are asked to communicate through writing. Most employers in business organizations stress the importance of written communication as they feel that, most of their employees face difficulty in writing due to their lack of training in the target situation. (Dilley 265-270) believes students entering business today are seriously deficient in their ability to express themselves effectively in writing. This in a nutshell summarizes the need for developing the writing skill. Writing as a skill is crucial to both students and professionals. Hence, it is only imperative that English classrooms shift their focus on the need to develop the writing skill. There is an unknown apprehension of learners towards writing; therefore, English language teachers will have to create avenues in the class for practicing writing. A serious rethinking is required to bring back old and new practices for developing writing skill; practices and activities not only conducive for a communicative classroom but also for enhanced skill development.

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UNIT 2 TYPES OF COMMUNICATION

Structure

- 2.0 Objectives
- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Verbal Communication
 - 2.2.1 Oral Communication
 - 2.2.2 Written Communication
 - 2.2.3 Visual and Audio Visual Communication
 - 2.2.4 Silence
- 2.3 Non Verbal Communication
 - 2.3.1 Body Language (Kinesics)
 - 2.3.2 Facial Expressions
 - 2.3.3 Posture
 - 2.3.4 Gestures
 - 2.3.5 Touch (Haptics)
 - 2.3.6 Proxemics
 - 2.3.7 Appearance and Artifacts
 - 2.3.8 Para language
- 2.4 Effective Non-Verbal Communication
- 2.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 2.6 Key Words
- 2.7 Answers to Check Your Progress
- 2.8 Terminal Questions

2.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- explain different types of communication ;
- distinguish between verbal and non-verbal communication;
- describe different types of verbal communication;
- differentiate among different types of non-verbal communication and
- explain ways of effective communication.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Communication is a societal activity; people in society exchange their thoughts, ideas, feelings, emotions, etc. through different manners depending upon the occasions, context, type of message, background of the interacting persons. For example, when a leader addresses a rally, he/she communicates mainly orally, but just to emphasise certain points, he/she may use gestures or facial expressions also. While teaching in the class, teacher communicates both orally and writing. Some times, agreement with a suggestion is indicated by nod of a disagreement may also be shown by moving head in both direction. A warning may be communicated in different ways, orally, in writing or over by facial expression.

There are all ways of communication. From this, it may be concluded that ways of communication can be broadly classified into two types: 1. Verbal communication and 2. Non verbal communication

Each of these types can be further sub-divided into different types . In this unit, you will read different types of communications.

2.2 VERBAL COMMUNICATION

In verbal communication words of a particular language are used for passing the message. For example, while teaching in a class teacher speaks, writes on the blackboard or some time,, he/she may use audio/visual aids, such as the power-point to explain/emphasise certain points. All these modes come under the category of verbal communication. Thus, verbal communication is of four types.

- Oral communication
- Written communication
- Visual and Audio visual communication
- Silence

Let us learn them in detail.

2.2.1 Oral Communication

In this mode, communication is done through spoken words. It may be face-to-face talk, telephonic talk, video-chat, television, radio or chat over internet, such as Skype or Whatsapp. Personal traits such as clarity of pronunciation, pitch, slang, volume, speed, etc. influence this mode of conversation. It is an effective form of communication.

For example, when the teacher teaches in the class, it is a face-to-face communication. During Covid-19 pandemic, classes were held online using Zoom, Google meet or Microsoft Team platforms. It is also face-to-face verbal communication as the teacher and students could see each other although they were not present in the class bodily. When two persons talk on Skype or Whatsapp, they communicate face-to-face verbally. In telephonic talk, the communication is verbal although it is not face-to-face as they cannot see each other.

Advantages of Oral Communication

There are certain advantages of oral communication mode which are stated below:

- High level of transparency and understanding
- Quick feedback
- Flexibility
- Time and other resources saving
- Helpful for teamwork
- Best for confidential exchange of information
- Quick resolution of disputes
- Receptive and encouraging
- Facial expressions and body language visible

Disadvantages of Oral Communication

But at the same time, there are some disadvantages also of oral communication mode which are stated below:

- Informal and no proof of decision, if any
- Poor personal traits, such as stammering, weaker command on language, slang, non-coherence visible
- Less authentic
- May consume long time in meetings
- Requires great attentiveness and receptivity
- No legal standing

Methods to Improve Oral Communication Skills

1. **Speak in a clear, confident strong voice:** one should speak in a confident, clear and strong voice so that it is audible to everyone in the audience. Keep the pace of your speaking average, not very slow not very fast. While speaking, face the audience.
2. **Be coherent:** One should speak coherently with concentration on your subject only. Try not to be distracted from your subject, try to prevent other thoughts at that time.
3. **Avoid using filler words:** It is better to pause for a second rather than using filler words, such “Yeah”, “So”, “Um”, “Like” frequent use of filler words disturb coherence and distract audience.
4. **Be an active listener:** Verbal communication is a two-way process; you should therefore, be an active listener too. Try to understand a question/query quickly, because it looks odd to ask to repeat the question.

Essentials of Oral Communication

The following are the essential factors that one should follow to be effective in oral communication:

1. **Clear pronunciation:** The message should be pronounced clearly, otherwise the receiver may not understand the words of the sender.
2. **Brevity:** A brief message is considered the most effective factor since receiver’s retention capacity is limited in oral communication. The sender should be as brief as possible.
3. **Precision:** The sender should ensure exactness of the message. Only relevant issue should be included in the message and that too with accuracy.
4. **Conviction:** The sender should believe in the facts that are being communicated to others. The oral presentation should evince confidence of the sender.
5. **Logical sequence:** The sender should present the message logically. The points to be spoken first and what should follow to convey the meaning and motives of the sender effectively to the receiver need to be looked into.
6. **Appropriate word choice:** Words are symbols. They have no fixed or universal meanings. The meanings of words at that moment are in the mind of the sender. Therefore, the sender should select the words which are suitable and understandable

to the other party and those which convey exactly the same meanings as the sender wanted.

7. **Use natural voice:** Natural voice conveys integrity and conviction. It is advised to use natural voice in oral communication.
8. **Communicate with right person:** It is essential to know whom to communicate. If you communicate a right message to a wrong person, it may lead to lot of problems. Be sure in recognizing the right person to communicate with.
9. **Do not get guided by assumptions:** Never assume that your listener has knowledge already on the subject matter. You may be wrong many times in such assumptions. You can be good only when you are confident in your message without any omission.
10. **Look for feedback:** When communicating, if you are smart enough in collecting feedback verbally or non-verbally, you can quickly alter the message, if necessary.
11. **Allow to ask questions:** It is important to give freedom to the receiver to rise questions whenever he feels ambiguity or confusion. In a way, the communicator should encourage the receiver to ask questions. Such questions are opportunities to clarify doubts.

2.2.2 Written Communication

In this method, communication is written in words or symbols and is transmitted via e-mail, letter, memo, etc. In recent years, many social media platforms based on Internet are available, where written communication is posted. This mode of transmission is meant for mass circulation, instead for an individual written communication is most commonly used in business and its contents, vocabulary, style, precision and clarity are very important achieving its objective.

Advantages of Written Communication

The written communication has several advantages:

- It is a permanent record and can be used as reference in future.
- The sender can write and re-write to make it error free before sending.
- The presence of the sender and the receiver is not required.
- Sometimes there are complex matters that cannot be talked over in a satisfactory manner. In the written communication, complex matters can be explained.
- Being a written document, there are no chances of misconception.
- The message can be sent to a large number of people .

Disadvantages of Written Communication

The written communication has some disadvantages too:

- It is time consuming.
- If the sender does not have good command on the language, he/she has to struggle to write the message.
- A poorly written communication may create poor impression.
- Feedback is not instant.
- There is no personal touch.

Principles of Written Communication

The following are the six principles of written communication.:

1. **Clarity:** Written communication requires clarity of thought and clarity of expression like using simple words, active construction, avoiding ambiguity and Jargon, using simple sentences, etc.
2. **Completeness:** The writer needs to check the completeness of the message. He should verify whether all questions are answered in the message or not.
3. **Conciseness:** Brevity is very important for effective writing. The writer should include only relevant facts and avoid repetitions.
4. **Consideration:** This principle advocates that the writer should convey respect to the reader in his writing. It is always better to emphasize positive and pleasant facts. The writings should reflect the integrity of the writer.
5. **Courtesy:** According to this principle, courtesy will be observed through promptness in writing and giving replies, avoidance of imitating expressions, sincere apology for an omission and generous thanks for a favour.
6. **Correctness:** According to this principle, the writer should give correct facts in the message. The message should be sent to the reader at the right time and in the correct style.

Written communication is accurate and serves as a permanent record. One can reach a large number of people through this media simultaneously. You can also fix responsibility to the people through this communication. However, written communication is much time consuming and more expensive when compared to oral communication.

2.2.3 Visual and Audio Visual Communication

It has been pointed out above that written or oral communication alone has certain limitations which may create poor impression on the recipient and the desired result is not achieved. In order to overcome this difficulty, many business organizations now use various visual aids, such as pictures, progress charts, maps, graphs, etc. These communication pictures in aid to the oral presentation can create powerful impression, as a proverb goes, "A picture is worth a thousand words". Sometimes, presentation of statistics in words alone is not sufficient to create the desired impact. For example, in a meeting of the company directors, CEO wants to emphasize that sales of the company products increased four times over this time last year, his words alone may not get the desired attention. But he/she also displays a bar graph depicting growth in sales figures, it will have dramatic effect on the audience.

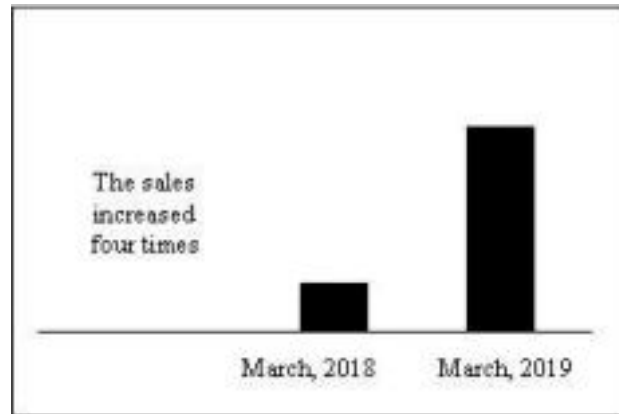


Figure 2.1: Use of Bar graph in Aid of Spoken Words

But in such presentation, care should be taken that there is no contradiction between words and the picture.

Audio-visual communication is a combination of sight and sound. Now big business organizations use this mode of communication extensively particularly for training programmes, publicity, mass education and mass propaganda. Short television programmes are frequently used to popularize their production and for advertisement on TV. The working of a new product, such as instrument or software can be effectively demonstrated with the help of this mode of communication.

Advantages of Visual and Audio Visual Communication

There are certain advantages of visual and audio visual communication mode which are discussed below:

- **Popular:** Technological development has facilitated audio-visual communication to become very popular.
- **Supports oral communication:** The use of graphs, pictures and diagrams etc. makes the communication more attractive and easily graspable.
- **Easy presentation of complex data:** Complex data can be presented in an easy and understandable manner in the form of graphs, pictures and diagrams.
- **Helpful for rural clients:** Visual and audio visual communication is very helpful particularly for the rural population where the percentage of the illiterate and semi-literate people is higher. They can understand the information presented visually in a better manner.
- **Saves time:** It saves time as a large number of people can see the presentation at the same time.
- **Decision making is quicker:** As the data are presented visually, they can be understood and followed more quickly. The queries can be clarified during the presentation itself. It makes the decision making process quicker.
- **Helpful in publicity:** Attractive designs influence the people and facilitate publicity.

Besides advantages, there are some disadvantages also which are described below:

- **More expensive:** Preparation of designs, graphs, etc. involves higher expenses because it requires special software and skilled persons.
- **Time consuming:** The process of preparing visual presentation requires more time.
- **Some times more complex:** Presentation of complex data through graphs and bar diagrams may make the presentation cumbersome. As a result, it may be difficult for the audience to understand.
- **Infrastructural problems:** Many institutions and organizations may not have adequate facilities for an effective presentation of video communication. Due to lack of facilities, it may not be possible to prepare high quality of audio-visual aids.

2.2.4 Silence

Although it may look odd, silence is also a mode of communication. It is defined as a way of communication without words, sign of signals. Apparently, this mode of communication may appear to be without any action, but in fact, it is not necessarily inaction. It can mean a person is anxious or fearful of speaking. Silence may be an indication of agreement, dissent, anger or frustration. Sometimes, silence is rather a golden way of communication, because it may save yourself from embarrassment or losing your job. For example, your boss expresses his opinion about a certain event to which you do not agree. If you contradict him, he may feel offended. Under such a situation, silence is the best way of communication. In day-to-day happenings, you come across many such situations, when it is better to keep silence.

Advantages of Silence Communication

There are some advantages of silence communication as given below:

- **Saves from embarrassment:** As mentioned above, silence sometimes may save from embarrassment. For example, if you do not agree with the opinion of your boss, it is better to keep silence rather than contradicting him/her.
- **Self-control:** Silence may be a sign of self-control when somebody talks in an offending language.
- **Attracts appreciation:** Silence may be appreciated by the people under provocative circumstances.
- **Gives time to think:** When faced with a challenge, silence gives the time to think about the possible response.
- **Sometimes more effective:** Abraham Lincoln remarked, “The more a man speaks, the less he is understood”. Therefore, as a manager, you should understand the language of silence.

Disadvantages of Silence Communication

There are some disadvantages also of silence communication:

- **May be misunderstood as shyness:** People may get the impression that you are a shy person.
- **May infer as lack of confidence:** People may think that you do not have confidence.
- **People may bully:** By considering silence as a sign of weakness, people may bully.

- **May be misunderstood as sign of intrigue:** Silence may be taken as a sign of intrigue, because it is difficult to judge about a person who keeps silence. You are required to interpret the language of silence.

Check Your Progress A

1. What is oral communication?

2. List three advantages of audio visual communication.

3. What is written communication?

4. Give two advantages of silence.

5. Fill in the blanks.
 - (i) While delivering a lecture, be an active too.
 - (ii) One gets a quick in oral communication.
 - (iii) In written communication, one has the advantage to it before sending.
 - (iv) Video the oral communication.
 - (v) Silence is of communication under certain situations.

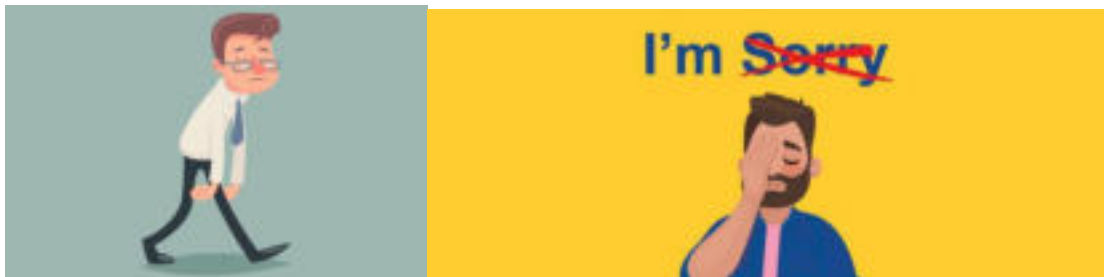
2.3 NON VERBAL COMMUNICATION

The communication without using words, such as gesture, body language, facial expression is called non-verbal communication. Often non-verbal expression supplement the verbal communication, but it may be the only one as mentioned earlier, while giving a speech in a rally, leader often uses gestures, to emphasise certain points. But the teacher may allow a student to enter the class simply by gesture. Non-verbal communication is of the following types:

2.3.1 Body Language (Kinesics)

To communicate with body language is called *Kinesics Communication*. It is a form of non-verbal communication. Kinesics may be defined as the study of the body movements,

gestures, facial expressions, etc. as a means of communication. Kinesics is communicating by body movement without uttering any word. It is perhaps the most often used non-verbal communication. The founder of kinesics, Birdwhistell defined it as “Facial expression, gestures, posture and gait, and visible arm and body movements”. He argued that all body movements convey meaning. Some Kinesics movements and their implied meaning are shown in Fig. 2.2.



Tired

Source: Art of living

Sorry

Source: Dictionary.com



Please

Source: Baby Sign Language



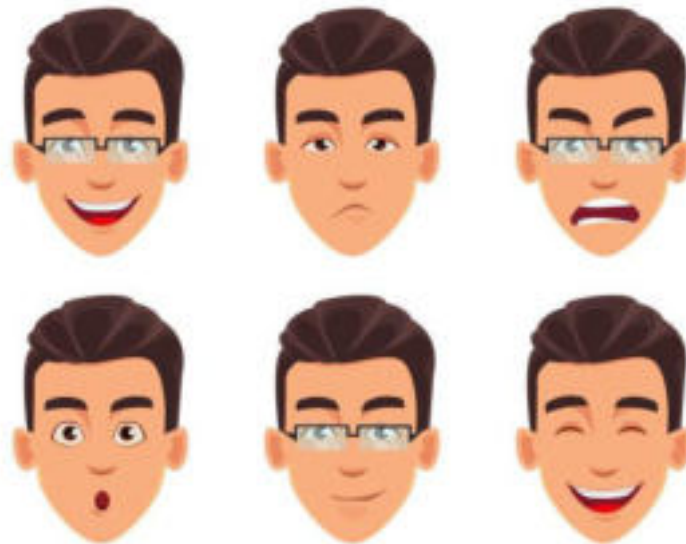
Listen

Source: iStock

Figure 2.2: Some Kinesics Movements and their Meaning

2.3.2 Facial Expressions

Face is the most expressive part of the body. The types of facial expressions distinctly reveal happiness, sadness, fear and anger (Fig. 2.3).



Source: Discover Magazine

Figure 2.3 : Facial Expressions

The expressions and their meaning are almost universal across cultures. You can see all these expressions on the face of a body on different occasions. From the facial expressions of a speaker, it is possible to infer whether he is confident, excited, angry, shy, confused or tired. A slack face of the speaker may indicate that he is not comfortable with his speech.

2.3.3 Posture

Posture is the way a person stands or sits. The posture of a person while speaking indicates his mental state (relaxed, confident, attentive or impatient). A lot can be inferred about the social standing of a person by observing his/her posture.

An open posture displays friendliness, warmth, and positivity. In open posture, one sits straight, feet spread wide open and palm facing outwards. A relaxed facial expression with good eye contact shows receptivity. On the other hand, a closed posture displays boredom, indifference and negativity. In this posture, one sits in a hunched forward position with crossing legs, showing the back of the hands with clinched hands.

In a confident posture, one walks straight with full height, holding head high, keeping gaze at eye level and pulling shoulders back with relaxed legs and arms. A confident posture is a sign of authority and leadership. Hunched shoulders with incoherent walking indicate lack of confidence and low self-esteem. Some postures are shown in Fig. 2.4.



designed by freepik.com

Source: freepik.com

Figure 2.4: Postures

2.3.4 Gestures

Gesture is another non-verbal communication in which bodily parts of the body particularly hands and face, move to communicate message, either in place of, or in conjunction with speech. There are three main types of gestures: adaptors, emblems, and illustrators. Adaptors are touching behaviour and movement that can be targeted towards the self, objects or others. In general it results from anxiety or uneasiness. Emblems are gestures that serve the name purpose as a word.

A hitchhiker's raised thumb, or the "Ok" sign with thumb and index finger making a circle with other three fingers sticking up are the examples of emblems.

Illustrators are the gestures to indicate the size or shape of an object. Illustrators are used subconsciously and are largely involuntary. Another example of illustrators is to make gestures while speaking on telephone although the other person is not seen.

2.3.5 Touch (Haptics)

Haptics is the notion of interaction through touch. The non-verbal form of communication, touch, carries ethical and moral implications in educational practice (Simons 2014). A pat by the teacher on the back of the student is a sign of encouragement and it is many times more powerful than a verbal communication. Geng (2011) emphasises that touch can be an

effective tool in order to control students with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. Haptics is the study of the non-verbal communication that is transmitted via the sense of touch. Touch may be of several types, such as functional, professional, social-polite, friendship-warmth, etc. At the functional-professional level, touch is related to a goal meaning some specific action. But at the social level, socially sanctioned touching behaviour helps initiate interactions. For example, a handshake is a sign of welcome with warmth, but a prolonged handshake may be inappropriate. A pat on the shoulder or back of a junior colleague is a sign of congratulations or encouragement. Thus, touch may have different connotations on different occasions and between people from different backgrounds.

2.3.6 Proxemics

It refers to the study of human space and distance in communication. While talking to an unknown person, we keep a safe distance and if come closer, we feel uncomfortable. But while conversing with a friend, this space, shrinks. Thus, there are different space depending on the relationship between the persons communicating. In general, there are four types of space people use while communicating.

- (i) **Public Space (12 Feet or more):** This is the least personal of the four zones, and is typically used when a person is delivering a formal speech. A powerful or high-profile person, such as CEO of a company maintains this distance.
- (ii) **Social Space (4-12 Feet):** It extends from 4 feet to 12 feet away from the body. This distance is optimum for professional or social conversation, but not for the personal or intimate communication. Normally while conducting Board's meetings, this space is maintained, because it reduces the possibility of any impropriety. In fact, in the classrooms, this space is maintained which provides better chances of the interaction of students with the teacher. After the class, students interact with the teacher standing four to five feet away, keeping them in the other part of the social zone, typical for professional interactions. However for discussing some personal problem, student may come in the inner part of the social zone of the teacher.
- (iii) **Personal Space (1.5 – 4 Feet):** This is also known as "Personal Space Bubble". It starts from the body and extends to four feet. This is the zone for communicating with friends and close acquaintances. Although two persons talking to each other are quite close, still they talk friendly but not intimately. This is the reason why even friends feel uncomfortable if they spend too much time in this zone. In fact, this zone is divided into two subzones. The outer personal zone extending from 2.5 to 4 feet is useful for private conversations. With the people who are not interpersonal close. Professional private conversations usually take place in this zone. The inner-personal zone extends from 1.5 to 2.5 feet and is reserved for the people who are interpersonally close or are trying to be close. In this subzone, people can touch other while talking displaying their closeness.
- (iv) **Intimate Space**

If people come closer than 1.5 feet, they enter intimate zone. This zone is reserved for closest friends, family and intimate partners. A breach of this space can be comforting in same context, but may be annoying and frightening in others.

2.3.7 Appearance and Artifacts

In non-verbal communication appearance also plays an important role, because the first impression on the other person created by how one looks. Appearance has two components: physical characteristics and the artifacts i.e. how the body is covered or adorned. Factors, such as height, physique, shape, weight, etc. contribute to making the physical appearance attractive or otherwise. Although to some extent, one does not have control over these aspects, research shows that an attractive personality has distinct advantage in initiating a communication. Natural physical disadvantage can be some extent overcome by covering the body with attractive clothes and other artifacts, such as jewellery, visible body art, hair style and other political, social and cultural symbols. According to a research, these changes may induce others to get involved in communication.

It is important to wear clothing appropriate to the occasion. Your credibility can be determined by how you dress. Equally important is well fitting and appropriate fitting clothes. When buttons pucker, you draw attention to your body size exceeding your clothes allotment. The choices we make in the colors we wear, clothing, hairstyle and makeup are all a means of nonverbal communication. Colour psychology has demonstrated that different colours can invoke changes in mood. Physiological reactions of others, their judgment and interpretations can be altered by our appearance. For example, if a woman attending an academic conference wears a highly colourful heavy saree with lot of jewellery, she will be an object of attention with ridicule. On the other hand, if the same woman attends a wedding party in a very simple saree without jewellery, again she may be looked down. Thus, one has to choose artifacts according to the occasion. Physiological reactions of others, their judgment and interpretations can be altered by our appearance.

2.3.8 Paralanguage

Any non-verbal action that supports words is called paralanguage, which is also known as vocalic. According to a study, up to 90 per cent of communication is nonverbal. Getting one's message across is made easier through voice inflection, facial expression and body gestures.

The Scottish academic David Abercrombie commented that while we speak with our vocal organs, we converse with our entire bodies. Linguistic scholars have concluded that communication goes far beyond the words we speak and into the realm of inferred messages and vocal qualifiers. "The boundaries of paralanguage," says Peter Matthews, "are (unavoidably) imprecise."

David Abercrombie remarked, "We speak with our vocal organs, but we converse with our entire bodies. ... Paralinguistic phenomena occur alongside spoken language, interact with it, and produce together with it a total system of communication. . . . The study of paralinguistic behavior is part of the study of conversation: the conversational use of spoken language cannot be properly understood unless paralinguistic elements are taken into account."

Owen Hargie, Christine Saunders, and David Dickson commented, "Paralinguistics is commonly referred to as that which is left after subtracting the verbal content from speech. The simple cliché, language is what is said, paralanguage is how it is said, can be misleading because frequently how something is said determines the precise meaning of what is said."

For example, while speaking, we may change our tone, accent, pitch, whisper or shout, emphasise certain words. All this comes under paralanguage. Thus paralanguage refers to the non-verbal elements of communication made advertently or inadvertently while speaking.

Often paralinguistics was considered as the "neglected stepchild" in language studies, linguists and other researchers have recently demonstrated greater interest in the field. The rise in recent decades of non-face-to-face communication through email, text messaging, and social media led to the use of emoticons as a substitute for paralanguage.

Not all cultures interpret these [nonverbal](#) cues the same way, which can cause confusion when people of [different backgrounds](#) are trying to communicate.

For example in India, speaking loudly conveys authority and speaking softly conveys submission. But on the other hand, Indians are often perceived as brash for their loudness by Europeans. In India also, people of different regions speak with different pitch.

2.4 EFFECTIVE NON VERBAL COMMUNICATION

You have learnt the verbal and non-verbal communications. Let us now learn how the non-verbal communication can be improved.

It is not only what you say that is important, but it is how you say it that can make the difference to the recipients. Nonverbal messages are an essential component of communication in the communication process.

One should be aware of nonverbal behaviour in the communication process for three major reasons:

- An awareness of nonverbal behaviour will allow you to become better receiver of messages.
For example in U.S.A., one expresses his/her appreciation by showing thumb upward, whereas in India, it is used to request for a lift.
- You will become a better sender of signals that reinforce your idea of communication or intention of communication.
For example, these days, emojis have become very popular while responding to the messages on Whatsapp, e-mail, etc.
- This mode of communication increases the degree of the perceived psychological closeness between yourself and receiver.
For example, sometimes an emoji conveys your response to a message better than words.

Bovee, Thill and Schatzmen have suggested the following to improve non verbal communication skills.

A. Pay close attention to non verbal signals

1. Avoid giving conflicting signals.
2. Try to be as honest as possible in communicating your emotions.
3. Smile genuinely. Faking a smile is obvious to the observer.
4. Maintain the eye contact your audience expects.

5. Be aware of your posture and of the gesture you use.
6. Try to use appropriate vocal signals while minimizing unintentional messages.
7. Imitate the appearance of the people you want to impress.
8. Respect your audience's comfort zone.
9. Adopt a handshake that matches your personality and intention.
10. Be aware of varying attitudes towards time.
11. Use touch only when appropriate.

B. Interpret nonverbal signals carefully.

1. Be aware that people may give false nonverbal cues.
2. Remember, few gestures convey meaning in and of themselves.
3. Consider nonverbal signals in the context of situation and culture.

Check Your Progress – B

1. What is haptics?

2. Give an example when silence may be a preferred way of communication.

3. Define paralanguage.

4. What is difference between silence and non-verbal communication?

5. Fill in the blanks.

- (i) To communicate by body language is called
- (ii) The four types of facial expression distinctly reveal,,, and
- (iii) In a confident posture, one walks, holding head, keeping gaze at level and pulling shoulders
- (iv) Haptics is the study of non-verbal communication that is transmitted via
- (v) Personal space ranges from to feet.

2.5 LET US SUM UP

Communication may be of two types: Verbal communication and non-verbal communication. In verbal communication, message is communicated in the form of words. It can be in oral, written, video and audio-video and silence forms. Non-verbal type of communication includes body language, gestures, facial expression, etc. Although non-verbal communication often supplements verbal communication, it may be the only one also. Body language is called kinesics. Posture of a person while speaking indicates his mental state, relaxed, confident, attractive or impatient. Gesture is another body language using particularly hands and face. Haptics is the study of the non-verbal communication that is transmitted via the sense of touch. Proxemics refers to the study of human space and distance in communication. There are four types of space people follow while communicating: public space, social space, personal space and intimate space. Appearance and artifacts also play some role in non-verbal communication. It is important to wear clothing appropriate to the occasion. Your credibility can be determined by how you dress. Equally important is well fitting and appropriate fitting clothes. When buttons pucker, you draw attention to your body size exceeding your clothes allotment. Color psychology has demonstrated that different colors can invoke changes in mood. Physiological reactions of others, their judgment and interpretations can be altered by our appearance

Any non-verbal action that supports speech is called paralanguage also known as vocalic. Linguistic scholars have concluded that communication goes far beyond the words we speak and into the realm of inferred messages and vocal qualifiers. Not all cultures interpret these [nonverbal](#) cues the same way, which can cause confusion when people of [different backgrounds](#) are trying to communicate.

2.6 KEY WORDS

Personal Traits: Some characteristics of a person.

Coherently: Logically connected or consistently.

Precision: Accuracy

Statistics: Numerical facts or data

Contradictions: Inconsistency, i.e. opposite.

Boredom: Weariness, without interest.

2.7 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

A 5 (i) listener, (ii) feedback, (iii) response, (iv) Supplements,
(v) the best way.

A 5 (i) Kinesics, (ii) happiness, sadness, fear, anger (iii) straight, high, eye,
and back, (iv) touch (v) 1.5 to 4.5 feet

2.8 TERMINAL QUESTIONS

1. What is meant by oral communication? Discuss its advantages and disadvantages. How can oral communication skills be improved?
2. Describe visual and audio-visual communication with suitable examples.
3. How does silence facilitate verbal communication? Explain some situations when silence is the golden way of communication?
4. Discuss proxemics. Explain different types of space with the help of suitable examples.
5. “Paralanguage is a non-verbal communication, but it is always used in conjunction with a verbal communication”. Elaborate.



UNIT 4 COMMUNICATION

Structure

- 4.0 Objectives
- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 What is Communication?
- 4.3 Types of Communication
- 4.4 Elements of Communication
- 4.5 Verbal and Non-verbal Communication
- 4.6 Communication Networks
- 4.7 Communication : Barriers and Bridges
 - 4.7.1 Communication Barriers
 - 4.7.2 Communication Bridges
- 4.8 Ten Commandments of Good Communication
- 4.9 Let Us Sum Up
- 4.10 Self-assessment Test
- 4.11 Further Readings

4.0 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you should be able to:

- define this enabling instrument;
- learn about the types and means of communication;
- understand and evaluate the elements of communication and communication networks;
- identify barriers and bridges in communication; and
- list out Ten Commandments of good communication.

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In organisations, it is only through communication that all the important functions of information handling, instructing, directing, integrating and monitoring are carried out. In person-to-person relationships, mutual trust, understanding and cooperation can be achieved only with the help of meaningful communication. Interpersonal conflicts and misunderstandings arise where there is a lack of communication. Thus, it can be seen how important communication is in organisation as well as in social situation.

In the hospitals, most of the tasks are characterised by speed and accuracy. At times even a slight deviation from the predetermined plan could spell disaster. From this can be deduced the magnitude of information handling that would be required in the hospital set ups and the need for emphasis on communication.

If the study of communication is enlarged to provide a deep and insightful knowledge, it would include the entire gamut of psychological sub-disciplines like perception, cognition, linguistics, motivation etc. It would also extend into organisational areas such as structure, hierarchy authority and management functions. Of necessity, the present study will have to be limited in scope. The objective of the unit on communication is to create an understanding of the process of communication and how it is related to the structure of organisation, and to enable one to relate this knowledge to one's effective task performance.

4.2 WHAT IS COMMUNICATION?

Communication has been defined in numerous ways. The one chosen for the purpose of the present study is: 'Communication is a mutual exchange of facts, thoughts and perception resulting in common understanding of all parties. This does not imply agreements.' An examination of this definition reveals the following ingredients as being important in communication:

- Communication is purpose oriented.
- It is a two-way process.
- Psycho-social aspects like thoughts, feelings, emotions are involved in communication.

Communication in organisations does not mean mere exchange of messages. It embraces a great deal more. The values, prejudices, feelings and personality factors of all the participants concerned come into play. Used appropriately, communication can be the most effective instrument for growth and development of organisations and their members. Its absence or inappropriate use can engender conflicts and problems.

Peter Drucker identifies four fundamentals of communication which show the nature of the process. These are briefly stated below:

- **Communication is Perception.** This implies that it is only the recipient who communicates, because if he doesn't perceive what is transmitted no communication takes place.
- **Communication is Expectation.** People perceive only what they expect to. The unexpected is ignored or misunderstood.
- **Communication Makes Demands.** Experiments have shown that words with unpleasant emotional charges or threats tend to be suppressed while those with pleasant associations are retained longer. In other words, communication makes a demand on the recipient in terms of his emotional preference or rejection. It is also demands him to become somebody or do something.

Information is logic, formal and impersonal, while communication is perception. The less tied up information is with human factors, the more valid and reliable it becomes.

4.3 TYPES OF COMMUNICATION

As said earlier, communication occurs in all social situations. It can also take place within a person. Communication is generally categorised into three types:

- **Organisational Communication.** Everyone is familiar with this type of communication. It is a work-a-day experience. It encompasses generation or collection of data, collation and dissemination of information, decision making and implementation, and management of conflict.
- **Interpersonal Communication.** It is one that takes place between two persons. It is characterised by active interaction. The quality of encounter and the relationship, that occurs between two people through such transaction determines the extent to which growth and development are enabled. Mutual trust, understanding and consideration grow out of positive transaction.
- **Intrapersonal Communication.** Human beings are given to self-reflection and introspection. It is a kind of communication one holds with one's self. The psychologist CG Jung observed, 'Self is a product of intrapersonal communication or the behaviour that results from the dialogue between conscious experience and unconscious values.' The range and depth of a person's experience of the physical and abstract world around him, his self-awareness, and concept of self are determined by the quality of intrapersonal communication. Further, it is the ability to become aware of one's self that helps one understand others. Thus intrapersonal communication indirectly influences interpersonal communication.

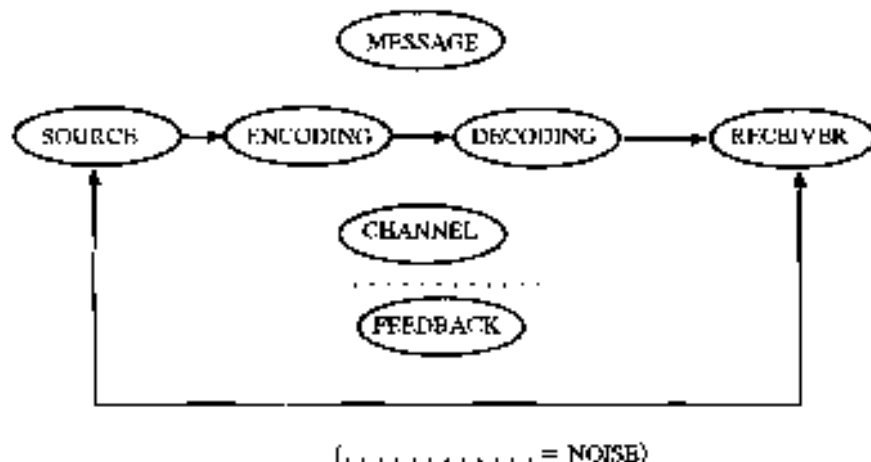
There are many means one can choose from to initiate and continue communication. It

could be verbal, non-verbal, vocal or non-vocal. The following matrix shows the various combinations and the resultant channels one can use for communicating :

	Vocal	Non-vocal
Verbal	Spoken Word	Written Word
Non-Verbal	Scream Grunt Inflection	Gesture Spatial Relationship Facial Expression

4.4 ELEMENTS OF COMMUNICATION

One of the simplified models of communication is shown below to illustrate the elements in the process of communication :



Source: In an organisation situation the source is normally a person with ideas, intentions, information, and a purpose for communication. One of the prime responsibilities of the source is to ensure that the communication initiated is within the field of perception of the receiver.

Encoding: One of the prerequisites of communication is to establish a common base of understanding between sender and receiver. Encoding is a process which partially achieves this. It translates the concepts of the source into symbols and forms.

Message: Is the 'Hardware' or the physical product of the source. The shape and form that message assumes are determined by the channel that would be used and the speed intended.

Channel: Channel of communication is the mode that is used for conveying the message from the source to the receiver. A message could be verbal, written, face-to-face, telephonic, mass-media etc. The appropriateness of channel selection contributes to effectiveness of communication.

Decoder & Receiver: Real communication takes place only when the recipient takes cognizance of what is emitted. The most important of the elements in the process is decoding the incoming message in terms of the receiver's past experience, expectations etc. Most problems in communication situations occur when there is incongruence between source encoder and decoder-receiver. In organisations this is one of the key areas for managerial attention for improving communication.

Feedback: The source or sender ought to know the impact of his message on the recipient. Firstly, he has to be assured that it has been received in full as intended and secondly he should know the message is understood and its contents have had the desired influence. This element, therefore, has to be inbuilt in the system of communication. Surprisingly, feedback system is not so common in organisations, particularly those with a rigid hierarchy.

The process of communication is susceptible to distortion, breakdown, or interference along any of the elements. There are numerous organisational and human causes which contribute to noise in communication situations.

4.5 VERBAL AND NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

A communication in which words are used can be called verbal communication. Communication over long distance takes place usually through verbal communication. As an adjunct to this is the non-verbal communication which refers to the use of body language in communicating ideas from the sender to the receiver. Non-verbal communication most often takes place unconsciously, and it may either supplement the verbal communication, or may at times negate the very purpose of verbal communication.

Let us examine each of these one by one.

The main characteristics of verbal communications are the use of words, either written or spoken.

Written communications include personal letters, memoranda, policy and procedure manuals and notices placed on the notice boards.

Examples of oral communication are conferences, committee meetings, telephone conversation, loudspeaker announcements, etc.

Both written and oral communications have their merits and demerits.

A written communication has the advantage of being easily verified and of being more precisely defined if there arises a need for subsequent correction. Spoken messages cannot always be verified so easily.

Secondly, because a written communication is likely to be a permanent record, we are more particular in making it precise and accurate.

Thirdly, lengthy and complicated messages are better understood if they are put in writing. It would be difficult to understand and retain a lengthy message if it were only in oral form.

Together with these advantages, written communications have some drawbacks also. Some of these are:

- Firstly, it is a slower method of communication if we considered the total amount of time involved from the formulation of idea by the sender to the understanding of the idea by the receiver. A written communication competes with all other written material that reaches the desk of an executive. As such there can be a gap between the time when a communication reaches the manager's desk and the time when he reads it. Moreover, if clarifications are needed because the message is not clear to the receiver, further delay would take place.
- Secondly, despite the fact that a greater degree of preciseness is aimed at while preparing a written communication, there is always a possibility of ambiguity or lack of clarity creeping in leading to misunderstanding on the part of the receiver. Clarifications naturally mean delay.
- Lastly, over-reliance on written communication can lead to too much of paper-work in the organisation. This not only consumes time, money and energy, but also indicates a lack of trust among the employees of the organisation. It has been observed that when trust is low and suspicions are high in an organisation, an over-reliance on written communication is likely to occur.

Oral Communication

Although an organisation cannot function without written communications of various kinds, yet by far the greater percentage of information is communicated orally. It has been observed that managers spend 60 to 80 percent of their work time in oral communication. Oral communication has the merit of being more rapid. Generally, the spoken word is quicker and less complicated way of getting one's ideas across another person. Again, it offers the potential of two-way information flow, and therefore less possibility of misunderstanding the communication. The creation of a less formal atmosphere and generation of fellow feelings are the additional advantages brought about through oral communication.

However, the oral communication is not entirely free from defects. It is less effective as a means of presenting complicated and lengthy data. It is also subject of misinterpretation and the effects of barriers arising from interpersonal relationships.

Can you determine which of the two, oral or written, is a better means of communication? You will see that the choice between the two is, generally speaking, determined by the situation. However, the use of both together will very often strengthen and reinforce a message.

Take your own case. The material in your hand is the written communication which will be fortified subsequently through oral communication in the contact classes or educational TV programmes. The two together, we hope, will further increase your understanding of the concepts and application of management.

Choosing Your Words

You have read earlier that communication refers to the transmission of meaning from the sender to the receiver. Such transmission takes place through the use of symbols, whether verbal or non-verbal. In verbal communication the symbol is a word. In order that the transmission of meaning takes place it is important that the particular symbol (word) used must create within the mind of the receiver the same image which was in the mind of the sender of the communication. It is only then that the basic purpose of communication which is to influence the behaviour of the receiver, will be achieved. It has been found that words do not necessarily have commonly understood meanings. The abstract words like 'participation' or 'democracy' suffer from difficulty that different people are likely to attach different meanings to these words. The greater the use of such abstract words, the bigger the difficulty in bringing about an understanding of the message and a change in behaviour through communication.

Keith Davis in his well known book 'Human Behaviour at Work : Organisational Behaviour', has suggested a few guidelines for making verbal communication more effective. These are:

- Use simple words and phrases.
- Use short and familiar words.
- Use personal pronouns (such as 'you') whenever appropriate.
- Give illustrations and examples.
- Use short sentences and paragraphs.
- Use active verbs such as in 'The manager plans'.
- Economise on adjectives.
- Express thoughts logically and in a direct way.
- Avoid unnecessary words.

Use of Body Language

In determining the effectiveness of communication, in the sense of effecting a change in behaviour, non-verbal communication has an important role to play. Experts in the field of human communication have found that, in a typical message between two persons, only about 7 percent of the meaning or content of the message is carried by the actual words being used. Another 38 percent of the message is carried by one's tone of voice (which includes pacing, timing, pauses, accents). The major part of 55 percent of the content of the message is in non-verbal form, in other words, in the form of our physical attitude going along with our verbal message. The physical attitude is also referred to as body language.

Non-verbal communication can take place with our actions or with our body gestures. For example, a manager who pounds his fist on the table while announcing that from now on participative management will be practiced in his organisation creates a credibility gap between what he says and what he practices. A manager who says that he believes in an open door policy for all his employees but is busy with his own files while an employee is giving him certain suggestions towards improvement in work

environment, is making non-verbal communication quite in conflict with his verbal communication. In such situations the non-verbal message is the stronger one and the verbal message will cease to be effective.

Body gesture that 'communicate' may relate to your handshake, your smile, your eye-contact, your posture while standing or sitting, your facial expression while listening, the slung of your shoulders, indeed, the movement of any part of your body. You must, therefore, be watchful of your body language so that it does not contradict your verbal message. This is indeed difficult because the body language is so involuntary that we are not even aware of it.

Some of the non-verbal actions, which assist communication, include:

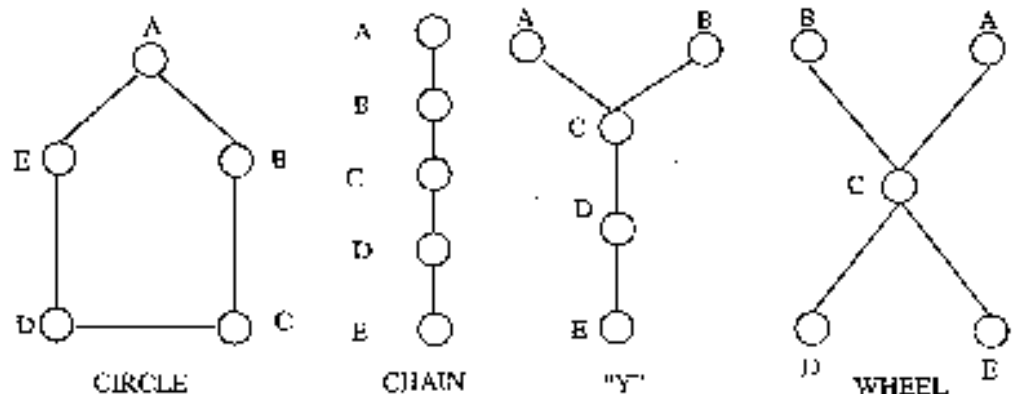
- Maintaining eye contact.
- Occasionally nodding the head in agreement.
- Smiling and showing animation.
- Leaning towards the speaker.
- Speaking at a moderate rate, in a quiet tone.

Some of the non-verbal action that impede the communication are :

- Looking away or turning away from the speaker.
- Sneering or using other contemptuous gesture.
- Closing your eyes.
- Using an unpleasant tone of voice.
- Speaking too slow or too fast.

4.6 COMMUNICATION NETWORKS

There are different patterns or networks of communication, each of which has its own characteristics. The structure of the network influences speed and accuracy of message handling, and performance and motivation of the participants. Some of the most common structures are shown below:



Around 1950, Leavitt and his group carried out experiments to evaluate the effectiveness of the different networks. For each position in every network, they worked out indices of centrality and peripherality. Network functioning and participants' behaviour were then related to these indices to arrive at a conceptual framework. Some of the findings of the researchers are :

- **Patterning:** The 'Wheel' was constant in its operation and peripheral positions sending information to the central point (C) which worked out answers and decisions. 'Y' operated so as to give the central position (C) complete decision making authority. Organisation in this took longer than wheel to evolve, but remained stable after evolving. In the 'Chain' information was sent from both ends to the central position (C). Organisation took longer than other two to stabilise. The 'Circle' had no consistent operational organisation.

- **Message handling** was faster in Wheel than Circle. Circle used more messages than other to solve problems.
- Leaders emerged invariably in Wheel and "Y" but less frequently in Chain and Circle. In the Wheel, position (C) was always considered the leader.
- Only in the "Wheel" people were able to recognise the organisation.
- Enjoyment of participants of their jobs was in the order of — Circle, Chain, Y, Wheel, Circle-being the most. Circle members sent more informational message and replies than members of any other pattern.
- The persons holding the central position and greater probability of becoming leader and also deriving job satisfaction.
- The Circle displayed remarkable ability to adapt to sudden changes and confused situations which others, particularly the Wheel, did not possess.

To summarise, the study revealed that the network affected the behaviour of participants in a communication situation. The aspects of behaviour observed were accuracy, total activity, member satisfaction. The position a person occupied in a pattern was found to influence satisfaction and leadership emergence.

Activity 1

Identify various types of communication networks that exist in your organisation, which is the most effective one and why.

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List the channel you use for communication in your organisation with

Your Superiors	Your Subordinates
1)	1)
2)	2)
3)	3)
4)	4)
5)	5)

4.7 COMMUNICATION : BARRIERS AND BRIDGES

The process of communication is very sensitive to distortions, which are easily caused by the human element involved in it. These distortions are the barriers to communication, and they can be encountered at any point between the source and the receiver. Any one of the numerous factors can set a road block to the flow of communication, causing ultimately total breakdown. The origin of most of the hospital maladies and inter-personal frictions can be traced to breakdown of communication.

The environmental conditions in the hospital services are such that a free flowing communication is very essential. The one most important binding factor in

organisational relationships in the hospital is human interaction, which cannot take place without effective communication. Any breakdown in communication could be costly, even disastrous.

4.7.1 Communication Barriers

While the number and type of barriers abound, they are being considered hereby grouping them on the basis of their relevance to various types of communication. Some of the barriers, common to all situations, will also be discussed.

- **Perceptual Problems:** Perception plays important role in communication, in that it determines how events are seen and interpreted, and what meanings are attached to symbols. However, both sender and receiver can induce distortions in communication through incorrect perception. Stereotyping, prejudice and selectivity are few of the common problems that cause distortion. There are many other similar problems related to perception that undermine effective communication.
- **Lack of Listening:** Although its effect is more pronounced in face-to-face interpersonal communication, lack of listening can be resent as a barrier in other situations also. Absence of motivation, preoccupation of mind, lack of interest and such like reasons can be attributed of poor listening on the part of the receiver.
- **Semantic Problem:** This is one of the most critical problems in communication. Words can be interpreted in different ways by different people because they denote a number of things and also carry certain connotations. Perception, frame of reference and individual experience are some of the factors that influence meanings of word. If the receiver does not perceive meanings of words in message as intended by the sender, communication breakdown can easily occur. Sarcasm, insinuations and indirect remarks, most frequently encountered barriers, fall under this category.
- **Premature Evaluation:** Most people have the tendency, in whatever type of communication they are participating, to start evaluating what they receive from the very beginning. They make certain conclusions prematurely, based on scanty data and their own frame of reference. Such premature judgement could cause the receiver to terminate receiving the message midway. At least he will be biased heavily during the reception of the rest of the message.
- The message content itself could turn into a barrier in certain situations. If what is being conveyed is too complex for the receiver he may show no interest and ignore the message completely. On the other hand, too simple an idea in a communication may also be dismissed by the receiver as unworthy and inconsequential.
- The status and credibility of the sender of the message also influence how the receiver perceives it. For instance, if the source of a particular communication is of dubious standing, or usually in the habit of sending its message frequently the receivers are likely to be negatively biased in their perception.
- **Observation vs Inference:** One of the most common problems in communication is the sender transmitting, not what he actually observes but, the inferences he makes from the observations and at the same time assumes that the receiver will be able to distinguish one from the other. Thus, information becomes subjective opinion whereas it should be objective fact. Decisions made on the basis of such information are bound to be 'influenced'.
- It is not within the ambit of this paper to go into the intricate aspect of Intra-Personal Communication and the related problems. However, the importance of intra-personal communication in personal growth and development needs no emphasis. Communication with one's self can be severely hampered by inhibition, limitation of vocabulary, or defensive mechanism pre-dominating.
- It is in organisational situations that one encounters numerous barriers and problems related to communication. These are contributed by the very structure, relationship and processes in an organization. Some of the frequently occurring barriers are examined here.

4.7.2 Communication Bridges

The numerous possible barriers to communication point up the magnitude of administrators' task in structuring and maintaining effective communication system in organisations. The effort involved in obviating, or overcoming the roadblocks is enormous indeed. The examination of various barriers itself has given a fairly clear idea as to what should be done to eliminate, or at least minimise the effect, the problem sources.

Following are some of the general hints for improving communication :

- Make notes where necessary.
- Give information in sequentially organised form.
- Do not take it for granted that the words and symbols are understood in a similar manner by all concerned.
- Make the distinction between observation and inference very clear.
- Simplify messages as far as possible.
- Slow down oral transmission.
- Use multi-media for sending message.
- Repeat message where necessary.
- Emphasise the important.
- Keep the link in the chain unbroken.
- Make a preview and review for each message transmitted.

In order to improve the sending of message the source should take following measures:

- Analyse the characteristics of the receiver and evaluate competence for perceiving and understanding communication.
- Keep the receiver in mind throughout transmission.
- Be aware of the impact made on the receiver through a well established feedback system.
- Improve transmission skill through a conscious effort and constant practice.

Improving Receiving: The receiver has certain responsibilities in making communication effective and the guidelines for this element are given below :

- Adopt a positive attitude.
- Shut out distractions.
- Look for purpose in each message.
- Be alert to signals that pre-empt what is to come.
- Look for summary of what has gone before.
- Evaluate supporting materials.
- Look for non-verbal cues to perceive the message correctly.

4.8 TEN COMMANDMENTS OF GOOD COMMUNICATION

As a Hospital Administrator, your prime responsibility is to get things done through people. However, sound your ideas or well-reasoned your decisions, they become effective only as they are transmitted to others and therefore, is your most vital management tool. On the job you communicate not only with words but through your apparent attitudes and your actions. How well you manage depends upon how well you communicate in this broad sense. The ten commandments are designed to help

you improve your skills as a manager by improving your skills of communication – with superiors, subordinates, and associates.

- Seek to clarify your ideas before communicating. The more systematically we analyse the problem or idea to be communicated, the clearer it becomes. This is the first step toward effective communication. Many communications fail because of inadequate planning. Good planning must consider the goals and attitudes of those who will receive the communication and those who will be affected by it.
- Examine the true purpose of each communication. Before you communicate, ask yourself what you really want to accomplish with your message—obtain information, initiate action, change another person's attitude? Identify your most important goal and then adapt your language, tone, and total approach to serve that specific objective. Don't try to accomplish too much with each communication. The sharper the focus of your message the greater its chances of success.
- Consider the total physical and human setting whenever you communicate. Meaning and intent are conveyed by more than words alone. Many other factors influence the overall impact of a communication, and the administrator must be sensitive to the total setting in which he communicates, for example, the circumstances under which you make an announcement or render a decision; the physical setting—whether you communicate in private, or otherwise; the social climate that pervades in work relationships within the company or a department and sets the tone of its communications; custom and past practices—the degree to which your communication conforms to, or departs from, the expectations of your audience. Be constantly aware of the total setting in which you communicate. Like all living things, communication must be capable of adapting to its environment.
- Consult with others, where appropriate, in planning communications. Frequently it is desirable or necessary to seek the participation of others in planning a communication or developing the facts on which to base it. Such consultation often helps to lend additional insight and objectivity to your message.
- Be candid, while you communicate, of the overtones as well as the basic content of your message. Your tone of voice, your expression, your apparent receptiveness to responses of others—all have tremendous impact on those you wish to reach.
- Take the opportunity, when it arises, to convey something of help or value to the receiver. Consideration of the other person's interests and needs—the habit of trying to look at things from his point of view will frequently open up opportunities to convey something of immediate benefit or long-range value to him.
- Follow up your communication. Our best efforts at communication may be wasted, and we may never know whether we have succeeded in expressing our true meaning and intent, if we do not follow up to see how well we have put our message across.
- Communicate for tomorrow as well as today. While communications may be aimed primarily at meeting the demands of an immediate situation, they must be planned with the past in mind if they are to maintain consistency in the receiver's view; but, most important of all, they must be consistent with long-range interests and goals.
- Be sure your actions support your communications. In the final analysis, the most persuasive kind of communication is not what you say but what you do.
- Last, but by no means least, seek not only to be understood but to understand be a good listener. When we start talking we often cease to listen—in that larger sense of being attuned to the other person's unspoken reactions and attitudes.

4.9 LET US SUM UP

Communication is the transfer of information from one person to another. Successful communication is much more than mere transfer of information—it is the transfer of meaning and understanding between two persons.

Communication has paved the way for modern civilisation and good communication is the foundation for sound management. No administrative activity is possible without communication of some kind, and the major part of an administrator's working time is devoted to communicating.

Communication is accomplished through a process in which the sender encodes an idea which is transmitted through a channel to a receiver who decodes the message and gains an understanding of the idea of the sender. The reverse process of feedback also follows the same pattern. During the entire process, interference is created by 'noise' which can lead to distortion of the communication.

Communication takes place either orally or in writing. It could be just one-way or two-way, which allows the sender and receiver to interact with each other. A two-way communication is regarded better as it brings about understanding through clarity of the message. In an organisation communication may take place in several directions upward, downward, lateral and diagonal.

Words either written or oral convey a very small part of the communication; most of it is transmitted through non-verbal gestures. A manager ought to be careful lest his non-verbal gestures contradict his verbal message.

Communication within an organisation flows either through formally designed authority channels or through informal channels spontaneously formed and cutting across authority levels. Informal channels can have both positive and negative sides. Cluster chain network of informal communication permits a rapid flow of information through the formation of a grapevine. Formal communication is transmitted through several kinds of networks. The choice of a network will depend upon considerations of the complexity of a task, speed in decision-making in order to adapt to a change, and the satisfaction of members desired.

Interference in communication is caused by semantic, psychological and organisational barriers. In order to achieve effectiveness in communication, administrator consciously try to lower these barriers.

4.10 SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST

- 1) Write down the elements of Communication Process.
- 2) Identify 'noises' in the communication in your hospital.
- 3) Walk into your superior's doors and communicate with him on some issue and note the non-verbal cues and come to your office and record them.
- 4) You have received a telephonic message that one of your doctors have been hurt in a road traffic accident and requires urgent evacuation to your hospital. What are channel/methods of communication in this situation?
- 5) There is an acute shortage of a particular antibiotics in your hospital. What are channel you will use to reach all concerned at the earliest?
- 6) Your hospital has to participate in 'Polio Polio Programme'. What are all action as Hospital Administrator you will take to achieve maximum success?

4.11 FURTHER READINGS

- Chal. Harold Koontz (1986), *Essentials of Management*, McGraw Hill Book Company: New York.
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The Child's Language And The Teacher - A Handbook

Krishna Kumar
United Nations Children's Fund 1986

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Appendix I

Chapter 1.

What do we mean by language?

Most of us are so used to defining language as a means of communication that we often forget its usefulness as a means to think, feel, and react to things. This wider use of language is extremely important for people who want to work with young children, for in childhood language plays a formative role in the development of the child's personality and abilities. It acts as a subtle, yet strong, force, shaping the child's perception of the world, interests, capabilities, and even values and attitudes. This handbook, particularly this chapter, will explain how.

First, however, we need to be clear about some thing which usually creates a lot of controversy. School teachers are used to thinking of 'Hindi' and 'English' or some other language as a school subject; so they would expect this book to be about the teaching of one specific language. Experts, on the other hand, are used to making strong distinctions between the child's first language, second language, and so on. Both teachers and experts expect that a book about language teaching should start by describing the rules that govern a particular language, its common structures, its vocabulary, and so on.

This book does nothing of this sort. It is certainly not a guide for teaching this or that particular language. It is about the functions that any language performs in the lives of children. Every child in the world -- whatever his or her mother tongue -- uses language to fulfil certain immediate purposes. One major purpose is to make sense of the world, and in fulfilling this purpose language acts as a marvellous tool. Unless we are able to take the child's point of view and understand the functions that language plays in the child's life, we cannot properly determine our role as teachers, caretakers, or parents.

Language and Doing

Children's use of language is closely related to the things they do with their hands and bodies and the objects they come in contact with. Words and action go together in childhood. Actions and experiences create the need for words, and words provide access to an experience after it is over. With the help of words, children enrich their relationship with the objects they come in touch with. On the other hand, words without action or contact with objects remain empty and lifeless for the child. Words like 'cat', 'run', 'fall', 'blue', 'river' and 'rough' mean very little to the child unless these words have first been used in a context where the child was actively involved with the object or in an act. Only after such involvement do these words become associated with an image, and become available for meaningful use in future.

This relationship between words and the child's physical experiences poses a unique responsibility on adults, especially teachers. As a teacher you may expect that parents have already provided a wide range of experiences to the children who are now under your care. This may not be true for the great majority of parents. Many parents either do not feel confident enough to allow their children to come in contact with a wide range of objects in early childhood or they do not have the time to accommodate the much slower pace at which children see and do things. Often, adults find it a nuisance if the child stands at the tap with her fingers in the stream of water for half an hour, or if she puts all the utensils on the floor, or if she wants to open and close an umbrella countless times. Sometimes, in order to avoid any possibility of damage to objects or harm to the child, adults prohibit the child from all but a narrow range of experiences.

Whatever the parents may or may not have done, the job of the teacher is fairly clear. She must create an environment which permits children to make continuous attempts to link the use of

language with life's experiences and objects. This can be done by ensuring

- * that children bring to school a variety of objects (such as leaves, stones, feathers, twigs, broken things) and talk about them, read about them and write about them;
- * that children are asked to talk, write and read about the experiences they have had outside the school;
- * that children are taken out of the classroom to see the world around the school so they can inspect ordinary objects carefully (objects such as a broken bridge, a muddy pit, a dead insect, a nest with eggs) and talk about them. Such study-visits in the school's immediate neighbourhood can provide valuable resources for language-learning as this handbook will later show.

So a school where children are not doing a variety of things with their hands, where they are mostly sitting and listening to the teacher, and where there are no objects to touch, manipulate, break and re-make, cannot be a good place to develop language skills.

Things they do with language

Those who have studied children's language tell us that children start using language for a startling variety of purposes as soon as they have acquired mastery over basic abilities involved in talking. What follows is a discussion of some of the purposes.

Directing one's own activities:

Children often talk about what they are doing at the time they are doing it. It is a kind of private commentary on their own action. Often, it seems, the commentary helps them in carrying on with the activity for a greater length of time. It helps them maintain their interest in it. It does not matter if someone listens to the commentary. For example, in a group of small children making tunnels or castles with damp sand, each child may make a separate commentary and often it may be no more than an audible mumble.

Observe a child (of any one age from 3 to 8) when he is doing something -- including playing -- all by himself. Listen carefully to what he says. Make similar observation of many different children -- both boys and girls, and of different ages. Did you find individual differences in their solitary 'talk'? Does the 'talk' help the child sustain his interest in an activity? Why?

Directing others' activities and attention:

This use of language is well known to us as parents and teachers since a lot of our time is spent meeting children's demands. We are usually quite conscious of demands that are of a physical nature, but other kinds of demands are also significant. These other kinds of demands can be intellectual or of an emotional nature. Children use language to draw attention to something that they find curious or attractive. They expect the listener to show interest in what has attracted their

own attention.

If you observe children in a group, you will often find them drawing each other's attention by pointing out something or a characteristic of something they think others might have missed. The importance of this use of language lies in the expectation it expresses. The expectation is that 'others would like to see what I have noticed'. This expectation is based on a deep-seated assumption concerning human relationships and the pleasure of being together. If the person whose attention is being directed does not fulfil the expectation, a basic cause for the development of language gets discouraged.

To play:

For most children from the age of two and a half onwards, words serve as a great resource for play and fun. They repeat words in different tones, distort them, combine them in strange combinations, and enjoy this whole process. They like to use words in situations where they may not be appropriate. They easily learn poems that distort words in this way. In brief, young children treat words as objects to play with. Play with words serves as an enormous outlet for creativity and energy.

Listen to the rhymes that children sing while playing by themselves or in groups, indoors or on the street, skipping, running, jumping, ball-bouncing. If you are observant and careful, you may be able to make a small collection of traditional children's rhymes of your area that are still alive -- despite the invasion of modern media and inert language teaching.

Write out the rhymes you find in a systematic manner. Look for variations and record them. Do not correct what appear to you as examples of bad grammar or distortions of vocabulary.

Children's play-rhymes are a rare resource of highly creative and energetic forms of language. And they are extremely useful means of developing certain basic language skills, such as reading. See the next chapter for suggestions on how to use them.

Following are examples of traditional children's rhymes in two languages:

अक्कड़ बक्कड़ बम्बे बो
अस्सी नब्बे पूरे सौ
सौ में लगा धागा
चोर निकल के भागा

बरसो राम धड़ाके से
बुढ़िया मर गई फाके से

'I am a gold lock'.
'I am a gold key.'
'I am a silver lock'.
'I am a silver key'.
'I am a brass lock'.
'I am a brass key'.
'I am a monk lock.'
'I am a monkey'.
No school today, half holiday.
When we get our holiday we'll all run away.
Where will we run to? Down the slippy lane.
Who will run after us? The teacher with the cane.

Explaining things:

Children talk about things to show their knowledge of 'how' a thing happened. For example, if you ask a child of three how it rained, the child will probably tell you that the sky was covered with grey clouds, then little drops began to fall, and then it rained hard, so hard that you couldn't see anything. In this example, by narrating the sequence of events, the child is explaining how a major event occurred. Stories are born out of this use of language, and in this sense all stories are explanations of things. Of course, not all stories provide reliable or scientific explanations of things. What they represent is our desire to interpret life. Small children want to interpret their life's events just as much as we adults want to explain events that have occurred in the world or in politics.

Collect stories that explain things. You may find many stories of this type in the local folklore, stories that explain why it rains, or how Man discovered fire. For one example of such a story, which explains how elephants lost their ability to fly, see the accompanying box. For suggestions on the use of such stories in language teaching, see chapters on talk and reading.

Elephants in the Sky

Once upon a time and long long ago, elephants living in India could fly. In those days as now, elephants were very big. They were grey in colour, just like some clouds who were their cousins. And like these clouds' the elephants could fly along in the sky, simply by flapping their floppy ears.

Clouds can change shape and the elephants could change their shape too. They could turn into whatever they wanted to be. They could look like a dragon, or a giant kitty-cat. They could look like a castle, a mountain, or a dog running away. Anything.

One hot summer day, some pearly grey elephants were flying along in the sunshine. They soared over a village where little children were playing; over a field where a farmer was ploughing; over a river where a boy was bathing black water- buffaloes, and then up over a forest full of chattering monkeys. But up in the sky, a hot wind was dashing along. It saw the flying elephants. It caught up to them and blew right into their trunks. That wind was like pepper!

The elephants snorted and sneezed -- krr-r-r-r-Frrr-r-r-r-CHOOOO! and they looked for a place to get away from the hot breeze. Below them they saw some big mango trees, fragrant, cool and shady. Slowly the elephants glided down to the biggest mango tree to sit on its branches, away from that hot wind.

It so happened that a teacher and his pupils were sitting under that same tree. It was too hot to stay inside the school that day. The teacher was feeling tired, and the children were restless. They broke their pencils. They got all the answers wrong. They giggled and whispered and squirmed like little mice. They just could not sit still.

The teacher got irritated, he stamped his foot, waving his pointer and shouting at the children. Then he thought to himself -- 'If these children don't behave. I'll say a magic spell and turn them all into little rabbits!'

And he reached over to grab the naughtiest child by the arm. Just then the elephants arrived down from the sky and sat on the branch over the teacher's head.

Cr-r-r-reak.... cr-r-r-r-r-REAK...CRASH!

The branch broke and fell down on the teacher. He fell down too, but the elephants were not worried at all. They quietly flapped their ears and started flying over to the next tree. At that moment, the teacher jumped up and shouted at the elephants -- 'You elephants! You bad elephants! I'll show you! Knock me down, will you? I'll teach you a lesson!' He waved his pointer at the elephants and spoke some magic words.

Slowly, slowly the elephants floated down to the ground. They could not fly anymore. And from that day to this, elephants have walked on the ground. Whenever elephants look up and see the clouds drifting along in the sky, they remember the time when they used to soar along too, changing to whatever shape they wanted, going wherever they pleased.

An Ancient Indian myth retold by Frances Kumar

Representing life:

This use of language is present in all other uses, but we need to study it separately or else we might overlook it. Children, just like adults, often use language to recall the past -- to remember an event, person, or just a small thing. Words help us re-create something that is no more around, and often what has been re-created looks so real that we can go on talking about it for a long time.

Children often represent things and experiences in order to come to terms with them -- to accept something at a deep emotional level. A child who has been frightened by something may talk about it many times over -- until he adjusts to it. Especially when life springs a surprise on the child, he overcomes the surprise (with its uncertainty, confusion and sometimes fear) by repeatedly re-creating the incident with the help of words until the incident becomes a familiar one.

Associating:

When we listen to a story that someone is telling, about his own experience or someone else's, we respond to the story by associating ourselves with the characters and events described in the story. We project ourselves beyond our immediate life, even beyond our restricted past experiences, in order to relate to the story. When a child talks about the feelings of a metal toy, he imagines himself to be the toy. Language allows us to experience vicariously what someone else is going through.

Anticipating:

Things that have not yet occurred, and some of which may not occur at all, form a subject of talk all the time. Children express their fears, plans, expectations and what they think might happen under strange circumstances, frequently. Words allow them to create an image of the future. Sometimes such an image helps in materialising the future; at other times it helps in accepting the future as it comes.

Inquiring and reasoning:

Just about any situation can present a 'problem' that the small child must solve by finding out 'why' something is the way it is. Many problems are of the kind that the small child can successfully solve; for example, why a bus stopped all of a sudden, or why she does not like water to be poured on her head while she has her bath. The little child of three understands these 'problems' although not all children may be able to explain the precise reason in a vocal manner. Some children who can do so are most likely the ones who have heard adults using language to inquire or argue about something and who have been encouraged to do so themselves.

Unlike the 'problems' mentioned above, there are others that a small child cannot grasp in a 'scientific' sense. For example, the real reason 'why it rains' or 'why a tree falls down when the wind is very strong' is beyond the reach of a child of four or five. Yet, even such problems present excellent opportunities for the use of language as a means to reason. It does not matter whether the reason given is accurate or not. What is important is that the child uses language as a means to reason, to inquire about something unknown. The more frequently the child listens to adults using language for this function, the more likely is this function of language to become accessible to the child.

This is a little exercise to find out if you can distinguish the eight different functions of language in children's life we've just discussed. Here are eight examples of children's talk. Assign them to the eight functions.

1. 'The clouds went away and the rain stopped.'
2. 'I'll go to Jaggagga, I will meet Baggagga.'
3. 'Don't do it that way. See, here is the knob.'
4. 'How does water reach so many houses every morning?'
5. 'I'll just put this cup here, then I'll call Ramu.'
6. 'These sweets are like the ones we had when Jeet chacha had come.'
7. 'I'll get a new shirt on Diwali.'
8. 'It was like a bazaar. So many ducks and they were so noisy.'

Clue: 1.Explaining; 2. Play; 3. Directing other's attention; 4. Inquiry; 5. Directing one's own activities; 6. Associating; 7. Anticipating; 8. Representing life.

What we say influences us

One thing we learn about language from this discussion of its various functions in children's lives is that it is a highly flexible medium. It can be adjusted to almost any situation in life. By adjusting it according to the needs of a situation, we improve our adjustment with the situation itself. Daily life provides numerous examples of this process. When we know that someone is angry with us, we respond to his anger by choosing (often unconsciously) words and tone that might shape the situation according to our wish or intention, e.g. we use strong words if we want to fight, or we use mild words and tone if we want to cool down the situation.

We can say that our ability to use language in a flexible manner to a great extent determines our chance of standing up to the great variety of situations that life presents. At one level, our language expresses or shows our response to a situation; at another level, our language shapes the situation that we are facing. Language helps us to come to terms with things that happen around us all the time. It helps us in this way whether we are physically participating in events or simply reflecting on them.

Whether we witness an event physically or not, the language used to re-present it affects our response to it. Thousands of things happen everyday at places far away from us. These things reach us as narratives in a newspaper. In a sense, the newspaper allows us to, create a picture of an event. It is the same thing when a child tells his mother about something he has seen on the street. The picture created by the newspaper or the child is accurate inasmuch as the language used for the narration is accurate. Accuracy is almost always a matter of degree because any use of language reflects the narrator's intention. If the child has seen an accident and was frightened by it, he is likely to convey it in a somewhat exaggerated manner. By exaggerating it, he justifies his fear, and thereby feels better adjusted to the sight he had seen.

Finally, language shapes our expectations. Someone who likes to explain things in a patient, systematic manner expects others to do the same. Similarly, a person who likes to inquire deeply about things unconsciously expects that others are also interested in such inquiry. By using language to explain or inquire, such people create an environment in which the importance of explanation and inquiry is understood. On the other hand, if language is not used for such purposes in a community or institution, the children growing up there are unlikely to be used to

careful explanations or patient arguments. If parents and teachers are using language mainly to keep children under control, then it is likely that children will see language as a means to control others. They might grow up into adults who do not want to do anything unless they are ordered to do so.

We started this chapter by asking how language shapes the child's personality, including perceptions, abilities, attitudes, interests and values. We can now answer this question by saying that language shapes the child's personality because the child lives and grows up in the environment that language creates. To this environment, the teacher makes a significant contribution. If the teacher is sensitive to the various functions of language in the child's life, she will be able to respond to the child's intellectual and emotional needs. The teacher's responses to the language used by the child on different occasions are extremely important. If the responses show that the teacher understands the child's aim in using language in a certain way, such responses will enhance the child's use of language in that mode. On the contrary, if the teacher's responses are based on pre-conceived ideas about what is appropriate or correct, such responses will obstruct the child's independence of expression and communication.

Chapter 2. Talk

In our schools, talk is mostly regarded as a negative thing. It is assumed that if someone is talking, he can't be paying attention to the more serious requirements of learning. So when teachers find children talking, their first instinct is to stop them from doing so. Children are permitted to talk only during recess or when the teacher is not saying something important.

This view of talk has led us to ignore the enormous uses of talk as a resource for learning. This is true for all stages of learning, but specially true for learning at the earliest stages. For young children of pre or primary school age, talk is a basic means of learning and consolidating their learning. A school where little children cannot talk with freedom is a useless school. Indeed, teachers who don't let their children talk have no business complaining about lack of funds to buy books or other resources; they are already wasting a highly valuable resource which costs nothing at all.

Of course children talk for a wide range of aims, and not all of these aims have use for the teacher. For example, talking in order to overcome boredom is not the same thing as talking to draw another person's attention to something one has noticed. The second kind of talk has an important function as a means of consolidating one's learning as in this conversation that two children had in whispers, waiting at the teacher's desk while she was busy filling in her register:

Child 1: 'She's wearing a ring.'

Child 2: 'Didn't you see it earlier?'

Child 1: 'No... Yes, yes, I've seen it before.'

Child 2: 'Oh but it's a different ring.'

Child 1: 'She's bought a new ring. It's smaller.'

Child 2: 'No, it's thinner.'

If you analyse this short conversation between the children, you will soon notice the opportunities for learning that became available to them because they were talking. If Child-1 had not talked about the ring he saw on the teacher's finger, he wouldn't have been able to remember that she always wore a ring. On the other hand, without this conversation, Child-2 would have missed an opportunity to observe the difference between the old and the new ring, and to understand the subtle difference between 'smaller' and 'thinner'.

In order to become aware of these various functions of talk, we must get into the habit of listening to children's talk. This looks simple, but it is a difficult thing to do because as adults we are used to thinking that our job is to tell children what they should do, that it is their job to listen. Such a belief binds us from becoming good listeners to children's talk. By 'good listener' I mean someone who can patiently notice the purpose for which talk is taking place and the possibilities of learning that the talk is opening up.

Two children talking in any ordinary situation may do the following things in their talk:

1. Pay attention to something they had ignored so far
2. Observe it casually or carefully
3. Exchange or share observations
4. Arrange observations in some kind of organized way
5. Challenge each other's observations
6. Argue on the basis of observation

7. Make a forecast
8. Recall an earlier experience
9. Imagine someone else's feelings or experiences
10. Imagine's their own feelings in an imaginary situation.

If you get into the habit of listening to children's talk carefully, you will soon be able to distinguish these and several other functions. You will also see that these functions involve the use and development of intellectual skills such as analytical and reasoning skills. The activities given in this chapter can help you construct situations for developing such skills through talk.

The teacher who wants to use children's talk as a classroom resource must create a positive ethos for talk. Through her own behaviour and response to children's talk, the teacher must convince children that they are free to talk. Of course this need not mean pandemonium. On the contrary, what is required of the teacher is to ensure that every child feels that she is being heard when she talks, and that the teacher wants them to talk.

We can distinguish five kinds of opportunities that the teacher can create in the classroom to encourage children to talk:

Opportunities to talk about oneself

Given the freedom and chance, all children like to talk about their life, things that have happened and things that they anticipate. Some teachers treat children's personal life as irrelevant to their learning at school. Such teachers insist that children should only discuss impersonal matters in the class, matters that have been portrayed in the textbooks. Faced with this demand, a lot of children find themselves unable to participate in the class in any form. The impersonal matters discussed by the teacher do not interest them, and their personal matters (such as a recent visit by a relative, what a rainstorm did to the house, or getting sick) do not interest the teacher.

Such a situation leads to children's total dissociation from the curriculum. The teacher can avoid such a dissociation by creating opportunities for children to tell others about what is happening in their lives at home and things that have occurred in the past. If children are encouraged to talk about such things, they will gradually find it possible to express their feelings and ideas about a wide range of experiences. Also, they will eventually be able to relate to the knowledge imparted at school under different subjects, such as science, geography, civics, etc., at a deeper, personal level.

Opportunities to talk about objects and experiences at school

The school's surroundings are an excellent resource for exploration and observation. Wherever the school may be located, there always are little things around it that can provide material for extensive investigation and discussion. The school's surroundings may have any of the following things -- shops, trees, stones, houses, street, fence, soil, gates, bird nests, beehive, flowers, butterflies, open drain, tap, and so on: just about anything can be used as a subject for accurate observation, exchanging observations, determining the truth, and exploring its relationship with other objects.

Talk is an excellent means of doing all this with little children. As some of the activities given below will show, a teacher need not take large groups of children for a formal excursion; sending three or four children at a time to report on one object may do equally well. Excursions are of course exciting, and teachers who can afford to take children to places that may not be close to

the school must do so. But a teacher who cannot take children with her to a museum or a post office need not make the excuse of not being able to take them to the small broken bridge just outside the school or the filthy outlet of water behind the school. The important thing is to provide ample occasions for all children to talk about what they have seen during an excursion.

Talking about pictures

Pictures are a great resource for creative and analytical talk. Just about any kind of pictures can be used. In the daily newspaper and in weekly magazines we can find pictures printed as part of advertisements and news. Calendars, stamps, labels and posters are other sources of pictures that can be found just about anywhere, even in a small village. The teacher can build a collection of such sources for use in the classroom year after year.

Apart from the sources mentioned above, schools must consider picture-story books if they can afford to spend a little extra money. In Appendix I, a list of books, most of which are picture-story books, is given. One set of these books will cost about Rs. 100. Once it is bought it will last a long time, provided the books are kept and used properly. Teachers who want to use picture-story books must involve and train children in the maintenance of books. Little things like how to turn a page without spoiling the corners are a matter of careful training. Such little things make a contribution towards developing in children the perception of the picture-story book as a respectable resource for learning.

Talking about a picture with a group of children can be fruitful even if it is done in a totally informal, spontaneous manner. Yet, we can make such talk even more useful from the viewpoint of developing children's language by becoming aware of the different *dimensions of response*. Each question that the teacher poses to the child directs the child's response in a certain manner. How best can we use questions to enrich the child's perception and response? Following are the levels of response to which we can direct the child with the help of questions:

(a) Finding: At this level, all we ask children to do is to find things in the picture. Questions like these can be asked: 'What is happening in this pictures?' 'Is there a mouse?' 'Who is sitting on the bicycle?' 'How big is the boy?'

(b) Reasoning: This level of response is concerned with the ability to attribute reasons or causes. The teacher must accept whatever reason the child attributes to something shown in the picture. Of course she can then give her own reasoning, but only as one more possibility. Sample questions: 'Why is the little girl crying?' 'Why can't we see the back of the motorcycle?' 'Why is the mouse hiding?'

(c) Projecting: At this level, we ask children to relate to the picture by placing themselves in it. So the purpose of questioning at this level is to encourage children to project themselves into an imaginary situation, to imagine who would be saying what, how they would feel, etc. Sample questions: 'What would you see if you were sitting on this tree?' 'What is the little girl saying to the man on the bicycle?' 'What is the little mouse thinking?'

(d) Predicting: This level relates to the ability to anticipate the future course of events. Children are encouraged to talk about what might happen next. Sample questions: 'Where will this man go from here?' 'What will the little girl do at home?' 'How will she get home?'

(e) Relating: Now we ask questions that would enable children to think of something in their own life that is similar to the situation shown in the picture. Sample questions: 'Have you ever sat

on a motorcycle -- what does it feel like?' 'Have you been in the company of a stranger -- what happened?'

Listening to stories and talking about them

As we listen to a story our mind runs to the events and characters portrayed in it. Many stories are about events that we have never witnessed in our own lives, yet we can imagine them. Similarly, we are able to form an image of the characters even though we may never have faced people who are like these characters. This way, unfamiliar events and people become a part of our map of the world. Later on we can talk about such events just as we talk about events that have actually occurred in our lives. This is how people discuss films, books, and most of the news published in the daily paper. Stories -- whether they are about real events or about events imagined by someone -- bring new material to our attention, and we accommodate this new material without much effort or difficulty.

When we listen to a story, we respond by imagining a sequence of events and the behaviour of characters; on the other hand, when we tell a story ourselves, we reorganize the experiences that form the story. If it is a real experience, we may be concerned about presenting it just as it occurred -- in the same sequence of small events. However, it is rarely possible for anyone to talk about something just as it occurred; little distortions occur because some aspects of the experience strike us as being more important. If the story we are telling is not about real things, we re-organise it a little more freely, perhaps with the intention of making it more interesting to our listener. In either case, telling a story involves: (i) re-organising of life, its events, characters, etc.; and (ii) making the story interesting to our audience. Both these things demand resourceful use of language. Indeed, any story requires us to manipulate language in a creative manner, and listening to stories provides us examples of skilled creativity of language. This is why story-telling is a great resource for a teacher of young children.

Some teachers regard story-telling as an art, and therefore, they feel, only a few are capable of telling stories well. This is an unfortunate feeling because it deprives children of the pleasure of listening to stories. Children will enjoy listening to a story if it is a good story. The skill of telling can only develop with time and practice. The main thing is to select good stories and tell them frequently. And no story needs to be a single occasion. Good stories deserve many tellings.

Talking about a story after it has been told is a tricky thing. I have seen teachers who want to talk about the moral. As soon as they finish telling the story, they ask, 'What does the story teach you?' This question has hardly any value as a starting point of a meaningful discussion. The moral value of a story -- if a story has one -- has no special interest for children; for them the story itself is the important thing. A teacher who asks them about moral value spoils the achievement of her own work. Equally wasteful is the demand of those teachers who insist that children must memorise the story. Such teachers want the story to be repeated verbatim. They make this demand so predictably that children stop enjoying the stories because they feel anxious about the demand they will have to fulfil later.

We must realise that the important thing for the story-listener is to relate to the story, and that every child relates to a story in his or her own way. The child's own personality and past experiences determine his response to the story. He may imagine a character quite differently from how the character has been described in the story. He may find one incident far more emotionally meaningful than all the other incidents. The freedom to re-create a story and its characters in a way that is meaningful to oneself is a right every child must have. For example, in the story given on p. 5, [Elephant in the Sky] a child may imagine the teacher to be female. A

teacher who believes in the child's right to imagine the characters in any manner he wants will create opportunities for children to talk about a story in any way they like, to distort it, to extend it, substitute its characters, and to make up their own stories. Such opportunities need not occur immediately after the story has been told. Often it may be best to start a totally different activity after story-telling.

Acting it out

Stories and drama are closely related, and often the teacher can move from one to the other with great success. A child who is attentively listening to a story is silently taking the different roles depicted in the story. The same thing happens in drama, only in a more explicit manner. In drama, children get an opportunity to act out different roles with the help of talk and physical movement and gesture. They still have to imagine that they are someone else, and they have to look at things from someone else's perspective, just as the listener of a story must do. The main difference is that in drama one has to look at things from someone else's perspective more actively. One has to find words and gestures appropriate to an imagined situation and an imagined character. There is great opportunity to improvise, and this is where the key to using drama as an extension of talk lies.

Unfortunately, much of the dramatic activity that takes place in schools does not leave room to improvise. Children are assigned certain roles, and they are given dialogues to memorise. Drama is used as a special occasion -- associated with a festival or the arrival of a guest. Such use of drama has its own merits, but it does little to extend children's use of language. Only a few children participate in the final product; the rest merely watch. And throughout the preparation and the final presentation, everyone is constantly afraid of going wrong. So there is no freedom and sense of fun. These two characteristics -- freedom and fun -- are essential for the use of drama as a language activity.

Teachers who want to use drama as a part of their language teaching must remember all the time that drama is nothing special or exotic for children--it is a part of their daily life. Children use dramatic devices all the time, devices such as mimicking, exaggerating, and pretending. Drama is invariably a part of children's own traditional play activities and games. It is hard to think of a child who does not possess dramatic skills. But many children may not want to use their dramatic skills in the classroom. They may think that the classroom is not an appropriate place for play. And this is where the teacher makes a difference by establishing in the classroom an ethos in which play looks possible and right. There is of course no single technique to establish such an ethos. You have to build it gradually, by encouraging spontaneous talk about real life, by being attentive to children's talk, and by being gentle.

Secondly, it is important to remember that drama for display is not the same thing as drama for daily use. What we are talking about is the latter, and this kind of drama has little use for pre-decided scripts, dialogues, dresses, rehearsals, and lights. Just about any short narrative account of any incident is good enough to be acted out. The best narratives of dramatic quality may usually come from children's own talk -- provided the children feel free enough to talk about what they see and feel in their daily lives. How a bus stopped, some people got off and some got on, how the bus started again, and what is happening inside it now may be an excellent little narrative to be acted out by all forty or more children in a class. On the other hand, stories that the teacher has told or read out can provide exciting material for drama. If a story has only a few characters, let small groups of five children each act it out separately or have different stories to dramatize. There is no point setting up a competition among different groups. It will create unnecessary stress and dependence on the teacher.

If you use spontaneous drama from an early age, it will form a very sound base for the development of reading skills. The link between drama and reading is not a direct one, but the link is there. Drama provides a distinct opportunity to use words and one's body movements (gestures, bending, etc.) as symbols in a conscious manner. Along with story listening, dramatic action permits the child to participate in the world in a symbolic manner (that is, taking part in events in which one may not be directly involved). This is the same ability that a good reader requires -- the ability to see things that are not physically present before one's eyes, and to respond to them as if they were physically present.

The teacher's response

By the time children enter school, most of them have already acquired remarkable mastery over the basic structures of their mother-tongue. They not only know how to use language for a large number of transactions, they also know the importance of adjusting one's language to different contexts and audiences. As a listener, a child of five is capable of translating messages into action (e.g. bringing a glass of water if he is asked to, and putting it back in an appropriate place), and is also capable of making intelligent guesses about people's personalities and their mutual relationships on the basis of their talk. The small child acquires these capabilities during his routine day-to-day life -- no one 'teaches' him as such. Whatever happens in the child's milieu passes through the filter of the child's attention and becomes a part of his language repertoire.

As teachers we must respect the child for having accomplished these abilities. There is hardly anything new that we can actually teach; we can only create conditions that might enhance the abilities that the child already has. In the context of talk, the main requirement for creating such conditions is to be conscious of one's response to the child's talk. Every time we listen to the child and respond, we must

1. Allow the child to say the whole thing
2. Be interested in what the child is trying to say
3. Control our desire to contradict
4. Respond by saying more elaborately what the child has said, using more words and a richer sentence structure, rather than by just saying 'good', or 'that's no good'. For example, if the child has said, 'Squirrel in tree', the teacher's response can be, 'You saw a squirrel going up the tree?'
5. Ask for more information or direct the child to a new aspect of the topic.

To be able to talk to children in this manner requires considerable practice. The foremost thing is to be sensitive to the fact that talk is an important learning resource for the child and a shaping influence on the child's social behaviour and personality.

Unusually quiet children may present a special problem to the teacher. It is quite possible that some children in your class show far greater interest in playing or making things than in talking, but if a child shows no desire to respond, to ask questions, or to tell others about what he is doing, then it may be wise to give such a child some special attention. It is likely that this child has been discouraged or repressed in various ways at home, and his quietness is just one manifestation of the damage that has been done to his personality, especially his self-perception in relation to others. The influence of a repressive home environment is a strong one, but it is by no means impossible to change it. A sensitive teacher who knows what is wrong can bring about miraculous changes in the small child's interaction with the world.

Some activities

These are just some of the dozens of activities any teacher can organize in any ordinary classroom. Each time an activity is repeated with some little change, it will be received with even greater enthusiasm by the children than it got last time. So do each activity any number of times, adding something new each time. Keep a record of the variations so that you can introduce your innovations to a new colleague. Nearly each activity described here can become the starting point of a dozen variations.

1 What Did You See?

Stage 1: Ask one child to go out of the room, see what is happening outside, and tell the class what he saw. For instance, he might report that he saw a truck, two shops and a bicycle.

Stage 2: Now rest of the children, preferably sitting in a circle, will ask him questions, one by one, and one question per child. For instance, a child may ask: 'What was hanging from the bicycle's handle?' The reply may be: 'A basket.' The next question may be, 'What colour was the basket?'

Stage 3: When one round of questioning is complete, the teacher will ask the child who has gone out: 'Who asked the best question?' Supposing he says, 'Shashi asked the best question; the teacher will ask: 'What was the question?'

Stage 4: The next round starts with Shashi. Ask her to see something that the earlier child had not seen. When she comes back, ask children to come up with new questions-not the ones they have already asked.

2 Asking the Explorers

Send a small group of children, no more than five or six, to study some specific object or place near the school or even inside the school building. For example, they may be sent to examine a cluster of trees, a tea-stall, a broken bridge, or a nest. Ask them to explore it carefully and discuss among themselves everything they notice.

While the explorer group is away, tell the rest of the class about the object in some detail. For example, if the explorers have gone to examine a tea stall, tell the class about the things available at the stall, who runs it, where do the things available there come from, etc.

When the explorer group comes back, it will face questions from the class. The teacher can also have her turn.

Next time, send a different group.

3 Guess What I Saw

One child goes out, stands at the door or at some distance from the class, and selects one of the hundreds of things she sees around (it could be anything --tree, leaf, squirrel, bird, wires, pole, grass, stones). When she comes back, she says just one sentence about the thing she has in mind. For example, she might say, 'What I saw is brown.'

Now every child in the class gets one chance to ask more about the thing and guess what it was. For example, questioning may go like this:

Child 1: 'Is it thin?'

Answer: 'No.'

Child 2: 'How big is it?'

Answer: 'It's quite big'.

Child 3: 'Is it as big as a chair?'

Answer: 'No, it's smaller than a chair.'

Child 4: 'Can it turn?'...

Finally when the thing has been guessed correctly, some children may object to the answers they got for their questions. For instance, someone may point out that the colour was not brown but clay-like. In such situations, the teacher's role is very important, as someone who can help children establish subtle distinctions between meanings.

4 Doing What Was Said

Ask children to listen and do what you tell them to do. Start with simple things to do, and ask the whole class to do them together. Examples:

'Touch your head'.

'Close your right eye.'

'Clap on your head.'

Divide the class in two groups. The teacher will give instructions to the first group, and the children of this group will now give similar instructions to the second group. Gradually make your instructions more complicated, for example:

'Touch your head with both hands, then touch your right ear with your right hand.'

'Close both eyes, touch your neighbour, ask him to give you his left hand.'

When children of one group give instructions to the other group, they need not repeat everything they have heard. Encourage them to make up new instructions.

5 Comparing

Make sets of similar-looking things, such as leaves of two or more trees, flowers of different plants, stones, pieces of paper cut in different shapes etc.

Ask children to listen to the description you give of one of the things in a set, and on the basis of the description they must decide which one you are thinking of. Example:

'I'm thinking of a leaf that is smooth and long, and it has even edges.'

After doing this activity a few times, ask children to take turns to choose and describe. Change things each time you do this activity. Identify more subtle features each time.

6 How Did You Make That?

Teach children how to make things with paper, cloth, or any other available material. Making a paper boat, a hand puppet, or cat-cradles would be fine. Make elaborate comments on what you are doing as you demonstrate while the children are following you with the appropriate material in their hands. For example, if you are demonstrating how to make a paper boat, describe each step: 'Fold the paper in half. Now turn the corners inwards Lift the remaining strip...'

When children have learnt how to make the thing, ask them to describe the process. Next time, assign different things to different groups, and let one group explain to the other how it made its thing.

7 Acting Out

Stage1: Choose ten or fifteen different kinds of common actions that children are likely to be seeing every day.

Examples: Sweeping the floor, peeling a banana, washing dishes, cutting vegetables, walking with two full buckets. Whisper to each child which action you have chosen for him or her. Then every child comes forward and performs the action. Others must guess what the action was.

Stage 2: Make the activity more complicated by choosing action that involve four or five people. Form groups, and ask each group to perform a collective action. With older children who can read, use slips of paper to tell them what to do.

8 Analysing a Picture

Form groups of five and give a picture to each group. The teacher must examine each picture carefully before the activity starts and must prepare questions according to the levels of response given earlier. So the teacher will have five questions for each group.

Allow at least five minutes for children to examine the picture and discuss it among themselves. Number the children from 1 to 5, and ask the five questions you have.

The questions can be used for informal individual talk as well. When you have organized this activity a few times, you will find it a lot easier to make up questions, but in the beginning it is best to prepare in advance.

9 Guessing the Right Picture

This activity can be organized only if you have a number of books of children's literature, particularly several picture-story books (see Appendix 1 for a recommended list).

Pair all children. As they sit face to face, one line looks at books and selects one picture out of all the pictures given. Now every child sitting in this line describes the picture she has selected to the child sitting in front without showing him the picture. When the description is over, the book is handed over to the child who was listening, and he is asked to find the picture that fits the description.

The two lines exchange books and activity carries on. This activity can be organized slightly differently with the help of pictures on the wall.

10 Making a Story

Collect odd things like lids, torn pieces of cloth, broken bangles, empty toothpaste tubes, little stones, leaves, nibs, etc. Make piles of five or six of these items, and distribute the piles among groups of five or six children. Each group finds a suitable place to sit down and talk about the things in the pile. The aim is to prepare a story in fifteen or twenty minutes. When all groups return to the classroom, one narrator in each group tells the story. Allow variations if other group members insist that the story has not been told correctly.

Success of this activity depends on how much experience your children have of listening to stories. Also, are they used to making up stories? Just about any common experience can be narrated as a nice, little story. Similarly, any common object can become the starting point of a narration. If you show this kind of imagination as a teacher, your children will soon acquire it.

11 Where Do You Live?

Children sit in two lines facing each other; one line has 'tellers', the other 'listeners'. Each teller has to explain to the listener the way to reach her home. Listeners can ask any number of questions to understand better. Example:

Teller: 'Go straight and turn.'

Listener: 'How far should I go straight?'

Teller: 'Go till you find a garbage dump, then turn.'

Listener: 'Turn right or left?'

Teller: 'Right... No, no. let me see...'

When all tellers have had a chance, the listeners become tellers, and we start again.

What do we achieve?

All the activities described here are aimed at enhancing the child's ability to use language to deal with the world. So while our focus is talk, we are in fact working on a much wider area of the child's development. This wider area includes the ability to use questioning as a way to find new information, making intelligent guesses on the basis of limited information, relating to things at more than one level of acquaintance, and making creative interpretations. Some of the activities provide to the child the opportunity to work in two media, i.e. words and picture. Such an opportunity builds the base for the ability to connect abstract and vivid symbols. It will make an immense contribution to the child's development as a reader.

These activities, and the ones you will design along these lines on your own, will offer many connecting points with the activities described in the next two chapters on reading and writing. These more complex skills undoubtedly widen the child's repertoire of language, but talk remains a primary means of dealing with the world throughout life. So even when children can read and write, talk-based activities must continue.

Chapter 3. Reading

Of all the challenges that teachers of young children must face, the challenge of introducing children to reading is perhaps the most difficult as well as the most exciting. It is the most difficult one because reading is not a simple skill; it involves the combination of many skills and cognitive abilities. There is no single, foolproof method of teaching how to read. Every method has its own limitations, and no one can tell the teacher precisely what to do under given circumstances. Yet, the teaching of reading is an exciting thing. It is exciting because so much in the child's life 'depends on it, and once the child has been introduced to reading and books in a successful manner, there is no end to what the child can accomplish.

So, the real point is how to teach reading in a 'successful' way. This should give us a moment to ponder on the enormous rate of failure we see around us in this matter. Millions of children learn reading every year, and a great many of these children fail to achieve lasting reading skills. A great many manage to read well enough to pass school examinations, but do not develop any interest in reading. So many seem to read well but actually comprehend very little. To a great extent these failures can be laid at the door of poor teaching of reading.

No teacher needs to be reminded of the role that sound reading skills play in the child's overall development. Yet, it seems that few teachers know precisely what 'sound reading skills' are and how they can be developed. The way in which we will look at reading in this chapter, 'sound reading skills' would mean *skills that enable the child to associate meaning with written or printed language*. Unless a child can make sense of what he or she reads, or *relate it to something else* that he already knows, we cannot call his reading sound. So, in terms of our work, we will define reading as a process of finding meaning in written words.

The way things are

Once we agree to work by this definition, we will soon see that we cannot be satisfied with a number of things that routinely occur in kindergartens and the early grades of primary schools. For example, rote recitation of the alphabet, or choral sounding out of a story word by word cannot be described as very satisfactory procedures for the teaching of reading by our definition. While doing these activities, children cannot associate any meaning with the written language. Separate letters of the alphabet do not mean anything. If words in a story are read one by one, they mean very little; one cannot relate to the story this way.

Some people might say that such activities may not be immediately meaningful, but they serve as the basis for meaningful reading in future. Perhaps this argument has some truth in it. However, the truth will apply only if all children stay long enough in school to get a chance to read meaningfully. What about those children who feel totally frustrated by drills like repeating a sound a dozen times, copying a letter, sounding out separate words? We all know that children like activities that have an immediate pay off. Few children can feel excited about doing something that promises to yield results in the remote future. And for many children, the future may not offer the opportunity to stay on at school. Early frustration and failure, along with many other factors, lead to their departure from school.

So, the key question we face is: 'How to make the initial teaching of reading meaningful?' Some of the things that teachers can do are described in the following pages. To those who are used to old methods, some of these things may appear totally bewildering or impossible. Surely, if the old

methods were working fine, we would not need new ones. We need not just use new methods but a totally new perspective because the old methods are not working well.

Starting with books

It is important to start with books -- rather than with flash cards, charts, or wooden letters -- because it is books that we want children to be able to read ultimately. Other materials, such as charts and cards, may be occasionally useful, but they cannot create the strong and sustained motivation for learning to read that books can create. Nor can the child's mastery over such materials give the sense of accomplishment that the ability to read a book can give. But let us first be clear, what kind of books we are talking about, and then, what to do with them. The books that can form the basis of reading instruction are the same that have been mentioned in the context of talk in the last chapter. A list of such books is given in Appendix 1. If you can buy twenty such books of children's literature, you are ready to start a new kind of reading instruction for your group of children. Along with these twenty books that you can buy, you can make some books yourself. Any good story written in clear handwriting and illustrated with diagrams or pictures (that children can draw) can become a permanent part of your book collection. Similarly, you can make collections of poems, songs, and the rhymes children sing while playing games.

Reading a book to children

Always make sure that children are sitting around you on the floor and that the group is no bigger than ten. When one group is sitting around you, other children in the class must have something else to do. In the group sitting around you, every child should be able to see the book as you read it and turn its pages. As you read, make sure that you don't just read what is written, but convert it into your own idiom. You may have books which tell a story or talk about something in great detail. Plain reading aloud of a long story will not work. You must know the story so that you can shorten it, using your own words. On the other hand, if the text written on each page is just one or two lines, then you can elaborate it by adding details. It is especially important that you point to the details shown in the illustration and talk about these details in a relaxed manner.

What is Reading?

Reading is a mystery to those who cannot read. Twenty years ago, even experts did not know precisely what happens when a child learns to read. On the basis of their experience and convention, teachers had evolved certain 'methods' such as the alphabet method, the 'look and say' method, the 'word' method, and so on. These methods were named according to the graphic unit which the child was initially given as material to read. None of these 'methods' was based on knowledge of the reading process. Yet, these 'methods' continue to be popular to this day.

Now we know that reading involves sampling of graphic information. As our eyes wade through shapes of letters, punctuation marks, combinations of letters in words and spaces between words, our mind does not have to handle all of these graphic details. If this were the case, the mind's capacity to process separate bits of information would be overloaded, and the speed at which most of us normally operate would become impossible. This is precisely what happens to a lot of children who learn reading by conventional methods. They break down each word into smaller units, thus overloading the mind's capacity to process the meaning of words. The competent reader's eyes prevent such overloading by allowing only a limited, selective intake of the graphic data available in the text. He does not pay attention to the entire body of a letter, or to all letters in a word, or to all words in a sentence. As he reads, his eyes take into account a small proportion of the graphic details. He fills in the rest by intelligent guessing or prediction on the basis of his

previous acquaintance with the shapes of letters, words, their meanings, their combinations, and generally with the world.

Reading is not an isolated behaviour. It involves simultaneous processing of all three types of clues that any use of language consists of, namely (i) graphophonemic clues or the shapes of letters and the sounds associated with them; (ii) syntactic clues or word order (such as, noun follows adjective); and (iii) semantic clues or the meanings of words. As habitual users of language, we develop certain expectations relating to all three types of clues. These expectations help us fill in by prediction or intelligent guessing what our eyes have ignored during their speedy journey through graphically presented symbols.

Book reading of this kind is not an occasion for asking questions or testing children in any other form. When the story is over, it is over, and it is time to move on to something else unless a child wants to say or ask about something. But as a teacher, you must spare book-reading sessions from your questioning.

If every child gets at least three chances in a week to listen to a book being read in this way, you will soon see that children will begin to talk about the books you have read. Repeat a book as many times as you or the children want. Soon enough you will notice that children will become so familiar with the pictures and the story as to anticipate your reading. Such anticipation will one day lead children to read the book by themselves. By then they will know all the things the book says, and they will have established all kinds of associations with these things. When they read it -- often without knowing all the words on a page or all the letters in a word -- they will relate to it at many levels of meaning or association.

Singing poetry

If you have read the little essay called 'What is Reading?' given in a box on page 25, you will see that the skill of systematic anticipation plays a key role in the process of reading. Poetry can make a wonderful contribution to the development of this skill. By listening to poetry regularly little children get accustomed to the basic patterns of a language. What is especially useful about poetry in this matter is that it is so easy to store it in one's memory. Small children have to put in no special effort to memorise poetry; just by enjoying it several times and reciting it they make it a part of their permanent collection.

The important question for the teacher is: 'How to select good poems and where to find them?' The poems that most primers and textbooks carry are often of a low quality and have little value for the development of language. Similarly, much of the poetry published in Hindi monthly magazines has little worth. Most poems we see in textbooks and magazines are moralistic and dull. They have an artificial sentence structure and vocabulary. They lack the feel of real day-to-day language. This is why they have hardly any value as resources for learning language.

Quite a different kind of poems are needed for building the foundation of children's reading skills. A selection of such poems in Hindi is given on the next two pages. Such poems can surely be found in all Indian languages, but the teachers who want to find them will have to search very carefully. They will need to keep their eyes open for playful and natural use of language. Also, purely didactic poems will have to be left out.

One thing that any teacher can easily do is to write out the songs that children sing while playing

certain games, such as while skipping, jumping, and playing ball. These are traditional rhymes, and it may be difficult to collect them in cities. However, with some effort, we can make our own collections of such songs. The collection can take the form of one or more little books with a song written neatly on each page, along with a suitable picture which can either be made or cut out from a magazine or some other source. It is not always necessary that the picture should accurately portray what the poem says. If the picture simply evokes a mood or scene that is vaguely associated with the poem, this is fine. You can prepare several books by yourself in this manner, each one of about 16 pages, using ordinary white paper if you cannot afford the slightly more expensive drawing paper. If you use drawing paper, the book will last longer and you won't have to prepare the same book each year.

The way to read poetry books is the same as for other books, that is, sitting with a group of children with the book in the middle. After two or three occasions, you can sing the poem aloud without the book and ask children to sing with you. They will be able to sing the poem from memory quite soon if the poem is of good quality. Later, when you read it again from the book, they will anticipate the words given on the pages. Children of six can happily copy out a whole poem on a separate piece of paper or slate, and if they know it by heart by that time, they will have little difficulty recognizing individual words after a few days.

ईलम डील खेलो, आओ खेलो ईलम डील ।
गेंद जो उछाली ले के भाग गई चील ।
रस्ते में पड़ी एक बहुत बड़ी झील ।
जिसके बीचों बीच में थी ऊंची-सी कील ।
चील ज्यों ही बैठी उस पर टूट गई कील ।
और्यों मुंह पानी में जाके गिरी चील ।
गेंद रही तैरती औ डूब गई चील ।
ईलम डील खेलो आओ खेलो ईलम डील ।

Nirankar Dev Sewak

बहुत जुकाम हुआ नन्दु को
एक रोज़ वह इतना छींका
इतना छींका इतना छींका
इतना छींका इतना छींका
सब पत्तें गिर गए पेड़ के
धोखा हुआ उन्हें आंधी का

-Ram Naresh Tripathi

नारंगी रंग की नारंगी
बेच रहा फलवाला गाकर
और बजाता है सारंगी
चमक रहा है छिलका पीला
सुन्दर फल है बड़ा रसीला
प्यास बूझे मन खुश हो जाता
ढीली तबियत होती चंगी

-Sudha Chauhan

कितनी लंबी है सड़क
कितना ऊंचा है पहाड़
कितनी छोटी है चिड़िया
पेड़ है कितना बड़ा
तेज़ कितनी है नदी
पत्थर कितना गोल है
घास है कितनी हरी
फूल कितना लाल है

-Krishna Kumar

एक, दो, तीन, चार
आओ चलें कुतुब मीनार ।
पांच, छः, सात, आठ
देखें चल के राजघाट ।
नौ, दस, ग्यारा, बारा
चलें चांदनी चौक फव्वारा ।
तेरा, चौदा, पन्दा, सोला
कनाट प्लेस में मुर्गा बोला ।

Sarveshwar Dayal Saxena

लड़को इस झाड़ी के भीतर छिपा हुआ है जोड़ा तीतर
फिरते थे यह अभी यहीं पर चारा चुगते हुए जमीं पर
एक तीतरी है इक तितर हमें देख कर भागे भीतर
आओ इनको जरा डरा कर ढेला मार निकालें बाहर
यह देखो वह दोनों भागे खड़े रहो चुप बढो न आगे
अब सुन लो इनकी गिटकारी एक अनोखे ढंग की प्यारी
तीइत्तड़ तीइत्तड़ तीइत्तड़ तीइत्तड़ नाम इसी से इनका तीतर

Sridhar Pathak

लाल टमाटर लाल टमाटर, मैं तो तुमको खाऊंगा ।
अभी न खाओ मैं कुछ दिन में और अधिक पक जाऊंगा ॥
लाल टमाटर लाल टमाटर, मुझको भूख लगी भारी ।
भूख लगी है तो तुम खा लो यह गाजर मूली सारी ॥
लाल टमाटर लाल टमाटर, मुझको तो तुम भाते हो ।
तुमको जो अच्छा लगता है उसको तुम क्यों खाते हो ॥
लाल टमाटर लाल टमाटर, अच्छा तुम्हें न खाऊंगा ।
मगर तोड़ कर डाली पर से अपने घर ले जाऊंगा ॥

Nirankar Dev Sewak

आओ एक बनाएं चक्कर फिर उस चक्कर में इक चक्कर
फिर उस चक्कर में इक चक्कर फिर उस चक्कर में इक चक्कर
और बनाएं जाएं जब तक ऊब न जाएं थक कर ।
फिर सब से छोटे चक्कर में म्याऊं एक बिठाएं,
और बाहरी हर चक्कर में चूहों को दौड़ाएं ।
दौड़ -दौड़ कर सभी थकें हम बैठें मारे मक्कर,
नींद लगे हम सो जाएं वे देखें उझक-उझक कर ।
आओ एक बनाएं चक्कर ।

-Sarveshwar Dayal Saxena

कितनी बड़ी दीखती होंगी मक्खी को चीजें छोटी
सागर-सा प्याला भर जल, पर्वत-सी एक कौर रोटी ।
खिला फूल गुलदस्ते जैसा कांटा भरी भाला-सा
तालो का सूराख उसे होगा बैरगिया नाला-सा ।
हरे भरे मैदान की तरह होगा एक पीपल का पात
पेड़ों के समूह-सा होगा बचा खुचा थाली का भात ।
ओस बूंद दरपन-सी होगी बेल समान
सांस मनुज की आंधी-सी करती होगी उसको हैरान ।

-Thakur Srinath Singh

गोलू के मामा आए सब देख रहे मुंह बाएं ।
मुंह उनका है गुब्बारा था किसने उन्हें पुकारा,
नारंगी उनको भाए गोलू के मामा आए ।
वे पूरब से हैं आते गोलू से गप्प लड़ाते
हौले से उसे सुला कर फिर पच्छिम को उड़ जाते ।
सच बात अगर मैं बोलूं , तो पोल पुरानी खोलूं,
सूरज का फटा पजामा सिलते गोलू के मामा ।
पर जाने क्या जादू है रहते हैं सब पर छाए,
सब देख रहे मुंह बाए गोलू के मामा आए ।
ये बड़े दिनों में आए झोले में है कुछ लाए
हमको तो पता चले तब जब गोलू हमें खिलाए ।
लो दिखा-दिखा नारंगी बन जाते एक बताशा,
यूं सबको देते झांसा करते ये खूब तमाशा ।
हर पन्द्रह दिन में कैसे आ जाते बिना बुलाए,
मैं देखे रहा मुंह बाए गोलू के मामा आए ।

-Ramesh Chandra Shah

Making books

Having books in the class (not just in the school) is of course good and useful, but it is no substitute for making books. The best reading material that children can have for learning to read is what their teacher prepares for them, both individually and collectively. The activities we have discussed so far (i.e. telling and reading stories, talking about pictures, singing poetry) will provide the basic resource for the material that the teacher is going to produce. The raw material, i.e. paper, will depend on what is available. If children have copybooks, these can surely become proper 'books' in the sense explained below. If the teacher or school can afford to buy loose paper, both ordinary paper and the stronger drawing paper, it will add to the possibilities.

The starting point can be found anywhere around the age of five, and we must remember that all children in a class can never start reading at the same time or progress at the same pace. Variations can be quite striking. Some children may show great interest and capability at five, and they will master reading skills by the time they are seven, whereas some children will continue to have difficulties when they are eight. The teacher who is in touch with her children will not worry about such different pacing. All she must do is to reflect on the progress that each child is making and the special difficulties that some may be facing. This is a challenging task; in some situations, where the number of children is large, it may be impossible. In such a case, only a limited accomplishment can be imagined.

Out of the talk generated by the various activities relating to stories, pictures (discussed in the last

chapter), and poems, choose a word or sentence for each child, and write it in clear handwriting on the child's copybook or a sheet of paper. It is important that the word or sentence should represent the story or picture which created the context for talk. This is the only way to ensure that it will carry some immediate meaning for the children. Read aloud what you have written for each child. Then ask the child to copy it below, or to write over it.* When you write a new word or sentence for the child to read everyday, always look back at the previous 'texts', asking the child to read them, reading yourself when the child faces difficulty. And each day, as you sit with the child to write a new sentence and to listen to the old ones, remember to extend the older texts by talking about them. For example, if an old text was about a dog, ask one or two questions and make one or more remarks about where the dog went or where he is this morning. Finally, don't bother to correct minor mistakes in the child's reading of these little texts that you have created. For example, if the sentence 'rain came' is read as 'rain comes' don't correct such an error, for after all the error does not damage the meaning.

Each copybook in the class will gradually become a book of ideas or stories. As you look at the child's writing below the text you write each day, you will notice that the shapes of different letters vary in terms of difficulty for the child. Some letters or signs require special practice, and such practice can be done on the same page, as many times as necessary. The ultimate aim is that the child becomes proficient in the writing and recognition of each letter in the alphabet of the language you are working with.

Some people think, and they might have already told you, that the Hindi alphabet is an altogether different thing from the English- alphabet. They think that the '*matras*' used in Hindi must be learnt separately, and that initially children should be asked to read only those few simple words that have no '*matra*' This view is based on an assumption, and it is certainly not necessary for every teacher to accept the assumption, '*matras*' are a part of Hindi's nature as a language; there is no reason why children should not be allowed to encounter '*matras*' as a part of their overall progress in reading meaningful texts. It is another matter to give them special practice in writing the 'mat as' or in using '*matras*' in their own writing later on.

* See the next chapter, especially the section under 'Between talk and writing' for means to develop pre-writing hand-movement.

Some Activities

1 Floor as a Map

If you have a classroom without furniture, fine; otherwise, take children out to the verandah, backyard, or wherever there is an open space for children to move about freely.

Choose symbols for running, walking, hopping, skipping, galloping, taking giant strides, tiny half-steps, walking backwards and sideways. All symbols should be simple and easy to remember, for example: running: Skipping:

Now assign each symbol to one corner of the open space. Explain to children what each symbol stands for. When you do this activity for the first time, don't take more than three or four symbols, otherwise the children may get confused.

Choose any point to start. Ask children to do what the symbol says when they reach the spot where the symbol is drawn on the floor or displayed I chalk on as tone or cardboard.

When each child has a chance to participate a few times, replace the symbol with the relevant

word, writing it neatly where the symbol was drawn. Increase the number of symbols as children become familiar with them. And each time they return to the classroom, ask them to draw a map of the space outside, showing what they did where.

2 Dividing the Alphabet

Divide the alphabet into three parts and write each part in big letters on a long strip of paper. Stick up all three parts on the wall at some distance from each other--at points where all children can see them easily. For a language like Hindi, use a fourth strip for '*matras*'.

Now write a word on the blackboard. Ask children to see the letters and signs in this word carefully and identify them in the strips on the wall.

3 Reading Science

Select some unifying themes to talk about familiar objects. For example, you could select 'things that fly', 'round things', 'flat things', and 'things that swim'.

Write the theme on the blackboard, read it aloud, and ask children to tell you which two or three things would go under this theme. For example, under 'things that fly', they might tell you: kite, aeroplane, bird, and cloud.

Ask children to copy the list and draw little sketches of the things included under a theme beside the words.

4 Hopscotch with Words

Prepare a grid, or several grids if all children are going to play, on the ground. Write names of familiar objects (e.g. glass, spoon, house, tree) in each house and make a little symbol showing the object.

Divide the children in groups of five with one child in each group acting as the referee. The referee's job is to throw the stone into a house and to supervise each child as he lands in each house, reads aloud the object it stands for, and skips over the house with the stone. The referee's job must rotate each time this activity is organized.

5 Doing What You Read

Children who have learnt to read still must learn that reading is related to doing things. In this activity, the teacher stands quietly near the blackboard, and instead of saying things, she writes a brief instruction which a child must do.

Number all children, and each time you write an instruction on the black board, mention a child's number beside it. For example, you may write: 'Get up, bring a stone --10'. The instruction means that child No.10 must get up and bring a stone from outside. Now the next instruction may say: 'Ask No.10 for the stone, place it on your right knee --5'.

Gradually, you can incorporate complex commands in this activity. Such commands may ask a child to look at a poster hanging in the class carefully and identify a subtle detail in it, or to describe the way to the local hospital, or to count the number of trees outside the school, and so

on.

6 Last Word, Next Word

This activity will require a substantial number of books of children's literature. Distribute books among children so that each child has a book he can read easily. Ask children to open the book anywhere, see the right side page. Is there a full stop at the end of this page? If there is, the child must open another page.

Now all children will read the right side page silently. Ask them to stop when they reach the end. Tell them that they must not turn the page.

Ask each child to guess what the next word (on the next page might be). When she has made her guess, ask her to verify. You can let children clap for a correct guess.

When everyone has had a chance and they are now facing the left side page, start again. This time, each child is asked to recall what the last word on the previous page was.

7 Three Questions

Divide children into two groups sitting in lines so that each child faces another. Now give a book to every child and ask her to open it anywhere, read the right side page and then give the book to the child facing her.

This time every child will read the page that her companion has just read. Having read this page, the child can ask up to three questions which the companion must answer.

In the initial stages, children may not be able to decide what to ask. You may have to show them examples of questions they can ask. You can train them to prepare questions about what they reads.

8 Poetry Muddle

This is a very complicated activity, so you must prepare it carefully and well in advance. Once you have prepared the material, you can use it many times, and you will see how exciting the results are!

Select several 4-line poems, preferably rhymed all through. You must have as many poems as the number of children. Now supposing you are going to organize this activity with 20 children, write the first line of all twenty poems on separate pieces of paper. On each paper, write the second line of a different poem. Follow this for the third and the fourth lines. You will end up with twenty papers, each one with four lines from four different poems. Looking like this:

१. दूध जलेबी रक्खी हैं
२. तू लगता है बिल्कुल भालू
३. तब मैं खाना खाऊँगा
४. पानी में ही सोती मछली*

* poems by Nirankar Dev Sewak

Children will sit in a circle. To start, tell the children that the poems they have are all muddled and they have to find the last 3 lines that actually belong to the first line they have on their paper.

Ask a child to read the second line on his paper. All the other children listen carefully and consider whether this line might be theirs. The child who thinks it belongs to him raises his hand and asks for the line. If his choice is correct (according to the teacher), he notes down the line. The child who has given this line scratches it out on his paper. Now the next child reads out his second line, and you carry on this way till every child search for the appropriate third line!

9 Responding

The levels of response to a picture, and the questions associated with these levels, that were discussed on p. 12 are quite relevant for responding to literary material such as stories and poems.

When you distribute stories, magazines, or books among children, prepare your questions along the lines suggested on p. 12. When children have finished reading or a little later, you can use the questions to organize a discussion on the basis of children's responses. But don't do this every time they have read something. Perhaps you can choose a day every week when children can discuss what they have read that week.

Children's responses to stories and poems must not be evaluated. Nor should you ever suggest that a response was 'wrong'. Every response is valid, including the ones that distort the content of what was read. What a response indicates is the child's way of accommodating the content of a text. The child must be left free to arrive a different, perhaps more 'accurate'. Interpretation on later readings.

Having Started

The activities described here will offer many starting points for new activities, based on new, freshly prepared material. As a teacher you will soon notice that children who are introduced to reading along the lines suggested here find any reading material worthy of comprehension. Even a scrap of old newspaper can serve as a puzzle. By tearing it up into smaller pieces and asking children to recombine them with the help of the sentences printed on them, you can use the scrap of paper as a means of encouraging the skills required to become a good reader. These skills are: intelligent guessing, associating meaning with text, and judging the correctness of one's guess.

When a child has learnt to read, the teacher's job is to make sure that the child uses reading for a variety of purposes. Many of our primary schools do not provide encouragement for the use of reading for a variety of purposes. It tends to get associated with textbooks and preparation for examinations. Reading to find new information, reading for developing a personal interest, and reading for pleasure get neglected. Reading fails to become a part of the child's overall personal

development. As a consequence, the child who is capable of reading fails to become a reader. This is indeed a grave failure, but any teacher can avert it.

Chapter 4. **Writing**

Writing is a kind of talk. As we write, we communicate with someone although most often the person we are communicating with is not present in front of us. At the same time it is true that we do a lot of writing simply to preserve something -- a piece of information, an idea, a memory. But even in this role, writing can be seen as talk --with oneself. If I write about my experiences of this day in a diary, I will be preserving these experiences, most probably with the hope that I would myself like to read about them again someday.

As teachers, then, we must introduce writing to young children as a form of talk. By the time children come to school for the first time they are already capable of talking with confidence with a variety of people on a variety of topics. Their "sense of audience" has started to grow. This sense is very useful for learning to write, but they will need to apply it to an audience who may not always be present. Some kind of audience may of course be present, such as the teacher or other children and oneself. It is the job of the teacher to ensure that children see writing as an act of addressing someone.

Let us be clear that we want something very different from what is happening at present. Millions of young children are being taught writing as a mechanical skill. It starts with teaching them the shapes of letters in the alphabet. Children are asked to copy each letter dozens of times, and the teacher inspects the shape of the letter they produce. It takes several weeks in many schools to cover the entire alphabet in this manner. During this long time, learning to write loses all sense of purpose in the child's view. Later on when children are asked to write words, and still later to compose sentences, they look upon the teacher to tell them what to write. In short, they do not see writing as a means to say something. They see it as a ritual or drill that their teacher has taught them to perform. Now if we want to depart from this situation, we must make sure that we present writing as an extension of talk. The activities given in the chapter on talk (Chapter 2) are, therefore, extremely useful for organizing writing activities. Talk offers an opportunity to sort things out for an audience, and this is what makes it so important for the teaching of writing.

Between talk and writing

The first thing, then, is to ensure that before writing is introduced to a group of children, they must all be capable of talking with confidence about their life and the things happening around them. What this means is that these children must have

- (i) the desire to share their experiences and perceptions; and
- (ii) the ability to narrate one's experience or present one's view.

These children are ready to learn writing. However, a lot more is necessary before they can start writing words and sentences.

Writing any language involves making complicated shapes on paper. It requires acute perception and memory of subtle differences in the tiny shapes of individual letters of the alphabet. It also requires the ability to use 'abstract symbols' to convey ideas or feelings. Letters of the alphabet are abstract symbols. They are abstract inasmuch as they carry no pictorial similarity with the sounds they convey. For example, the shape of the letter 'A' has no particular reason to have the sound value of 'A'. We just accept it as 'A'. The child who wants to write English must accept 'A' as 'A' and use it only where 'A' is appropriate, either in combination with other letters or

independently (in the sense of "one'). In other words, he must get totally accustomed to a number of such arbitrary symbols.

The abilities mentioned above cannot develop in a day. The best way to develop them is by giving children the opportunity to draw and paint regularly. Few schools might have the money to spend on buying drawing paper and colours for all the children. But perhaps a lot of schools can organize drawing and painting with the help of the following material:

- pieces of charcoal, chalk, slate pencils (known as 'batti' in Hindi), and red sandstone ('geru' in Hindi);
- other kinds of locally available colour;
- old newspaper, used paper sheets, old copybooks or any other paper;
- plastic or tin cups or boxes.

Most of such material can be collected gradually, and the teacher can build this collection over a few years so that eventually she has a good stock of everything. One missing thing in this list is brushes. We do not need brushes if children are going to work with dry colours. But if a teacher wants children to mix colours in water, then she must find ways to acquire thick brushes. For very young children it may be possible to make brushes with cotton wool, but such brushes are quite difficult to maintain or use. On the other hand, if proper brushes are bought once and if they are washed carefully each time after they have been used, they will last a long time.

Who will make all the arrangements for drawing and painting? Who will distribute paper, mix colours, clean the floor when a glass of water spills, and so on? A teacher who takes all these responsibilities on herself and takes no help from children in organizing things and tidying up afterwards will soon be exhausted and perhaps frustrated. She may want to abandon such activities, and this will be very sad. To avoid this possibility, every teacher must make it appoint to get every child's help to spread paper, mix colour and water, pile up all the paintings neatly, and wash all the brushes. This training of children is part of their learning.

What are children going to depict in their drawings? This question is of central importance in the development of the desire to communicate and express. Once again we must look at the present situation and depart from it consciously. In the majority of schools where any kind of painting is ever done, children are asked to depict some stereotyped topics or objects, such as the lotus flower, kite, banana, and so on. Of course there is nothing wrong with a lotus flower; what is wrong is that a teacher should tell a five-year old child what he or she should depict.

The teacher knows that she is always in a position of authority. Whatever she will tell the child to do will be taken as a command. So if she tells the child to depict something specific like a banana, the child takes this as a command. From this command, the child learns the following things:

- the teacher knows what I am supposed to depict in my paintings;
- painting is not a medium for me to express myself;
- what I depict as banana must be approved by the teacher as a banana.

It is a common sight in nurseries and primary schools to see children using thin pencils with great difficulty, making a lotus flower or banana with great commitment to the teacher's command and with equally great frustration in not being able to fulfil it to their satisfaction. Primary schools may not have brushes, but a great many of them insist that all children must have erasers. And

erasers are used by children as a tool to achieve perfection. They make the figure of a banana, then erase it because they feel it is no good, then they make it again, and erase it again -- till the paper tears and the teacher is totally upset. In such practice, they surely get a lot of opportunity for finger movement (for good prewriting preparation?) but they get no sense of satisfaction at being able to communicate. This makes the entire activity quite wasteful and destructive.

Drawing and painting can contribute to the child's overall development, and especially to his development as a user of language and a writer, if the child is left free to explore these media independently. If you are working with very young children (i.e. three or four olds), your job as a teacher is mainly to provide enough paper and colour, and to have the patience to see the child's work completed. Given the ethos of being directed by the teacher in our country, many children will ask you to tell them what to draw or how to draw it. *It will not be easy to mould this habit of asking the teacher for direction into enjoyable use of the medium to express one's own ideas.* Such moulding can be achieved provided the teacher is patient, encouraging, and knows what her aim is.

Drawing with colours is of course not the only means of developing children's hand movement. A lot of other activities can contribute to such development. Pouring water from one pot to the other, sorting things such as seeds (the larger pulses, such as rajma, chana, lobia, are excellent for this), lifting things and putting them back, and feeling the shapes of things are examples of such activities. One may expect that such activities are common in homes. Unfortunately, this is not true.

In many many homes, including homes of the poor as well as middle class people, children are not allowed to touch things. Often they are not allowed to touch anything that can break; so, something that might assist the child to learn how to -handle objects carefully is kept out of the child's reach. Consequently, a large number of children are deprived of basic experiences that their hands should have had. The influence of such deprivation on writing may be indirect, but it is a grave influence. The teacher who does not bother to provide activities that might let the child overcome the deprivation may face serious problems in teaching writing skills. Drawing and painting are excellent media to avert such problems.

Starting to write

At what point or age we can start teaching how to write is a decision that every teacher must make according to her assessment of the children she is working with. A good criterion for deciding is whether the children have developed reasonable amount of flexibility and control in their hand and finger movement through drawing and other activities. Children who have been exposed to books or other forms of reading material (see the chapter on Reading) may themselves demand opportunities to write. This will make the teacher's task easier. When children demand something, it is a sure sign that they want to do it at that point. It may be that the task proves too hard, so the demand is withdrawn after some time. But it will surely be made again after a few days. This is how children encounter and master a lot of things, and the case of writing is no different.

When you have decided to start teaching how to write, the first thing to do is to *ask children* to tell you what you should write about. If you have been using the verb 'write' in your conversation with children, they will have no difficulty understanding what you mean. But if the children do not know what you want, you can proceed differently by asking for names of things, such as: animals they admire, things they like to eat, things that move, things they are afraid of, * and so on. You can tell them that you will write one word on every child's copybook or on the floor, and

so every child must give you a different word to write. Ask children to copy this word just below where you have written it or trace over it first.

The floor is an excellent space as a resource for learning to write. It allows you to write in big letters, and it is a lot cheaper since the only thing you have to buy is chalk or charcoal, or some other local variant. The only problem that the floor presents is the need to wash it afterwards. If you can involve children in washing it at the end of the day, you can achieve very high levels of motivation for learning to write. Some parents may oppose the involvement of children in washing the floor, and you will have to decide what to do with their opposition. These are, of course, not the only ways to start. Those working with children will have heard of several approaches, the most common being that of starting- by teaching how to write letters of the alphabet. Whether one uses the blackboard to write out the letters in large size, or cuts them in cardboard, or asks children to copy them from their primer --one thing we must keep in mind is that *the alphabet has no meaning, and therefore excessive or isolated emphasis on the alphabet can discourage children from seeing writing as a means of meaningful communication*. However, the alphabet can be fruitfully introduced after the teacher has established several strong bridges between words and meaning.

There can be many ways to incorporate the alphabet in early writing without teaching it in a mechanical fashion. For example, you can maintain a long list of words, and present a small selection of those that start with the same letter. Draw children's attention to this fact, and then ask them to spot more similar letters. Each time you organize this kind of activity, you can ask children to review the words they had seen last time. As you gradually build up their stock of commonly used words, you can begin to sort them out according to different characteristics (e.g. length, part of speech, content, etc.) and paste up the words that belong to one 'category on the wall. There is no point pasting them up so high that only you can see them clearly. I would not have mentioned this if I had not visited many schools where pictures and charts are stuck far above the reach of children. Any material, which is placed too high for children to see is both useless and insulting to them.

* If this suggestion sounds strange, do remember that things that a child is afraid of have great emotional power in his mind, and therefore, he will remember such things easily.

Beyond the beginning

The real challenge of teaching how to write starts after children have mastered the basic skills involved in writing. The challenge consists of developing in children

- (i) a sense of audience, and
- (ii) the desire to convey.

To achieve this dual purpose, the teacher will have to keep long-term perspective in mind while organizing every little activity. Once again, the teacher must remember that the sense of audience and the desire to convey are relevant for both writing and talk. So, any activity that involves writing will benefit from the opportunity to talk, and vice-versa.

Having a sense of audience requires us to have a definite person in mind when we write. On the other hand, the desire to convey requires us to have a definite purpose as we write. Often, the writing that children 'do--whether words or sentences or whole stories--are meant for the teacher to read. In order to extend the child's sense of audience for classroom writing, the teacher can suggest some specific audiences for different activities. The child sitting next, someone else in the

class, children of another class, and parents can be some possibilities. Imagined receivers like a dog who visits the school at recess, a bus, or children of the adjoining village or town can present exciting opportunities for writing. As children grow older, their perception of the audience will undoubtedly widen towards the inclusion of many adults in society who perform specific roles.

The teacher's task is to notice when the child is using a distinct strategy of language to reach a specific audience, and to encourage such use. For example, if we ask children to tell a dog why they like him, it is important to encourage them to say something that the dog will understand and appreciate. What one says to a dog will differ in the content and style from what one might say to a friend. One might say to a dog, 'Good dog, sit down.' To a friend, one says, 'I like you because you play with me.' The choice of content for any specific audience influences the choice of words, phrases, and the structure of the entire sentence. But one need not teach about words and structures independently. Children will gradually learn the implications of their choices when they have had opportunities to write for a variety of audiences.

Having something to convey depends on several aspects of the child's personality, perhaps the most important aspect being confidence in one's own perceptions. A child who has never been asked to talk about what he has seen, or a child whose narration of events has always been criticised or ignored is unlikely to have developed confidence in his own perceptions. Such a child is also unlikely to feel excited about conveying something. The usual response of such a child to an invitation to talk or write is: 'I've nothing to say'. The child may not say this; but by asking the teacher to tell him what to write, he will show that he has nothing of his own to say. If you are working with such children, your job will be doubly challenging, for you will have to rebuild their confidence in themselves, in the validity of their view of the world.

The teacher's response

As soon as children have started writing on their own, a great deal of their progress starts to depend on the teacher's response. In many many primary schools in our country, the only response the teacher makes consists of corrections of spelling or grammar. Copybooks of children are littered with corrections made by the teacher in red ink. On the other hand, when the child has written everything 'correctly', the teacher simply puts a 'right' mark and signs. Both such responses are highly inadequate if not outright destructive. Apart from correcting the child's mistakes or putting an approval sign, the teacher must write something expressing her response to the child's writing. Did it remind you of something? Why does it seem a good piece of writing? What more could be said? Has someone written something differently? There are a hundred ways of responding to a piece of writing. Every time, as a teacher you must extend what the child has conveyed, just as you need to extend the child's talk by expressing your response in an elaborate manner. By writing a sentence or two on the child's copybook, you will show to the child that you see writing as a form of dialogue rather than as a mechanical exercise. Even if what you are checking is a grammar drill -- something all teachers have to cope with -- you can say something interesting and personal, although brief, at the end. It will be more important to the child than your signature.

For correcting mistakes, it is not enough to spot them. If you merely spot the mistakes and circle or underline them in red ink, you are only emphasising examples of the child's inadequacy. More important is to show your recognition of the child's mastery where it has occurred and to offer the correct alternative to portions where a mistake has occurred. Another way of helping the child with a mistake is to invite the child's active attention to identification of the mistake. For example, if you want to correct the spelling of a certain word, give the right spelling and now write the word thrice with different spellings. Ask the child to spot the correct spelling. If you

involve the child in spotting an error, you are helping him to develop the capacity to look at his own work with a critical eye.

1 Familiar Things

Talk about 'sets' of household objects or other familiar things, such as 'utensils', 'clothes', 'vehicles'. Ask children to name different things that would come under a set (e.g. spoons, pans, cups, under 'utensils'). List all things that form a set on the blackboard.

Form two groups of children. Every child in the first group will copy the name of one thing from the list. For instance, someone will have 'spoon', someone else will have 'thali'. Children of the second group will now demand things. One at a time. Whoever has the demanded thing in the first group must stand up and go over to the child who has demanded it, and show him how to write the word he had copied earlier.

2 Collecting Signs

Depending on the area where you work, you can choose signs of different kinds. In villages, slogans written on walls, posters, and advertisements can be used.

Ask children to copy the signs they see on their way to school. Write all the signs on the blackboard and ask children to explain where they found them and what they mean.

3 Completing Words

Pair all children. One child will start a word, the other one will finish it. They will take turns till each has completed ten words successfully

4 Just One Word

Form groups of five. Each group will have one piece of paper or copybook to write on, and at least one pencil. Select one child as the 'starter' in each group.

The starter thinks of a sentence but he can only write one word on the paper which now goes to the next child in the group. The child can also contribute just one word-that goes with the first which is already there. The paper keeps going around till the sentence is complete.

Anyone can decide at any point that the sentence has become 'sick' and therefore must be abandoned. If others agree, the group gives the paper back to the starter or selects a different starter to write a fresh word.

5 Drawing a Map

Ask children to tell the class how they go home. First tell them how you go home-describing briefly but clearly two or three things that you meet on your way.

When every child has had a chance to tell, ask them to draw a map showing the route they have just talked about. To demonstrate, draw the map showing your route on the blackboard. Go to each child as the map making is in progress and write the name of one of the objects that he wants to show on the map, such 'tree', 'shop', 'mailbox', etc. Ask the child to copy the word just below the map.

Next time, do this activity by talking about the way to some other place, such as 'my friend's house', 'sabzi mandi', 'temple'.

Each time you organize this activity, increase the number of words you write in the map

6 Places Around Us

This is an extension of the activity, but this time we ask children to draw maps of spaces or places they know rather than of the way to get there. Examples:

The school's backyard
The classroom
Nearby pond or river

Write the name of any one object shown in the map at the appropriate place. Ask children to make the same map again, this time writing the name of the object where it belongs in the map.

7 Getting There

Ask children to find out from their elders the names of nearby villages or towns.

Write the names of these places on the blackboard. Ask children to copy them.

Arrange the names according to direction, making a simple map on the blackboard. Distribute the names among children and arrange the children according to the map. Create a short dialogue based on the directions for each place.

Example:

'Where are you going?'

'I'm going to Jhansi.'

'Where is it?'

'In the north.'

'How far...'

Introduce words for direction and distance in writing.

8 Writing About Pictures

See activity No.8 in the chapter on 'Talk' and organize it with older children, asking them to write answers to your questions

Use children's own pictures as well as advertisements, magazines, etc. Start by asking children to describe the picture, then proceed to the more complex questions.

9 Listing Sounds

To do this activity for the first time, include four or five older children who already know how to write. They will serve as 'recorders'.

Divide children into groups of five or six. Each group has to prepare a list of all the sounds that

can be distinguished by the group members Each group can move around a little, taking turns to stay at the gate for a few minutes, going to the back, etc. Whenever a member identifies a new sound (e.g. the creak of a door, leaves shaking), she tells the recorder who enters it in the list.

When the groups reassemble, the recorders read out their lists. Members can be asked to copy the sound they contributed, identify it in the list, and write it out.

10 Making Poetry

Make groups of five. Give four lines of poetry to each group and ask them to add four more lines.

Let each group go away to some distance for fifteen or twenty minutes of discussion.

Chapter 5.

Textbooks, Spaces and Examinations

This final chapter is about the realities of life at a primary school, and the question dealt with here is:

"Is it possible to follow the suggestions given in this handbook and, at the same time, fulfil the routine requirements of an ordinary primary school?"

Surely this question will bother a number of teachers who might read this book. And it is an important question for those too who want to use this handbook as a manual for the training of teachers. No one is more aware of the realities of school life than the teacher. So if this book does not convince the teacher that it has been written with recognition of the school's reality, it will surely fail to make any sense.

Primers and prescribed textbooks

Every teacher in our country is expected to 'cover' the textbook; that is, she is expected to finish each lesson given in the textbook one by one, doing the exercises that the textbook offers, giving homework concerning each lesson, and ensuring that children have a mastery over the content of each lesson. There is no doubt that these expectations are counterproductive as far as the teaching of language is concerned. Making a kind of intellectual paste of the lessons given in a prescribed textbook, and persuading children to eat a bit of this paste everyday cannot be an enjoyable and exciting experiences .Yet this is what we as teachers are required to do.

What we can do in this situation is to recognize that no textbook in the world can provide all the material that is necessary to make children's life at school enjoyable and worthwhile. Even the best textbook can only offer a little good material and guidance. The rest must come from the teacher's own resourcefulness and hard work. If we accept this view, we can begin to consider how compatible the advice given in this handbook is with the requirements of a prescribed textbook. Let us recall the main point that this book wanted to raise, namely: 'What are we teaching in a language class?'

This book answers the question by saying that the teaching of language covers a wide range of experiences related to the development of children's minds. The language class gives us an opportunity to work with children in a highly flexible, creative, and enjoyable medium. What is special about this medium is that all the children are already familiar with it when they come to school. They use it in a variety of circumstances, adjusting it to meet the requirements of different situations. The teacher of language is not going, to offer them something totally new; all she can do is to help them enhance their mastery over the medium which they are already using. The teacher can do this by creating conditions in which children can develop new skills and use these skills, such as reading and writing, to sharpen their abilities to learn and respond.

In this agenda any book can only serve as a resource, and textbooks are no different. If the textbook is of good quality, it might have a more frequent use than other books would have. The exercises given in it, provided they are well designed in terms of the aims discussed in -this handbook, can be used as a basis of classroom talk and writing. However, it should be clear to the teacher that her main aim is to develop children's ability to use language rather than to 'cover' the

textbook lesson by lesson. If the textbook begins to dominate life in the classroom (for instance, if the teacher stops using other resources and materials), it should be a matter of concern.

At the same time, it is worth noting that the activities and approach which have been proposed in this handbook are by no means incompatible with a textbook or primer. Any teacher can combine textbook-based activities with the 'ones recommended here. Indeed, such a teacher can expect that the textbook would become much less difficult for children to understand if they are getting opportunities to use and learn language in a wide range of creative activities. Such children can master the prescribed textbook a lot faster than other children whose entire training in language in the classroom depends on the textbook.

In a number of activities described in this book, the textbook can be directly used as a source for printed material, pictures, and topics for talk. It may be best to use the textbook in combination with other resources, otherwise it may become too familiar and therefore the activities based on it may not bring the kind of thrill that comes from handling something new. Every teacher will have to determine the right proportion of textbook-based activities in wider programme using a variety of resources. One thing necessary is to feel confident that the textbook can be 'covered' (as the school may require) without being transformed into a paste day after day by intensive reading.

How to use space

One serious problem that nearly all primary schools in India face is that of space. There are two sides of the problem one of which is quite well known, but the other one is rarely discussed. The first aspect relates to the number of children in a class or school; the second aspect relates to the organization of space.

There is enough evidence to say that if all children enrolled in a school came to school every day, we will see rather impossibly crowded conditions. There is no way that a teacher who must look after 50 children in a class can do justice to the approach and activities presented in this book. Similarly, teachers working at single-teacher schools may find it very difficult to utilize the ideas they will find in this handbook. If they can try out even a few of the activities on one or two days in a week, then this should be a matter of reasonable satisfaction to them.

The second aspect of the problem of space is relevant for all teachers—the ones who are lucky enough to have only 30 to 40 children in their class as well as those working in very crowded conditions. The challenge is to organize the space available in the school in a way that it serves as a congenial environment for the development of children's language. Perhaps no one would disagree that such an environment does not exist in most of our primary schools. The walls are bare, often quite dirty to look at; there are no shelves or cupboards, and when there is one, it is not used with any specific aim. Of course we are not taking into consideration the schools that have no walls or whose walls are crumbling. What can be achieved in such schools is beyond our purview.

In schools where the walls are strong and intact, they can be used for a variety of purposes that are relevant to this book. We have placed much emphasis on the opportunity to express oneself in different media, including pictures. Walls are an excellent means of storing pictures that children have made as well as pictures that the teacher has acquired. Both kinds of pictures can be used for eliciting talk and writing activities. The pictures should not be placed too high up on the walls.

And children will need to be gradually trained to treat wall-pictures with respect. If you, as a teacher, are moving from a bare-wall classroom (where children sprinkle ink when they start to write) to a picture-wall classroom, do not expect to be successful in a day or a week or even a month. It may take time for children, who have been used to bare or messy walls, to get used to nice pictures. But it will happen.

In many schools, walls are used for pasting or painting moral slogans. These slogans serve no purpose—either moral or linguistic—but the tradition lives. Teachers who will read this handbook and experiment along the lines given here will soon see that slogans consist of a very restrictive, stereotyped use of language. Since no one seems to live strictly according to the ideals given in a slogan, children begin to see the slogan as a meaningless use of language. If a classroom is decorated with moral slogans all around, one can imagine why it would be difficult to associate language with meaning. And isn't that our aim?

In place of moral slogans, you can consider making poetry-posters, consisting of a poem written in large-size letters and a picture. Older children can help you write the poem, and the younger children can draw illustration. Make sure that the poems you choose are exciting and enjoyable rather than didactic or philosophical. The best thing would be to select poems that the children enjoy and would like to place on the wall. It is quite necessary to keep on making such posters so that you can change them frequently.

And Examinations

Finally, teachers who want to use this book must reflect on the demands of the examination system. These demands start early. In private (not necessarily elite) schools, even entrance to the nursery and grade one is subject to test results. Later, every year the child is likely to face annual examinations, except in those parts of the country where promotion is ensured in the early grades. In any case, the grade five examination carries a lot of weight in many parts of the country, and beyond it stand many more examinations that instil anxiety in parents, teachers, and children alike. This anxiety is as much a part of our culture as is the joy of festivals like Diwali. It is hard to imagine an Indian child who is not worried about examinations!

If this book is used as a philosophical as well as a practical guide for the teaching of language to young children, it may have some impact on children's attitude towards examinations. The fear of examinations is at least partly a reflection of the lack of self-reliance among our children. Their belief in 'luck' at examination is related to the absence of opportunities in their school life to achieve success at doing something well without the teacher's help. Such opportunities are lacking in our schools because we teach knowledge rather than functional skills in all subjects, including language. What skill-learning does take place is mostly incidental. This handbook, if properly and consistently followed during the preschool and primary school years, can promise the growth of self-confidence in your children—self-confidence that will surely have an impact on their performance all round, including at the examination.

Appendix I

Some goods books for children

1. दूध-जलेबी (by Nirankar Dev Sewak; Indian Press)
2. ला मेघ चने का दाना (by kudsia Zaidi; Atma Ram & Sons)
3. बुढ़िया की गेटी (by Shankar; Children's Book Trust) (Also available in English)
4. बत्ता का जूता (by Sarveshwar Dayal Saxena; Radhakrishna Prakashan)
5. महंगू की यई (by Sarveshwar Dayal Saxena; Lipi Prakashan)
6. लुक्के मौसी (by Dayashankar Mishra; Hemkunt Press)
7. बालसखा पाइमर (Indian Press)
8. बस की सैर (Vallikanan; National Book trust) (Also available in English)
9. फल (by Sudh Chauhan; Sarjana Prakashan)
10. जंगल में बोला है मोर (by Prayag Shukla; Antara Prakashan)
11. नन्हे-मुन्ने शिशुगीत (by Nirankar Dev Sewak; Children's Book Trust)
12. जल का चमत्कार (Council for Scientific & Industrial Research)
13. गोलू के मामा (by Rameshchandra Shah; Purvodaya Prakashan)
14. महागिरि (by Hemlata; Children's Book Trust)
15. Ping (by Marjorie Flack; Puffin Books)
16. The Very Hungry Caterpillar (by Eric Carle; Puffin Books)
17. Life with Grandfather (by Shankar; Children's Book Trust)
18. Hari and Other Elephants (by Shankar; Children's Book Trust)
19. Goodnight Owl (by Pat Hutchins; Puffin Books)
20. The Kuia and the Spider (by Patricia Grace; Puffin Books)

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An Intensive Study of Factors Relating to Reading
Readiness with Implications for Prediction of
Success in the Developmental Reading Program

Janet R. Venatta

AN INTENSIVE STUDY
OF FACTORS RELATIVE TO READING
READINESS WITH IMPLICATIONS
FOR PREDICTION OF SUCCESS
IN THE DEVELOPMENTAL
READING PROGRAM

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presented to the faculty
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CHAPTER I

THE IMPORTANCE OF READING READINESS

The ability to read effectively is requisite to a completeness of present-day living. Educators have recognized the importance of reading ability as the fundamental basis for all learning in life inside the school. The parent becomes disturbed, and with justification, when he discovers his child cannot read. School workers likewise are disturbed over the failure of some children to successfully learn this necessary skill. In studying those children who experience failure in school, it becomes evident that their weakness in the reading skills was present at the primary grade level. Thus, the conclusion is reached, that failure to achieve the basic concepts and skills presented in the initial stages of reading instruction is an important factor contributing to later unsuccessful school experiences. This realization results in emphasis upon reading as the fundamental skill to be taught in the beginning school years. The necessity for insuring successful beginning reading experiences for all children has resulted in the evolution of the concept of reading readiness, or the realization that there are certain basic factors which determine whether or not the child will be successful in the initial reading program.

"As early as 1923, three pertinent facts were clearly recognized; first, that any child who expresses a desire to read at any age does so because of his previous experiences at home and in school; second, that children differ widely in readiness for reading when they enter school, and third, that many of them need further training and experience before systematic effort should be made to teach them to read."¹

Reading readiness is the name given to that stage of development which permits the child to successfully receive instruction in reading. Although the name itself is simple, reading readiness is actually a complex of many variables. It consists of many factors, some of which are intangible, while others are easily identified. Persons who have given a great deal of attention to the problem of reading readiness, and who are recognized authorities on that subject, are in fundamental agreement as to which discrete factors are included in the development of reading readiness.

Harrison¹ states that it is very difficult to determine which single factor is most important in developing readiness for reading. She makes distinction between three types of factors, namely, (1) those which are distinct abilities and which may be observed and measured against clearly defined norms, (2) those which are levels of maturation and development, some of which may be influenced by school, others which are subject only to the child's maturation, and (3) those which are conditions within the child's environment. She classifies these factors as Intellectual Development, Physical Development, and Personal Development.

1. Harrison, E. Lucile, *READING READINESS*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Chicago, 1936, p.5.

2. *Ibid*, pp. 22-23.

Bond³ groups the various factors of reading readiness under four headings. These are (1) mental readiness, (2) physical readiness, (3) personal and emotional readiness, and (4) educational readiness. Hildreth⁴ groups the readiness factors under four headings. She lists the chief factors as mental maturity, perceptual maturity, sensory acuity, and linguistic maturity.

In discussing the factors which influence the development of reading readiness, it is appropriate to consider first a group of factors included under the heading of mental maturity, or mental readiness.

Learning to read, in itself, may be considered to be a test of mental maturity, because it is an abstract skill involving intelligent understanding, the use of language, the ability to correctly interpret meaning, the capacity to associate meaning with words, the ability to anticipate and remember ideas in sequence, the capacity to think logically, and the ability to recall word forms. The ability to remember is also an essential prerequisite in learning to read.

McKee⁵ makes the point that although many people are of the opinion that any child who is six years of age can begin to learn to read, actually it is impossible for a child to learn this complex of abilities until he has acquired sufficient maturity. The child who has not matured in the necessary mental traits cannot master the necessary skills through mere repetition and drill.

3. Bond, Guy L. and Eva, TEACHING THE CHILD TO READ, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1943, pp. 24-25.

4. Hildreth, Gertrude, READINESS FOR SCHOOL BEGINNERS, World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York, 1950, pp. 13-15.

5. McKee, Paul, THE TEACHING OF READING IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, Houghton, Mifflin Company, Chicago, 1948, pp. 142-143.

Hildreth⁶ states further that the child who has not matured mentally will not be able to give sufficient attention, nor will he have the necessary capacity for perception. The ability to follow directions is also related directly to mental maturation. For a child to profit from instruction in the beginning reading skills, Hildreth indicates that it is necessary that he have reached a sufficient mental age, and that evidence points to the fact that the factor of mental age is related to learning to read. Bond⁷ repeats the frequent reference that a mental age of six years and six months is necessary for the child to have reached sufficient maturity to succeed in reading instruction.

Witty and Kopel⁸ reported from a study they had made, that in their opinion, reading instruction should be delayed until the child's mental growth would enable him to find meaning in the tasks assigned to him, and until the process of growth resulted in a condition in which reversals are few and perception of words and meanings are possible.

Also Witty and Kopel⁹ propose that most children should not receive reading instruction in the actual reading skills until they are approximately eight or nine years old. However, they feel that some children will be capable of successfully receiving reading instruction while in the first grade.

6. Hildreth, Gertrude, READINESS FOR SCHOOL BEGINNERS, p. 13.
 7. Bond, Roy L. and Eva, TEACHING THE CHILD TO READ, p. 25.
 8. Gray, William, et al., "Reading", REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH, American Educational Research Association, Washington, D.C., Vol. X, No. 2, April, 1940, p. 84.
 9. Ibid., p. 84.

Gates¹⁰ expresses the judgement that the postponement of reading instruction until children are eight or nine years old is not justified. He found that through the use of modern teaching methods, reasonable progress in learning to read could be achieved by children in the first grade. Mental maturation is extremely important in relation to gaining many of the other skills considered in the phrase, "reading readiness".

Hildreth¹¹ states that physical development and condition is of importance in acquiring reading readiness, since a child is much better equipped to learn if he has normal vitality, energy, and the alertness that results from good health. Bond¹² reminds us that a child who is in poor condition physically, usually is quite easily fatigued, and often does not have the energy which is necessary for ample and continued application to a task.

Monroe¹³ cautions that visual difficulties have often been the cause of failure to learn to read. It is necessary that the teacher recognize those children who have defective vision. Also, Monroe¹⁴ states that sufficient development of the nervous system is necessary if the child is to be successful in learning to read. The child's eyes must be developed to the stage where printed symbols can clearly be seen, either in a book or on the blackboard.

10. Ibid., p. 84.

11. Hildreth, Gertrude, READINESS FOR SCHOOL BEGINNERS, P. 17.

12. Bond, Guy L., and Eva, TEACHING THE CHILD TO READ, p. 29.

13. Monroe, Marion, GROWING INTO READING, Scott, Foresman and Company, Chicago, 1961, p. 111.

14. Ibid., p. 143.

The beginning school child has to make new and exacting visual adjustments in preparation for learning to read. It is necessary for him to accustom his eyes to near vision for longer periods. He will be expected to make finer judgements of shape, size, place relationships, and arrangement of visual details. For probably the first time the child will need to direct his eyes from left to right.¹⁵

Auditory development is another important factor in physical readiness. Before children are ready to read they must become familiar with the various qualities of sounds, especially as sounds are related to language.¹⁶ The child who has any sort of hearing defect must have special adjustments if he is to learn. Impairment of hearing usually results in a lack of learning which can be related to failure in learning to read.¹⁷

Although the role of speech defects in causing failure to learn to read is uncertain, it is recognized that when a speech defect is present, some action must be taken to correct the difficulty.¹⁸

In order to successfully learn to read, the child must be able to understand the use of oral language, discriminate between word sounds, distinguish word units, pronounce words correctly while reading orally, discriminate between similar word forms, sit quietly in order to fixate the eyes, move the eyes as required in reading, concentrate on reading for a reasonable length of time, and listen to and follow directions, all of which are directly related to the physical development and condition.

15. Bond, Gay L. and Eva, TEACHING THE CHILD TO READ, pp. 27-28.

16. Hildreth, Gertrude, READINESS FOR SCHOOL BEGINNERS, p. 14.

17. Bond, Gay L. and Eva, TEACHING THE CHILD TO READ, p. 29.

18. Hildreth, Gertrude, READINESS FOR SCHOOL BEGINNERS, p. 251.

19. Ibid., p. 251.

The personal and emotional factors in reading readiness are those which can be related directly to the child's environment. Most of the authorities in this area feel that in order to learn to read, the child must have acquired a broad background of understanding. The beginning school child who has visited many places, has had experiences with pictures and storytelling, is familiar with such articles of expression as crayons, paints, and clay, has a background of experience which will enable him to be more successful in beginning reading than the child who has not had these opportunities.²⁰

Hildreth²¹ lists seven other factors which are important in an adequate background of experience. These seven factors are (1) particular items of information, (2) concepts of space, size, time, and money, (3) facts about animals, people, etc., (4) orientation of time and place, (5) observation of surroundings, (6) experiences away from home, and (7) literacy of parents.

The child who is emotionally immature, or who is insecure for any reason, will not be able to learn to read easily. The child who does not have the ability to pay attention, listen to directions, make plans, participate in group work, and engage in social conversation is not prepared to learn to read. A child who is mature is able to be away from home for several hours without fear, and is able to play cooperatively with other children.²²

20. Ibid., p. 15.

21. Ibid., p. 16.

22. Ibid., p. 17.

Emotionally disturbed children who are pressured to learn to read before they have acquired the necessary attitudes, may identify reading with their emotional disturbances, thereby setting up psychological blocks which may be difficult to overcome.²³

A desire to learn to read is considered to be an important factor in reading readiness. The child who expresses a desire to learn to read does so because of his previous experiences, both at home and in school.²⁴ If a child's desire to read is based on a genuine love of books, and what they contain, the interest is a good indication that he is ready to read. Although the desire to read, of itself, does not insure success in reading, a lack of interest may keep the child from being successful even though he possesses the other qualifications.²⁵

The factors involved in reading readiness are so interwoven that it is rather difficult to isolate them. However, Bond²⁶ lists nine factors which he calls "educational factors", which are fairly typical. These factors are:

1. Backgrounds of understanding
2. Extent of vocabulary
3. Accuracy of speech patterns
4. Quality of oral English
5. Ability to attend
6. Ability to sense a sequence of ideas
7. Ability to follow directions
8. Ability to handle equipment
9. Desire to read.

23. Monroe, Marion, GROWING INTO READING, p. 22.

24. Ibid., p. vii.

25. Hildreth, Gertrude, READINESS FOR SCHOOL BEGINNERS, p. 256.

26. Bond, Guy L. and Eva, TEACHING THE CHILD TO READ, p. 31.

Some children enter school with sufficient ability to enable them to learn to read; other children may be taught to read after a short period of readiness, while still other children may require extensive training in readiness before they are capable of successfully attacking reading instruction.²⁷ Before beginning reading is taught, the teacher should be certain that the child has acquired the necessary readiness factors, or at any rate, that the most important factors are present. Of major importance in successful reading are adequate mental age, good vision, good hearing, emotional stability, and adjustment to the school situation.²⁸ Children who are mature will indicate their readiness for reading by showing interest in hearing stories read, by voluntarily studying pictures and books; by asking the meaning of words and asking to be taught the words; and by following the printed lines on the page as someone reads.²⁹

McKee lists six instructional jobs with which the teacher is concerned in the readiness program, namely, training in auditory discrimination, training in visual discrimination, teaching left-to-right progression, training in the skill of listening, creating a desire to learn to read, and developing concepts and a listening vocabulary.³⁰

27. Ibid., 23-24.

28. Harrison, M. Lucile, *READING READINESS*, pp. 28-30.

29. Hildreth, Gertrude, *READINESS FOR SCHOOL-BEGINNERS*, p. 262.

30. McKee, Paul, *THE TEACHING OF READING IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL*, pp. 144-145.

The process of learning to read is one of associating symbols with meanings. Reading is based upon the background of abilities possessed by the child when he begins to read. As there is a wide range of difference in the abilities of beginning school children, developing adequate skill for those children who have not made normal progress, and providing opportunities for growth for all children are necessary objectives of a program for developing reading readiness.³¹

31. Monroe, Marion, GROWING INTO READING, pp. 68-69.

CHAPTER II

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

The recognition of the importance of reading readiness has come to the attention of the test maker. Various tests have been developed for the purpose of determining the degree of readiness of children at their entrance in schools. In usual practice these tests are given after the children have had a few weeks to adjust to the school situation, have become familiar with the physical surroundings, and acquainted with their classmates and other personalities associated with the school. The reading-readiness tests are used by the teacher for diagnostic purposes. From studying the scores of the children on each part of the test, she can determine which children need special emphasis on certain of the readiness skills in order to develop readiness for reading. Also, the test scores are often studied, in order to predict the possible reading growth of the children during the first year of school. Experience indicates that generally those children who receive a high score on the readiness test will have achieved a higher level of growth by the end of the year, than will those who have received a low readiness score. Possibly the reason for this is that those children who show a high degree of readiness will be able to begin reading instruction earlier than those who show a low degree of readiness.

For many years it has been observed that some children, upon entering school, are able to meet the demands of the initial stage of reading instruction with success, while others have had a great deal of trouble in mastering the skills in beginning reading. Primary teachers, working with these children, are sensitive to the need for the development of valid readiness tests to serve as reliable prediction devices of future growth in reading. Several studies provide the evidence to substantiate the significance of the concept of reading readiness, and to evaluate the worth of reading readiness tests in predicting possible reading growth during the first year of school.

Monroe³² presented evidence from a study of the records of 85 six-year-old children in four 1b grades. She found that the correlation between reading achievement near the end of the year and the total score on the Monroe Reading Aptitude Tests was .75. Predictive value was greatest, she found, in the classes which had received the most effective teaching. These children, as a group, also made the greatest average gain in reading.

Wright³³ published a report on a study in which he had compared five predictive measures with success in reading. His was a two-year study, involving approximately 400 beginning first-grade pupils. He used the Metropolitan Readiness Test, a pupil rating

32. Monroe, Marion, "Reading Aptitude Tests for the Prediction of Success and Failure in Beginning Reading," EDUCATION, The Palmer Company, Boston, Vol. 56, Sept. 1935, pp. 7-14.

33. Gray, William S., REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH, Vol. VII, No. 5, December 1937, pp. 494-495.

scale by which the pupils were rated by their teachers, the Detroit First-Grade Intelligence Test, The Lee-Clark Reading Readiness Test, and chronological age.

His results showed that all measures, with the exception of chronological age, correlated significantly with reading achievement. He found that the pupil rating scale and the Metropolitan Readiness Test produced the highest correlations.

Grant³⁴ conducted a study in which he compared the predictive value of the Metropolitan Readiness Test with the Pintner-Cunningham Primary Mental Test. He used 250 first-graders as subjects. Two years after these first two measures were administered, the Gates Primary Reading Test was given. The children who made perfect scores on this measure were given the Metropolitan Achievement Test in Reading, and in some cases, the DeVault Primary Reading Test. His results indicate that the Metropolitan Readiness Test measures factors which are significantly related to later success in reading, and that it is on a par with the Pintner-Cunningham Primary Mental Test in providing a basis for predicting reading success.

Max S. Henig³⁵ conducted a study comparing the Lee-Clark Reading Readiness Test with experienced teacher's opinions to determine the value of each as predictive devices regarding the

34. Grant, Albert, "Comparison of the Metropolitan Readiness Test and the Pintner-Cunningham Primary Mental Test", ELEMENTARY SCHOOL JOURNAL, University of Chicago, Chicago, Vol. 38, Oct. 1937, pp. 118-126.

35. Henig, Max S., ELEMENTARY SCHOOL JOURNAL, Vol. 1, Sept. 1949, pp. 41-46.

reading growth of children during the first year of school. He used teacher's marks as indications of reading achievement. He found both measures to be of significance in predicting reading growth:

Selma Herr³⁶ found a correlation of .904 between the scores obtained on the Metropolitan Readiness Test and the Primary Battery of the Metropolitan Achievement Tests, in a study she conducted.

Kottmeyer³⁷ reports a correlation of .77 between teacher judgement of readiness to read and reading achievement based on the Gates Primary Reading Test; a correlation of .71 between the scores from the readiness test and those from the Gates Primary Reading Test; and a correlation of .60 between the scores from the Detroit First-Grade Intelligence Test and reading achievement.

Lee, Clark, and Lee,³⁸ when determining the validity of the Lee-Clark Reading Readiness Test, found a correlation of .49 between the readiness test and the Lee-Clark Primer Test; .40 between the readiness test and the Detroit First-Grade Intelligence Test; .54 between the readiness test and the Gates Primary Reading Test; and .39 between the readiness test and the Pintner-Cunningham

36. Herr, Selma E., "Effect of Pre-First-Grade Training upon the Reading Readiness and Reading Achievement Among Spanish-American Children", JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY, Warwick and York, Baltimore, Md., Vol. 31, Dec. 1940, pp. 653-664.

37. Kottmeyer, William, "Readiness for Reading", ELEMENTARY ENGLISH REVIEW, National Council of Teachers of English, Chicago, No. 24, Oct., 1947, pp. 355-358.

38. Lee, J. Murray, Clark, Willis W., and Lee, Dorris May, "An Experimental Study of Certain Factors Influencing Reading Readiness", ELEMENTARY SCHOOL JOURNAL, Vol. 34, May 1934, pp. 656-663.

Primary Mental Test. From their results they express the opinion that the teacher, the percentage of failure, the teaching methods, and the types of learning activities, all affect the extent to which possible reading growth can be predicted.

Petty³⁹ conducted a study using 102 first graders as subjects in which the Harrington Revision of the Binet-Simon Test was used as a measure of intelligence; Peck and Manuel's Non-Language Prediction Test for Young Children, and the Lee-Clark Reading Readiness Test were the other measures used. Teacher's marks were used as an indication of reading growth. Although her results indicated fairly significant relationships between the predictive devices and reading achievement, it was also indicated that home, social, health, disciplinary, or personality problems affect the reading growth of children.

Carr and Michaels⁴⁰ state that they have discovered teacher's observations to be just as useful as reading readiness tests in predicting possible reading growth. They express the opinion that reading-readiness tests will have to become more accurate measures before they will be definitely superior to intelligent observation and judgement by the teacher.

In considering the value of the reading-readiness test as a predictive device, it must be kept in mind that there are many factors to be considered, which cause variation in the findings

39. Petty, Mary Clare, JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY, Vol. 30, March 1939, pp. 215-228.

40. Carr, John and Michaels, Matilda, ELEMENTARY ENGLISH REVIEW, Vol. VIII, April 1941, pp. 133-138.

of research. Hildreth⁴¹ observes that the correlations are usually higher when the readiness test and the achievement test used were developed by the same author. Also, the prediction of reading growth depends upon the teacher, the teaching methods, and how reading is taught.

Fendrick and McClade⁴² express the opinion that readiness tests add little to intelligence tests as predictive measures, and Gates⁴³ says that the teacher will profit from reading-readiness tests if he concerns himself with the pupils' status in each test given, then arranges his work to conform to it. Test results should not be followed blindly; all of the factors influencing reading growth should be considered when predicting possible reading achievement of first graders.

In spite of the lack of uniformity in results of various studies, the reality of the existence of reading readiness is the established fact. Too, the importance of an adequate readiness in meeting the initial demands of the basal reading program cannot be denied. The improvement of techniques and devices for determining reading readiness to the end that better prediction of success may be achieved is the challenge issued to all workers in education. It is in answer to this challenge that the writer seeks to make a contribution.

42. Fendrick, Paul and McClade, Charles, *ELEMENTARY SCHOOL JOURNAL*, Vol. 39, Nov., 1938, pp. 187-94.

43. Gray, William, *REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH*, Vol. VII, No. 5, Dec., 1937, pp. 494-495.

CHAPTER III

PURPOSE AND PROCEDURE

The Problem

The purpose of this paper is to review the reading readiness problem with special reference to its importance as a determinant at entrance to first grade. A number of studies relating to the readiness problem have been discussed in the preceding pages. The study which is to be reported upon here is the result of the interest, on the part of the author, in matters of reading readiness and the factors related to readiness. This is the report of a study of a sample of first-grade children in the Danville, Illinois Public Schools, with reference to those factors which relate to reading readiness and growth, specifically, chronological age, mental age, I.Q., and reading readiness as indicated by test scores. Also contained in the study are the case-analyses of twenty-two selected children, with particular reference to the inter-relationship of the reading readiness factors, gathered from objective data, combined with social and emotional factors, gathered from anecdotal evidence, subjectively interpreted.

The Population of the Study

The test data for this study was collected during the school year 1954-55. A group of 100 children, drawn from the enrollment of the first grades of the Grant, Daniel, and Lincoln Schools comprised the population from which the data was collected for this study. These schools were selected because the first-grade teachers showed a willingness to cooperate in the collection of the data. The sample includes children who were enrolled in five first-grade classes within these schools, and indicates the growth of those children who were enrolled, who are enrolled now, and who will be enrolled in these schools in the future, provided the population, teachers, and the conditions in the area remain the same. The group, in economic status, extends from the upper-middle level to an extremely low economic level. The majority are children of factory laborers. In many cases, both parents work, and in a substantial number of cases, the children do not live with both parents, or are living with foster parents, as a result of death, divorce, or abandonment.

Materials

The Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Tests:*

The Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Tests were used to determine readiness for reading. The test is published in three separate booklets. In administering the tests, the children are directed to draw a line under a word or picture, or to draw a line from one word or picture to another.

The Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Battery is designed to evaluate some of the specific abilities and skills that children use in beginning reading. The battery consists of the following group tests:

- I. Making Visual Discriminations
 - a. Attention Span Controlled
 - b. Attention Span Uncontrolled
- II. Using the Context
- III. Making Auditory Discriminations
- IV. Using Context and Auditory Clues
- V. Using Symbols.

In tests II, III, IV, and V, it is necessary that the children have some skill in using pictures. Some degree of ability in the use of listening skills is required in following the directions for all the tests. The examination of detailed pictures and word forms proceeds from left-to-right in all the tests, therefore, three specific skills are indirectly evaluated in tests which measure other skills directly. The three skills which are measured indirectly are (1) using pictures, (2) listening skills, and (3) left-to-right progression.

In test V, the pupil's skill in making necessary associations to relate a symbol to the idea or things for which it stands, is measured. According to the test manual, Test V, was added to the others because it would give information of value in determining the readiness of a child to use a sight vocabulary effectively in meaningful reading.

* A copy of this test is included in the Appendix.

The Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test was published in 1949. This test, developed by M. Lucile Harrison and James B. Stroud, is designed to serve three functions. These three basic functions are:

1. to determine whether the specific readiness skills are sufficiently well developed so that the pupil can profitably enter the initial period of reading instruction, using any modern reading series;
2. to determine in what group in the first grade the pupil should be placed for instruction, and
3. to find in which of the skills the pupil must have further training before or during the initial reading period.

According to the authors, this test gives indication of the extent to which the child has mastery of those specific skills he needs for learning to read. No provision is made for averaging the scores received on the various tests. Each child is given a percentile ranking for each of the five tests of the series; when the scores for the series are tabulated, each child is classified according to the percentile rankings he received. Five classifications into which the children are placed have been set up. These are:

- Type I: Percentile rank of 75 or above in all the tests
- Type II: Percentile rank of 50 or above in all the tests
- Type III: Percentile rank of 50 or above in all but one or two of the tests
- Type IV: Percentile rank of 50 or above in only one or two of the tests
- Type V: Percentile rank of 25 or below in three or more of the tests.

For each classification, the authors make certain recommendations, as indicated below.

- Type I: The child shall be placed with a group of pupils who will require no special instruction in any of the specific skills tested, other than that which will follow in the regular program of reading instruction.
- Type II: The pupil shall be placed in a group where he can receive further training in those skills for which his percentile score is below 75.
- Type III: The only distinction between Types II and III, is in the amount of emphasis in those skills in which the child ranked below the 50th percentile.
- Type IV: This pupil shall have an extended readiness program in a non-reading group within the first grade.
- Type V: This pupil should have another whole year of readiness instruction.

The California Test of Mental Maturity:*

The California Test of Mental Maturity (Short Form) was administered to the group. This battery consists of seven group tests. Tests 1, 2, and 3 are concerned with abilities not related to language; from the total scores on these three tests it is possible to determine a mental age for non-language factors. Tests 4, 5, 6, and 7 measure abilities which are related to language; from the total scores on these tests, it is possible to determine a mental age for language factors. An I.Q. can be determined by using the data obtained from the entire test.

* A copy of this test is included in the Appendix.

The Gates Primary Reading Test:*

The Gates Primary Reading Test was administered to measure reading growth achieved. This test measures three important aspects of reading at the early primary stage, namely, word recognition, sentence reading, and paragraph reading. This test was developed by Arthur I. Gates, and, according to the author, primarily for diagnostic purposes in order to indicate the type of training needed by the individual child. The test is published in three booklets, each of which measures a different phase of reading ability. These are:

- Type I. Word Recognition: This test is designed to sample the ability to read words representative of the primary vocabulary.
- Type II. Sentence Reading: This test measures the ability to read sentences of increasing length and complexity.
- Type III. Paragraph Reading: This test requires the reading and understanding of paragraphs, except the first exercises, which are single sentences.

These tests are designed to measure general competence or power in each of the three aspects of reading described. Since the time allowed for each test is generous, the tests are not bare tests; they are primarily tests of the range, accuracy, and level or power of reading ability. Since speed is correlated positively with range, accuracy, and power of reading, the tests tend to measure speed in some degree. The raw scores obtained on this test may be transposed into reading grade-levels.

* A copy of this test is included in the appendix.

Procedure

No particular method of selection was used in determining which children from the first-grades of the Danville Public Schools should be included in the study. The language arts supervisor contacted various first-grade teachers, and those in the Daniel, McKinley, Lincoln, and Grant Schools were willing to give the necessary tests. Tests at the start of the study were given to 150 children, but complete data is available on only 100 children who completed the final stages of the study. Some children were out of school when some tests were given, other children left school during the progress of the study.

In October, 1954, the Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Tests were administered to the group. This was done at a certain time in conjunction with the reading readiness program carried out in the Danville Public Schools. At the time the tests were administered, the children were to be found in all stages of readiness development, a normal condition which could be expected of any group. Some of the children were well advanced in the readiness program, others were still in the early stages of readiness.

In February, 1955, the California Test of Mental Maturity was administered. This test, also, was given as part of the regular testing program carried on in the schools. The data from this test were then recorded as part of the necessary information for the study.

In May, 1955, the Gates Primary Reading Test was administered. These tests, along with the scores for each child, were then sent to the author for use in the study.

In administering all except the Gates Primary Reading Test, the children were tested in groups not to exceed fifteen in number. The Gates Test was administered to all pupils in the room at one time. The teachers administered each of the tests. The Harrison-Stroud Test and the California Mental Maturity Test were administered at one sitting, taking 1/2 day for each test. The Gates Test was given in three different sittings, on three consecutive days. However, no attempt was made to control the time of administering this test. Observation of the children for the case-study analysis was attempted only for that portion of the sample which was attending the Grant Elementary School.

Of this part of the total sample of children which were under study, 44 were present at various times of the year. However, transiency and illness removed half of the group so that complete data were available on only 22. These 22 children were studied with regard to any social and emotional factors which might influence their reading growth. The home situation of each of these children was considered, as well as the influence of physical factors which may have affected progress in reading. From the information gathered from an analysis of this limited sample, the author has attempted to determine to what extent personal and emotional factors influence reading readiness and growth.

The following chapter will present the results obtained from this study.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The tabulated data collected for this study is presented in the master table (Table I) which follows on the next pages. Information is presented for the 100 first-grade pupils for whom the data is complete. In columnar fashion, starting at the extreme left, the headings are read as follows:

1. Name
2. School
3. Chronological age
4. Mental age
5. I.Q.
6. Total score on Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Tests
 7. Score, Test Ia
 8. Score, Test Ib
 9. Score, Test II
 10. Score, Test III
 11. Score, Test IV
 12. Score, Test V
 13. Classification
14. Total score on Gates Primary Reading Tests
 15. Test I, Word Recognition
 16. Test II, Sentence Reading
 17. Test III, Paragraph Reading

The centile ranks for each section of the Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test may be obtained by consulting the table on page 2 of the manual of directions for administering the tests. This manual appears in the Appendix.

The table is to be read as follows: C. W., a pupil at Daniel School, is 94 months old, has a mental age of 93 months, and has an I.Q. of 98. She received a total score of 90 on the Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Tests; she scored 14 on Test Ia; 15 on Test Ib; 17 on Test II; 13 on Test III; 14 on Test IV; and 18 on Test V. She was classified as Type II. Her total score on the Gates Primary Reading Test was 73. She scored 28 on Test I; 31 on Test II; and 14 on Test III.

The fifth child, R. P., is a pupil at Daniel School. He has a chronological age of 93 months, a mental age of 95 months, and an I.Q. of 102. He received a total score of 91 on the Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test, with a score of 13 on Test Ia; 15 on Test Ib; 17 on Test II; 14 on Test III; 14 on Test IV; and 18 on Test V. He was classified as type II. His total score on the Gates Primary Reading Test was 67; he scored 24 on Test I; 21 on Test II; and 22 on Test III.

The twelfth child, N. W., is a pupil at Grant School. She has a chronological age of 86 months, a mental age of 87 months, and an I.Q. of 101. Her total score on the Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Tests was 65; she scored 10 on Test Ia; 7 on Test Ib; 15 on Test II; 7 on Test III; 9 on Test IV; and 16 on Test V. She was classified as Type V. Her total score on the Gates Primary Reading Test was 36. She scored 8 on Test I; 20 on Test II; and 8 on Test III.

MASTER TABLE OF DATA COLLECTED FOR THE STUDY
THE CHILDREN ARE LISTED ACCORDING TO CHRONOLOGICAL AGE

C. No.	Name	School	Chronological Age	Mental Age	I. P.	Harrison, Stroud Reading Readiness Tests						Gates Primary Reading Tests					
						Total Score	Ia	Ib	II	III	IV	V	Classification	Total Score	I	II	III
1	J. C.	L	94	98	105	88	11	15	17	14	16	15	18	73	28	31	14
2	M. P.	D	93	91	94	85	12	15	15	13	13	18	18	73	27	36	15
3	J. M.	L	93	104	111	85	14	13	16	13	11	14	18	73	15	23	13
4	M. P.	E	93	95	102	91	13	13	17	14	14	18	18	73	24	21	22
5	S. T.	S	92	113	121	91	13	18	15	14	17	16	18	73	31	25	19
6	G. S.	D	91	81	89	91	11	14	17	14	17	13	18	73	25	27	11
7	G. E.	L	90	97	107	95	14	15	17	10	11	12	18	73	32	27	18
8	M. P.	D	89	71	80	76	12	12	13	12	9	13	18	73	19	32	11
9	D. W.	D	89	78	86	75	14	13	15	7	8	16	18	73	29	25	15
10	E. L.	D	87	90	103	84	14	15	12	12	17	14	18	73	20	23	18
11	E. V.	C	86	87	101	65	10	7	16	7	9	16	18	73	8	20	8
12	J. C.	C	86	86	130	67	2	6	13	0	10	18	18	73	1	3	1
13	D. W.	L	86	85	97	55	14	15	16	11	11	19	18	73	36	25	14
14	L. S.	D	86	86	100	74	12	14	15	0	10	16	18	73	20	22	12
15	J. D.	D	85	110	125	92	13	13	17	15	17	18	18	73	32	28	19
16	E. S.	D	85	87	102	83	13	14	15	11	11	18	18	73	40	11	23
17	K. H.	C	84	79	82	79	14	12	16	14	15	8	18	73	55	17	28
18	T. G.	F	84	71	84	69	11	13	14	10	8	15	18	73	30	15	15
19	M. H.	D	83	75	90	46	5	7	10	6	6	12	18	73	28	2	13
20	J. P.	D	83	101	122	98	13	13	15	12	14	18	18	73	69	25	27
21	R. E.	D	83	105	123	91	14	13	16	14	17	17	18	73	67	42	36
22	J. B.	C	82	68	83	68	13	14	8	13	9	13	18	73	30	10	21
23	L. B.	C	82	87	108	86	13	12	14	15	16	15	18	73	45	14	22
24	E. D.	D	82	93	114	78	11	14	16	12	7	16	18	73	71	26	25

MASTER TABLE OF DATA COLLECTED FOR THIS STUDY
(CONTINUED FROM PRECEDING PAGE)

D. N.	Name	School	Chronological Age	Mental Age	I.Q.	Harrison - Strood Reading-Readiness tests.										Gates Primary Reading Test		
						Total Score	Ia	Ib	II	III	IV	V	Class. Fixation	Total Score	I	II	III	
D. W.	L	82	88	108	85	11	12	16	13	15	18	3	87	62	30	25		
D. W.	D	82	79	93	74	11	10	15	9	11	13	4	89	2	16	11		
J. Z.	D	82	81	99	79	12	10	16	14	13	15	3	91	39	34	17		
D. W.	D	82	90	110	81	14	14	15	13	13	12	3	92	32	29	22		
D. W.	J	82	82	102	93	14	15	14	15	17	19	4	101	33	30	24		
D. S.	D	81	77	95	78	13	6	17	12	10	18	3	88	18	16	15		
D. S.	D	81	75	93	64	10	12	11	4	10	17	3	45	15	19	11		
S. J.	D	81	76	92	69	7	11	13	11	15	12	5	45	16	16	13		
D. D.	D	81	104	128	101	12	14	16	14	17	18	3	87	38	33	17		
R. K.	D	81	93	113	86	14	13	19	11	17	15	3	83	24	23	16		
L. W.	D	81	101	125	72	8	10	14	13	11	18	3	85	32	19	14		
R. W.	D	81	88	105	70	12	12	11	9	12	14	5	73	36	27	20		
L. O.	G	81	97	108	93	13	14	17	15	17	15	2	87	21	25	11		
C. O.	G	81	93	115	90	14	14	17	13	16	16	3	45	15	19	11		
J. B.	G	81	68	84	54	0	12	16	9	10	9	4	9	0	6	3		
C. S.	D	80	98	122	80	13	14	15	10	13	14	3	82	35	23	21		
R. B.	L	80	77	96	64	13	5	15	9	9	15	4	38	23	21	11		
H. R.	D	79	84	124	85	13	13	18	13	14	16	3	86	24	23	19		
E. W.	G	79	81	102	96	13	15	14	14	14	16	3	47	31	18	8		
H. G.	D	79	98	123	75	11	12	16	2	11	16	4	20	17	9	14		
J. T.	L	79	98	123	84	13	14	15	10	13	19	3	64	23	35	16		
M. G.	L	79	84	108	85	14	14	18	11	14	16	3	91	36	36	19		
S. V.	D	79	104	132	89	14	13	17	14	17	14	3	93	40	32	24		
M. S.	L	78	90	116	78	13	14	14	12	9	16	4	55	19	22	14		
R. R.	L	78	76	92	79	14	15	17	10	9	15	4	56	23	24	9		
L. S.	J	78	98	126	87	10	15	16	14	15	17	3	81	24	23	14		

MASTER TABLE OF DATA COLLECTED FOR THE STUDY
(CONTINUED FROM RECORDING PAGE)

No.	Name	School	Chronological Age	Mental Age	I. Q.	Harrison - Straud Reading Readiness Tests										Gates Primary Reading Tests		
						Total Score	Ia	Ib	II	III	IV	V	Classifications	Total Score	I	II	III	
1	C. E.	D	73	81	117	86	13	15	16	11	17	14	14	3	57	12	30	15
2	C. E.	D	78	79	101	74	14	13	14	10	8	13	8	2	45	21	21	13
3	A. F.	D	78	83	107	77	12	13	15	9	11	15	4	34	23	31	22	
4	J. F.	G	78	69	88	47	6	3	11	6	11	13	3	11	9	9	8	
5	J. L.	C	77	51	66	42	1	0	13	10	3	13	3	11	0	4	2	
6	S. K.	G	77	80	104	72	14	12	16	12	9	16	3	38	7	15	6	
7	J. H.	D	77	85	111	75	6	7	16	15	16	15	4	43	11	19	13	
8	L. Y.	L	77	90	117	83	13	15	16	12	13	14	3	32	24	25	15	
9	S. S.	L	77	84	109	73	14	15	13	11	11	9	4	36	17	30	9	
10	K. C.	L	77	101	133	90	13	14	17	13	14	17	2	31	23	21	14	
11	J. S.	L	76	87	115	82	14	13	16	9	12	16	3	35	20	27	18	
12	A. W.	D	76	66	87	40	8	0	13	0	4	9	5	37	3	13	13	
13	A. F.	D	76	79	104	80	11	13	17	14	13	12	3	31	30	25	15	
14	A. W.	C	76	81	106	57	8	11	15	9	10	4	3	15	4	6	9	
15	B. W.	G	76	74	97	77	14	13	13	7	11	17	2	43	20	18	11	
16	V. H.	G	76	86	113	83	14	14	15	11	12	17	3	32	16	25	10	
17	R. P.	D	75	92	131	89	12	15	16	13	17	14	3	35	33	30	18	
18	K. C.	D	75	69	93	51	4	12	12	4	8	11	2	14	6	9	5	
19	T. L.	L	75	71	94	65	10	12	15	7	10	13	3	22	8	7	7	
20	P. Z.	G	75	75	100	76	13	14	14	7	11	17	4	43	22	15	6	
21	H. S.	D	75	82	112	93	13	14	15	11	11	18	3	65	30	20	15	
22	D. H.	D	75	78	106	65	8	7	15	10	9	16	3	30	23	25	12	
23	T. E.	D	75	61	81	55	9	10	13	8	8	5	5	16	6	6	4	
24	D. M.	D	74	80	83	61	8	9	15	7	9	13	5	20	4	8	9	
25	W. K.	D	74	78	106	75	12	13	15	9	8	12	4	60	24	25	20	

MASTER TABLE OF DATA COLLECTED FOR THE STUDY
(CONTINUED FROM PRECEDING PAGE)

Name	School	Chronological Age	Mental Age	I. Q.	Harrison-Stroud Reading-Readiness Tests							classi- fication	Total Score	Gates Primary Reading Tests		
					Total Score	Ia	II	II	III	IV	V			I	II	III
D. A.	D	74	86	116	86	14	10	16	15	14	19	3	71	23	29	20
J. J.	D	74	81	110	75	10	13	16	9	10	18	4	57	21	23	13
L. B.	D	74	85	123	64	6	6	15	12	21	12	5	70	24	28	18
M. C.	G	74	88	131	89	14	15	16	11	15	13	2	91	31	33	18
J. B.	G	74	85	115	87	14	13	16	14	12	16	3	64	27	26	11
L. V.	D	73	85	113	90	12	13	16	15	12	12	3	58	22	19	13
H.	J	73	86	119	70	12	12	15	12	7	12	5	75	34	33	16
P. S.	D	73	82	98	60	6	7	12	6	11	14	5	61	25	23	15
C. M.	G	73	55	75	46	11	5	6	6	6	8	5	17	3	10	4
D. F.	D	73	82	112	81	11	14	14	14	14	14	3	55	23	22	18
W. W.	D	73	75	103	70	14	13	13	6	11	13	5	75	27	33	15
H. P.	G	72	64	89	50	7	6	12	9	10	7	5	11	6	5	6
B. E.	D	72	76	106	65	10	12	15	10	10	8	5	22	6	12	10
S. M.	E	72	74	102	70	13	12	15	10	9	12	5	56	24	26	16
E. T.	L	72	97	135	98	14	12	14	13	15	17	3	91	39	31	21
M. D.	L	72	113	157	69	14	14	17	13	15	16	3	87	35	30	22
G. T.	S	72	77	135	85	14	15	16	21	13	16	3	89	37	30	22
O. B.	D	72	90	125	94	14	14	15	15	17	18	2	93	37	33	23
R. C.	D	72	91	127	79	13	13	16	11	8	18	3	90	32	35	22
V. P.	G	71	82	130	89	12	12	17	14	15	18	3	65	23	20	16
W. E.	G	71	84	119	78	13	12	16	14	8	16	3	36	16	14	6
D. C.	G	71	85	127	71	14	13	16	14	13	1	3	17	5	9	5
L. M.	D	71	77	108	74	12	13	14	11	14	3	3	19	6	6	4
D. H.	E	71	79	111	62	10	14	17	9	14	18	3	67	28	25	14

Table II

	Range	Mean	Standard Error of Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error of Standard Deviation
G. A.	94-71	79.11	5.81	5.91	.42
M. A.	113-50	84.26	11.74	11.74	.85
I. Q.	157-85	102.91	15.29	15.29	1.08
R. R.	101-40	76.72	12.85	12.85	.90
Word Recognition	42-0	20.55	24.08	24.08	1.71
Sentence Reading	39-3	25.00	11.94	11.94	.85
Paragraph Reading	25-1	24.10	8.31	8.31	.59
R. A.	101-5	58.51	21.30	21.30	1.51

In Table II, above, the range, mean, and standard deviation for each of the variables is shown. The standard error of the mean and standard deviation are also shown. The standard error indicates that if future samples of the same size were taken from the same population, in the same manner, we would expect that, in 997 cases out of 1000, the true mean or deviation would be contained within the limits of $\pm 3\sigma$ of the mean or deviation obtained for this

Reference to Table II reveals that the mean or average chronological age for this sample is 79.11. If the distribution were normal, 68.27% of the ages would fall within the limits of ± 5.91 from the mean. In this sample, 70% of the ages fall within these limits, or between the limits of 73.20-85.01. This indicates that this distribution, although somewhat symmetrical, does deviate slightly from the normal. The distribution of each of the variables shows this slight deviation. Seventy percent of the I.Q.'s fall within the limits of $\pm 1\sigma_x$ from the mean; seventy-six percent of the reading readiness scores fall within $\pm 1\sigma_x$ from the mean, and 63% of the scores obtained from the Gates Primary Reading Test fall within $\pm 1\sigma_x$ from the mean. The factor which shows a definite influence upon each of the variables is the number of over-age children who were included in the group. The policy in the Danville Public Schools of retaining those pupils who have not achieved sufficient growth, resulted in 23 of the 100 children being older than we would normally expect to find in a group of first-grade children.

In Table III, on the following page, the coefficient of correlation between pairs of the variables is shown. The Product-Moment Formula for Ungrouped Data⁴⁴ was used to compute the correlation coefficients. Reference to the table indicates a coefficient of $.27 \pm .095$ between chronological age and reading readiness. This indicates a low, positive correlation; however, the size of the σ_x indicates that we should have little confidence in this as the range included in $\pm 3\sigma_x$ indicates that in a sample such as this, the coefficient could fall anywhere between the limits of $-.02$ to $+.55$.

44. Blair, Morris, ELEMENTARY STATISTICS, Henry Holt and Co., New York, 1944, p. 277.

Table III

	Reading Readiness	Reading Achievement
C. A.	r. .27 <i>Pr.</i> .095	r. -.111 <i>Pr.</i> .102
M. A.	r. .93 <i>Pr.</i> .087	r. .50 <i>Pr.</i> .039
I. Q.		r. .28 <i>Pr.</i> .084
R. R.		r. .82 <i>Pr.</i> .033

Chronological age and reading achievement have a correlation coefficient of $-.111$ which indicates that the relationship between the two variables is insignificant. This concurs with results obtained by Wright (13) from a study in which he attempted to determine the significance of chronological age as a factor in predicting possible reading growth. The systematic influence of the over-age, low mental ability group shows up in this correlation, causing it to be negative.

The correlation coefficient $.50$ between mental age and reading achievement indicates that the relationship is significant, however, it is lower than the correlation found by Kottmeyer (16) between the scores from the Detroit First-Grade Intelligence Test and reading achievement. This too may be a result of the number of repeating children in the group. Their incentive to learn probably was not so great as it was during their first year in the first grade. The correlation coefficient between mental age and reading readiness is $.93$. This indicates an extremely close relationship between the two variables.

The correlation coefficient between I.Q. and reading achievement is $.28 \pm .084$. Here again, the size of the O_2 is great enough to cause some ~~doubt~~ ^{question} as to the degree of confidence which can be placed in this correlation.

Scores from the Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test show a correlation coefficient of $.82 \pm .033$ with reading achievement. This signifies a high relationship between the two variables and agrees with the findings of Grant(11) and Henig(14), both of whom discovered a high degree of relationship between reading readiness as determined by test scores, and reading achievement.

The factors showing positive significance with reading growth, as determined from the test results obtained from this study, are mental age and reading readiness as indicated by reading-readiness test scores.

Analytical Case Studies of Twenty-Two Selected Children Who Were Under Observation

The following pages contain case-study analyses of twenty-two selected children from the total number included in the study. These case studies contain the data obtained from the tests for each child, as well as some subjective data pertaining to the home situation and pre-school experiences, with reference to the degree of readiness shown at school entrance and subsequent growth in the developmental reading program.

P. Z. : Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test---Type IV
(percentile rankings)

Ia: 63rd.	III: 82nd.
Ib: 34th.	IV: 6th.
II: 18th.	V: 56th.

California Test of Mental Maturity
M.A. 6-2 I.Q. 100

Gates Primary Reading Tests

I. Reading Age, 7-6.3	Reading Grade, 2.23
II. Reading Age, 6-9	Reading Grade, 1.60
III. Reading Age, 7-0	Reading Grade, 1.75

P. Z. : P. Z. was the older of two children. Her parents had both received a high-school education. Her father was a factory worker, her mother a housewife. P. had been exposed to many experiences during her pre-school years. She was able to depend upon herself, and was a perfectionist in her work. She worked slowly at any given task. P. was six years, two months old when she entered first grade. The readiness test results classified her as "Type IV" or as a child who would require an extended program of readiness before beginning initial reading instruction. After approximately six weeks of readiness training, P. showed enough readiness to enable her to successfully enter the initial stage of reading instruction. After beginning reading instruction, she progressed steadily, and at the end of the term had successfully completed the prescribed first-grade reading program.

J. B. : Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test--Type III
(percentile rankings)

Ia: 87th.	III: 82nd.
Ib: 34th.	IV: 50th.
II: 57th.	V: 82nd.

California Test of Mental Maturity
M.A. 7-0 I.Q. 115

Gates Primary Reading Tests

I. Reading Age, 7-8	Reading Grade, 2.40
II. Reading Age, 7-6	Reading Grade, 2.20
III. Reading Age, 7-2	Reading Grade, 1.90

J. B. : J. B. was the older of two children. His parents had both completed a high-school education. His father was a factory laborer, his mother, a housewife. J. was a mature youngster; he had been exposed to many experiences during his pre-school life. J. was six years, one month old when he entered the first grade. The scores he obtained on the readiness test, placed him in the group which was classified as "Type III", or those children who could receive reading instruction along with training in those readiness skills in which they were weak. After approximately six weeks of readiness training, J. was able to begin reading instruction. At the end of the year, he had successfully completed the first-grade reading program.

J. : Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test Type IV
 (percentile rankings)
 Ia: 41st III: 19th
 Ib: 1st IV: 27th
 II: 10th V: 82nd

California Test of Mental Maturity
 MA 7-1 IQ 100

Gates Primary Reading Test
 I Reading Age 6-6 Reading Grade 1.30
 II Reading Age 6-6.5 Reading Grade 1.35
 III Reading Age 6-7 Reading Grade 1.40

J. was the fifth child in a family of six children. Neither of his parents had completed high school, both having completed school through the 10th grade. His father was a truck driver, his mother, a housewife. J. had experienced conflicting disciplinary measures in the home, until he was confused about what he should do. Each of J's older brothers and sisters had been successful in school, and he was often taunted because of his lack of success. J. was seven years, one month old when he entered first grade for the second time. The readiness test classified him as "Type IV," which indicated that he probably should receive extended readiness training. J. had a severe speech defect, which did not respond to speech correction. He received readiness instruction throughout the first semester, and at the end of the term he was reading successfully at the primer level.

L. O. : Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test Type II
 (percentile rankings)
 Ia: 67th III: 93rd
 Ib: 55th IV: 95th
 II: 85th V: 25th

California Test of Mental Maturity
 MA 7-3 IQ 108

Gates Primary Reading Test
 I Reading Age 7-6 Reading Grade 2.20
 II Reading Age 7-5.5 Reading Grade 2.15
 III Reading Age 7-2 Reading Grade 1.90

L. was the elder of two children. His father and mother had both completed one year of college training. His father was an attendant at the V. A. Hospital, his mother, a housewife.

L. was an extremely mature child. He had a great deal of self sufficiency. L. was a large child and was awkward in his physical movements. L. was six years, nine months old when he entered first grade. The classification given him by the readiness test was "Type II", or a child who could receive immediate reading instruction combined with training in the readiness skills in which weakness was apparent. L. received readiness training for approximately six weeks. He progressed steadily in the reading program and at the end of the term was successfully reading many books on the first reader level.

N. : Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test Type V
(percentile rankings)

Ia:	14th	III:	10th
Ib:	2nd	IV:	31st
II:	57th	V:	38th

California Test of Mental Maturity

MA	7-2	IQ	101
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Gates Primary Reading Test

I	Heading Age 6-8.5	Reading Grade	1.55
II	Reading Age 7-1	Reading Grade	1.00
III	Reading Age 7-0	Reading Grade	1.15

N. was the second of three children. She had one brother, age 8 years, and one sister, age one year. Both of N's parents had completed high school. Her father was a construction worker, her mother, a housewife. During the previous year, the family had moved three times, which necessitated N's transferring to three different schools. She was a sensitive child and did not readily adjust to new situations. N. was seven years, one month old when she entered first grade for the second time. From scores obtained on the readiness test, she received the classification "Type V," which indicated that she probably should receive a full year of readiness instruction. N. had weak eye muscles, and although she wore correction lenses, she had difficulty with visual discrimination. During the second semester, N. showed sufficient readiness to begin reading instruction. Her progress was steady, and at the end of the term she was reading successfully at the primer level.

V. : Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test Type III
(percentile rankings)

Ia:	87th	III:	82nd
Ib:	20th	IV:	76th
II:	57th	V:	3rd

California Test of Mental Maturity
MA 6-5 IQ 98

Gates Primary Reading Test

I	Reading Age 7-4	Reading Grade	2.00
II	Reading Age 7-7	Reading Grade	2.30
III	Reading Age 7-1.5	Reading Grade	1.85

V. was the oldest of three children. His parents had both completed school through the eighth grade. His father was a factory laborer, his mother, a housewife. V's mother was too busy with the younger children to have much time for him. Any failure V. experienced created in him an intense feeling of insecurity. He tried very hard to always succeed in his work. He worked slowly in order that he might be correct. V. was six years, eleven months old when he entered first grade for the second time. The readiness test gave him the classification of "Type III," which indicated that he could receive reading instruction combined with training in the readiness skills in which he was weak. V. was able to begin reading instruction after approximately eight weeks of readiness training. He progressed steadily, and at the end of the term was reading successfully at the first-reader level.

D. : Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test Type IV
(percentile rankings)

Ia:	87th	III:	10th
Ib:	34th	IV:	38th
II:	33rd	V:	56th

California Test of Mental Maturity
MA 6-1 IQ 97

Gates Primary Reading Test

I	Reading Age 6-11	Reading Grade	1.70
II	Reading Age 6-11	Reading Grade	1.70
III	Reading Age 7-2	Reading Grade	1.90

D. was the older of two children. His parents had both attended school through the twelfth grade. His father was a construction worker, his mother, a waitress. D. had always been allowed a great deal of freedom. He had experienced little discipline. D. had difficulty in making the initial adjustment to school and in learning to work and play cooperatively with the other children. His parents were interested in his success at school. D. was six years, three months old when he entered first grade. The classification he received from the readiness test was "Type IV".

D's classification meant that on the basis of the scores he received on the readiness test, he was considered to be a child who would require an extended readiness program before beginning initial reading instruction. D. showed readiness for reading after approximately 12 weeks of readiness training, and after attacking initial reading activities, progressed steadily. At the end of the school term he was reading successfully on the first reader level.

M. C. : Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test Type II
(percentile rankings)

Ia:	87th	III:	53rd
Ib:	84th	IV:	76th
II:	57th	V:	82nd

California Test of Mental Maturity
MA 6-2 IQ 101

Gates Primary Reading Test

I	Reading Age 7-11	Reading Grade	2.55
II	Reading Age 7-7.5	Reading Grade	2.35
III	Reading Age 7-3	Reading Grade	1.93

M. C. was the younger of two children. Both of his parents had completed a high school education. His father was a factory laborer, his mother a housewife. M. C. had been exposed to many experiences during his pre-school life. He attended kindergarten during the year previous to his entrance in first grade. His parents were interested in his progress at school, but did not emphasize it unduly. M. C. was six years, one month old when he entered school. He was classified as "Type II," which indicated that he was ready to begin reading instruction. After approximately six weeks of readiness training, M. C. was able to attack the initial stage of reading. He was successful in the beginning activity, and showed steady growth throughout the year. At the end of the term M. C. had successfully completed the reading program set up for first grade.

T. : Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test Type III
(percentile rankings)

Ia:	87th	III:	53rd
Ib:	55th	IV:	50th
II:	33rd	V:	56th

California Test of Mental Maturity
MA 7-1 IQ 113

Gates Primary Reading Test

I	Reading Age 7-3	Reading Grade	1.95
II	Reading Age 7-6.5	Reading Grade	2.15
III	Reading Age 7-7	Reading Grade	2.30

T. was the younger of two children. His father and mother had both completed high school. His father was a factory laborer.

T's mother was a housewife. He had been exposed to many experiences during his pre-school years. At home he was allowed freedom, but was subject to discipline as well. He made the initial adjustment to school easily and could work and play cooperatively with the other children. T. was six years, three months old when he entered first grade. He received a classification of "Type III," from the scores obtained on the readiness test. This meant that he could begin initial reading instruction, combined with instruction in those readiness skills in which he was weak. After approximately six weeks of readiness instruction, T. was able to begin initial reading instruction. He progressed steadily, and at the end of the term had successfully completed the prescribed reading program for first grade.

J. L. Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test Type V
(percentile rankings)

Ia:	0	III:	41st
Ib:	0	IV:	1st
II:	10th	V:	12th

California Test of Mental Maturity
MA 4 IQ 65

Gates Primary Reading Test

I	Reading Age 6-5	Reading Grade	1.20
II	Reading Age 6-7.5	Reading Grade	1.45
III	Reading Age 6-7.5	Reading Grade	1.45

J. L. was the second child in a family of five children. His father had completed only the first grade of school, his mother had completed the fourth grade. J. L. was a happy youngster, but had had few experiences, and was not able to understand new concepts. He was six years, four months old when he entered the first grade. He was classified as "Type V," from the results obtained from the readiness test. This indicated that he should receive readiness instruction for the full year. J. L. showed no progress in developing readiness skills, and at the end of the year he was working at an early level of readiness instruction.

W. S.: Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test Type V

Ia:	4th	III:	31st
Ib:	13th	IV:	27th
II:	33rd	V:	1st.

California Test of Mental Maturity
MA 6-8 IQ 106

Gates Primary Reading Test

I	Reading Age 6-5.7	Reading Grade	1.27
II	Reading Age 6-7.5	Reading Grade	1.45
III	Reading Age 6-7.5	Reading Grade	1.45

W. S. was the youngest in a family of three children.

S. K.'s progress was irregular and he received readiness training throughout the first semester before he showed sufficient skill to insure a successful experience in the reading program. At the end of the term S. K. was reading with success at the primer level. The test scores S. K. received are as follows:

S. K. : Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test Type III
(percentile rankings)

Ia:	37th	III:	63rd
Ib:	20th	IV:	12th
II:	57th	V:	38th

California Test of Mental Maturity
MA 6-8 IQ 104

Gates Primary Reading Test

I	Reading Age 6-6	Reading Grade	1.50
II	Reading Age 6-9	Reading Grade	1.60
III	Reading Age 8-10	Reading Grade	1.65

L. B. : Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test Type III
(percentile rankings)

Ia:	62nd	III:	93rd
Ib:	20th	IV:	66th
II:	18th	V:	92nd

California Test of Mental Maturity
MA 7-4 IQ 105

Gates Primary Reading Test

I	Reading Age 7-1.5	Reading Grade	1.85
II	Reading Age 7-3	Reading Grade	1.95
III	Reading Age 7-1	Reading Grade	1.80

L. was the oldest of four children. His father was a factory laborer. He had completed school through one semester of college. His mother, a housewife, had completed high school. L.'s mother was too busy with the younger children to have much time for him. L. was a happy-go-lucky child, who was not particularly interested in success or failure at school. He was six years, ten months old when he entered first grade for the second time. The Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test classified him as "Type III," or as a child who could enter reading instruction, combined with training in the readiness skills in which he was weak. After approximately eight weeks of readiness training L. was able to begin initial reading activities. He grew steadily and at the end of the term was reading successfully on the first-reader level.

J. B.¹ Harrison Stroud Reading Readiness Test. Type IV
(percentile rankings)

Ia:	62nd	III:	74th
Ib:	55th	IV:	19th
II:	0	V:	1st

California Test of Mental Maturity
MA 5-9 IQ 83

Gates Primary Reading Test

I	Reading Age	6-10	Reading Grade	1.65
II	Reading Age	7-2	Reading Grade	1.90
III	Reading Age	6-9	Reading Grade	1.60

J. was the youngest of six children, five of whom were being cared for in the Children's Home. J. lived with an elderly aunt and uncle. Her parents had abandoned the family when she was an infant. J. was emotionally immature; she resorted to tears on the slightest provocation, and made no attempt to solve her own problems. She could not successfully adjust to new situations within a short period of time. J. was six years, ten months old when she entered first grade for the second time. She was classified as "Type IV," from the results obtained from the Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test, which indicated that she should receive an extended program of reading. J. was kept in readiness training for the first semester. After attacking the initial reading activities, she progressed slowly, but steadily. At the end of the school term, J. was reading successfully on the primer level.

M. S. ; Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test Type V

Ia:	4th	III:	31st
Ib:	13th	IV:	27th
II:	33rd	V:	1st

California Test of Mental Maturity
MA 6-8 IQ 106

Gates Primary Reading Test

I	Reading Age	6-5.7	Reading Grade	1.27
II	Reading Age	6-7.5	Reading Grade	1.45
III	Reading Age	6-7.5	Reading Grade	1.45

M. S. was the youngest in a family of three children. His father and mother had been divorced before his birth. His mother had completed school through the twelfth grade. M. had experienced little control during his pre-school years. He was secure in the school situation, but lacked interest in the school activities. M. was six years, three months old when he entered school. The Reading Readiness Test results classified him as "Type V", which meant that he could be expected to remain in the readiness program throughout the year. M. S. received readiness training until March, when he showed enough skill to enable him to attack the reading program. He was successful in his attack and at the end of the term was reading with success at the pre-primer level.

H. P.: Harrison-Stroug Reading Readiness Test Type V
(percentile rankings)

Ia:	2nd	III:	19th
Ib:	1st	IV:	27th
II:	5th	V:	2nd

California Test of Mental Maturity
MA 5-3 IQ 89

Gates Primary Reading Test

I Reading Age:	6-5	Reading Grade	1.20
II Reading Age	6-7.2	Reading Grade	1.42
III Reading Age	6-10	Reading Grade	1.65

H. was the younger of two children. He had one sister, age 14. His father and mother had both attended school through the twelfth grade. His father was a factory laborer, his mother, a housewife. He had never been allowed to think for himself before the time of his school entrance. This over-protective attitude on the part of his parents and his sisters, seriously handicapped him in his development of the readiness skills. H. was interested in school, and in the work, but was too dependent upon the teacher for help. He was incapable of thinking of the next step to be taken. At the end of the school term, he was still unable to find the way home from school by himself. H. was five years, eleven months old when he entered school. The readiness test classified him as "Type V," which indicated that he probably would require a full year of readiness instruction. In March H. was able to begin reading instruction, and at the end of the year was reading successfully on the pre-primer level.

C2: Harrison-Stroug Reading Readiness Test Type V
(percentile rankings)

Ia:	26th	III:	5th
Ib:	0	IV:	3rd
II:	0	V:	3rd

California Test of Mental Maturity
MA 4-6 IQ 75

Gates Primary Reading Test

I Reading Age	6-6	Reading Grade	1.30
II Reading Age	6-8.2	Reading Grade	1.52
III Reading Age	6-8.5	Reading Grade	1.55

C. was an only child. She lived with her mother and step-father. Her step-father was a coal miner, her mother a housewife. The mother was subject to epileptic spells, and C. had often found her unconscious. C. had developed a large degree of withdrawal from reality. She was apparently unaware of activities being carried on about her. She sat quietly and would very seldom talk.

C. did not attempt to associate with the other children on the playground until the end of the school year. C. was six years old when she entered the first grade. On the basis of the scores she received on the readiness test, she was classified as "Type V," which indicated that she would probably require a full year of readiness instruction. C. was kept in readiness activities during the major portion of the year. She entered initial reading activities in March, and was reading successfully on the pre-primer level at the end of the year. By the time the year was over C. apparently was feeling a degree of security in the school situation.

J². Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test.
(percentile rankings)

Ia:	0	III:	19th
Ib:	20th	IV:	27th
II:	57th	V:	3rd

California Test of Mental Maturity

MA	67	IQ	84
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Gates Primary Reading Test

I	Reading Age 6-5	Reading Grade	1.20
II	Reading Age 6-7.5	Reading Grade	1.45
III	Reading Age 6-8	Reading Grade	1.50

J. was the sixth child in a family of eight children. His father and mother had attended school through the eighth grade. His father was a coal miner, his mother a housewife. The parents were too busy to take much active interest in J's problems. The older brothers and sisters had developed an over-protective attitude toward the younger children in the family. J. was extremely shy. He lacked many of the readiness skills, and as a result of his inability to depend upon himself, was unable to easily grasp the concepts which were introduced at school. J. was classified as "Type V," as a result of the scores obtained on the reading readiness test, this meant that he probably would require a full year of readiness training. J. was six years, eight months old when he entered first grade. He required an extensive readiness program, but at the end of the school term he was reading with success at the pre-primer level.

C. was the younger of two children. Her parents had both completed school through the twelfth grade. Her father was a factory worker, her mother a housewife. C. had a history of chronic illness, and at her school entrance was lacking in emotional stability, as a result of the overprotection she received at home. Her brother had been very successful in learning at school. C.'s parents were interested in her progress at school, but did not pressure her at home. C. was six years, seven months old when she entered school. She was successful in her early school experiences and began to grow in emotional stability.

C. was classified as "Type IV," according to The Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test. This meant that she could be placed in a reading group with additional training in those readiness skills in which she showed a weakness. C. was able to begin reading instruction after approximately eight weeks of readiness training. She progressed steadily in the reading program, and at the end of the school term, had successfully completed the prescribed reading program for the first grade. The test scores C. received are as follows:

C. : Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test Type IV
(percentile rankings)

Ia:	87th	III:	74th
Ib:	85th	IV:	86th
II:	85th	V:	38th

California Test of Mental Maturity			
MA	7-0	IQ	116

Gates Primary Reading Test			
I	Reading Age 7-3	Reading Grade	1.95
II	Reading Age 7-0	Reading Grade	1.75
III	Reading Age 7-2	Reading Grade	1.90

S.: Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test Type III
(percentile rankings)

Ia:	62nd	III:	82nd
Ib:	84th	IV:	68th
II:	18th	V:	18th

California Test of Mental Maturity			
MA	90	IQ	102

Gates Primary Reading Test			
I	Reading Age 7-6	Reading Grade	2.20
II	Reading Age 6-11	Reading Grade	1.70
III	Reading Age 7-0	Reading Grade	1.75

S. was the only child in his family. His father and mother had both completed high school. His father was a policeman, his mother, a housewife. S. had been exposed to many experiences previous to his school entry. He had been allowed much freedom at home, but showed insecurity as a result of having lived with his grandparents. He had received orders from so many people, that he was confused as to whom he should listen. S. was six years, six months old when he entered school. He received the classification of "Type III," from the results of the reading readiness test. This indicated that he should be placed in a reading group in which he could receive additional training in the readiness skills in which he was weak.

S. was given approximately six weeks of readiness instruction and then was ready to begin the initial stage of reading. He showed steady growth in the reading program, and at the end of the term had successfully completed the first grade reading program.

J. T.: Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test Type V
(percentile rankings)

Ia:	1st	III:	5th
Ib:	0	IV:	38th
II:	2nd	V:	5th

California Test of Mental Maturity			
MA	5-2	IQ	88

Gates Primary Reading Test			
I	Reading Age 6-5	Reading Grade	1.20
II	Reading Age 6-7.5	Reading Grade	1.45
III	Reading Age 6-10	Reading Grade	1.65

J. T. was the youngest in a family of five. His parents had not completed eight years of school. His father was a coal miner, his mother, a housewife. Older children in the family had developed an over-protective attitude toward J. which resulted in a complete dependence on others on J's part. J. was six years, five months old when he entered the first grade. The readiness test classified J. T. as "Type V," which indicated that he would require a full year of readiness instruction. J. T. did not progress far in developing readiness skills. He could not grasp new concepts readily, and received readiness instruction throughout the year. At the end of the school term J. T. had not shown sufficient readiness to enable him to begin reading instruction.

W. H.: Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test Type III
(percentile rankings)

Ia:	62nd	III:	82nd
Ib:	20th	IV:	12th
II:	57th	V:	38th

California Test of Mental Maturity			
MA	7	IQ	119

Gates Primary Reading Test			
I	Reading Age 7-3	Reading Grade	1.95
II	Reading Age 6-8.5	Reading Grade	1.58
III	Reading Age 6-10	Reading Grade	1.65

W. was the only child in his family. His father and mother had both completed high school. His father was a factory worker, his mother, a housewife. W. was an independent child. He knew about many things. He was five years, ten months old when he entered the first grade.

W. received the classification of "Type III," according to the Harrison Stroud Reading Test. W. could begin reading instruction combined with training in the readiness skills in which he was weak. However, W's progress was irregular, and he required readiness training throughout the first semester. When he entered the reading program, he progressed slowly, but steadily. At the end of the school term he was reading successfully on the primer level.

Summary of Data Collected for Twenty-Two Selected Children Who Were Under Observation

A survey of the anecdotal data collected for the twenty-two children under case study reveals significant information about the relative importance of certain individual factors, as these affect readiness for reading. The evidence is clear that the home had a decided effect, either positive or negative in influence, upon reading readiness. Children who came from broken homes and showed emotional patterns of unrest and instability, tended to lag behind in readiness for reading, and subsequently, in reading achievement during the first year of reading instruction.

There seems to be considerable relation between the schooling parents have received and the readiness of their offspring. Children whose parents had received extremely limited schooling were handicapped in the development of readiness for reading, either as a result of lack of interest on the part of the parents, or as a result of the parents' lack of knowledge in recognizing those activities and experiences which lend to reading readiness. These children presented a readiness problem, in that they required an intensive readiness program which extended in scope from those activities which would enable them to develop the earliest readiness concepts.

The degree to which parents are interested in the activities and development of their children has a decided influence upon the growth of children in the developmental reading program. Those children who came from homes in which both parents were employed, or where, because of the number of young children in the family, the parents did not have sufficient time to be with the child, were characterized by a lack of experiences, and, on the part of the child, a lack of motivation to succeed in the reading program. Those children who had actively participated, cooperatively with their parents, in family life and activities, showed a high degree of readiness for reading, and were successful in attacking the program of reading instruction during the first year of school.

Children who have experienced a severe illness while very young, as well as those children who have a history of chronic illnesses, tend to be retarded in readiness for reading, particularly with respect to work habits and independence, resulting from the over-protective attitude developed by the parents.

Children who have older brothers and sisters, by several years, show a degree of retardation in the attitudes and abilities necessary to successful school experiences. The number of cases supporting this observation was too small to fortify a sweeping generalization, but the indications are that the protective attitude of the older children toward the younger develop habits of dependence in the younger child. These habits handicap the child in developing his abilities as an individual.

The economic status of the family has little effect upon reading growth, except in cases where extreme poverty was present. The underlying cause of this condition was the lack of mental ability on the part of the parents.

This study indicates that a very fruitful outlet for adult education would be in the study of the processes involved in the development of pre-school children. Parents, and consequently their children, would profit greatly from discussion seminars with first-grade teachers, in which parents could be shown the importance of pre-school experiences in attacking the problem of formal schooling.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

The purpose of this paper has been to survey the factors related to success in beginning reading and to discover the influence of various factors in predicting future success or failure in reading in the primary grades. The factors basic to reading readiness have been identified and enumerated (Chapter I), and the influence of these factors upon growth have been considered from two approaches. In the first place the approach has been an objective one, through the study of certain test data obtained from the administration of mental tests, reading readiness tests, and reading achievement tests during the first year of school. Secondly, the approach has been subjective, through an analytical interpretation of information revealed in the study of data secured from observation of a small portion of the total population of children included in the group under study.

This study is an outgrowth of the interest which this investigator has in the study of reading readiness, and in particular, an evaluation of the relative importance of the several indices of successful beginning reading experiences; also, the discovering, by inference, of the relative worth of teaching procedures which make the greatest contribution to successful initial reading experiences.

The study was conducted using a sample of first-grade children in the Danville Public Schools, during the school term 1954-55. One hundred children were included in the sample group. The learning histories of twenty-two of these children were studied intensively through the case study approach. Three test batteries were administered to the group: (1) The Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Test; (2) The California Test of Mental Maturity, and (3) The Gates Primary Reading Test. The data collected from these objective sources were tabulated and analyzed.

Conclusions

A study of the complete data seems to warrant the following conclusions:

1. Chronological age has extremely limited significance in predicting reading readiness or reading achievement. (See pp. 28-29.)
2. Mental age is highly indicative of probable reading readiness, and also shows significance with relation to indicating probable reading growth. (See p. 29.)
3. The Intelligence Quotient has limited significance when used to predict the reading achievement of pupils in grade one. (See p. 30)
4. The Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Tests can be used with considerable confidence to guide the teacher in making judgments of probable success in learning to read in grade one. (See p. 30.)
5. Many intangible factors, working systematically from within and from outside the individual, exert influence upon the development of reading readiness and the growth in the reading program.

Limitations of the Study

1. There has been no attempt to make instruction uniform, or to control the influence of the factor of teacher personality.

2. The sample is too limited in size to justify broad generalizations. Neither can the sample be considered a sample of typical first-grade pupils.

Implications and Recommendations

This study makes evident the existence of a real need to adopt measures which will increase the relative number of beginning first-grade pupils who have success in the developmental reading program instead of the frustration which attends failure. Mental tests and readiness tests are valid measures for predicting the success a child will have in learning to read. Within limits they are accurate enough to a prediction of probable success, of much greater accuracy than by pure chance or guess.

The increasing size of classes resulting from a scarcity of teachers together with the climbing birth-rate, has made it necessary for us to search for ways and means whereby reading instruction in groups may become more effective. We must seek diligently for ways and means whereby teacher time and effort may be spent for the greatest good.

This study reveals the difference between individuals in native ability, and mental aptitudes in particular. It implies that the learning process of children is always the result of the combined influence of heredity and environment. Subsequently, serious doubt arises about the sanity which dictates the common practice of basing entrance to school upon chronological age. By state law, any child who reaches the sixth birthday before December 1st following the beginning of the school term in September is eligible to start to school. This study reveals that all children

of this age are not ready to participate in the learning activities which they are required to have when they enroll in the typical first grade of an elementary school in Illinois, nor are they capable of progressing to an acceptable level of achievement in the first grade reading program. When a child with low readiness is forced to enter those activities beyond his developmental level, failure and frustration follow. The facts are clear, either the immature child fails, or the instructional tasks for this learner must be graded for the immature child. This means that standards of achievement must be adjusted downward. Herein one finds another instance wherein professional judgment operates at cross purposes with the wishes of lay people, parents or legislators, as to a decision about when the child should enter school.

If each child is to receive a needed share of instructional time it is necessary that measures be taken to decrease the size of classes. Each child must receive some individual attention if he is to reach maximum growth in learning. As classroom enrollment grows, the time the teacher has for individual instruction lessens. The need for more teachers and more classrooms means an increase in school budgets. Each time a child is retained, the expense in educating this child is duplicated; each time a child is retained it increases the load of the first-grade teacher. If provision could be made so that each school system is permitted to decide when the child should enter school, according to the degree of readiness for school which he shows, it is possible that school funds could be spent more wisely. If children had developed sufficient growth in the readiness skills before their school entrance

the number of failures would decline. The needless expenditure of school funds from this practice would be avoided.

Children who fail as a result of lack of readiness development have been robbed of their initial enthusiasm and initiative to learn. Forcing the child to read when he has not developed sufficient readiness often creates in him an intense dislike for the reading process as well as an attitude of defeat. Perhaps by insuring sufficient readiness development before school entrance, we would have fewer children frustrated in the reading program.

The importance of reading readiness has been recognized by school workers. Research has shown that those children who are seriously handicapped in readiness abilities, comprise the majority of school failures. That the development of sufficient readiness before school entrance is a major factor in preventing failure at school, is to be recognized. The information we have concerning growth in the developmental reading program indicates that measures taken to decrease school failures, might not only be the answer to problems of overcrowding, but also be one means of economical expenditure of school funds.

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APPENDIX

THE *Harrison-Stroud* Reading Readiness Tests

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The Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Tests are *group tests of specific abilities and skills that children use in beginning to learn to read. The tests are published in three separate booklets which are bound together in sets of 25 and packaged in one envelope along with the Teacher's Manual and the Class Record Sheet.*

Twenty-five copies of Test Booklet No. 1 are bound with a red paper strip to make them easily identifiable. Booklet No. 1, consisting of Test I, Parts a and b, and Test II, should be given at the first testing period. The band for Test Booklet No. 2 is yellow. This booklet contains Tests III and IV, which should be given during the second testing period. Test Booklet No. 3, bound in blue, contains Test V, which should be given at the final testing period.

To indicate answers on the various parts of the tests, the children are required to do only two things: (1) to draw a line under a word or picture or (2) to draw a line from one word or picture to another. The Specific Directions for Administering and Scoring (Part II) begin on page 9 of this Manual.

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skills, and attitudes which the initial reading program demands of him. Studies of the nature of beginning reading matter and of the reading process itself indicate the importance of an instructional program which provides training in: (1) Using Pictures, (2) Using Listening Skills—recognizing the central idea, noting details, and drawing simple conclusions from listening to oral context, (3) Using the Context, (4) Making Auditory Discriminations, (5) Using Context and Auditory Clues, (6) Making Visual Discriminations, and (7) Using Left to Right Sequence.¹ In addition, the teacher should create in the child a desire to learn to read. A modern reading readiness program, therefore, should consist of instructional activities which will help children to acquire these understandings, skills, and attitudes before actual reading begins.

2. A Modern Reading Readiness Test

The *Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Tests* are designed to measure specific readiness skills that are required in the initial reading period. There are five group tests in all, which are identified as follows:

- I. Making Visual Discriminations
 - a. Attention Span Controlled
 - b. Attention Span Uncontrolled
- II. Using the Context
- III. Making Auditory Discriminations
- IV. Using Context and Auditory Clues
- V. Using Symbols

Skill in using pictures is required of the pupils in *Tests II, III, IV, and V*. Proper use of listening skills is a requisite in following the directions for all the tests. The examination of detailed pictures and word forms in all the tests always proceeds from left to right. Thus, three of the specific skills are factors in tests which measure other skills directly. Tests which provide measures of all the specific skills directly would require lengthy individual tests in addition to the five basic group tests.

Test I measures the pupil's skill in making the associations necessary to relate a symbol to the idea or things for which it stands. Instruction designed to develop this skill cannot be given in the readiness program because a symbol cannot be used to stand for an idea until actual development of a sight vocabulary has begun. A test of this skill was added to the others because it would give information of value in determining the readiness of a child to use effectively a sight vocabulary in meaningful reading.

¹A program of teaching readiness instruction, with a brief description and discussion of the understandings and skills that can be taught prior to the initial reading period, is given in the Teacher's Edition of *SKERRIN READY, A Reading Readiness Workbook, Reading for Meaning Series*, (Paul McKee and M. Lucile Harrison, Teachers, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1949)

language familiar to five- and six-year-old children is used in each item of the test. There are twenty items, three of which are practice exercises. Scores are derived from 17 items. The test requires approximately 12 minutes.

3. Descriptions of the Tests

I. Making Visual Discriminations.

The ability to make accurate visual discriminations with words is basic to all reading. It is essential in the building up of a sight vocabulary, and equally essential if quick recognition of known words is to be carried out in later, more rapid reading. As the number of words in the sight vocabulary increases, more detailed discriminations must be made, very rapidly and accurately. The test of the ability to make visual discriminations has in it words common to early reading vocabularies, words embodying common visual discrimination difficulties, and words frequently reversed, such as *oe* and *eo*, *ers* and *ser*, and *atop* and *pot*. There are thirty-two items, which are divided equally between *Part a* and *b*. Since there are three practice exercises in the two parts, scores are derived from 29 items.

Because *Part a* and *b* of *Test 1* are comparable forms of the same test, an examination of the pupil's scores on the two parts will reveal his ability to work independently. *Part a* is administered in such a manner that the attention span of the pupils is controlled in each item of the test. Conversely, *Part b* is administered in such a way that attention span is uncontrolled by the examiner and is allowed to affect the test results as it will affect learning to read. *Part b* will locate those pupils who have good visual discrimination powers but who are unable to hold in mind directions for an exercise and to keep at work without the constant supervision of the teacher. *Part a* requires approximately 14 minutes, and *Part b* approximately 8 minutes, for testing.

A special feature of this and all other tests in the *Marrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Tests* is the use of colored boxes as a place keeping device. Note the functional use of color in the directions for giving each of the items of the tests. Since only primary colors are used, most five- and six-year-old children will be able to recognize them instantly. The red, yellow, and blue wrappers binding the Test Booklets may be used to teach color identification to any children who do not already know these colors.

II. Using the Context.

In the initial reading period the pupil can determine the identity of a strange word through the use of the context, before he can identify it by any other means. In later reading periods he will continue to use the context to identify strange word forms. The ability to use context before actual reading begins is measured through the pupil's use of context given orally

III. Making Auditory Discriminations.

The ability to make auditory discriminations is basic to the work in word analysis which the pupil must be taught to do, beginning at the first grade level and continuing throughout the elementary school. If a pupil cannot hear that two words given orally begin with the same sound, he will be handicapped in learning the phonetic skills which help him to determine independently the pronunciation of strange words. This test measures ability to discriminate between spoken words which do or do not begin with identical initial consonant sounds. Only the commonest initial consonant sounds appear among the items. There are 18 items in the test, three of which are practice exercises. Scores are derived from 15 items. The time required for testing is approximately 11 minutes.

IV. Using Context and Auditory Clues.

The ability to use auditory clues with context clues in the identification of strange words is also of great importance in the development of independence in reading. Auditory discrimination acts as a check upon the correctness of guesses from context and aids the pupil in determining which of two or more possible choices of words is the correct one. In this test the pupil listens to oral context which suggests two possible responses illustrated in a group of three pictures. From an auditory clue supplied, he finally selects the one picture representing the only choice which is right for both context and auditory clues. Context which contains ideas and language familiar to five- and six-year-olds has been used and only the commonest of the initial consonant sounds. There are 20 items in the test, three of which are practice exercises. Scores are derived from 17 items. The testing time required is approximately 13 minutes.

V. Using Symbols.

The understanding that abstract symbols, such as printed words, stand for ideas is basic to all reading. Unless the pupil has acquired this understanding and the ability to use it, he can do no more than to "call" words which he has learned as isolated vocal sounds. This test measures the pupil's ability to understand the meaningful use of symbols to represent familiar ideas indicated by pictures. There are 24 items in the test, six of which are practice exercises. Scores are derived from 18 items. The testing time required is approximately 15 minutes.

Kindergarten year, the readiness tests may be given at the close of that instructional program to determine which pupils shall enter the reading program at the beginning of first grade. If the reading readiness program is given at the beginning of the first grade, the tests should be administered at the close of the readiness program. Those pupils who make adequate scores on the tests should go into the reading program as soon as possible. The percentile rank scores for those pupils will be of help to the teacher of reading in grouping the pupils for instruction. Those who have inadequate scores for beginning to read should be given an extended program in reading readiness in the kindergarten, a transition grade, a pre-first grade, or in a non-reading group in the first grade. (See Part 7, *Interpreting the Results of the Tests*, on page 5.)

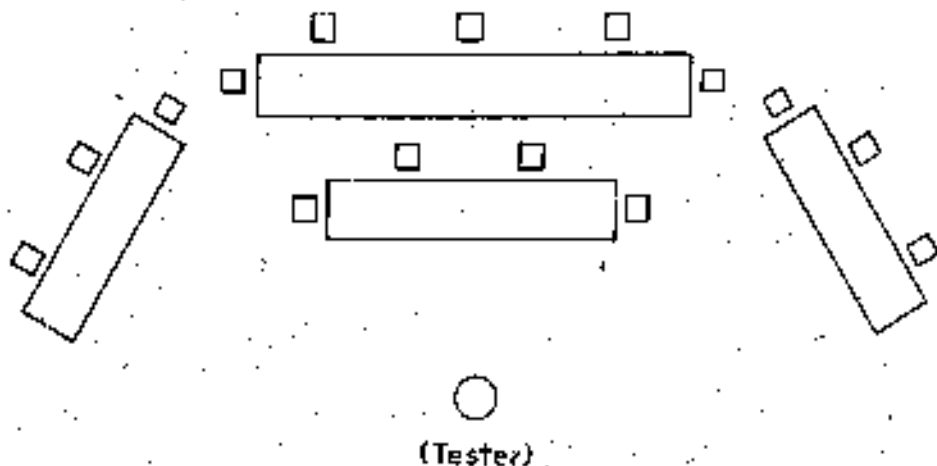
5. General Directions

A. Number of Pupils to be Tested at One Time.

It is recommended that no more than fifteen pupils be tested at one time by one tester. More than that number in the group will tend to lengthen the time required to give the tests.

B. Physical Environment for the Testing.

The pupils should be seated at individual desks or tables, or along one side of long tables facing the tester. If the pupils are seated at long tables, such an arrangement of tables and chairs as illustrated below is very practical. Pupils should be placed far enough apart to avoid copying.



of all entrances to the room stating that testing is in progress and that there should be no disturbances and no visitors.

The lighting should be carefully checked for all pupils. Adequate ventilation and proper temperature should be maintained.

The pupils should use large kindergarten pencils for marking the tests unless they are new implements with which they are unfamiliar. In that case crayons should be used.

C. The Teacher as the Tester.

It is recommended that the teacher test her own pupils since (1) her voice is familiar to the pupils; (2) she will know how to cope with individual pupils' problems; and (3) she will have had a chance to note the behavior, attitudes, and methods of work of the pupils. If the teacher cannot give the tests, the test specialist, the supervisor, or the principal may do so. In such cases, the pupils should have had several opportunities to become acquainted with the tester, his voice, and his manner of speaking.

D. The Establishment of Good Rapport.

The tester should be sure that the test is approached in the spirit of a game on the part of the pupils. No remarks should in any way cause the pupils to fear the testing situation. During the testing (except in *Treat I, Part 5*) occasional bits of praise should be made to keep the pupils interested and willing to work at the task with the attitude that they wish to do as well as possible. Five- and six-year-olds like to be told that they are "fine workers" and that they are doing "a very grown-up thing." Such remarks usually make them willing to stay with a job until it is finished.

If any pupil seems to be so timid about the testing situation that you think his scores might not be valid or that the rest of the group might be affected by his attitude, he should be tested individually when he has developed a feeling of confidence.

E. Scoring the Tests.

It is well to score each set of test booklets as soon as they have been administered to the pupils. By so doing, extremely faulty markings by pupils, or lack of understanding, can be detected before another part of the test is administered. Those pupils who failed to understand what to do in the first booklet can be watched more closely during the second testing period. Also, significant observations of behavior, attitudes, and work habits can be written into the margins of the tests by the tester or observers before they are forgotten. Observations which will be worth noting are (1) tendencies to copy markings of neighboring pupils, or to work very independently and with a feeling of sureness; (2) ability to make very quick or only very slow

read and reread in detail and carefully the instructions given during the practice items of the tests; and (6) notes concerning overt reactions to the testing situation.

Place the tests to be scored in a pile with the same page facing up. Count the correct responses for the same page of all the tests in the pile after first referring to the proper page in the Manual for special scoring directions and the scoring key. By scoring the tests this way, the details to be remembered for each part of the test will not be forgotten, and scoring will be uniform for all pupils.

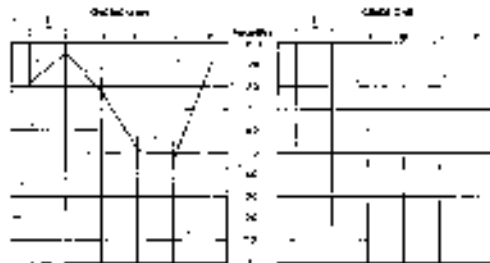
Accept only clearly indicated markings as correct. If a pupil changes his mind after one marking, accept the change if it is clear that an erasure was attempted and that his change of mind was not merely after noting another child's mark differing from his own. Accept the first independent choice as the one intended, even though the first was right and the second incorrect.

Using the tables of percentile scores on page 8, determine the correct percentile for each point score on the tests. Plot each percentile on the correct vertical line of the graph on page 13 of Booklet No. 3. Use the percentiles for kindergarten if the tests are given at the end of kindergarten, a transition grade, a pre-first grade, or before entrance to the first grade. Use the percentiles for the first grade if the tests are given after entrance to the first grade. An example of a completed Individual Pupil's Record Sheet (page 12 of Booklet No. 3) is given below.



John Adams Jones
 1914
 Harrison-Strood
 Experimental School, East St. Louis, Ill.
 Date of completion of tests: 10-10-14
 Date of birth of pupil: 1-1-14
 Age at date of tests: 6-9
 Recorded age: 6-3

PROFILE OF ABILITIES



John should be promoted to first grade in the fall. Give special emphasis to his training in oral conversation skills and in using context and auditory clues to help him recognize words in these two skills. He will probably be able to keep up with a rapidly moving reading group.

TEST	SCORE
1. Letter-Word	15
2. Letter-Object	15
3. Letter-Number	15
4. Letter-Color	15
5. Letter-Shape	15
6. Letter-Size	15
7. Letter-Form	15
8. Letter-Position	15
9. Letter-Direction	15
10. Letter-Quantity	15
11. Letter-Quantity	15
12. Letter-Quantity	15
13. Letter-Quantity	15
14. Letter-Quantity	15
15. Letter-Quantity	15
16. Letter-Quantity	15
17. Letter-Quantity	15
18. Letter-Quantity	15
19. Letter-Quantity	15
20. Letter-Quantity	15

Signature of Teacher: _____
 Date of completion of tests: _____
 Date of birth of pupil: _____
 Age at date of tests: _____
 Recorded age: _____

on page 12 of Booklet No. 3, the Class Record Sheet should be completely filled out. Names of the pupils in alphabetical order according to surnames should be placed in the first column. The letters F and M may be used in the second column to stand for female and male, respectively. The IQ derived from a reliable test of intelligence should be placed in the third column.

Age data should be computed accurately and recorded for the date of the readiness tests, using the date on which Test Booklet No. 3 was completed, and for the date of entering grade one. Suggestions for accurately determining the age data are given below. (Some of these data are required for individual pupils on page 12 of Booklet No. 3.)

A. Chronological Age.

To find the chronological age at the date of the readiness tests, place the date of completing Year 1 above the birth date of the pupil and subtract the latter from the former. An example follows:

	Year	Month	Day
Date of completing readiness tests	1950	5	19
Date of birth of pupil	1914	2	12
Age at date of readiness tests	6	3	7
Recorded age	6	—	3

The computed age of 6 years and 3 months should be recorded in the fourth column of the Class Record Sheet under years and months. Anything less than 15 days in the computed age may be dropped. Fifteen or more days in the computed age should be added as an extra full month, as in the following computation:

	Year	Month	Day
Date of completing readiness tests	1950	10	9
Date of birth of pupil	1914	11	20
Age at date of readiness tests	5	10	19
Recorded age	5	—	11

To find the chronological ages of the pupils at the date of entrance to grade one, place the date of entrance to grade one above the birth date of each pupil and subtract. Record these ages in the fifth column of the Class Record Sheet.

B. Mental Age.

To determine the mental ages of the pupils at date of entrance to grade one, use the following formula:

$$C A (\text{Chronological Age}) \times I Q = M A (\text{Mental Age})$$

C A - 6 years and 2 months (74 months) at date of entrance to grade one

$$\frac{74 \times 119}{100} = \frac{8806}{100} = 88.06 \text{ months of Mental Age}$$

M A - 7 years and 4 months

Rounded M A: 7 - 4

Mental ages at the date of entrance to grade one should be placed in the sixth column of the Class Record Sheet.¹

C. Other Data.

In columns seven through twelve, place the percentile scores of the readiness tests. In column thirteen, recommendations for placement, grouping, and special instruction should be noted. A sample of a fully filled out Class Record Sheet follows:

Name of Pupil	Sex	Age Date			Grade	Mental Age	Percentile Scores						Other Recommendations														
		Reading	Spelling	Writing			Number	Figure	Object	Color	Form	Sound															
Adams, John	M	6	2	1957	1	88.06	85	80	75	70	65	60	55	50	45	40	35	30	25	20	15	10	5	0	None		

¹ All computations described above can be greatly simplified by using the chronological and mental age scales of THE DELF IQ COMPUTER, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1950.

(2) in what group to place him for instruction, and (3) in which skills further teaching is necessary before or during the initial period of reading instruction.

Scores on the *Harrison-Stroid Reading Readiness Tests* do not necessarily indicate how well children will read by the end of grade one. There are many uncontrollable factors which affect reading progress (see Section C, page 6) both during and after the acquiring of the specific skills of the readiness program. For example, a child whose mental development is somewhat retarded may have learned many specific readiness skills. The results of his readiness tests will show that he need not be placed with a group that is spending a great deal of time developing these readiness skills. His intelligence test score and the observations of his teacher will indicate whether the reading group that he enters should be a fast, average, or slow moving group. On the other hand, a child who tests poorly on the readiness tests may soon acquire, through proper training, the necessary specific skills, which, if coupled with high intelligence, may make him one of the best readers in the class by the end of the first grade. Therefore, in the detailed suggestions for interpretation of the percentile scores given below, no attempt has been made to classify the pupils as to fast, average, or slow moving groups but only as to the amount of work needed in the readiness skills.

Since the tests indicate just how well equipped each pupil is in the specific skills he needs in beginning to learn to read, the teacher may use the test scores for placing pupils in homogeneous groups for initial reading instruction. For example, if the tests show that a pupil has a high degree of development in all the specific skills tested, he may be placed for initial reading instruction with a group of children who possess a like degree of proficiency in the specific skills. If a pupil's skills are only moderately developed, he may be placed in an initial reading group composed of children all of whom need training in readiness skills. Just how much work in readiness will be needed by this group, when regular reading instruction should be started, and which children may advisably be transferred to another group within the class will be determined by the progress made by individuals within the group. If the tests show that a pupil's skills are very poorly developed, he should probably be placed initially in a non-reading group in which an extensive readiness program will be carried out, and admitted to a reading group only when he has shown sufficient growth in the specific skills tested.

A. Pupils Tested at the End of the Kindergarten Year (or Transition or Pre-First Grade)

It is important that the teacher examine each set of scores carefully in order to see the significance of individual scores in relation to one another. No provision is made for averaging the various scores received on the tests; to do so would suggest that these skills develop evenly in children. A study of individual test scores will bring out the significance of groupings of scores within critical zones.

the year. He should be placed with the group of pupils who will require no special instruction in any of the specific skills tested other than that which will follow in the regular program of reading instruction.

TYPE II — PERCENTILE RANK OF 50 OR ABOVE IN ALL OF THE TESTS.

The pupil should be promoted to the first grade at the next regular promotion point, and he should be placed in a group where he can receive further training in those skills for which his percentile score is below 75. Examples of such test results and recommendations for teaching follow:

Percentile Scores on Tests						
Names	I		II	III	IV	V
	a	b				
Jim	81	85	77	51	60	76
Sue	65	57	94	74	83	60
Carol	54	57	55	62	68	91
Bill	96	57	77	74	75	76

JIM should be placed in a group where further training will be given in specific skills. Special emphasis should be placed on initial consonant sounds and the use of auditory and context clues in independent identification of strange words. It is quite possible that he may strengthen these skills sufficiently in a short enough time to permit him to move to the Type I group.

SUE should be placed in the same learning group and given special instruction in visual discrimination and the use of symbols to stand for ideas in the word analysis and word learning portions of the program. She should be given regular reading instruction when it is apparent that she has overcome her specific deficiencies.

CAROL should also be placed in the same group, given special training along all lines in which her scores are below the 75th percentile. She should be given regular reading instruction when she has strengthened the skills in which she tested poorly.

BILL shows excellent development in all important skills but has poor habits of attention and lacks ability to retain directions long enough to complete an exercise without errors. He should be placed in the part of the classroom where there are few distractions, and taught to listen carefully to directions and to correct his own careless errors every time he makes them. If his attention span and work habits improve rapidly, it may seem advisable to place him with the Type I reading group.

pupils where he will receive careful training in all skills which he belows the 75th percentile. The difference between Types II and III is in the amount of emphasis to be given those skills which tested below the fifth percentile. If these happen to be visual and auditory skills, the pupil may have to be taught by a modified kinesthetic method in building up a sight vocabulary until his visual and auditory powers have been strengthened.

TYPE IV — PERCENTILE RANK OF 50 OR ABOVE IN ONLY ONE OR TWO OF THE TESTS.

The pupil should probably have an extended readiness program for a portion of the year in a non-reading group within the first grade. After the extended readiness program and apparent growth in all critical areas, he should be retested with the same readiness tests. He should be placed in a regular group for reading instruction after he has shown considerable growth in the critical areas by raising the percentile scores in the tests in which he made low scores in the first testing.

TYPE V — PERCENTILE RANK OF 25 OR BELOW IN THREE OR MORE OF THE TESTS.

The pupil will probably need another whole year of readiness instruction in kindergarten, a transition grade, or pre-first grade. He should not be placed in the first grade until he has achieved a percentile rank of 50 or above in all tests.

B. Pupils Tested at the Close of a Reading Readiness Program Given at the Beginning of the First Grade.

Pupils whose percentile scores are like those described above in Types I, II, and III should be placed in groups where attention can be given to deficiencies that have been exposed by these tests. Pupils whose scores are like those described in Types IV and V should be retained in non-reading groups and given an extended reading readiness program. Only after a retest and very apparent improvement in the critical areas should they be given actual reading instruction. That reading instruction should then be paced to comply with the slow development of the necessary skills. Special kinesthetic methods may have to be employed in the teaching procedures and mastery should be achieved at each step in learning to read.

C. Other Factors which May Affect Reading Progress.

Other factors which are likely to affect reading progress in the initial period of reading instruction are (1) slow mental maturing and mental abnormalities, (2) slow language growth, poor speech habits, or bi-lingualism, (3) slow physical maturing, physical handicaps such as poor hearing and vision, after-effects of illnesses, poor general health, and lack of physical vigor, and (4) inability to adjust to the school situation, behavior difficulties

careful observation on the part of the teacher will enable her to determine if such factors are operating to affect the learning of individual pupils. Some pupils having difficulties listed under (3) and (4) above often compensate for their difficulties and learn to read with no apparent interference from those factors.

Factors listed under (1) and (2) are most likely to affect success in learning to read. In fact, only pupils with a mental age of 6 4 to 6 6 are likely to be highly successful in learning to read as reading is taught in most first grades throughout the country. If language and speech handicaps are noted, special training in speech and language abilities should be given. Definite improvement should be noted before pupils so handicapped or retarded are given reading instruction in the usual manner.

Pupils who have serious hearing and visual difficulties should be instructed with specialized techniques which take into account such difficulties. Those with serious visual difficulties should be instructed with special sight-saving materials in sight-saving classes. Those with serious hearing difficulties should be instructed in such a manner that other senses are used more than the sense of hearing. If the teacher is not able to provide such specialized training, special agencies should be sought out which can provide the proper type of training.

B. Standardization

A preliminary edition of the *Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Tests* consisting of approximately twice the number of items that now appear in the tests was prepared and administered to a sample of 130 first grade children in a middle western city in the early fall of 1949. An item analysis was then undertaken which designated each item for difficulty and also for its ability to discriminate on each of the tests between the upper 27 per cent of scores and the lower 27 per cent of scores. A careful study of each item, together with its difficulty index and its discrimination index, revealed those items which best served the purposes for which the tests were intended. The final selection of items was then made, and one entire sub-test, which did not contribute materially to knowledge of children's readiness for reading, was eliminated. The remaining items were published in final test form and administered to 221 children in the kindergartens of another middle western city in the late spring of 1950.

Tables of percentiles have been prepared on the basis of the experimental tryouts in both kindergartens and first grades. The percentiles have been checked by the test scores of kindergarten and first grade children throughout the country who have been given the regular edition of the tests in the normal course of the instructional program. The inclusion of these test scores with the previously reported experimental scores does not significantly alter the tables of percentiles which are given below in Part 10. These tables are to be

of percent of the kindergarten children who took the same test in the standardization program. As soon as the percentiles have been looked up for the point scores on all the tests, they should be entered as dots in the proper places on the profile of abilities on page 12 of Booklet No. 3. When the dots are connected by a single line, a pupil's strengths and weaknesses in readiness skills are graphically illustrated. After this page has been completely filled in by the teacher, it may be torn from the rest of the test and filed as a permanent record for each child.

9. A Statement about Validity

The nature of the *Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Tests* is responsible for a unique situation with respect to validity. Since the various tests were chosen to be direct measures of the specific skills that a pupil needs in beginning to learn to read, validity has been built into the tests from the very beginning. For example, since the ability to make auditory discriminations among consonant sounds at the beginnings of words is one of the specific skills used in learning to read, a test which measures this skill directly will have nearly perfect face validity. The same applies to the other tests, which are also direct measures of specific skills.

In making the item analysis of the experimental edition of the tests, it was noticed that most of the items had an exceptionally high discrimination index figure. When the final selection of items was drawn from the total number of items in the experimental edition, the retained items produced an average discrimination index of .53. Test designers consider any item usable which has a discrimination index of .20, or higher. An index of .30 to .40 is regarded as highly satisfactory, and any figure above .50 is considered exceptionally good. Therefore, it can be seen that the items in this test are superior for the identification of the upper and lower 27 per cent of pupils taking the test.

The fact that many children obtain point scores which give them a high percentile mark and that some children make perfect scores should not be a cause of concern for any teacher. The exceptionally high discrimination indexes and face validity of the test items indicate that if a pupil has a certain skill he will be able to do correctly a great many of the items in that particular test. If he does not have that skill, it is likely that the only items that he gets right will be due to chance. Because of the length of the tests, some children who do not have a particular skill at the beginning of a test will show signs of learning it before the test is completed, even though the items become progressively more difficult. Since children who show evidence of this kind of learning during the testing situation will score far below the upper quartile, they will be placed in groups where additional training is provided, thus firmly establishing their newly acquired skills.

Percentiles for Kindergarten Children						
Point Score	I		II	III	IV	V
	a	b				
18						91
17			94		98	76
16			77		91	60
15		95	55	94	83	43
14	96	85	37	84	75	33
13	81	71	27	74	68	28
12	65	57	22	62	60	22
11	54	48	16	51	50	16
10	43	37	11	40	42	11
9	33	29	7	30	33	8
8	25	21	6	21	23	6
7	19	16	5	14	14	5
6	13	12	4	9	9	4
5	8	9	3	6	6	3
4	5	6	2	4	4	2
3	3	3	1	2	3	2
2	2	2	1	1	2	1
1	1	1	0	1	2	0
0	0	0	0	0	1	0

Percentiles for First Grade Children						
Point Score	I		II	III	IV	V
	a	b				
19						82
17			85		95	56
16			57		88	38
15		84	33	93	76	25
14	87	55	18	82	68	17
13	62	34	10	74	60	12
12	41	20	5	61	50	8
11	26	13	2	53	38	6
10	14	7	1	42	27	5
9	8	4	0	31	19	4
8	4	2	0	19	12	3
7	2	2	0	10	6	2
6	1	1	0	5	3	1
5	0	0	0	2	1	1
4	0	0	0	1	0	1
3	0	0	0	0	0	1
2	0	0	0	0	0	1
1	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Directions for Administering

Whenever three dots (. . .) are given in the directions below, wait for either an oral or a written response from the children before continuing with the directions. The directions in boldface type are instructions to the tester, and are not to be read to the children. The directions to the children should be spoken exactly as they are given in this Manual. Use a pleasant, clear voice, and try to avoid any feeling of tension.

Before the testing period, write the name of each child, and the date, in the blanks at the bottom of Page 1. After the pupils are seated, hand out the test booklets to the proper children, as you say: Today we are going to begin playing a new game. It will be fun for all of us. I will tell you what to do as soon as we are all ready to begin. Don't you think that the colors are pretty, Becky? . . . Who can tell me the names of the colors? . . . (Hand out pencils—or crayons, if your children are not accustomed to handling pencils.) Let's all try to be neat when we mark our papers. I will tell you what to mark. You will use your pencil (or crayon). (Glance about the room to make sure that each child has Page 1 facing up.)

★Practice. (Hold up a copy of the test, and point to the top left-hand box, as you say:) Put your finger on the red box at the top of the page, here. . . . It has words in it. (Point to the word in the little box at the left, as you say:) The first word is in a little red box by itself. I will draw a line under that first word, like this. (Draw.) You do that now on your paper. . . . (Illustrate as you say:) Now, I will slide my finger to the next word, here. You do that. . . . Look at that word. Is it like the word in the little box? . . . Yes, it is, so draw a line under it to show that it is like the word in the little box. . . . Move your finger to the next word. Is that word like the word in the little box? . . . No, it is not like the word in the little box, so do not draw a line under it. Move your finger to the next word. Is that word like the word in the little box? . . . No, it is not, so do not draw a line under it. Move your finger to the last word. Is that word like the word in the little box? . . . No, it is not, so do not draw a line under it. . .

★Practice. (Illustrate as you say:) Move your finger down to the blue box under the red box, here. . . . (Point to the word in the little box at the left, as you say:) The first word is in a little box by itself. I will draw a line under that first word, like this. (Draw.) You do that now on your paper. . . . (Illustrate as you say:) Now, I will slide my finger to the next word, here. You do that. . . . Look at that word. Is it like the word in the little box? . . .

No, it is not like the word in the little box, so do not draw a line under it. Move your finger to the next word. Is it like the word in the little box? . . . No, it is not, so do not draw a line under it, either. Move your finger to the next word. Is it like the word in the little box? . . . Yes, it is, so draw a line under it to show that it is like the word in the little box. . . . Move your finger to the last word. Is that word like the word in the little box? . . . No, it is not, so do not draw a line under it.

1. Move your finger down to the yellow box under the blue box. . . . Look at the word in the little box. Draw a line under it. . . . Slide your finger along the box. Look at every word. Find one word that is like the word in the little box. Draw a line under that word to show that it is like the word in the little box. . . . (Give no further help. Wait until all the children who should be able to do this work have completed it before beginning the next item. There is no time limit for each item, but do not keep the whole class waiting for one or two children who are too immature to follow the directions.)

2. Move your finger down to the red box under the yellow box. . . . Draw a line under the word in the little box. . . . Slide your finger along the box. Draw a line under one word that is like the word in the little box. . . . (Pause while your directions are being carried out.)

3. Move your finger down to the yellow box under the red box. . . . Draw a line under the word in the little box. . . . Slide your finger along the box. Draw a line under one word that is like the word in the little box. . . .

4. Move your finger down to the blue box under the yellow box. . . . Draw a line under the word in the little box. . . . Now, draw a line under one other word that is like the word in the little box. . . .

5. Move your finger down to the red box under the blue box. . . . Draw a line under the word in the little box. . . . Now, draw a line under one other word that is like the word in the little box. . . .

6. Move your finger down to the blue box at the bottom of the page. . . . Draw a line under the word in the little box. . . . Now, draw a line under the other word that is like the word in the little box. . . .

Directions for Administering (continued)

7. (Illustrate as you say.) Find the blue box at the top of the page, here. Put your finger on it. . . . (Check to make sure that each child has found the box at the top of the right-hand column of boxes.) Draw a line under the word in the little box. . . . Slide your finger along the box. Draw a line under the word that is like the word in the little box. . . . (Pause while your directions are being carried out.)

8. Move your finger down to the yellow box under the blue box. . . . Draw a line under the word in the little box. . . . Now, draw a line under one other word that is like the word in the little box. . . .

9. Move your finger down to the red box under the yellow box. . . . Draw a line under the word in the little box. . . . Now, draw a line under one other word that is like the word in the little box. . . .

10. Move your finger down to the blue box under the red box. . . . Draw a line under the word in the little box. . . . Now, draw a line under one other word that is like the word in the little box. . . .

11. Move your finger down to the red box under the blue box. . . . Draw a line under the word in the little box. . . . Now, draw a line under one other word that is like the word in the little box. . . .

12. Move your finger down to the yellow box under the red box. . . . Draw a line under the word in the little box. . . . Now, draw a line under one other word that is like the word in the little box. . . .

13. Move your finger down to the blue box under the yellow box. . . . Draw a line under the word in the little box. . . . Now, draw a line under one other word that is like the word in the little box. . . .

14. Move your finger down to the yellow box at the bottom of the page. . . . Draw a line under the word in the little box. . . . Now, draw a line under one other word that is like the word in the little box. . . .

As soon as you have finished marking the last box, put your pencil (or crayon) down. We are going to have a short rest and then we will do some more. (Have the children stand up, walk around the room, get drinks of water, or any other change of activity that you desire, and then resume the test.)

Directions for Scoring

Count the number of items that are correctly marked, except for the two starred Practice Exercises. Give no credit for any item in which more than one word in the big box is marked. (Note: Full credit should be allowed even if the word in the small box is not underlined. Full credit should also be allowed if the child uses some method of marking other than drawing a line under his choices, provided that there is no doubt about what word he intended to mark. If disregard for directions persists throughout the tests, a notation to this effect should be made on the Individual Pupil's Record Sheet — page 12 of the tests — under Other Recommendations.)

Enter the score for Test I a (14 possible) in the proper blank at the bottom of Page 1 of Booklet No. 1.

*do	do	go	of	so
-----	----	----	----	----

*of	for	off	ol	on
-----	-----	-----	----	----

<u>how</u>	<u>how</u>	now	who	hot
------------	------------	-----	-----	-----

<u>man</u>	pan	<u>man</u>	many	men
------------	-----	------------	------	-----

<u>soon</u>	noon	<u>soon</u>	some	noon
-------------	------	-------------	------	------

<u>will</u>	well	with	<u>will</u>	rill
-------------	------	------	-------------	------

<u>run</u>	ran	rub	sun	<u>run</u>
------------	-----	-----	-----	------------

<u>big</u>	pig	dog	<u>big</u>	boy
------------	-----	-----	------------	-----

<u>here</u>	there	<u>here</u>	her	hear
-------------	-------	-------------	-----	------

<u>horse</u>	<u>horse</u>	home	house	shore
--------------	--------------	------	-------	-------

<u>made</u>	make	<u>made</u>	maic	wade
-------------	------	-------------	------	------

<u>stop</u>	spot	poos	tops	<u>stop</u>
-------------	------	------	------	-------------

<u>play</u>	pay	lay	plan	<u>play</u>
-------------	-----	-----	------	-------------

<u>where</u>	when	there	<u>where</u>	here
--------------	------	-------	--------------	------

<u>says</u>	said	rays	boys	<u>says</u>
-------------	------	------	------	-------------

<u>looked</u>	looking	locked	<u>looked</u>	
---------------	---------	--------	---------------	--

Directions for Administering

Turn each child's test booklet over so that Page 2 is facing up. Since this part of the test is a test to see how well children can work independently on tasks that they know how to do, you must not give any unauthorized help or encouragement. Follow the directions exactly as they are given below.

★ Practice. (Hold up a copy of the test and point to the top left-hand box, as you say:) Put your finger on the blue box at the top of the page, here. . . . Draw a line under the word in the little box, just as you did before. . . . Now, slide your finger along the box and look at each word. Is the first word like the word in the little box? . . . No, it is not, so do not draw a line under it. Is the next word like the word in the little box? . . . Yes, it is, so draw a line under it to show that it is like the word in the little box. . . . Is the next word like the word in the little box? . . . No, it is not, so do not draw a line under it. Is the last word like the word in the little box? . . . No, it is not, so do not draw a line under it, either.

Test. (Illustrate as you say:) Move your finger down to the next blue box. . . . Draw a line under the word in the little box. . . . Draw a line under the other word that is like the word in the little box. As soon as you have done this, do the next box. Do not wait for me to tell you to go ahead. Do all the boxes on this page. (Point to both columns of boxes, as you say:) Do all the blue boxes, here, first. Then do all the yellow boxes, here.

(After two minutes have elapsed, say:) Do not wait for me to tell you to go ahead. Do all the boxes on this page by yourself. Do not forget to do the yellow boxes after you have finished the blue boxes.

(Give no further directions. When all the children have ceased working, even if they have not marked all the boxes, say:) Put your pencil (or crayon) down. We will have another short test and then we will play a different game. (Allow the children another brief period for relaxation and then resume the testing. During this time, turn over the test booklets so that Page 2 is facing up on the children's tables.)

Directions for Scoring

Count the number of items that are correctly marked, except for the one starred Practice Exercise. (Give no credit if more than one word in each big box is marked.)

Enter the score for Test I b (15 possible) in the blank at the bottom of Page 2.

* is	as	is	in	so	does	goes	show	does	doe
me	am	my	me	he	were	went	sent	want	were
you	boy	yes	you	may	name	same	name	name	none
had	has	had	have	had	rode	real	ride	rode	red
come	home	come	comb	came	pull	put	play	dull	pull
ball	bell	doll	all	ball	there	here	their	there	them
saw	was	see	saw	now	live	love	live	line	live
no	so	on	no	one	bigger	bigges	bigger	biggar	

★ *Practice.* (Check quickly to make sure that each child has Page 3 facing up in front of him. Hold up a copy of the test and point to the red box at the top of the page, as you say:) Point to the red box at the top of the page. Here. . . . Find a streetcar, a chicken, and a fish. Listen carefully to what I am going to say: Paul almost fell out of the boat when he was trying to catch something. One picture in the box shows what Paul was trying to catch. Was it a streetcar? . . . No. Paul wouldn't be out in a boat if he were trying to catch a streetcar. Was it a chicken? . . . No. Paul wouldn't be out in a boat if he were trying to catch a chicken. Was it a fish? . . . Yes. Paul might fall out of a boat trying to catch a fish. I will draw a line under the fish to show that Paul could be trying to catch a fish when he almost fell out of the boat. (Draw.) You do that now on your paper. . . .

★ *Practice.* (Illustrate as you say:) Move your finger down to the blue box under the red box. . . . Find a bell, a bus, and a baby carriage. Listen: Children who live far away from school often ride to school in something. One picture shows what children often ride to school in. (Could it be a bell? . . . No. Could it be a bus? . . . Yes. Draw a line under the bus to show that children who live far away from school often ride to school in a bus. . . . Do not draw a line under the bell or baby carriage. Children do not ride to school in bells or baby carriages. . . .

1. Move your finger down to the yellow box under the blue box. . . . Find a cake of soap, a door-mat, and a towel. Listen: After Carl had washed his face and hands, his mother told him to wipe them on something. One picture shows what Carl was told to use. Draw a line under it. . . . (Give no further help: Allow time for all the children who can be expected to do this item to complete their work before you begin the next item.)

2. Move your finger down to the blue box under the yellow box. . . . Find a hammer, a baseball bat, and a workbench. Listen: Jim was making a bird house. His father said, "Be careful not to hit your finger with that tool." One picture shows what Jim was using. Draw a line under it. . . .

3. Move your finger down to the red box at the bottom of the page. . . . Find the rubbers, the earmuffs, and the mittens. Listen: Nancy's mother said, "It is a cold day and the wind is blowing. Your hands will freeze. Come and put on these." One picture shows what Nancy put on. Draw a line under it. . . .

4. (Illustrate as you say:) Point to the blue box at the top of the page, here. . . . Find the gloves, the socks, and the overshoes. Listen: Before Jane put on her shoes she put on something else. One picture shows what she put on before her shoes. Draw a line under it. . . .

5. Move your finger down to the yellow box under the blue box. . . . Find three pigs, a jack-knife, and a book. Listen: "Tony opened something and

began to read a story. One picture shows what Tony had to open before he could begin to read. Draw a line under it. . . .

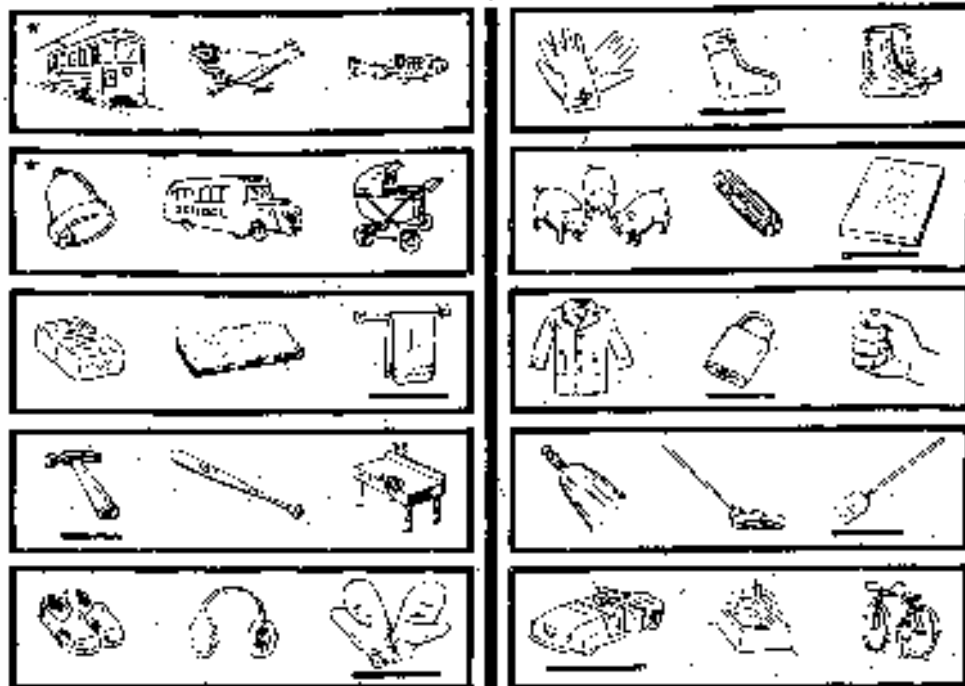
6. Move your finger down to the red box under the yellow box. . . . Find an overcoat, a lock, and a closed 'st. Listen: Bill said, "Only the person who has the right key can open this." One picture shows what Bill was talking about. Draw a line under it. . . .

7. Move your finger down to the yellow box under the red box. . . . Find a brush, a mop, and a broom. Listen: Every day Eric swept the front walk. One picture shows what he used. Draw a line under it. . . .

8. Move your finger down to the blue box at the bottom of the page. . . . Find a car, a bathtub, and a bicycle. Listen: Sam ran out of the house in a great hurry and jumped into something. One picture shows what Sam jumped into. Draw a line under it. . . . (As soon as this item has been marked, hold up your copy of the test, as you say:) Turn the page over, like this. . . . (Check to make sure each child has Page 4 facing up. Give help if it is needed in turning the page, and then continue with the directions for Page 4.)

Directions for Scoring

When Page 4 is completed, add the score for Page 3 to the score for Page 4, not counting the two starred Practice Exercises on Page 3.



★ **Practice.** (Hold up a copy of the test and point, as you say:) Point to the yellow box at the top of the page, here. . . . Find a house, some telephone poles, and a fence. Listen: To get out of the yard, Don's dog had to jump over something. One picture in the box shows what the dog had to jump over. Was it the house? . . . No, Don's dog couldn't jump over a house, could he? Was it the telephone poles? . . . No, of course not. Telephone poles are not used to keep a dog in a yard, and a dog couldn't jump over them. Was it a fence? . . . Yes, to get out of the yard Don's dog would have to jump over the fence. I will draw a line under the picture of the fence to show that Don's dog would have to jump over the fence to get out of the yard. (Draw.) You do that now on your paper. . . .

9. Move your finger down to the blue box under the yellow box. . . . Find a bird, a bee, and a squirrel. Listen: The children saw something with a worm in its mouth flying to a nest. One picture shows what the children saw. Draw a line under it. . . . (Give no further help.)

10. Move your finger down to the red box under the blue box. . . . Find a cupboard, a mirror, and a fireplace. Listen: "Oh! I'd better wash my face," cried Peggy, as she looked into something. One picture shows what she looked into. Draw a line under it. . . .

11. Move your finger down to the blue box under the red box. . . . Find a dustpan, some clothespins, and a rake. Listen: Bill had been sawing some boards in the playroom. When he finished, Mother said, "Help me clean up this mess, Bill. Please get me the broom." She asked him to get her something else, too. One picture shows what else Mother wanted. Draw a line under it. . . .

12. Move your finger down to the yellow box at the bottom of the page. . . . Find a coffee pot, a spoon, and a piggy bank. Listen: Pearl was helping her mother get ready for lunch. She put something at each place at the table. One picture shows what Pearl put at each place. Draw a line under it. . . .

13. (Illustrate as you say:) Point to the red box at the top of the page, here. . . . Find the boots, the mittens, and a triangle. Listen: Louis made some tracks on the living room rug with something that he was wearing. One picture shows what made the tracks. Draw a line under it. . . .

14. Move your finger down to the yellow box under the red box. . . . Find the shells, the stones, and a bottle. Listen: Mary found some things along the beach that were full of water. "I'll take these home for play dishes for my dolls," she said. One picture shows what Mary found. Draw a line under it. . . .

15. Move your finger down to the blue box under the yellow box. . . . Find a garage, a package, and a bed. Listen: Penny was very sleepy. She had been playing a long time. Her mother told her she would have to send her somewhere. One picture shows where Penny's mother was going to send her. Draw a line under it. . . .

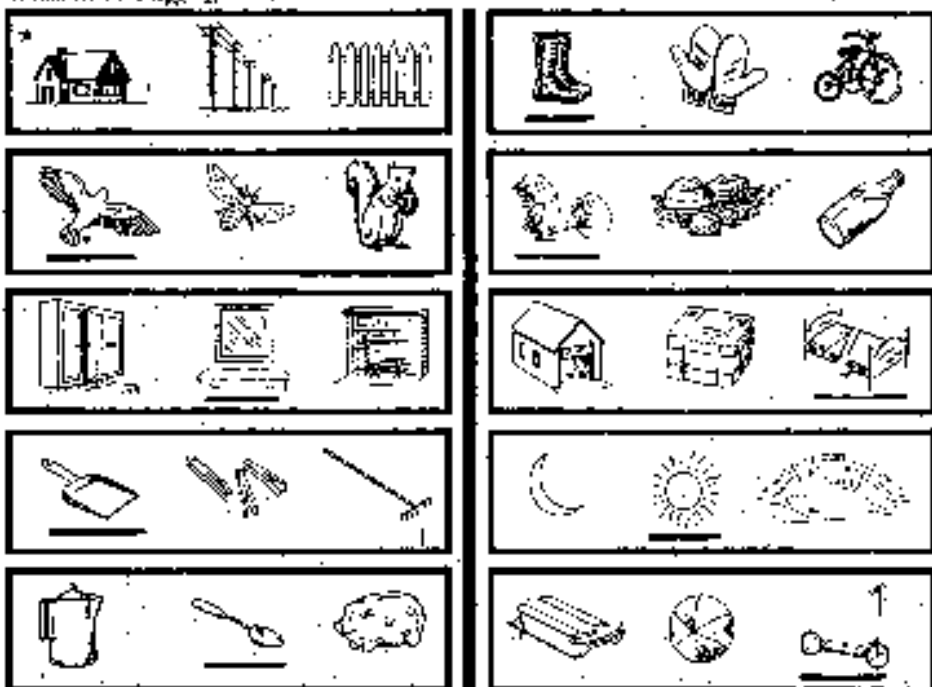
16. Move your finger down to the yellow box under the blue box. . . . Find the moon, the sun, and a rainbow. Listen: On clear days we can see something we cannot see at night or on cloudy days. Draw a line under it. . . .

17. Move your finger down to the red box at the bottom of the page. . . . Find a sled, a kull, and a scooter. Listen: Nick liked to roll down the hill on something he got for his birthday. One picture shows what Nick got for his birthday. Draw a line under it. . . . (When the children have finished marking the last item, say:) This is all that we will do today. Did you think this game was fair? . . . Did you like it better than the first game we played? . . . (Collect the children's test booklets as you and they talk about the test. Tests III and IV in Booklet No. 2 should not be administered until at least the next day.)

Directions for Scoring

Count the number of items that are correctly marked, except for the two starred Practice Exercises on Page 3 and the one starred Practice Exercise on Page 4. Give no credit for any item in which more than one picture is marked. Credit should be allowed if the child uses some method of marking other than drawing a line under his choice so long as they are clearly indicated.

Enter the score for Test II, Pages 3 and 4 (17 possible) in the blank at the bottom of Page 4.



(Before the testing period, write each child's name, and the date, in the blanks at the bottom of Page 5. When the pupils are seated, distribute the test booklets to the proper children, as you say:) Today we are going to play two new games. They are games with pictures. You will find that they are lots of fun. I will tell you how to play them just as soon as I hand out the pencils (or crayons). (Distribute the pencils, or crayons, as you say.) You were all such good workers yesterday. Let's see if you can be even better workers today. (Glance about the room to make sure that each child has Page 5 facing up.)

★Practice. (Hold up a copy of the test and point to the red box at the top of the page, as you say:) Point to the big red box at the top of your page, here. . . . Find a bell, a bed, and a top. Let me see if everyone has found them. (Check quickly.) I will draw a line under the bell, like this. (Draw.) You do that now on your paper. . . . One of the other two things begins like bell. Listen to me say the names of the other two things. (Emphasize slightly the initial consonant sound, but do not separate it from the rest of the word, as you say:) *Bed. Top.* Think which one begins like bell. . . . Yes, bed begins like bell. Listen to me say them again. *Bed. Bell.* I will draw a line from the bell to the bed to show that bed begins like bell. (Draw.) You do that now on your paper. . . . Do not draw a line from the bell to the top. Top does not begin like bell.

★Practice. (Illustrate as you say:) Slide your finger along the red box. . . . Find a duck, a car, and a door. I will draw a line under the duck, like this. (Draw.) You do that now on your paper. . . . One of the other two things begins like duck. Listen to me say the names of the other two things. (Emphasize slightly the initial consonant sound, but do not separate it from the rest of the word, as you say:) *Car. Door.* Think which one begins like duck. . . . Yes, door begins like duck. Listen to me say them again. *Car. Duck.* I will draw a line from the duck to the door to show that door begins like duck. (Draw.) You do that now on your paper. . . . Do not draw a line from the duck to the car. Car does not begin like duck.

1. Slide your finger along the red box. . . . Find a radio, a turkey, and a rabbit. Draw a line under the radio. . . . One of the other things begins like radio. Draw a line from the radio to the other thing in the box that begins like radio. . . . (Give no further help. Allow time for all the children who can be expected to do each item to complete their work before you begin the next item.)

2. (Illustrate:) Point to the big yellow box under the red box. . . . Find a dog, a doll, and a hat. Let me see if everyone has found them. (Check quickly.) Draw a line under the dog. . . . One of the other things begins like dog. Draw a line from the dog to the other thing in the box that begins like dog. . . .

3. Slide your finger along the yellow box. . . . Find a leaf, a rug, and a lamb. Draw a line under the leaf. . . . One of the other things begins like leaf. Draw a line from the leaf to the other thing in the box that begins like leaf. . . .

and a dustpan. Draw a line under the soldier. . . . One of the other things begins like soldier. Draw a line from the soldier to the other thing in the box that begins like soldier. . . .

5. (Illustrate as you say:) Point to the big blue box at the bottom of the page. . . . Find a gate, a tent, and a goat. Draw a line under the gate. . . . One of the other things begins like gate. Draw a line from the gate to the other thing in the box that begins like gate. . . .

6. Slide your finger along the blue box. . . . Find a finger, a button, and a feather. Draw a line under the finger. . . . One of the other things begins like finger. Draw a line from the finger to the other thing in the box that begins like finger. . . .

7. Slide your finger along the blue box. . . . Find a mitten, a mirror, and a towel. Draw a line under the mitten. . . . One of the other things begins like mitten. Draw a line from the mitten to the other thing in the box that begins like mitten. . . . (As soon as the children have finished marking this item, hold up your test booklet, and say:) Turn the page over, like this. . . . (Check to make sure that each child now has Page 6 facing up in front of him. Give help if it is needed in turning the page, and then continue with the directions for Page 6.)

Directions for Scoring

When Page 6 is completed, add the score for Page 5 to the score for Page 6, not counting the two starred Practice Exercises on Page 6.



★**Practice.** (When the page has been turned correctly, say:) Point to the big yellow box at the top of the page, here. . . . Find a comb, a fork, and a coat. Let me see if everyone has found them. (Check quickly.) I will draw a line under the comb, like this. (Draw.) You do that now on your paper. . . . One of the other two things begins like comb. Listen to me say the names of the other two things. *Fork. Coat.* Think which one begins like comb. . . . Yes, coat begins like comb. Listen to me say them again. *Coat. Comb.* I will draw a line from the comb to the coat to show that coat begins like comb. (Draw.) You do that now on your paper. . . . Do not draw a line from the comb to the fork. Fork does not begin like comb.

8. Slide your finger along the yellow box. . . . Find a book, a moon, and a hib. Draw a line under the book. . . . One of the other things begins like book. Draw a line from the book to the other thing in the box that begins like book. . . .

9. Slide your finger along the yellow box. . . . Find the rubbers, a ruler, and a window. Draw a line under the rubbers. . . . One of the other things begins like rubbers. Draw a line from the rubbers to the other thing in the box that begins like rubbers. . . .

10. (Illustrate as you say:) Point to the big blue box under the yellow box. . . . Find a nut, a nose, and a pan. Let me see if everyone has found them. (Check quickly.) Draw a line under the nut. . . . One of the other things begins like nut. Draw a line from the nut to the other thing in the box that begins like nut. . . .

11. Slide your finger along the blue box. . . . Find a can, a cow, and a gun. Draw a line under the can. . . . One of the other things begins like can. Draw a line from the can to the other thing in the box that begins like can. . . .

12. Slide your finger along the blue box. . . . Find a pie, a ball, and a pen. Draw a line under the pie. . . . One of the other things begins like pie. Draw a line from the pie to the other thing in the box that begins like pie. . . .

13. (Illustrate as you say:) Point to the big red box at the bottom of the page. . . . Find a table, a turtle, and a candle. Draw a line under the table. . . . One of the other things begins like table. Draw a line from the table to the other thing in the box that begins like table. . . .

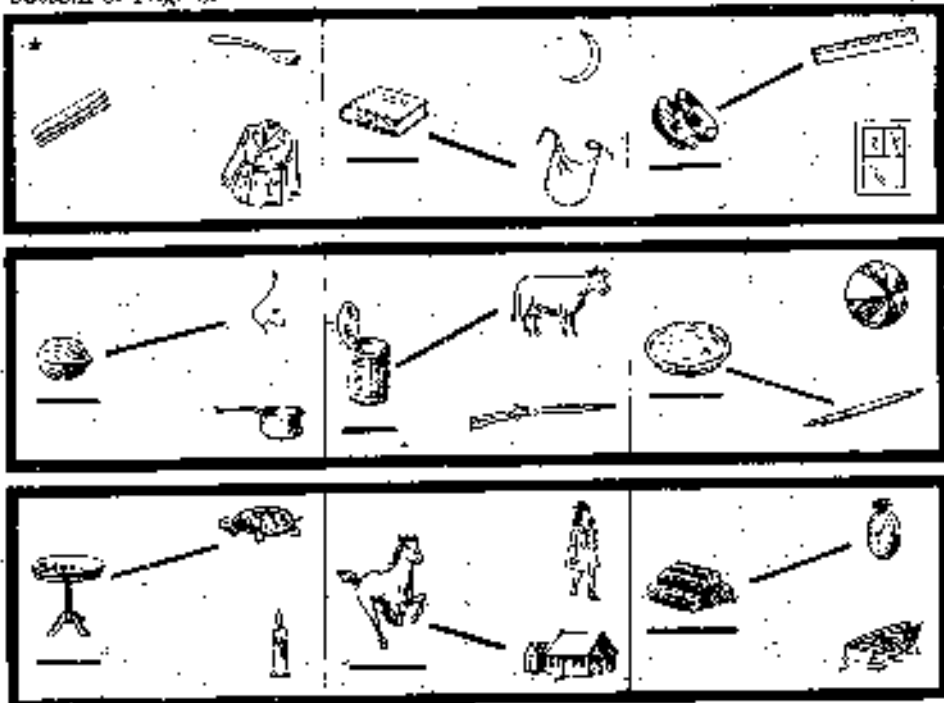
14. Slide your finger along the red box. . . . Find a horse, a girl, and a house. Draw a line under the horse. . . . One of the other things begins like horse. Draw a line from the horse to the other things in the box that begins like horse. . . .

15. Slide your finger along the red box. . . . Find the wood, a watch, and a boat. Draw a line under the wood. . . . One of the other things begins like wood. Draw a line from the wood to the other thing in the box that begins like wood. . . . (When the children have finished marking the last box, say:) Put down your pencil (or crayon). We will have a short rest and then we will play another game. (Give the children a brief period for relaxation and then resume the testing. During this time, turn over the test booklets so that Page 7 is facing up on the children's tables.)

Directions for Scoring

Count the number of items that are correctly marked, except for the two starred Practice Exercises on Page 5 and the one starred Practice Exercise on Page 8. Give no credit for any item in which more than one line has been drawn between pictures. (Full credit should be allowed even if the first picture at the left in each box is not underlined.)

Enter the score for Test III, Pages 5 and 6 (if possible) in the blank at the bottom of Page 6.



★*Practice.* (Check quickly to make sure that each child has Page 7 facing up in front of him. Hold up a copy of the test and point to the red box at the top of the page, as you say.) Point to the red box at the top of the page, here. . . . Find a bottle, a top, and a boat. Let me see if everyone has found them. (Check quickly.) Listen carefully to what I am going to say: Bob's sister gave him a toy for his birthday when he was six. What two things in the pictures could Bob's sister have given him? . . . Yes, she could have given him a top or a boat. The toy that she gave Bob begins like his name. Which one did Bob's sister give him? . . . Yes, it was a boat. Boat begins like Bob. I will draw a line under the boat. (Draw.) You do that now on your paper. . . .

★*Practice.* (Illustrate as you say.) Move your finger down to the blue box under the red box. . . . Find a dog, a desk, and a rabbit. Listen: Dot had a pet which she fed every day. What two things in the pictures could Dot's pet have been? . . . Yes, Dot's pet could have been either a dog or a rabbit. Dot's pet begins like her name. Which one was Dot's pet? . . . Yes, it was a dog. Dog begins like Dot. Draw a line under the dog on your paper. . . .

1. Move your finger down to the yellow box under the blue box. . . . Find a ring, a rabbit, and a ruff. Listen: Roy had two pets on his grandfather's farm. One pet ran away. The pet that ran away begins like Roy's name. Draw a line under the picture of the pet that ran away. . . . (Give no further help. Allow time for all the children who can be expected to do each item to complete their work before you begin the next item.)

2. Move your finger down to the blue box under the yellow box. . . . Find a basket, a balloon, and a wagon. Listen: Bob brought the things home from the store in something. What Bob used begins like his name. Draw a line under the picture of what Bob used to bring the things home from the store. . . .

3. Move your finger down to the red box at the bottom of the page. . . . Find a cup, a candle, and a lamp. Listen: When it got dark, Carl lighted something so he could see. What Carl lighted begins like his name. Draw a line under the picture of what Carl lighted. . . .

4. (Illustrate as you say.) Point to the blue box at the top of the page, here. . . . Find a fire, matches, and a monkey. Listen: Mack's fingers got burned because he played with something that he should not have played with. What burned Mack's fingers begins like his name. Draw a line under the picture of what burned Mack's fingers. . . .

5. Move your finger down to the yellow box under the blue box. . . . Find the cone, a kite, and a top. Listen: Tom got a present from his grandfather. What Tom got begins like his name. Draw a line under the picture of the present that Tom got. . . .

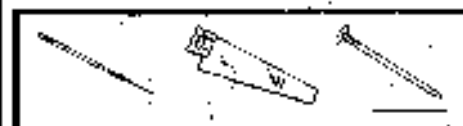
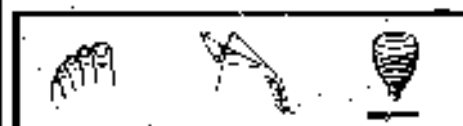
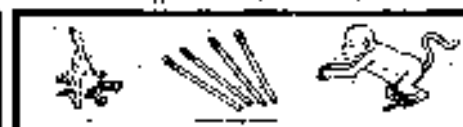
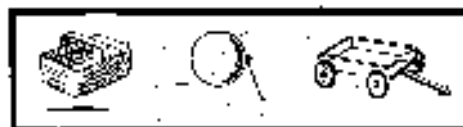
6. Move your finger down to the red box under the yellow box. . . . Find a needle, a saw, and a nail. Listen: Ned needed something to finish his bird house. What Ned needed begins like his name. Draw a line under the picture of what Ned needed. . . .

7. Move your finger down to the yellow box under the red box. . . . Find a hook, a horse, and a bicycle. Listen: Harry went for a ride. What Harry rode on begins like his name. Draw a line under the picture of what Harry rode on. . . .

8. Move your finger down to the blue box at the bottom of the page. . . . Find a duck, a door, and a window. Listen: It was so hot in the house that Dick opened something. What Dick opened begins like his name. Draw a line under the picture of what Dick opened. . . . (As soon as this item has been marked, hold up your copy of the test, as you say.) Turn the page over, like this. . . . (Check to make sure each child has Page 8 facing up. Give help if it is needed in turning the page, and then continue with the directions for Page 8.)

Directions for Scoring

When Page 8 is completed, add the score for Page 7 to the score for Page 8, not counting the two starred Practice Exercises on Page 7.



Directions for Administering

★Practice. (Hold up a copy of the test and point, as you say:) Point to the yellow box at the top of the page, here. . . . Find a hand, a hill, and a tree. Let me see it everyone has found them. (Check quickly.) Listen: Harry went on a picnic. After he had eaten his lunch, he climbed something. What two things in the pictures could Harry climb? . . . Yes, he could climb a hill or a tree. The one that Harry climbed begins like his name. Which one did he climb? . . . Yes, it was a hill. Hill begins like Harry. Draw a line under the hill on your paper. . . .

9. Move your finger down to the blue box under the yellow box. . . . Find a door, a garden, and a gate. Listen: When Gail started to school she forgot to shut something. What Gail forgot to shut begins like her name. Draw a line under the picture of what Gail forgot to shut. . . .

10. Move your finger down to the red box under the blue box. . . . Find a fence, a foot, and a hand. Listen: Foster hurt himself one day. What Foster hurt begins like his name. Draw a line under the picture of what Foster hurt. . . .

11. Move your finger down to the blue box under the red box. . . . Find a light, a lollipop, and a stove. Listen: Lucy's mother went to the kitchen and turned on something. What she turned on begins like Lucy's name. Draw a line under what Lucy's mother turned on. . . .

12. Move your finger down to the yellow box at the bottom of the page. . . . Find pie, cake, and a pipe. Listen: Patty was hungry when she came home from school. She got something to eat. What Patty ate begins like her name. Draw a line under the picture of what Patty ate. . . .

13. (Illustrate as you say:) Point to the red box at the top of the page, here. . . . Find a table, a desk, and a turkey. Listen: Tom laid his book down on something. What Tom laid his book on begins like his name. Draw a line under the picture of what Tom laid his book on. . . .

14. Move your finger down to the yellow box under the red box. . . . Find a saw, socks, and a dress. Listen: Sue got wet coming home from school because it was raining. As soon as Sue got home she changed some of her clothing. What Sue changed begins like her name. Draw a line under the picture of what Sue changed. . . .

15. Move your finger down to the blue box under the yellow box. . . . Find a window, and wind. Listen: Walter put something on the fire to heat him better. What Walter put on the fire begins like his name. Draw a line under the picture of what Walter put on the fire. . . .

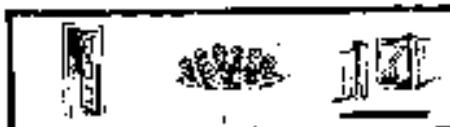
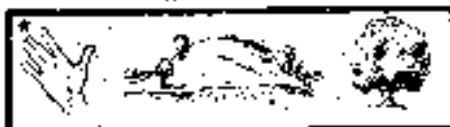
16. Move your finger down to the yellow box under the blue box. . . . Find a mop, mittens, and a skirt. Listen: Mary's mother made something for her to wear. What Mary's mother made begins like her name. Draw a line under the picture of what Mary's mother made. . . .

17. Move your finger down to the red box at the bottom of the page. . . . Find candy, nails, and nuts. Listen: Nancy's grandmother sent her a box of something good to eat. What Nancy got begins like her name. Draw a line under the picture of what Nancy got. . . . (When the children have finished marking the last item, say:) This is the end of today's game. Did you like it as well as the other games? . . . How many liked it better? . . . How many did not like it as well? . . . (Collect the children's test booklets as you and they talk about the test. Test V in Booklet No. 3 should not be administered until at least the next day.)

Directions for Scoring

Count the number of items that are correctly marked, except for the two starred Practice Exercises on Page 7 and the one starred Practice Exercise on Page 8. Give no credit for any item in which more than one picture is marked. Credit should be allowed if the child uses some method of marking other than drawing a line under his choice.

Enter the score for Test IV, Pages 7 and 8 (17 possible) in the blank at the bottom of Page 8.



(Before the testing period, write each child's name, the date of completing the tests, and other pertinent information in the blanks at the top of the back page of Booklet No. 3. This is the Individual Pupil's Record Sheet on which the data from all five tests will be assembled and plotted. When the pupils are seated, distribute the test booklets to the proper children, placing them so that Page 9 is facing up, as you say.) Today we are going to play another new game. I will show you how to play it as soon as I hand out the pencils (or crayons). (Distribute the pencils, or crayons, as you check that each child has Page 9 facing up.)

★*Practice.* (Hold up a copy of the test and point, as you say.) Point to the little red box at the top of the page, here. . . . Find a tree and a book. Under the tree is the word that stands for tree. Under the book is the word that stands for book. Find things that will help you remember what each word looks like. (Pause for approximately 5 seconds. If a watch is not available, count to 5 at the rate of 1 count per second.) Here in the big red box are the same two words, and here are three pictures. I will draw a line from the top word to the picture in the same big box which that word stands for. (Point to the appropriate words and pictures, as you say.) The top word is like the word under the book, here, so I drew the line to the book, here. You do that now on your paper. . . .

★*Practice.* Now I will draw a line from the bottom word to the picture in the big box which that word stands for. (Point to the appropriate words and pictures, as you say.) The bottom word is like the word under the tree, here, so I drew the line to the tree, here. You do that now on your paper. . . .

1. Point to the little yellow box at the top of the page. . . . Find a gate and a dog. Under the gate is the word that stands for gate. Under the dog is the word that stands for dog. Find things that will help you remember what each word looks like. (Pause for approximately 5 seconds, then say.) In the big yellow box are the same two words and three pictures. Draw a line from the top word to the picture in the same box which that word stands for. Do not cross any lines and do not go into any other box. Stay in the big yellow box. . . . (Give no further help. Pause while the children are drawing the line.)

2. Now draw a line from the bottom word to the picture which that word stands for. . . .

3. Point to the little blue box at the bottom of the page. Find an apple and a nest. Under the apple is the word that stands for apple. Under the nest is the word that stands for nest. Find things that will help you remember what each word looks like. (Pause for approximately 5 seconds.) In the big blue box are the same two words and three pictures. Draw a line from the top word to the picture in the same big blue box which that word stands for. Stay in the big blue box. . . .











4. Now draw a line from the bottom word to the picture which that word stands for. Stay inside the box. . . .











5. Point to the little red box at the bottom of the page. . . . Find a car and a clock. Under the car is the word that stands for car. Under the clock is the word that stands for clock. Find things that will help you remember what each word looks like. (Pause for approximately 5 seconds.) Here in the big red box are the same two words and three pictures. Draw a line from the top word to the picture in the same box which that word stands for. Stay inside the big red box. . . .

6. Now draw a line from the bottom word to the picture which that word stands for. . . . (As soon as the children have finished drawing the line, hold up your test booklet and say.) Turn the page over, like this. . . . (Check to make sure that each child now has Page 10 facing up in front of him. Give help if it is needed in turning the page and then continue with the directions for Page 10.)

Directions for Scoring

When Page 11 is completed, add the score for Page 9 to the score for Pages 10 and 11, not counting the two starred Practice Exercises on Page 9.

 tree	★ book		 gate	 gate
 book	★ tree		 dog	 dog
				

 apple	nest		 car	 clock
 nest	apple		 clock	 car
				

Directions for Administering

★*Practice.* (Hold up a copy of the test and point, as you say:) Point to the little blue box at the top of the page, here. . . . Find a chair and a hat. Under the chair is the word that stands for chair. Under the hat is the word that stands for hat. Find things that will help you remember what each word looks like. (Pause for approximately 5 seconds.) Here in the big blue box are the same two words, and here are three pictures. I will draw a line from the top word to the picture in the same big box which that word stands for. (Point to the appropriate words and pictures, as you say:) The top word is like the word under the hat, here, so I draw the line to the hat, here. You do that now on your paper. . . .

★*Practice.* Now I will draw a line from the bottom word to the picture in the big box which that word stands for. (Point to the appropriate words and pictures, as you say:) The bottom word is like the word under the chair, here, so I draw the line to the chair here. You do that now on your paper. . . .

7. Point to the little red box at the top of the page. . . . Find a bed and a shoe. Under the bed is the word that stands for bed. Under the shoe is the word that stands for shoe. Find things that will help you remember what each word looks like. (Pause for approximately 5 seconds.) In the big red box are the same two words and three pictures. Draw a line from the top word to the picture in the same box which that word stands for. . . . (Give no further help.)

8. Now draw a line from the bottom word to the picture which that word stands for. Stay inside the red box. . . .

9. Point to the little yellow box at the bottom of the page. . . . Find a bird and a flower. Under the bird is the word that stands for bird. Under the flower is the word that stands for flower. Find things that will help you remember what each word looks like. (Pause for approximately 5 seconds.) Here in the big yellow box are the same two words and three pictures. Draw a line from the top word to the picture in the same big box which that word stands for. . . .














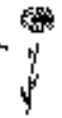






10. Now draw a line from the bottom word to the picture which that word stands for. . . .

11. Point to the little blue box at the bottom of the page. . . . Find a box and a boy. Under the box is the word that stands for box. Under the boy is the word that stands for boy. Find things that will help you remember what each word looks like. (Pause for approximately 5 seconds.) Here in the big blue box are the same two words and three pictures. Draw a line from the top word to the picture in the same box which that word stands for. . . .

12. Now draw a line from the bottom word to the picture which that word stands for. . . . (As soon as the children have finished drawing the line, hold up your test booklet and say:) Turn the page over, like this. . . . (Check to make sure that each child now has Page 11 facing up in front of him. Give help if it is needed in turning the page, and then continue with the directions for Page 11.)

Directions for Scoring

When Page 11 is completed, add the score for Page 10 to the score for Pages 9 and 11, not counting the two starred Practice Exercises on Page 10.

 chair  hat	<p>★</p>  hat <p>★</p>  chair 	 bed  shoe	 bed  shoe 
 bird  flower	 flower  bird 	 box  boy	 box  box 

Directions for Administering

★*Practice.* (Hold up a copy of the test and point, as you say:) Point to the little yellow box at the top of the page, here. . . . Find a rabbit and a kitten. Under the rabbit is the word that stands for rabbit. Under the kitten is the word that stands for kitten. Find things that will help you remember what each word looks like. (Pause for approximately 5 seconds.) Here in the big yellow box are the same two words, and here are three pictures. I will draw a line from the top word to the picture in the same big box which that word stands for. (Point to the appropriate words and pictures, as you say.) The top word is like the word under the rabbit, here, so I draw the line to the rabbit, here. You do that now on your paper. . . .

★*Practice.* Now I will draw a line from the bottom word to the picture in the big box which that word stands for. (Point to the appropriate words and pictures, as you say.) The bottom word is like the word under the kitten, here, so I draw the line to the kitten, here. You do that now on your paper. . . .

13. Point to the little blue box at the top of the page. . . . Find a ball and a house. Under the ball is the word that stands for ball. Under the house is the word that stands for house. Find things that will help you remember what each word looks like. (Pause for approximately 5 seconds.) In the big blue box are the same two words and three pictures. Draw a line from the top word to the picture in the same box which that word stands for. . . . (Give no further help.)

14. Now draw a line from the bottom word to the picture which that word stands for. . . .

15. Point to the little red box at the bottom of the page. . . . Find a boy climbing a fence and a girl eating. Under the boy climbing a fence is the word that stands for climb. Under the girl eating is the word that stands for eat. Find things that will help you remember what each word looks like. (Pause for approximately 5 seconds.) In the big red box are the same two words and three pictures. Draw a line from the top word to the picture in the same box which that word stands for. . . .

16. Now draw a line from the bottom word to the picture which that word stands for. . . .



















17. Point to the little yellow box at the bottom of the page. . . . Find a girl jumping and a man riding on a horse. Under the girl jumping is the word that stands for jump. Under the man riding on a horse is the word that stands for ride. Find things that will help you remember what each word looks like. (Pause for approximately 5 seconds.) In the big yellow box are the same two words and three pictures. Draw a line from the top word to the picture in the same box which that word stands for. . . .

18. Now draw a line from the bottom word to the picture which that word stands for. . . . (When this last exercise has been marked, say:) This is the last of these games. Turn the page over, like this, so that the picture of a clown is facing up. (Collect the test booklets as you talk with the children about the various games that they have played and which ones they liked the best.)

Directions for Scoring

Count the number of exercises that are correctly marked on Pages 9, 10, and 11, except for the two starred Practice Exercises on each page. Give no credit for any exercises in which more than one line has been drawn from a word to the pictures. Each line that is correctly drawn to the proper picture is counted as one point.

Enter the score for Test V, Pages 9, 10, and 11 (18 possible) in the blank at the bottom of Page 11. Translate the point score for each test into a percentile score as explained on Page 4. Connect each point on the graph to complete the profile. Interpret the findings as suggested on Pages 5-7.

 rabbit	* rabbit  * kitten 	 ball  house	 ball  house 
 climb  eat	eat    climb	 jump  ride	 jump  ride 

THE *Harrison-Stroud* Reading Readiness Tests

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DATE OF BIRTH _____ DATE OF TEST _____ AGE _____ YRS. _____ MOS. _____

TEACHER _____ EXAMINER _____

SCHOOL _____ GRADE _____

INTELLIGENCE TEST _____ DATE GIVEN _____

AT DATE OF GIVING INTELLIGENCE TEST, C.A. _____ M.A. _____ I.Q. _____

AT DATE OF ENTERING GRADE ONE: C.A. _____ M.A. _____

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PROFILE OF ABILITIES

TESTS	SCORES
I. Making Visual Discriminations	
a. Attention Span Controlled	_____
b. Attention Span Uncontrolled	_____
II. Using the Context	_____
III. Making Auditory Discriminations	_____
IV. Using Context and Auditory Clues	_____
V. Using Symbols	_____

KINDERGARTEN						Percentiles	GRADE ONE					
I		II	III	IV	V		I		II	III	IV	V
a	b					100	a	b				
						90						
						80						
						70						
						60						
						50						
						40						
						30						
						20						
						10						
						0						

RECOMMENDATIONS:

Place pupil in Grade One Reading Group which moves
 rapidly _____ normally _____ slowly _____

Retain pupil in Non-reading Group in:
 Grade One _____ Kindergarten _____ Transition _____

OTHER RECOMMENDATIONS:



rabbit

★

rabbit



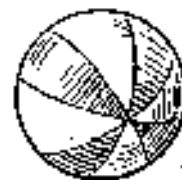
kitten

★

kitten



ball



ball



house



house



climb

eat



eat

climb



jump

jump



ride

ride





tree



book



book



tree



gate



dog

gate

dog



apple



nest

nest

apple



car



clock

clock

car





chair



hat

★

hat

★

chair



bed



shoe

bed

shoe



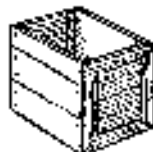
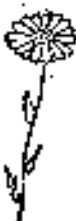
bird



flower

flower

bird



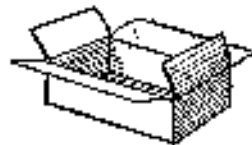
box

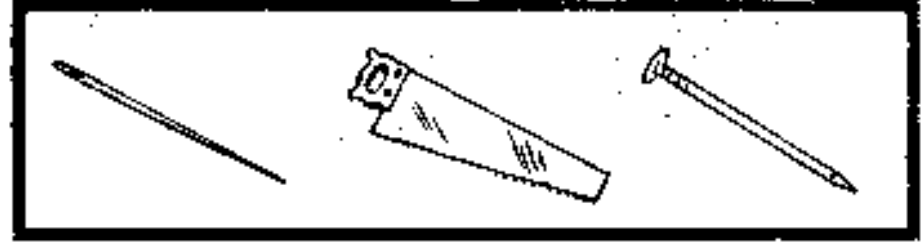


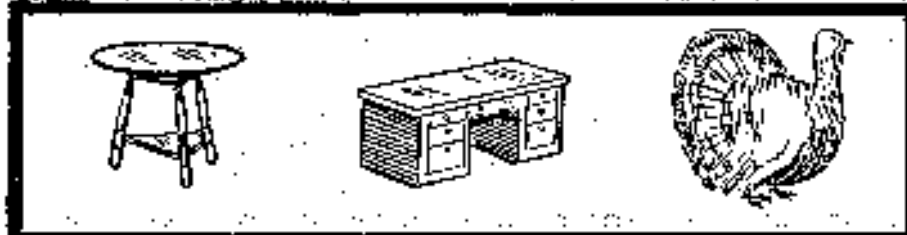
boy

boy

box

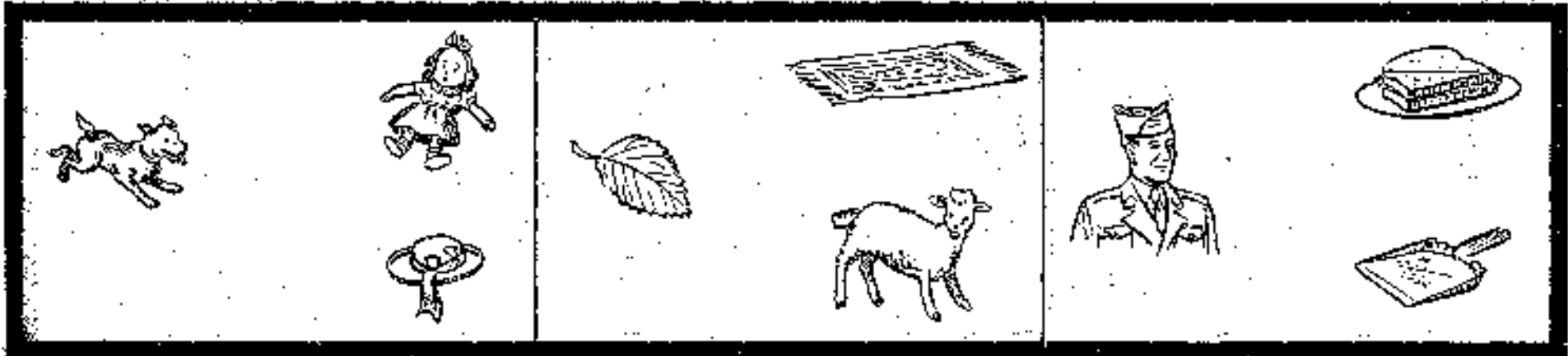
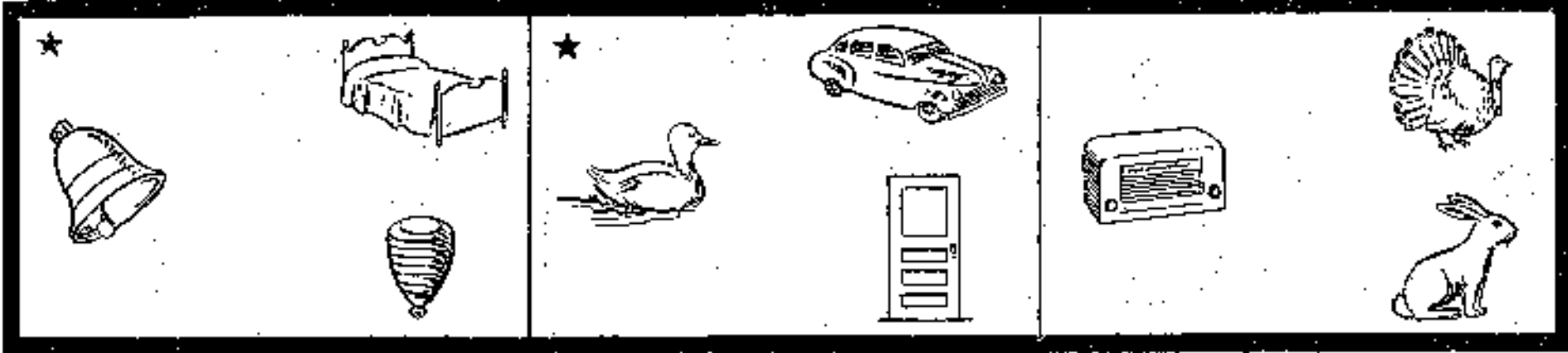




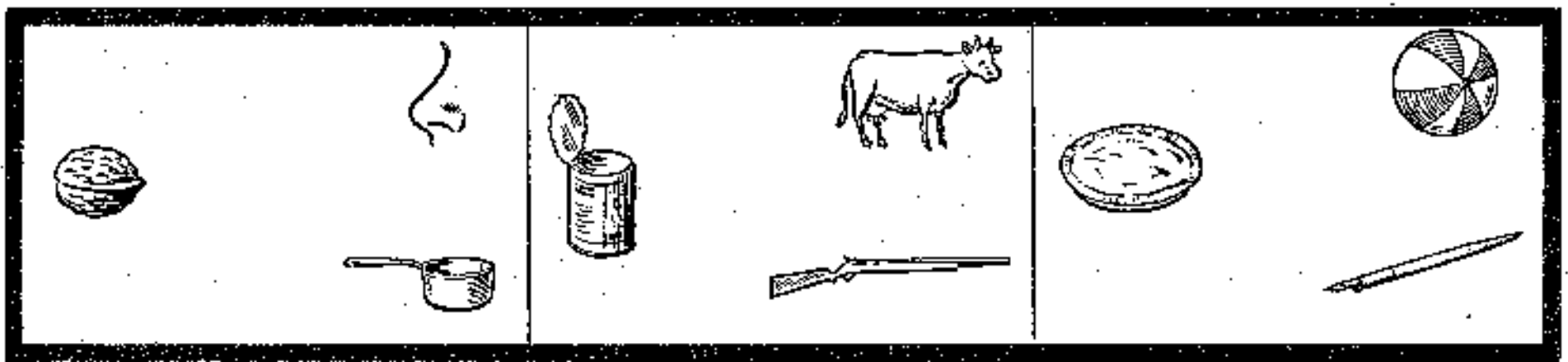
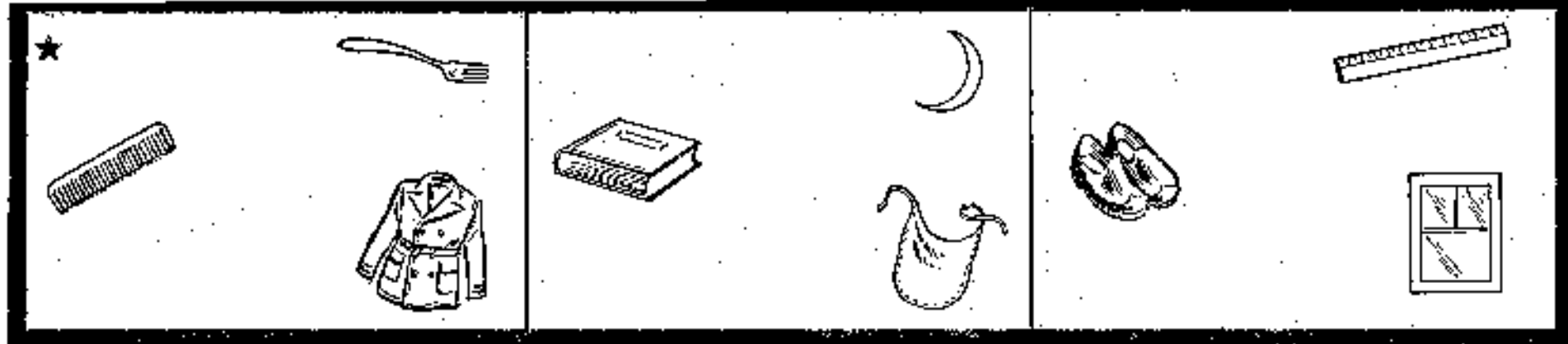


SCORE FOR TEST IV, pages 7 and 8 (17 possible) _____

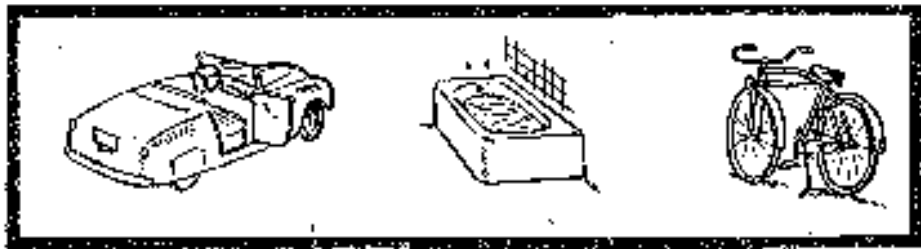
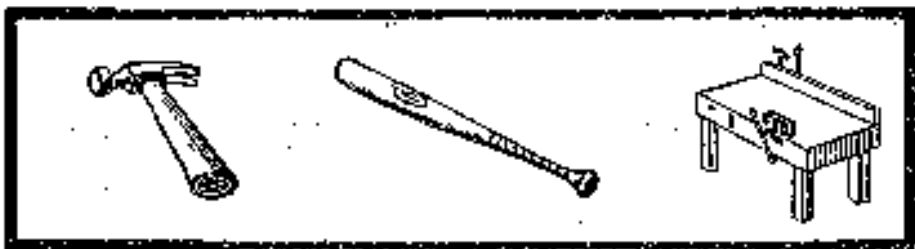
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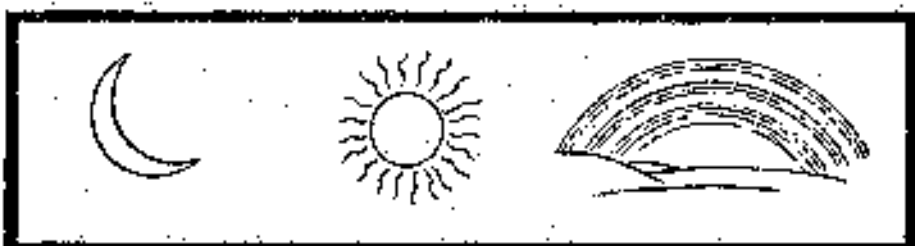
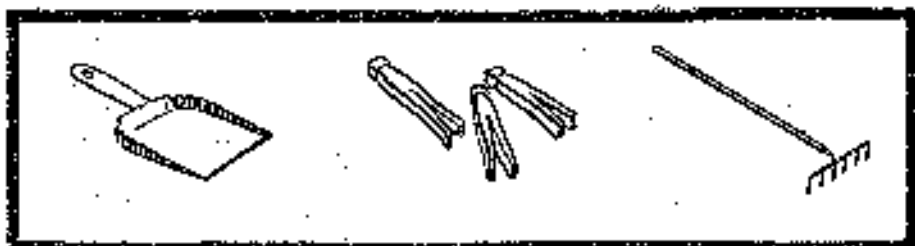


DATE _____



SCORE FOR TEST III, pages 5 and 6 (15 possible) _____
 (Do not count the 3 starred Practice Exercises)





SCORE FOR TEST II, pages 3 and 4 (17 possible) _____
(Do not count the 3 starred Practice Exercises)

*do do go of so

*of for off of on

how how now who hot

man pan man many men

soon moon soon some noon

will well with will till

run ran rub sun run

big pig dog big boy

here there here her hear

horse horse home house shore

made make made male wade

stop spot pots tops stop

play pay lay plan play

where when there where here

says said rays boys says

looked looking locked looked

* is as is in so

me am my me he

you boy yes you may

had has had have bad

come home come comb came

ball bell doll all ball

saw was see saw now

no so on no one

does goes shoe does doe

went went sent want were

name same came name none

rode road ride rode rod

pull put play dull pull

there here their there them

live love hive line live

bigger biggest bigger beggar



Primary • ^{GRADES}_{1 2 3} • 1953 S-Form

California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity

Devised by

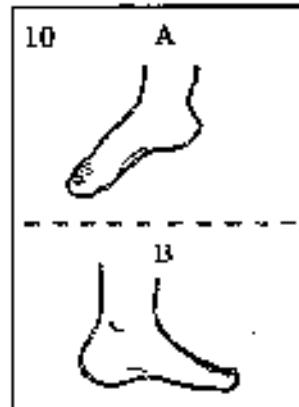
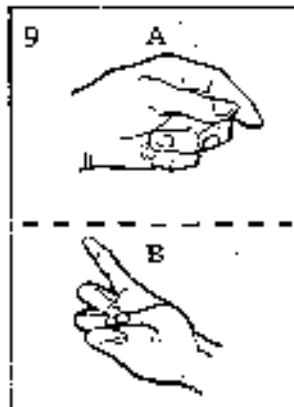
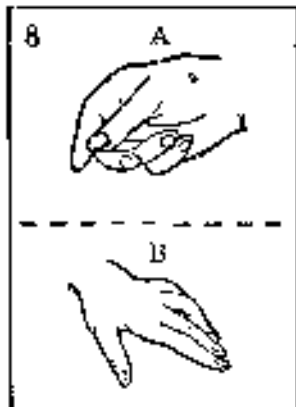
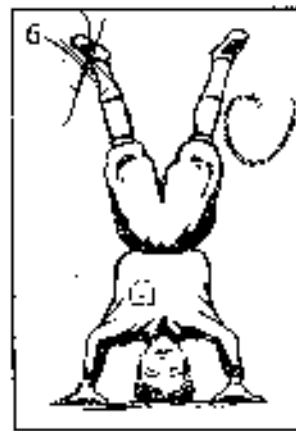
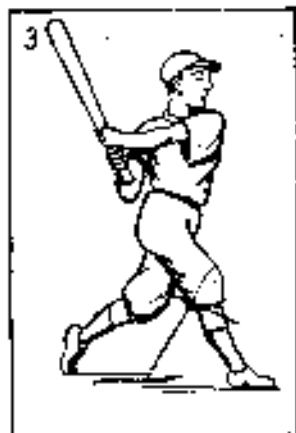
ELIZABETH T. SULLIVAN, WILLIS W. CLARK, AND ERNEST W. TIEGS

TO BOYS AND GIRLS:

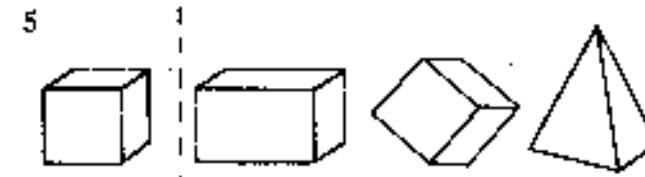
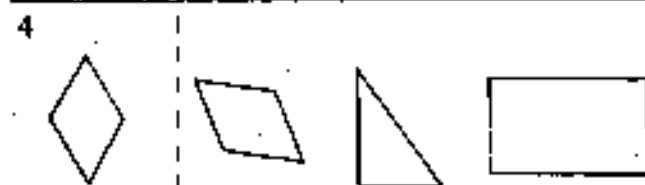
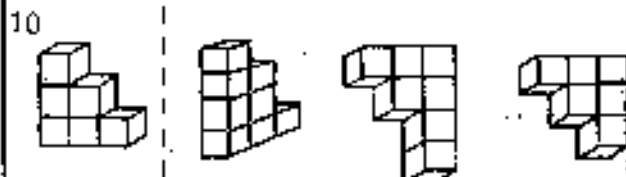
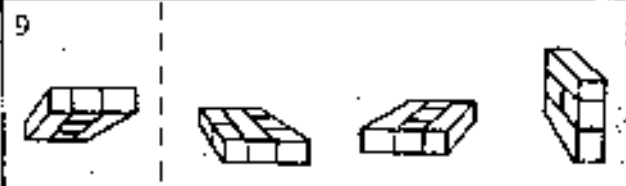
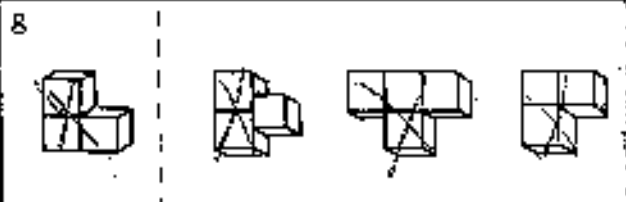
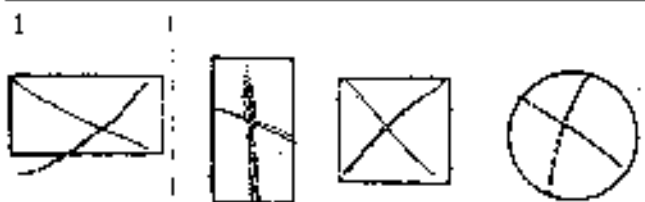
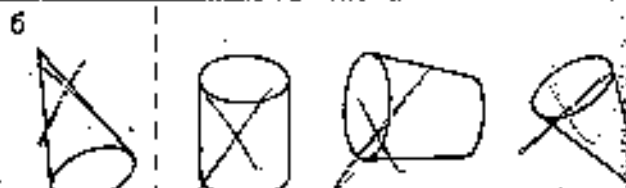
This test booklet has some games you will like. They will show how well you can think. Do as many of them as you can.

DO NOT TURN THIS PAGE UNTIL TOLD TO DO SO.

TEST 1.



TEST 2.



1 2 3

1 2 3

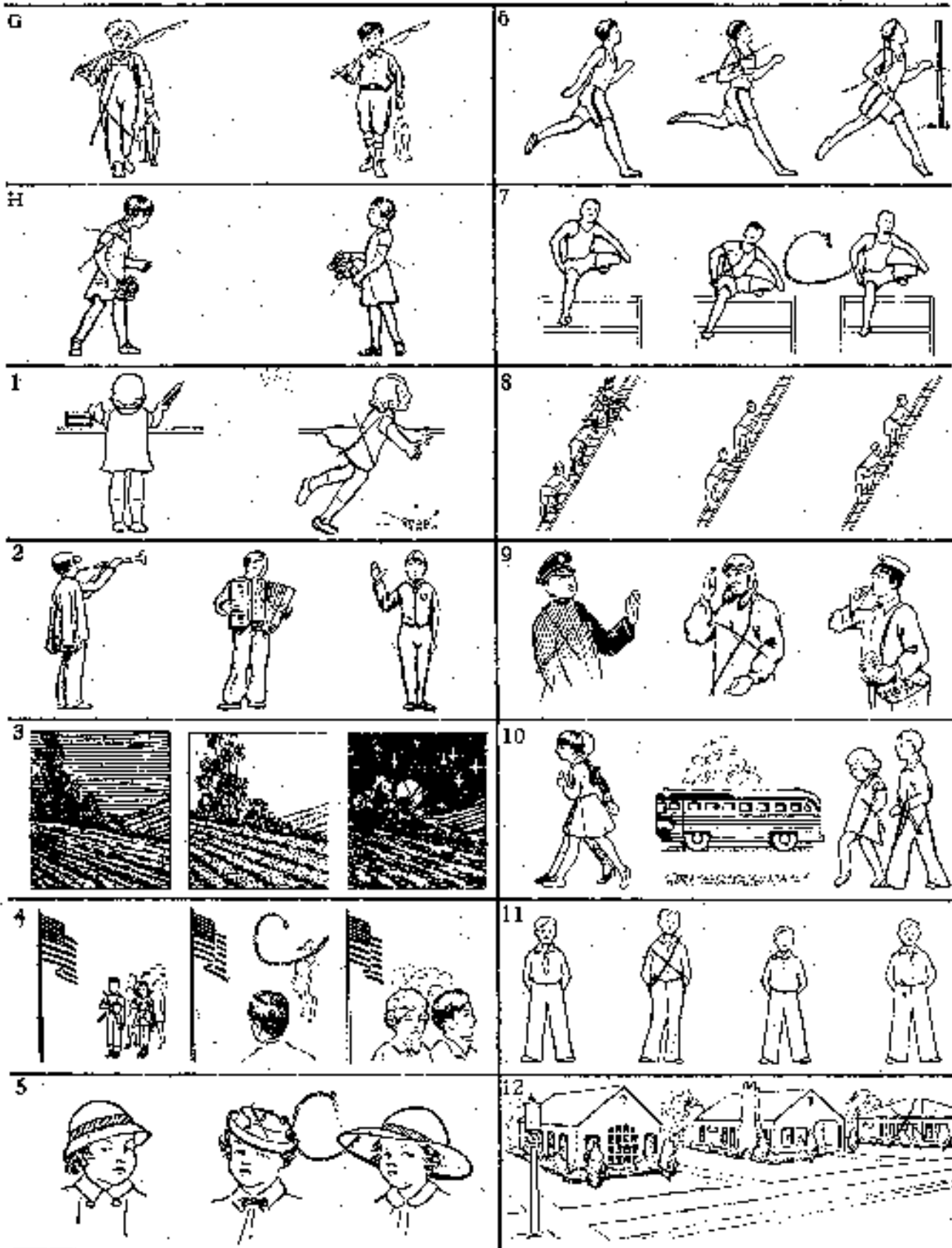


TEST 3.

	<p>6</p>
	<p>7</p>
	<p>8</p>
	<p>9</p>
	<p>10</p>
	<p>11</p>
	<p>12</p>

1 2 3 1 2 3

TEST 4.



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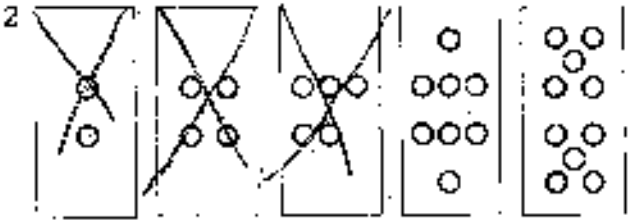
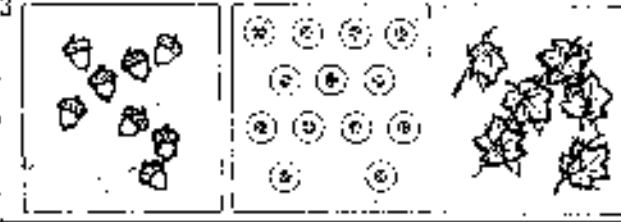
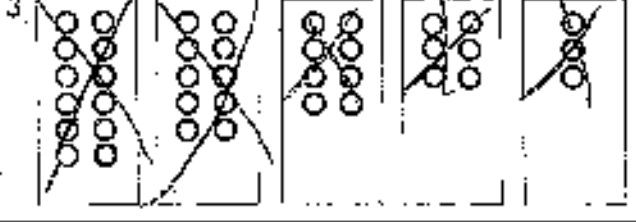

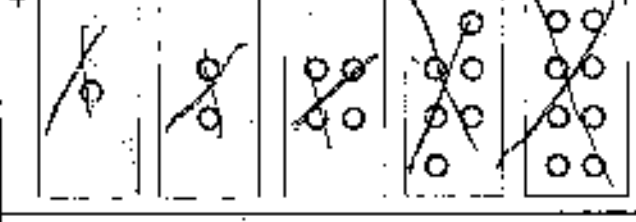

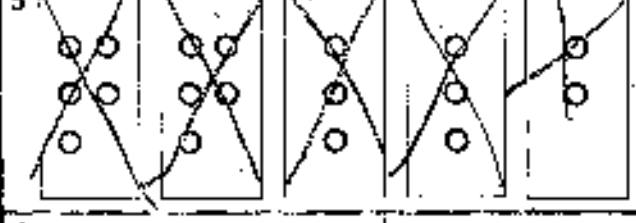


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SCORE FOR TEST 1 B (15 possible)
Do not count the 1 toward Frontline-Frontal!

TEST 5.

<p>0</p> 	<p>1</p> 
<p>1</p> 	<p>1</p> 
<p>2</p> 	<p>2</p> 
<p>3</p> 	<p>3</p> 
<p>4</p> 	<p>4</p> 
<p>5</p> 	<p>5</p> 
<p>6</p> 	<p>6</p> 

1

2

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1





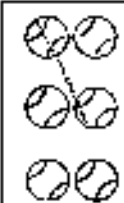










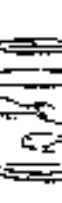








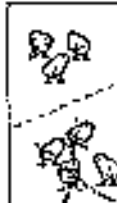
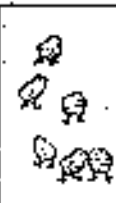



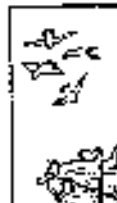
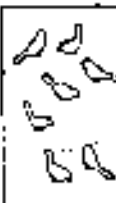
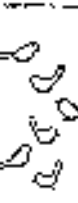

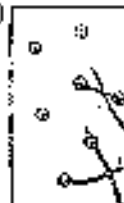
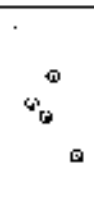


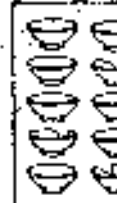



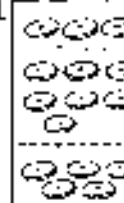
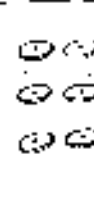


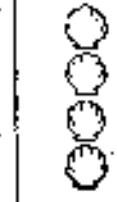




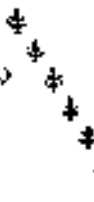
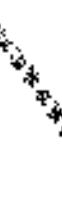

2

3

4

5

TEST 6

K 				6 			
L 				7 			
1 				8 			
2 				9 			
3 				10 			
4 				11 			
5 				12 			

1

2

3

1

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3

SCORE FOR TEST 1 b (15 possible)

Do not count this 1 placed number.

TEST 7



1

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3

1

2

3

GATES PRIMARY READING TESTS

For Grade 1 and Grade 2 (First Half)

Type 1. Word Recognition

FORM 1

Write your name here

When is your birthday? How old are you?

Date School Grade

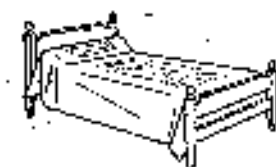


did

egg

dog

two



be

bed

bag

she



may

make

come

milk



horse

play

hose

house

To the Examiner: 1. See that each child has a pencil. 2. Distribute papers. 3. Have children fill in blanks at the top of the page (with your help). 4. Instructions to children: "I want you to look at the first picture, this one up here (holding up your copy and pointing to the picture of the dog). Next to it there are some words. One of the words goes with the picture. You are to draw a ring around that one word that tells about the picture. Put your finger on the word that belongs with the picture. What is it? (Let one child answer.) That's right, 'dog.' The four words are 'did,' 'egg,' 'dog,' and 'two' (pointing to the words on your own copy and making sure children look up at your copy). We are going to draw a ring around the word 'dog,' because that's the one that tells the most about the picture. Everyone find the word 'dog' on your paper and draw a ring around it. (Check to make sure children have marked the correct word.) Now look at the box right underneath that one. Find the word there that goes with the picture. What is it? (Let a child answer.) That's right, 'bed.' The four words are 'be,' 'bed,' 'bag,' and 'she.' We are going to draw a ring around the word 'bed' because that's the one that tells us the most about the picture. Everyone find the word 'bed' and draw a ring around it. (Check to make sure that each child has marked the correct word. Continue in the same way for the third and fourth boxes. When you are illustrating with your copy ask children to look up if need be.)

Do not open your books until I tell you to. Now I am going to show what we are to do next. On the inside of the book are some more pictures and words. (Examiner holds up copy of the test showing the inner pages.) You are to do the first one, then the next one below it, etc. (Examiner points down first column, then second, etc., and also demonstrates order on all three pages.) As soon as you have drawn a ring around the one word for one picture, go right ahead and do the next one. Now remember, first you are to look at the picture, then at the words next to the picture, then find the one word that goes best with the picture and make a ring around that one word. Make a ring around one word only for each picture. Do you understand? All right. Open your books and BEGIN. Go ahead." 5. Inspect the work of each child; see that each works from top to bottom of columns and that each follows the pages in order. Urge children individually to try the examples in order but do not tell them the answers. Discourage dawdling over difficult problems; tell them to try the next. Watch for children who make rings indiscriminately and tell them to make only one ring for each picture. 6. The signal STOP is given at the end of 15 minutes. Collect papers immediately. 7. The score is the number of exercises marked correctly minus one-third the number incorrect. If more than one word in an exercise is marked, that exercise is scored as incorrect. For further details see the Manual of Directions.



bed boy
fly not



can put
run red



hen has
pan get



say out
pig sit



king song
kite find



top try
hot cap



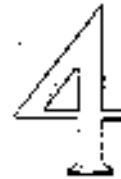
want hand
have wind



buy fox
bow new



sca men
sun may



foot soup
door four



hay how
fan toy



dark corn
barn ball



bell bear
star read



water walks
paper gates



keep sleds
sleep trees



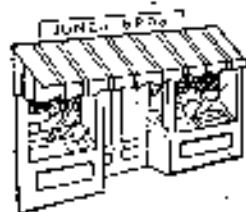
fans back
mice face



fix lie
lip tie



frog flag
floor clap



more stick
story store



farmer falling
father warmer



rats rain
ran again



clock chalk
block clean



grow blow
bow slow



liking walking
wanting talked



hear said
hair pair



find stand
sand stair



goat boat
gold road



ride hide
hill made



crow drop
cow across



hour soup
south soap



pick rock
pies pink



winds window
finding throw



drop shot
shop stop



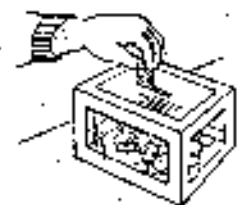
wheat wheel
went meat

12

town throw
twelve crow



leaf leaf
leave left



bark band
bank thank



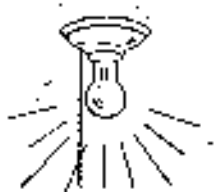
wore wood
fork word



smile smell
while mile



last take
like lake



light lost
fight lifts



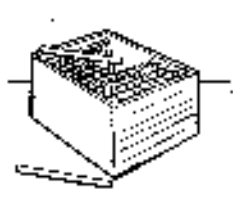
mile maid
mail nail



corner cover
river cocoa



took roof
room root



change talk
cluck chalk



lies lady
lily only



rock cock
cook colt



drive dirty
live divide

GATES PRIMARY READING TESTS

For Grade 1 and Grade 2 (First Half)

Type 2. Sentence Reading

FORM 1

Write your name here

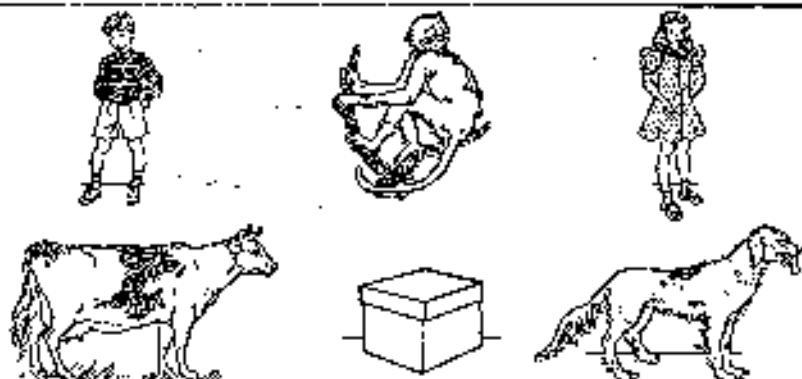
When is your birthday? How old are you?

Date School Grade

This is a boy. I

This is a girl. II

This is a box. III



The girl has a book. I

The box is on the bed. II

The cat has a ball. III



To the Examiner: 1. See that each child has a pencil. 2. Distribute papers. 3. Have children fill in blanks at top of page (with your help). 4. Instructions to children: "We are going to see how well you can read. Do you see the sentences and the pictures in the boxes on the first page of your booklet? If you look at the first sentence—suppose I illustrate it with your own copy. What does it say? (I have child read the sentence aloud.) Yes, it says 'This is a boy.' Now look at the pictures in the box beside the sentence. Which one tells the same thing for story as the sentence? Yes, that's right, the boy. Now now go on for box at the end of this sentence, 'This is a boy.' How many lines are there? One. That is right. Now draw one line on the picture of the boy to show that it tells about this sentence, like this (illustrating with your own copy). (Check to see that they all have marked it correctly.) Now look at the second sentence. What does it say? (Have child read sentence aloud.) Yes, that is right, it says 'This is a girl.' Now find the picture that goes with this sentence. Which one is it? That's right, the picture of the girl. Put your finger on it. Do you see the lines at the end of this sentence? How many are there? Two. That is right. Now draw two lines on the picture of the girl to show that it goes with that sentence. Use this (illustrating with your own copy). (Check to make sure that they have marked it correctly.) Now look at the sentence right under that one. What does it say? Yes, it says

'This is a box.' Can you find the picture of the box? If everybody put your finger on it. How many marks are we going to put on it? That's right, three, because there are three lines after the sentence, 'This is a box.' (Continue in same fashion through second exercise.) It is very important to see how many lines follow each sentence and to draw two lines under the right picture. Be very careful about this! Now, turn over the first page. Here are some more pictures and sentences. I want you to read these sentences and mark the picture just as we did before. Do you see the picture with one line? If the sentence is followed by one with two lines, if the sentence is followed by two with three lines, if the sentence is followed by three. As soon as you finish one sentence, go on to the next. I want you to do as many as you can before I say 'STOP.' If one sentence is too hard for you, don't spend too much time on it, but go on to the next one. Do you understand? All right. BEGIN." 5. In report the work of each child: give individual instruction when needed. Discouraging do's or over-detailed problems; let the pupil to try the next. Watch for failures to mark the pictures according to instructions. 6. Say "Stop" at the end of 15 minutes. Collect papers immediately. Children who failed to follow directions should be retested under supervision. 7. The score is: Number of exercises (that is, the number of pictures) which are correctly marked.

The boy runs. I



The cat runs. II

The boy eats. III



This is a ball. I

This is a house. II

This is a dog. III



This is a hat. I

This is a coat. II

This is a man. III



The door is open. I

The child has a doll. II

The bird is flying. III



The baby has a box. I

The cow is eating. II

The woman has a dress. III



The duck likes the water. I

The kitten is white. II

The face is pretty. III



Mother is writing a letter. I

This mouse is little. II

The snow is falling. III



The woman has a basket. I

This is a picture of a knife. II

This is a picture of a wagon. III



The teacher has a pencil. I

The children like to skate. II

This bottle is full of ink. III



Here is a tall policeman. I

This donkey has some hay. II

This automobile is new. III



This is the office key. I

Here are peaches and pears. II

Mother is cleaning some clothes. III



This is the roof of a barn. I

The teacher makes a sign. II

The elephant stands near a tent. III



This is a bottle of poison. I

This picture shows an ear and an eye. II

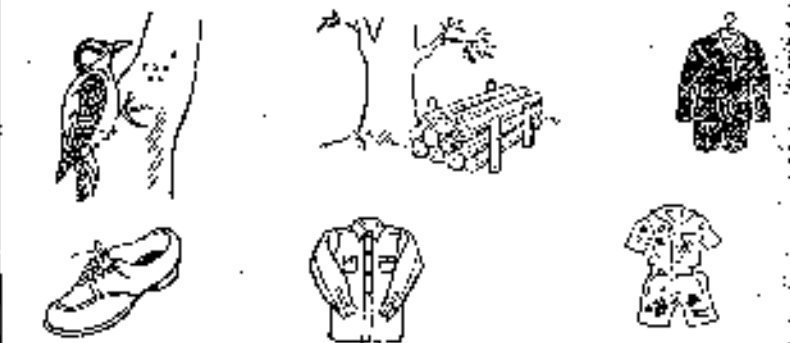
This stove smokes badly. III



This woodpecker lives in a big tree. I

This shirt is made of silk. II

There is dirt on this suit. III



The princess starts on a journey. I

This is a strong, pleasant person. II

The young daughter has pretty clothes. III



GATES PRIMARY READING TESTS

For Grade 1 and Grade 2 (First Half)

Type 3. Paragraph Reading

FORM 1

Write your name here

When is your birthday? How old are you?

Date School Grade



1. Put an X on the ball.



3. Draw a line under the little book.



2. Put an X on the milk bottle.



4. Draw a line from the pig to the tree.

To the Examiner: 1. See that each child has a pencil. 2. Distribute papers. 3. Have children fill in blanks at the top of the page. 4. Instruct children to children: "We are going to see how well you can read. Do you see the stories and pictures on the front page of your booklet? Everyone look at the first story—up here (illustrating with your own copy). What does it say to do? (Have child answer.) That's right, put an X on the ball. Everyone find the ball and put an X on it. Be sure you put it right on the ball. (Check to see that they all have marked it correctly.) Now look at the box right under that one. What does this story tell you to do? (Have child answer.) That's right, put an X on the milk bottle. Everyone find the milk bottle on your paper and put an X on it. Be sure to put it on the bottle exactly as the story asks you to. (Check to make sure it is done correctly.) Now look at the first box on the next side—up here (illustrating with your own paper). What does the story say to do? (Have pupil answer.) That's right, draw a line under the little book. Be sure you find the little book, and be sure you draw the line under it exactly as the story asks you to. (Check to make sure papers are marked correctly.) Now look at the box under that one. What does this story ask you to do? (Have pupil answer.) That's right, draw a line from the pig to the tree. Do it on your paper. Be sure it goes from the pig to the tree exactly as the

story asks you to. (Check to make sure it is done correctly.) Do not open your books until I tell you to. Now I am going to show you what we are to do next. On the inside of the book are some more pictures and stories. (Examiner holds up a copy of the test showing the inner pages.) You are to do No. 1 (Examiner points to it on his own copy), then go on and do No. 2, then do the next one, and the next one, etc. (Examiner points down first column, then second, etc., and also demonstrates order on all three pages.) As soon as you have finished one story, you must go right ahead and do the next one right below it. Now remember, first, you are to read the story below the picture; then you are to take your pencil and do exactly what the story tells you to do. Do you understand? All right. Open your books and BEGIN. Go ahead." 5. Inspect the work of each child; see that each works from top to bottom of column and that each follows the pages in order. Urge the children individually to try the examples in order but do not call them the answers. Discourage dawdling over difficult problems; tell them to try the next. 6. The signal STOP is given at the end of 20 minutes. Collect papers immediately. 7. The score is the number of directions which are followed correctly. The mark made must be the one which is specified in "the story" to be correct. For further details with respect to this test see the Manual of Directions.



1. Put an X on the dog.



6. Draw a line under the cat that is running.



2. Put an X on the hen.



7. Put an X on one of the rats.



3. Draw a line under the long train.



8. Draw a line under the table the cat sits on.

2 3 2

4. Put an X on the big two.



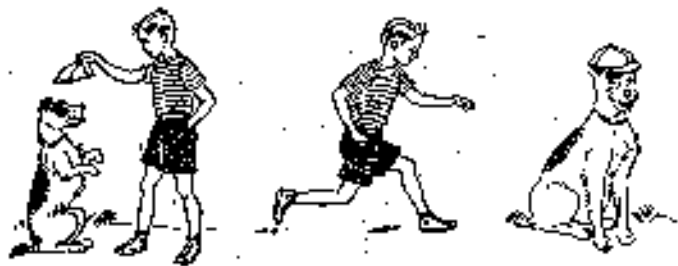
9. Put an X on the name of the street.



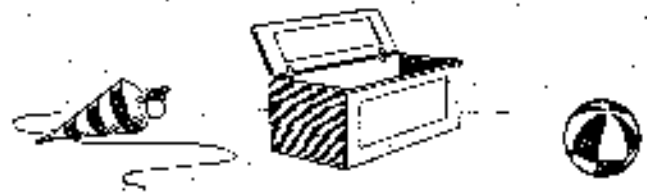
5. Draw a line under the white goat.



10. Draw a line under the fat bear with the dish.



11. Put an X on the boy who is holding his cap over the dog's head.



15. The mother told the boy to put his ball in the box. Draw a line from the ball to the box.



12. One of these three things can tell you the time. Draw a line under it.



16. What would a little child go under if it rained? Put an X on the place where the little child would go.



13. Here are seven little soldiers. Draw a line under the feet of four of these soldiers.



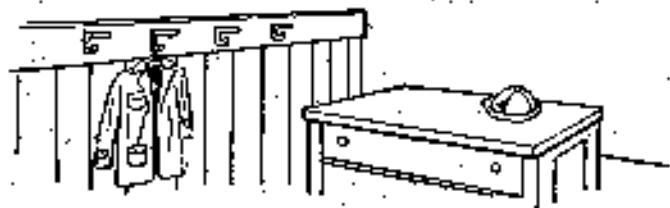
17. A mother told her boy to jump into the car and stay there. Draw a line from the boy to the car.

cat cat eat

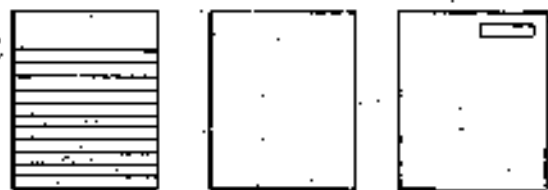
14. Here are three ways of writing "cat." Draw a line under the one you think is poor writing.



18. Three children are playing a game. They are playing in the sun. Draw a line from one of the children to the ball on the ground.



19. "Put your hat next to the coat," said Mother to the boy. Draw a line from the hat to a hook on the wall where the hat may be hung.



20. A boy was told to write his name on the first line of the paper. Look for the place where his name should be, and put an X on it.



21. Here is a bed in a room. A child sleeps in the bed. The window is closed. It should be open. Put an X on what should be open.



22. The children are playing a game. They hold hands and make a ring. The child who is "it" is out of the ring. Draw a line under the child who is "it."



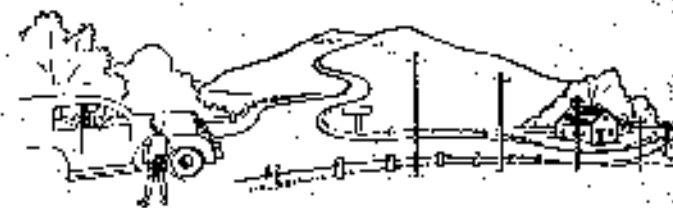
23. Father should have his coat cleaned. He dropped some butter on it when he was eating. Make an X on the store to which he would go to have his coat cleaned.



24. A boy had five cents. He went to buy some candy. On the way to the store he saw some big apples. He got an apple. Draw a line under the thing the boy got with his money.



25. You must not cross the street when you see the word, "Stop." You may cross the street when you see the word, "Go." Make an X on the word that tells you it is time to cross the street.



26. "Which road shall I take?" asked the man. "Take the road that goes by the house," said a boy. "Do not take the road that runs up the hill." Draw a line showing which road the man was told to take.

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EFFECTIVE TEACHING OF WRITING SKILLS TO THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT

In this globalisation era, communication plays a dominant role in all fields. Language is the primary key for communication and communication is almost impossible without the presence of a language. Even if it is possible to communicate through signs and gestures, it does not fulfill the desires of the human beings completely. Moreover, language is a weapon in communicating human's ideas, thoughts and feelings to the other fellow human beings. Hence, humans learn language skills in order to keep their relationship with others. To learn a language, humans need to learn the skills of that particular language. To learn a foreign or second language such as English also, the learners have to learn all the skills of it to prove themselves as good communicators. Among the four language skills, the English language learners (ELLs) find it difficult to acquire writing skills than the other three skills, i.e. listening, speaking and reading. As writing involves a lot of practice due to the complexity of its phonological, morphological, semantic and syntactic structures, EFL/ESL teachers have to think of implementing alternate methods in their classrooms in order to develop their ELLs' writing skills. Therefore, the teachers have to introduce various strategies and novel techniques and approaches to enhance the writing skills of the ELLs.

This paper focuses mainly on teaching effective writing skills to the English language learners. First of all, this paper discusses the importance of English as an international language. Later, this paper lays emphasis on the importance of language skills that are needed for the ELLs to develop their communication skills in English. Furthermore, this paper mainly focuses on the importance of the writing skills of the English language. Then this paper also discloses the advantages of writing skills for the ELLs. After that, it also thoroughly discusses the effective teaching of writing skills for the ELLs. Finally, this paper also gives some valuable suggestions to both the teachers of English and the ELLs to develop their teaching and learning writing skills.

Key words: ELLs (English language learners), language skills, latest techniques and approaches, strategies, teachers, writing skills.

Introduction

The twenty-first century has witnessed the wonderful vicissitudes that are taking place due to the dawn of innovations in technology. It resulted in tremendous changes in the field of communication system also. To communicate well with humans, one must learn a language systematically. Moreover, human beings ought to get mastery over all the four skills of a language in order to communicate with the fellow beings in the society. Furthermore, to accomplish the goals and objectives of their tasks, people have to learn a language with a lot of concentration, dedication, devotion and determination. In learning a language thoroughly, people need to learn all the four skills of the language, LSRW, i.e., listening, speaking, reading and writing with utmost care and concentration. There is a need to learn all these four skills since they play a vital role in communication. Since communication plays a key role in getting progress tremendously in each and every field, the people in the present society try to learn all the four skills by paying more attention to them. So, after realizing the importance of the communication in developing their career as well as their bright future, they have been giving more importance to the language skills and try to acquire them by putting more efforts. Therefore, the learners of a language have to work hard to achieve the desired results.

The Importance of English as an International Language

According to the recent statistics, there are approximately 6500 spoken languages in the world today and nearly 2000 among these languages have fewer than 1000 speakers. Among all these 6500 spoken languages, Mandarin, the Chinese language, is the most popular language in the world with 1,213,000,000 speakers. Among 7.5 billion inhabitants, 20 percent of the population on the Earth, i.e., 1.5 billion people speak English. Among them, 360 million people speak English as their first language, whereas, the remaining people are the non-native speakers of English. English is the only language which is widely spoken all over the world and it is the most commonly studied foreign language in the world. It is the language used for various purposes such as business, trade and commerce, international relationships, higher education, employment, internet, travel and tourism, scientific research, engineering and technology and so on. More than 85 percent of the scientific research is being done in English and most of the higher education books are available in English. The most published international newspapers are in English and a majority of the Hollywood movies are made in English. Furthermore, a majority of children's cartoons and games are designed in English. Also, a majority of students learn English in order to continue their higher education in foreign countries. English is the basic language that is used for internet purposes. In view of these reasons, English has been widely used for all purposes throughout the world.

The importance of Language Skills

English, being an international language, is spoken by a majority of people around the globe and it is the language spoken in all parts of the world. According to 2015 statistics, English serves as an official language of 67 sovereign states and 27 non-sovereign entities. Moreover; many country subdivisions have also declared English as an official language either at a regional level or at a local level. The majority of the former territories of the British Empire have English as an official language. English seems to be the *de facto* 'global' language of the late twentieth and the first few years of the 21st century. Hence, there is a need not only to learn English to communicate well with the people all over the world but also to obtain a good progress in all the fields.

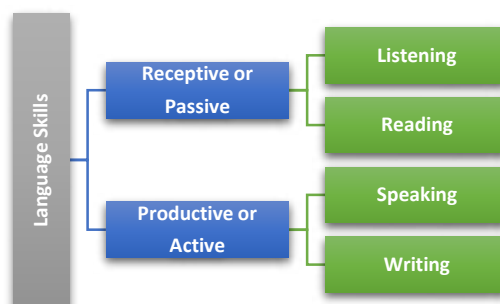


Fig: The Four Language Skills of English

Since learning English language needs more practice and hard work, the English language learners (ELLs) should concentrate more on gaining knowledge of vocabulary and grammatical structure of it. In order to communicate well in English, the ELLs have to acquire all the four skills of the English language, viz. listening, speaking, reading and writing. Among these four skills, listening and reading are receptive or passive skills, whereas, speaking and writing are productive or active skills. Listening and reading are called receptive or passive skills since the ELLs merely receive and understand these skills and they never produce them to perform these skills. On the other hand, writing and speaking are productive or active skills since the ELLs ought to produce the language using these two skills. Furthermore, speaking and writing are more visible to the others and they are also more controlled and guided activities where the primary focus of these two skills is laid on accuracy. It is a known fact that the ELLs feel more comfortable while speaking in their mother tongue, but their communication becomes apparent while they are speaking the foreign or second language. While learning English also, the same scenario is reflected on the ELLs. They face various problems in learning the basic skills of the English language. Therefore, there is a need to motivate the ELLs properly to learn the English language in a congenial atmosphere. As teachers are the pioneers in motivating and inspiring the ELLs in learning the required skills of the English language, they should always try to introduce various new strategies, techniques and approaches in their classrooms. As a result, the ELLs participate actively in the learning process. In this regard, the teachers of English should always concentrate more on the language skills so that the ELLs practise them regularly to get more command over these four skills. Therefore, the ELLs have to pay more attention on these skills in order to develop their oral as well as written communication skills.

Among these four language skills, each and every skill is given more importance and the ELLs should never ignore any of these since they are interlinked and each skill has its own importance. The learners initially acquire the listening skills while learning any language and the same case is applied to learning the English language also. Listening, according to Hornby, means, "To pay attention to somebody/something that you can hear". The main problem that the ELLs face while learning the listening skill is that they unnecessarily try to understand the meaning of each and every word of the sentence and they cannot get the meaning of the message properly. Therefore, the ELLs are advised to understand and grasp the content words that are more important and also ignore the unnecessary words so that they will understand the content of the sentence that is spoken. In order to learn the pronunciation of English, the teachers should always encourage the ELLs to pay more attention on the sounds of English. Furthermore, the teachers of English should adopt different new techniques, methods, approaches and strategies to involve the learners in learning the listening skills of English. As everyone is used to listening skills since his/her birth, they naturally enjoy listening to the speeches, dialogues and conversations that take place around them. The teachers should also play some cartoon channels in English to develop their listening skills. Since listening skills lay a foundation to learn the other three skills, the teachers should introduce these skills using various strategies, approaches and techniques in their regular English classrooms in order to improve the listening skills of the ELLs.

The most difficult skill in English for the ELLs is speaking since they have to perform them in real situations. In the real conversations, the ELLs are supposed to give a proper response to the speaker or speakers with whom they are speaking. As the listeners have to give an immediate response to the speaker(s), the ELLs must have good command over both vocabulary as well as grammatical structures of the English language. Spoken language is so important since language merely remains as a script without oral communication. The ELLs cannot communicate with anyone without getting mastery over vocabulary and grammar. So, the ELLs have to practise speaking in English both in and outside of the classrooms to have more speaking practice on real life situations. At the same time, the teachers should involve the learners in group and pair activities by creating different situations that are more useful to converse with others in their lifetime. Moreover, speaking is the activity that is used more frequently than the other skills. In this regard, Rivers (1978) says, "Speaking is used twice as much as reading and writing". We can also observe that we speak more than that of we read, write and listen. Hence, it is more appropriate for the teachers of English to concentrate more on speaking skills by adopting various strategies, techniques and approaches in the English classrooms.

Though reading is a receptive or passive skill, it is more important for the ELLs to improve their spelling, vocabulary, grammar, writing and even reading skills. By reading extensively in English, the structures of English will fill be fixed in the minds of the learners forever and the learners produce the same type of sentences every now and then while they speak to the others. With the techniques of skimming and scanning, the learners will certainly develop not only their reading skills but also grasp the matter within no time. Furthermore, it increases the knowledge of the learners in understanding various types of jargons and texts and also promotes them to learn new vocabulary items. Once the learners habituate to read the text very fast, they will certainly do well in both speaking and writing tasks as well. When the teachers find that the learners feel bored of the routine material, they should immediately switch to some authentic materials that create more interest among the learners. In this regard, the teachers should adopt some useful and interesting material for the learners from various authentic sources like newspapers, journals, magazines, story books and comics so that the ELLs will definitely involve in the given tasks and improve their reading skills enormously. Also, the teachers should encourage them to read additional materials that create more fun and entertainment for them. The teachers should also encourage the ELLs to read moral stories and some short stories that are closely related to their lives. As a result, the ELLs involve more actively in the given tasks and also develop their imagination and critical thinking. Therefore, the teachers of English should always motivate the ELLs to read more stories and interesting topics that are related to their lives in order to develop their reading skills efficiently.

Writing is the most difficult skill among the four language skills for many learners of ESL/EFL learners because of its complexity in spelling, pronunciation, vocabulary and grammatical structure. There is no one to one relation between spelling and pronunciation of the words in English. Since writing is considered the productive skill, the ELLs find it more complex skill. While the ELLs start writing, they have to follow two important features of writing, i.e., coherence and organization. In this regard, the teachers of English should always teach the learners how to write paragraphs and essays with good coherence and proper organization. Moreover, the teachers should also divide the classroom into small groups to perform the tasks related to writing. It is the duty of the teachers to motivate the learners to participate in writing activities. For this purpose, the teachers have to start the writing tasks from sentence to paragraph and paragraph to essay levels and they should always act as facilitators to help the ELLs whenever they feel that the task is quite difficult. As a result, the ELLs find it easy to finish the given assignments or tasks perfectly by doing them in the form of groups. Therefore, the teachers should always encourage the ELLs to do the given tasks collaboratively or cooperatively in groups since every ELL participates very actively and contributes something to the given tasks.

The advantages of Writing Skills for ELLs

Writing has many advantages for both individual and group ELLs. Writing develops the learners' critical thinking and they will be able to stockpile their ideas. It also helps them recover their ideas by bringing back their old and almost forgotten memories. It also clears their mind and makes them to feel the need to vent and speaks their minds in order to get their point across. It also helps the ELLs analyze things and look at them from a different point of view and the ELLs will be able to draw parallels between situations and fictional events and those that happened in their real life. The ELLs also improve their verbal as well as written skills and while writing, the ELLs carefully select the right vocabulary and grammatical structure. Moreover, the ELLs' writing will be more elegant, concise and eloquent than their actual speech since they have enough time to think and select the appropriate vocabulary and grammatical structure. The following are the advantages of writing skills for the ELLs.

- To make use of the active as well as the passive vocabulary in the learners' writing.
- To enable the learners to use figures of speech, idioms and phrases appropriately.
- To have good command over vocabulary items and grammatical structures.
- To improve the learners to learn how to write personal and official letters.
- To encourage the learners to start writing a topic sentence of a paragraph.
- To encourage the learners to use idiomatic expressions in their writing.
- To cultivate the learners to improve their writing for various contexts.

- To develop the learners to prepare their resumes or CVs attractively.
- To learn the linking devices while writing paragraphs and essays.
- To work in groups with their peers to develop their writing skills.
- To prepare the learners to make summaries of the given text.
- To understand and comprehend huge paragraphs and essays.
- To promote the learners' analytical and rational thinking.
- To enhance their paragraph writing skills enormously.
- To write essays with good coherence in their writing.
- To prepare the learners to write for different jargons.
- To help the learners recollect their past memories.
- To develop the learners' critical thinking skills.
- To enhance the learners' note-taking skills.
- To develop the learners in writing reports.
- To improve the spelling skills of the learners.
- To prepare the learners to write productive essays.
- To rearrange the sentences to make a good paragraph.
- To develop the learners' imagination in writing fictions.
- To teach them how to respond to the mails and messages.
- To develop the learners to maintain the balance of the writing.
- To enhance the learners to improve their verbal and writing skills.
- To note down the important points to save for the future purpose.
- To develop note-making skills while listening to a speech or a lecture.
- To answer the questions accurately in the routine and competitive exams.
- To prepare the learners to write stories to create interest among the readers.
- To improve their story writing skills by using some pictures or picture strips.
- To prepare the learners to perform well in their competitive exams and interviews.
- To help the learners analyze things and look at them from a different point of view.
- To develop the learners' confidence in writing sentences, paragraphs and even essays.
- To enable the learners to be more eloquent, concise and elegant than their actual speech.

Since there are several advantages of writing skills for the ELLs, the teachers of English should allot more time on writing skills and should adopt various innovative ways to attract them towards learning the techniques and mechanism underlying the writing skills.

Effective Teaching of Writing Skills to ELLs

It is a known fact that teaching writing skills is one of the complex procedures for the English language teachers. Furthermore, it is also difficult for the learners to get good command over writing skills because of its complexity in spelling, grammatical structure, usage, coherence, organization and so on. As Rao P. S. (2019) says, "The teachers should understand the level of the students and try to adopt relevant teaching strategies of improving their writing skills that are more suitable for them. Moreover, the tasks that they choose for this purpose should be well-known to the ELLs and they should create interest among the learners". Therefore, the teachers should always think of alternative methods, techniques and approaches to present them in the classrooms in order to make the learners understand the skills properly. For this purpose, the teachers should always adopt simple, useful and needful materials for the learners that create more interest among them. Moreover, the teachers should simplify the complex topics and present them in their classrooms. In this process, the teachers should follow certain techniques that involve the learners more on writing skills.

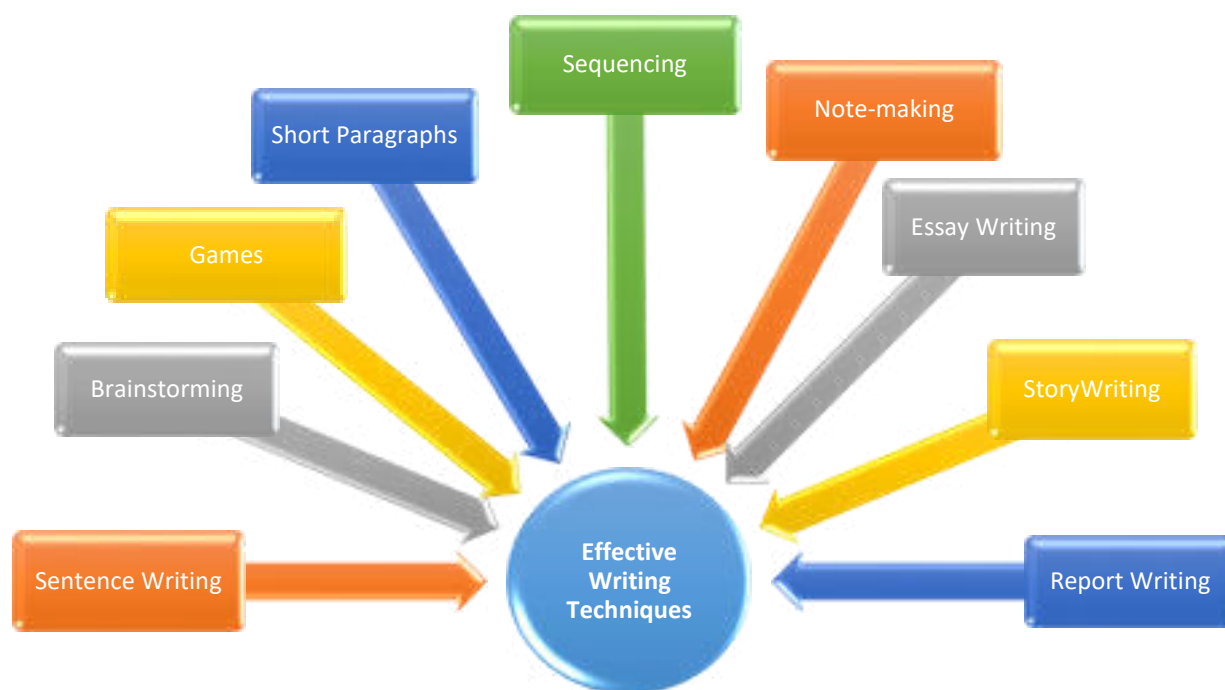


Fig. Effective Writing Techniques to Develop the ELLs' Writing Skills

As writing is a skill that is acquired by constant practice, the teachers should always motivate the ELLs by introducing the topics by adopting new techniques, methods and approaches in the teaching of writing skills. So, the teachers have to start their teaching from word level as spelling plays a key role in developing the ELLs' writing skills. Therefore, the teachers have to adopt various techniques such as oral practice and choral practice both individually and in groups in the classrooms so that the ELLs can have more practice on spelling. In this context, the teachers should conduct oral as well as written quizzes on spelling and also conduct some word games that develop the ELLs' spelling. Then, the teachers should go on to the sentence level and teach them different structures from simple to complex according to the level of the ELLs. At this level, the teachers can introduce some games on the formation of sentences such as rearranging the words. Then the teachers can also have oral practice of the sentences in groups so that the ELLs learn the underlying structure of the sentences. Later, the teachers can also adopt the technique of brainstorming since the ELLs can produce as many sentences as possible through conducting these sessions. Here, the teachers should give them a topic known to the ELLs and motivate them to contribute some sentences related to the topic. Indeed, these brainstorming sessions will be very useful for the ELLs to develop their writing skills as there is no hard and fast rule to supply a specific sentence. So the learners will get an opportunity for their ideas freely, frankly and independently in the form of writing in the classrooms. Since the ELLs can write any sentence whether it is appropriate to the topic or not, they feel free to do it in a learner-friendly atmosphere. Therefore, the teachers should introduce more brainstorming activities in the classrooms so that the ELLs participate in the activities very actively and produce more and more sentences related to the topic given to them.

Once the teachers find that the ELLs get good command over constructing sentences on their own, they can immediately proceed to the paragraph level. Here, the teachers should always introduce well-known and familiar topics for the students so that they will try to work on their own to complete the given tasks. In teaching the ELLs how to write a paragraph, first of all, the teachers should teach them the techniques involved in it. Hence, the teachers should teach them the basic principles of writing a paragraph such as order, coherence and relevance and above all, the topic sentence and the concluding sentence. Furthermore, the teachers should also teach them how to incorporate linking devices in the paragraph to make it more attractive and meaningful. After that, the teachers should train the ELLs in rearranging the jumbled sentences into an order, i.e. sequencing. The teachers have to give scrambled sentences to the ELLs and ask them to put in the proper order to make the paragraph more sense. These types of activities certainly improve the ELLs'

logical thinking and they participate with higher motivation. It results in learning how to unscramble the sentences to arrange the sentences in a logical sequence to make it a meaningful paragraph.

Another important technique to develop the ELLs' writing skills is note-making. Through note-making technique, the teachers initially help the ELLs to find out the important points of the given text. In this process, the ELLs go through the given text carefully twice or three times and underline the important points in their first reading. Then the ELLs eliminate some unimportant ones among them when they read the text for the second time and in their third reading, they come to a conclusion and make notes of the important points. This technique develops the ELLs to make short notes of the given text with all important points. So, there is no need for the ELLs to read the whole text and just by reading the important points only they can grasp the complete text. Once the ELLs are trained well in paragraph writing, sequencing and note-making, then the teachers can proceed to essay writing which is more important in developing their academic career. While teaching the techniques of writing the essays, the teachers should concentrate on different types of essays as there is no one-to-one relationship among them. So, the teachers should concentrate more on the techniques of writing each type of essay and teach the students in a way that they can understand all the rules clearly. Moreover, the teachers should select the titles of the essays that are catchy and easily understood by the ELLs. Initially, the teachers should help the ELLs get the main points of each paragraph so that they will develop the skills of writing essays gradually on their own.

Then the ELLs are encouraged to write small stories that they are familiar with. In order to develop the story-writing skills of the ELLs, the teachers should go on telling them some moral and historical stories according to the interests of the learners. Moreover, the teachers should encourage the ELLs to translate the stories of their mother tongue by forming groups and ask them to work collaboratively. As a result, the ELLs can take part in these tasks very actively and contribute something to complete the story. Another technique that the teachers can follow to develop their story writing skills is showing some pictures or picture strips so that the ELLs can make miracles of it. The last but not the least technique to develop the writing skills of the ELLs is report writing. A report is a written document of something that somebody has seen, observed, investigated, done or heard. Since it is a systematic, logical, well-organised presentation of both facts and findings of an event or incident that happened somewhere else, the writer of the report take all the points in consideration and write a detailed report on it. Even though it seems to be very simple, there is more complexity in presenting the report. Therefore, the teachers should train the ELLs by working on various sample reports and ask them to rewrite the same reports on their own. Initially, the teachers should start with weather reports, article report, speech report, debate report, business report and so on. The main difference between an essay and a report is that an essay always presents arguments and reasoning whereas a report presents only the facts. Therefore, the teachers of English should always try to involve the ELLs in groups so that they can write good reports on their favourite sport, movie, book, story, cartoon or an incident to improve their writing skills efficaciously.

As the ELLs find many problems in writing such as spelling, grammatical structures, logical order, coherence, organisation and so on, it is the responsibility of the teachers to prepare the learners to overcome these problems by adopting the latest techniques, methods and approaches. At the same time, it is apt to quote Rao, P. S. (2019), "The ELLs have to pay more attention and put more emphasis on writing skills so they can surely master them. As a result, writing becomes very easy for the learners and they learn it with more interest and it will be very useful for them in attaining good results". Furthermore, Rao, P. S. (2017b) states, "As writing is the most difficult skill to acquire for the EFL/ESL learners, the teachers should concentrate more on their learners' writing skills by involving them in a variety of activities. Therefore, the teachers are supposed take the EFL/ESL learners' interests and needs in consideration so that the learners' involvement in the given writing task increases. Moreover, the EFL/ESL learners participate in the tasks very actively and they will produce qualitative and productive results in their English writing skills". Therefore, the teachers of English should think innovatively to motivate the ELLs towards learning all the techniques of writing skills so that they will develop their skills in writing English enormously.

Conclusion

In this paper, an attempt has been made to bring out the techniques of teaching effective writing skills to the ELLs. First of all, this paper has discussed the importance of English as an international language. Later, this paper has laid emphasis on the importance of language skills that are needed for ELLs to develop their communication skills in English. Furthermore, this paper has mainly focused on the importance of the writing skills of the English language. Then this paper has also disclosed the advantages of writing skills for the ELLs. After that, it has also thoroughly discussed the effective teaching of writing skills for the ELLs. Finally, this paper has also given some valuable suggestions to both the teachers of English and the ELLs to develop their teaching and learning writing skills efficiently.

Since writing is considered the most difficult skill to acquire for the ELLs, the teachers of English should think of appropriate methods and latest techniques in English language teaching and develop the writing skills of the ELLs. As Rao, P. S. (2017a) asserts, "The teachers have to make the ELLs understand the techniques of writing English and demonstrate them by giving some important and interesting topics as examples. While teaching the writing skills in ELL environment, the teachers have to choose the topics that are more easier and interesting ones so that the learners feel happier and try to concentrate more on their learning". The teachers should always prepare their teaching materials by taking the interests and needs of the ELLs in consideration and try to give the writing tasks to the ELLs by adopting collaborative learning approach. So the learners will get a chance to discuss with their peers and contribute something to it which is more valuable to accomplish the given writing tasks or assignments. Here, the teachers act as facilitators and help the learners whenever they find any kind of difficulty in completing the given work. Moreover, the ELLs also work collectively with mutual cooperation and it results in getting the desired results. In this regard, the teachers of English should always encourage the learners to perform the writing tasks in pairs or group in order to achieve the productive outcome.

Moreover, the English teachers have to adopt some more new techniques to improve the EFL/ESL learners' writing skills. When the teachers give a certain writing task to the learners, they have to suggest the learners how to express ideas and organize the given task. The teachers have to guide the learners with the process of writing that needs to divide the writing activity into several stages where each activity involves sub-skills in doing this process. Therefore, the teachers have to guide the learners properly in order to involve them in the activities with a lot of motivation and encouragement.

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Review Paper

Factors Influencing School Readiness of Children

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Abstract

School Readiness plays an important role in early childhood period. It sets the basis for the future development. It assures smooth transition and successful entry to primary school and first step towards entering the world of knowledge. Through school readiness child get a sure shot path for long term academic career. School readiness also works as a tool for a healthy, productive and purposeful life. Along with the major determinants of school readiness factors like family background variables, intervention given to children and teacher, early childhood education experiences, curriculum content and teacher experience are the factors influencing school readiness.

Keywords: School readiness, Early childhood education, Curriculum, Teacher experience.

Introduction

The primary goal of preschool education is to bring out overall development in children and to prepare them for school by imparting the basics like colors, shapes, numbers, letters, how to look at books, how to get along with classmates, how to live by the rules in school and gradually built their readiness for the increasingly rigorous challenges of school. It is expected that child should be given learning experiences so that he will possess some basic skills, knowledge and attitudes necessary for further formal learning.

Readiness is more than basic knowledge of language and math. Readiness expectations should include all areas such as physical, cognitive, social and emotional competencies as well as positive attitude towards learning. "Children's readiness for school has been conceptualized as the characteristics and skills children should possess in order to be able to learn effectively in school"¹.

Hence it can be said that school readiness is a multifaceted concept which refers to the child's attainment of certain set of competencies which help child for successful entry to school. This paper will through a light on the following factors influencing school readiness. i. Early predictors of school readiness, ii. Family background variables and effect of intervention, iii. Early childhood education experience, iv. Curriculum content and Teacher experiences.

Early predictors of school readiness

What predicts children's readiness to school is a very objective phenomenon, as children vary in their maturational age, abilities and family background. For subjective application, as early

childhood education programs are for helping young children for safe entry to academic learning, it is necessary to find school readiness determinants for mass application of early childhood education programs. It supports individualized instructional planning during early childhood education period and at the door step of primary education. No doubt there are natural maturational aspects in readiness but for clear understanding of utilization, planning and implementation of environmental aspect, determinants of school readiness may act as guiding principles for majority of planners in different cultural settings. Longitudinal follow up conducted in America on 164 Head Start children by Nelson². Researchers revealed that, working memory and attention control predicted growth in emergent literacy and pre-numeracy skills during the pre-kindergarten year and growth in these domain-general cognitive skills made unique contributions to the prediction and kindergarten math and reading achievement controlling for growth in domain specific skills. The research highlights the importance of working memory and attention control for academic learning, demonstrating the effects in early childhood, prior to school entry.

Cognitive readiness: Cognition is how we know, learn and remember. It involves the thinking skills that children use to make a sense of all the general knowledge they acquire. It enable children to make sense of patterns and relationships in their learning environment. The most basic cognitive skills are perception, attention, imitation and memory. Generally a child who knows numbers, letters and colors are considered to be ready to school. It is expected that children should develop the ability to perform logical multiplications, pre-number concepts and operations, spatial sense, pattern and measurements, skills related to sequential thinking, reasoning and problem solving and knowing the environment and thus considered to be

cognitively ready as they acquire it at the age of five.

Duncan³ conducted a study entitled ‘School Readiness and Later Achievement’; Across all 6 data sets such as school entry, academic, attention and socio-emotional skills and later school reading and math achievement used by, found that the strongest predictors of later achievement were school entry math, reading and attention skills. Early math skills had the greatest predictive power, followed by reading and attention skills and the patterns of association were similar for both the gender from high and low socioeconomic backgrounds. Mathematics equips children to make sense of the world outside the school and help them construct a solid base for school readiness. Counting, measuring, comparing, collecting, sorting, classification, ordering, seriation, patterning, sequencing, are the pre-mathematical concepts that help to lay the foundation for further mathematics studies⁴.

Early language skills: Language is the critical first step in literacy and the basis for learning to read and write⁵. When children develop an ear for word sounds, can identify rhyme and alliteration, blend sounds, and recognize onset rhyme and sound units in words i.e. when they develop phonological awareness usually around ages two to six⁶ are considered to be getting ready for more advanced and complex levels of language learning. Research indicates specific skills and abilities of children aged birth to 5 years predict later reading outcomes. Children who possess early literacy skills such as listening comprehension, oral language vocabulary, alphabet knowledge, phonological/phonemic awareness (the ability to discriminate sounds in words), invented spellings, environmental print, and concepts about print were found to have strong literacy skills later in life⁷. While all of these emergent literacy skills correlate with later literacy achievements, one of the most robust predictors of later literacy achievement is a young child’s vocabulary.

Print awareness: Print knowledge at the entry of school is also a predictor of success in early reading⁸. Various interventions emphasizing the exposure to the concept that, ‘print symbolizes language and has meaning’ is to be provided to avoid many children’s struggle at entry to school without knowledge about print book concept. The study conducted on 533 American Head Start preschool aged children (4years 9 months) in 2 locations on the comprehensive language approach to early literacy to find out the interrelationship among vocabulary, phonological sensitivity and print knowledge among preschool aged children. Results of the study showed two view points on oral language and literacy skills. The phonological sensitivity approach says that vocabulary provides the basis for phonological sensitivity which is a key language ability supporting reading and another the comprehensive language approach posits that varied language skills interact with literacy knowledge and continue to play a vital role in subsequent reading achievement⁹.

Along with natural maturational aspects such as working

memory and attention control, language awareness, cognitive skills and pre-numeracy skills, socio emotional skills, early mathematical skills are the greatest predictors of school readiness. Among all, mathematical and cognitive readiness is the most important predictors and influencing factor of readiness to school. One more robust predictor of later literacy achievement is young children’s vocabulary.

Family background variables and effect of intervention

Family background continues to effect on overall development of children and especially in terms of school readiness it is a very major factor. Maternal education and involvement greatly contribute in children’s academic learning and achievements. Home environment which is supportive to child’s growth and fulfilling his/her developmental needs can be provided by more educated and concerned parents. Though poverty is a major obstacle in providing stimulatory materials and equipment, maternal education can compensate this by utilizing available resources in meaningful way and by having rich interaction with them.

Socio-economic status: Preschool children from different socio cultural background vary in their readiness levels for a standard based mathematics curriculum as well as children from low income families face little trouble in following mathematical instruction¹⁰. A sample of 244 children with average age of 61 months and their parents from metropolis area were surveyed by Lee, Murray and Fox¹¹, to investigate children’s mathematics readiness associated with demographic information (family income, race/ethnicity and gender) and preschool experiences. Results of the study showed that children from higher family incomes belonging to white ethnic groups and children who had preschool experiences scored higher on mathematics readiness as compared to their low income African American, Hispanic and Asian children and those who did not attend preschools.

Maternal education: Maternal education is found to be a strong correlate of children’s language, cognitive and academic development. Increase in mother’s education was linked to young children’s expressive and receptive language skills. Increased educational levels are associated with improved home environments, mother’s responsiveness and provision of learning materials.

A sample of 431 kindergarten students with mean age of 5 years were studied to find the answers of, ‘How are parents involved in young children’s learning and what is the relationship between their involvement and children’s readiness for school. It was observed that parents had a higher level of home based involvement than school based involvement during early years. Parental qualification was highly correlated with overall readiness for school. Parent instruction, language and cognitive activities and homework involvement were significant predictors of overall readiness for school; whereas home based

involvement predicted more readiness for school than school based involvement. Parental involvement is emphasized in this study for children's readiness for school¹².

Women education is an unexplored wealth. From this it is crystal clear that amongst all family background variables especially mother's education is a key to achieve maximum readiness in preschool children. It also throws a light on the aspect that maximum cognitive development is also possible when mothers are educationally equipped for upbringing their children. Though socioeconomic background places among top of the influencing factors family literacy intervention may prove to be effective to avoid long term impacts on overall literacy specially for economically disadvantaged group.

Preschool experiences and school readiness

Pre-schooling offers variety of preparatory experiences which help children for smooth entry to formal learning. It also inculcates adjust mental qualities which are required at primary level for dealing various scholastic, personal, and social challenges. Hence at the doorstep of primary education children are expected to be made ready on more advanced stage of independence for facing change and handling their issues more successfully.

Attending Preschool: At the threshold of primary education children often found to face difficulty in transition process. It is evident that children who attend preschools are generally prepared for formal schooling than those children without preschool experience¹³. Children showed better school attendance record showed better results at the end of a year¹⁴.

It has been now well established fact that pre-primary education has arose like a tool for reducing school dropout¹⁵. Early childhood development and pre-primary education are widely recognized as having a significant impact on the performance of children's school readiness especially in cognitive areas. It ensures a smooth transition to the primary education and lays a firm foundation for lifelong learning.

Performance in early years: Early academic performance may be predictive of later academic performance. Students trained in pre-reading skills e.g. letter recognition, letter naming, and letter sound production performed significantly better during subsequent reading instruction than their counterparts who did not receive such training¹⁶. Further children trained in pre-reading skills required fewer trials than their counterparts during subsequent reading instructions.

Melhuvis¹⁷ conducted a study on more than 2500 children who attended preschool for 18 months on average and also had 5 years of elementary education by age 10. Results showed that an average preschool attendant of that age scored 27% higher on a standard math test than a comparable group of children without preparation. It was further analyzed that children who attended

preschools performed better in studies at age 10 than their classmates who did not attend preschool. It further states that the preschool boosts the child's cognitive, language, and social development and at the school entry child benefits more from the school experiences and many aspects of development including math scores are better. A child who had a good home learning environment, good preschool and good primary school did better than a child who got only two of the above.

Curriculum Planning and Teacher experiences

Curriculum Content: Curriculum Planning: Curriculum planning is the key to success in achieving goals related to school readiness. Through proper planning gradually children can be introduced to many preparatory activities which help children for smooth transaction on formal academic learning at primary level. There is a set of skills which have to be acquired before a child starts school. In relation to these studies says that academic programs produced better, immediate and midterm cognitive outcomes than traditional early childhood program¹⁸ and cognitive developmental program produced better long term educational and social adjustment outcomes when teachers got strong support for implementing the curriculum. Curriculum which is planned specially to deal with mathematical concepts e.g. number games, counting and comparisons, with the proper balance of structured and unstructured activities and inferred from the basics of child development is really worthy for achieving all goals and objectives of preschool education¹⁹.

Teacher fidelity on program implementation: Pence, Justice and Wiggins²⁰ conducted a research on 'Preschool Teachers Fidelity in Implementing a Comprehensive Language –Rich Curriculum. Language focused curriculum was prepared and randomly assigned to 7 teachers and another 7 teachers were told to maintain their prevailing curriculum. Curriculum Fidelity checklist was used 3 times in an academic year. All teachers were in the age group of 25 to 54 and had experience between 3 to 27 years and had 10 to 16 students in the class. Results of the study showed language focused curriculum, teachers exhibited, fidelity to activity contexts then instructional processes. Use of language focus instructional process by the teacher was low even after one year. Teacher characteristics such as years of experience, educational background and school/ classroom characteristics such as administrative support and pupil demographics and curriculum itself are the influential factors in implement language focused curriculum.

Play: Play is a natural way of learning. Play offers lot of opportunities to explore their own interests and take responsibility for their own learning. A study was conducted to find out the relationship between kindergarten's play and achievement in pre-reading, language and writing²¹. Play was observed and ranked according to Similansky's Cognitive Play categories and pre-reading and language achievement were measured with the help of Metropolitan reading readiness test, whereas, student's word Writing Fluency was used for assessing

writing achievements. A sample of 65 kindergarteners, 37 males and 28 females were tested and observed in the classroom set up for 4 weeks. Multiple regression and ANNOVA were employed for obtaining results. Results showed that play was significant predictor of success in all three i.e. mathematic, reading and writing achievements and there were significant main effect due to play for all achievements. Socio-economic status and sex appeared to have little influence on predictor and achievement.

Print exposure: Print exposure is widely used to prepare children for school. Cunningham and Stanovich²² conducted a research on Tracking the unique effects of print exposure in children's associations with vocabulary, general knowledge and spelling. The Title Recognition Test (TRT) was used to assess 4 year-5year old children. Results revealed significant correlations with letter recognition, spelling, vocabulary, verbal fluency, word knowledge and general information.

Teacher experiences

School Readiness Intervention: Carefully designed and focused school readiness intervention is proven to be very useful for attaining goal of preschool education. On interactive book reading Wasik and Bond²³ followed 121 children for 15 weeks and found the score of +0.63,+1.45,+1.92 on PPVTII, receptive and expressive language respectively with the preschool Es mean of +1.33. Cosgrove²⁴ found the effect of +0.28 on reading quotient, +0.28 on alphabet, +0.17 on prints, +0.29 on meaning and +0.25 on alphabet letter recognition when studied on 466 students from Head Start schools from 3 different locations on 'Early literacy model program'. In the same line Wasik Bond and Hindman²⁵ followed 200 pupils for 1 year in two Head Start centers found the effect of -0.33 on alphabet knowledge and +0.73 and +0.44 on receptive and expressive language respectively with the preschool ES mean of -0.33 and +0.59 on literacy and language respectively after the intervention for teachers in a 2hrs group training sessions accompanied by approximately 2 hrs of in class coaching and mentoring for each month. Experimental group scored significantly higher in screen (ES=+0.32), letter known (ES=+0.31, dictation (ES=+0.38) book knowledge (ES=+0.12) and print convention (ES =+0.23) with no significant difference in letter word identification, and comprehension and average effect size of +0.20 on literacy outcomes when 507 Head Start children were followed for 1 year to find the effectiveness of Let's Begin with the Letter people and the Waterford Early Reading Program.

Thematic vs teacher constructed curriculum: A thematic curriculum which is arranged in a sequence in order of complexity named Literacy Express is compared with High Scope curriculum. A sample of 30 teachers and classrooms across three conditions (9 control, 10 Literacy express and 11 DLM Early Childhood Express supplemented with Open Court Reading Pre-K) involving 297 children i.e. 99 from Literacy Express treatment group and 101 in DLM early childhood

express supplemented with open court Reading Pre-K treatment group and 97 in control group in the base line age group of 4.6 years. Results revealed that there is no impact on pre-kindergarten or kindergarten child outcomes was observed PSER²⁶. In another study Project Approach Curriculum was implemented in 07 classrooms and was compared with 6 control classrooms where teachers implemented their own constructed teacher developed, nonspecific curriculum. At the end non-significant effects on language (ES=+0.21) and mathematics (ES=+0.24) were slightly higher in KG and in pre-KG and literacy scores dropped from an effect size in pre-K of +0.28 to +0.15 and phonological awareness score in KG produced a negative effect size (-0.17) PSER (2008) more ever similar results were found when research was conducted to find the effect of Project Construct curriculum PSER.

Knowledge and Intervention of teacher: School readiness out comes can be readily achieved with targeted teacher interventions that are provided within preschool classroom setting. Improvements in quality over intervention provided to teachers were observed in the research conducted in Bangladesh²⁷. This is especially true in cognitive measures like vocabulary, matrix reasoning, block design and school readiness.

A study was conducted by Gala and Sonawat²⁸ to find out the formal and informal preschool teachers about mathematical readiness with the help of purposive sampling technique 16 formal and 16 informal preschool teachers from two English medium schools were selected for the study. Questionnaire and observation schedule was used for pretesting and 15 hours classroom observation. After an intervention workshop post testing was done for 15 hours in both the schools. The results revealed that there was an increase in perception knowledge, attitude and practices about mathematical readiness from pre to post testing in both the school. The comparative analysis showed a significant difference in knowledge of the formal school teachers about the concepts of mathematical readiness. Observation at other end showed gap between knowledge and practices of the formal school teachers. Lack of implementation of mathematical readiness in formal school indicated that knowledge is insufficient for transforming it to the classroom situations.

Trained teacher: Qualified and properly trained teacher is a key to success in any circumstances. Landry²⁹ studied on 'Enhancing Early Literacy Skills for Preschool Children for 2 years. Twenty Head Start sites along with 750 teachers were included in the research with 370 classrooms. On teacher intervention greater gains were found for children in target classrooms than control groups for all skills such as vocabulary, language, early literacy and cognitive readiness but particularly for language skills in second year and this varied by program site. The presence of a research based early literacy curriculum, higher levels of teacher education and full day verses half day programs were significant moderators of intervention effect.

With one year of training teachers were likely to implement activities encouraging skills in the early phonological awareness stages i.e. listening, rhyming whereas the additional year of training appeared to support teachers promoting the development of more complex skills like syllabication, onset rhyme. Monthly liaison meetings were found to be critically important to ensure the fidelity of scaling up the model. These meetings allowed for group problem solving, sharing of information. Staff presentations on their own progress and also build up a strong sense of community and project ownership.

When 25 classroom teacher's implementing 'Doors to Discovery Curriculum' were mentored by senior level trainers showed a mean effect size of -0.20 on both the preschool language scale and the expressive vocabulary test. A positive effect size of +0.12 on the auditory subscale³⁰, Because class had Spanish speaking children when teachers were mentored for using both the languages i.e. Spanish and English in the classroom learning, it helped to go far in preparing children specially in language areas. Even it is proven in more advanced study that when children in the treatment group were instructed by the trained teachers for three days a week and were tested after 6 months intervention showed strong effect at the end of preschool for literacy (ES=+0.52), language (ES=+0.46), mathematics (ES=+0.37) and cognition (ES=+0.31) with effect on cognitive development during kindergarten (ES=+0.39).

Various curriculum models are in practice all over the world. At this time it is very necessary to find standardized but culture specific answers for bringing uniformity in implementation of early childhood education. For this 'what we want form preschool education?' should be taken on task by think tanks of the various preschool scientific societies.

Discussion: Early childhood education is a sure shot success key for preparing children for formal entry to school. It is worldly recognized that along with its socioeconomic benefits it increases the chances of children to be in academic learning for long period of time as it reduces school dropout rates and boosts up their performance levels at their formal school learning. Amongst many other predictors, language readiness, mathematics readiness and cognitive readiness are the major predictors of school readiness. Family background variables and parental involvement especially mother's involvement showed great influence on children's school readiness. Children coming from middle to higher socioeconomic groups are seen to be better prepared for formal school and children whose parents are involved, especially mother, proved to be a great supportive measure for smooth transition to children from low socioeconomic status.

Though various curriculum models are in function all over the world but a curriculum model which has a play base for the development of various cognitive skills, mathematical operational opportunities and language abilities supported with print awareness experiences gives maximum output.

Though developing leadership in curriculum planning amongst teacher is the most crucial area, they viewed their share in framing curriculum is very useful for their own professional growth and functioning.

Conclusion

School readiness is very essential for successful entry to formal primary school and Preschool education is a combo pack for making this transition smooth, easy and long lasting. Appropriate curriculum planning by innovative and initiative steps taken by teachers, parent education especially mother's education and their involvement is a very supportive aspect for making children physically, socially, emotionally and academically ready. Cognitive, math and language wise readiness is a worthy predictor taken in to account for promoting them to formal world of learning. Play based model with ample print exposure is useful for achieving school readiness for socioeconomically disadvantaged children.

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B.F. Skinner's Theory of Language Development

PsychologyCognitive Psychology

Language is an important element for humans to communicate with each other. Language development is an important aspect of children's cognitive development. It is an important milestone that needs to be achieved, and it is a slow and gradual process that commences early in childhood. Humans use complex and diverse language, one of the best skills that sets us apart from other living creatures. How do we acquire language, however? Do we have a blueprint for it? If so, how can some people master a language that is not native to them? This article discusses one of the most important theories of language development.

Who was B.F. Skinner?

B.F. Skinner was a behaviorist and is well known for developing the concept of operant conditioning. He was driven by the ideas given by John B. Watson, called behaviorism. He rejected the notions of introspection and psychoanalysis. He was a believer in the idea that any behavior can be shaped or conditioned. He believed that psychology is a science and should be measurable or quantifiable.

What is Skinner's Theory of Language Development?

Language development begins at a very young age in humans. Certain language milestones help to predict and chart the development of a language. Initially, the child uses a very simple form of language and then moves forward to comprehend and produce complex language. Normally, a child will recall simple words they must have heard and make babbling sounds. They will then grow up to make meaningful phrases as their vocabulary grows.

B.F. Skinner suggested that language development is highly influenced by the environment in which the child grows. The concept of learning and behavior formation are the primary sources behind the development of language in children. He contended that children learn new skills through operant conditioning, classical conditioning, or observation. This view further emphasized the role of the effects of these conditions on a child's learning environment. This would therefore mean that the rewarded responses are repeated, and the ones reprimanded are suppressed or curbed in terms of language development and response formation

If this view were to be put into perspective, one could think of an infant observing many things around them. They observe the elderly speaking a language and attempt to mimic the same. Furthermore, when an adult acknowledges the attempt with a hug or an exclamation, the child learns to use the word often. This leads to the motivation to learn the language. In addition, infants also often learn the language spoken by the people around them.

Further Developments in Skinner's Theory

Skinner's view can be understood with a simple example: children often pick up the language spoken by their caretakers or the people around them. Further, when caregivers speak to a child in a particular language, the child often uses the language as a primary language to think.

The age when most language development occurs is between 0-5 years. This is an important period for a child to learn languages because the brain is growing rapidly during this time. At this time, a child's brain absorbs much information, specifically language-related content. The child makes many mistakes and uses incorrect grammar. Language is a complex skill, so the child requires guidance to develop it. The child initially speaks "nonsense" words, usually not rewarded or punished by the parents. As soon as the child mimics some meaningful word from their surroundings, the parent or caretaker reacts to it with praise or criticism.

Problems and Criticisms Related to Skinner's Theory

There were many problems with Skinner's theory. Although it was simple and easy to implement, it narrowed down human behavior to something influenced by external stimuli only. He also had many critics. The theory does not provide enough explanation regarding the acquisition of grammar. Grammar is not simple and cannot merely be acquired with the help of rewards or reinforcements.

Additionally, children find it quite challenging to pronounce certain words they hear from their parents. In addition to this, Skinner does not provide an adequate explanation of the need for language attainment. He explains the process but fails to elaborate on the purpose of a language. This process is better explained by another theorist named N. Chomsky. He believed that the ability to acquire a language was innate in humans. Since humans needed better communication to survive, language was developed, and therefore, superior structures that support language development evolved in human brains. In summary, his theory contends that humans have an innate device that aids in language acquisition.

Conclusion

The acquisition of language is a quest for many psychologists. Many have researched how humans attain language and how it develops over their lives. Some have said that the ability to grasp a language is innate and genetically influenced. However, others side with the view that language attainment is a learned process. This is a segment of the nature versus nurture debate. B.F. Skinner favored the nurture side of the debate. He believed that a child's environment plays a huge role in language development and that the ability to acquire a language is influenced by either classical or operant conditioning. The debate is ongoing and inconclusive. However, it does appear that the ability to attain a language influences both nature and nurture. There can be a genetic blueprint for language that sets humans apart from other creatures. Specialized language structures can also justify this argument in the brain. However, the ability to use actual sounds, words, syntax, or grammar is something a child learns from their environment.

.ROLE OF CONTENT SUBJECT AND LANGUAGE TEACHERS IN LAC APPROACH

Content Subject Teachers: Content subject teachers refer to teachers who specialize in a specific subject such as mathematics, science, history, or any other discipline. Their primary role is to deliver subject-specific content knowledge and skills to students. In the LAC approach, content subject teachers also have the responsibility to integrate language learning within their subject areas. Here's how they contribute:

a. **Language Integration:** Content subject teachers incorporate language learning strategies and activities into their teaching to help students develop language skills necessary for understanding and expressing subject-specific concepts. They provide explicit language instruction related to their subject, including vocabulary, discourse patterns, and writing conventions.

b. **Scaffold Language Learning:** Content subject teachers scaffold language learning by providing support and guidance to students as they engage with subject-specific texts, assignments, and discussions. They help students understand complex texts, provide explanations, and encourage discussions to deepen understanding.

c. **Content-Driven Assessment:** Content subject teachers assess both subject knowledge and language proficiency. They design assessments that evaluate students' understanding of the content as well as their ability to communicate effectively in the subject-specific language. This could include written assignments, presentations, projects, or oral examinations.

d. **Collaboration with Language Teachers:** Content subject teachers collaborate with language teachers to align their curriculum and instructional practices. They share information about students' language proficiency levels, specific language needs, and strategies for language development. Collaboration ensures a cohesive approach to language and content integration.

Language Teachers: Language teachers, often referred to as English language teachers or ESL (English as a Second Language) teachers, specialize in teaching language skills such as reading, writing, speaking, and listening. In the LAC approach, their role extends beyond language instruction to support language development within content areas. Here's how they contribute:

a. **Language Instruction:** Language teachers provide explicit instruction in language skills, grammar, vocabulary, and language functions. They focus on developing students' overall language proficiency,

including reading comprehension, writing fluency, oral communication, and listening comprehension. They also teach study skills and strategies to enhance language learning.

b. Language Support: Language teachers support students who may have language barriers or require additional assistance in understanding subject-specific content. They provide language support through targeted interventions, small-group instruction, or individualized coaching to help students access and comprehend the content.

c. Language Assessment: Language teachers assess students' language proficiency and monitor their progress over time. They use a variety of assessment tools, such as language proficiency tests, writing samples, speaking assessments, and comprehension tasks, to evaluate students' language development and provide feedback for improvement.

d. Professional Development: Language teachers engage in ongoing professional development to stay updated on effective language teaching methodologies and strategies. They collaborate with content subject teachers to understand the specific language demands of different subjects and develop instructional approaches that align with subject-specific goals.

Both content subject teachers and language teachers work together to create a language-rich environment where students can develop both subject knowledge and language proficiency. Their collaboration, communication, and shared instructional practices are key to implementing the LAC approach successfully.

PRINCIPLES OF | LANGUAGE LEARNING AND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Language learning and Language Acquisition

Language- "Language is the means by which we express our thoughts. Language is that group of words and sentences etc. uttered by the mouth, through which the matter of the mind is told. Generally speaking, language is called the medium of ideological exchange.

Language begins with the birth of man. One acquires proficiency in a language by perfecting various skills such as speaking, reading and writing. Language acquisition is an ongoing process.

Meaning- Language is derived from the root "Bhash" of Sanskrit, it means "to speak" .

Nature of Language

Language is an acquired asset that can be acquired only through use, and it is expanded only through exchange, that is, it is not hereditary.

Language is a social and traditional thing.

Language is learned by imitation.

There is constant change in language, that is, it is changeable.

Each language has its own arrangement, which reveals its form, such as sound-form-sentence, element-meaning, element-alphabet, element-word, form-sentence, structure-meaningful use.

Language leads from difficulty to success.

Each language has its own script. Like Hindi-Devanagari, English-Roman, Urdu-Farsi.

Language is linked to culture and civilization, and language also has boundary constraints.

Language Acquisition Process

The meaning of acquisition is - "Acquiring any language can be acquired by a person's own efforts and language is an acquired asset."

The way the child hears people speaking and sees writing in the environment around him. He tries to learn it by imitation. That is, language is acquired through imitation.

Linguistic competence is a skill that is acquired. The process of acquisition starts from the birth of the child.

Practice plays an important role in language acquisition.

Through language acquisition, the child learns his first language which is his mother tongue.

According to Chomsky - children acquire language from their environment, they have an innate language acquisition mechanism.

Language acquisition is a subconscious process. Language learners are similarly unaware that they are also learning a language.

Language acquisition means learning a language indirectly, informally and naturally.

Language learning process

Learning means learning.

According to Gates – Learning is the transformation of behavior by Anwar.

According to Crow and Crow – Learning is the acquisition of habits, knowledge and attitudes.

According to Pavlov, learning is the formation of habit as a result of adapted response.

Learning is a mental process that continues throughout life.

In learning, the child moves towards maturity.

According to Woodworth – Learning is a process of development.

Learning is the change in behavior through experience.

The learning process goes on for life.

Learning is change - a person changes his behavior, thoughts, desires, feelings, etc. by learning from his own and others' experience.

Learning is adaptation, only by learning can a person adapt himself to new situations.

Learning is universal, all living beings learn.

Learning is the organization of experiences Learning is the organization of new old experiences.

Learning is both individual and social.

Language learning involves formal knowledge/direct learning of a language.

Principles of Language Teaching

Following are some of the principles related to language teaching

1. Theory of motivation and interest

According to the theory, it is necessary to generate interest in the language and its course material. Teaching methods should be selected according to the interest and needs of the children.

2. Theory of creativity

Does the child experience pleasure in learning by doing or the major educationists like Froebel, Dewey, Montessori have emphasized on this principle, it is necessary for the students to be continuously active during language teaching, this increases the interest of the students in the study, such as questions asking and doing oral and written work

3. Principle of practice

According to this, the work that a person does repeatedly, he learns it quickly and forgets the work that he does not do for a long time, so at the time of language teaching, students should keep practicing, for example, to practice speaking new words. Needed .

4. Theory of coordination

Psychologists have proved that children take more interest in those subjects and activities which are related to their real life, so while teaching lessons, teachers should try to connect it with the life of the students so that the students can grasp it quickly.

5. Theory of individual difference

Symbol child is different from each other, individual differences are found in the students in the class, that's why language teaching should be done keeping in mind the individual differences, keeping in mind the personal problems of the students, efforts should be made to solve them.

6. Theory of Integrated Manner

The main objective of language teaching is that students should master all the skills of the language such as reading skills, listening skills, reading skills, writing skills. It is very important to pay proper attention to all these skills. Writing should be taught sequentially, its order is as follows- listening-reading-reading-writing.

7. Theory of imitation

Children learn quickly by imitation. Children try to learn by imitating their teacher's speaking, writing, voice and speed etc. Therefore, teachers themselves should keep their pronunciation, speaking speed, writing pure and clean.

8. Theory of teaching formula

There are some formulas of language teaching, teacher should do teaching work keeping these formulas in mind during language teaching, it makes learning easier for students and teaching is more effective.

9. Child centered theory

At the time of language teaching, a teacher should always keep in mind that the child is the center of education and teaching should be done keeping in mind the child's ability, ability, interest and level.

Principles of Growth and Development of Children Growth terms represent a purely physical sense of a person, i.e height, weight, size and length etc. Growth is quantitative. It starts with conception but ends at some particular age.

Development implies the overall change in shape, form or structure, along with the function of the organ. Development is both quantitative and qualitative. It is a continuous process starting from the Womb and ending with the tomb.

Principles of Growth and Development

The 13 principles of growth and development for B.ed Notes are given below-

1. Principle of Continuity

The development follows the principle of continuity which means that development is a continuous process. It starts with pre-natal and ends with death.

2. Principle of Integration

Development thus involves a movement from the whole to parts and from parts to the whole and this way it is the integration of the whole and its parts as well as the specific and general responses. It enables a child to develop satisfactorily concerning various aspects or dimensions of Example: Child first starts to learn hand movement then finger movement and then learn the movement of both hand and finger together this is called integration

3. Principle of lack of uniformity in the developmental rate

Development through a continuous process, but does not exhibit steadiness and uniformity in terms of the rate of development in various development of personality or the developmental periods and stages of life.

Example: A person may have a high rate of growth and development in terms of height and weight but may not have the same pace of mental and social development.

4. Principle of individual difference

Every organism is a distinct creation in itself. One of the most important principles of development is that involves individual differences. There is no fixed rate of development. That all children will learn to walk is universal, but the time at which each child takes his her first step may vary.

5. Principle of uniformity pattern

Although development does not proceed at a uniform rate and shows marked individual differences concerning the process and outcome of various stages of development, it follows a definite pattern in one or the other dimension which is uniform and universal concerning the individual of a species.

6. Principle of proceeding from general to specific

While developing any aspect of personality. The child first picks up or exhibits a general response and learns how to show specific and goal-directed responses afterwards.

7. Principle of interaction between Heredity and Environment

The development of a child is a process that cannot be defined wholly based on either heredity or environment. Both have to play an important role in development. There are arguments in favour of both. However, most psychologists agree that an interplay of these two factors leads to development.

Where heredity decides or sets some limits on development (mostly physical), environmental influences complete the developmental process (qualitative). Environmental influences provide space for multidimensional development through interaction with family, peers, society, and so on. Growth and development are a joint product of heredity and environment.

8. Principle of interrelation

Various aspects or dimensions of one's growth and development are interrelated. What is achieved or not achieved in one or other dimensions in the course of the gradual and continuous process of development surely affects the development of other dimensions.

A healthy body tends to develop a healthy mind and an emotionally stable, physically strong, and socially conscious personality. Inadequate physical or mental development may, on the other hand, result in a socially or emotionally maladjusted personality.

9. Principle of Cephalocaudal

Development proceeds in the direction of the longitudinal axis. Development from head to foot or toe. That is why, before it becomes able to stand, the child first gains control over his head and arms and then over his legs.

10. Principle of Proximodistal

Development of motor skills to start at central body parts to outwards. That is why, in the beginning, the child is seen to exercise control over the large fundamental muscles of the arm and then hand and only afterwards over the smaller muscles of the fingers.

11. Principle of predictability
Development is predictable, which means that with the help of the uniformity of pattern and sequence of development. We can go to a great extent, forecast the general nature and behavior of a child in one or more aspects or dimensions at any particular stage of its growth and development. We can know the particular age at which children will learn to walk, speak, and so on.

Principles of Growth and Development of Children-B.Ed Notes

12. Principle of Spiral versus Linear advancement

The child doesn't proceed straight or linear on the path of development at any stage never takes place at a constant or steady pace. After the child had developed to a certain level, there is likely to be a period of rest for consolidation of the developmental progress achieved till then. In advancing further, therefore, the development turns back and then moves forward again in a spiral pattern

Principles of Growth and Development of Children-B.Ed Notes

Image source: Advanced Educational Psychology by S.K. Mangal

13. Principle of Association of Maturation and Learning

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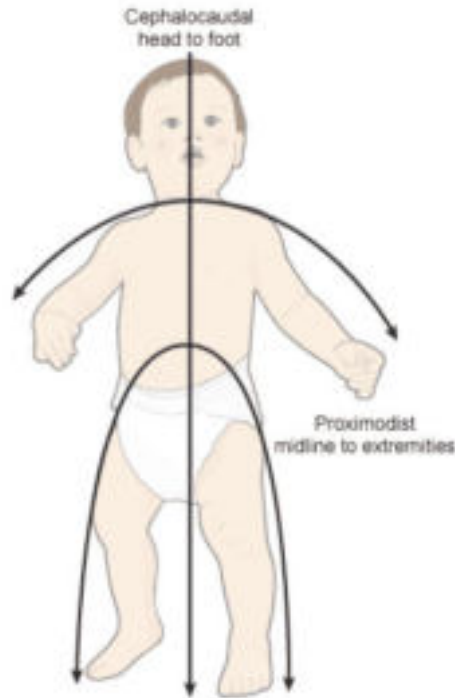
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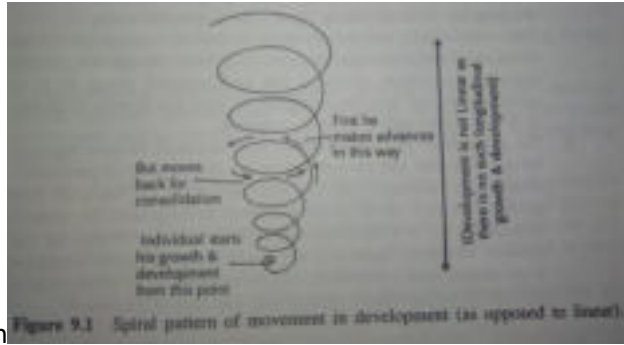
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13. Principle of Association of Maturation and Learning

Biological growth and development are known as maturation. Biological changes involve changes in the brain and the nervous system, which provide new abilities to a child. Development proceeds from simple to complex. In the beginning, a child learns through concrete objects and gradually moves to abstract thinking. This transition happens because of the maturation

Conclusion

The principle of growth and development is one of the most important topics in child development psychology. We as a teacher must understand the different stages and principles of growth and de

Educational Implication of the Principles of Growth and Development

The knowledge of the above–mentioned principles of growth and development may prove beneficial to us in several ways described below:

Development is a continuous and non-stop process at all periods and stages of human life. Therefore, we should never give up our efforts to achieve perfection in terms of development in the different dimensions of our personalities.

The principle of individual differences among children reminds us to understand the wide individual differences at all periods of growth and development. Each child should be helped along the developmental; process according to their ability, strengths, and limitations.

The principles related to growth and development suggest a pattern or trend for the advancement of children on the developmental path. This knowledge can help us to understand as what is often expected in terms of the right growth and development at a specific developmental stage and that we can then plan accordingly to achieve it by organizing the environmental experiences.

The principles of proceeding from general to specific responses and the principles of integration help us to develop appropriate learning experiences to achieve maximum growth and development.

Principles of interrelation and interdependence direct us to make every effort from the very beginning for the all-around harmonious development of the personalities of our child and caution us not to encourage the development of particular aspects at the cost of another.

The principles of spiral advancement of development help us to make adequate arrangements for subsequent progress and consolidation of the progress achieved during specific developmental stages.

The cephalocaudal and proximodistal tendencies as suggested by the principle of developmental direction help us to arrange suitable learning experiences, processes, and environmental set-ups so as to accommodate and help the children to grow and develop according to the trend and nature of these tendencies.

The principle of interaction reminds us to recognize the joint responsibilities of heredity and environment in the development of personality. Genetic makeup is inborn and influences a limited amount of development, so we can provide a suitable environment for a child to take out their maximum growth and development.

CO-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

Co-curricular activities facilitate in the development of various domains of mind and personality such as intellectual development, emotional development, social development, moral development and aesthetic development. Creativity, Enthusiasm, and Energetic, Positive thinking are some of the facets of personality development and the outcomes of Extracurricular activities.

Meaning of Co-curricular Activities

Co-curricular activities (CCAs) earlier known as Extracurricular Activities (ECA) are the components of non-academic curriculum helps to develop various facets of the personality development of the child and students. For all-round development of the child, there is a need of emotional, physical, spiritual and moral development that is complemented and supplemented by Co-curricular Activities.

Definition of Co-curricular Activities

Co-curricular Activities are defined as the activities that enable to supplement and complement the curricular or main syllabi activities. These are the very important part and parcel of educational institutions to develop the students' personality as well as to strengthen the classroom learning.

These activities are organized after the school hours, so known as extra-curricular activities. Co-curricular Activities have wide horizon to cater to the cultural, social, aesthetic development of the child.

Examples and Types of Co-curricular Activities

- Sports
- Musical activities
- Debate
- Model
- Art
- Music
- Drama
- Debate and discussion
- Declamation contest
- Story writing competition
- Essay writing competition
- Art craft
- Recitation competition
- Wall magazine decoration
- Writes ups for school magazine
- Folk songs
- Folk dance
- Flower show

- School decoration
- Sculpture making
- Fancy dress competition
- Preparation of chart & models
- Album making
- Photography
- Clay modeling
- Toy making
- Soap making
- Basket making
- Organization exhibitions.
- Celebration of festival

Role of Co-curricular activities in student's life

Co-curricular activities are the true and practical experiences received by students. To a greater extent, the theoretical knowledge gets strengthened when a relevant co-curricular activity is organized related to the content taught in the classroom. Intellectual aspects of personality are solely accomplished by Classroom, while aesthetic development, character building, spiritual growth, physical growth, moral values, creativity, etc. are supported by co-curricular activities. Frankness and clarity in language and personality is supported by these activities. It helps to develop co-ordination, adjustment, speech fluency, extempore expressions, etc. among student both at the school as well as college levels.

Importance and Benefits of Co-curricular Activities

1. Co-curricular activities stimulate playing, acting, singing, recitation, speaking and narrating in students.
2. Activities like participation in game debates, music, drama, etc., help in achieving overall functioning of education.
3. It enables the students to express themselves freely through debates.
4. Games and Sports helps to be fit and energetic to the child.
5. Helps to develop the spirit of healthy competition.
6. These activities guide students how to organize and present an activity, how to develop skills, how to co-operate and co-ordinate in different situations-all these helps in leadership qualities.
7. It provides the avenues of socialization, self-identification and self-assessment when the child come in contact with organizers, fellow participants, teachers, people outside the school during cultural activity.
8. Inculcate the values to respects other's view and feeling.
9. It makes you perfect in decision making.
10. It develop a sense of belongingness.
11. CCA provide motivation for learning.
12. CCA develop the values like physical, psychological, Ethical, academic, civic, social, aesthetic, cultural recreational and disciplinary values

Role of a Teacher in Organising curricular Activities

1. The teacher must be a good planner so that the different activities could be carried out systematically throughout the year.

2. It should be the duty of the teacher to give more and more opportunity to the child while performing co-curricular activities.
3. The Teacher should act as Innovator by introducing some innovative programmes.
4. The teacher must be a good organiser so that the students experienced maximum of it.
5. He should too act like as director, recorder, evaluator, manager, decision maker, advisor, motivator, communicator, coordinator, so that the student and child could gained maximum of finer aspects of Co-curricular activities.

List of Outdoor Co-curricular Activities

1. Mass parade
2. Mass drill
3. Yoga
4. Athletics
5. Bicycling
6. Gardening
7. Cricket
8. Football
9. Basketball
10. Volleyball
11. Kabaddi
12. Kho kho
13. Hand ball
14. Trips to place of geographical, historical, economic or cultural interest
15. Mass prayer
16. Morning assembly
17. Excursions
18. Social service in neighbourhood
19. Village Survey

List of Indoor Co-curricular Activities

1. Dramatics
2. Music and dance
3. Drawing and painting
4. Decoration
5. Weaving
6. Clay modelling
7. First Aid
8. Tailoring
9. Rangoli
10. Book binding
11. Card board work
12. Leather work
13. Organizing school panchayat
14. Student self-government
15. Art and craft

Jean Piaget's theory of cognitive development

Jean Piaget's theory of cognitive development suggests that children move through four different stages of mental development. His theory focuses not only on understanding how children acquire knowledge, but also on understanding the nature of intelligence.¹ Piaget's stages are:

Sensory -motor stage: birth to 2 years

Pre-operational stage: ages 2 to 7 years

Concrete operational stage: ages 7 to 11 years

Formal operational stage: ages 12 and up

Piaget believed that children take an active role in the learning process, acting much like little scientists as they perform experiments, make observations, and learn about the world. As kids interact with the world around them, they continually add new knowledge, build upon existing knowledge, and adapt previously held ideas to accommodate new information.

How Piaget Developed the Theory

Piaget was born in Switzerland in the late 1800s and was a precocious student, publishing his first scientific paper when he was just 11 years old. His early exposure to the intellectual development of children came when he worked as an assistant to [Alfred Binet](#) and Theodore Simon as they worked to standardize their famous [IQ test](#).

Much of Piaget's interest in the cognitive development of children was inspired by his observations of his own nephew and daughter. These observations reinforced his budding hypothesis that children's minds were not merely smaller versions of adult minds.

Up until this point in history, children were largely treated simply as smaller versions of adults. Piaget was one of the first to identify that the way that children think is different from the way adults think.

Instead, he proposed, intelligence is something that grows and develops through a series of stages. Older children do not just think more quickly than younger children, he suggested. Instead, there are both qualitative and quantitative differences between the thinking of young children versus older children.

Based on his observations, he concluded that children were not less intelligent than adults, they simply think differently. Albert Einstein called Piaget's discovery "so simple only a genius could have thought of it."

Piaget's stage theory describes the cognitive development of children. Cognitive development involves changes in cognitive process and abilities.² In Piaget's view, early cognitive development involves processes based upon actions and later progresses to changes in mental operations.

The Stages

Through his observations of his children, Piaget developed a stage theory of intellectual development that included four distinct stages:

The Sensorimotor Stage

Ages: Birth to 2 Years

Major Characteristics and Developmental Changes:

The infant knows the world through their movements and sensations

Children learn about the world through basic actions such as sucking, grasping, looking, and listening

Infants learn that things continue to exist even though they cannot be seen

They are separate beings from the people and objects around them

They realize that their actions can cause things to happen in the world around them

During this earliest stage of cognitive development, infants and toddlers acquire knowledge through sensory experiences and manipulating objects. A child's entire experience at the earliest period of this stage occurs through basic reflexes, senses, and motor responses.

It is during the sensorimotor stage that children go through a period of dramatic growth and learning. As kids interact with their environment, they are continually making new discoveries about how the world works.

The cognitive development that occurs during this period takes place over a relatively short period of time and involves a great deal of growth. Children not only learn how to perform physical actions such as crawling and walking; they also learn a great deal about language from the people with whom they interact. Piaget also broke this stage down into a number of different sub stages. It is during the final part of the sensorimotor stage that early representational thought emerges.

Piaget believed that developing object permanence or object constancy, the understanding that objects continue to exist even when they cannot be seen, was an important element at this point of development.

By learning that objects are separate and distinct entities and that they have an existence of their own outside of individual perception, children are then able to begin to attach names and words to objects.

The Preoperational Stage

Ages: 2 to 7 Years

Major Characteristics and Developmental Changes:

Children begin to think symbolically and learn to use words and pictures to represent objects.

Children at this stage tend to be egocentric and struggle to see things from the perspective of others.

While they are getting better with language and thinking, they still tend to think about things in very concrete terms.

The foundations of language development may have been laid during the previous stage, but it is the emergence of language that is one of the major hallmarks of the preoperational stage of development.³

Children become much more skilled at pretend play during this stage of development, yet continue to think very concretely about the world around them.

At this stage, kids learn through pretend play but still struggle with logic and taking the point of view of other people. They also often struggle with understanding the idea of constancy. For example, a researcher might take a lump of clay, divide it into two equal pieces, and then give a child the choice between two pieces of clay to play with. One piece of clay is rolled into a compact ball while the other is smashed into a flat pancake shape. Since the flat shape *looks* larger, the preoperational child will likely choose that piece even though the two pieces are exactly the same size.

The Concrete Operational Stage

Ages: 7 to 11 Years

Major Characteristics and Developmental Changes

During this stage, children begin to think logically about concrete events

They begin to understand the concept of conservation; that the amount of liquid in a short, wide cup is equal to that in a tall, skinny glass, for example

Their thinking becomes more logical and organized, but still very concrete

Children begin using inductive logic, or reasoning from specific information to a general principle

While children are still very concrete and literal in their thinking at this point in development, they become much more adept at using logic.² The egocentrism of the previous stage begins to disappear as kids become better at thinking about how other people might view a situation.

While thinking becomes much more logical during the concrete operational state, it can also be very rigid. Kids at this point in development tend to struggle with abstract and hypothetical concepts.

During this stage, children also become less egocentric and begin to think about how other people might think and feel. Kids in the concrete operational stage also begin to understand that their thoughts are unique to them and that not everyone else necessarily shares their thoughts, feelings, and opinions.

The Formal Operational Stage

Ages: 12 and Up

Major Characteristics and Developmental Changes:

At this stage, the adolescent or young adult begins to think abstractly and reason about hypothetical problems

Abstract thought emerges

Teens begin to think more about moral, philosophical, ethical, social, and political issues that require theoretical and abstract reasoning

Begin to use deductive logic, or reasoning from a general principle to specific information

The final stage of Piaget's theory involves an increase in logic, the ability to use deductive reasoning, and an understanding of abstract ideas.³ At this point, people become capable of seeing multiple potential solutions to problems and think more scientifically about the world around them.

The ability to thinking about abstract ideas and situations is the key hallmark of the formal operational stage of cognitive development. The ability to systematically plan for the future and reason about hypothetical situations are also critical abilities that emerge during this stage.

It is important to note that Piaget did not view children's intellectual development as a quantitative process; that is, kids do not just add more information and knowledge to their existing knowledge as they get older. Instead, Piaget suggested that there is a *qualitative* change in how children think as they gradually process through these four stages.⁴ A child at age 7 doesn't just have more information about the world than he did at age 2; there is a fundamental change in *how* he thinks about the world.

Important Concepts of Piaget cognitive development theory

To better understand some of the things that happen during cognitive development, it is important first to examine a few of the important ideas and concepts introduced by Piaget.

The following are some of the factors that influence how children learn and grow:

Schemas

A schema describes both the mental and physical actions involved in understanding and knowing. Schemas are categories of knowledge that help us to interpret and understand the world.

In Piaget's view, a schema includes both a category of knowledge and the process of obtaining that knowledge.³ As experiences happen, this new information is used to modify, add to, or change previously existing schemas.

For example, a child may have a schema about a type of animal, such as a dog. If the child's sole experience has been with small dogs, a child might believe that all dogs are small, furry, and have four legs. Suppose then that the child encounters an enormous dog. The child will take in this new information, modifying the previously existing schema to include these new observations.

Assimilation

The process of taking in new information into our already existing schemas is known as assimilation. The process is somewhat subjective because we tend to modify experiences and information slightly to fit in with our pre-existing beliefs. In the example above, seeing a dog and labelling it "dog" is a case of assimilating the animal into the child's dog schema.

Accommodation

Another part of adaptation involves changing or altering our existing schemas in light of new information, a process known as accommodation. Accommodation involves modifying existing schemas, or ideas, as a result of new information or new experiences. New schemas may also be developed during this process.

Equilibration

Piaget believed that all children try to strike a balance between assimilation and accommodation, which is achieved through a mechanism Piaget called equilibration. As children progress through the stages of cognitive development, it is important to maintain a balance between applying previous knowledge (assimilation) and changing behaviour to account for new knowledge (accommodation). Equilibration helps explain how children can move from one stage of thought to the next.³

What is Instructional Media?

Instructional media encompasses all the materials and physical means an instructor might use to implement instruction and facilitate students' achievement of instructional objectives. This may include traditional materials such as chalkboards, handouts, charts, slides, overheads, real objects, and videotape or film, as well newer materials and methods such as computers, DVDs, CD-ROMs, the Internet, and interactive video conferencing.

Why Use Instructional Media?

A good aid is like a window, it should not call attention to itself, it should just let in the light. In general, you should use media whenever, in your best judgment, it can facilitate learning or increase understanding of your material. Of course, communicating to facilitate learning can be a challenging process, often requiring creative efforts to achieve a variety of implicit instructional goals (University of Saskatchewan, n.d.). Among the implicit goals that media can help achieve are the following: attracting attention developing interest adjusting the learning climate promoting acceptance (of an idea).

TEAM TEACHING

Team teaching involves a group of instructors working purposefully, regularly, and cooperatively to help a group of students of any age learn. Teachers together set goals for a course, design a syllabus, prepare individual lesson plans, teach students, and evaluate the results. They share insights, argue with one another, and perhaps even challenge students to decide which approach is better.

Teams can be single-discipline, interdisciplinary, or school-within-a-school teams that meet with a common set of students over an extended period of time. New teachers may be paired with veteran teachers. Innovations are encouraged, and modifications in class size, location, and time are permitted. Different personalities, voices, values, and approaches spark interest, keep attention, and prevent boredom.

The team-teaching approach allows for more interaction between teachers and students. Faculty evaluate students on their achievement of the learning goals; students evaluate faculty members on their teaching proficiency. Emphasis is on student and faculty growth, balancing initiative and shared responsibility, specialization and broadening horizons, the clear and interesting presentation of content and student development, democratic participation and common expectations, and cognitive, affective, and behavioral outcomes. This combination of analysis, synthesis, critical thinking, and practical applications can be done on all levels of education, from kindergarten through graduate school.

Working as a team, teachers model respect for differences, interdependence, and conflict-resolution skills. Team members together set the course goals and content, select common materials such as texts and films, and develop tests and final examinations for all students. They set the sequence of topics and supplemental materials. They also give their own interpretations of the materials and use their own teaching styles. The greater the agreement on common objectives and interests, the more likely that teaching will be interdependent and coordinated.

Teaching periods can be scheduled side by side or consecutively. For example, teachers of two similar classes may team up during the same or adjacent

periods so that each teacher may focus on that phase of the course that he or she can best handle. Students can sometimes meet all together, sometimes in small groups supervised by individual teachers or teaching assistants, or they can work singly or together on projects in the library, laboratory, or fieldwork. Teachers can be at different sites, linked by video-conferencing, satellites, or the Internet.

Breaking out of the taken-for-granted single-subject, single-course, single-teacher pattern encourages other innovations and experiments. For example, students can be split along or across lines of sex, age, culture, or other interests, then recombined to stimulate reflection. Remedial programs and honors sections provide other attractive opportunities to make available appropriate and effective curricula for students with special needs or interests. They can address different study skills and learning techniques. Team teaching can also offset the danger of imposing ideas, values, and mindsets on minorities or less powerful ethnic groups. Teachers of different backgrounds can culturally enrich one another and students.

Advantages

Students do not all learn at the same rate. Periods of equal length are not appropriate for all learning situations. Educators are no longer dealing primarily with top-down transmission of the tried and true by the mature and experienced teacher to the young, immature, and inexperienced pupil in the single-subject classroom. Schools are moving toward the inclusion of another whole dimension of learning: the lateral transmission to every sentient member of society of what has just been discovered, invented, created, manufactured, or marketed. For this, team members with different areas of expertise are invaluable.

Of course, team teaching is not the only answer to all problems plaguing teachers, students, and administrators. It requires planning, skilled management, willingness to risk change and even failure, humility, open-mindedness, imagination, and creativity. But the results are worth it.

Teamwork improves the quality of teaching as various experts approach the same topic from different angles: theory and practice, past and present, different genders or ethnic backgrounds. Teacher strengths are combined and weaknesses are remedied. Poor teachers can be observed, critiqued, and improved by the other team members in a nonthreatening, supportive

context. The evaluation done by a team of teachers will be more insightful and balanced than the introspection and self-evaluation of an individual teacher.

Working in teams spreads responsibility, encourages creativity, deepens friendships, and builds community among teachers. Teachers complement one another. They share insights, propose new approaches, and challenge assumptions. They learn new perspectives and insights, techniques and values from watching one another. Students enter into conversations between them as they debate, disagree with premises or conclusions, raise new questions, and point out consequences. Contrasting viewpoints encourage more active class participation and independent thinking from students, especially if there is team balance for gender, race, culture, and age. Team teaching is particularly effective with older and underprepared students when it moves beyond communicating facts to tap into their life experience.

The team cuts teaching burdens and boosts morale. The presence of another teacher reduces student-teacher personality problems. In an emergency one team member can attend to the problem while the class goes on. Sharing in decision-making bolsters self-confidence. As teachers see the quality of teaching and learning improve, their self-esteem and happiness grow. This aids in recruiting and keeping faculty.

Disadvantages

Team teaching is not always successful. Some teachers are rigid personality types or may be wedded to a single method. Some simply dislike the other teachers on the team. Some do not want to risk humiliation and discouragement at possible failures. Some fear they will be expected to do more work for the same salary. Others are unwilling to share the spotlight or their pet ideas or to lose total control.

Team teaching makes more demands on time and energy. Members must arrange mutually agreeable times for planning and evaluation. Discussions can be draining and group decisions take longer. Rethinking the courses to accommodate the team-teaching method is often inconvenient.

Opposition may also come from students, parents, and administrators who may resist change of any sort. Some students flourish in a highly structured

environment that favors repetition. Some are confused by conflicting opinions. Too much variety may hinder habit formation.

Salaries may have to reflect the additional responsibilities undertaken by team members. Team leaders may need some form of bonus. Such costs could be met by enlarging some class sizes. Nonprofessional staff members could take over some responsibilities.

All things being considered, team teaching so enhances the quality of learning that it is sure to spread widely in the future.

COOPERATIVE LEARNING

What is Cooperative Learning?

Cooperative learning aims to organize class activities. Also, it aims to into a social and educational learning experience. Also in it, students work together in groups to perform a task. John Dewey the education reformer introduced this theory. It is the responsibility of the teacher to carefully select the group. Each member is responsible for learning. And also, to teach what is taught to his/her teammates.

Meaning and Definition of Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning is an activity which helps students to work in groups. Also, it enables them to learn and teach group members. Also, the success of each member depends on the group's success.

Cooperative learning is a teaching method. It arranges and mixes students of different level of ability and learning into groups. Also, it focuses on group success rather than individual success.

Types of Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning divides into 3 parts:

- Formal learning

- Informal learning
- Cooperative learning

1. Formal Learning

The formal group assigns tasks and projects. Also, they stay together until the assignment completes. The group has a clear structure. Besides, the teacher selects the groups. Depending on the assignments, the group can be heterogeneous and homogeneous. Likewise, three to five-person groups is believed to be most productive.

2. Informal Learning

These are just the opposite of formal learning. Also, they are not structured very well. Typically they involve activities that take few minutes. In addition, they usually have two to three members. They are suitably used for rapid activities like check for understanding, quick problem solving or review, etc. these help in changing the format of the lecture. Also, they give students a few minutes to talk about a concept with a go over.

3. Cooperative Learning

They are usually long term support group. Also, their minimum duration is a semester but they can last for years. Due to their duration, they generally become friends or acquaintances. The members support and cooperate with each other outside the group.

Elements of Cooperative Learning

Basically, there are five elements of cooperative learning

1. Positive Interdependence

It means that they have clear goals or target. Also, their effort not only helps oneself but the group. Positive interdependence is committed to personal success. as well as the success of every member of the group.

2. Individual and Group Accountability

The group is accountable for its actions. Also, the members are accountable for their fair contribution. And also for achieving the group goal. Besides no one can copy or steal others work. Everyone's performance must be assessed. And its results should be given to the group.

3. Small group and Interpersonal skills

Small group and interpersonal skills require carrying out as part of a group. Basically, they are teamwork skills. Self-motivation, efficient leadership, decision making, trust building, communication, and conflict managing are basic skills.

4. Promotive face-to-face Interaction

This means that students share each other success by dividing resources. Also, to learn they help, give confidence, support, and admire each other's work. Educational and individual both are part of this common goal.

5. Group Processing

Group members require experiencing free to communicate frankly with others. Also, they feel each other's concern and make merry at accomplishments. Besides, they should converse about achieving the goal and maintaining helpful working relations.

PEER LEARNING

Peer Learning is a set up in which students learn from, and with each other. Peer Learning is both formal and informal. It is not a single distinguished approach to learning but can be fittingly described as an amalgamation of different learning strategies. Through this, students learn directly from each other. They are not dependent on their mentors/tutors alone.

Who are the “peers” in Peer Learning?

Simply put, the “peers” in Peer Learning are people in a similar learning situation. They do not have a defined role in that particular situation as a teacher or an expert. Peers are not necessarily experienced or experts. They share the same status of fellow learners and do not exercise power over each other. This is regardless of their position or responsibilities.

Types of Peer Learning:

- **Proctor Model:** In this model, senior students tutor junior students. Juniors learn from the experience and expertise of their seniors who would have already studied the paper before.
- **Innovative Learning Cells:** In this model, students in the same year form partnerships to assist each other with both-course content and personal concerns. Herein, students directly interact with students who are taking the same paper and thus learn from each other.
- **Discussion Seminars:** In this model, each student is assigned the task of presenting what they learned to the whole class/group in a seminar. This is followed by active engagement with peers through discussions and debate.
- **Private Study Groups:** This model is known to most of us. This is a more informal type of peer learning wherein students make their own study circle and make up their own strategies and approach in order to accomplish the goal of learning.

Benefits of Peer Learning:

Peer Learning is a two-way reciprocal learning activity that involves the sharing of knowledge, ideas, and experience between the participants.

- A student's learning elevates when they participate in activities with their peers since they learn from their peers and inculcate the habit of exchanging ideas.
- Students acquire certain organizational and planning skills because they work collaboratively with others, give and receive feedback, and evaluate their own learning.
- They learn effectively as students have the opportunity to expose themselves to different ideas and viewpoints.
- Students learn the art of taking responsibility for their own learning. They also train themselves in learning how to learn.

Peer Teaching v/s Peer Learning:

Peer Teaching(or Peer Tutoring) is an arrangement in which a senior student is assigned the responsibility of instructing a fellow junior student. It is a well-known and acknowledged practice in many universities. On the contrary, Peer Learning is a reciprocal learning set up in which both peers learn from each other with no defined role for a peer teacher. Eg: Discussion Groups.

Students in **Peer Learning** are by definition peers, and so there is less confusion about roles compared to situations in which one of the 'peer' is a senior student or has special expertise, as is seen in **Peer Teaching**.

Peer Learning emphasizes the need for each student's contribution to the other students' learning process. Communication based on their mutual experiences empowers them to make equal contributions. In this form of learning, issues of power and domination are less prominent.

In **Peer Teaching**, the role of the teacher and learner is fixed. However, in **Peer Learning**, roles are either not be defined, or shift during the course of the learning experience. Staff are actively involved as group facilitators or they simply initiate student-directed activities such as workshops or learning partnerships.

Conclusion:

Peer Learning is an effective learning process outside the realm of immediate Teacher-Student learning interface. It is an effective learning process which should be cultivated by all students. At Career Launcher, we strive to inculcate the practice of Peer Learning for all the coaching programs we offer via a student interface body on Telegram. Our students exchange ideas, ask doubts and find solutions to their academic problems with each other and with their respective mentors.

BLENDDED LEARNING

Blended learning is a combination of offline (face-to-face, traditional learning) and online learning in a way that the one compliments the other.

It provides individuals with the opportunity to enjoy the best of both worlds. For example, a student might attend classes in a real-world classroom setting and then supplement the lesson plan by completing online multimedia coursework. As such, the student would only have to physically attend class once a week and would be free to go at their own pace (and without worrying about scheduling issues).

Blended learning is often also referred to as “hybrid” learning, and can take on a variety of forms in online education environments. While some organizations may only use blended learning techniques on rare occasions, others might utilize it as a primary teaching method within their curriculum.

There are two key principles commonly associated with blended learning (which are the “secrets” to its success): students who can share information and work with other students directly in a collaborative setting have a more enriched learning experience, and collaboration between students can be improved upon if group activities rely on information gathered from online resources or lessons. It’s also been suggested that students who complete online coursework followed by interactive, face-to-face class activities have richer educational experiences.

Tools and platforms that complement blended learning include LMSs and mobile devices such as tablets and smartphones.

COLLABORATIVE LEARNING

Collaborative learning can occur peer-to-peer or in larger groups. Peer learning, or peer instruction, is a type of collaborative learning that involves students working in pairs or small groups to discuss concepts or find solutions to problems. Similar to the idea that two or three heads are better than one, educational researchers have found that through peer instruction, students

teach each other by addressing misunderstandings and clarifying misconceptions. For more on peer learning, visit the

Why Use Collaborative Learning?

Research shows that educational experiences that are active, social, contextual, engaging, and student-owned lead to deeper learning. The benefits of collaborative learning include:

- Development of higher-level thinking, oral communication, self-management, and leadership skills.
- Promotion of student-faculty interaction.
- Increase in student retention, self-esteem, and responsibility.
- Exposure to and an increase in understanding of diverse perspectives.
- Preparation for real life social and employment situations.

Considerations for Using Collaborative Learning

- Introduce group or peer work early in the semester to set clear student expectations.
- Establish ground rules for participation and contributions.
- Plan for each stage of group work.
- Carefully explain to your students how groups or peer discussion will operate and how students will be graded.
- Help students develop the skills they need to succeed, such as using team-building exercises or introducing self-reflection techniques.
- Consider using written contracts.
- Incorporate self-assessment and peer assessment for group members to evaluate their own and others' contributions.

Getting Started with Collaborative Learning

Shorter in-class collaborative learning activities generally involve a three-step process. This process can be as short as five minutes, but can be longer, depending on the task at hand.

- Introduce the task. This can be as simple as instructing students to turn to their neighbour to discuss or debate a topic.

- Provide students with enough time to engage with the task. Walk around and address any questions as needed.
- Debrief. Call on a few students to share a summary of their conclusions. Address any misconceptions or clarify any confusing points. Open the floor for questions.

For larger group work projects, here are some strategies to help ensure productive group dynamics:

- Provide opportunities for students to develop rapport and group cohesion through icebreakers, team-building, and reflection exercises.
- Give students time to create a group work plan allowing them to plan for deadlines and divide up their responsibilities.
- Have students establish ground rules. Students can create a contract for each member to sign. This contract can include agreed-upon penalties for those who fail to fulfil obligations.
- Assign roles to members of each group and change the roles periodically. For example, one student can be the coordinator, another the note-taker, another the summarizer, and another the planner of next steps.
- Allow students to rate each other's quality and quantity of contributions. Use these evaluations when giving individual grades, but do not let it weigh heavily on a student's final grade. Communicate clearly how peer assessment will influence grades.
- Check in with groups intermittently but encourage students to handle their own issues before coming to you for assistance.

USING WEB QUESTS IN THE CLASSROOM

What is a web quest? A web quest is an inquiry based online lesson. The concept was first developed in 1995 at San Diego University. They provide structured lines of inquiry which teach a range of skills and enable self, peer and teacher assessment. A typical web quest will outline the aims and objectives of the task, provide details of the processes that pupils will need to work through in order to complete the inquiry and make the criteria for success clear to learners.

This model is really simple and highly effective. It structures learning effectively and ensures that pupils are developing their digital literacy, rather than aimlessly searching for key words and copying / pasting the results. It is flexible enough to be used in a wide range of subject areas and can be differentiated for use with pupils of all ages and abilities.

A simple example of how a web quest could be used. Pupils can be asked to create an interactive poster about any given topic, using a tool such as glogster.com. The process could involve them going to sites that provide different interpretations, or which have conflicting information. They determine what the actual facts are about the person or topic they're looking at, developing their critical reading skills, and then complete their work. The evaluation checks whether they have double checked facts, whether they've determined what is fact and what is opinion, checks how they've designed and developed their presentation etc. Its a very simple example but already its clear that there is a clear focus for the learner, that there would be objectives relating to both content and skills and that cross curricular issues relating to Literacy are developed.

There are lots of web quests online already. See <https://webquest.org/index.php> for examples from around the world. These, and your own creations, are a good starting point for anyone who is starting the process of developing content for a VLE: and creating them requires minimal technical knowledge! Have you created a web quest, or similar? We'd love to see how you're using them.

USE BLOGS IN THE CLASSROOM

Blogs may be great educational tools and they give students complete freedom to publish content on the web, but if you don't know how to effectively implement them into the classroom, they're only as good as wadded up balls of paper in the trash.

With the inception of Common Core standards and The No Child Left Behind Act, all *educators* require teaching literacy across the curriculum. Getting kids to write, especially the weaker writers, can be a challenge in itself but getting kids to write about math can be even more challenging – unless you use blogging as your literacy tactic.

Blog writing is informal, unlike academic writing, which may be intimidating to some, if not all, of your students. Blog writing takes the pressure off of writing and gives your students a voice in a safe environment, even if you or your students stepping out of your comfort zone.

What is a Blog?

Blog is short for web log. It's a bit like an online diary or journal, except blogs aren't necessarily private, instead they're created for an audience. And just like a diary or journal, a blog is relaxed, making it an easy and comfortable way for students to get writing.

Blogs are written on all kinds of topics from A to Z. Readers can usually leave comments, which lead to discussions about the blog's content. For example, a blog about flipping your classroom can lead to a discussion between novice and experienced teachers about common questions, advice, tips, and clarifications.

How can Teachers and Students use Blogs?

- Teachers can use blogs to publish assignments, resources, and keep students and even parents up to date on class events, due dates, and content being covered.
- Teachers can also use blogs to help students' master content and improve their writing skills.
- Students can use blogs to publish their writing and educate others on a particular topic.
- Students can also create blogs for the chess club or the yearbook club, the football team or the upcoming prom.

Tips To Use Blogs in the Classroom

Once you've chosen your platform and the web builder's tutorials and training material, it's time to start blogging. But first, here are some 11 tips for blogging in today's classroom.

1. Guidelines and Expectations

Before starting an outline of your blogging guidelines and expectations check with your school for a written guideline. From here you can develop clear goals, guidelines, and expectations for you and your students. For example, your school may or may not allow photos of students on blog pages or they may require written permission from a parent to participate in a blog. You and your students need to know the rules before blogging begins. Guidelines can be published and updated right on your class blog for easy access by students and parents.

2. Integrate Classroom Curriculum

Blogging can be used across the curriculum. From math and science to history and health, blogging is great way to take literacy across the curriculum.

3. English is for Everyone

Blogging not only requires subject knowledge, it also takes good writing skills. Even if you're using blogging in a math or science class, you should set some time aside to teach a bit of writing and grammar. Just 5 or 10 minutes a class to go over one or two key points will make you and your students better writers.

4. The How To of Commenting

The comment section of a blog post is where students can share thoughts and opinions and have a discussion about the published content. Initially, it is a good idea to teach students the dos and don'ts of commenting. Start off by writing the first two or three blog posts and have students comment according to your set of criteria. For example, encourage students to contribute quality comments while discouraging put downs and inappropriate language. Monitor comments and provide feedback.

5. Be Realistic

Building a blog takes time so set your sights small. For example, start off with a class blog focusing on one topic where students can contribute posts under your supervision. Choose something the kids are passionate about or want to raise awareness about. For example, a classroom blog could be about an endangered species such as the orangutan or about the importance of eating healthy. Once a topic is exhausted, create a new classroom blog on another topic. The old blogs remain static but available for readers. By starting with a classroom blog, students build the skills they need to create their own blogs effortlessly.

6. Read other Blogs

Take the time to read other classroom and student blogs. This will give you and your students concrete examples of the finished product and give you ideas when creating your own blog.

7. Be Consistent

Blogging takes commitment. If posts are haphazardly published, reader base and student interest will most likely decline. The idea is to keep building and expanding. In the beginning, set a goal of a post every two weeks per student and gradually increase submissions, as the students get more comfortable with blogging.

8. Plagiarism

Explain to students that plagiarism will not be tolerated. Student contributions must be their own work. Don't post copyrighted images. Do post copyright free images. Include a site here.

9. Network with other Bloggers

Encourage local and global collaboration by having students network with bloggers and follow other student blogs. Although it is important to give students a choice when selecting a blog they want to follow, it is best to provide them with a set of criteria to help with their selection.

10. Dive into Social Media

If any of the blogs related to your classroom are made public, then you'll want to get more readership by connecting your blog with social media sites, such as Facebook, Twitter, and Pinterest. Word of mouth is always the best advertising.

11. Hang in there

As with most new ventures, there is also a learning curve with blogging. Maneuvering platforms to create one or more blogs while also monitoring student and class blogs can be time-consuming. But there's a good chance most of your students will be excited about blogging and will want to take on more responsibility, perhaps for some extra credit. For older students (grades 4 and up) you can ask or assign students to manage and monitor blogs, mediate comment sections. Give your pros a chance to shine by having them lead small groups that help students navigate the world of blogging. Be sure to rotate these student roles.

As the traditional classroom is changing nationwide and current and future careers are dependent on strong computer skills, blogging helps your students develop necessary skills for their continuing education and gainful employment. Consider the world of blogging as a creative, fun way to bridge literacy and across the curriculum and cover other learning standards at the same time.

USE OF SOCIAL MEDIA IN TEACHING AND LEARNING

Social media has gained incredible popularity over the past few years as an open source of information and knowledge sharing platform. Educational institutions are using social media space to interact with young minds. We are seeing educators leveraging the potential of social media technologies to enhance the overall teaching-learning process.

The emerging role of social media in teaching-learning process cannot be ignored. It not only provides students access to useful information but also connects them with learning groups and other educational systems that make their overall learning process more interesting and engaging.

Social platforms like Facebook, LinkedIn, Twitter, YouTube and Instagram are being used by almost everyone. These social channels are all about collaborating, networking, sharing and generating knowledge and content – something which is of great value in the context of education.

Few ways in which social media is helping professors, students and universities are mentioned below, take a look.

Benefits of Using Social Media in Teaching and Learning: How Professors & Educators can Use Social Media to Enhance Teaching-Learning Process

With the advent of internet technology, Social media has become an integral of every student's life. Through social networks, it is easier and convenient to exchange information, communicate with each other and stay connected. Teachers and students can use social platforms to stay connected to each other and can use it for educational purpose.

Social networks are empowering students and educational institutions with opportunities to improve teaching-learning process. SlideShare, Quora and ResearchGate etc. are helping students by providing online tutorials. These platforms offer valuable resource material for enriching knowledge base.

Social media is also a medium where students can establish beneficial connections for their careers. As an educational institution, it is crucial to be active in many social platforms possible, this helps create better student engagement strategies and makes learning more interactive and inclusive.

Professors can use their Twitter or Facebook handles or even messaging services such as WhatsApp to hold live sessions, offer extended support to students thereby enhancing the scope of learning beyond classroom. They can organize discussions related to their subjects or class assignments on social media platforms. Social media therefore helps both teachers and students to remain connected off campus.

Faculty can create groups using social media where useful information can be accessed by all. It is a good platform for sharing ideas. They can use hashtags to increase outreach of their academic posts and view submissions by students to check engagement level.

One of the main reasons behind professors adapting to social media in and out of the classrooms is that they can do personal branding using social media. This helps in creating a name for them in the academic fraternity. Facebook, Twitter, various blogging sites and YouTube are some of the social channels where professors can market their expertise. These platforms are highly popular among students and hence can help in establishing high reputation. After all, who wouldn't want that his / her work should get recognized !

Teaching fraternity is therefore acknowledging the impact of social media on personal and professional lives.

Social media is increasingly becoming popular in building relationships outside the classroom setting. It is helping drive admissions and strengthen public relations of the Institute. Students' welfare department in colleges are taking help of social media to engage students by addressing their grievances. It is further being used to showcase life at campus and build strong alumni networks.

Social media properties are being used in learning for the purpose of convenient communication with other students and potentially with others outside the class. You can connect with industry experts through Facebook live sessions.

To get started using social media in teaching, consider what you want to achieve. Do you wish to help students in their assignments beyond teaching hours. Do you wish to discuss some subjects / case studies that could not be covered during regular classroom schedules. Or do you wish that students should share their scholarly work and invite feedback on the same.

Your purpose will determine the expected outcome of social media usage for enhancing the teaching and learning experience.

7 Ways Social Media can Benefit Professors and Students in Teaching and Learning

Revolutionary changes in technology has open various opportunities to enhance teaching as well as learning experiences of students. The world of education has completely transformed ever since the internet and smart phone technologies came to existence.

Rising popularity and usefulness of social networking websites has led educators to explore their potential use in education. Educational institutions have realized the capability of social media to improve collaboration and active learning.

Social media is paving way for a new age learning which is personalized and customized to suit the need of every learner. In an increasingly interconnected world, professional networks and connections have become key to one's success and future growth.

In this context social media has a lot to offer to the educational community. Here are some of the direct benefits of social media usage for the academic world:

1. Collaborative Learning

On social media, students exchange lot of information. So, why not use this platform to encourage collaborative learning. In fact, several institutions globally are encouraging

students to forge international partnerships using social media for taking up some project assignments.

By doing this, they get engaged with each other and learn how to manage projects and coordinate with teams sitting globally along with cross cultural sensitivities. Similarly, the use of social media has made it easier and faster to interact with peers or teachers about class-related topics.

Use of social media also familiarizes students with a new work culture of managing work through online engagements which is very important in today's business environment. It teaches them how to develop a strong online presence by improving their communication skills.

2. Information Sharing by Students

Students are continuously hooked on to the internet through their smart phones and hence rapidly transmit information to their connections. Apart from just sharing views and opinions they also exchange lot of valuable information. This information is a lot more than just interesting videos or snapshots and cover useful stuff related to their studies. They exchange helpful information for classes and examinations.

3. Social Media Marketing for Educators

For educational institutions, social media is a great marketing tool to reach out to the prospective students. This new media has led education professionals to build a strong marketing strategy to increase brand awareness.

Colleges all over the world are extensively carrying out social media strategies to tap students. They are connecting with experts on topics via social media.

Through blogging and SlideShare, teachers are soon establishing themselves as experts in particular fields and subjects. Students gain useful content by following these experts online. This empowers institutions and establishes its brand equity in the academic world.

Academic Institutions are communicating with students via YouTube and Facebook. These channels can be used to communicate campus news, make announcements and provide students with useful information. This builds engagement between the College and students which helps in building trust by addressing many student related issues through community interactions.

As part of their marketing strategy, Institutions can share supportive and useful posts that can connect their audience in a positive way. You can initiate hashtags on social media to engage students in online discussions that are helpful. Video is a prominent tool in social media trends and is very effective in communicating your messages. You can use it to share useful and interesting stories that can inspire students and help them prepare for the challenges ahead.

4. Helps to Foster Research

Social media offers collaborative opportunities to foster research initiatives. It is one of the best platforms to extract secondary data. You can conduct survey pools to gather sampling and find out opinions of general people and other experts on a particular subject.

Social media can help academic researchers compile and produce useful content by working on collaborative assignments and projects.

5. Continue Teaching from Anywhere and Everywhere

Sometimes, it is difficult to address queries of students during classroom sessions. This makes it further difficult for students to clear their doubts. However, professors can take advantage of social media technology to extend teaching hours beyond classroom. They can set up Facebook Live sessions or Twitter discussions to cover uncleared doubts of their students. As a matter of fact, professors can allocate dedicated time slots for online discussions to answer any question or to work with a student. Through Facebook sessions, Faculty can connect with large audiences at one go which otherwise is not possible in one class.

Professors may like to continue engagement with their students even when they are travelling and not taking sessions. They can even stream lectures to avoid any cancellation of classes while travelling. If the professor is unavailable during the actual class time, he can use Youtube to record a lecture beforehand.

6. Take Advantage of Blogs to create Virtual Library

Setting up a personal blog or website gives professors a lot of freedom to build intellectual credibility. They can upload their academic work and other important lectures and videos that will allow students to take relevant inputs as reference material for their studies.

7. Let Students Learn from Social Networking

Social media offers great learning opportunities through social networking. Students can be encouraged to build networks to support professional help in career.

Similarly, Professors can also connect with the students and help them identify suitable job openings and find relevant connections for their future profession.

Conclusion

As social media networks advance in education systems, many helpful and beneficial tools will emerge that can make learning a more enriching experience.

Students today are intimately involved with social media at every stage. If you're missing onto the usage of social media you are pushing away a lot of potential audience. Using it in educational institutions can prove to be a very effective measure.

The benefits of social media for academic entities are many. The above are just a few, to begin with. Social media sites offer great opportunities for communication between peers and teachers.

Using social media, teachers can improve the involvement of their students in studies and education, improve technological ability, provide a great sense of collaboration in the classroom and build good communication skills of students.

Hereditary and Environment

Regarding the influence of heredity and environment on the development of an individual, there are extreme views; however the functioning of heredity and environment is similar to that of two bodily parts such as eyes, two hands, two feet, two legs, etc. Each one is complementary to the other. Sometimes, nature plays a more dominant role and the nurture relatively less. A balanced and harmonious interaction between heredity and environment is essential for the balanced and harmonious development of an individual. Of course, there is a limit to which each can influence the development of the individual. Home and the school ensure that optimum use is made of these limits.

Meaning of Heredity

O. B. Douglas and B. F. Holland "One's heredity consists often the structures, physical characteristics, functions or capacity derived from parents, other species."

R. S. Woodworth: "Heredity covers all the factors that are present in the individual when he begins life not at birth, but at time of conception about nine months before birth."

Every child comes into this world with certain physical and mental characteristics which he got from his parents and ancestors.

He is born with a body and mind which developed from the fertile ovum. His limbs and organs grow from the same. Some of his mental tendencies are also based on the same. This is all on account of heredity.

The Contribution of Heredity on Personality Development 1.

Structural Influences: Tendencies towards a structure

*Bodily weight

*Bodily structure (Skeletal etc.)

* Sex* Appearance (Skin, colour etc.)

(v) Internal Structure (Size of the heart etc.)

2. Behaviour Influences: Tendency to behave.

*Nature response (Reacting quickly or slowly).

*Sensory response (Sense of touch etc.)

*Operation of the Reproductive System etc.

*Functioning of the endocrine system.

1. Mendel's Law (मटर पर □□□□□□ □□□□□□)

Mendel's Law of Independent Assortment states the inheritance of one pair of factors (genes) is independent of the inheritance of the other pair. If the two alleles are identical, the individual is called homozygous for the trait; if the two alleles (genetics form) are different, the individual is called heterozygous.

Mendel's laws include the Law of Dominance and Uniformity, the Law of Segregation, and the Law of Independent Assortment.

2 continuity of germ plasma -Francis Galton was the first person who stimulated interest in the inheritance of psychological traits. His first contribution was

Heredity Genius published in 1889 in 1875, he pointed out that the child is as old as the parent or as old as his remotest ancestor."

3. Evolution Theory - Charles Darwin was a British naturalist who proposed the theory of biological evolution by natural selection. Darwin defined evolution as "descent with modification," the idea that species change over time, give rise to new species, and share a common ancestor.

4. genetic view Every human being has its beginning in the union of the male germ cell, the female germ cell the ovum. They unite and then divided cell division and the result is the development and growth. The United germ cells of the parents also separate and are presented in the embryo .this the child carries the germ cells of its own parents so that the stream of germ cells is continuous from generation to generation

Environment

Broadly. "Environment" means cultural, economic, intellectual, moral, physical, political, religious and social factors influencing the development the individual. All these factors influence and mould the behaviour of a person from time to time. Because of differing environments, two individuals born with the same biological heritage differ. Environment includes the home, the neighbourhood, the peers, the school and a host of other agencies. No individual is the same at maturity as he born. The environment changes him. Everything that as their his parents and ancestors. influences the child apart from himself, is his environment what he inherits from his parents and ancestors.

Definitions of Environment

1. E. G. Boring, H. S. Longeld and H. P. "The environment everything that affects the individual except his genes.

2. O.B. Douglas and B. F. Holland (1947): Environment is "a word which describes, in the aggregate, in all of the extrinsic (external) forces as Influences and conditions, which affect the life, nature, behaviour and the growth, development and maturation of living organisms.

R.S .Woodworth and D. G. Marques (1948) "Environment cover all the outside factors that have acted on the individual since he began life."

Arguments in Favour of Heredity

Heredity is All in All: According to A. E. Wiggam, "Nearly all the misery and nearly all the happiness in the world are due not to

environment .The difference among men are due to differences in the germ cells with which They are born."

(i) Francis Galton (1869): A great hereditarian, he studied the family histories of 977 famous persons of various western countries. Almost all of them were discovered to be belonging to great families.

The results of the study led him to believe that their greatness was due to their heredity.

(ii) Karl Pearson: He conducted research on the same lines and reached the same conclusions.

(iii) Dugdale (1877): He conducted the most interesting study in this connection that of a Jukes family,. Jukes was a fisherman. His son happened to marry a woman from a very degenerate family. The study was extended to many generations. According to the report of Dugdale, he studied 28,309 individuals of the family. Out of them only 350 men and women were normal. The remaining 92 percent were all criminals, beggars, paupers, prostitutes or diseased ones.

(iv) H.H. Goddard (1912): He studied a house as notorious (□□□□□□) as Kalikah family. Kalikak was a soldier. He married a feeble-minded woman, Later he married in a good family. 480 individuals descended from is first wife none came to prominence. They were mostly feebleminded, criminals, sexual perverts and drunkards. Out of the later one, there were many famous doctors, teachers, tradesmen, lawyers and administrators.

3. Study of Siblings and Twins:

4. Study of Hybrids: The hereditarian say that the hybrids are a clear proof of the importance of heredity. The offspring's of a mare, crossed with donkey, lies in the same parental environment as a normal horse before birth. But the issue is a mule, quite different from horse in every respect and it is never a normal horse. The apparent difference is due to heredity.

. Arguments against Heredity

The environmentalists point out that the 977 famous persons of Francis were provided selected environment by the great families. Similarly, he Jukes around them to breed them. A beggar Juke could not provide good conditions of and the Kalikaks were degenerated because they had Jukes and Kalikaka A criminal Kalikak could not protect his children from bad influence while he daughter was shut in jail. The wants and needs of life dragged the innocent children to the same paths which had led the elder Kalikaks to jail. The

young Jukes and Kalikaks simply imitated the behaviour of their elders. Their needs were seldom satisfied. They were seldom provided with desirable schooling and guidance. So their degeneration was inevitable.

Siblings are brought up in the same house under the same roof, in the same circumstances and influences. Therefore, they are apt to be similar to some extent. In the case of identical twins, some remarkable differences occur after separation of a long time. In the case of hybrids, different species combine and therefore the differences are natural.

Arguments in Favour of Environment

JB Watson wrote "there is no such thing as inheritance of capacity, talent, temperament, mental constitution and characteristics. There is nothing from within to develop. You do not need anything else in the way of raw material to make a man, be that man a genius, a cultured gentleman, a rowdy or a thug." Following are some studies in favour of environments

1. Wolf Children: In the early nineteen twenties, some hunters found two children from a cave of wolves in a jungle. One of them was eleven years old and the other about seven. It seemed as if the children had been carried away one by one by the female wolf when they were babies and instead of being eaten up, they were reared up in the cave. The social environment turned them into wild beasts. They howled and crawled like beasts. They could not stand erect. Their limbs were crooked. But they could crawl very swiftly just like wolves. Their jaws had been deformed and disfigured. They ate raw meat and felt restless in the presence of men. They sipped water.

Wolf children were taken to a hospital. After some days a priest took them home. He made great efforts to reclaim them. He taught them how to eat and drink. He trained them in wearing clothes. At first they resisted but after some months they began to wear clothes. He trained them how to walk, erect and he succeeded soon. Meanwhile, the younger child died. But the behaviour of the elder one was modified and he looked like a human being.

The environmentalists say that it was environment alone that turned the children into beasts. Again, it was environment alone which brought them back to human form and behaviour.

2. Story of Monster: Monsters are born if the eggs of fish or birds are tempered with during the incubation periods. If the young fish embryos are placed in an ice-box before their eyes are formed, some of the young fish hatched out produce only one eye located in the

centre of the forehead. In some experiments, the eggs of fish treated with magnesium chloride electric current are as strikingly different offspring's. The environmentalists say that it is environment that works wonders.

3. Study of Twins: Norman made many studies of twins. He found that twins reared apart did differ in I.Q., weight and other traits, mental as well as physical.

4. Bloom's Studies

Explaining the effect of environment F. A. Freedenberg wrote, "Obviously, there was no genetically based structure of personality but rather a dynamic formation growing out of environmental influences."

5. Elkins Study: Elkins (1959), a historian found slavery as exerting a crushing blow upon the personality, not dissimilar in its effect from that of the concentration camps of Nazi Germany. He maintained that both were closed systems which produced personality changes in the individual. A high degree of dependence was introduced in both systems. There was a total acceptance of the plantation owner as a father-figure among Negro slaves so much the same way as prisoners of war accepted the Nazi S. S. guards.

Relative Impact of Heredity and Environment on Growth and Development

In the words of H.J. Butcher (1968), "It should be realized at once the hardly any observable quality, physical or mental, can be ascribed to the influence of heredity alone or environment alone. Even where a particular observable aspect of behaviour has been shown to be directly influenced by a gene finding or a single genetic unit (such cases are rare in the study of human beings), this is no guarantee in itself that the observable is not also substantially dependent on variations in the environment. This principle is illustrated by Hogben about the fly *Drosophila*, in which he established that "Two distinct genetics mutations affect the number of facets in the fly's

According to T. P. Nunn. "The fundamental truth is that it (the child) is a centre of creative energy which uses endowment and environment as its medium; so that the elements it receives from nature and nurture do themselves make it what it is, except in so far as they are the basis of the free activity which is the essential fact of its existence." Personality may be compared to a rectangle. Heredity makes the base while

environment the altitude. A rectangle cannot exist without either of the two." Sometimes, heredity plays a major role in the development of personality and sometimes environment. However, both play their roles. In case both the base i.e., the heredity and the altitude,

i.e., they are inferior, we shall have Jukes and Kalikaks as offspring's.

The much-mentioned slogan 'heredity versus environment' is a misconception. We should talk of 'heredity in the environment'. Both heredity and environment are essential for development. Hence, any trait of the individual is the 'product' of heredity and environment. The individual does not equal heredity + environment but equals heredity x environment, i.e. $O(\text{Organism or individual}) = H(\text{Heredity}) \times E(\text{Environment})$. Heredity sets the probable biological limit, whereas environment determines the level up to which the development is possible. Every development is due to an interaction of heredity and environment.

Influence of Both Heredity and Environment

1. Physical Growth and Development: Height, bodily frames and structure of the bodily organs are probably determined by the growth potential in the genes; the structure of the nervous system also is probably determined genetically. The limits of sensori motor development are set genetically, and these limits vary widely. Thus, the great differences in the motor skills and athletic abilities of children, youth and adults are caused, largely by heredity. All hereditary influences can be distorted by abnormal environment. However physical health and survival itself depends on good care. Good medical skill including public health practices and good nutrition are essential. Deficiencies and deprivation inflict huge penalties on the human body.

2. Mental Growth and Development: The evidence indicates that children are born with a very wide range of general mental potential and with different potentialities for music, painting, the other arts, public speaking and so forth, for which limits are set genetically. Good environments are needed to develop abilities to levels close to capacity levels.

3. Mental and Emotional Health and Personality: People seem born with physical structures nervous system, glands and organs emotional stability depends, and they differ greatly in their potential stability.

Heredity and Environment

4. Attitudes, Beliefs and Values: Position in life depends a great deal on capacities, which are set, to a considerable extent by inheritance. Attitudes, beliefs, and values develop from the culture in which one is born, and are influenced greatly by ego, or personal involvement.

Educational Implication -If heredity is everything, if we get a ready-made personality by birth and it is to develop according to its inborn tendencies which are already there in the little child, all the influences of environment are meaningless and there is no

sense in establishing so many schools and other institutions for the reform and guidance of children. On the other hand, if it is all nurture then why should we tolerate anybody less than genius in calibre. In providing rich environment in all its facets the parents, the teachers and the community have to play a significant role. Teachers should have a greater faith in the force of environment though the force of heredity cannot be totally ignored. Education can eliminate those influences and circumstances which inhibit and stunt the full growth and development of inherited traits and capacities and encourage and provide for those which scientific educational principles require that the inherited inclinations, capacities and interests of every child should be studied early. Every facility should be provided in the environment to develop all that is best in him as an individual. Educational institutions should provide suitable opportunities for every individual to unfold his latent powers. Individual differences of children must be found out and necessary conditions created for their optimum development. A rich and fruitful environment provides must be provided to draw out the best in child and man-body, mind and soul.



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Unit wise E-content according to the syllabus.
Links, PPTs, video links, activities, etc.

B.Ed
Subject- Language across Curriculum (BED105)

Unit-2

Bullet-1

- <https://encyclopedia.pub/entry/35237>
- <https://www.simplypsychology.org/language.html>

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- <https://www.differencebetween.com/what-is-the-difference-between-language-acquisition-and-language-learning/>
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- <https://egyankosh.ac.in/bitstream/123456789/21170/1/Unit-7.pdf>

pdf- [105 LAC\speaking skills.pdf](#)

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- <file:///E:/LLDIMS/105%20LAC/Reading%20and%20writing%20skills.pdf>
- <file:///E:/LLDIMS/105%20LAC/Rosenblatt%20Reading.pdf>

- <file:///E:/LLDIMS/105%20LAC/An%20Intensive%20Study%20of%20Factors%20Relating%20to%20Reading%20Readiness%20with.pdf>

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- <https://www.coursera.org/articles/writing-skills>
- <https://www.scribbr.com/academic-writing/writing-process/>

pdf- <https://egyankosh.ac.in/bitstream/123456789/7803/1/Unit-5.pdf>

- <file:///E:/LLDIMS/105%20LAC/196-205Dr.PARUPALLISRINIVASRAO.pdf>
- file:///E:/LLDIMS/105%20LAC/Importance_of_Writing_Skill_to_Develop_Students_C.pdf

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- <https://egyankosh.ac.in/bitstream/123456789/73477/1/Unit-2.pdf>
- <https://bookem-kids.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/03/7-components-of-literacy.pdf>
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- <https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/pdf/10.1177/2158244015577664>
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Diagnostic Test

Concept of Diagnostic Testing:

The term diagnosis has been borrowed from the medical profession. It means identification of disease by means of patient's symptoms. For example, when a patient comes to a doctor, the doctor initially puts some questions to the patient to gather some basic information's about the disease and then uses other techniques to get more related information to identify the disease and its probable cause(s).

After careful analysis of these data, he prescribes the medicines as remedial treatment. Similarly, in the field of education, diagnosis has many such implications. Difficulties in learning occur frequently at all levels and among pupils of both high and low mental ability.

In order to handle such cases, the teacher also uses similar techniques like a doctor to diagnose the relative strengths and weaknesses of pupil in the specific area of study, analyse the causes for the same and then provides remedial measures as per necessity.

Since tools and techniques used in mental measurements are not that exact, objective and precise like the tools and techniques used in sciences, the teachers are cautioned to use the diagnostic data with great care for designing remedial programmes.

But it is used in education to determine the learning difficulties or deficiencies of the learner. Diagnostic test is a test used to diagnose strength and weakness of the learning in certain areas of study whereas diagnostic evaluation is centered on schooling process such as the curriculum programme, administration and so on.

When learning difficulties that are left unresolved by the standard corrective prescriptions of formative evaluation and a pupil continues to experience failure despite the use of prescribed alternative methods of instruction, then a more detailed diagnosis is indicated.

To use a medical analogy, formative testing provides first aid treatment for simple learning problems and diagnostic testing searches for the underlying causes of those problems that do not respond to first aid treatment.

Thus it is much more comprehensive and detailed and the difference lies in the types of question each of them is addressing.

The following are the salient features of Diagnostic Testing:

- (i) The diagnostic test takes up where the formative test leaves off.
- (ii) A diagnostic test is a means by which an individual profile is examined and compared against certain norms or criteria.
- (iii) Diagnostic test focuses on individual's educational weakness or learning deficiency and identify the gaps in pupils.
- (iv) Diagnostic test is more intensive and act as a tool for analysis of Learning Difficulties.
- (v) Diagnostic test is more often limited to low ability students.
- (vi) Diagnostic test is corrective in nature.
- (vii) Diagnostic test pinpoint the specific types of error each pupil is making and searches for underlying causes of the problem.
- (viii) Diagnostic test is much more comprehensive.

(ix) Diagnostic test helps us to identify the trouble spots and discovered those areas of students weakness that are unresolved by formative test.

Dimensions of Diagnostic Test:

(i) Who can conduct → Teacher/Researcher

(ii) Where → School/Home/Work places

(iii) On whom → Learners

(iv) Purpose → Specific strength and weakness of the learner in a particular area.

(v) Length of time → Flexible in nature

(vi) Techniques of → Test/observation/interview etc. Assessment

(vii) Sequence → Logical and step by step

(viii) Method of → Negotiable/Therapeutic Remediation

(ix) Support to → Learner/Parents/Teacher

Steps of Educational Diagnostic Test:

(i) Identification and classification of pupils having Learning Difficulties:

(a) Constant observation of the pupils.

(b) Analysis of performance: Avoiding assignments & copying from others.

(c) Informal classroom Unit/Achievement test.

(d) Tendency of with-drawl and gap in expected and actual achievement.

(ii) Determining the specific nature of the Learning Difficulty or errors:

(a) Observation.

(b) Analysis of oral responses.

(c) Written class work.

(d) Analysis of student's assignments and test performance.

(e) Analysis of cumulative and anecdotal records.

(iii) Determining the Factors/Reasons or Causes Causing the learning Difficulty (Data Collection):

(a) Retardation in basic skills.

(b) Inadequate work study skills.

(c) Scholastic aptitude factors.

(d) Physical Mental and Emotional (Personal) Factors).

(e) Indifferent attitude and environment.

(f) Improper teaching methods, unsuitable curriculum, complex course materials.

(iv) Remedial measures/treatment to rectify the difficulties:

(a) Providing face to face interaction.

(b) Providing as may simple examples.

- (c) Giving concrete experiences, use of teaching aids.
- (d) Promoting active involvement of the students.
- (e) Consultation of Doctors/Psychologists/Counselors.
- (f) Developing strong motivation.

(v) Prevention of Recurrence of the Difficulties:

- (a) Planning for non-recurrence of the errors in the process of learning.

Construction of Diagnostic Test:

The following are the broad steps involved in the construction of a diagnostic test. Diagnostic Test may be Standardized or Teacher made and more or less followed the principles of test construction i.e., preparation, planning, writing items, assembling the test, preparing the scoring key and marking scheme and reviewing the test.

The Unit on which a Diagnostic Test is based should be broken into learning points without omitting any of the item and various types of items of test is to be prepared in a proper sequence:

1. Analysis of the context minutely i.e., major and minor one.
2. Forming questions on each minor concept (recall and recognition type) in order of difficulty.
3. Review the test items by the experts/experienced teacher to modify or delete test items if necessary.
4. Administering the test.
5. Scoring the test and analysis of the results.

6. Identification of weakness

7. Identify the causes of weakness (such as defective hearing or vision, poor home conditions, unsatisfactory relations with classmates or teacher, lack of ability) by the help of interview, questionnaires, peer information, family, class teacher, doctor or past records.

8. Suggest remedial programme (No set pattern).

Motivation, re-teaching, token economy, giving reinforcement, correct emotion, changing section, giving living examples, moral preaching's.

Materials Used in Diagnostic Test:

Classroom teachers, principals, supervisors and qualified diagnosticians use the following resources and materials in making educational diagnoses more vibrant:

1. Test records (Standardized and Teacher made).

2. Pupils' written work (themes, compositions, home assignments and test papers).

3. Pupils' oral work (discussion, speeches and oral reading).

4. Pupils' work habits (in class activities, participation, peer relationship, independent work, interest, effort etc.).

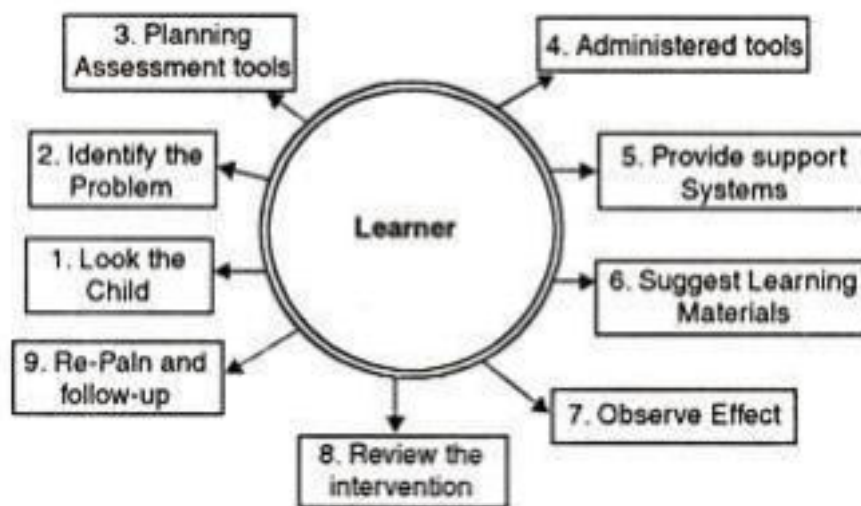
5. Physical and health records (school and family records about vision, hearing, dental, general).

6. Guidance and cumulative record data (family) background, anecdotal references, school activities).

7. Interview with pupil (problem or trouble and elimination of misconceptions).
8. Parent conference (pupil problems at home, parent interpretation).
9. Self-guidance (completing assignments, independent work and seeking teacher help).
10. Clinic or laboratory aids (vision tester, audio-meter eye photographs, tape recorder etc.).

Elements of Diagnostic Tests:

Look → Plan → Act → Observe → Reflect



Barriers in Diagnostic Tests:

- (i) Attitudinal change.
- (ii) Will Power and patience of the teacher.
- (iii) Time Scheduling .
- (iv) Sequencing of Study.
- (v) Faulty method of data collection and test.

(vi) Maintaining records impartially.

(vii) Costs.

Remedial Teaching

Students who have temporarily fallen behind in their studies or otherwise need short-term support in their learning have the right to get remedial teaching. Remedial teaching should be started immediately when the difficulties in learning or school attendance have been noticed, so that the students would not stay behind permanently in their studies. Remedial teaching can counteract difficulties beforehand. Remedial teaching should be organized according to a plan and as often as is necessary.

Objectives of Remedial Teaching

3.3 Each pupil is different in terms of learning ability, academic standards, classroom learning and academic performance, and each has his own in learning. The aim of IRTP is to provide learning support to pupils who lag far behind their counterparts in school performance. By adapting school curricula and teaching strategies, teachers can provide learning activities and practical experiences to students according to their abilities and needs. They can also design individualized educational programmes with intensive remedial support to help pupils consolidate their basic knowledge in different subjects, master the learning methods, strengthen their confidence and enhance the effectiveness of learning.

3.4 Throughout the teaching process, teachers should provide systematic training to develop pupils' generic skills, including interpersonal relationship, communication, problem-solving, self-management, self-learning, independent thinking, creativity and the use of information technology. Such training can lay the foundation for pupils' life-long learning, help them develop positive attitudes and values, as well as prepare them for future studies and career.

Principles of Helping Pupils with Learning Difficulties

3.5 Teaching preparation

Before preparing for their lessons, remedial teachers should identify pupils' diverse learning needs as soon as possible so that they may design appropriate teaching plans to facilitate pupils' effective learning.

3.6 Devise various learning activities

Since pupils have different characteristics in learning, teachers must devise different learning activities with the same teaching objective to develop pupils' varied abilities and skills in problem solving. It is more effective for teachers to adopt a series of relevant and simple teaching activities than assigning one long teaching activity since pupils may acquire the required knowledge and skills through diversified activities.

3.7 Design meaningful learning situations

Remedial teachers should specifically design meaningful learning situations, language environments (especially for English subject), games or activities so as to provide personal learning experiences for pupils and stimulate their interest and initiative in learning.

3.8 Teaching approaches

Teachers should give concrete examples before proceeding to abstract concepts by way of simple and easy steps at a pace in line with the learning abilities of students. Teachers may teach new concepts from different perspectives by various approaches so that pupils can grasp the ideas through meaningful and repeated illustrations. Teachers should encourage pupils' active participation by more frequent use of teaching aids, games and activities. They can also make use of information technology and all the teaching resources available to help pupils understand the main points.

3.9 Provide clear instructions

Pupils with learning difficulties are less competent in understanding written language. Therefore, remedial teachers should give pupils short and clear instructions to avoid confusion. They must explain clearly the arrangement of each learning activity. If necessary, they may ask pupils to repeat the steps of activities so that every pupil may understand the instructions.

3.10 Summarize the main points

At the course of teaching, teachers should always sum up the main

points in teaching and write the key phrases on the board to enhance pupils' audio and visual memories. Teachers can guide their pupils to link up the knowledge they learn from class with their life experiences so as to enhance the effectiveness of learning. Besides, guiding pupils to repeat the main points in verbal or written form is also an effective way of learning.

3.11 Enhance learning interest and motivation

Suffering from frequent frustrations in their work, pupils with learning difficulties may gradually lose their interest in learning. Therefore, teachers should adapt the curriculum to meet the needs of pupils. With less pupils in the IRTP, teachers can design interesting activities coupled with reward scheme to stimulate pupils' interest. It is most important to help pupils overcome their learning difficulties so that they may gain a sense of achievement and recover their confidence and interest in learning.

3.12 Encourage pupils' active participation in class activities

Pupils with learning difficulties usually lack self-confidence and are more passive in class. They seldom ask questions or express their views. Remedial teachers should patiently encourage active participation in class. Pleasurable learning experiences may help enhance pupils' interest in learning.

3.13 Focus on the learning process

Teaching should not only focus on the transmission of knowledge. It is also important to see that pupils are benefited from the entire learning process. Teachers should provide ample opportunities in class for pupils to practise and think what they have learnt, and allow them to solve problems by different means. Teachers should also carefully observe the performances of pupils and give them appropriate assistance, feedback and encouragement so as to help them acquire the learning skills, solve their problems and understand their own capability, thus enhancing self-confidence and improving their learning skills.

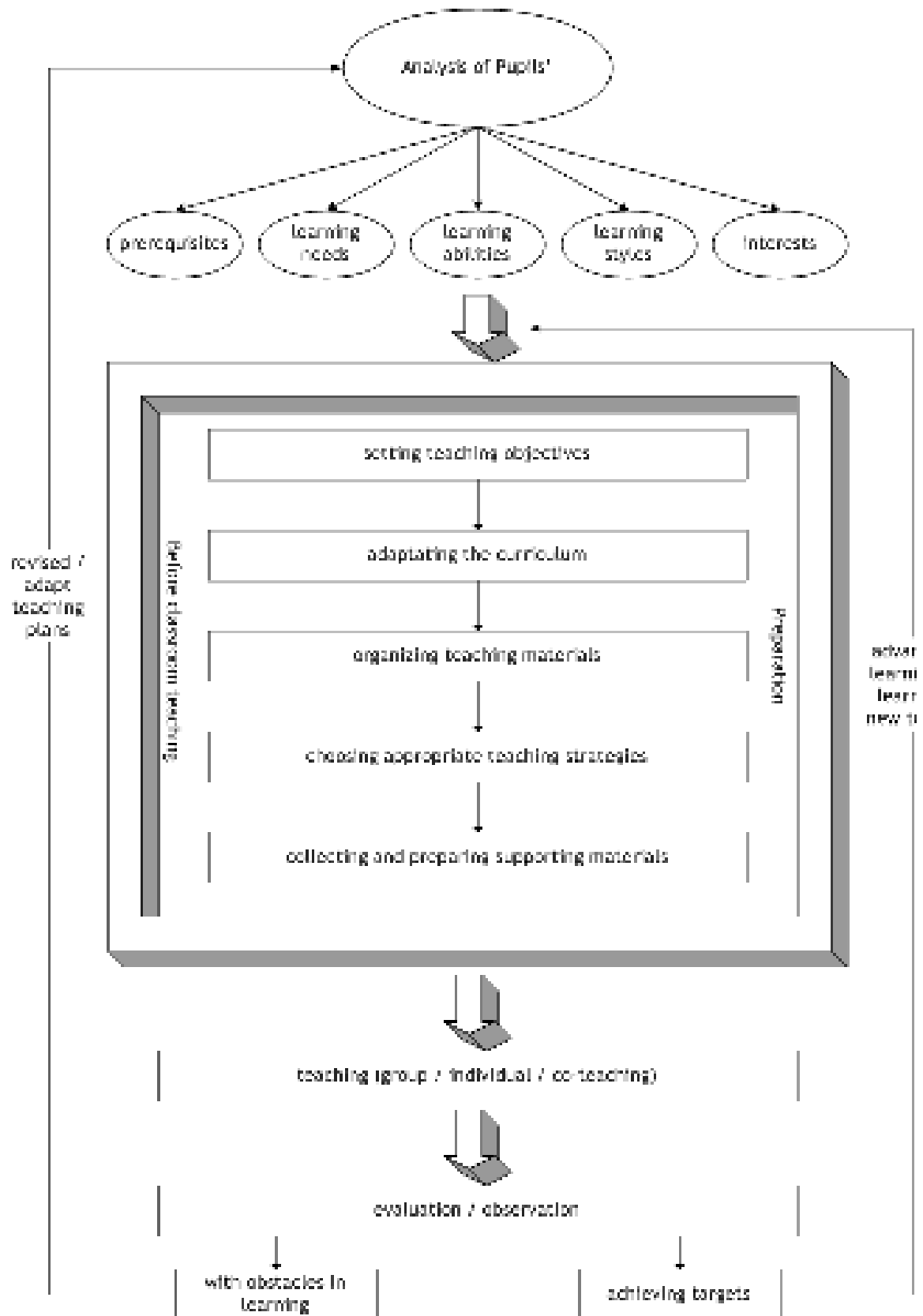
3.14 Show concern for the performances of individual pupils

Pupils may encounter different problems in their studies, therefore, teachers should carefully observe the learning process of individual pupils in class. Whenever necessary, they should provide individualized remedial teaching before and after class, during recess or lunchtime, so that they can remove their learning obstacles as soon as possible. When marking assignments, teachers should take note of the common errors of pupils and deliver the correct concepts and

knowledge to them promptly.

The Process of Remedial Teaching

3.1 The flowchart below may serve as a reference for teachers in the delivery of
5 collaborative teaching or individual teaching:



Curriculum Adaptation

3.16 Remedial teachers should adapt the curriculum to accommodate the

learning characteristics and abilities of pupils. They should set some teaching objectives which are easy to achieve to ensure that pupils may acquire the knowledge as desired after the completion of each module.

- 3.17 Teaching should not be directed by textbooks which should not be taken as the school curriculum. There is no need to cover all the contents in the textbooks as well. Schools can classify the teaching content into core and non-core learning aspects according to the teaching objectives and pupils abilities. Core learning aspects require in-depth studies and application whereas materials in the non-core or advanced learning aspects may be streamlined or appropriately selected for teaching.
- 3.18 Teachers are encouraged to adopt recommendations on cross-curricular teaching by linking up related teaching areas flexibly so that more time can be spared for effective activities and learning.
- 3.19 Teachers should make good use of all teaching materials. For example, they may select and use the materials in textbooks to meet the teaching objectives, or compile their own supplementary teaching materials. They may also design materials of different standards. Materials from the internet, newspapers, magazines and references provided by the Education Department may help teachers design interesting and enjoyable activities to enhance pupils effectiveness of learning.

Homework Policies

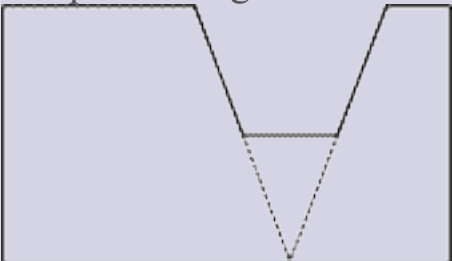
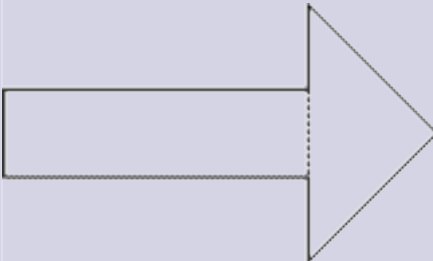
- 3.20 Schools should formulate clear policies on homework which should be reviewed regularly. The assignments should be targeted at the teaching objectives and serve the purposes of learning. Exercise books available in the market should only serve as a reference. Schools should choose these exercise books carefully and make appropriate adjustments to the category, quantity and quality of homework.
- 3.21 Teachers should take note of the following points when designing homework for pupils:
- i. the homework should have clear objectives and can accommodate the level and needs of pupils;
 - ii. the form and contents of homework should be of a great variety so as to develop pupils' creativity, self-learning and collaborative skills;

- iii. the homework should match the content taught in class;
- iv. teachers should give simple and clear instruction;
- v. assign appropriate amount of homework each day;
- vi. ineffective and mechanical drills should be avoided; and
- vii. teachers should make good use of the homework as a tool for evaluation and feedback to enhance the motivation and effectiveness of learning.

Formulation of Teaching Plans

3.22 When formulating teaching plans, teachers are advised to take the following two aspects into consideration:

On the one hand, teachers should formulate practical teaching objectives that meet the learning characteristics and weaknesses of pupils so as to foster a sense of achievement. On the other hand, teachers should decide whether the learning items should be taught in details or in brief. Moreover, the items should be classified into different levels and taught through small and simplified steps to facilitate comprehension as well as to strengthen pupils' confidence in learning. A topic in Mathematics is quoted as example:

Topic	Original	IRTP Class
Area of a polygon	Find the area of a more complicated figure 	Find the area 

3.23 With reference to the common difficulties encountered by pupils, teachers should set down the main points for remedial teaching and make adjustments promptly according to the performance of students.

3.24 Teachers should make a brief record of the learning aspects, teaching objectives/aims, key learning points, activities, use of teaching aids and evaluations for future reference.

3.25 Teachers may deliver the teaching content by means of modules, themes, learning aspects or teaching items and work out the teaching

plans accordingly.

- 3.26 Post-lesson reviews should focus on the teaching process and pupils' performance, with specific and critical evaluations made. Examples of main points for review are as follows:
- i. the common difficulties of pupils;
 - ii. the effectiveness of teaching strategies and class activities to help pupils understand the teaching contents, grasp the main points and apply what they have learned; and
 - iii. issues of concern (e.g. basic knowledge that requires enrichment, the need to break down or re-arrange teaching steps, etc.)

Teaching Activities, Aids and Supporting Materials

- 3.27 Teachers should design appropriate learning activities in line with the focus of teaching. On the basis of low starting point, small steps, diversified activities and instant feedback, teachers should encourage pupils to participate actively during the learning process to help master the skills and methods of collaborative learning. Diversified teaching activities such as situational teaching, competitions, collation of information, discussion, oral reporting, games, topical research, production of graphs/figures/models, role play, recording, visit and experiments may help pupils enhance their interest in learning, stimulate their thinking and reinforce the effectiveness of teaching.
- 3.28 Teachers should exercise their discretion in the appropriate use of teaching aids. Appropriate teaching aids not only help to enhance pupils' interest in learning, but will also consolidate the knowledge they learned, thus achieving the objective of teaching. Common teaching aids are concrete objects, figures, models, word cards, number cards and audio-visual equipments such as tape recorder, headset, wire free induction loop system and multimedia teaching aids, etc. When designing and using teaching aids, teachers should first consider their practical use and assess whether the aim of remedial teaching can be attained.
- 3.29 The design and organization of teaching materials should be pupil-oriented. They should be selected and collated systematically to serve the purpose. Teaching materials provided by the Education Department or other academic institutions may also serve as a reference for teachers (A list of references can be found at Appendix 10).

The Setting of Learning Environment

- 3.30 Well-designed learning environment helps to maintain pupils' attention and interest in learning and facilitates the achievement of teaching aims. In this way, it is more easy to achieve the aim of teaching. The teaching environment should be designed to support remedial teaching and group activities. Seat arrangements of pupils should be flexible to meet the specific teaching purposes of each learning activity. For example, teachers and pupils may form of circle when holding discussions; and the two pupils or group members involved may sit together during peer group or small group learning.
- 3.31 Teachers should prepare a rich, pleasant and comfortable learning environment for pupils. For example, they may set up a self-learning corner, book corner, toy corner, science corner, prize corner or stationery/learning resources corner, etc. to enkindle pupils' interest in learning. An example of classroom setting is shown at Appendix 9.
- 3.32 Teachers may display the teaching materials of the week or the learning outcomes or products of pupils at prominent places to stimulate their motivation in learning.

Remedial Teaching Strategies

- 3.33 Individualized Educational Programme (IEP)
Geared to the learning needs of individual pupils, the Individualized Educational Programme aims to reinforce the foundation of learning, help pupils overcome their learning difficulties and develop their potentials. Individualized Educational Programme should include short-term and long-term teaching objectives, learning steps, activities and reviews to ensure that the programme is implemented effectively. Teaching can be done in small groups or for individual. If necessary, remedial teachers, other teachers, student guidance officers/teachers, parents and pupils alike are to participate in designing the programme. Remedial teachers hold meetings regularly to evaluate the effectiveness of work and gather opinions for refinement.
- 3.34 Peer Support Programme
Remedial teachers may train up pupils who perform better in a certain subject to become 'little teachers' and who will be responsible for helping schoolmates with learning difficulties in group teaching and self-study sessions as well as outside class. Peer support programme

helps pupils reinforce their knowledge, and develop their communication and cooperation skills as well as good interpersonal relationship. To enhance the effectiveness of the programme, remedial teachers must provide training to the pupils concerned beforehand and make regular reviews on its effectiveness. Generally speaking, this programme is more suitable for pupils of higher grades.

3.35 Reward Scheme

The reward scheme has positive effect in enhancing pupils' motivation. It aims at guiding pupils to set their own objectives and plans, and positively reinforcing their good performance. No matter what reward is provided, the most important thing is to help pupils cultivate an interest in learning and gain a sense of satisfaction and achievement during the learning process. When designing the rewards offered, remedial teachers should take note of the following:

- i. set clear and specific targets (for example: requirement on the score of dictation and number of assignments submitted);
- ii. set achievable objectives;
- iii. give diversified rewards (including verbal commendation) or prizes to accommodate pupils' interest; give rewards instantly;
- iv. review and revise the reward scheme regularly; and
- v. invite parents to help children improve their work.

3.36 Handling pupils' behaviour problems

Remedial teachers should observe the following when dealing with the behaviour problems of pupils:

- i. always observe the performance of pupils in class and their behaviour in groups;
- ii. establish close relationship with pupils, develop mutual trust and listen carefully to what they say;
- iii. help pupils understand the effect of their behaviour on the other as well as their own selves;
- iv. keep in close contact with parents to find out the cause of pupils' behaviour problems;
- v. help pupils build up self-confidence and a healthy self-image;
- vi. give positive reinforcement to pupils' good behaviour, and do not pay undue attention to their misbehaviour;
- vii. do not try to change all the deviant behaviour of pupils at once. Teachers should list out the problems and set the priorities with an aim to improve one or two of them at a time;
- viii. refer the cases to Student Guidance Officers/Teachers for follow-up action if the behaviour problems of pupils continue or become

serious. If necessary, student guidance officers/teachers may refer the case to the Psychological Services Section of the Education Department for individual assessment and remedial services.

Development of Generic Skills

- 3.37 Remedial teachers should help pupils develop good learning habits and attitudes, such as complete the assignments tidily, keep their promise and be responsible and disciplined. A constructive attitude is the foundation for life-long self-learning and it helps enhance pupils' learning effectiveness.
- 3.38 Pupils should be helped to master basic self-learning skills and abilities. For example, teachers may teach them how to set appropriate learning objectives and priorities, time management, note-taking, reading skills and examination taking skills, etc.
- 3.39 Remedial teachers can also make use of information technology to motivate and teach pupils to learn according to their own pace, help them cultivate the habit of self-learning, so that they will benefit from such training for their whole life.
- 3.40 Pupils can be taught to solve problems by different methods, tools or by drawing insight from their past experiences. For example, teachers can teach them the use of dictionaries, as well as the skills of seeking and handling information obtained from the school and public libraries. These are ways to develop students' flexibility, creativity and independent thinking.
- 3.41 Teachers should train pupils to establish good interpersonal relationship so as to facilitate effective communication and collaboration as well as to enhance the team spirit of students.

Assessment and Record on Learning

- 3.42 Assessment plays a very important role in teaching and learning. By means of assessment, remedial teachers can know the learning progress as well as strengths and weaknesses of pupils; hence, they may design different teaching activities accordingly to help pupils learn in an effective manner. Besides, it is also a means to measure the

discrepancy between IRTP pupils and ordinary pupils so that teachers may decide whether it is desirable for the pupil(s) concerned to withdraw from IRTP.

3.43 The two most common assessment methods are listed as follows for teachers' reference:

i. Formative Assessment

Teachers can understand and assess the learning abilities of pupils from their daily classwork and homework as well as individual or group projects, such as model making, drawing, information collection, measuring activities and the way they relate daily events to the topics they learnt in class, so that they can revise the teaching content accordingly.

ii. Summative Assessment

With reference to the progress of teaching, teachers may assess the performance of students by means of examinations/tests. The examination/test papers must cover all the main points in teaching where the levels of difficulty meet the pupils' abilities. The weighting of questions and marks should be balanced. Different types of questions should be included.

3.44 Schools may have different forms and weightings of assessment.

3.45 Remedial teachers should keep a detailed personal record for each pupil under IRTP. They should assess the progress of pupils regularly and systemically. A comprehensive record provides information on the learning progress of pupils and serve as a reference.

3.46 Teachers should pay attention to the response of pupils during classroom learning and make a record in the "Evaluation" column of the teaching plan (Appendix 7) to facilitate follow-up actions or changes in teaching strategies. In addition, teachers should make reference to the teaching objectives in evaluating the effectiveness of teaching, and revise their teaching plans according to the learning needs.

Liaison with Parents

3.47 In order to help pupils with learning difficulties, schools must liaise closely with parents. Apart from providing guidance on homework to their children, parents also handle pupils' problems either by the same way or similar ways in line with the requirements of the school and their schoolwork.

3.48 Some parents may have unrealistic expectation of their children's performance. In such cases, remedial teachers have to explain to the parents about the characteristics and abilities of pupils so that they may help their children to learn in a pleasurable manner. On the contrary, some parents' expectation may be too low. Teachers must then keep in contact with parents to help them understand their children and to provide appropriate guidance to develop the pupils' potentials.

Co-ordination with Other Teachers and Professionals

- 3.49 Remedial teachers must keep in close contact with other teachers. They are encouraged to discuss or share their experiences with others to find out ways to improve pupils' learning and behaviour. For example, they may discuss on the teaching plans, learning progress of pupils, test and examination questions, pupils' problem behaviour and partial or total withdrawal of pupils from IRTTP.
- 3.50 Remedial teachers should also liaise with other related professionals to seek for professional support with a view to helping pupils solve their problems.

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CO-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

Co-curricular activities facilitate in the development of various domains of mind and personality such as intellectual development, emotional development, social development, moral development and aesthetic development. Creativity, Enthusiasm, and Energetic, Positive thinking are some of the facets of personality development and the outcomes of Extracurricular activities.

Meaning of Co-curricular Activities

Co-curricular activities (CCAs) earlier known as Extracurricular Activities (ECA) are the components of non-academic curriculum helps to develop various facets of the personality development of the child and students. For all-round development of the child, there is a need of emotional, physical, spiritual and moral development that is complemented and supplemented by Co-curricular Activities.

Definition of Co-curricular Activities

Co-curricular Activities are defined as the activities that enable to supplement and complement the curricular or main syllabi activities. These are the very important part and parcel of educational institutions to develop the students' personality as well as to strengthen the classroom learning.

These activities are organized after the school hours, so known as extra-curricular activities. Co-curricular Activities have wide horizon to cater to the cultural, social, aesthetic development of the child.

Examples and Types of Co-curricular Activities

- Sports
- Musical activities
- Debate
- Model

- Art
- Music
- Drama
- Debate and discussion
- Declamation contest
- Story writing competition
- Essay writing competition
- Art craft
- Recitation competition
- Wall magazine decoration
- Writes ups for school magazine
- Folk songs
- Folk dance
- Flower show
- School decoration
- Sculpture making
- Fancy dress competition
- Preparation of chart & models
- Album making
- Photography
- Clay modeling
- Toy making
- Soap making
- Basket making
- Organization exhibitions.
- Celebration of festival

Role of Co-curricular activities in student's life

Co-curricular activities are the true and practical experiences received by students. To a greater extent, the theoretical knowledge gets strengthened when a relevant co-curricular activity is organized related to the content taught in the classroom. Intellectual aspects of personality are solely accomplished by Classroom, while aesthetic development, character building, spiritual growth, physical growth, moral values, creativity, etc. are supported by co-curricular activities. Frankness and clarity in language and personality is supported by these activities. It helps to develop co-ordination, adjustment, speech fluency, extempore expressions, etc. among student both at the school as well as college levels.

Importance and Benefits of Co-curricular Activities

1. Co-curricular activities stimulate playing, acting, singing, recitation, speaking and narrating in students.
2. Activities like participation in game debates, music, drama, etc., help in achieving overall functioning of education.
3. It enables the students to express themselves freely through debates.
4. Games and Sports helps to be fit and energetic to the child.
5. Helps to develop the spirit of healthy competition.
6. These activities guide students how to organize and present an activity, how to develop skills, how to co-operate and co-ordinate in different situations-all these helps in leadership qualities.
7. It provides the avenues of socialization, self-identification and self-assessment when the child come in contact with organizers, fellow participants, teachers, people outside the school during cultural activity.
8. Inculcate the values to respects other's view and feeling.
9. It makes you perfect in decision making.
10. It develop a sense of belongingness.
11. CCA provide motivation for learning.
12. CCA develop the values like physical, psychological, Ethical, academic, civic, social, aesthetic, cultural recreational and disciplinary values

Role of a Teacher in Organising curricular Activities

1. The teacher must be a good planner so that the different activities could be carried out systematically throughout the year.
2. It should be the duty of the teacher to give more and more opportunity to the child while performing co-curricular activities.
3. The Teacher should act as Innovator by introducing some innovative programmes.
4. The teacher must be a good organiser so that the students experienced maximum of it.
5. He should too act like as director, recorder, evaluator, manager, decision maker, advisor, motivator, communicator, coordinator, so that the student and child could gained maximum of finer aspects of Co-curricular activities.

List of Outdoor Co-curricular Activities

1. Mass parade
2. Mass drill
3. Yoga
4. Athletics
5. Bicycling
6. Gardening
7. Cricket
8. Football
9. Basketball
10. Volleyball
11. Kabaddi
12. Kho kho
13. Hand ball
14. Trips to place of geographical, historical, economic or cultural interest

15. Mass prayer
16. Morning assembly
17. Excursions
18. Social service in neighbourhood
19. Village Survey

List of Indoor Co-curricular Activities

1. Dramatics
2. Music and dance
3. Drawing and painting
4. Decoration
5. Weaving
6. Clay modelling
7. First Aid
8. Tailoring
9. Rangoli
10. Book binding
11. Card board work
12. Leather work
13. Organizing school panchayat
14. Student self-government
15. Art and craft

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Continuous and Comprehensive Evaluation

Introduction:

Continuous and Comprehensive Evaluation (CCE) was a procedure of assessment, directed by the Right to Education Act, of India in 2009. This proposal to assessment was introduced by state governments in India, as well as by the Central Board of Secondary Education in India, for students of sixth to tenth class and twelfth in some schools.

Meaning:

Continuous and Comprehensive Evaluation (CCE) refers to a system of school-based evaluation of students that covers all features of students' development. It is a developmental process of assessment which stresses on two-fold objectives i.e. on continuousness in evaluation and assessment of broad-based learning and behavioral outcomes on the other.

According to this scheme, the term 'continuous' is meant to accentuate that evaluation of identified aspects of students' growth and development' is a continuous process rather than an incident, built into the total teaching-learning process and spread over the whole duration of the academic session.

The second term 'comprehensive' means that the scheme tries to cover both the scholastic and the co-scholastic aspects of students' growth and development.

Aims of Continuous and Comprehensive Evaluation:

The main aim of CCE was to assess every aspect of the child during their presence at the school.

CCE helps in minimizing the stress on children.

Make assessment comprehensive & regular.

Provide space for the teacher for prolific teaching.

Provide a tool for detection & corrections.

Produce learners with greater skill

Objectives of Continuous and Comprehensive Evaluation:

Various are the objectives of Continuous and Comprehensive Evaluation:

Makes the process of teaching and learning a learner-centered activity.

To make the assessment process an essential part of the teaching-learning process.

To make a fair judgment and take timely decisions for learner's growth, learning process, learning pace, and learning environment.

To provide scope for learners for self-assessment.

To use the evaluation process for improving student's achievement through detection and correction.

Features of Continuous and Comprehensive Evaluation:

The 'continuous' aspect of CCE takes care of 'continual' and 'periodicity' features of assessment.

The 'comprehensive' elements of CCE takes care of assessment of all-round development of the child's personality.

The continuous and comprehensive evaluation includes both Scholastic as well as Co-Scholastic aspects of the pupil's growth. Scholastic aspects cover curricular areas or subject specific areas, while co-scholastic aspects consist of Life Skills, Co-Curricular Activities, Attitudes, and Values.

Assessment in Co-Scholastic areas is done using the number of techniques on the basis of recognized criteria, while assessment in Life Skills is done on the basis of indicators of Assessment and checklists.

Functions of Continuous and Comprehensive Evaluation:

CCE helps the teacher to systematize efficacious teaching strategies.

Continuous evaluation serves to detect weaknesses and permits the teacher to ascertain certain individual learner.

Through continuous assessments, students can know their strength and weaknesses.

CCE helps in identifying changes in attitudes and value systems.

CCE provides information on the progress of students in scholastic and co-scholastic areas which results in forecasting the future success of the learners.

Aspects of CCE:

Continuous and Comprehensive Evaluation considers both the scholastic and co-scholastic aspects.

Scholastic assessment: Scholastic aspects include curricular areas or subject-specific areas. These areas focus on oral and written class tests, cycle tests, activity tests and daily class performances of all subjects in order to improve writing and speaking skills. Scholastic assessment should be both Formative and Summative.

Formative Assessment:

Formative assessment, consists of diagnostic testing, is an extent of formal and informal assessment procedures conducted by teachers during the learning process in order to alter teaching and learning activities to improve student achievement. It typically involves qualitative feedback for both student and teacher that is the basis of the details of content and performance. It is commonly compared with summative assessment, which attempts to monitor educational outcomes, often for purposes of external responsibility.

Features of Formative Assessment:

It makes provision for effective feedback.

It provides a plan for the active involvement of students in their own learning

It helps the student to support their peers' group and vice-versa.

It helps in integrating diverse learning styles to decide how and what to teach.

co-scholastic aspects include Life Skills, Co-Curricular Activities, Attitudes, and Values.

It provides the student with a chance to improve their scores after they get feedback.

It helps in the detection and correction of the assessment process.

Summative Assessment:

Summative assessment is an assessment of students where the focus is on the consequences of a program. The goal of summative assessment is to assess student learning at the end of an instructional unit by comparing it against a norm.

Features of Summative assessment:

It can be done at the end of a unit or semester to display the sum of what they learn or what not.

This contrasts with formative assessment, which summarizes the participants' development at a particular time.

It is a conventional way of assessing students work.

Co-scholastic assessment:

Co-Scholastic Areas of Assessment: The areas of Co-scholastic assessment focus on increasing the skills of a student in general knowledge, environmental education, physical Education, art, music and dance and computers. These are evaluated through quizzes, competitions, and activities.

School-based continuous and comprehensive evaluation system helps a learner in the following ways:

It reduces stress on children.

It makes evaluation comprehensive and regular.

It provides a tool of detection and correction of action.

It provides space for the teacher for creative teaching.

It produces learners with greater skills.

Characteristics of School-Based CCE:

School-based CCE has the following characteristics:

It is comprehensive, broader and continuous than the traditional system.

It aims primarily to help learners for orderly learning and development.

It takes care of the needs of the learner as responsible citizens of the future.

It is more translucent, advanced and provides more scope for interconnection among learners, teachers, and parents.

Paradigms/Criterion of Assessments:

Assessment of Learning: The 'assessment of learning' is defined as a process whereby someone tries to describe and measures the quantity of the knowledge, attitudes or skills organized by another. In this type of learning teachers' directions is most important and the student has meager involvement in the design or execution of the assessment process in these situations. In this assessment teacher designs learning and collect proofs. A teacher also judges what has been learned by students or what not.

Assessment for learning: The assessment for learning involves an increased level of student freedom, but not without teacher instructions and cooperation. The assessment for learning is sometimes seen as having a relation to 'formative assessment'. More emphasis laid towards giving useful advice to the student and less emphasis on the giving marks and grading function. In this assessment teacher designs learning and designs evaluation process with feedback to the student.

Assessment as learning: This assessment may be more connected with diagnostics assessment and can be constructed with more importance on peer learning. It generates chances for self-assessment and peer assessment. Students take increased responsibility in producing quality information about their learning and of others. Teacher and students construct together learning, assessment and learning progress.

Tools and technique of learning:

There are two main purposes of evaluation. First is to provide developmental feedback to the learner, secondly is to qualitatively classify a learner on the basis of their learning outcome against a set of norms.

Multiple tools can be used for assessment. Similarly, more than one assessment tool can be used in various assessment techniques. Assessment tools can be of two types i.e. standardized and non-standardized.

Standardized tools of assessment:

These tools have the characteristics of objectivity, reliability, validity, and quality of discerning between a high performer. Different types of validates, e.g. construct, content and concurrent validity take care of balance and pertinency. Speed is a factor in some test, but not a common element in all tests. Psychological tests and inventories like intelligence and aptitude tests, interests and study habits inventories, attitudes scales, etc have those properties.

Non-standardized tools:

Non- standardized tests are teacher-made tests, rating scale, observation schedules, interview schedules, questionnaire, opinionnaires, checklists, etc. Now we will deal primarily with the tools of assessment set in the context of techniques. Some of the tools and techniques of evaluation are:

Portfolio: A student portfolio is a collection of academic work and other forms of educational proofs assembled for the purpose of evaluating coursework quality, learning progress, and academic achievement and determining whether students have met learning standards or other academic requirements for courses, grade-level.

Anecdotal Records: An anecdotal record is an examination that is written like a short story. They are the explanation of occasion or events that are important to the person perceiving. Anecdotal records are short, objective and as correct as possible.

Checklists: Checklists usually offer a yes/no format in relation to student illustration of particular criteria. This is similar to a light switch; the light is either on or off. They may be used in recording observations of an individual, a group or a whole class.

Rating Scales: Rating Scales allows teachers to show the degree or frequency of the behaviors, skills, and strategies displayed by the learner. To continue the light switch analogy, a rating scale is like a feeble switch that provides scope for performance levels.

Assignment: Assignments is a type of refinement to a variable. It is a task given to students by their teachers to be completed out of class time.

Observation: In observation information about a child is collected in a natural setting in and outside the classes with the help of observation.

Questions: Questions are the frequently applied tool for finding out what children know, think, imagine and feel. A teacher, in the course of teaching, coming to know of learning difficulties in children by asking questions. Questions may be of various types like essay type questions, short answer type questions, very short answer type questions, objective type questions.

Document analysis: Document analysis is a type of qualitative research in which documents are appraised by the analyst to evaluate an estimation theme.

Thanks

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Qualities of Good Teachers

We can see list of great teachers in history of every great person of the world who contributed for making them. If you are also a teacher, you should know the qualities of good teachers. If you will develop these qualities, you can get better performance from your students. It is sure, one day these students will become great personalities of the world. So, know these qualities :

1. Quick Sound Judgement

One of qualities of good teachers is to take quick sound judgement. We all take decisions. But, some decisions are good and other may be wrong. But teacher's one wrong decision may effect the whole life of a student. Delay of teacher's decision is also not for sorry because it is the question of future of students.

2. Kind Feelings

Kind feelings is also part of the quality of good teachers. If a teacher sees any orphaned student, he should not take fees from him. If a teacher sees any student who has no book, he should give free books to him. If a teacher sees that his student has not eaten the food, he has to make food for him. I think, it will be quality of good teacher, if he behaves his student like his own son. He should be strong of voice but kind from heart.

3. Common Sense

Teachers should read more and more books for increasing common sense. Teachers should read more and more educational website for increasing common sense. It will be the quality of a good teacher, if he has store of treasure of knowledge. This quality can get only regular and daily pray of God. He should demand knowledge from God.

4. Patience

Patience is another quality of great teachers. Great teachers keep patience in their every work. They do not demand a quick result of their teaching. They do not demand that their students have become experts but they live their life in positive thinking. They take their steps of teaching more patiently. They already know that they have to carry students to 25th floor. But they do not motivate them to jump from 25th floor (*it is common sense, no one jumps on 25th floor from ground floor*). They teach them to climb on first floor by taking 10 to 20 or whatever steps. Patiently, they teach everything.

5. Impartiality

Today, we are seeing everybody is doing partiality with others. For example, I take the example of Govt. employees. Their salaries are Rs. 40,000 to Rs. 50,000. It is very easy for them to buy the fruits of Rs. 200 per kg. But a private person whose salary is just Rs. 4000 to Rs. 5000, how can he buy these fruits. Fruits are very necessary products for both rich and poor. When Govt. employees buy fruits at Rs. 200 per kg, at that time, fruits seller will not decrease the rate for poor person. It is clear that fruits vendor is partiality with poor community on the basis of money.

But teacher is teacher. You have to become a good teacher. Yes, only a good teacher. You will see one student of poor community and one student of rich community. You will see one black student and other will be white. You will see one student of your religion and other student of your anti-religion. But, you have to teach same. You have to see them with your one eye. It will be the quality of good teachers, if they make same standards and measurements for all types of students.

6. Sincerity

You see the Ads on TV Channel. What do you see in TV ads, do you get? No, because, all TV advertisers are cheaters. They give big amount to Film and other celebrities. All these celebrities speak white lies just for earning Rs. 15 to Rs. 20 Crores per 15 second TV Ads. Is it the example of sincerity of social responsible celebrities. But, we all are teachers. We have to bring sincerity quality in our life. I am also teacher. I always take care of this great quality in my personal life also. Because my personal life will effect on my professional teaching life. When I give time to other to meet, I try to reach on this time. If I do not reach on that time. It is not my sincerity. So, I always call to the that person. First of all, I say that I am very sorry, I will not come on the time for meeting with you. But, it give me

power to speak truth.

7. Ability to Teacher Better Way

Teaching is not writing, teaching is not speaking, teaching is not discussing, teaching is not giving punishment, teaching is not explaining, teaching is not taking the exam. Teaching is the big mixture of all these activities by using right activities at right time. You can not get this quality outside. You have to find your ability inside you.

Methods of Professional Growth for Teachers

Teachers must continue to grow in their profession. Thankfully, there are many avenues open for professional growth and development. The purpose of the following list is to give you ideas into ways that you can grow and develop as teachers regardless of your current level of experience.

Books on the Teaching Profession

You will find a quick way to learn new methods for lesson preparation, organization, and effective classroom systems in books. You can read books that provide inspirational and moving stories to help motivate you as you teach as well as tips on surviving and thriving in the profession. Some examples include "The First-Year Teacher's Survival Guide: Ready-To-Use Strategies, Tools & Activities for Meeting the Challenges of Each School Day" by Julia G. Thompson and "The Courage to Teach" by Parker J. Palmer. Websites such as The Best Education Degrees and We Are Teachers offer suggested lists of books that can inspire you and help you improve your craft.

Professional Development Courses

Professional development courses are a great way to find out the latest research in education. Courses on topics like brain research and assessment creation can be very enlightening. Further, subject-specific courses like History Alive! by the Teachers Curriculum Institute provide American history teachers with ideas for lesson enhancements for middle school students. Some of these can be pricey or require a minimum number of participants. You should approach your department head and administration if you hear of a course that would be great to bring to your school district. Alternatively, online professional development courses are on the rise and provide you more flexibility in terms of when you actually do the work.

Additional College Courses

College courses provide teachers with more in-depth information on the topic chosen. Many states provide teachers with incentives for completing additional college courses. For example, in the state of Florida, college courses provide teachers with a means to be recertified, according to the Florida Department of Education. They might also provide you with monetary and tax incentives, so check with your state's Department of Education.

Reading Well-Established Websites and Journals

Established websites provide wonderful ideas and inspiration to teachers. For example, Teachers of Tomorrow, a company that offers a teacher certification program, offers a nice (and free) list of the 50 top websites for teachers. Additionally, professional journals can also help enhance lessons throughout the curriculum.

Visiting Other Classrooms and Schools

If you know of a great teacher at your school, arrange to spend a little time observing them. They don't even have to teach in your subject area. You can pick up different ways to deal with situations and to help with basic housekeeping tasks. Additionally, visiting other schools and seeing how other teachers present their lessons and deal with students can be very enlightening. It's easy to get into a rut and start to believe that there is only one way to teach a given subject. However, seeing how other professionals handle the material can be a real eye-opener.

Joining Professional Organizations

Professional organizations like the National Education Association or the American Federation of Teachers provide members with resources to help them in and out of the classroom. Also, many teachers find associations specific to their subject matter give them a wealth of material to help build and enhance lessons. Some of the organizations aimed toward teachers of specific subjects include:

- National Council of Teachers of English
- National Council for the Social Studies
- National Science Teachers Association
- National Council of Teachers of Mathematics

Attending Teaching Conferences

Local and national teaching conferences occur throughout the year. Examples include The American Association for Teaching & Curriculum annual conference or the Kappa Delta Pi Annual Convocation. See if one is going to be near you and try and attend. Most schools will give you the time off to attend if

you promise to present the information. Some might even pay for your attendance, depending on the budgetary situation. Check with your administration. The individual sessions and keynote speakers can be truly inspirational.

Ghazala Khatoon

LLDIMS

Professional Accounting Software

What is Accounting Software?

Accounting software is a suite of computer applications and programs that automate financial management in the corporate environment and help managers handle their accounting activities. Accounting software systems are designed for freelance accountants and accounting teams, based on which they vary from simple single-entry apps to enterprise-grade, double-entry solutions. The software helps reduce expenses and report accurately on your financial activities, and improves the quality of your accounting decisions.

Related Software Categories

- **Best Accounting Software:** Accounting software reduces accounting expenses and offers precise financial reports that companies can use to make smart financial decisions. Small companies typically use basic off-the-shelf accounting software, while large enterprises customize programs to suit their accounting requirements.
- **Best Accounts Payable Software:** Accounts payable system is a general set of business solutions used to perform accounting and financial processes. Accounting platforms can vary from single-entry systems for bookkeeping or check writing to advanced double-entry applications that offer a general ledger, accounts payable, and accounts receivables.
- **Best Accounts Receivable Software:** Accounts receivable software is a basic group of business systems used to carry out accounting as well as financial functions. Sophisticated solutions offer added functionalities such as invoicing, fixed assets, inventory and more.
- **Best Billing and Invoicing Software:** Billing and invoicing software is designed to help users avoid financial errors and keep the accounting numbers precise. You can use it for tasks such as automating recurring jobs to save time, to get financial calendar notifications to avoid fines, etc.
- **Best Budgeting Software:** Budgeting software is used by enterprises for financial forecasting and planning. The solution helps companies to enhance their financial performance.
- **Best E-Signature Software:** An e-signature is an electronic process of indicating that an individual agrees to terms or contents of an electronic contract or terms of service or as a way to verify the identity of an individual. Digital signatures are used mainly in e-commerce and in regulatory filings because they are very secure.
- **Best ERP Software:** ERP (Enterprise Resource Planning) software helps companies to use integrated solutions to manage their business and automate the back office functions of units such as IT, Services, and HR. The software integrates the operational functions of manufacturing, development, product planning, marketing, and sales.
- **Best Expenses Management Software:** Expense management refers to the software solutions used by a company to process, pay, and audit employee-initiated expenses. These costs include, but are not limited to, expenses incurred for entertainment and travel.

- **Best Financial Reporting Software:** Financial reporting software helps companies automate the collection of financial data and accurately track trends that affect business goals. Financial reports offer business owners greater insights and visibility into the functioning of their business.
- **Best Payroll Software:** Payroll software is offered by HR technology vendors and is also available as part of an ERP package. Payroll software performs tasks such as check printing, generating payslips and tax forms, canceling payments, calculating salary and allowances, withholding deductions, and enabling direct deposits into employees' bank accounts.
- **Best Time Management Software:** Time management software is typically used to speed up billing cycles and the period close procedure. It offers handy timecard and expense entry functionalities that companies can customize for their needs.

How To Choose The Best Accounting Software

Accounting tools are today's most valuable online asset of finance professionals who wish to automate accounting processes in order to cut costs and boost productivity. Choosing the appropriate programs, however, can be a daunting task, because there are many factors that need to be considered in advance. If you want to find out who the leaders in this category are check out our rankings list of **top 10 accounting tools**. Here are some of the basic stuff you need to know about the best accounting software platforms before you start searching:

Get to know each product with free trial

Our accounting software reviews show that the diversity of this type of software is just outstanding, and so are the carefully crafted features specialized for a single or multiple industries. This is exactly why choosing the best accounting software can either push your business to the top or be a costly pick that will complicate your financial operations. In order to overcome the challenge, you need to not only realize **what is accounting software** and its core features, but also compose a check list of basic requirements and expectations, and consider multiple products that can respond to them. We recommend you to either try out some **free accounting software** tools or to go for at least a few free trials or demo for comparison, starting with some of the top accounting software providers that are currently leading the market: **FreshBooks reviews, AppsForOps Expense Claim, Avangate, StockMarketEye, Float, Nichify Apps, W3B Management Solutions, e-SignLive, NetSuite OneWorld, Zoho Invoice, Chargify, Tipalti, Xero, WorkflowMax, KashFlow, Intacct, and AccountEdge.**

Targeted Businesses

- **Routine small business** – your accounting needs are straightforward. These include: general ledger, accounts payable/accounts receivable, fixed assets, and bank reconciliation. In most cases, you only need the basic plan or core accounting with one or two add-ons to your liking. Vendor support is needed, but very rarely, perhaps only during setup. For a more detailed look on this type of solutions check out our list of **accounting software for small business**.
- **Growing business** – you may have the same accounting needs as a small business now, but you'll need more robust features in a few months or years. Look for accounting software with scalable options, that is, you can start with a core accounting module and add more modules later.
- **Large enterprise** – you will need more complex and robust accounting modules. For example, instead of getting a core accounting module with bundled budget & forecast or

fixed asset features, it's recommended to get full but integrated modules. Standalone modules can handle multiple data from different departments and consolidate them to get an overall picture. In many instances, vendors need to quote a price based on the large enterprise's specific processes. If you need some suggestions on this type of tools take a look at our list of **accounting software for enterprises**.

- **Specific industries** – some businesses like engineering and construction firms require features that enable them to break down costing and estimation by project or other categories. Software development companies also need features to match the development phases specific to launching new products. Likewise, nonprofits and fundraising entities need accounting solutions that incorporate reporting requirements specific to them. If your business has a specific need, check for accounting solutions that specialize on your field.

Accounting Software for enterprises

More than SMB assets, accounting software tools are designed for large enterprises in need of robust and complex finance modules that can handle large amount of data. Most of the well-developed accounting & finance systems are built and integrated in accordance with large businesses' requirements, and provide the full ROI and functionality picture, rather than simply forecasting the budget or handling fixed assets. At the same time, accounting software products are designed to blend within every software architecture, eliminating the need to pay for additional functionality. Most of these product are also priced by quote, so that they will give every business exactly what it needs. For a more detailed overview of the category there is also our **top 15 accounting solutions** that you can take a look at to do general comparisons of the different programs.

Examples of Accounting Software

- **FreshBooks:** A smart cloud solution for small businesses that can streamline client invoicing. Its distinctive features are recurring subscriptions and the possibility to collect payment online (via PayPal, for instance).
- **QuickBooks Online:** an ideal accounting software for freelancers and small businesses. This app allows full capabilities to up to five users and limited functionalities to an unlimited number of users.
- **Brightpearl:** A multi-channel retail management system that handles inventory and accounting at a single platform. It is highly recommended because of its strong integrations with major retail platforms (Amazon, eBay, Magento, etc.)
- **Intacct:** A recognized CPA's financial-related applications provider, suitable mostly for growing businesses that require active financial monitoring.
- **QuickBooks Enterprise:** It has an intuitive and easy-to-read interface, which is why it is perfect for non-accountant users. Together with the basic packages, it offers industry-specific solutions.
- **Xero:** An online accounting app for small businesses and individual users which features a collaboration section for group financial activities.
- **Zoho Books:** an intuitive accounting solution designed for small businesses to handle their finances and to remain on top of their cash flow.

Types of Accounting Software

Accounting software can optimize your business in many different ways, depending on who you are or what you're looking for. Sometimes it's better to take a look at the bigger picture first, and define the category you belong to before investing in a product.

- **Payroll Software.** Payroll programs are standard tools for accounting and drafting reports, which work with drag-and-drop capabilities and are usually easy to understand. Their main feature are cash-flow calculators applied by multiple users, and they are far more industry-specific than other accounting products.
- **Enterprise Resource Management Software (ERP).** ERP suites include all the standard reports and financial tools, the same as points of sale, inventory control, billing, purchasing, and customer relationship management. They can also be industry-specific, particularly for sectors such as construction and manufacturing.
- **Freemium Software.** The main difference between this type and the other two types is that accounting features are slightly limited, or require paid subscriptions in order to be accessed. Most of them are on-premise, meaning that you have to use your company data or your financial information to download them.

Key Features of Accounting Software

- **Core accounting** – it's the basic component of all accounting software, so make sure you're getting this module. Features include general ledger, accounts payable, accounts receivable, fixed assets, and bank reconciliation. Most vendors offer this as their basic plan, while a few vendor even give it away as a freemium to get you on board for future paid subscriptions.
- **Billing & Invoicing** – this module can be part of the basic module or as a separate component. It lets you to automate routine collections. Billing & Invoicing can vary by industry based on payment methods, industry standards and practices, and scale of operations.
- **Budget & Forecasting** – often packaged as an add-on, this module lets you estimate next year's budget based on historic data and sales targets. A standalone module can consolidate different departmental budgeting and forecasts for an overall company estimates, while a bundled feature usually only allows a single budget and forecast tool.
- **Fixed asset** – whether as an add-on or bundled with core accounting, fixed asset lets you manage financial information on important company assets. Features include depreciation calculation; audit history; and cost. This module is critical if the business has a lot of assets in different forms. Otherwise, a bundled fixed asset may suffice.
- **Payroll system** – lets you process employee payrolls, print checks, automatically withhold and pay taxes and create legal and tax reports on schedule. The module is often packaged as an add-on or standalone product. A practical feature to look at is an automated reminder when to issue government payments to avoid penalties.
- **Project accounting** – it's usually packaged as a standalone product targeted at businesses with project-oriented operations like construction and software firms. This product is usually bundled with core accounting on top of costing and estimation of overheads, labor, materials, and equipment, among others. Project accounting solutions range from simple systems that can manage projects one at a time, or complex solutions for multiple and simultaneous but interrelated projects.
- **Fund accounting** – targeted at nonprofits and government agencies, which have a separate set of financial reporting requirements. Features include: tracking donation

expenditures; grant management; and Governmental Accounting Standards Board (GASB) regulations.

- **Inventory management**– it's a specific module to manage inventory. The system allows you to manage the movement of products to avoid over or under stocking. It features tools to track orders, sales, and deliveries. More specific inventory systems have a tool to calculate stock depreciation if your business has a low shelf-life product line.

Benefits of Accounting Software

Automating finance and accounting processes is driven by the need to cut costs and to improve productivity, relying on a transparent financial picture to reveal trends and opportunities. These are some of the most important advantages and benefits of accounting software:

- **Improved productivity.** The role of a proper A&F program is to drill deep into your daily routine and to take over complex processes that take hours to complete. What it does is to collect data, organize it, and analyze it for you, automatically meaning that you can focus on more important tasks in the meanwhile.
- **Savings.** It doesn't mean that you have to start all over – A&F products are made to be integrated into your existent financial framework, so you don't have to worry about adjusting them to standards and revenue frameworks. Thinking about it, having an A&F system that will integrate multiple data operations in one platform is more cost-effective than running multiple systems and transferring data manually.
- **Resource Transparency.** The magic of A&F systems is that they make finance management easy, and are usually packed with explanations and simple interfaces for non-accountant users. For you, this would mean that you don't have to train staff to use them, and that everybody in the company will be familiar with your financial capacity even without explaining.
- **Automatic Production of Documents.** Together with the fact that it wraps data into comprehensive views, an A&F system can also generate reports based on it. Invoices and credit notes will be produced automatically, and the risk of human error will be completely eliminated.
- **Smarter Strategies.** Remember that your intention is not only to have bills clean at the end of the month, but to use your current financial state to develop smarter strategies for the future. A&F systems will enable you to forecast possible scenarios and to follow trends, because they are fast enough to meet the needs of the growing financial markets.

Latest Trends

Nobody knows what the future will bring, but that's not a reason to be fraught by close misses and half-truths. Therefore, we can't expect a huge outbreak in the case of Accounting Software, but rather an extension of what has been happening so far:

- **Cloud storage will become the only storage.** Yes, local storage is on its way out, and it doesn't take to be a fortune teller to predict it. That's the only way mobile technology will make sense for people to access their files on the go, being sure at the same time that they are protected.
- **Smart scanning for less data.** That's where innovation becomes visible. The introduction of Optical Character Recognition will enable us to transform printed materials into digital data in minimal time, meaning that accountants can forget about manual checks.

Potential Issues

- **General vs. industry-specific accounting** – An accounting software designed for your industry outperforms a general accounting solution. But consider other factors like vendor support, integration, and scalability to ensure the industry-specific software is truly superior.
- **Cross-process integration** – other business processes like CRM, sales software, and project management solutions often work best when integrated with your financials. A reliable accounting software should not be capable of integrating to its own modules, but also across other processes. If the accounting software can export data to standard file formats like CSV, TXT, or PDF, it's likely compatible with other business solutions.
- **Scalability** – even if you're a small business, give scalability a serious look. You can never tell if your business needs to expand, along with your financial needs. At the least, the accounting software should let you export data in case you need to get a more robust solution in the future.

Use of Spreadsheets in Accounting

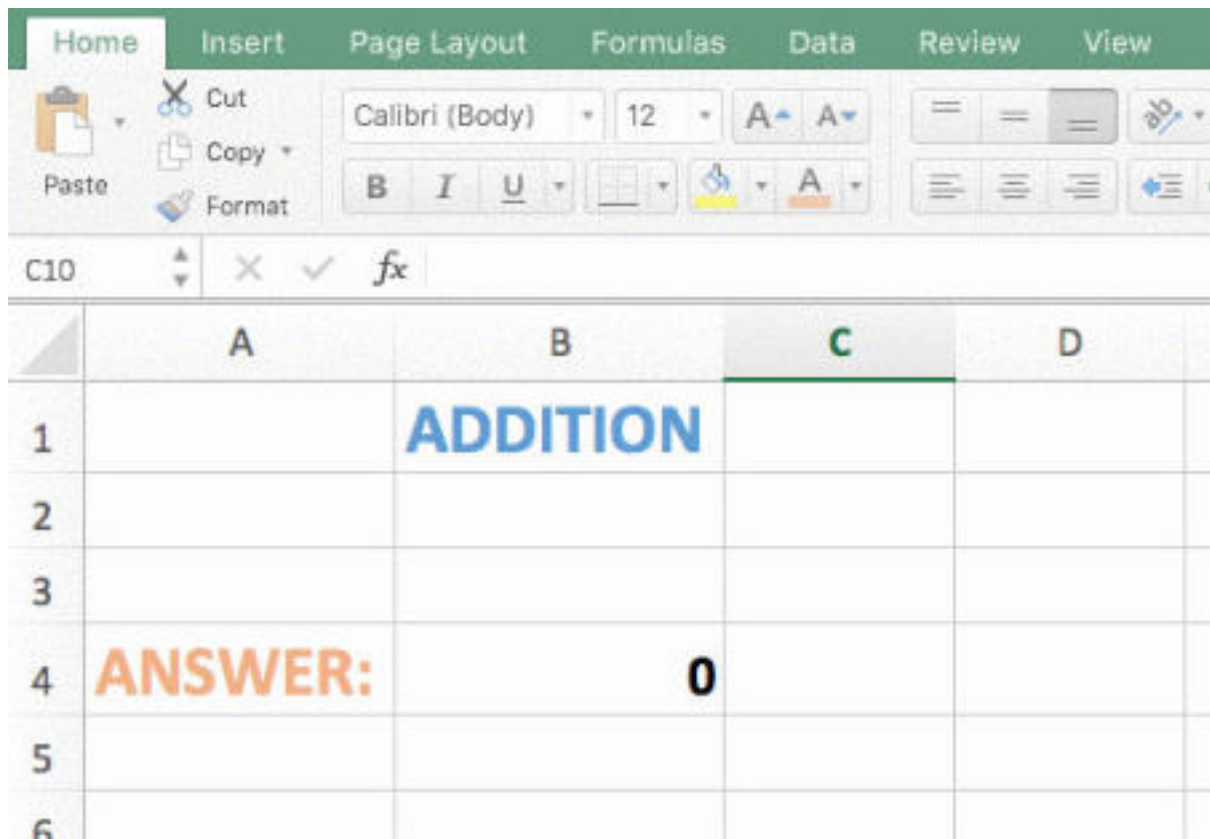
A **spreadsheet** is a computer application for organization, analysis and storage of data in tabular form. Spreadsheets were developed as computerized analogs of paper accounting worksheets. The program operates on data entered in cells of a table. Each cell may contain either numeric or text data, or the results of formulas that automatically calculate and display a value based on the contents of other cells. A spreadsheet may also refer to one such electronic document.

Spreadsheet users can adjust any stored value and observe the effects on calculated values. This makes the spreadsheet useful for "what-if" analysis since many cases can be rapidly investigated without manual recalculation. Modern spreadsheet *software can have multiple interacting sheets*, and can display data either as text and numerals, or in graphical form.

Besides performing basic arithmetic and mathematical functions, modern spreadsheets provide built-in functions for common financial and statistical operations. Such calculations as net present value or standard deviation can be applied to tabular data with a pre-programmed function in a formula. Spreadsheet programs also provide conditional expressions, functions to convert between text and numbers, and functions that operate on strings of text.

Spreadsheets have replaced paper-based systems throughout the business world. Although they were first developed for accounting or bookkeeping tasks, they now are used extensively in any context where tabular lists are built, sorted, and shared.

1. Calculating



Find yourself running the same calculations over and over again? Build yourself a totally customized calculator in Excel by programming your commonly-used formulas. That way, you just need to punch in your digits and Excel will spit the answer out for you—no elbow grease required.

2. Accounting

Budget plans, forecasts, expense tracking, financial reports, loan calculators, and more. Excel was pretty much designed to meet these different accounting needs. And, considering that 89 percent of companies utilize Excel for its various accounting functions, it obviously fits the bill.

Excel even has numerous different spreadsheet templates to make all of those processes that much easier.

ANNUAL FINANCIAL REPORT

2017

COMPANY XYZ

Select the financial report year to display.

KEY METRICS



Select the metrics for your report or the Key Metric Settings worksheet.

ALL METRICS

Metric	This Year (2017)	Last Year (2016)	% Change	5 Year Trend
Revenue	\$180,584.00	\$180,584.00	0%	
Operating Expenses	\$94,414.46	\$80,801.71	17%	
Operating Profit	\$73,428.00	\$77,317.04	-5%	
Depreciation	\$5,546.00	\$5,058.40	9%	
Interest	\$3,788.47	\$3,358.30	14%	
Net Profit	\$67,474.88	\$66,272.10	2%	
Tax	\$51,408.28	\$25,424.50	78%	
Profit After Tax	\$16,066.60	\$40,448.70	159%	
Metric 1	\$14.56	\$15.78	10%	
Metric 2	\$25.00	\$21.04	19%	
Metric 3	\$31.08	\$28.40	10%	
Metric 4	\$14.82	\$14.58	2%	
Metric 5	\$1.04	\$1.00	3%	
Metric 6	\$0.34	\$0.31	13%	

Financial Report | Financial Data Input | Key Metric Settings | +

3. Charting

Pie charts, scatter charts, line charts, bar charts, area charts, column charts—the list goes on and on. If you need to find a way to represent data in a more visual and digestible way, Excel’s ability to transform rows and columns of digits into beautiful charts is sure to become one of your favorite things about it.

Want more information about the types of charts you can create in Excel? This article is a helpful resource.

Budget

% of Income Spent Summary



Total Monthly Income

\$3,750

Total Monthly Expenses

\$2,058

Total Monthly Savings

\$550

Cash Balance

\$1,142

4. Inventory tracking

Tracking inventory can be a headache. Fortunately, Excel can help to keep employees, business owners, or even individuals organized and on top of their inventory—before any major problems crop up.

Personal Inventory		
Name [Name]	Insurance Company [Company]	Agent Address [Address]
Address [Address]	Agent [Name]	Agent Phone [Phone/Fax]
Phone [Phone]	Company Phone [Phone]	Agent Email [Email]
Email [Email]	Policy Number [Policy]	

Item Description	▼ Category	▼ Serial Number	▼ Value	▼
[Item]	[Category]	[Serial #]	[Value]	
[Item]	[Category]	[Serial #]	[Value]	
[Item]	[Category]	[Serial #]	[Value]	
[Item]	[Category]	[Serial #]	[Value]	
[Item]	[Category]	[Serial #]	[Value]	
[Item]	[Category]	[Serial #]	[Value]	
[Item]	[Category]	[Serial #]	[Value]	
[Item]	[Category]	[Serial #]	[Value]	
Total			\$0.00	

Making a plan

Let’s move on from the numbers—there are plenty of things that Excel can help you plan and organize that don’t necessarily involve endless rows of digits.

5. Calendars and schedules

Need to map out a content calendar for your blog or website? Lesson plans for your classroom? A PTO schedule for you and all of your co-workers? A daily schedule for you or your family? When it comes to various calendars, Excel can be surprisingly robust.

Daily Schedule

Week: [Date]

Start Time: 5:00 AM

	Mon	Tue	Wed	Thu	Fri	Sat	Sun
5:00 AM		Go to gym					
5:30 AM							
6:00 AM							
6:30 AM							
7:00 AM							
7:30 AM							
8:00 AM							
8:30 AM							
9:00 AM							

6. Seating charts

From a large corporate luncheon to a wedding, arranging a seating chart can be a royal headache. Fortunately, Excel can make it a total breeze. If you're a real whiz, you'll be able to automatically create your seating chart using your spreadsheet of RSVPs. Need help getting this done? This article provides a detailed walkthrough of how you can create a seating chart in Excel.

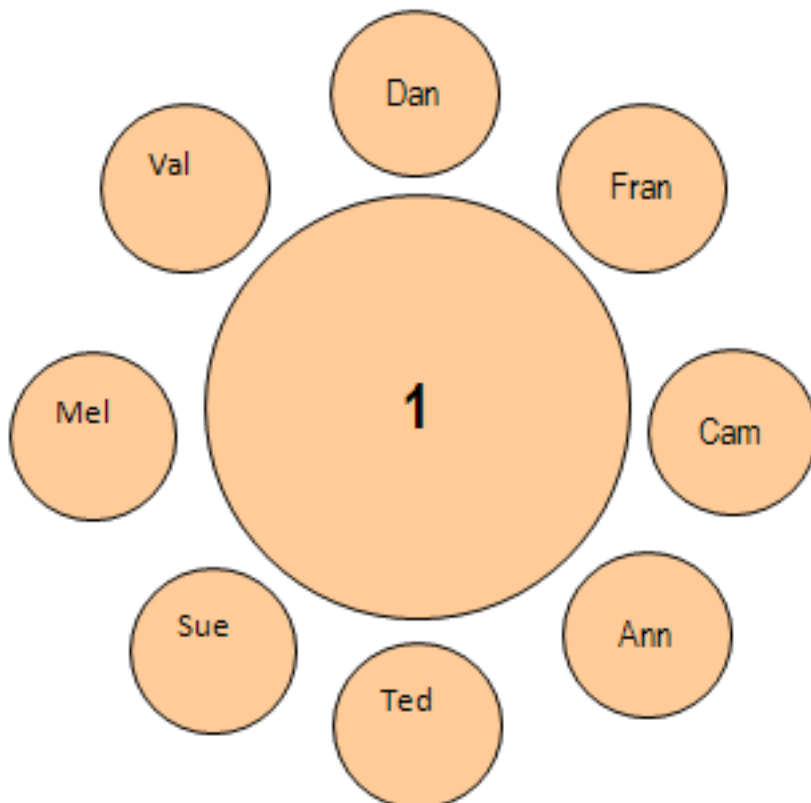


Image source

7. Goal planning worksheet

From professional goals to fitness goals to financial goals, it helps to have something to keep you focused and on track. Enter the beauty of Excel. Using the tool, you can create various worksheets, logs, and planning documents to help you monitor your progress—and, hopefully, cross the finish line.

Task	Times/Week	S	M	T	W	T	F	S	Complete
Go for a run	2	✓		✓					Yay!
Don't Leave Dirty Dishes Overnight	2	✓			✓		✓		Yay!
Eat 1 Fruit or Vegetable	3	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	Yay!
Floss	3	✓		✓			✓	✓	Yay!
8-3-2014									
Task	Times/Week	S	M	T	W	T	F	S	Complete
Go for a run	2								0 of 2
Don't Leave Dirty Dishes Overnight	3								0 of 3
Eat 1 Fruit or Vegetable	3								0 of 3
Floss	3								0 of 3
8-10-2014									
Task	Times/Week	S	M	T	W	T	F	S	Complete
Go for a run	3								0 of 3
Don't Leave Dirty Dishes Overnight	3								0 of 3
Eat 1 Fruit or Vegetable	4								0 of 4
Floss	4								0 of 4
8-17-2014									
Task	Times/Week	S	M	T	W	T	F	S	Complete
Go for a run	3								0 of 3
Don't Leave Dirty Dishes Overnight	3								0 of 3
Eat 1 Fruit or Vegetable	5								0 of 5
Floss	4								0 of 4

8. Mock-ups

Excel might not be the first platform you think of when it comes to design. But, believe it or not, you can use the tool to put together various mock-ups and prototypes. In fact, it's a surprisingly popular choice for creating website wireframes and dashboards.

Getting stuff done

Want to kick your productivity into high gear? Well, Excel can swoop in and save the day with a variety of uses that can help you tackle your tasks and to-dos with ease and organization.

9. Task list

Say goodbye to your standard pen and paper to-do list. With Excel, you can make a far more robust task list—and even track your progress on those larger to-dos that are currently on your plate.

TASK LIST					
MY TASKS	START DATE	DUE DATE	% COMPLETE	DOES	NOTES
[Task]	[Date]	[Date]	0%		
[Task]	[Date]	[Date]	50%		
[Task]	[Date]	[Date]	100%		

10. Checklist

Similarly, you can create a simple checklist that allows you to tick off the things you've purchased or accomplished—from a grocery list to a roster of to-dos for an upcoming marketing campaign.

PURCHASED?	GROCERIES:	
<input type="checkbox"/>	Apples	
<input type="checkbox"/>	Tomatoes	
<input type="checkbox"/>	Milk	
<input type="checkbox"/>	Eggs	
<input type="checkbox"/>	Cheese	
<input type="checkbox"/>	Bread	

11. Project management charts

We've already touched on the fact that Excel is a total beast when it comes to creating charts. And, this concept holds true when it comes to various charts for project management.

From waterfall charts to manage your team's progress to kanban style boards (just like Trello!) to keep things organized, there are tons of ways that Excel can help keep your project on track.

Kanban Board								Sprint Start Date	Days	Progress		
Type	Who	Feature or Activity	Reason	Priority	Pos	Est	Details					
Backlog												
Research	All	Add ideas to the backlog	The backlog is where you store the to-do list that you might work on later.	Low	>		Some ideas may not lead to deliverables, but they may need to be allocated to upcoming sprints.					
Feature	Rob	Be specific	User Story: As a (Role) I want (Feature) so that (Value)	High	6							
Content		Articles, White Papers, Documentations		Medium	3		We use the Content type for writing blog posts, preparing marketing materials, and general content.					
A Hide backlog items above this row												
To Do								6.5	0.0			
Update	Tom	Customize Headings and Card Types	Fill the legend in the Type column as needed.	Low	6.5		Look at the conditional formatting rules to see how the color-coding works.					
Task	All	Move Backlog cards here	To do: Write what you are going to work on during the sprint.		3							
In Progress								0.0	0.0			
Update	All	Move cards between lanes to track completion	Google Sheets: select the row and drag it into the next column.									
Test / Verify								0.0	0.0			
Update	All	Test and Refine	Take it to its completion, don't be afraid to accept it if it's working.				Make sure that challenges are worth trying to overcome, so that you don't waste time on useless stuff.					
Done								5	0			
Task	All	Congratulations	Nothing small in Gantt deserves a high level of praise.	High	5							

12. Time logs

You know that tracking time can be a huge asset to you and your productivity. While there are plenty of fancy apps and tools to help meet that need, you can think of Excel as the original tool for logging your time. And, it still serves as a suitable option today.

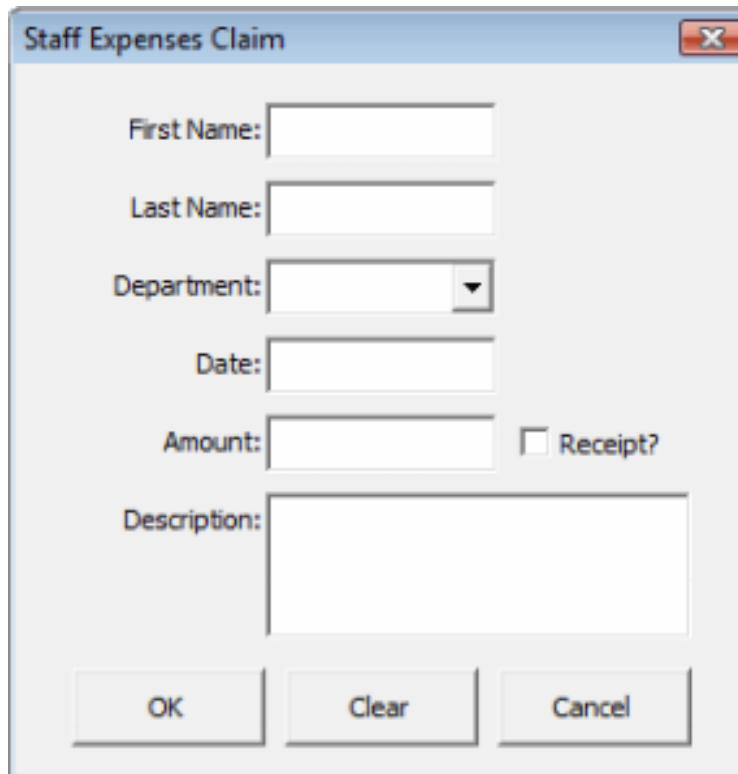
Time Sheet						
[Employee name] [Email] [Phone]						
Manager [Manager name]						
Period [Start date] - [End date]						
Standard Work						
Week	Hours Worked	Regular Hours	Overtime Hours			
40.00	0.00	0.00	0.00			
Date(s)	Time In	Lunch Start	Lunch End	Time Out	Hours Worked	
[Date]	[Time In]	[Lunch Start]	[Lunch End]	[Time Out]	0.00	
[Date]	[Time In]	[Lunch Start]	[Lunch End]	[Time Out]	0.00	
[Date]	[Time In]	[Lunch Start]	[Lunch End]	[Time Out]	0.00	
[Date]	[Time In]	[Lunch Start]	[Lunch End]	[Time Out]	0.00	
[Date]	[Time In]	[Lunch Start]	[Lunch End]	[Time Out]	0.00	

Involving other people

Need to collect information from other people? Survey tools and forms are one option. But, rest assured, you can also create your own in Excel.

13. Forms

From simple to complicated, Excel is a great option for creating forms. You can even program various drop-down menus so that users can select their choice from a pre-set list.

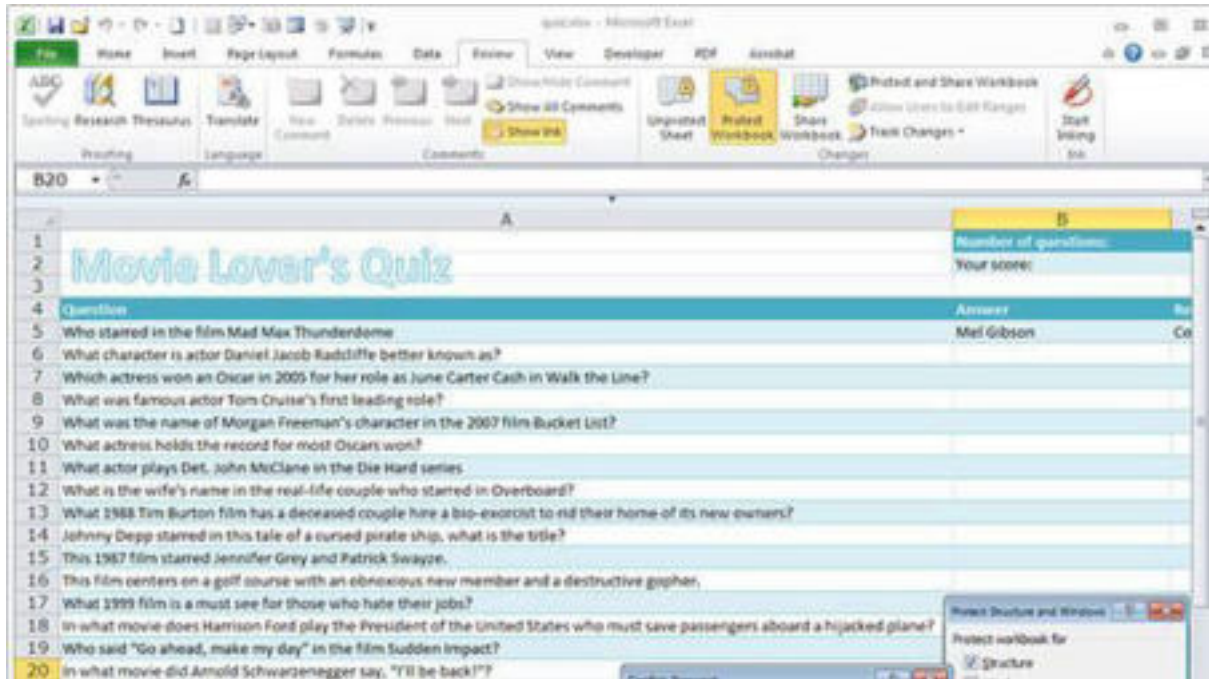


The image shows a screenshot of an Excel form titled "Staff Expenses Claim". The form contains the following fields and controls:

- First Name: [Text Input Field]
- Last Name: [Text Input Field]
- Department: [Dropdown Menu]
- Date: [Text Input Field]
- Amount: [Text Input Field] Receipt?
- Description: [Text Area]
- Buttons: OK, Clear, Cancel

14. Quizzes

Trying to test somebody else's—or even your own—knowledge of a subject? In Excel, you can create a bank of questions and answers in one worksheet, and then instruct Excel to quiz you in another.



Staying in touch

Managing relationships is crucial to your success both professionally and personally. Fortunately, Excel makes it easy to keep in touch.

15. CRM

Need a lightweight CRM to stay top of mind for your customers? You can make one in Excel. And, the best part? Building your own means it will be totally customizable. Sales Hacker also put together a nifty set of free sales excel templates you can use to help get started!

CRM Template

[Your Name]

Name	Company	Work Function	Phone	Email	Estimated Sale	Last Contact	Next Action	Next Contact	Last Sale	Last Year's	Notes
Jamison, Bill	XYZ Publishing	Owner	444-555-6666	bill@xyz.com	\$ 45,000	1/15/12		1/20/12	Sold	Referral	
Anderson, Jane	ABC Corp	Sales Manager	777-400-7890	jane@abc.com	\$ 10,000	4/15/12		3/1/12	Warm	Website	
Smithers, Joe	ACME	Business Dev.	111-222-3333	joe@acme.com	\$ 4,500	1/15/12		1/15/12	As Live	Email	Learn about other

Insert new rows above the grey line

16. Mailing list

Data doesn't just have to involve numbers. Excel is also great at managing and sorting large amounts of names and addresses—making it the perfect solution for your invite list for that company holiday party or the mailing list for that large promotion or campaign.

	A	B	C	D	E	F
1	FIRST NAME	LAST NAME	ADDRESS	CITY	STATE	ZIP CODE
2	Oprah	Winfrey	123 Magnificent Mile Ave.	Chicago	IL	58922
3	Mister	Rodgers	8935 Beautiful Day Rd.	New York	NY	23935
4	Hulk	Hogan	9284 Hollywood Blvd.	Los Angeles	CA	39825

Using Excel, you can also mail merge—which makes it that much easier to print address labels and other necessary materials.

You can also apply a similar concept to create things like directories, RSVP lists, and other rosters that involve a large amount of information about people.

Excel doesn't need to be all work and no play. There are plenty of other fun things you can create using the spreadsheet tool.

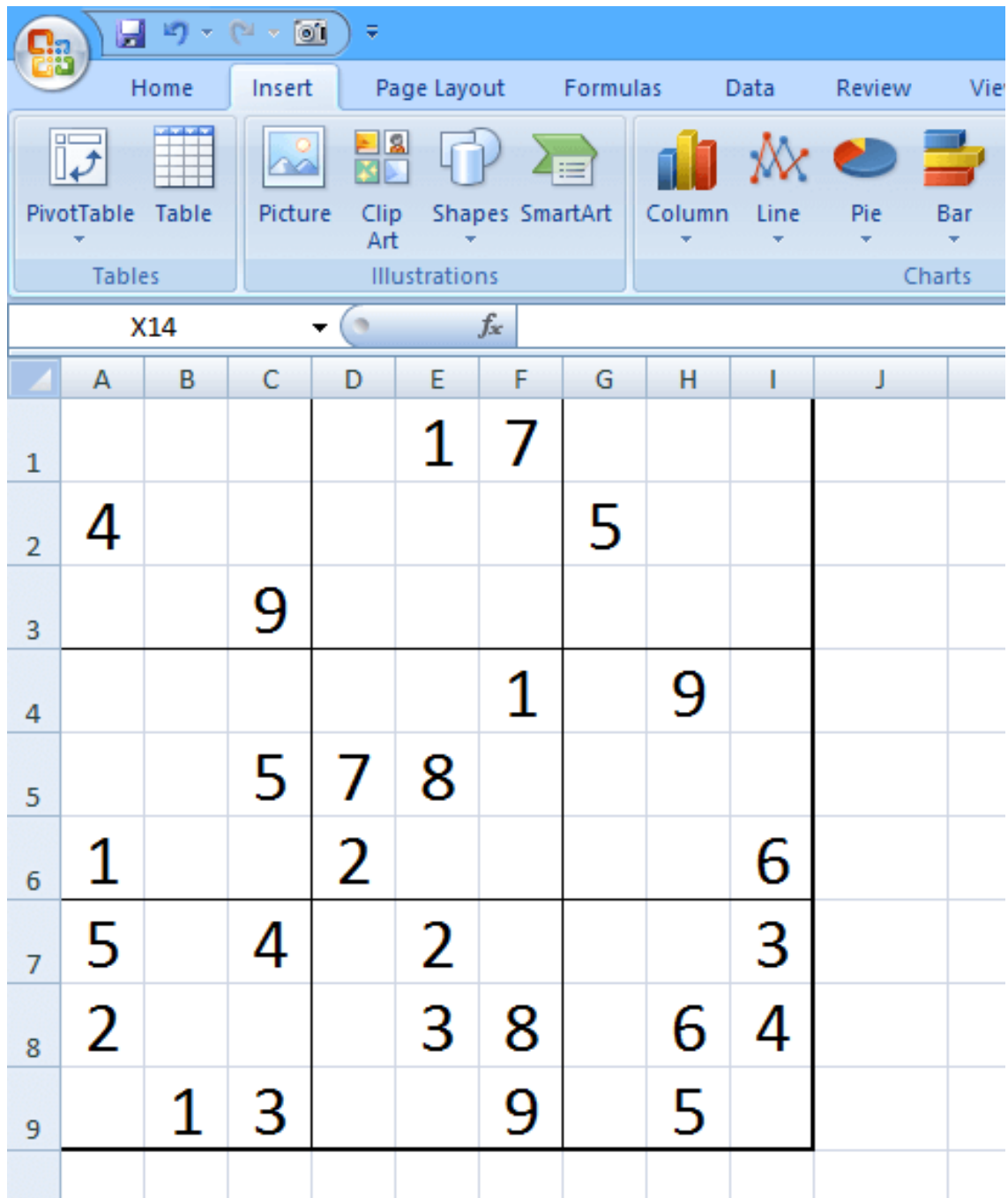
17. Historical logs

Whether you want to keep track of the various craft beers you've tasted, the workouts you've completed, or something else entirely, you can think of Excel as your go-to resource for keeping those things sorted and logged.

Workout Log							
Stats							
Average Duration (minutes)				Average Calories			
35				402			
Average Distance (mile/km)				Average Weight			
2.75				131			
Average Price (per hour)							
4.88							
Workouts							
DATE	ACTIVITY	DURATION (minutes)	DISTANCE (miles/km)	PACE (per hour)	CALORIES	WEIGHT	NOTES
8/18/17	Cross Trainer	40	2.50	1.75	390	130	[Notes]
8/20/17	Treadmill	80	3.00	4.00	420	160	[Notes]

18. Sudoku puzzles

Love Sudoku puzzles? As it turns out, you can make your own in Excel. Or, if you find yourself stuck on a particularly challenging one, you can enlist the help of Excel to help you get it figured out!



19. Word cloud

Word clouds might not be the most scientific representations of data. But, they're a fun (not to mention beautiful way) to gain an understanding of what words are being utilized most. You guessed it—you can create one using Excel. Here's how to use information from Excel to create a word cloud in Wordle.



20. Art and animations

The capabilities of Excel likely extend far beyond what you'd initially anticipate. In fact, many people have used the tool to create some downright awesome art—from pixelated portraits to animations.

21. Trip planner

Have a vacation coming up? Make sure you have everything covered by creating yourself a helpful itinerary before you pack your bags and head out. Excel even has a handy trip planner template you can use to make sure you don't miss anything (from your budget to airline information!).

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
1							
2	My Trip						
3	TRAVEL						
4	Depart						
5	Date	Time	Airline	Flight Number	From	To	
6	8/31/17	1:30 PM	Airline	1234	Seattle	San Francisco	
7	[Date]	[Time]	[Airline]	[Number]	[City]	[City]	
8	Return						
9	Date	Time	Airline	Flight Number	From	To	
10	9/7/17	10:00 AM	Airline	2468	Los Angeles	San Francisco	
11	[Date]	[Time]	[Airline]	[Number]	[City]	[City]	
12							
13	TRAVEL LOGGING ACTIVITIES BUDGET +						

Over to you

This might seem like a lengthy list. But, rest assured, it barely scratches the surface of all of the different things—aside from simple spreadsheets—that Excel is capable of. From lists to charts to design mock-ups, the different uses of Excel are seemingly limitless.

What are the perspectives of inclusive education?

Inclusive education (IE) is a new approach towards educating the children with and without disability under the same roof. It requires to take care of learning needs of all children with a specific focus on those who are vulnerable to marginalization and exclusion. Who introduced inclusive education in India?

The Government launched the Integrated Education for Disabled Children (IEDC) scheme in December 1974. It was a Centrally Sponsored Scheme aimed to provide educational opportunities to children with special needs (CWSN) in regular schools and to facilitate their achievement and retention. Which was the first inclusive school in India?

With its holistic approach of rehabilitation, the Amar Jyoti Charitable Trust (AJCT), Delhi was among the first institutions in India to launch integrated and inclusive education in 1981. The school started under a tree with a multidisciplinary approach for the wholesome development of children. What are the 7 domains of pedagogy?

What are the Domains of PPST? These are the seven Domains of PPST: (1) Content Knowledge and Pedagogy; (2) Learning Environment; (3) Diversity of Learners; (4) Curriculum and Planning; (5) Assessment and Reporting; (6) Community Linkages and Professional Engagement; and (7) Personal Growth and Professional Development.