## SEM.-4

### Name of the Course – **Course9 – Section 2**
### Subject : **Language Across Curriculum**

Total credits : 2
Total Hours : 30 hrs.(36 lectures of 50 min. duration)
Total Marks : 50 (Internal = 15 marks, External = 35 marks)

Course Objectives:-
1. To develop appreciation for the significance of language across curriculum
2. To develop understanding of language diversity in the Indian context
3. To understand the different theories of language acquisition and language deficit
4. To understand the critical importance of oral language and questioning and its impact on student learning
5. To understand various genre of texts available in different content areas.
6. To develop competencies in fostering reading and writing skills among school children
7. To develop appreciation for the critical role of the teacher in transacting language across curriculum

Module 1 – Language Diversity in the classroom
Unit 1 – Multilingualism and its implications in the Indian classroom/context
Topics:
a) Multilingualism in the Indian Context
b) Developing socio-linguistics awareness in the Indian classroom
c) Critiquing state policies on language and education

Tasks & Assignments: (choose any one from the following assignment given below)
1. Rewrite a unit from a prescribed text book in the form of a dialogue appropriate for a multilingual class in the target language        OR
2. Construct a glossary of content words in the target language using workers/children illustrations                              OR
3. Document educational testimonies of family members/migrant workers/children who are linguistically disadvantaged

Unit 2 – Theories that explain language acquisition:-
Topics:
a) The Continuity and Discontinuity theory of Language acquisition
b) Environmental and Biological-Skinner's & Chomsky's theories on language acquisition
c) The Deficit theory (Ellis)

Tasks & Assignments: (choose any one from the following assignment given below)
1. Write an argumentative essay of not more than 1000-1500 words supporting any one school of thought on language acquisition

2. Make a comparative chart on the different language acquisition theories.  Compare the theories on significant parameters
3. Visit a school or an NGO that caters to the economically and socially disadvantages children and write a 1000 words description of the teacher's challenges to teach language to the class and your reflections on the same

Module 2 : Transacting language across Disciplines/Curriculum
Unit 3 – Classroom talk matters

Topics:
a) Importance of oral language in the classroom
   - The significant role of Discourse and structure in the classroom (Chang)
b) Engaging learners in language learning – Importance of Questioning & types of questioning and Discussion based learning
c) Teacher's role in promoting language across the curriculum

Tasks & Assignments: (choose any one from the following assignment given below)
1. Prepare a lesson plan in a school of your choice incorporating the different types of questions
2. Conduct an interview of minimum three teachers in school to understand how they promote oral language in their classes and submit a short report
3. Write an essay on Discourse process mechanism

Unit 4 : Reading and writing across content areas:-
Topics:
a) Identifying Nature of texts and Language structures – Expository vs Narrative, Transactional vs Reflective language schema, text structures
b) Techniques to enhance Reading Comprehension (Scanning, Skimming, Columnar Reading and Key word reading)
c) To develop different types of writing skills

Tasks & Assignments: (choose any one from the following assignment given below)
1. Write a short note on different types of texts (Technical, Persuasive & Policy document)
2. Write a lesson plan using any two strategies of Reading comprehension
3. Take a story/poem and rewrite in the other form

References:-
1. Agnihotri R., *Multilingualism and the teaching of English in India*.  ERL Journal 1:1 The English and the foreign  Languages University, 2010
2. Agnihotri R.K. & Khanna A.L. *English language teaching in India: issues and innovations*.  New Delhi, India: Sage, 1995
3. Dalgish, C. *Promoting Effective Learning in a Multicultural Classroom*.  EDINEB Mexico, June 2002

4.  Fillion, Bryant. "*Language across the curriculum: Examining the place of language in our schools*". McGill Journal of Education/Revue des sciences de l'education de McGill 14.001 (1979)

5.  Helot. C & O Loaire, *Language policy and practice in a Multilingual Classroom. Pedagogy of the possible*, 2011

6.  Kenner, Chairman, *Becoming billiterate : young children learning different writing systems*. Stoke on Trent, UK; Sterling, VA: Trentham Books, 2010

7.  Krashen S.D., *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition University of Southern Callifornia* Pergamon Press Inc. First internet edition July 2009

8.  *Language teaching and learning in multilingual classrooms* (2015) Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union

9.  *Language and Language Teaching* Volume 1 Number 1 January 2012, Azim Premji Univ.

10. Position Paper National Focus Group on *Teaching of language in India*, NCERT Publications, 2006

11. Tokuhama-Espinosa, Tracey, *Living languages: multilingualism across the lifespan*. Westport, Conn.: Praeger, 2008

12. Vollmer, Helmut Johannes. "*Language across the curriculum*". (2006)

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## Course9 – Section 2

# Language Across the Curriculum

# Unit 1:   Multilingualism and its Implications

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Dr . S. Deka

Module 1 – Language Diversity in the classroom
Unit 1 – Multilingualism and its implications in the Indian classroom/context
Topics:
   a)  Multilingualism in the Indian Context
   b)  Developing socio-linguistics awareness in the Indian classroom
   c)  Critiquing state policies on language and education

# Unit 1 ( a ) Multilingualism in the Indian Context

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**Introduction**

Multilingualism:

 In the present world there are around 6000 languages grouped under various language families spoken in 200 states. The existence of all these languages side by side resulted in multilingualism. Knowing two or more than two languages became the need for communication among speech communities as well as individuals. „Multilingualism‟ can be defined as an occurrence regarding an individual speaker who uses two or more languages, a community of speakers where two or more languages are used, or between speakers of two languages. Multilingualism basically arises due to the need to communicate across speech communities. Multilingualism is not a rare but a normal necessity across the world due to globalization and wider cultural communication. Also it is not a recent phenomenon; it was prevalent in the ancient time also. This need further resulted in lingua francas, pidgins and phenomenon like code switching.

These are the products of multilingualism. Multilingualism has various advantages:

a) Accessibility to knowledge of other cultures;

b) Communication between different linguistic and cultural groups become easier;

c) Increases job opportunities;

d) High cognitive development of a child;

e) A broader world view, etc.

http://shodhganga.inflibnet.ac.in/bitstream/10603/11248/9/09_chapter%202.pdf

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# Meaning of Multilingualism:

**The use of two or more languages, either by an individual speaker or by a community of speakers.**

According to Srivastava (1986:47) Capacity of switching codes provides an individual with a remarkable capacity and skill to adjust to different conditions she is exposed to. It makes her attitudes flexible, which leads to an awareness of the presence of diversity in and around her environment, and not only that, she has skills to deal with such situations.

**Multilingualism** can also be **defined** on the basis of maximal competence and minimal competence.

The **maximal** definition means speakers are as competent and proficient in one language as they are in others, i.e. equally competent in all the languages.

The **minimal** definition on the other hand is based on use, i.e. he/she is successful enough in achieving the goals of effective communication in a particular domain. According to Cook multilingual speakers mostly lie somewhere between the continuum of maximal and minimal definition, whom he called multicompetent. (Wikipedia, retrieved on 01/07/10).

So the criterion of defining a multilingual speaker is not an easy task. Defining a multilingual speaker on the yardstick of monolingual speaker competence level will not be justified. According to Edward (1994) a perfectly balanced bilingual or multilingual is an exception. The linguistic repertoire of a multilingual is much more than that of a monolingual. So the multilingual speaker will have more defined distribution of functions and uses for the languages he know. The instances of monolingualism are rare which can be justified by looking into the communicative pattern of people. The need to become a multilingual arises due to various communicative functions: in-group communication, out-group communication and specialized communication (Mansour, 1993:20).

People of same ethnic group usually communicate in one language and the fact is that no speech community lives in isolation. Speech communities or individuals are in regular contact with other group members which brings the need of out-group communication. In the process of out-group communication an individual switches from one language or variety to the other. Thus shows his/her competence/knowledge of two languages or varieties. Specialized communication covers domains like religion, education, technology, etc, which sometimes arises the need of knowing a language other than his native language. Other reasons for multilingualism can be:

 a) Migration or labor mobility.
 b) Cultural contact
c) Annexation and colonialism
 d) Commercial
e) Scientific
f) Technological
g) Territorial conquest, etc.

There are various descriptions of many different cases of multilingualism. Different typologies of multilingualism has been given by Kloss 1966a; Stewart 1972; Ferguson 1966. The varying type of multilingualism can be of individual, institutional or as societal multilingualism, as diglossia or dialect or as natural or artificial multilingualism. The term bilingualism and multilingualism are often used interchangeably. Haugen (1956:9) refers to multilingualism as „a kind of multiple bilingualism". Also Herdina and Jessner (2000) look at bilingualism as "only possible form of multilingualism." (Dua, 2008:152). Whatever may be the type of multilingualism, it is never an exception because the majority of the worlds" population is multilingual. In a plurilingual interaction no single language can cater to all the needs of the participant. So for India where linguistic diversity is a fact, multilingualism is a norm, there is no place for monolingualism.

Attitude towards Multilingualism:

Multilingualism has not been always evaluated in terms of its advantages. So attitude towards multilingualism occupies two ends of the continuum. One end of the continuum reflects negative attitude while the other end shows positive attitude. Hence, for some, multilingualism is a nuisance as its acquisition is considered a load and for some it is an asset, as there is no restriction in the choice of languages. In the dominant monolingual countries two languages are considered a nuisance, three languages as uneconomic and many languages as absurd. This view can be seen in Fishman"s writing „linguistically homogeneous polities are usually economically more developed, educationally more advanced, politically more modernized and ideologically-politically more tranquil and stable. They more frequently reveal orderly, libertarian and secular form of interest, articulation and aggregation, greater division of governmental powers, and less attraction towards personalismo and charisma." (xvi, Pattanayak, 1981). Thus multilingualism is considered a hindrance or obstacle in the way of development. This was generally the view of westerns" and largely associated with this view is the notion of one language-one nation.

Dua (2001:186) criticized this view of westerns by stating:

The denunciation of language diversity in multilingual societies from the point of view of development, communication and mordernisation is based on the myth of monolingualism fostered by the western tradition. It is reductionist in analysis and misrepresents the crucial issues pertaining to the multilingual and multicultural ethos of plural societies.

There are others who look at multilingualism as a "resource" for linguistic, social and cognitive development. Like Dua(2008) who says "as a reality it must be cultivated as a resource for enriching the human mind, development of languages, societies and cultures. (Hasnain, 2008). Multilingualism is not an aberration, rather a normal phenomenon for the majority of the nations in the world today. According to Pattanayak (1984), in multilingual countries many languages are facts of life; any restriction in the choice of language use is a nuisance, and one language is not only uneconomical, it is absurd (cited by Srivastava 1990:40). Among elites multilingualism has always been a marker of high status and thus drawn social boundary. "Roger Bacon (1212-94), the thirteenthcentury English Francisian known as

„Doctor Mirabilis", wrote in his Opus tertium that notitia linguarum est prima porta sapientiae (knowledge of languages is the doorway to wisdom)" (Edward, 1994:4). But multilingualism among the elites is not natural rather acquired. Several studies have convincingly demonstrated that bi/multilingual children can perform better than monolingual. One of them is Werner Leopold who observed this phenomenon. Indian writers have to ensure that the "ambiance of languages" in which they live does not become a curse but a blessing, said Sahitya Akedemi President… By "ambiance of language"

he meant that no Indian had one single language. "We speak one language at home, one language of the street, another of the province, besides the language of communication. Even while speaking, we are always translating from one language to another," he said. (Baldridge, 1996). Indian scholars have shown that bilingualism is a natural state of language behavior involved in a social group"s interaction (Srivastava), particularly in India, which is basically multilingual and pluri-cultural. Also Khubchandani (1978) and Pattanayak (1981) gave arguments in favor of multilingualism stating that there is no gap in communication in spite of linguistic diversity. Pattanayak (1981:44) claims:

If one draws a straight line between Kashmir and Kanyakumari and marks, say, every five or ten miles, then one will find that there is no break in communication between any two consecutive points. Communication only breaks at extreme points of the scale.

So it is hard to deny that multilingualism is an asset and is not a barrier in the development of a nation like India. It is this fact which makes Indian multilingualism unique.

Types of Multilingualism:

Multilingualism can be categorized into different types. There are various criteria and situations, which governs the classification of multilingualism. There are certain questions which need to be answered before establishing the types. In simple term a person who knows two or more than two languages at a time is known as multilingual. But what does knowing of two or more languages mean. A person who can understand more than one language, will he be considered multilingual? A person who can read more than one language but is unable to understand them, will that be considered a multilingual? For being a multilingual is it necessary to have command on all the four skill of language, i.e., listening, reading, writing and speaking. If yes, then he should have native like command on all the languages he knows. But that sounds too vague. Multilingualism serves the necessity of effective communication and for that it is not necessary to have competence in all the languages.

So multilingualism can be categorized according to degree of acquisition, manner of acquisition.

Degree of Acquisition:

By degree it means the level of competence a person has in other languages which he knows. If a person has native like command in all the languages he knows, then it is known as Ambilingualism. And if a person has equal degree of competence in the languages he uses, is known as Equilingualism.

Manner of Acquisition:

By manner it means how a person is becoming a multilingual. This also takes into account the stage at which a person acquires or learns other languages. When a child acquires more than one language naturally at home, it is termed as Natural bilingualism. This situation generally happens in childhood. In natural multilingualism a child grows with several languages naturally. And when a person learns other languages in an artificial or classroom setting, it is known as Artificial multilingualism. Sometimes it is also known as Elective multilingualism. This can be at childhood and adulthood too.

Many scholars use the notion of bilingualism and multilingualism interchangeably to refer to the knowledge of more than one language.

According to Sridhar (1996:47) multilingualism is more than just a magnified version of bilingualism. He classified multilingualism as individual multilingualism and societal multilingualism.

Individual Multilingualism:

The ability of an individual to have competence in two or more languages is known as Individual multilingualism. How an individual acquires a language and when it has been acquired, in childhood or later. How these languages are presented in mind. All these questions are important in order to understand the kind of multilingualism.

Societal Multilingualism:

The linguistic diversity present in a society is known as Societal Multilingualism. In societal multilingualism some issues like role and status, attitude towards languages, determinants of language choices, the symbolic and practical uses of the languages and the correlation between language use and social factors such as ethnicity, religion and class are important. Societal multilingualism does not necessarily imply individuals.

According to Grosjean (1982:12-13), there are two principles that govern multilingualism at the level of society. These are:

Territorial principle of multilingualism:

In this a country consists of several language groups but each one is primarily monolingual. For example, Canada it has four official languages. So the country as a whole is multilingual but not all individuals are necessarily multilingual.

Personality principle of multilingualism:

In this a country has many official languages and the individuals too are multilingual. For example, India which is a multilingual country and most of the populace is multilingual.

Yet another principle of multilingualism can be described where the country is monolingual i.e., one

official language but due to the presence of various minority languages or different dialects or variations the individuals are not necessarily monolinguals.

Mansour. G (1993:19) characterized multilingualism into two types: Horizontal multilingualism and Vertical multilingualism. These two types of multilingualism differed mostly in the potentials inherent in each social situation.

Horizontal Multilingualism:

Speakers who live in their own geographic spaces and are often monolingual are grouped under horizontal multilingualism. The idea is that multilingualism may be there at the higher level of society, but separate groups are not particularly integrated into this larger society. Each does its living in its own space or lives in virtual isolation. This is like a patch work on a quilt of tiny monolingual societies.

Vertical Multilingualism:

In this people of different ethnicity are in direct contact with others because they share the same territory and participate jointly in all socio-economic activities. Instances of vertical multilingualism are more in urban centre in multilingual countries where people interact more frequently in different languages.

One more type of multilingualism is known as receptive multilingualism. It is yet not an established field within research on multilingualism. It was only after mid-nineties receptive multilingualism was promoted by the European commission.

Receptive Multilingualism:

Receptive multilingualism is a broader term. It basically deals with reading and understanding of other languages. According to Ludger Zeevaert and Jan D. Ten Thije (2007:1-6), Receptive multilingualism is a constellation of language in which interlocutors use their respective mother tongue while speaking to each other. Receptive multilingualism as a form of language contact had been discussed at the University of Hamburg, at the Research centre 538. This had a major impact on the development of the mainland Scandinavian languages. Also Ludger and Jan have discussed how passive competence is a misnomer for receptive competence. And have argued that native like competence is no longer a prerequisite for effective communication in many domains. In India, one uses different languages with different people to communicate and yet native like competence is not a prerequisite for effective communication. Humans can establish mutual understanding if they wish to do so.

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## Multilingualism

Language was the basis of reorganization of the states in India after independence and the demand for further reorganization of new states on this basis has been conceded from time to time. Today, English is being progressively replaced by Hindi or regional languages. With the dawn of freedom, there was a movement to restore the national language to their rightful place in the educational system of the country. In 1950, the Indian constitution proclaimed Hindi as the official language of the Union, but in reality it postponed Hindi's claim to such states for the first fifteen years of independence. It is for this reason, that the people of south opposed Hindi and consistently demanded a constitutional guarantee for the continued use of English in order to safeguard their interest.

English, being the major vehicle of the culture of the modern world, is necessary for keeping in touch with the progressive forces of the world. For the internal life of the nation English also serves as an effective agency for bringing about desirable social change. It can be observed in different aspects of our daily life.

In India the people of various states use various languages so India is called a multi lingual country; the people use their mother tongue at home. But for communication with other states people they use the regional language or the English language. The people are usiong different language at various places based on the need, purposes and situation.

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# The Nature of Indian Multilingualism :

When a speaker or a community uses multiple languages, it is known as Multilingualism. Due to globalization and cultural interaction, today multilingualism has become a common social phenomenon.

In India, multilingualism is a predominant linguistic feature and it is home to 5 language families with more than 1500 languages and dialects. Cultural intermingling has laid the foundation for multilingualism since ancient time.

The multilingual nature of India is described below:

1   )  major languages in India

2   )   1652 mother tongues, classified into 400 languages of 5 language families ( Grierson's Linguistic Survey, Census 1961).

3   )   Linguistic diversity is a hallmark of India.

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1)  major languages in India

There are 22 major languages in India, written in 13 different scripts, with over 720 dialects. The official Indian languages are Hindi (with approximately 420 million speakers) and English, which is also widely spoken.

In addition, several states in India have their own official languages, which are usually only spoken particular areas. Among them are *Bengali* (83 million speakers), *Telugu* (spoken by 74 million people) and *Marathi* (72 million speakers). However, standard Hindi, which is based on a colloquial dialect around Delhi, is taught at all schools in India.

2)  **1652 mother tongues, classified into 400 languages of 5 language families ( Grierson's Linguistic Survey, Census 1961).**

Modern India, as per the 1961 count, has more than 1652 mother tongues, genetically belonging to five different language families. Apart from them 527 mother tongues were considered unclassifiable at that time.

The 1991 Census had 10,400 raw returns and they were rationalized into 1576 mother tongues. They are further rationalized into 216 mother tongues, and grouped under

114 languages: <u>Austro-Asiatic</u> (14 languages, with a total population of 1.13%), <u>Dravidian</u> (17 languages, with a total population of 22.53%), <u>Indo-European</u> (Indo-Aryan, 19 languages, with a total population of 75.28%, and Germanic, 1 language, with a total population of 0.02%), <u>Semito-Harmitic</u> (1 language, with a total population of 0.01%), and <u>Tibeto-Burman</u> (62 languages with a total population of 0.97%).

### 3) Linguistic diversity is a hallmark of India.

India is one of the best examples for the latter case. India is a multilingual, multi-religious and multicultural country with multiple streams of social ethos and mores contained in a multiparty polity. The hallmark of Indian multiculturalism is best expressed as 'Unity in diversity'.

- Unchanged for centuries, rural populations constitute the heart of India. According to the 1991 census, for instance, most of the population of India (about 77-78% of the total population ) lives in more than half a million (627,000) villages and speaks in numerous vernaculars . the most obvious linguistic vehicles for reaching rural India are either Hindi or the regional languages and their local vernaculars. The incidence of literacy in English is not significant in rural India. Thanks to literatute in the past and popular media at present, the boundaries between rural vernaculars and hindi have become very fluid . Historically, literature (e.g. the devotional poetry tradition-poets such as kabir , tulasi, Surdas and Meera Bai) has played a major role in neutralizing such boundaries and bringing the influence of regional language (from East to west and south to north, bidirectional) and rural varities into Hindi. The consequence was a mixed speech, which is termed'sadhukari bhaashaa' (the language of saadhus and saints free from any prescriptive norms). At present, the most powerful and vital force for bridging the gap between the urban vs rural(and regional) divide is the Hindi film industry and the mass media. These sources of influence offer a unique appeal in terms of cinematic techniques, dance, drama and music, and even constitute a viable marketing alternative to Hollywood in the world of enterainment in India and outside India. The reach of the Hindi media indeed extends well beyond one sixth of the world's population that inhabits India, reaching members of the Indian diaspora worldwide.

Consequently, mutual intelligibility between regional languages and rural varieties of Hindi is growing steadily. at least this is true of spoken Hindi-caltii Hindi 'colloquial Hindi ' or bazaar or Dakkini Hindi, Nevertheless,some barriers do remain.

As is self-evident from the above discussion, it is clear that **linguistic diversity is a hallmark of India.**

India
- Enormous linguistic diversity
- History- Independence in 1947
  - English importance
  - Country's official language
  - Constitution protects the right to linguistic choice
- Standardization
  - Effects of 'modernization'
- Linguistic Minorities
  - Mass communication promotes marginalization of minority linguistic communities
  - Circumstances favoring linguistic diversity include:
    - Little to no job contacts with dominant language speakers
    - Low levels of formal education
    - Tendency for endogamous marriages
    - Lack of migration to other areas

source : Multilingual Nations- Chapter 11--Bonvillain

# India's linguistic diversity can be attributed to :

1. Different waves of invasion and colonialisation ( Aryans, Moghuls, Portuguese, British )

2. Free migration within and between states

3. Political influences leading to the linguistic reorganisation of states following Indian independence

4. Presence of different ethnic and religious minorities distributed throughout India ( Buddhists, Jains, Sikhs, Muslims, Christians, zoroastrians and others )

# India's linguistic diversity can be attributed to :

## 1. Different waves of invasion and colonialisation ( Aryans, Moghuls, Portuguese, British )

### 1.1 Multilingualism in India before Independence:

Indian multilingualism is not a recent phenomenon. It dates back historically to ancient time. Pandit (1977:3) observes, „diverse people have come and made their home for the last five thousand years.‟ And Bayer (1986a: 1) goes a step further when she remarks that „India is one of the world's oldest multilingual societies‟. (Beg 1996:27). India never seems to have been pardoned by different races and ethnic groups. Thus many years of contact and convergence made India a „Linguistic Area‟ as mentioned by M.B. Emeneau in his work „India as a Linguistic Area‟ in 1958. India has seen many folds of changes in its cultural, linguistic and ethnic pattern.

India pluralism is being view as a „centrifugal‟ device by which different groups attempt to retain and preserve their unique cultural attributes while developing common institutional participation at the national level. (Khubchandani, 2001: 16)

Khubchandani remarked Indian pluralism as „organic‟ pluralism, which is marked by implicit etiquette and flexibility within an overall unity of communication. Indian multilingualism or pluralism can be divided into three stages of Indian history: Ancient, Medieval and Modern.

### 1.1.1  Multilingualism in Ancient India:

Foreign invasions have always contributed a lot in making India a multilingual hub. India had contact with the outer world, right from about the middle of the 3rd millennium B.C. Not only this, multilingualism has always been considered an important tool of socialization, from Ashokan time till today. Ashokan inscription which are considered to be the earliest tool were written in four different scripts. In his empire in Afghanistan he used Aramaic and Greek scripts for his edicts, in Pakistan region he used Kharosthi and Brahmi script was used for rest of his empire from Khalsi in the north up to Mysore in the south.(Sharma, 2004: p21). Basically the period up to 998 A.D is considered as the ancient period. The Aryan rule, the coming of Alexander, Persian invasion, the coming of the Chinese pilgrims in search of knowledge, manuscript and relics between the 5th and 7th century A.D, all come under the ancient  period.

 In 1500 B.C **Aryans** came to India and brought with them „Sanskrit‟. The invading **Aryans** allegedly displaced the Dravidian who until then had occupied all of inhabitable India, from the central parts of Afghanistan to the hills of Jharkhand- Chhattisgarh, Nagaland, Arunachal, etc. (Chaudhary, 2009:56) But subsequently others too explored India, basically due to its wealth and brought with them their culture and language. Thus made India linguistically diverse. The first among them were the Persians. King Cyrus came to India in 558 B.C and ruled here approximately for 150 yrs. Persian domination continued here for about 330 B.C. Then came Greeks under the leadership of Alexander (356-323 BC) but his stay was not for long. He came to India through the Khyber Pass and dismantled the Persian Empire. From Europe they were the first one to come to India as traders and military adventurers. "Before the sway of Islam in India, Chinese contact with India reached its peak.

In AD 966, a group of 157 Chinese Buddhist monks came to India and the same year, they returned with Buddhist relic and scriptures. All this also facilitated copying and the translation industry for Indian languages too, among others, Chinese and Mongol." (Chaudhary, 2009:74). Also three great Chinese pilgrims Fa-Hien, Hiuen-Tsang and I-Tsang visited India in between 5th -7 th A.D. They translated a number of texts and compiled a Sanskrit-Chinese dictionary. Also the Post-Harsha period is very relevant because it was the last stage of Prakrit i.e., Apabhramsa, which was considered important on the account of the fact that the modern languages like Hindi, Gujarati, Marathi, and Bangla have all evolved from it.

### 1.1.2   Multilingualism in Medieval India:

 By the sway of Islam started the medieval period. The first Arab to come India in 715 A.D was Mohammad Bin Qasim. After that Turk Sabuktagin invaded India in 1192 A.D. Even the rule of Turks were not long (1192- 1206), the impact of Turkish language can be seen even today in Indian languages. Various Turkish words have mingled so much in our language that it is hard to say it is not a word of our language. Also a new language was introduced i.e., Persian. In 1001 A.D came Mahmud of Ghazni, the

elder son of Sabuktagin. He came with the aim of spreading Islam until then no one paid attention on the spread of Islam. After that many Sufis came to preach the Gospel of love, faith and dedication to the one God. Firoz shah Tughlaq was the first ruler who made efforts to get Hindu religious works translated from Sanskrit to Persian. Although Arabic was the main language of literature among Muslims but a lot was done in the field of Sanskrit-Persian translation. Many great works like Kok Shastra, Mahabharata, Rajatarangini, Tuti Nama etc were translated. Thus Sanskrit and Persian were the link languages for politics, religion and philosophy. **Mughals** too invaded India and there stay is significant in the Indian history. Baber (AD 1484-1530) was the founder of **Mughal** Dynasty in India. The **Mughal** rulers equally gave space to all languages and races to flourish.

**Table 2.1: Races and Religions of Aurangzeb's Nobility, 1679-1707-Mansabdars of 5000 and above.**

| Iranian | Turanian | Afghan | Indian Muslims | Other Muslims | Total Muslims | Rajput | Maratha | Other Hindus | Total Hindus |
|---------|----------|--------|----------------|---------------|---------------|--------|---------|--------------|--------------|
| 14 | 6 | 10 | 10 | 13 | 53 | 5 | 16 | 5 | 26 |

Aurangzeb's court had people from 28 ethnic backgrounds- Persian-centric, English-centric and Sanskrit-centric bilingualism.

(Chaudhary, 2009:133)

Today „URDU‟ a Scheduled language is a result of contact between their languages and the local vernaculars. Also during Akbar‟s reign regional languages developed and many fine lyrical poetries were produced in regional languages. Great epics like Ramayana and Mahabharata were translated into regional languages. People like Abdur Rahim Khan-iKhana produced a blend of Bhakti poetries with Persian ideas, also in the verses of Tulsidas we can find the use of a dialect of Hindi spoken in the eastern parts of Uttar Pradesh. The use of vernaculars by the Bhakti saints made local language more popular. It was in medieval period that Malayalam had status of a separate language, Marathi reached its highest level by Eknath and Tukaram and Punjabi had a new direction by the writings of Sikh gurus. "In many regional kingdoms of the pre-Turkish period, regional languages such as Tamil, Kannada, Marathi etc were used for administrative purposes, in addition to Sanskrit."(Chandra 2001, pp 130-131) Local or regional languages started developing due to the support given to them by the local rulers. Thus medieval period was a land mark in the development of regional languages. Also there were the **Portuguese**, the Dutch, the French and the British who came to India and stayed for some centuries and added up many things in the Indian potpourri.

Whether it be the Asoka‟s edicts, or the Namas, or Chronicals of the **Mughal**s such as the Babernama and Akbaranama, or classical literature, traces of multilingualism can be seen everywhere. They all tell us how people used different languages at different times in different domains in varying situations. Together they all are responsible for making India a linguistic giant.

## 1.1.3  Multilingualism in Colonial India:

After the Eighteenth century the modern era started. The very interest towards Indian languages of the **British** world is a different story. This interest developed when many scholars like Herodotus, Ptolemy, John Holwell etc, wrote about the greatness of India‟s past and the Indian philosophy, logic on origin of the universe, human race etc. By their writing, these ideas started gaining acceptance. By this people of Christian faith started worrying about the Bible story of Creation. Thus to know more and to save the foundation of their faith they started learning Sanskrit and other Indian languages. People like Sir William Jones, Friedrich Max Muller and many more translated and interpreted Indian religious texts in English. Their first interest to know Indian languages was basically to retain their faith and afterwards they used this knowledge for economic exploitation. The time when East India company over took the Indian Territory, there were many kingdoms and princely states who had different languages for administration. And thus it was not possible for them to administer the whole country via one language. So they felt  the need to learn the local vernacular and thus promoted the Indian languages In spite of being in favor of English, the British Raj did many things for the development of Indian languages. So the British Raj was keen to preserve the linguistic diversity of India.

The **British** were in need of languages to bridge the gap between them and their subjects. For communicating with the local populace and for smooth governance they tried to communicate with them in their languages. They saw the importance of local languages and thus made the learning of these languages compulsory for the civil servants. Thus, emphasized the learning of some major oriental languages in England by the candidates selected for the India civil service. So on 12th August, 1881, Her Majesty‟s under Secretary of State for India, India office, London wrote a letter to the Secretary, Civil Service Commission, London mentioning

The reference made to the Government of India, which was communicated in the Government of India dispatch no.21 of 17th April 1881, it was decided that in future selected candidates should be required before leaving England to qualify in the following languages

For Madras: Tamil and Telugu.

For Bombay: Marathi and Guajarati

For North Western provinces, Oudh and the Punjab: Hindi and Hindustani.

For lower provinces of Bengal: Bengali and Hindustani.

For British Burma: Burmese and Hindustani.

The British had the appetite to learn Indian languages. "Some of them argued that we ought to renew our endeavors to install the popular language in the courts and offices of the Government." (Thirumalai 4:10)

But contrary to this many of the Indian elite have acknowledged the importance of English. They saw

many job prospects in learning English and also they saw a way of fighting with the British system by being a part of the system. Hay and Quereshi (1958) stated:

Men like Rammohan Roy, saw that tremendous advantages could be gained by direct contact with the whole corpus of western learning which English education would make possible, and therefore raised their voices against the antiquarian policy.

Soon more were interested in learning English in order to join the administration. Thus demands from Indian side were made in favor of teaching and learning English. This hampered the development of their own languages. Even the Indian National Congress too did not recognize the importance of the vernaculars in its first two consecutive meetings. But afterwards they too recognized the importance of Indian languages. Afterwards they might have felt that without considering the local mass they cannot achieve their goal of „Swaraj‟. So in the third Congress held at Madras in December 1887 thirteen thousand copies of „CongressQuestion & Answer‟ in Tamil language were sold. Thus language has always been a tool of political consensus. (Thirumali, vol 4:10 Oct 2004). Again the concern regarding languages came in the main stream and thus multilingualism was again favored.

### 1.1.3   Role of Missionaries:

One more event of promotion of these vernaculars can be seen in the efforts of missionaries. The main focus of these missionaries was the spread of Christianity in India. A very significant role regarding this has been done by William Campbell, a Christian missionary, who focused on spreading Christianity. He was a very eminent language planner and a great supporter of Indian vernaculars. Many other missionaries were too engaged in the same act. They made education a medium of spreading Christianity. They opened many schools and prepared books both in English and Indian languages. Also they were very keen about the translation of the bible into local vernaculars There were other missionaries who spent a lot of their lifetime to develop the vernaculars of the peoples to spread the spiritual matters, ethics and morals of Christian. In the starting they were not worried for these languages but had concern for Christianity.

Non-Christian peoples must be approached in their own language. For that reason the missionary must possess as good knowledge as possible of the local forms of speech. (Neil, 1985:191)

Apart from this the missionaries have done much constructive work for the upliftment of Indian vernaculars. William Carey started a college and a printing press at the Danish Mission at Serampore which achieved great success. He translated the Holy Bible in many Indian languages, published a dictionary and a grammar book of Bengali language. Also a 63 page grammar of Tamil was published in 1778, written by Missionary Fabricius. In 1779 he published a Tamil-English lexicon, which was  claimed to be „the foundation stone of scientific work in this field‟. (Chaudhary, 2009:363). Also missionaries played a very important role in the promotion of tribal languages. The tribal languages mainly had oral tradition but many missionaries brought these indigenous languages to writing through the translation of Bible and Gospel. They contributed a lot in the creation of tribal literature.

## 1.1.4    Multilingualism in Post-Independent India:

In 1947 British India was partitioned into India and Pakistan. At that time there were in India nine provinces and about 460 princely states. After that many Indian leaders started demanding the formation of linguistic states. The idea of linguistic state was there in the mind of many leaders even before independence. In 1928 in the Report of the Nehru Committee (consisting of Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru, Sir Ali Imam, Subhas Chandra Bose, etc., under the chairmanship of Motilal Nehru) stated that the present multilingual State and Provinces would create political difficulties while the homogeneous linguistic States will encourage greater political cohesion, administrative efficiency and economic development. Thus expressed the view:

Partly geographical and partly economic and financial, but the main considerations must necessarily be the wishes of the people and the linguistic unity of the area concerned. …It becomes essential therefore to conduct the business and politics of a country in a language, which is understood by the masses. So far as the provinces are concerned, this must be the provincial language. …If a province has to educate itself and do its daily work through the medium of its own language, it must necessarily be a linguistic area. If it happens to be a polyglot area difficulties will continually arise and the  media of instruction and work will be two or even more languages. Hence, it becomes most desirable for provinces to be regrouped on a linguistic basis. Language, as a rule corresponds with a variety of culture, of traditions, and literature. In a linguistic area all these factors will help in the general progress of the province. (Motilal Nehru Report, 1928). (Mukherjee, 2009)

When On January 1950 the Constitution was framed, it categorized the Indian states into three parts: part A, part B, part C. Part A states were the former governors' provinces of British India, part B states were former princely states or groups of princely states and part C states included both the former chief commissioners' provinces and princely states. But with the formation of States Reorganization Commission the distinction between part A, part B and part C was erased and steps were taken to reorganize state boundaries on linguistic lines. Some seen this reorganization as a process of homogenization and for some it was an effort to develop the regional languages by giving them power and thus eradicating the roots of English. But this reorganization of states on linguistic basis did not succeeded in creation of homogeneous regions because in every state some speakers of other languages were there, which constituted the minority group. And because of this reason there is no one official language in one state. All the states recognize some other languages also in way of recognizing heterogeneity and multilingualism.

## 1.1.4.1  Census Record:

The best way to understand Indian multilingualism is by studying its census records and the survey done by Grierson (1898-1928). The first meticulous survey of Indian languages spoken in British India was done by Sir G. A Grierson known as the Linguistic Survey of India. The linguistic survey of India is a comprehensive survey of the languages of British India, giving the number of languages as 179 and the number of dialects as 544. The only drawback of Grierson‟s work was that he relied on untrained

workers and neglected the former provinces of Burma, Madras and the states of Hyderabad, Mysore, Travancore and Cochin (Beg, 1996). Basically the South India was under-represented. After that no such exhaustive work on languages has been done. Only the census records are there to tell us about the number of mother tongues or languages. Indian multilingualism is most explicitly reflected in the census of India. The main area of problem in Indian census is to define the term „mother tongue". This term was first included in 1881 census. In different censuses, this term has been put differently. In the censuses of 1881, 1931, 1941 and 1951, „mother-tongue was defined as the language first spoken by the individual from the cradle". In 1891 it became „parent tongue" and changed to 'Language ordinarily used' in 1901. In 1951 and 1961 Indian Censuses besides Mother-tongue a question, 'Bilingualism' was also prescribed in the Census Schedule. Before that only attention was given to mother tongue of an individual. In 1971 Census, the information on 'Other languages' was again collected from each individual. (Census terms, Census of India)

Before we go into any detailed study of the census record we must know what scheduled languages are and what the non-schedule languages, besides mother tongue are. Because the language data present in the census are represented as schedule and non schedule languages. After independence thousands of written and unwritten languages and dialects were clustered into two broad categories of the Scheduled and NonScheduled languages. Languages which were listed in the Eighth Scheduled were known as Scheduled languages and the others were termed Non-Scheduled. In 1950 the Eighth Schedule listed fourteen languages Assamese, Bengali, Gujarati, Hindi, Kannada, Kashmiri, Malayalam, Marathi, Oriya, Punjabi, Sanskrit, Tamil, Telugu, and Urdu. Earlier it was thought to make the schedule a rigid document were no addition will be allowed but looking into the vast linguistic diversity of India it was kept open-ended. So now the number of schedule languages has risen to twenty two. The percentage of schedule language speakers has varied a lot in different censuses.

The Census in 1951 listed 845 languages (including the dialects), 60 of which were spoken by not less than 100,000 persons were returned by various individuals living in India as their mother tongue. According to the 1951 census 91% of the population speak one or the other of the thirteen Scheduled languages selected at that time.

The count of schedule languages in the 1951 census was only thirteen which rose to fifteen in the 1997. In the 1961 Census the number of mother tongue rose to 1652 from 845 as listed in the 1951 census and in 1971 it was almost doubled. i.e., more than 3000 languages/mother tongues were recorded in this census. Also the number of scheduled languages became fifteen and other languages" count was 91. All the language classified into four major language families: Austric family which latter on became Austro-Asiatic; Tibeto-Chinese

Table 2.2: %age of Scheduled Language Speakers according to 1951 Census.

| No. | Scheduled Languages | %age of Speakers |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | Hindi | |
| 2 | Urdu/ Hindustani | 46.3 |
| 3 | Punjabi | |
| 4 | Telugu | 10.2 |
| 5 | Marathi | 8.3 |
| 6 | Tamil | 8.2 |
| 7 | Bengali | 7.8 |
| 8 | Gujarati | 5.1 |
| 9 | Kannada | 4.5 |
| 10 | Oriya | 4.1 |
| 11 | Assamese | 1.5 |
| 12 | Kashmiri | less than 1% |
| 13 | Sanskrit | less than 1% |

(Ishwaran. K.,1969)

which became Tibeto-Burman; Dravidian family and Indo-European family which became more specific as Indo-Aryan. There were others who were unclassified and of foreign origin like French, **Portuguese**, etc. They were categorized separately.

*Table 2.3: Mother Tongues returned in 1961 Census*

| ABSTRACT OF MOTHER TONGUES RETURNED IN CENSUS OF INDIA, 1961 | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Category | Number of Mother Tongues | Total Number of Speakers | %age of Language speakers |
| Austric Family | 65 | 6,192,495 | 1.41 |
| Tibeto-Chinese Family | 226 | 3,183,801 | 0.73 |
| Dravidian Family | 153 | 107,410,820 | 24.47 |
| Indo-European Family | 574 | 321,720,700 | 73.30 |
| Kisan (Classified under two different families) | 1 | 50,378 | 0.01 |
| Mother tongues outside India | 103 | 315,466 | 0.07 |
| Unclassified, including three tentatively reclassified category considered unclassified | 530 | 63,258 | 0.01 |
| TOTAL | 1,652 | 438,936,918 | 100 |

Retrieved from www.languageinindia.com on 23rd march 2009

According to the 1961 Census, the total percentage of Scheduled language speakers is 87.07%, this number increased to 97.14% in the 1971 Census. But again in the Census of 1981 the percentage of scheduled language speakers became 89.23%. The 1991 census recognizes 1,576 classified mother tongues, which was divided into 114 languages out of which 18 were the scheduled languages and the percentage of scheduled language speakers was 97.05%. According to 2001 census there are 122 languages and 234 mother tongues. (Statement 1) the number of scheduled languages has rose from 18 to 22.

*Table 2.4: %age of the Speakers of the Scheduled and Non-Scheduled languages in India, 1951, 1961, 1971, 1981, 1991, 2001.*

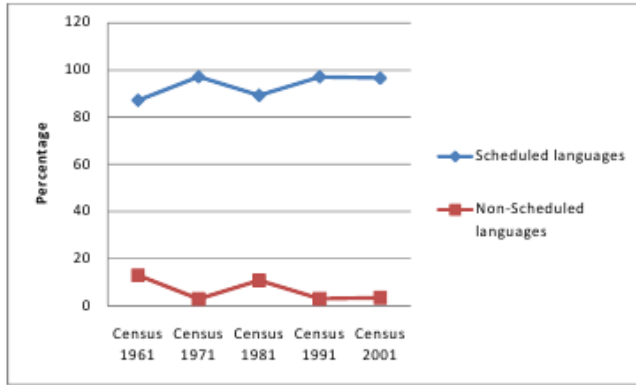| | Census 1961 | Census 1971 | Census 1981 | Census 1991 | Census 2001 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Language category** | % of total population of India | % of total population of India | % of total population of India | % of total population of India | % of total population of India |
| **Scheduled languages** | 87.07* | 97.14 | 89.23 | 97.05 | 96.56 |
| **Non-Scheduled languages** | 12.93 | 2.86 | 10.77 | 2.95 | 3.44 |
| **Total** | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

*Source: Beg M.K.A, 1996*

*Figure 2.1: Line chart showing trend of Scheduled & Non-scheduled languages over years*

The line chart below is showing rise and fall in the schedule language speakers since 1961-2001. The difference in the percentage of schedule language speakers between two consecutive censuses i.e. 1971 and 1981 is very high. One of the reasons can be the unavailability of Census figures of Tamil, Assamese and Bodo in the census of 1981. Due to flood Census record for Tamil Nadu was lost and no Census was conducted in Assam due to disturbed conditions. In 1991 Census data for Kashmir and Dogri are not available because of disturbed conditions in Jammu and Kashmir.

*Table 2.5: %age of Scheduled Language Speakers in 1981, 1991, 2001.*

| S.No | Languages | Census 1971 | Census 1981 | Census 1991 | Census 2001 |
|------|-----------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|      |           | % age of total population | | | |
| 1. | Assamese | 1.63 | _ | 1.56 | 1.28 |
| 2. | Bengali | 8.17 | 7.71 | 8.30 | 8.11 |
| 3. | Bodo | 0.10 | - | 0.15 | 0.13 |
| 4. | Dogri | 0.24 | 0.23 | _ | 0.22 |
| 5. | Gujarati | 4.72 | 4.97 | 4.85 | 4.48 |
| 6. | Hindi | 36.99 | 38.74 | 39.29 | 41.03 |
| 7. | Kannada | 3.96 | 3.86 | 3.91 | 3.69 |
| 8. | Kashmiri | 0.46 | 0.48 | _ | 0.54 |
| 9. | Konkani | 0.28 | 0.24 | 0.21 | 0.24 |
| 10. | Mailthili | 0.12 | 0.13 | 0.93 | 0.18 |
| 11. | Malayalam | 4.00 | 3.86 | 3.62 | 3.21 |
| 12. | Manipuri | 0.14 | 0.14 | 0.15 | 0.14 |
| 13. | Marathi | 7.62 | 7.43 | 7.45 | 6.99 |
| 14. | Nepali | 0.26 | 0.20 | 0.25 | 0.28 |
| 15. | Oriya | 3.62 | 3.46 | 3.32 | 3.21 |
| 16. | Punjabi | 2.57 | 2.95 | 2.79 | 2.83 |
| 17. | Santali | 0.69 | 0.65 | 0.62 | 0.63 |
| 18. | Sanskrit | N | N | 0.01 | N |
| 19. | Sindhi | 0.31 | 0.30 | 0.25 | 0.25 |
| 20. | Tamil | 6.88 | _ | 6.26 | 5.91 |
| 21. | Telugu |  | 7.41 | 7.80 | 7.19 |
| 22. | Urdu |  | 5.11 | 5.13 | 5.01 |

_ No census records

22
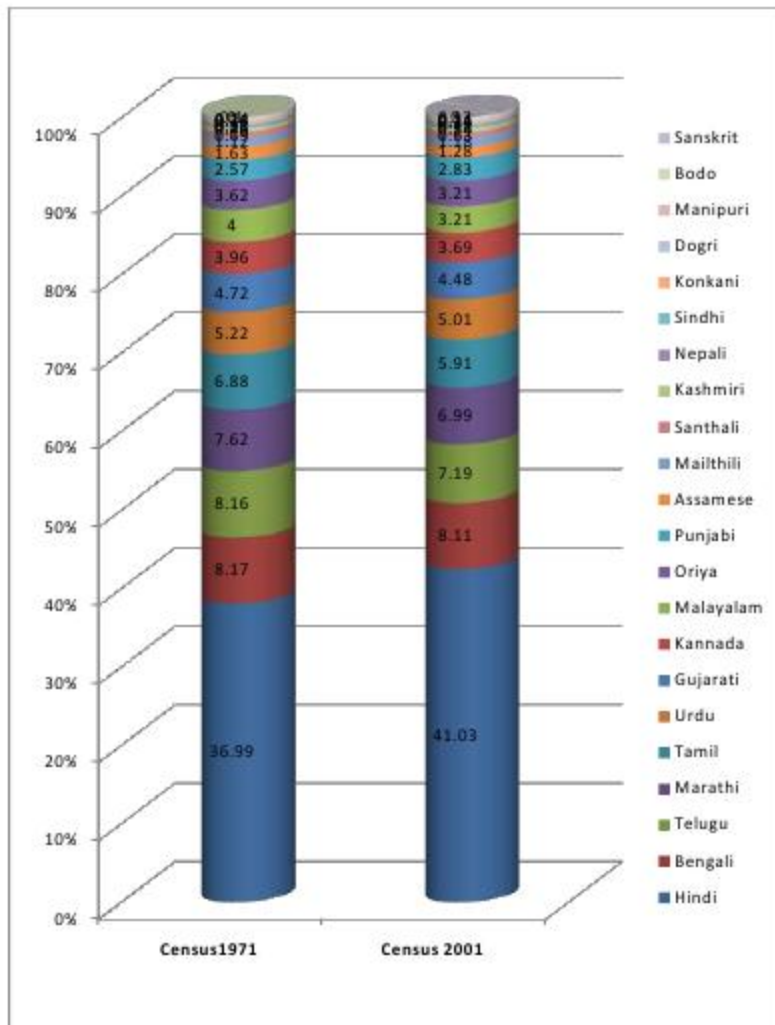
**Figure 2.2: 100% Stacked Column showing Distribution of Scheduled Languages in 1971 and 2001.**

There is a gradual increase in the percentage of very few Schedule languages from 1971 Census to 2001 Census. The increase can be seen only in Hindi, Kashmiri, Maithili, Bodo, Nepali and Punjabi. All other sixteen schedule languages are showing decrease in the percentage of its speakers". This decrease is constant in some languages but fluctuating in others. Languages like Tamil, Urdu Malayalam, Oriya, Assamese Sindhi, Dogri, and Manipuri are showing constant decrease in the percentage in the census 1971-2001. But the decrease in the percentage of speakers of Bengali, Telugu, Marathi, Guajarati, Kannada, Santali and Konkani are uneven. Since the number of languages who are showing increase in the number of speakers are very low is suggestive of rise in the number of non schedule language speakers. In 1991 the percentage of schedule language speakers was 2.95%, this rose to 3.44%. This increase would have been more if four languages: Bodo, Dogri, Santali and Maithili would not have been recognized as schedule languages. In spite of the addition of four languages the percentage of schedule languages is less as compared to the 1991 census. The figures of 1991 census are not complete due to unavailability of data of Jammu and Kashmir but the Census of 2001 has data of all the languages. So the decrease in the schedule language speakers is much more than it appears from the Census record. This gives a very interesting picture for analyzing multilingualism in India.

### 1.1.4.2  Bilingualism/ Multilingualism in the Indian States:

Even after the Linguistic Re-Organization most states are multilingual. Monolingual does not prevail anywhere. India‟s linguistic diversity has been maintained only because the people of India are basically multilingual. In every domain people are using different languages. Every year the rate of bilingualism/multilingualism is increasing as per the Census record.
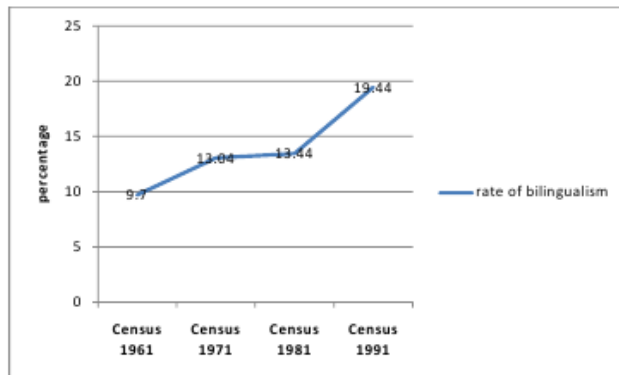


*Figure 2.3: Line Chart Showing Rate of Bilingualism 1961-1991*

As we can see in the chart that there is a constant rise in the rate of bilingualism but the rise is very high from 1981 census to 1991. This rise in bilingual rate is suggestive of a multilingual language policy which is effective enough in maintain multilingualism in India. In 1961 it was only 9.7 and it rose to 19.44 in 1991. Many scholars do not agree with this percentage of bilingual in the world of globalization and mass media.

The traditional strong constituent of multilingual groups is further strengthened in modern times from one decade to another, as mobility within the country as well as the introduction of formal education in all parts of the country that insists on learning at least two languages until the end of high secondary education. (Mallikarjun, 2004)

# 2 . Free migration within and between states

**MIGRATION**

Migration can be defined as the process of going from one country, region or place of residence to settle in another. The duration of this new settlement varies, but for the purposes of this paper the focus is on individuals who relocate either semi-permanently or permanently to another country.

Migration has contributed to the richness in diversity of cultures, ethnicities and races in developed countries. Free  Migration  within and between states has contributed to **Multilingualism.**

https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC1414713/

**Multiculturalism** is the existence of multiple cultural traditions within a single country, usually considered in terms of the culture associated with an aboriginal ethnic group and foreigner ethnic groups. This can happen when a jurisdiction is created or expanded by amalgamating areas with two or more different cultures (e.g. French Canada andEnglish Canada) or through immigration from different jurisdictions around the world (e.g. United States, Australia, Canada, Brazil, United Kingdom, New Zealand, and many other countries).

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Multiculturalism

# 3. Political influences leading to the linguistic reorganisation of states following Indian independence

- *Emergence of regional Political Parties:*

Linguism has resulted in the formation of regional political parties. At the present juncture these regional parties are playing a crucial role in the formation of government at the centre and also at some states. This has caused the Problem of political instability in the country. It has even increased the cost of election.

- *Exploitation of people by Politicians:*

Language has evoked psychological and emotional feelings among people. Politicians are promoting the spread of only particular languages through monetary inducements. They exploit the sentiments of people at the time of election.

- *Recommendations of Sarkaria Commission:*

In 1983, Sarkaria Commission was constituted to look in to the language problem in India and suggest measures. The Commission was headed by R.S. Sarkaria. The Commission made the following recommendations:

1. Three language formula: It included the implementation of regional language, Hindi and English at the school level education.

2. English was to be retained as the official language.

3. Reorganisation of states into administrative units.

4. Ban on Political parties and other organisations trying to promote Linguism.

- The **States Reorganisation Commission** (**SRC**) was a body constituted by the Central Government of India in 1953 to recommend the reorganisation of state boundaries. In 1955, after nearly 2 years of study, the Commission recommended that India's state boundaries should be reorganised to form 16 states and 3 union territories.

States Reorganisation Commission consisted of Fazal Ali, K. M. Panikkar and H. N. Kunzru. Some of its recommendations were implemented in the States Reorganisation Act of 1956.
Background
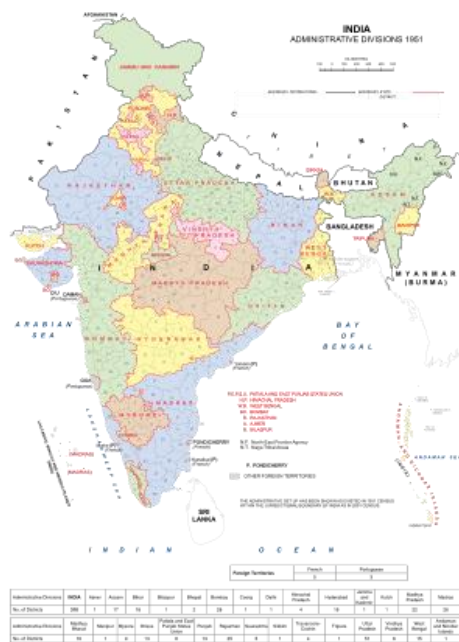
India Administrative Divisions in 1951

After India became independent from the British Empire in 1947, the constituent units of India were classified under the following distinct categories:[1][2]

| Category | Description | Administrator | States |
|---|---|---|---|
| Part A states | Former British provinces | An elected governor and state legislature | 9 states: Assam, Bihar,Bombay, East Punjab,Madhya Pradesh, Madras,Orissa, Uttar Pradesh, and West Bengal |
| Part B states | Former princely states or groups of Covenanting states | Rajpramukh(former princes) | 9 states: Hyderabad,Jammu and Kashmir,Madhya Bharat, Mysore,Patiala and East Punjab States Union (PEPSU),Rajasthan, Saurashtra,Travancore-Cochin, andVindhya Pradesh |
| Part C | Former princely states and provinces | Chief commissioner | 10 states: Ajmer, Coorg,Cooch-Behar, Bhopal,Bilaspur, Delhi, Himachal Pradesh, Kutch, Manipur, and Tripura |
| Part D | Union Territory | Governor appointed by the Indian president | Andaman and Nicobar Islands |

The borders of these states, inherited from British India, were not suitable for easy administration. The internal provincial borders of British India were a result of historical events, as well as political, military and strategic planning by the British. The Government agreed that the reorganisation of state borders was necessary, but the basis of reorganisation was yet to be determined.

One of the proposals was to reorganise the state on the basis of languages of India. This would make administration easier, and would help replace the caste and religion-based identities with less controversial linguistic identities. Earlier in 1920, the members of the Indian National Congress had agreed on the linguistic reorganisation of the Indian states as one of the party's political goals.[3] The Provincial Committees of the party were set on this basis since 1920. In 1927, the Congress declared that it was committed to "the redistribution of provinces on a linguistic basis", and reaffirmed its stance several times, including in the election manifesto of 1945-46.[4]

But, soon after independence, the Congress-led Government became concerned that the states formed solely on a linguistic basis might be unsuitable, and might even pose a risk to the national unity.[3] On 17 June 1948, Rajendra Prasad, the President of the Constituent Assembly, set up the Linguistic Provinces Commission (aka Dar Commission) to recommend whether the states should be reorganised on linguistic basis or not. The committee included SK Dar (retired Judge of theAllahabad High Court), JN Lal (lawyer) and Panna Lall (retired Indian Civil Service officer). In its 10 December 1948 report, the Commission recommended that "the formation of provinces on exclusively or even mainly linguistic considerations is not in the larger interests of the Indian nation".[5] It recommended the reorganisation of the provinces of Madras, Bombay andCentral

Provinces and Berar primarily on the basis of geographical contiguity, financial self-sufficiency and ease of administration. Soon after the report was published, the Congress, at its Jaipur session, set up the "JVP committee" to study the recommendations of the Dar Commission. The committee, comprised Jawaharlal Nehru and Vallabhbhai Patel, in addition to the Congress president Pattabhi Sitaramayya. In its report dated 1 April 1949, the Committee stated that the time was not suitable for formation of new provinces, but also stated "if public sentiment is insistent and overwhelming, we, as democrats, have to submit to it, but subject to certain limitations in regard to the good of India as a whole".[4]

B. R. Ambedkar submitted a Memorandum (dated 14 October 1948) to the Dar Commission, supporting the formation of linguistic provinces, specifically the formation of the Marathi-majority Maharashtra state with Bombay as its capital. To address the concern of national unity, he suggested that the official language of every province should be same as the official language of the Central Government.[6] KM Munshi, a Gujarati leader opposed to incorporation of Bombay in the proposed Maharashtra state, opposed the linguistic reorganisation proposal, saying that "the political ambition of a linguistic group can only be satisfied by the exclusion and discrimination of other linguistic groups within the area. No safeguards and no fundamental rights can save them from the subtle psychological exclusion which linguism implies."[4]

By the 1952, the demand for creation of a Telugu-majority state in the parts of the Madras State had become powerful. Potti Sreeramulu, one of the activists demanding the formation of a Telugu-majority state, died on 16 December 1952 after undertaking a fast-unto-death. Subsequently, the Telugu-majority Andhra State was formed in 1953. This sparked off agitations all over the country, with linguistic groups demanding separate statehoods.[2]

To reorganise the states, the Government of India constituted the State Reorganisation Commission (SRC) under the chairmanship of Fazl Ali, a former Supreme Court judge.

# SRC report

The Commission submitted its report on 30 September 1955, with the following recommendations:[2]
1. The three-tier (Part-A/B/C) state system should be abolished
2. The institution of Rajapramukh and special agreement with former princely states should be abolished
3. The general control vested in Government of India by Article 371 should be abolished
4. Only the following 3 states should be the Union Territories: Andaman & Nicobar, Delhi and Manipur. The other Part-C/D territories should be merged with the adjoining states

The report was tabled in the Lok Sabha on 14 December 1955.

In Part II of Report of the States Reorganisation Commission (SRC) 1955, titled "Factors Bearing on Reorganisation", the Commission clearly said that "it is neither possible nor desirable to reorganise States on the basis of the single test of either language or culture, but that a balanced approach to the whole problem is necessary in the interest of our national unity."[7]

# Implementation

The States Reorganisation Act of 1956 implemented some of the recommendations of the SRC. In addition to the three Union Territories (UTs) proposed by the SRC, it also established Laccadive,

Minicoy & Amindivi Islands, Himachal Pradeshand Tripura as UTs. It established a total of 14 states in addition to these UTs.

*See also: States Reorganisation Act*

# Controversies



South Indian states prior to the States Reorganisation Act.

The recommendations of the commission were not accepted universally.

## Vidarbha

The SRC recommended formation of separate Vidarbha State by splitting majorityMarathi speaking areas from Madhya Pradesh state.[8] However, the Indian government has not accepted the recommendation and merged these areas in the predominantly Marathi speaking Bombay state. Vidarbha would have been the second Marathi majority state for the people of a regional /provincial language in India. Similarly, Telangana state would have been the second state for the Telugu speaking people beside Andhra state as per the SRC recommendation.But Telangana did become a separate state on 2nd June, 2014.

## Kerala-Madras

The Travancore Tamil Nadu Congress demanded to merge Thovalai,Agasteeswaram, Kalkulam, Vilavancode, Neyyatinkara, Senkottai, Deviculam andPeermade with Madras State.[9] However, the Commission recommended only the merger of Thovalai, Agasteeswaram, Kalkulam, Vilvancode and Shenkottai with Madras State. In Neyyatinkara Taluk the Commission found that 86% of the people knew Malayalam. So the Commission did not favour the merger of this Taluk with Madras State. During the Lok Sabha (Parliament) discussions, the representatives of Travancore-Cochin State vehemently opposed the Commission's recommendations for the merger of the Southern Taluks with Madras State.[9] A. Nesamony argued for the merger of Neyyatinkara, Deviculam, Peermade and Chittoor with the Tamil-majority Madras State.[9]

Even though the SRC recommended for the merger of the entire Shenkottai taluk, the subsequently formed Joint Committee recommended the eastern portion of Shenkottai alone to be merged with Madras State. This decision was finally published authoritatively on 16 January 1956. In the July 1956 Lok Sabha meeting, Nesamony argued for the full merger of Shencottai as recommended by SRC. The House refused to reconsider the decision of the joint Committee by over-ruling the recommendation of the SRC.[9]

On the basis of the percentage of the people speaking Tamil, the S.R.Commission recommended for the transfer of four taluks namely, Agasteeswaram, Thovalai, Kalkulam and Vilavancode to Tamil Nadu from the State of Travancore-Cochin. The same yard stick was used for the transfer of Shenkotta Taluk to Tamil Nadu. While dealing with Devikulam and Peermede taluks, even though the majority was Tamil-speaking people and the representatives to the State Assembly were Tamils as in the case of the above indicated five taluks, the commission used a different yard stick and recommended to retain in Travancore-Cochin State due to geographical reasons. Even though Shenkotta was fully transferred by the commission, the Joint Committee appointed to fix the exact boundaries of the states, divided Shenkotta Taluk and allowed Travancore–Cochin State to retain a major portion.

## Andhra-Telangana

The Commission's report judged the arguments for and against the merger of the Telugu-majority Telangana region (ofHyderabad State) and the Andhra State (created in 1953). Para 369 to 389 of SRC deals with the merger of Telangana and Andhra to establish the Andhra Pradesh state (complete text of the recommendations is available on Wikisource). Para 386 of SRC says, "After taking all these factors into consideration we have come to the conclusions that it will be in the interests of Andhra as well as Telangana, if for the present, the Telangana area is to constitute into a separate State, which may be known as the Hyderabad State with provision for its unification with Andhra after the general elections likely to be held in or about 1961 if by a two thirds majority the legislature of the residency Hyderabad State expresses itself in favor of such unification".

Hyderabad Chief minister in his letter to Congress President said Communist parties supported the merger for their political calculations. Hyderabad PCC chief said overwhelming majority from Congress opposed the merger and Communists were elected in special circumstances in 1951 and Visalandhra was not a political issue in 1951 and Assembly does not reflect people's view on this issue. He also said 80% of Congress delegates who were elected in 1955 opposed the merger.[10]

In Hyderabad assembly out of 174 MLAs, 147 MLAs expressed their view. 103 MLAs (including Marathi and Kannada MLAs) supported the merger and opposed the Fazal Ali Commission's recommendation to keep Telangana as a separate state for 5 years; and 29 opposed such merger. Among Telangana MLAs, 59 Telangana MLAs agreed with the merger, 25 Telangana MLAs opposed the merger. Out of 94 Telangana MLAs in the assembly, 36 were Communists(PDF), 40 were Congress, 11 were Socialist party(SP), 9 were independents. Voting did not take place on the

resolution because Telangana proponents asked to include the phrase "As per the wishes of people" in the resolution.[11][12]

An agreement was reached between Telangana leaders and Andhra leaders on 20 February 1956 to merge Telangana and Andhra with promises to safeguard Telangana's interests.[13][14] Popular newspaper in Telangana, Golconda Patrika, in its editorial on 8 March 1956, immediately after Nehru public declaration about the merger, expressing doubts about the Gentleman's agreement said Andhra older brother might say any number of sweet things now, but they have to be committed to their promises and they should not exploit Telangana younger brother in future."[15]

Following the Gentlemen's agreement, the central government established a unified Andhra Pradesh on November 1, 1956.

There have been several movements to invalidate the merger of Telangana and Andhra, major ones occurring in 1969, 1972 and 2000s onwards. The Telangana movement gained momentum over decades becoming a widespread political demand of creating a new state from the Telangana region of Andhra Pradesh.[16] In early 2014, the Andhra Pradesh Reorganisation Act, 2014 was approved by the Indian parliament, and Telangana became India's 29th state on 2 June 2014.

## Punjabi Suba

The Akali Dal, a Sikh-dominated political party active mainly in Punjab, sought to create a Punjabi Suba (a Punjabi-majority) province. This new state would be a Sikh-majority state, which caused concern among the Punjabi Hindus. The Sikh leaders such Fateh Singh tactically stressed the linguistic basis of the demand, while downplaying its religious basis — a state where the distinct Sikh identity could be preserved.[17] The Hindu newspapers from Jalandhar, exhorted the Punjabi Hindus to declare Hindi as their "mother tongue", so that the Punjabi Suba proponents could be deprived of the argument that their demand was solely linguistic.

The States Reorganisation Commission rejected the demand for a Punjabi-majority state saying that it lacked a majority support and that Punjabi was not grammatically very distinct from Hindi. The Patiala and East Punjab States Union (PEPSU) was merged with Punjab, though. Akali Dal continued its movement, and in 1966 the Punjab Reorganisation Act split Punjab into the Sikh-majority Punjab state and the Hindu-majority state of Haryana, with Chandigarh, administered as a separate union territory, as the shared capital of the two states.

## Belgaum

*Main article: Belgaum border dispute*

After India became independent in 1947, the Belgaum district (which was in the erstwhile Bombay Presidency) became a part of the Bombay State. The award of the Belgaum district to the Kannada-majority Mysore State (later Karnataka) was contested by the Samyukta Maharashtra Samiti, which wanted it to be included in the proposed Marathi-majority Maharashtra state.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/States_Reorganisation_Commission

# 4.   Presence of different ethnic and religious minorities distributed throughout India ( Buddhists, Jains, Sikhs, Muslims, Christians, zoroastrians and others )

**Religion in India** is characterised by a diversity of religious beliefs and practices. The Indian subcontinent is the birthplace of four of the world's major religions; namely Hinduism, Buddhism, Jainism and Sikhism. Throughout India's history, religion has been an important part of the country's culture. Religious diversity and religious tolerance are both established in the country by the law and custom; the Constitution of India has declared the right to freedom of religion to be a fundamental right.[2]

> Presence of different ethnic and religious minorities distributed throughout India ( Buddhists, Jains, Sikhs, Muslims, Christians, zoroastrians and others ) , contributed to **Multilingualism.**

# 7 characteristic features of Indian multilingualism:

1. **Bilingualism at the grass root level :**

Widespread use of 2 or more languages in different domains of daily life makes it possible for individuals and communities at the grass root levels to communicate among themselves and with members of different speech communities. Communication across the country remains open and unimpaired because of concentric layers of   societal multilingualism.

2. **Maintenance norms :**

In India, minority languages in contact with dominant languages have tended to be maintained over generations. According to Pandit (1977), language maintenance in India is the norm and shift a deviation. This is because of the multilingual ethos and the non-competing roles of languages in the lives of common people

# 3. Complementarities of languages

The multilingual lifestyle in India involves various patterns of language use in social interactions and in different domains of daily life. Complementarities of relationship between languages is achieved by smooth functional allocation of languages into different domains of use. Languages are neatly sorted into non-competing spheres of activities such as home, in-group communication, market place, religious rites, formal communication, entertainment, media , inter-group communication etc. Under such conditions of multilingual functioning, individuals need and use different languages because no language is sufficient for meeting all the communicative requirements across different situations and social activities.

# 4. Multiplicity and linguistic identities

Multiple languages and multiple language identities are defining features of Indian bilingualism. Typically, language users in India extend their identities beyond a particular language. People  move between languages with the patterns of identities changing under various social psychological conditions.

# 5. Bilingualism as a strategy for mother tongue maintenance

Stable forms of bi / multilingualism in contact situations in India are a result of communities maintaining their languages, not by rejecting the contact language but by linguistic accommodation.(Bhatia and Ritchie,2004 ). Becoming bilingual is an adaptive strategy for individuals and communities and this effectively stabilises the relationship between individuals, communities and languages .

# 6. Multilingualism as a positive force

When mother tongues are healthily maintained along with bi/tri or multilingualism at the individual and community levels, social, psychological and

educational benefits accrue to the minority groups. Studies have shown that bilingual children. Schooled and unschooled ,have a distinct edge over their monolingual counterparts in terms of their cognitive and intellectual skills, meta-linguistic and meta-cognitive task performance and educational achievement( in the case of schooled children )

## 7. Early socialisation for multilingual functioning

Multilingual socialisation involves development of :

a. Progressive differentiation of languages

b. The norms of multiple language use

c. Understanding and consistent use of the rules governing multilingual communication including a context- sensitive hierarchy of socio-linguistic preferences.

# Causes of Concern:

1. **Language and power :**

   Minority and tribal languages are marginalised because of inequality of power and opportunities for speakers of these languages. As a group they are usually poorer, rural based from economically underdeveloped areas and disadvantaged.

2. **Formal bases of language hierarchy:**

   Linguistic hierarchy and inequality are often institutionalised through political and statutory processes. Of the large number of mother tongues and languages only 22 have been given constitutional recognition as "scheduled languages" while English has been given the status of an Associate Official Language.

This results in educational neglect of languages wherein children are forced into a dominant language "submersion" with a subtractive effect on their MT.

## 3. <u>English and the power game</u>

In the colonial period, education in English was a means to social and economic resources. Today it also divides society into the privileged and under-privileged classes. It has become the single most important predictor of socio-economic mobility and widens the discrepancy between the social classes. As the most favoured first or second compulsory language in the school curriculum, it has edged out state level official and scheduled languages and rendered minor languages powerless.

## <u>Summary:</u>

The question is not whether schools in multilingual India should use the mother tongue or the other tongue. It is not about whether to use Hindi or English. Multilingual education in India is about the mother tongue and the other tongues as it develops multilingualism for all in Indian society. The cost of neglecting the mother tongues and tribal languages in education is humongous. Education must cater to the social needs of every child to develop from MT to multilingualism and provide equality of opportunity.

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Multilingualism of the Unequals and Predicaments of Education in India: Mother Tongue or Other Tongue ? , http://nmrc.jnu.com/nmrc.img/NMRC4.pdf

# Unit 1 ( b )   Developing Sociolinguistic Awareness in the Indian Classroom

## Meaning of Sociolinguistics  :

The branch of linguistics that deals with the exploration of the relation between language and society is known as sociolinguistics.

Sociolinguistics is based on the fact that language is not a single homogeneous entity , but has different forms in different situations.

The changes in language occur because of changes in social conditions, for example, social class, gender, regional and cultural groups.

- **Speech community :** a particular social group may speak a different variety of a language from the rest of the community.

- **Dialect :** varieties of a language that are formed in various geographical regions and involve a change in pronunciation and vocabulary.

- **Class-dialect** : changes present in language within the same geographical region due to the social differences between different economic sections, e.g. working class and aristocracy.

- **Register :** variation in language due to the specific area of human activity in which language is used , e.g. Law, religion, science, sports etc. This variety of specific vocabulary according to its use is called register. Thus language use in communication is not arbitrary or uncontrolled, but is governed by rules of situational and contextual appropriateness.

1. **How do societies become multilingual ?**
   a. Migration
   b. Cultural Contact
   c. Annexation / Colonialism
   d. Commerce and Trade
   e. Ethnic identity
   f. Verbal repertoire

**How do societies become multilingual?  There are many reasons.**

a.  Migration

The most obvious factor leading to societal multilingualism is migration.  When speakers of one language settle down in an area where some other language is used and over the years continue to maintain their language, the result is multilingualism.  Eg.Spanish in the United states is a good example of this.

(https://books.google.co.in/books?id=0dHaYnma8ooC&pg=PA50&lpg=PA50&dq=multilingualism-Verbal+repertoire&source=bl&ots=LGCRohobnf&sig=N9KC5-JndTGPBAPzuL9AYkGdeS0&hl=en&sa=X&ved=0ahUKEwjEhMHl6PPQAhXGqI8KHYE4COgQ6AEIIDAB#v=onepage&q=multilingualism-Verbal%20repertoire&f=false)

b.  Cultural Contact

The second reason is cultural contact.  A society may find itself importing and assimilating the cultural institutions (for example, religion, literature) of another society, which over the years might result in multilingualism.

Eg. The use of Arabic and western European languages, for example, English, French, **Portuguese**s, Spanish, and Dutch in Asia, Africa, and Latin America bear testimony to this phenomenon.

c.  Annexation / Colonialism

A third reason is annexation, as in the case of the French and Spanish-speaking parts of the U.S., and colonialism, as in many parts of Latin America, Asia, and Africa, where colonial languages such as Spanish, French, and especially English became entrenched, and continue to play crucial roles long after the cessation of colonial rule.  Other reasons include the commercial, scientific, and technological dependence of the speakers of certain languages over others.

f.  **VERBAL REPERTOIRE**

The notion of verbal repertoire is central to the discussion of multilingualism, both in the individual and in a society.  The verbal repertoire refers to the total range of linguistic resources available to an individual or a community.  In the case of a monolingual speaker, this includes the range of regional, social, functional, and stylistic varieties that he or she commands, either productively (i.e., in speaking or writing) or receptively (i.e., in reading or understanding spoken language).  In the case of a multilingual individual or society, the verbal is obviously more complex in

the sense that it encompasses not only varieties of the same language but also entirely different languages.  It is important to keep in mind that each language in the repertoire brings with it its own set of grammatical, lexical, pragmatic and sociolinguistic  rules and conventions (norms).

Pandit's (1972) illustration of a day in the linguistic life of a spice merchant in India is a classic example of a Multilinguals verbal repertoire.

Gujarati spice merchant in Bombay uses Kathiawadi (his dialect of Gujarati) with his family, Marathi (the local language) in the vegetable market, Kacchi and Konkani in trading circles, Hindi or Hindustani with the milkman and at the train station, and even English on formal occasions.  Such a person may not be highly educated or well versed in linguistic rules, but knows enough to be able to use the language(s) for his purposes.

## 2. Creating Awareness

a. Bilingualism cannot be identified with a low level of intelligence , poor educational performance and socio-economic stagnation. Bilingualism is independent of intelligence and consistent with the highest educational and socio-economic achievement.

b. The learner's other languages have their own distinctive and valued roles to play in his/her community. Ignoring the existence of these languages or negating their value by insisting on the exclusive use of the dominant language is detrimental to the learner's self-respect and cultural identity. The additive model rather than the replacive one  must be encouraged.

c. Teachers must be familiar with the other languages in the learner's repertoires.

d. A relaxed ,open minded or tolerant attitude to language variation promotes cultural pluralism. The focus is not on native like performance, but communicative effectiveness.

e. Encourage learners to see connections between their languages and the school language

f. Using "translanguaging" or "codeswitching "

# Developing Sociolinguistic Awareness in the  Indian Classroom

**Sociolinguistics**-- The study of language in context; the study of how situational factors (such

as time; setting; age, sex, and gender of the participants) affect the language being used.

**Sociolinguistic Competence**-- The ability to produce utterances appropriate to the social

situation in which they are spoken.

**Sociolinguistic  Competence**

 Early in the twentieth century, language teaching focused primarily on grammar and translation of written text. The shift of focus to speaking competence in more recent years fostered the idea of communicative competence, that is, ability to speak a language proficiently. Canale and Swain in 1980 and 1983 respectively (cited in Omaggio Hadley, 1993, pp. 6-7) break down communicative competence into four parts: (1) linguistic competence, ability to use the linguistic code, grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary correctly, (2) discourse competence, which is the ability to maintain cohesion between segments of discourse, (3) strategic competence, which is the leaner's ability to repair communication breakdown and work around gaps in his or her knowledge of the target language, and finally (4) sociolinguistic competence, the learner's ability to use language appropriately in various social contexts.

In today's globalized society, the ability to express oneself in a foreign or second language is a vital skill. For a speaker to be able to be considered a bilingual speaker, he or she must have the capability to talk about any subject in any situation from the dinner table to a speech at the inaugunil ball. According to the American Council on the Teaching on foreign Languages (ACTFL) scale for language proficiency, superior level of speaking means the learner is approaching such a capacity. To reach the superior level of speaking ability, one must be able to speak about abstract topics and speak appropriately in a wide variety of settings with very few errors. However, even after studying another language for many years, learners often still never achieve this level of proficiency and have great difficulty in expressing themselves in that language to a native speaker. Reasons for this continued difficulty in communicating in the second language can include problems with pronunciation, lack of knowledge on actual speech use of idiomatic expressions and slang, and learner differences in the ability to acquire language and in motivation to produce native-like speech. Another important contributing factor for incompetence in the language is that the speaker does not know which utterances are appropriate in the social situation in which he or she is speaking. This ability to adjust one's speech to fit the situation in which it is said is called sociolinguistic competence, and without this ability, even the most perfectly grammatical utterances can convey a meaning entirely different from that which the speaker intended.

One of the factors that makes sociolinguistic competence so hard to acquire is the large amount of variance in cultural rules of speaking; in other words, what is appropriate to say in one culture may be completely inappropriate in another culture, even though the situation in which it is said is the same. The learner is often unaware of these differences, and uses the rules of speaking of his or her native

culture when communicating in the foreign language. This process, called praglnatic transfer, results in misunderstandings between the speech participants, and can cause serious breakdowns in communication.

These rules of speaking can be slowly acquired by the language learner as he or she is immersed in the target language culture; however, learning these rules through immersion is a time consuming process, with many rules going unnoticed for years, or even worse, never being acquired at all. <u>Teaching skills in sociolinguistic competence in the second language classroom as a supplement to the immersion process may be a good way to help students learn these skills more efficiently and in less time.</u> Unfortunately, however, there are many difficulties associated with the teaching of sociolinguistic competence to foreign language students which will be enumerated in the following paragraph.

In order to learn appropriateness of speech in the target language culture, it is necessary for students to study culture and cross-cultural differences so that they can see where their native culture differs from the culture of the language they are learning. However, teaching culture in the classroom is quite problematic. Culture is a complex concept that is hard to define, especially to students with a limited proficiency in the language used in the classroom. It is also a very sensitive topic, and the teacher must be cautious of avoiding stereotypes and unintentionally offending students -- especially in an English as a Second Language (ESL) class where there are students from a variety of cultures in a single classroom.

Culture is also so embedded in people that they are not even aware of many characteristics within their own culture. Therefore, it is difficult for teachers to teach culture by relying on their own perceptions of their native culture. The same is true of sociolinguistic aspects of language. Moreover, what native speakers believe they would say in a given situation is often quite different from what they are found to actually say in observational studies. Since even linguists are often unaware of their own sociolinguistic rules for speaking, it is unrealistic to expect language teachers to have this know ledge readily at hand. However, there is a lack of resources that present this information in a format that can be easily used by ESL teachers in training.

## Developing Sociolinguistic Awareness

- **Speech Acts**

Cultural variations in language are most obvious in the function of language known as speech acts. A speech act is the use of speech focusing on the speaker's intentions of affecting and eliciting an action or effect on the listener (Jannedy, Poletto, & Weldon, 1994, p. 465). Examples of speech acts include requests, compliments, invitations, and expressions of gratitude. Each speech act has within it a set formula of possible statement types that work together to compose the speech act. For example, the speech act of apologies can be broken down into the following components: "expression of an apology, an explanation or account of the situation, an acknowledgment of responsibility, an offer of repair, and a promise of forbearance" (Cohen & Olshtain, cited in Cohen & Olshtain, 1983, p. 22). Speech acts carry a  heavy social interaction load and can seriously offend people if not presented according to the proper formula and in the proper circumstances. Even more crucially, the situations calling for a  certain speech act and the rules for how to give that speech act vary across cultures (Blum-Kulka, House, &  Kasper,

1989). The reverse is also true, that is, different cultures use different speech acts for the same situation (Wolfson, Marmor, and Jones, 1984). This cultural variation in speech act use makes these speech productions especially difficult for nonnative speakers trying to communicate in the unfamiliar target language culture (Blum-Kulka, House, &  Kasper, 1989)

Examples of where speech acts differ across cultures are numerous. For example, in English a direct request can sound a bit rude to native speakers, so they tend to use an indirect  request instead. Hebrew, on the other hand, does not even have indirect requests  (Blum-Kulka, 1983). If one looks to the cultural context for an explanation of this difference,  one finds that "Hebrew social norms allow for more directness than English ones" (Blum-Kulka,  1983, p. 46).

 Another example is in the use of American invitations. Americans often give what could  be called "false invitations". These are invitations such as "Let's get together sometime" or "Let's do lunch" that often are never followed through. These "false invitations" are a special use of the invitation speech act by Americans as a strategy to show friendliness and concern for someone, rather than for setting up an actual get-together (Wolfson, D' Amico-Reisner, & Huber,  1983).

- **Teaching  Sociolinguistics**

 There are also complications involved in the teaching of sociolinguistics. As mentioned  before, the sociolinguistic rules of speaking in a given language are so ingrained within a person that a native speaker is often unaware of them (Wolfson, 1989). For example, two   studies (Blom & Gumperz, 1972; Borkin & Reinhart, 1978, both cited in Wolfson & Judd, 1983) show when native speakers were asked to describe what they would say in a given  situation, their responses did not always coincide with their observed speech behavior. Even linguists are not aware of all the sociolinguistic rules of speaking in their native language, and  studies must be conducted in order to describe these features of language.

For example, Cohen & Olshtain (1981) were only able to break down the apology speech act set into its components after much research, observation, and elicitation of data on apology use. Wolfson (1989) found only through countless observations of native speakers of English that speech acts such as compliments are used most frequently with non-intimates, status-equal friends, coworkers and acquaintances, and least frequently with intimates, status-unequals, and strangers. Wolfson calls this finding the Bulge theory, and explains that with the least frequent category of intimates and strangers, one's social position is defined and stable, . creating less need for verbal negotiations such as complimenting. In the most frequent speech act group of acquaintances and status-unequals, one's relative social position is less clear, requiring more use of social negotiations such as compliments. Thus, what is needed is a good pedagogically oriented selection and explication of relevant cultural factors that would give teachers and students access to such information.

Unfortunately, relatively little research on sociolinguistic rules of speaking has been done along these lines. Part of the problem is the difficulty in obtaining data on actual speech act use by native speakers since observation is an intrusive and time-consuming process, and data elicitation techniques do not always accurately represent natural speech. Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper made a useful first attempt at  revealing native speaker sociolinguistic rules of speaking by forming the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP), which was founded to "investigate cross-cultural and intralingual variation

in two speech acts: requests and apologies" (Blun1-Kulka, House, and Kasper, 1989, p. 11). This project

collected and reviewed numerous studies on the speech acts of apologies and requests, using a data elicitation tool called the Discourse Completion Test (DCT) which is in the form of a written role-play. Their findings, published in 1987, conhibuted greatly to the understanding of these two speech acts. Subsequent research has been undertaken such as Wolfson's (1989) study of invitations using observations of actual speech use to break down the invitation speech act into its basic components. Despite this promising approach, much remains to be discovered regarding a speaker's sociolinguistic rules of speaking.

Even more frustrating is the slow incorporation of research findings on speech acts into the teaching materials. Cohen and Olshtain summarize:
 Teaching materials dealing with speech acts have for the nlost part been constructed largely in the absence of empirical studies to draw upon. They have relied on the curriculum writer's intuition and can best be characterized as reflecting a high level of simplicity and generality. (Cohen & Olshtain, 1991)
 Fortunately, there are a few good resources available for teachers which offer some

excellent points on how to teach speech acts. Cohen & Olshtain (1991), for example, say to limit goals for beginner ESLIEFL students to awareness of linguistic features, leaving sociolinguistic factors such as situational variance in the intensity of apologies for advanced learners. As for teaching techniques, they suggest model dialogues, student evaluation in pairs of sociolinguistic features of a speech act situation, role-play activities, and discussions on cultural differences in speech act behavior. Other applications of research to the classroom are harder to find, consisting mainly of statements in published studies regarding the application of the study's findings to the classroom setting. This points out the need for the collection of such information into guidebooks available for teachers who are unsure what methods to use to increase their students' skills in sociolinguistic competence.
This project serves to enrich the available resources addressing these complicated topics of culture and sociolinguistics through the development of a teaching module that teaches these concepts directly to a class of advanced English as a Second Language students. The module was taught during two consecutive one hour class periods and the class consisted of 11 adult students -- 1 Turkish, 3 Latin American, and 7 Asian. In the first class, the Kluckhohn Model was used to teach cross-cultural differences to the students. During the second class, the speech act of compliments was used with emphasis placed on the American rules of usage for these compliments, as well as the American values that can be seen through these rules of usage. At the end of the class period, a survey was given to the students and regular classroom teacher, asking them to provide some background language information and to evaluate the helpfulness of the cross-cultural information in their language learning process. They were also asked to rank a list of speech acts in order of difficulty.

**the most effective time** to teach cultural information in the target language country may be after the students have had some time to experience the culture they are learning about.The students listed mainly face-threatening speech acts as being difficult, that is, those speech acts such as refusals, apologies, and giving advice, all of which require a careful choice of wording due to the possibility of damaging the other person's face or public image. Also, the teacher's perceptions of which speech acts

were difficult for the students did not match the students perceptions.

The teaching of culture and sociolinguistics in the classroom can be done using **cultural models** and **speech acts**. One should consider, however, the student's stage of cultural awareness acceptability, with students who have had a chance to experience the target culture perhaps receiving more benefit from instruction. Culture is also a good topic for stimulating high-level conversation that uses an abstract content, and is probably best emphasized in the advanced level language classes . Also, one must decide exactly what aspect of culture to teach, since much of culture elludes being taught. Finally, when teaching sociolinguistics, activities that clearly break down the situational components such as status and gender as factors in determining manner of speech allow for students to practice analyzing the effects of these components on language, which appears to be a possible way for students to increase their sociolinguistic awareness.

**http://trace.tennessee.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1019&context=utk_interstp2**


**Extra notes**

**Sociolinguistic awareness:** acquiring basic local language skills, articulating differences in verbal/ non-verbal communication and adjusting one's speech to accommodate nationals from other cultures

## Developing Sociolinguistic Awareness

**Skills**

Listening, observing, evaluating : using patience and perseverance to identify and minimize ethnocentrism,¬ seek out cultural clues and meaning

Analysing, interpreting and relating: seeking out linkages, causality and relationships using comparative¬ techniques of analysis

Critical thinking: viewing and interpreting the world from other cultures' point of view and identifying one's¬ own

Attitudes

Respect: seeking out other cultures' attributes; value cultural diversity; thinking comparatively and without¬ prejudice about cultural differences

Openness: suspending criticism of other cultures; investing in collecting 'evidence' of cultural difference; being¬ disposed to be proven wrong;

 Curiosity: seeking out intercultural interactions, viewing difference as a learning opportunity, being aware of¬ one's own ignorance

 Discovery: tolerating ambiguity and viewing it as a positive experience; willingness to move beyond one's¬ comfort zone

http://www.gcu.ac.uk/media/gcalwebv2/theuniversity/centresprojects/globalperspectives/Definition_of_Intercultural_competence.pdf

# Language Awareness
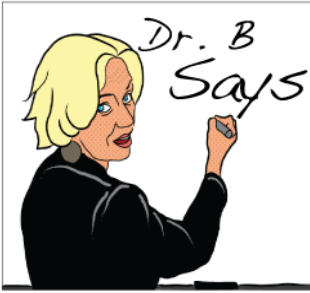
In the <u>Giving It</u> stage of B-SLIM, language awareness is part of WHAT [
chooses to teach. As language teachers know, there is much more t[
than simply knowing vocabulary and grammar and reproducing ther[
written or oral form. Becoming aware of the nuances and meanings [
language is part of language learning. By increasing students' langu[
awareness, the students are better able to understand, appreciate a[
language. In this section we will look at what the phrase 'language a[
means, what role it plays in the second language classroom, and wa[
can increase their students' language awareness.

# What is language awareness?

Language awareness blends a) content about language, b) language skill, c) attitudinal educati[
metacognitive opportunities, which allow the student to reflect on the process of language acqu[
learning and language use.  All four of these aspects of language awareness need to be integrat[
existing subject areas. A focus on language awareness is a key aspect of creating student-center[
classrooms, and assists the teacher to present material accordingly to student readiness (Bilash an[
Tulasiewicz, 1995, p.49).

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# How do we build language awareness in the SL classro[

Students can learn concepts in the SL through an examination of their own language's structure [
either due to similarities or differences between them.  For example, word order can be compare[
cues so that students 'see' and 'hear' the differences.  Word etymology (the roots of words) can [
to see patterns in word formation and related meanings.  For example, the way a learner's first la[
signals respect or formality/informality helps students recognize parallels between the languages [
encourages the learner to 'question' or 'notice' how the languages are related.

Building language awareness also involves helping students gain a <u>positive attitude</u> toward the TL[
developing the confidence to make an attempt or take a risk.  By becoming conscious of strateg[
be used to learn the SL, students may become more active in and more responsible for their own [
learning.  Learning more about language in general may help the student develop an appreciati[
TL.  Another aspect of building language awareness involves integrating what has been learned i[
classes to SL learning, or borrowing what was learned in the SL classroom and applying it to other [

http://staff.educ.ualberta.ca/olenka.bilash/Best%20of%20Bilash/languageawareness.html

Multilingualism in the Classroom: Teacher Education through School based Support in India

www.TESS-India.edu.in

Language and Literacy

TESS India

Multilingualism in the classroom

Teacher Education
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# What this unit is about

This unit is about the reality in many classrooms of teaching students whose home language is not the language of the school. Such situations are often viewed as challenging. This unit aims to raise awareness and understanding of the positive contribution that multilingualism can make to the learning and inclusion of all students in the language classroom.

# What you can learn in this unit

- How to draw on your students' multilingualism as a resource for learning.
- How to plan opportunities for students to learn in all their languages in your classroom teaching .
- The benefits of 'translanguaging' in the classroom.

# Why this approach is important

In much of the world, including India, multilingual students are the norm rather than the exception. There is much research and evidence about the cognitive and practical benefits of knowing more than one language. Such knowledge is a tremendous resource for teaching and learning. Whatever their subject specialism, every teacher should seek out opportunities to celebrate, promote and exploit the linguistic knowledge and skills of all their students. As a language and literacy teacher, you have a particular responsibility to do this. This unit shows you how.

# 1 Introducing the multilingual classroom

## Activity 1: Key principles

The three statements that follow are based on the findings of international educational research on effective classroom practice in multilingual contexts:

- Students learn best in the language they know best.
- Teachers teach most effectively in the language they're most familiar with.
- The longer teaching and learning take place in the first language, the better the educational outcomes.

Now answer the questions below, discussing them with a colleague if possible:

- As a teacher, what are the challenges of integrating these statements into your daily classroom practice?
- Is there a 'language gap' between you and your students, or amongst the students that make up your class? If so:
  - How does this affect your teaching and their learning?
  - How does this affect relationships in the classroom?
- Do you do anything to acknowledge your students' other languages in your teaching? Why or why not?

The three statements above reflect increasing powerful evidence of the positive impact that prolonged teaching in the mother tongue has on students' school attendance and their long-term educational success.

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While the introduction of wholly mother tongue-based teaching may not be possible in your school, there are many small changes you can make to your teaching practice to draw on the valuable home language resources that your students bring to the classroom.

## Case Study 1: Observing students

*Mr Dharmendra, a Class I and II teacher in a rural school in Madhya Pradesh, describes what he noticed when he observed his students communicating in their home languages.*

I used to have quite negative attitudes towards my students using their home language in school. I felt that the best way for them to learn the school language was to listen to and use it all the time. I believed that mixing languages in school could be confusing to them. Perhaps the fact that I could understand and speak only very little of their home languages was another reason why I was uncomfortable about them using them in class.

Some of my Class I and II students were very quiet in my lessons. It was difficult for me to know what they understood and what they were learning.

One morning, I noticed that two normally reticent students that I had paired up were talking animatedly about a Hindi reading text in Neemadi, the language they spoke at home. That lunchtime, I overheard a very shy student explaining a recently introduced science-related concept to his friend in the playground, with the help of a diagram, in their home language, Bhili. At the end of the day, I observed a child who did not usually talk, retelling a story I had told the class earlier in Hindi to her grandfather in their home language, Malvi.

I was struck by the confidence, capability, good humour and social skills of these children, as they communicated with others in the language they knew best. I realised that I needed to provide opportunities for them to display these same qualities in the classroom too.

### Pause for thought

Take time each day to observe and listen to those students who may otherwise be quiet in class when they are talking to others in a more familiar shared language. What qualities and behaviours do they demonstrate that perhaps you had not been aware of before?

Now read Resource 1 on involving all your students in your classroom activities.

### Video: Involving all

http://tinyurl.com/video-involvingall

# 2 Valuing multilingualism in the classroom

## Activity 2: A class language survey

Undertake a language survey with your class. Start by talking to your students about the languages you know – perhaps clarifying whether you can understand a few words, speak the language fluently or write it – and explaining how you gained that knowledge, be this from your parents or grandparents, from living somewhere, or from studying it in school, for example.

Using chart paper, make a large table. Write with your name, followed by your students' names, down the left-hand side, and a list of languages across the top. Invite your students to state which languages they know and add ticks to the chart accordingly. When you have finished, put the survey chart up on the classroom wall.

If any students are absent on the day you do the survey, be sure to update the chart on their return. Insert extra rows at the bottom in case any new students join the class during the year. You may wish to survey the head teacher and other members of staff and add this information, too.

Depending on the age of your students, you could make the survey more detailed by noting whether they can understand, speak, read or write the languages have mentioned.

### Pause for thought

- Were your students pleased to share their language knowledge?
- Did you encounter any difficulties in trying to find out which languages your students know? If so, what were they?
- What could you do as a follow-up activity with your students?

Discriminatory perceptions of low-status castes may mean that some students are reluctant to 'admit' to knowing some of the languages associated with these communities. In this activity it is therefore important to positively emphasise the value that knowledge of different languages and cultures brings to people's lives in general and the classroom in particular. Talk about your own knowledge of minority languages, even if it is limited, or your wish to learn them.

The fact that the distinction between languages and dialects is often fluid, or the possibility that students may not know the names of the languages they speak, are other reasons why it is not always straightforward to obtain precise information about such knowledge. Your chart should therefore be viewed a starting point, with students helping to amend the information over time.

## Case Study 2: Using local language words

*In the following case study from Jharkhand, a teacher describes how some of their students were confused by the words used to illustrate letters on the alphabet chart on the wall.*

Most of my students are Ho speakers and know very few Hindi words when they first come to school. I noticed that some students were telling me the wrong words represented by the pictures on the Hindi alphabet chart on the classroom wall. They said 'nayal' (the Ho word for 'plough') instead of 'hal' (the Hindi word for 'plough'). When I asked them what letter was represented, the students told me that it was 'n', the first letter for 'plough' in the Ho language, rather than 'h', the first letter of 'plough' in Hindi.

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नयल हल

**Figure 1** A plough. Which letter of the alphabet does
it represent in your students' home language?

I knew that I needed to help my students to learn the names and sounds of the Hindi letters correctly, so I made an alphabet chart using words from the Ho language. In this is way, they could learn the letter–sound correspondences of the Hindi alphabet more easily. I then helped them to learn the Hindi illustrative words as well. This helped them build up their Hindi vocabulary too.

Having read the case study, now try the following two activities, which focus on multilingualism in your classroom.

## Activity 3: Making an alphabet chart

Might any of your younger students get confused by the words represented by the pictures illustrating the Hindi alphabet chart?

Find suitable words in their home language and use them to make an alphabet chart or book that helps your students to learn the Hindi letters. If you are not sufficiently familiar with their home language, ask colleagues, members of the community or the students themselves to suggest suitable words. Involve your students in cutting out and pasting the pictures into the chart or book as well.

## Activity 4: Incorporating multilingual practice in your classroom

How can you acknowledge and value the different languages that your students bring to the classroom?

Start a list of ideas. Talk to your colleagues or visit their classrooms for inspiration. Choose one to implement in your classroom over the next month. Some suggestions are listed below.

### Greetings

Ask your multilingual students to teach their classmates a greeting in their home language. Develop a routine whereby, at the start of the day, you greet your students in the school language, and then in each of their home languages, with the whole class responding to the series of greetings accordingly. Do the same to say goodbye at the end of the school day.

### Labels

Label the features of your classroom (such as the window, door, blackboard, cupboard) in both Hindi and your students' home language. Use different-coloured pens or card to help distinguish the different languages. If your multilingual students are literate in their home language, they can help to write the translated labels themselves.

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## A multilingual word wall

Create an evolving word wall in your classroom, by posting up useful words and expressions in your students' home languages (for example, 'hello', 'goodbye', 'sorry', 'thank you'). Seek out opportunities to invite your students to contribute new words. Use different-coloured pens or card to distinguish the languages, as with the labels above.

## Multilingual reading material

Start a collection of books, magazines, leaflets and other reading materials in the languages that your students speak and add these items to your reading corner (Figure 2).



**Figure 2** A variety of reading materials in the reading corner.

## Multilingual dictionaries

Involve your students in creating bilingual or multilingual dictionaries. Depending on your students' needs, these dictionaries could focus on simple words and pictures, vocabulary relating to everyday topics (such as school, home, the park, body parts, animals) or subject-specific terms (pertaining to maths, science and environmental science, for example).

If your students are studying English, they could compile a multilingual dictionary that lists words in English, Hindi and their home language. Leave the dictionaries in an accessible place for all you students to look at. Keep a list of new words and set aside a time for your students to add these and others to the dictionary on a regular basis.

# 3 Translanguaging in the classroom

'Translanguaging' is a relatively new term for an age-old practice – that of switching between the languages one knows in order to maximise communicative potential. Translanguaging is flexible multilingualism. Whether it involves combining elements from different languages in the same utterance ('codeswitching') or alternating between languages in different parts of a task, it is a natural means of employing one's linguistic resources to their greatest effect. It occurs because individuals associate a given language with a specific

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task, topic or situation, or because some concepts (such as 'the Internet') tend to be more commonly expressed in a given language, or because it can be playful and witty. Translanguaging is something most people do all the time with their friends, family and other members of the community without even thinking about it.

In the classroom, translanguaging may involve:

- translating between languages
- comparing and being playful with different languages
- mixing words and expressions from different languages in the same spoken or written utterance
- using the home language in one part of an activity and the school language in another part.

Thus, students might listen to information in one language and explain the gist of it orally or make written notes about it in another. Similarly, they might read a text in one language and talk about it or summarise it in writing in another.

As a resource for both teachers and students, translanguaging has many educational benefits because it:

- validates multilingualism, viewing it as a valuable asset rather than a problem or a temporary transitional interactional tool in early schooling
- represents a more efficient and effective teaching and learning technique than is possible in one language only
- offers opportunities for individuals to develop rich and varied communicative repertoires for use within and outside school.

## Case Study 3 Translanguaging in the classroom

*Mrs Indra, a Class IV teacher in a rural school outside Bhopal, describes how she has started to incorporate translanguaging in her language lessons.*

Many of my students are not first-language Hindi speakers. Since I started incorporating translanguaging practices into their language lessons three months ago, they have become much more talkative and engaged in their learning. Their confidence in using Hindi has noticeably improved too. I have observed that monolingual Hindi speakers in my class are starting to pick up words and phrases from their classmates as well.

If my students are going to read a section or page of their Hindi textbook, I begin by introducing the topic, inviting my students to volunteer anything they know about it and encouraging them to translate the key Hindi vocabulary into their home language. I ask them to help me if I can't follow what they are saying.

I then ask my students to read a section or page of their Hindi textbook aloud in pairs or small groups, or silently and independently on their own. In either case, I invite them to pause at the end of each page or section and discuss what they have just read with their partner or other group members, making sense of it and establishing the meaning of any unfamiliar words together. I suggest to them that they use their home language for this. I encourage them to add any new words or expressions in the dictionaries they have created.

If I want pairs or groups of students to present something to the rest of the class in the school language, I encourage them to use their language to discuss how they will express their ideas first. I do the same if I want them to write a summary or report in the school language.

To maintain the interest of all my students, I try to vary the organisation of the pairs and groups, while ensuring that they include at least two students of the same home language each time. Sometimes I place

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students with similar competence in the school language together. At other times, I place a more confident student with a less confident one, so that the former can support the latter in their shared home language. If there is someone in the group who does not speak the shared home language, I ensure that my students translate what they are discussing into the school language.

Recently I located a traditional short story that was available in Hindi and my students' home language. I used this with my Class VII students. I made copies of the stories in each language and got small groups of students to read them in parallel. I then invited them to use their home language to compare the different versions of the two stories, including the key words that had been used in each.



**Figure 3** Students discuss a topic in pairs using their home language.

## Pause for thought

- Notice which parts of the activities Mrs Indra encouraged her students to do in their home language and which in the school language. Are there any patterns here?
- What instructions might Mrs Indra have used to support the translanguaging practices described in the case study? Make a list of all those you can think of.

Here are some possibilities:

- 'In Hindi we say xxx, in [your home language], we say yyy.'
- 'How do you say xxx in [your home language]?'
- 'What [home language] words do you know for this topic?'
- 'Work in pairs. One pupil says the word in Hindi, the other in [their home language]. Then change over.'
- 'I'm going to ask the questions in Hindi. You can tell me the answer in [your home language].'
- 'You can start in [your home language], then move to Hindi.'
- 'You can use [your home language] to discuss this topic in your pairs [or groups], and then give your report back to the class in Hindi.'
- 'Now we have some time for questions in [your home language].'
- 'Make a list of new words in your notebook. Write the Hindi word on the left and the [home language] equivalent on the right.'

(Adapted from Simpson, 2014)

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## Activity 5: Incorporating translanguaging in your classroom

Identify a forthcoming language lesson in which you can introduce translanguaging into your classroom practice. Note down the parts of each activity in which use of the school language or the students' home language would be most appropriate. Consider how to pair or group your students. Plan the lesson, revisiting and practising the instructional phrases that you are likely to use for each step (see above). Share your plan with a colleague if possible.

When you are ready, implement the lesson. Begin by explaining to your students what the benefits of translanguaging are to learning and why you wish to encourage them to do this. Give them clear instructions for each stage of the activity. Respond supportively to their use of their home language.

You may find it helpful to read the key resource 'Planning lessons' (http://tinyurl.com/kr-planninglessons).

### Video: Planning lessons

http://tinyurl.com/video-planninglessons

### Pause for thought

- How did your students respond to their first experiences of translanguaging in the classroom?
- How was the experience different for you?

Once you introduce translanguaging into your teaching practice, it is important to incorporate it consistently in your lessons so that your students gain confidence in the acceptability of using their home language in their learning on a regular basis.

# 4 Summary

This unit has discussed ways of exploiting the multilingualism that you and your students bring to school to enhance teaching, learning and inclusion. It has encouraged you to undertake a class language survey, create a multilingual classroom environment, and incorporate translanguaging activities into your language lessons. Sustained practice of this type can have a lasting positive impact on your students' social, cognitive and communicative development.

# Resources

## Resource 1: Involving all

### What does it mean to 'involve all'?

The diversity in culture and in society is reflected in the classroom. Students have different languages, interests and abilities. Students come from different social and economic backgrounds. We cannot ignore these differences; indeed, we should celebrate them, as they can become a vehicle for learning more about each other and the world beyond our own experience. All students have the right to an education and the opportunity to learn regardless of their status, ability and background, and this is recognised in Indian law

and the international rights of the child. In his first speech to the nation in 2014, Prime Minister Modi emphasised the importance of valuing all citizens in India regardless of their caste, gender or income. Schools and teachers have a very important role in this respect.

We all have prejudices and views about others that we may not have recognised or addressed. As a teacher, you carry the power to influence every student's experience of education in a positive or negative way. Whether knowingly or not, your underlying prejudices and views will affect how equally your students learn. You can take steps to guard against unequal treatment of your students.

## Three key principles to ensure you involve all in learning

- **Noticing:** Effective teachers are observant, perceptive and sensitive; they *notice* changes in their students. If you are observant, you will notice when a student does something well, when they need help and how they relate to others. You may also perceive changes in your students, which might reflect changes in their home circumstances or other issues. Involving all requires that you notice your students on a daily basis, paying particular attention to students who may feel marginalised or unable to participate.
- **Focus on self-esteem:** Good citizens are ones who are comfortable with who they are. They have self-esteem, know their own strengths and weaknesses, and have the ability to form positive relationships with other people, regardless of background. They respect themselves and they respect others. As a teacher, you can have a significant impact on a young person's self-esteem; be aware of that power and use it to build the self-esteem of every student.
- **Flexibility:** If something is not working in your classroom for specific students, groups or individuals, be prepared to change your plans or stop an activity. Being flexible will enable you make adjustments so that you involve all students more effectively.

## Approaches you can use all the time

- **Modelling good behaviour:** Be an example to your students by treating them all well, regardless of ethnic group, religion or gender. Treat all students with respect and make it clear through your teaching that you value all students equally. Talk to them all respectfully, take account of their opinions when appropriate and encourage them to take responsibility for the classroom by taking on tasks that will benefit everyone.
- **High expectations:** Ability is not fixed; all students can learn and progress if supported appropriately. If a student is finding it difficult to understand the work you are doing in class, then do not assume that they cannot ever understand. Your role as the teacher is to work out how best to help each student learn. If you have high expectations of everyone in your class, your students are more likely to assume that they will learn if they persevere. High expectations should also apply to behaviour. Make sure the expectations are clear and that students treat each other with respect.
- **Build variety into your teaching:** Students learn in different ways. Some students like to write; others prefer to draw mind maps or pictures to represent their ideas. Some students are good listeners; some learn best when they get the opportunity to talk about their ideas. You cannot suit all the students all the time, but you can build variety into your teaching and offer students a choice about some of the learning activities that they undertake.
- **Relate the learning to everyday life:** For some students, what you are asking them to learn appears to be irrelevant to their everyday lives. You can address this by making sure that whenever possible, you relate the learning to a context that is relevant to them and that you draw on examples from their own experience.

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- **Use of language:** Think carefully about the language you use. Use positive language and praise, and do not ridicule students. Always comment on their behaviour and not on them. 'You are annoying me today' is very personal and can be better expressed as 'I am finding your behaviour annoying today. Is there any reason you are finding it difficult to concentrate?', which is much more helpful.
- **Challenge stereotypes:** Find and use resources that show girls in non-stereotypical roles or invite female role models to visit the school, such as scientists. Try to be aware of your own gender stereotyping; you may know that girls play sports and that boys are caring, but often we express this differently, mainly because that is the way we are used to talking in society.
- **Create a safe, welcoming learning environment:** All students need to feel safe and welcome at school. You are in a position to make your students feel welcome by encouraging mutually respectful and friendly behaviour from everyone. Think about how the school and classroom might appear and feel like to different students. Think about where they should be asked to sit and make sure that any students with visual or hearing impairments, or physical disabilities, sit where they can access the lesson. Check that those who are shy or easily distracted are where you can easily include them.

## Specific teaching approaches

There are several specific approaches that will help you to involve all students. These are described in more detail in other key resources, but a brief introduction is given here:

- **Questioning:** If you invite students to put their hands up, the same people tend to answer. There are other ways to involve more students in thinking about the answers and responding to questions. You can direct questions to specific people. Tell the class you will decide who answers, then ask people at the back and sides of the room, rather than those sitting at the front. Give students 'thinking time' and invite contributions from specific people. Use pair or groupwork to build confidence so that you can involve everyone in whole-class discussions.
- **Assessment:** Develop a range of techniques for formative assessment that will help you to know each student well. You need to be creative to uncover hidden talents and shortfalls. Formative assessment will give you accurate information rather than assumptions that can easily be drawn from generalised views about certain students and their abilities. You will then be in a good position to respond to their individual needs.
- **Groupwork and pair work:** Think carefully about how to divide your class into groups or how to make up pairs, taking account of the goal to include all and encourage students to value each other. Ensure that all students have the opportunity to learn from each other and build their confidence in what they know. Some students will have the confidence to express their ideas and ask questions in a small group, but not in front of the whole class.
- **Differentiation:** Setting different tasks for different groups will help students start from where they are and move forward. Setting open-ended tasks will give all students the opportunity to succeed. Offering students a choice of task helps them to feel ownership of their work and to take responsibility for their own learning. Taking account of individual learning needs is difficult, especially in a large class, but by using a variety of tasks and activities it can be done.

Societal Multilingualism, Kamal K.Sridhar, Sociolinguistics and Language Teaching, www.academia.edu

## Societal Multilingualism and World Englishes : Their Implications for Teaching ESL

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Developments in applied sociolinguistics in the last few decades have focused attentionon a number of key issues in the teaching and learning of English as a second language. Amongthese issues are the following: How well do we understand bilingualism/multilingualism? Howaware are we of how individual and societal multilingualism relate to the learning, teaching, anduse of English, when English is one of the prominent functional languages of multilinguals?How does the conceptualization of World Englishes influence the theory and practice of appliedlinguistics? Do TESL courses reflect the emergence of these issues and prepare our teachertrainees for the challenges they are about to face? This paper explores the extent to which theresearch insights in two well-defined areas within the field of sociolinguistics, namely, bilingualism/multilingualism and world Englishes, need to be incorporated in the teaching ofESOL and in our teacher training programs. While the former includes notions like speechcommunities, verbal repertoire, language transfer, code-mixing/switching and domains, the latteris concerned with issues like identity and target model norms. The contributions of the abovefields are critical particularly now, for no longer are ESL users primarily from the post-colonialcommunities, nor is English primarily a language to communicate exclusively with the nativespeaker. This paper introduces some of the relevant sociolinguistic concepts and offers concretesuggestions for incorporating critical research insights from bilingualism/multilingualism andworld Englishes, in the hope that it would help prepare teachers for the 21st Century and beyond,whether in ESL-using country like India or any of the inner circle countries.

BILINGUALISM/MULTILINGUALISM

The terms `bilingualism' and `multilingualism' have been used interchangeably in theliterature to refer to the knowledge or use of more than one language by an individual or acommunity. This practice will be continued here, but we must allow for the possibility thatmultilingualism may be more than just a magnified or extended version of bilingualism.Multilingualism can be, and has been, studied both as an individual and a societal phenomenon.As an individual phenomenon, issues such as how one acquires two or more languages inchildhood or later, how these languages are represented in the mind and how they are accessed inon-line production and comprehension become central. As a societal phenomenon, one isconcerned with bilingualism in its institutional dimensions, i.e., with issues such as the status androles of the languages in a given society, attitudes toward languages, determinants of languagechoice, the symbolic and practical uses of the languages, the correlations between language useand social factors such as ethnicity, religion, class, among others.

## THE COMPOSITE NATURE OF MULTILINGUAL COMPETENCE

An important characteristic of multilingualism pointed out by Pandit (1972) is the fact that a multilingual does not necessarily have a 'perfect' or 'native-like' command of *all* the languages (or 'codes' as these languages or language varieties have come to be called) in his or her verbal repertoire. Multilingualism involving such perfect, balanced, and native-like command of all thelanguages in the repertoire is rather uncommon. Typically, multilinguals have varying degrees ofcommand of the different languages in their repertoire. The differences in the competence in thevarious languages might range from a command of just a few lexical items, formulaicexpressions such as greetings, and rudimentary conversational skills, all the way to excellentcommand of the grammar and vocabulary as well as specialized registers and styles.

A second major characteristic of multilingual competence is what may be called selectivefunctionality. Multilinguals develop competence in each of the codes to the extent they need andfor the contexts in which each language is used. For example, a multilingual may have anexcellent reading, writing, speaking, and comprehending knowledge of one or two languages, butmay be more comfortable using one language for academic or professional purposes and anotherfor intimate or emotional expression. This is in part a function of differential command ofregisters (functional varieties) but also of habitual associations between languages, domains, and contexts. Thus, a multilingual's linguistic competence is a composite of many partial competences which complement one another to yield a rich and complex resource adequate forfulfilling all the life functions (Grosjean 1982). It follows then that in judging the adequacy of the multilinguals' linguistic competence one has to keep in mind this composite nature of the repertoire. It is neither necessary nor common to find native or near-native competence in all thelanguages of a multilinguals repertoire. This phenomenon, which is commonly observed among India's educated elite, has important implications for language teaching and for ESL teacher training programs as we shall see later. I will first define and discuss some concepts insociolinguistics like speech communities, domains, language choice, code-mixing/switching andverbal repertoire, which have a direct bearing on applied linguistics and ESOL teaching andwhich have contributed to our understanding of how multilingual communities and individuals function.

## SPEECH COMMUNITIES

For applied linguistic purposes, an approach to language in which the study of the internalstructure of language is complemented and, to the extent possible, explained by its beingsituated in a communicative (interactional) matrix is much more practical than, say, a psycholinguistically motivated approach like the Chomskyam one. In the various functional

approaches to language, particularly those of Halliday (1973), Fishman (1972a), Ferguson(1959), Gumperz (1971), and Hymes (1974), considerable attention has been paid to the socialuse of language. It is through such approaches that we learn about the interaction of languageand society, the contribution of social context to linguistic meaning, the 'social' functions of language, and the uses of language as a major social institution.

It need hardly be stressed that communication is skilled work. Generally, individuals areversed in the norms and patterns of interaction in their societies. A conglomeration ofindividuals who share these same norms about communication is referred to as a

*speechcommunity* (Labov 1972). A speech community is defined as a community sharing knowledge ofrules for the conduct and interpretation of speech. Such sharing comprises knowledge of at leastone form of speech, and knowledge also of its patterns of use. Labov (1972: 120) emphasizes the importance of shared attitudes and shared norms, 'The speech community is not defined by any marked agreement in the use of language elements, so much as by participation in a set of shared norms. . . .' Bolinger's (1975: 333) definition of speech community is more complex. 'There is no limit to the ways in which human beings league themselves together for self-identification,security, gain, amusement, worship, or any of the other purposes that are held in common;consequently there is no limit to the number and variety of speech communities that are to be found in society.' Bolinger's definition allows for the possibility of more than one speechcommunity within any geographical area, and possibly, also more than one geographical base forone speech community. The group that one chooses to identify with does not always remainconstant. The perspective of shifting, overlapping, intersecting, complementing identities is particularly suited to the characterization of multilingual speech communities. In the case ofmonolinguals, the shared norms may include norms about when to speak or interrupt a speaker,

how to complement or thank someone, how to request something politely, and so on. In the

case of multilinguals, the norms will include all of the above, plus considerations such aswhich language to use on what occasion, with whom, and so on.

VERBAL REPERTOIRE

The notion of verbal repertoire is central to the discussion of multilingualism, both in theindividual and in a society. The verbal repertoire refers to the total range of linguistic

resourcesavailable to an individual or a community. In the case of a monolingual speaker, this includes therange of regional, social, functional, and stylistic varieties that he or she commands, either productively (i.e., in speaking or writing) or receptively (i.e., in reading or understanding spokenlanguage). In the case of a multilingual individual or society, the verbal is obviously morecomplex in the sense that it encompasses not only varieties of the same language but also entirelydifferent languages. It is important to keep in mind that each language in the repertoire bringswith it its own set of grammatical, lexical, pragmatic and sociolinguistic rules and conventions(norms).

Pandit's (1972: 79) illustration of a day in the linguistic life of a spice merchant in India is aclassic example of a multilinguals verbal repertoire.

A Gujarati spice merchant in Bombay uses Kathiawadi (his dialect of Gujarati)with his family, Marathi (the local language) in the vegetable market, Kacchi andKonkani in trading circles, Hindi or Hindustani with the milkman and at the trainstation, and even English on formal occasions. Such a person may not be highlyeducated or well versed in linguistic rules, but knows enough to be able to use thelanguage(s) for his purposes.

LANGUAGE CHOICE

For multilinguals, language choice, that is, what language to use with whom and for what purposes is a key communicational issue. One of the basic assumptions in sociolinguisticsinvolving multilingual speech communities is that

In a heterogeneous speech community, with varying degrees of linguisticdiversity and social complexity, speakers interact using different speech varietiesdrawn from a repertoire of choices which for the most part are not random. Onthe contrary, the distribution of usage of these choices is determined by severalfactors in the social communicative system of the community. (Elias-Olivares1979: 121)

Multilinguals select their code from their linguistic repertoire based on the person one is talkingto, the place (social context of the talk), and the nature of the topic of discussion.

**Reference :**

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Societal Multilingualism, Kamal K.Sridhar, Sociolinguistics and Language Teaching, www.academia.edu

# Unit 1 ( c ) Critiquing State Policies  on  Language and Education

**Introduction :**

The development of education is a continuum, which gathers its past history into a living stream, flowing through the present into the future. It is essential to see the historical background of educational development to understand the present and visualize the future. Hence the present Chapter aims to briefly look at educational developments from the ancient 2nd millennium BC to the modern period.

The development of the education system in India can be broadly divided into 3 stages :

1. **Pre-British period**

2. **During British period**

3. **Post – Independence period**

# 1. Pre-British period :

 hierarchical , stratified, feudal society and religious in nature

( ashrams, parishads , viharas , matths )

19<sup>th</sup> C. onwards pathshalas and madrassas

( used classical languages Sanskrit, Arabic or Persian )

While discussing about the pre- British period, a brief attempt has been made to see the evolution of education from the 2nd millennium BC up to the Muslim invasions. Focus is made on the character of education, the role of state (king), **religious** heads, institutions and people, and its accessibility to the larger community.

Education in Indian Classical Cultures — Ancient Period :

India is one of the ancient civilizations of the world. About the 2nd millennium B.C. i he Aryans entered the land and came into conflict with the 'dasas'. The non-Aryan tribes dominated them in all spheres. In

the course of time, this led to the emergence of 'Chat urvarna' (four varnas) system in which 'dasas' were absorbed as 'sudras' or domestic sen ants. By about 500 B.C. the classes became hardened into castes. This was a typical **hierarchical** society. In it religion played a vital role. It even influenced education. The study of Vedic literature was indispensable to higher castes.

The stages of instruction were very well defined - up to the age of seven at home, from eight to 16 at school and then at a university. During the first period, the child received primary education at home. Formal schooling, however, began with a ritual known as *Upanayana* or thread ceremony, which was more or less compulsory for the three higher castes (at a later stage it was exclusively confined to the Brahmins). The ceremony marked the beginning of secondary education. Then the boy would stay at the preceptor's 'ashrama' or house. Study at this stage consisted of the recitation of the Vedic mantras' or hymns and the auxiliary sciences, phonetics, grammar, astronomy, prosody and etymology. The important point to note here was that the character of

education differed according to the needs of the caste. For a boy of the priestly class, there was a definite syllabus of studies. The 'tryi vidya' or the knowledge of the 'vedas' was obligatory for him. The period of studentship normally extended to 12 years. Those who wanted to continue their studies joined a higher center of learning or a university presided over by a 'Kulapathi' (founder of a school of thought). Advanced students would improve their knowledge by taking part in philosophical discussions at a 'Parishad 'or academy. Some historians speculate that these centers mark the genesis of 'university education'. Education was not denied to women in principle but normally girls were instructed at home. The method of instruction differed according to the nature of the subject. The first duty of the student was to learn by heart the particular veda of his school. Every word and line of the text had to be learned from  the lips of the teachers, and so correct pronunciation was stressed. In the study of such literary subjects as law, logic, rituals and prosody, comprehension played a very important role. The third method was the use of similitudes. They used to tell a fable or story to illustrate some  doctrine. This w as usually employed in the personal spiritual teaching relating to the 'Upanishads*, or conclusions or 'Vedas.' Dialogical method or catechism which was a compendious system of teaching drawn up in the form of questions and answers, or discoursing was the method in higher learning or the teaching of "Sastras" (sciences). Memorization also played a significant role.

The exclusiveness and formalism of the Brahamanic system by the end of 6th century B.C.. and discarding the right of the * Upanayana' to other castes antagonized the other larger sections. This led to the emergence of two new **religious** order, Buddhism and Jainism. Mahavira and Buddha did not recognize the supremacy of'Vedas'. They imparted education in the common language of the people irrespective of caste, creed or sex. It was a mark of development.

Another important mark of development in the history of education in India, was the establishment of the imperial Nanda dynasty in 413 B.C. Afterwards a stronger Maury an dynasty, shook the very foundations of the Vedic structure of iife, culture and polity. There were changes in the **hierarchical** structure of society and in its occupational rigidity. This produced changes even in education. Schools were established in growing towns and students were chosen freely, not according to caste, and

teachers admitted students of all castes. During this period Takshashila (which was a great centre of learning.) acquired international reputation. This institution included special institutions of law, medicine and military science.

The 500 years from the 4th century A.D. to the close of the 8th, under the Guptas, Harsha, and their successors is a remarkable period in the history of education in India, during which the universities of Nalanda and Valabhi were established and there was significant advancement in the field of Indian sciences, mathematics and astronomy. The other great centers of Buddhist learning in the post Gupta era were Vikramasila, Odantupuri and Jagaddala.

Development prior to Muslim invasions began in the 10th century. Nearly every village had its schoolmaster, who was supported by local contributions. The Hindu schools of learning, known as 'Pathasalas' in Western India and' Tolos' in Bengal, were conducted by Brahmin acharyas at their residences. Each imparted instruction in an advanced branch of learning. Larger or smaller establishments, specially endowed by 'rajas' and the other donors for the promotion of learning, also grew in number. The usual centers of learning were either some king's capital such as Kanauj, Dhar, Mithila, or Ujayani, or a holy place, such as Varanasi, Ayodhya, Kanchi or Nasik. In addition to Buddhist Viharas (monasteries), there sprang up Hindu 'maths' (monk's residences) and temple colleges, and agrahara ' villages (where spiritual and pedagogic functions are perform- I Uy ! learnedBrahmins) in different parts of the country. It is noticed that the growth of temples in India was an indication of growth of education. This is because religion dominated education. It should be noted that girls were usually educated at home and vocational education was imparted through a system of apprenticeship.

Indian society at the end of the 18th century was essentially a feudal society. It was **stratified**, **hierarchical** and inegalitarian. There was a small group of well to do persons at the top consisting of feudal overlords and their dependents and supporters, the higher castes, cultivators of large tracts of good land, traders, merchants, and money lenders. The bulk of the population was underprivileged and poor. Few women could rise to the highest positions in society. The scheduled castes and who were treated as untouchables, and scheduled tribes who were not integrated into the mainstream of the society, turned into the lowliest, the poorest and the most exploited groups. The socio economic background of the society is itself reflected in the educational policy.

The princely governments of the day did not accept any responsibility for the education of the people and all their educational effort was limited to the provision of some financial support to learned persons and institutions of higher learning mainly on **religious** considerations. These institutions were administered by a small priestly class, in which some elementary education was also imparted, to the well oil sections. The principal means of education was non-formal, it was vocational in character and students generally obtained it working at the family occupation. The girls did not go to schools. They learnt the art of home making, child rearing and participation (where necessary) through an apprenticeship in the family. It was social status that determined an individual's access to education, as well as its type and extent, rather than vice versa. The objective of the system was not to promote vertical mobility but to educate individuals to their pre determined status in society. J.P. Naik pointed

out the elitist nature of education and the nature of its exploitation, while saying that the educational system also made a distinction between intellectuals who did not work with their hands but received formal education and workers who produced wealth with the sweat of their brow but were not supposed to be in need of formal education. This created two classes i.e.the exploiters and the exploited. Unfortunately education became a negation of social justice.

At the beginning of 19th century, the following were two types of indigenous Indian educational institutions- schools of learning' which more or less can be equated with colleges of modern type.

i.e. a) **Pathasala** of the Hindus and  b) the **Madrassahas** of the Muslims,

and elementary schools which were again of two types i.e. a) Persian Schools, b) schools teaching through modern Indian language .

Both the **Pathasalas** of the Hindus and the **Madrassahas** of the Muslims, received assistance from rulers, chieftains, and opulent or **religious** citizens. They were medieval in character, used a classical language (**Sanskrit**, Arabic or Persian) as the medium of instruction, and imparted thought on traditional lines. (Generally these institutions were attached to a temple or mosque. The State had nothing to do with the governance of these institutions. The chief objective of these institutions was to produce 'Moulvis' or 'Pandits'. These institutions were replicas of conservatism, obsolete ideals and methods of instruction. Elementary schools were the main agencies for spreading of mass education namely the three ' R's. These institutions were for fulfilling the mundane requirements of the petty Zamindars, Banias and well to do farmers. A small number of girls of upper classes and children of these communities formed the large majority

The merits of this system were its adaptability to local environment and the vitality and popularity  it had earned, by centuries of existence under a variety of economic conditions. The narrow curriculum, traditional methods of instruction, exclusion of girls and poor students were some of the defects of these institutions .

The decay of indigenous Indian Education started with the ad    of the British. The colonial interests of the British shaped the then educational policies of India.

**Reference:**  Chapter III : Evolution of Educational Policy in India

( shodhganga.inflibnet.ac.in )

# 2. During British period :

- introduction of English
- 1837 : English replaced Persian as the official and court language
- 1854 : Wood's Despatch : setting up of universities ( Bombay, Calcutta, Madras ,1857 )
- Macaulay, Bentinck ,Curzon, Minto, **Indian bourgeosie**

# 2. During British period /Education under British Rule:

## • Introduction of English

As it was mentioned earlier the development of education system during the British period was determined by the needs of the colonial powers. The end of the 18th century and the beginning of the 19th century was the period of consolidation of industrial capital  in Europe and England. Corresponding to this, the emerging intellectual opinion argued for the spread of **English language and culture** in the colonies. The Utilitarians, Evangelists and  liberals from their own stand point of view, favored the spread of **English Education**. The debate between the Anglicists and the Orientalists with regard to India was finally clinched with Lord Bentick asking Thomas Babington **Macaulay** for his opinion. In his

famous note of February 2, 1835, **Macaulay** noted that selective natives must be educated "as interpreters between us and the millions whom we govern; a class of persons Indian in blood and colour, but **English** in tastes and opinion, in morals and intellect".

Before the intervention of the British Government, the Christian missionaries spread education. Then the East India Company was compelled to do something for the spread of education. Enlightened Englishmen, enlightened Indian intellectuals, movements like Araya Samaj and Muslim reform movements also worked for the spread of education.

A month after **Macaulay**'s note, **Bentick** ruled that "the great object of the  British Government was, henceforth, the promotion of European literature and science. All funds appropriated for the purpose of education would be best employed on education alone". There were at least three important reasons that had significant bearing on the ruling of **Bentick**. The first was the increasing opinion and the recognition of the fact that the British could derive political benefit from **English education**. Amongst others who held this opinion, was Charles E. Trevenlyan who in 1838, notes that "the spirit of **English** literature cannot but be favorable to the **English** connection" and argued that this would stop Indians from treating Britishers as foreigners and make them, "intelligent and zealous co-operators"

Secondly, the framing of the education policy was guided by the practical administrative needs of the

colonialists. At the time of passing the **1833** Charter Act, the Fast **India** Company was in serious financial difficulties, one method suggested was to cut down expenditures on **European** employees and instead employ Indians at much lower salaries. **The 1833** Charter opened **the** lower order Civil Service jobs to Indians. But this required **English** educated clerks. Hence the policy of 1835,

Thirdly, **English education** was also seen as an important basis for expanding the British market in India by reining English values and tastes. As **Macaulay** noted "'**but** wearing our broad cloth and working with our cutlery, they should not be too ignorant or too poor to value and buy English manufactures". **Macaulay**'s note, **Bentick**'s ruling and the establishment and growth of **English education** in **India** was an expression of the direct needs of the ruling colonial power. The education system in India, a legacy that continues till date, originates not because of any individual opinion but because of the **contemporary** needs of the Government.

- ## 1837 : English replaced Persian as the official and court language

In **1837, English replaced Persian as the official and court language**, and in 1844 Hardinge announced preference for English educated Indians in the Civil Service. These two steps effectively sealed any growth of education other than English education .

- ## 1854 : Wood's Despatch : setting up of universities ( Bombay, Calcutta, Madras ,1857 )

The pursuance of these needs and the consequent rise in demand for English education, led to the forward of the despatch of Sir Charles Wood in 1854, which was popularly known as "**Woods Despatch**". This recommended the setting up of the **Universities** of Bombay, Calcutta and Madras which were established in 1857. The recommendations reflected the needs of the ruling colonial powers to train a section of upper classes in higher education, and set up the administrative structure for education, which **continues** till date,

The following five decades **saw** a rapid expansion of educational institutions. At the turn of the century , confidential and semi confidential circulars **were being** issued to local authorities to curtail Government grants to universities and **colleges because** British officers **saw** a direct link between English education and rise of the Indian **nationalism**. **Following** the murder of an officer at Poona, Lord Hamilton, Secretary of Atate wrote to Lord **Curzon**, "**it** is impossible to dissociate their ideas and their hatred of England from the course of education and training through which they have **passed**"

Consequently, Lord **Curzon** proceeded to initiate steps for reforming the education system in order to curb the growth of nationalism. The Commission of 1902, under the chairmanship of Sir Thomas Raleigh, and the Act of 1904 recommended various measures curtailing the growth of education and changing the composition of university administrative structure.

The education system, which thy British had worked out to consolidate their rule, within four

decades, produced results contrary to their expectations. The **Curzon** reforms  reflected the fact that necessary changes had to be made corresponding to the needs of  the ruling classes. This is only a brief description of official British educational policy in India. Now a brief mention is made about the efforts of some enlightened men and missionaries, to have a clear picture of the total educational development during this period.

After the establishment of British rule in India, some of the English intellectuals like .J. Duncan and William Jones were attracted by Indian literature. The result was the establishment of the Asiatic Society of Bengal in 1784, Sanskrit College in 1791 and the starting of the Bombay branch of the Royal Asiatic Society in November 1804. People like Charles Grant, Lord **Minto** and some Christian missionaries had endeavored to establish English Schools before 1813. But the efforts of these people were not fruitful.  The first attempts made by Europeans to impart education in India were the results of  private benevolence and enterprise, and that too not to natives but to Christian children.

There was a lot of political unrest in universities. This was in fact an expression of the rising class the Indian bourgeoisie, and its aspirations. The Indian National Congress at its sessions of **1902**, **1903** and **1904** adapted special resolutions condemning the Raleigh Commission. Indians on the senates took up the issue and Surendranath Banerjee and Gopal Krishna Gokhlae led protests in the streets.

The conflict between the contending classes found expression in the field of education. Jamshedji Tata visualized the need for scientific and technical manpower necessary for the development of independent capitalism, worked out a scheme for a research institute which culminated in the establishment of the Indian Institute of sciences in Bangalore in 1909. The leaders of the **Swadeshi** movement started the .Jodavpur  Engineering College in 1907. Prior to this, the Victoria Jubilee Technical School was
established in 1887 and in 1904 an association was formed in Calcutta to send Indians to U.K.. U.S.A., and Japan for higher studies in science. In 1906, the British turned down  the proposal of the Madras Provincial Government for a Department of Industries and in 1911 rejected a bill moved by Gokhalae for free and compulsory education.

The debates in educational policy reflected the clash of interest between the British and Indian bourgeoisie. While the former attempted to restrict education and impose a control with a view to stop students from taking active pan in politics, **the latter** saw the advantages of expansion of higher education as strengthening the national movement and providing the human resources for the development of capitalism in Independent India.

**Reference:**

Chapter III : Evolution of Educational Policy in India

( shodhganga.inflibnet.ac.in )

# 3. Post – Independence India :

- **Education commission ( D.S.Kothari / 1964-1966)** : 3 language formula

( development of modern Indian languages, Hindi as official and link language )

- **The Education Policy Resolution ,1968** : ( reiterated in  and 1992 )

Recommended : the development of Indian languages and literature for educational and cultural development. Regional languages to be used  as medium of instruction at the university /tertiary stage besides primary and secondary stages.

Advocated the 3 language formula with an emphasis on Hindi and modern Indian languages.

Promoted the development of Hindi as a link language and as a medium of expression for all the elements of the composite culture of India.

Encouraged the study of Sanskrit and English as also other international languages.

mhrd.gov.in /NPE-1968pdf
www. ncert.nic.in/npe86.pdf

- National Curriculum Framework,2005 / ( chapter 3, unit 3.1 )

( www.ncert.nic.in / framework/ english/nf2005.pdf )

- Article 29 ( protection of interest of minorities )

and

- Article 30 ( right of minorities to establish and administer educational institution ),

Part III, Constitution of India :

Scope of minority rights :

To preserve the language, script or culture

To establish and administer educational institution according to their choice.

https://india.gov.in/constitution-india

# 3. Post – Independence India / Education since Independence:

After the Sargent Commission, there were no major commissions or reports in the British period. Even the Sargent Commission's Report did not see the light of the day. Following the transfer of power, the Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE) decided to set up two Commissions one to deal with university education and the other to deal with secondary education, recognizing the fact that the requirements of independent India would be different, and hence a restructuring of the system was imminent.

This decision came at a time, when the promises made ,o the people in the field of education during the freedom struggle, were to be implemented. Free and compulsory education up to the age of 14 was being debated in the Constituent Assembly, which ultimately found expression in the Directive Principles of state policy. The scholar that seems to have been worked out was that universal elementary education would be achieved by I960, and necessary changes in the secondary as well as higher education would have to be made in accordance with the needs of an independent India..

University Education Commission 1948:

The first Commission to be appointed was the University Education Commission in 1948, under the chairmanship of Dr. S. Radhakrishna, to report on Indian University Education and suggest improvements and extensions that would be desirable to suit the present and future requirements of the country.

The Commission, which produced a comprehensive and voluminous report, got for itself the task of reorienting the education system to face the "great problem, national and social, the acquisition of economic independence, the increase of general prosperity, the attainment of effective democracy, overriding the distinctions of caste and creed, rich and poor and a rise in the level of culture, For a quick and effective realization of these aims, education is a powerful weapon if it is organized efficiently and in public interest. As we claim to be civilized people, we must regard the higher education of the rising generations as one of our principal concerns"

Implicit in this was the task that was, also repeatedly Mated by Nehru, that the achievement of political independence must be transferred into economic independence.

The essential tasks of this Commission were in correspondence to the class needs i.e., to orient the educational system towards achieving economic independence and attainment of values to ensure an effective democracy .

Towards this end, the report of the Commission discussed the re orientation of higher education in relation to the five basic tenets of our constitution Democracy, Justice,  Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity. The idea of the report was to mold "the education system as an ideological support to parliamentary democracy".

On the question of economic independence, the report noted that, "There is an urgent need of technicians and for such occupations and skills all over the country, which will train a large growing body of ambitious youth for employment as technicians, in various existing industries. We are strongly of the opinion that each province should have a large number of occupational institutes, preferably one in each district, giving training in as many occupations a§ possible.

**Secondary Education Commission (1952):**
The recommendations of Dr. Radhakrishnan were reinforced by the Secondary
Education Commission appointed in September 1952 with Dr. L.S. Mudiliar as Chairman. The report was submitted to the first Parliament in 1953.

Reilecting the needs of the ruling classes, the report in the chapter, Reorientation of  Aims and Objectives, notes that one of the (India's) most urgent problems is to improve
productive efficiency to increase the national wealth, and thereby to raise appreciably the standard of living of the people. The report went on to recommend the setting up of  technical schools, polytechnics, strengthening multi purpose education, central technical institutions etc., in fact the infrastructure that would procure a large technical manpower.  Establishment of multi-purpose schools was a major contribution of this Commission.

- **Education commission ( D.S.Kothari / 1964-1966)** : 3 language formula ( development of modern Indian languages, Hindi as official and link language )

## Education Commission (D.S. Kothari) 1964-66 :

After the appointment of Mudiliar Commission, to deal with all aspects and sectors of education and to advise Government on the evolution of a National System of Education  for the country, the Education Commission was appointed under the chairmanship of  **D.S. Kothari**. Based on this Commission's report, the **National Policy on Education 1968** was formulated.

The Basic Approach:
   This Commission reviewed the development of education in India in the modern period and particularly since Independence and came to the conclusion that Indian education needs a drastic reconstruction, almost a revolution, to realize the Constitutional goals and to meet the various problems facing the country in different sectors. This   comprehensive reconstruction, said the Commission, has three main aspects

1. Internal transformation

2. Qualitative improvement

3. Expansion of educational facilities

Internal Transformation:
   In the opinion of the Commission, "no reform is more important or more urgent than to transform education to endeavor to relate it to the life, Meeds and aspiration of the people". This is extremely significant because it is only such a transformation that can make education a powerful instrument of social, economic and cultural transformation necessary for the realization of our national

goals. It is also urgent and has to be accorded priority over expansion because the greater the expansion of the traditional system of education, the more difficult and costly it becomes, to change its character.

The Commission has emphasized the following ten programmes to bring about

this transformation :

1. Science Education:
Science Education should be made an integral part of all school education. Its teaching at the University stages should be improved and special emphasis should be laid on the development of scientific research.

2. Work Experience:
Work experience should be made an integral part of all general education. It should be oriented to technology, industrialization and the application of science to the production process including agriculture.

3. vocational Education:
vocational education should be emphasized, particularly at the secondary stage. At the lower secondary stage (age group 11 - 16) vocational education should ultimately be provided to about 20 percent of the enrollment. At the higher secondary stage (age group I7 -18) such enrollment should be increased to 50 percent. In higher education, about one-third of the total enrollment may be in vocational courses. In particular, it is essential to emphasize the development of education and research in agriculture.

4. The Common School:

A common school system of Public Education which would provide equality of access to children from all social strata. And which would be adequate in quantity

and quality was proposed.

5. Social and National Service:

Some form of Social Service should be obligatory on students of all ages.

## 6. Language Policy:

In the development of all modern languages as the medium of infraction and for the administration in the respective states. Hindi as both official and link language and English and Russian as library languages. It further said that the three language formula should be modified; only the mother tongue should be compulsory at the lower primary stage, a second language should be added at the higher primary stage either Hindi or English, at the lower secondary stage, all the three languages should be studied mother tongue, Hindi (or a modern Indian Language in Hindi areas) and English; any two of these languages should be compulsory at the higher secondary stage and no language should be compulsory at the University stage.

7. Promotion of National Unity:

Curricula should promote National Unity and consciousness and international

understanding.

8. Elasticity and Dynamics:

It observed rigidity and uniformity in the existing system. It suggested change in curricula, teaching methods and a large programme of in-service education for teachers and educational administrators.

Apart from full time education, part-time and own time educational programmes should be encouraged.

The education system should emphasize the development of fundamental social, Moral and spiritual values. There should also be some provision, in a multi-religious, democratic society like that of India, for giving some instruction about the different religions.

9. Qualitative Improvement:

The Commission has emphasized the need for dynamic and evolving standards of education. For this purpose the Commission has recommended the adoption of the following measures.

1. Utilization of Facilities:

It suggested increasing the number of working days, lengthening the duration of the working day, proper use of vacations and creating a climate of sustained and dedicated work.

2. Reorganization of Educational structure and Teachers student and Education:

It recommended the 10+2+3 pattern and recommended substantial improvement in remuneration of teachers particularly at the school stage and the gap in the remuneration of teachers at different stages of education was proposed to be abridged.

3. The Commission recommended drastic changes in curricula, teaching methods and evaluation, with the scope for elasticity and dynamism. It proposed autonomous colleges and experimental schools which would be free from the shackles of external

4. Selective Development:

In view of the scarcity of money, material and men it advised the selective

development of institutions. At the university stage, about five or six universities should be selected for intensive development, by locating clusters of centers of advanced study in them, and should be helped to reach internationally comparable standards.

Expansion of Educational Facilities:

The Education Commission at all stages, has recommended expansion of education facilities, but more priority was given for internal transformation and qualitative improvement. The following programmes were recommended:

1. Adult Literacy :

A part-time course of about one year's duration should be conducted for all children in the age group of 1-14 who have not attended school or left it before attaining literacy.

2. Primary Education :

Good and effective primary education should be provided to all children. The objective of the educational policy should be to provide five years of such education by 1975 and seven years of such education by 1985:

3. Secondary and Higher Education :

This should be expanded on a selective basis and the output of educational institutions should be broadly related to manpower needs or employment opportunities.

It is criticized that the Commission did not give a clear picture of "development",

That is, of the future society we should strive to create in the country, and the steps to be taken to create it. It is further argued that while the Commission did prepare a fairly good blueprint of the national system of education, its report did not highlight the close links between education and society. Nor did it elucidate how the dialectical process of education leads, to a strengthening and perpetuation of status quo, and to social change and development.

The report was in fact a reflection of the social and political expression of the economic crisis of the period. On the one hand it made recommendations that reflected the democratic aspirations of the Indian masses regarding free and compulsory education, increasing financial out-lays for education etc., arid on the other recommendations leading to the restriction of higher education.

The Policy Resolution, following the submission of the report, was adopted in 1968,
at the time when the economic crisis arising out of the capitalist path of development was finding sharp political expression. The Education Policy Resolution of 1968 in fact has very little to do with overall recommendations, of the **Kothari Commission**. The following six recommendations of the **Commissio**n were picked up by the government and intensive

efforts were made to implement them:

1. Use of regional language as medium of instruction at the university stage.
2. Non-formal education.
3. Education for the people i.e., Elementary and Adult Education.
4. The Common School System.
5. 10+2+3 Pattern.
6. Teachers salaries.

The proposals like new priorities in educational development, differential systems of grants in aid, continuance of education as a subject in state list etc., attracted wide  attention but were not implemented.

I). Banaras Hindu University Inquiry Committee 1969 :
In relation to governance, (he government found the **Kothari Commission** lacking
in many respects and appointed this Commission in 1969. The recommendations of this
commission regarding the appointment of Vice Chancellors, structure and composition  of
university grants etc. which gave the state a greater control over the administration of higher
education, corresponded to the ruling classes interest and hence was implemented.

The increasing general drive towards authoritarianism in the country, by the ruling class and its government, penetrated even the field of education. Also recognizing the need to effectively control education and educational institutions, one of the 'najor developments carried, was the Constitutional amendment during the Emergency to remove education from the state list and place it in the concurrent list.

The formation of the Janata Government, after the defeat of the Congress in the 1977 elections saw another attempt at tailoring the educational system with the Draft Education Policy of 1979. This emphasized among other things non-formal education, giving the Gandhian model as the ideological support to its argument. With the early fall of the Janata Party; this education policy was not adopted by the government successfully.

An attempt to study various aspects dealt by the Draft National Policy of Education (1979) is important, since it is the only policy at the center., which was framed by a political party other than Congress, even though it survived for a short period.

Draft National Policy on Education (1979) :

The Draft National Policy on Education 1979 states that an ideal system of education should enable individuals to know and develop to the fullest their physical and intellectual potentialities, and promote their awareness of social and human values, so that they can develop a strong character, live better lives and function as responsible members of the society. It should strengthen values of democracy, secularism and socialism. Education should promote national unity, pride and cultural heritage, and faith in the country's future. The effort must be to inculcate scientific and moral valuer and facilitate the pursuit of knowledge.

The impact of Gandhiji's "Basic Education" was very much there on the Draft National Policy 1979. It talked about moral education and socially useful productive work as part of education. It said that the content of education at all levels needs to be recast so as to make the educational process functional in relation to the felt needs and potentialities of the people". It should bridge the gulf between educated classes and masses and overcome feelings of superiority, inferiority and alienation.

Regarding elementary education, it proposed universal elementary education up to the age of 14, as laid down in the Directive Principles of the Constitution, to be achieved through formal and non-formal methods. At the elementary stage the curriculum must be capable of catering to the requirements of a wide range of learners and learning circumstances and built around local situations. Incentives such as mid-day meals free textbooks, and

uniforms should be provided to poor pupils. Special attention should be given to the education of girls and children of scheduled castes and tribes. It proposed the common school system. The main feature of it was the neighborhood school plan to promote common interests and social integration apart from providing quality education.

Much emphasis was laid on Adult Education, which the policy treated as an integral part of the Revised Minimum Needs Programme (RMNP). It is aimed at not only acquisition of literacy and numeracy, but also functional development and social awareness with a view to cultivating the habit of self-education.

Secondary Education :

It suggested improving the quality of secondary education to enable a student to
Enter life with self-reliance and confidence. At this stage diversification of education programmes is desirable. Secondary education should be comprehensive both to be
Terminal, for those who do not want or cannot proceed for further education, and to have a strong academic foundation for higher studies, for those who show intelligence and aptitude for that education. It suggested earlier foundations of vocationalization of  secondary education through socially useful productive work with an accent on practical  work becoming an integral component of the elementary school curriculum.

Higher Education :

Higher Education assumed importance in view of its contribution to national development. It preferred relieving pressure OR higher education, containing the proliferation of non-viable institutions and establishment of centers for excellence.

Apart from these major aspects, it also dealt with agricultural education, medical education, physical education, **three language formula**, and examinations reform. Role of teachers and teachers' education. Though it recognized the importance of financial inputs, it gave more importance to human intellectual contribution and suggested a review every five years to modify in light of past experience. It was more or less an ideological prop to the short-lived Janata regime. Apart from its thrust on Adult Education there was no breakthrough in this policy if it was compared either to the past or present.

If we look into the status of education in the light of the above discussions, it

Reveals that though much was claimed by policy makers about educational development in the

post Independence period, the scenario is far from satisfactory. Indian education system, which is a relic of the colonial past, is characterized by low levels of development and persistence of disparities in the social as well as economic structures. There are disparities between regions, sexes and the fruits of education have not reached the down-trodden. Enrollment and retention of girls and children belonging to the Scheduled Caste* and the Scheduled Tribes is not encouraging. The budgetary allocations for

Education is gradually on the decrease and the achievement of universalization of elementary education has remained a distant dream. The Indian education system is not only quantitatively small but also qualitatively inadequate and dysfunctional The changes in the world economic order and in technology have necessitated the policy makers to overhaul the present educational system. In this background, the Indian government released a document on educational development "Challenge of Education: A Policy Perspective'1 in 1985, to discuss the challenges before education and to formulate a new policy that can cope with the challenges.

To assess the development in education in the post Independence period } 1947-

1985), here an attempt is made to discuss the salient features of what has been accomplished and  what remains to be accomplished. (The summary of the document, final policy and comparison is done in the subsequent chapter). The major variables, which have been discussed here, are a) Literacy growth, b) Growth of Institutions by levels c) Enrollment  in different educational sectors (See Table 1), d) plan wise Budgetary allocation (See Table 2).


The document "**Challe**nge of Education: A Policy Perspective" says India has

made considerable progress in terms of increase in all types of institutions, enrollment, sophistication and diversification of educational programmes. The number of children going to middle, high and secondary classes has increased from 24 lakhs in 1947 to 340 lakhs in 1983, and the country in 1985 has 175,000 schools for these levels as compared to 13,000 in 1947. The number of girls and boys successfully completing the higher secondary stage has risen from 2.37 lakhs in I960- 61 to 8. 40 lakhs in 1981- 82. According to the document, at the time of Independence there were only 700 colleges and 20 universities with an enrollment of 4 lakhs, in 1985 it has risen to 5,246 colleges and 140   universities with an enrollment of 33.60 lakhs of which 9.76 lakhs are girls.

According to the document itself, we are still far from fulfillment of  the goal of universalization of elementary education, which was envisaged in the Constitution to be  achieved by the year

1960. One of the principal reasons for this is the high drop-out rate in classes I- VIII which continues to be above 75%. This rate is much higher amongst girls. Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. It rightly pointed out that effectiveness of enrollment could be judged by examining dropout rates. Low retention and high drop- out rate continues to erode the gains from educational expansion. It quotes World Bank estimates about the magnitude of illiteracy in India. "India would have the largest concentration of illiterate population by the year 2000 A.D. The country will have 54.8% of the world's illiterate population in the age group of 15- 19." An All India Educational

Survey of 1978 shows that many primary and middle schools do not have even basic amenities.

## Table 1
### Sex-Wise enrollment of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes since 1971

| Particulars | Years | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | 1970-71 | 1980-81 | 1983-84 |
| Scheduled Castes | | | |
| Male | 56 | 88 | 103 |
| Female | 23 | 44 | 55 |
| Total | 79 | 132 | 158 |
| Scheduled Tribes (Male). | 22 | 37 | 45 |
| (Female) | 9 | 17 | 23 |
| Total | 31 | 54 | 68 |
| Grand Total | 110 | 186 | 226 |

Source:
Ministry of Education, Trends of Educational Development of SCs and STs in India,
Ministry of Education, Education and Allied Statistics 1980-81.
Ministry of Education, Selected Educational Statistics, 1983-84.

## Table!
### Expenditure on Education in the Five Year Plans

| 1  2 | Current Price | At constant (1970-71) Prices | Persentage of Total Plan Outlay |
|---|---|---|---|
|  | 3 | | 4 |
| First Five Year Plan | 153 | 304 | 7.86 |
| Second Five Year Plan | 273 | 526 | 5.83 |
| Third Five Year Plan | 589 | 966 | 6.87 |
| Fourth Five Year Plan | 786 | 764 | 5.17 |
| Fifth Five Year Plan | 912 | 585 | 3.27 |
| Sixth Five Year Plan | 2835* | 1047 | 2.59 |
| Seventh Five Year Plan | 6383 | 1894 | 5.55 |

Includes 'actual' expenditure for the first 2 years, 'revised' expenditure for 1983-84, and outlay for 1984-85. Outlay (Draft).

Source : Indian Journal of Public Administration, July- September **1986**, P.729**.**

In so far as primary schools are concerned, 9% had no buildings whatsoever, 41.5% had no blackboards, 72% had no library facilities and bout 53%» had any playgrounds. In the rural areas 89% of primary, 70% of middle and 27% of secondary and 10% of higher secondary schools had no urinals, and no laboratory facilities.

According to the document itself in absolute terms there were more illiterates in 1981 (437 million) than there were at the time of Independence (300 million). And there is great disparity in the progress made not only between men and women but also between regions. Though the document says that India has made considerable progress in education since Independence, it has, however not been possible to meet the nation's aspirations from the viewpoint of overall coverage, equitable distribution and quality of education. In terms of literacy, India is still amongst the most backward countries with literates in 1981 accounting for only 36.2% of the population, and with women, Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes still at the level of 24.9% and 16.4% respectively. Even within Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes there is a lot of gap between male and female coveragee (see table 1). The document rightly mentions that the

most important reason for the slow progress has been an acute paucity of resources. The percentage of total plan out lay for education in the first plan was 7.86% and it was reduced to 3.55% in the Seventh Five-Year Plan. (See Table 2).

The above analysis shows that even after 40 years of Independence, India is lagging   behind in the field of education. The colonial legacy still dominates the education policy. Education in India, from the beginning has been catering to ihe needs of the rulling section of the community. The people's language, their needs and aspirations were never considered. There were attempts to change the education system whenever there was a crisis in the economy. In the ancient, and post Independence periods it received the same type of treatment, which resulted in further inequalities in the society. This is partly a result of the way the policies have been formulated.

**The Education Policy Resolution, 1968** : ( reiterated in  and 1992 )

Recommended: the development of **Indian languages** and literature for educational and cultural development. **Regional languages** to be used as medium of instruction at the university /tertiary stage besides primary and secondary stages.

Advocated the **3 language formula** with an emphasis on **Hindi** and **modern Indian languages.**

Promoted the development of **Hindi as a link language** and as a medium of expression for all the elements of the composite culture of India.

Encouraged the **study of Sanskrit and English** as also other **international languages.**

mhrd.gov.in /NPE-1968pdf

www. ncert.nic.in/npe86.pdf

# NATIONAL POLICY ON EDUCATION, 1968

1. Education has always been accorded an honoured place in Indian society. The

great leaders of the Indian freedom movement realised the fundamental role of education and throughout the nation's struggle for independence, stressed its unique significance for national development. Gandhiji formulated the scheme of basic education, seeking to harmonise intellectual and manual work. This was a great step forward in making education directly relevant to the life of the people. Many other national leaders likewise made important contributions to national education before independence.

2. In the post-independence period, a major concern of the Government of India and of the States has been to give increasing attention to education as a factor vital to national progress and security. Problems of educational reconstruction were reviewed by several commissions and committees, notably the University Education Commission (1948-49) and the Secondary Education Commission (1952-53). Some steps to implement the recommendations of these Commissions were taken; and with the passing of the Resolution on Scientific Policy under the leadership of Jawaharlal Nehru, the development of science, technology and scientific research received special emphasis. Toward the end of the third Five Year Plan, a need was felt to hold a comprehensive review of the educational system with a view to initiating a fresh and more determined effort at educational reconstruction; and the Education Commission (1964-66) was appointed to advise Government on " the national pattern of education and on the general principles and policies for the development of education at all stages and in all aspects." The Report of the Education Commission has since been widely discussed and commented upon. Government is happy to note that a consensus on the national policy on education has emerged in the course of these discussions.

3. The Government of India is convinced that a radical reconstruction of education on the broad lines recommended by the education commission is essential for economic and cultural development of the country, for national integration and for realising the ideal of a socialistic pattern of society. This will

involve a transformation of the system to relate it more closely to life of the people; a continuous effort to expand educational opportunity; a sustained and intensive effort to raise the quality of education at all stages; an emphasis on the development of science and technology; and the cultivation of moral and social values. The educational system must produce young men and women of character and ability

committed to national service and development. Only then will education be able to play its vital role in promoting national progress, creating a sense of common citizenship and culture, and strengthening the national integration. This is necessary if the country is to attain its rightful place in the comity of nations in conformity with its great cultural heritage and its unique potentialities.

4. The Government of India accordingly resolves to promote the development of education in the country in accordance with the following principles:

(1) **Free and Compulsory Education**: Strenuous efforts should be made for

the early fulfilment of the Directive principle under Article 45 of the Constitution seeking to provide free and compulsory education for all children up to the age of 14. Suitable programmes should be developed to reduce the prevailing wastage and stagnation in schools and to ensure that every child who is enrolled in schools successfully completes the prescribed course.

{2} • **Status, Emoluments and Education of Teachers**:

(a) Of all the factors which determine the quality of education and its contribution to national development, the teacher is undoubtedly the most important. It is on his personal qualities and character, his educational qualifications and professional competence that the success of all educational endeavours must ultimately depend. Teachers must, therefore, be accorded an honoured place in society, Their emoluments and other service conditions should be adequate and

satisfactory having regard to their qualifications and responsibilities.

(b) The academic freedom pf teachers to, pursue and publish independent

studies and researches and to speak and write about significant national and international issues should be protected.

(c) Teacher education, particularly in-service education, should receive due

emphasis.

(3) **Development of languages**: (a) **Regional Languages**: The energetic

development of **Indian Languages** and literature is a sine qua non for educational and cultural development. Unless this is done, the creative energies of the people will not be released, standards of education will not improve, knowledge will not spread to the peopleand the gulf between the intelligentsia and masses will remain if not widen further. The

**regional languages** are already in use as media of education at the primary and secondary stages. Urgent steps should now be taken to adopt them as media of education at the university stage.


(b) **Three-Language Formula**: At the secondary stage, the State Governments

should adopt, and vigorously implement, the **three-language formula** which **includes** the **study of a modern Indian language**, preferably **one of the southern languages, apart from Hindi and English in the Hindi-speaking States**, and of **Hindi along with the regional language and English in the Non-Hindi-speaking States**. **Suitable courses in Hindi and/or English** should also be **available in universities and colleges** with a view to improving the proficiency of students in these languages up to the prescribed university standards.

(c) **Hindi** - Every effort should be made to promote the development of Hindi.

In developing Hindi as the link language, due care should be taken to ensure that it will serve, as provided for in **Article 351 of the Constitution**, as a medium of expression for all the elements of the composite culture of India. The establishment, in non-Hindi States, of colleges and other institutions of higher education which use Hindi, as the medium of education should be encouraged.

(d) **Sanskrit** Considering the special importance of Sanskrit to the growth and development of Indian languages and its unique contribution to the cultural unity of the country, facilities for its teaching at the school and university stages should be offered on a more liberal scale. Development of new methods of teaching the language should be encouraged, and the possibility explored of including the study of Sanskrit in those courses (such as modern Indian languages, ancient Indian history, Ideology and Indian philosophy) at the first and second degree stages, where such knowledge is useful.

(e) **International Languages**: Special emphasis needs to be laid on **the study of**

**English and other international languages**. World knowledge is growing at a tremendous pace, especially in science and technology. India must not only keep up this growth but should also make her own significant contribution to it. For this purpose, study of English deserves to be specially strengthened.

(4) **Equalisation of Educational Opportunity**: Strenuous efforts should be

made to equalise educational opportunity.

(a) Regional imbalances in the provision of educational facilities should be Corrected and good educational facilities should be provided in rural and other backward areas.

(b) To promote social cohesion and national integration the Common School System as recommended by the Education Commission should be adopted. Efforts should be made to improve the standard of education in general schools. All special schools like public schools should be required to admit students on the basis of merit and also to provide a prescribed proportion of free-studentships to prevent segregation of social classes. This will not, however, affect the rights of minorities under Article 30 of the Constitution.

(c) The education of girls should receive emphasis, not only on grounds of social justice, but also because it accelerates social transformation.

(d) More intensive efforts are needed to develop education among the backward classes and especially among the tribal people.

(e) Educational facilities for the physically and mentally handicapped children Should be expanded and attempts should be made to develop integrated programmes enabling the handicapped children to study in regular schools.

(5) Identification of Talent: For the cultivation of excellence, it is necessary

that talent in diverse fields should be identified at as early an age as possible, and every  stimulus and opportunity given for its full development.

(6) Work - Experience and National Service: The school and the  community should be brought closer through suitable programmes of mutual service and

Support. Work-experience and national service including participation in meaningful and challenging programmes of community service and national reconstruction should accordingly become an integral part of education. Emphasis in these programmes should be on self-help, character formation and on developing a sense of social commitment.

(7) Science Education and Research: With a view to accelerating the growth of the national economy, science education and research should receive high

priority. Science and mathematics should be an integral part of general education till the end of the school stage.

(8) **Education for Agriculture and Industry**: Special emphasis should be

placed on the development of education for agriculture and industry.

(a) There should be at least one agricultural university in every State. These should, as far as possible, be single campus universities; but where necessary, they may have constituent colleges on different campuses. Other universities may also be assisted, where the necessary potential exists, to develop strong departments for the study of one or more aspects of agriculture.

(b) In technical education, practical training in industry should form an integral part of such education. Technical education and research should be related closely to industry, encouraging the flow of personnel both ways and providing for continuous co-operation in the provision, design and periodical review of training programmes and facilities.

(c) There should be a continuous review of the agricultural, industrial and other Technical manpower needs of the country and efforts should be made continuously to maintain a proper balance between the output of the educational institutions and employment opportunities.

(9) **Production of Books**: The quality of books should be improved by attracting the best writing talent through a liberal policy of incentives and remuneration. Immediate steps should be taken for the production of high quality textbooks for schools and universities. Frequent changes of textbooks should be avoided and their prices should be low enough for students of ordinary means to buy them. The possibility of establishing autonomous book corporations on commercial lines should be examined and efforts should be made to have a few basic textbooks common throughout the country. Special attention should be given to books for

children and to university level books in **regional languages**.

(10) **Examinations**: A major goal of examination reforms should be to improve the reliability and validity of examinations and to make evaluation a continuous process aimed at helping the student to improve his level of achievement rather than at 'certifying' the quality of his performance at a given moment of time.

(11) **Secondary Education**: (a) Education opportunity at the secondary (and higher) level is a major instrument of social change and transformation. Facilities for Secondary education should accordingly be extended expeditiously to areas and classes, which have been denied these in the past.

(b) There is need to increase facilities for technical and vocational education at this stage. Provision of facilities for secondary and vocational education should conform broadly to requirements of the developing economy and real employment opportunities. Such linkage is necessary to make technical and vocational education at the secondary stage effectively terminal. Facilities for technical and vocational education should be suitably diversified to cover a large number of fields such as agriculture, industry, trade and commerce, medicine and public health, home management, arts and crafts, secretarial training, etc.

(12) **University Education**: (a) the number of whole-time students to be admitted to a college or university department should be determined with reference to the laboratory, library and other facilities and to the strength of the staff.

(b) Considerable care is needed in establishing new universities. These should be started only after an adequate provision of funds has been made for the purpose and due care has been taken to ensure proper standards.

(c) Special attention should be given to the organisation of postgraduate courses and to the improvement of standards of training and research at this level.

(d) Centres of advanced study should be strengthened and a small number of 'Cluster of centers' aiming at the highest possible standards in research and training should be established.

(e) There is need to give increased support to research in universities generally. The institutions for research should, as far as possible, function within the fold of Universities or in intimate association with them.

(13) **Part-time Education and Correspondence Courses**:  Part time education and correspondence courses should be developed on a large scale at the university stage. Such facilities should also be developed for secondary school students, for teachers and for agricultural, industrial and other workers. Education through part-time and correspondence courses should be given the same status as full-time education. Such  facilities will smoothen transition from school to work, promote the cause of education and provide opportunities to the large number of people who have the desire to educate themselves further but cannot do so on a full-time basis.

(14) **Spread of Literacy and Adult Education**: (a) The liquidation of mass illiteracy is necessary not only for promoting participation in the working of democratic institutions and for accelerating programmes of production, especially in agriculture, but for quickening the tempo of national development in general. Employees in large commercial, industrial and other concerns should be made functionally literate as early as possible. A lead in this direction should come from the industrial undertakings in the public sector.

Teachers and students should be actively involved in organising literacy ampaigns, especially as part of the Social and National Service Programme.

(b) Special emphasis should be given to the education of young practicing farmers and to the training of youth for self-employment.

(15) **Games and Sports**: Games and sports should be developed on a large scale with the object of improving the physical fitness and sportsmanship of the average student as well as of those who excel in this department. Where playing field and other facilities for developing a nation-wide programme of physical education do not exist, these should be provided on a priority basis.

(16) **Education of Minorities**: Every effort should be made not only to protect the rights of minorities but to promote their educational interests as suggested in the statement issued by the Conference of the Chief Ministers of States and Central Ministers held in August, 1961.

(17) **The Educational Structure**: It will be advantageous to have a broadly uniform educational structure in all parts of the country. The ultimate objective should be to adopt the 10+2+3 pattern, the higher secondary stage of two years being located in schools, colleges or both according to local conditions.

5. The reconstruction of education on the lines indicated above will need additional outlay. The aim should be gradually to increase the investment in education so as to reach a level of expenditure of 6 per cent of the national income as early as possible.

6. The Government of India recognises that reconstruction of education is no easy task. Not only are the resources scarce but the problems are exceedingly complex. Considering the key role which education, science and research play in developing the material and human resources of the country, the Government of India will, in addition to undertaking programmes in the Central sector, assist the State Governments for the development of programmes of national importance where co-ordinated action on the part of the States and the Centre is called for.

7. The Government of India will also review, every five years; the progress made and recommend guidelines for future development.

http://www.ncert.nic.in/oth_anoun/npe86.pdf

National Curriculum Framework,2005 / ( chapter 3, unit 3.1 )

( www.ncert.nic.in / framework/ english/nf2005.pdf )

**Chapter 3: Curricular Areas , school stages and assessment**

The main areas relevant for curricular planning have remained remarkably stable for a long time, despite major changes in social expectations and the academic study of different broad disciplines. It is important that each curricular area is revisited in depth, so that specific points of entry can be identified in the context of emerging social needs. In this respect, the status and role of the arts and health and physical education deserve special attention in view of the peculiar orbit of the 'extra-curricular' to which they were relegated almost a century ago. Aesthetic sensibility and experience being the prime sites of the growing child's creativity, we must bring the arts squarely into the domain of the curricular, infusing them in all areas of learning while giving them an identity of their own at relevant stages. Work, peace, and health and physical education have a similar case. All three have a fundamental significance for economic, social and personal development. Schools have a major role to play in ensuring that children are socialised into a culture of self-reliance, resourcefulness, peace-oriented values and health.

## 3.1  LANGUAGE

Language in this document subsumes bi-/ multilingualism. And when we talk of home language(s) or mother tongue(s), it subsumes the languages of home, larger kinship group, street and neighbourhood, i.e. languages(s) that a child acquires  naturally from her/his home and societal environment. Children are born with an innate language faculty. We know from our everyday experiences that most children, even before they start their schooling, internalise an  extremely complex and rule-governed system called language, and possess full linguistic capabilities. In many cases, children come to school with two or three languages already in place at the oral-aural level. They are able to use these languages not only accurately but also appropriately. Even differently talented children who do not use the spoken languages develop equally complex alternative sign and symbol systems for expression and communication.

Languages also provide a bank of memories and symbols inherited from one's

fellow speakers and created in one's own lifetime. They are also the medium through which most knowledge is constructed, and hence they are closely tied to the thoughts and identity of the individual. In fact, they are so closely bound with identity that to deny or wipe out a child's mother tongue(s) is to interfere with the sense of self. Effective

Multilingualism, which is constitutive of the identity of a child and a typical feature of the Indian linguistic landscape, must be used as a resour ce, classroom strategy and a goal by a creative language teacher. This is not only the best use of a resource readily available, but also a way of ensuring that every child feels secure and accepted, and that no one is left behind on account of his/her linguistic background.

understanding and use of languages(s) enables the child to make connections between ideas, people and things, and to relate to the world around.

If we wish to launch any sound programme for language teaching in schools, it is important to recognize the inbuilt linguistic potential of children as well as to remember that languages get socio-culturally constructed and change in our day-to-day interactions.

Language(s) in education would ideally build on this resource, and would strive to enrich it through the development of literacy (scripts including Braille) for the acquisition of academic knowledge. Children with language-related impairments should be introduced to standard sign languages, which can support their continued growth and development to the fullest. A recognition of the linguistic abilities of learners would encourage them to believe in themselves and their cultural moorings.

## 3.1.1  Language education

The linguistic diversity of India poses complex challenges but also a range of opportunities. India is unique not only in that a large number of languages are spoken here but also in terms of the number and variety of language families that

are represented in those languages. There is no other country in the world in which languages from five different language  families exist. Even though they are so distinct structurally as to merit classification as different language families, namely,Indo-Aryan,  Dravidian,  Austro-Asiatic,  Tibeto-Burman and Andamanese, they constantly interact with each other. There are several linguistic and sociolinguistic features that are shared across languages that bearwitness to the fact that different languages and cultures have coexisted in India for centuries, enriching each other. Classical languages such as Latin, Arabic, Persian,

Tamil and Sanskrit are rich in their inflectional  grammatical structure and aesthetic value, and can illuminate our lives, as many languages keep borrowing

words from them .

Several studies have shown that bilingual proficiency raises the levels of cognitive growth, social tolerance, divergent thinking and scholastic achievement. Societal or national-level multilingualism is a resource that can be favourably compared to any other national resource.

Today, we know for certain that bilingualism or multilingualism confers definite cognitive advantages.The three-language formula is an attempt to addressthe challenges and opportunities of the linguistic situation  in India. It is a strategy that should really serve as a launching pad for learning more languages. It needs to be followed both in letter and spirit. Its primary aim is to promote multilingualism and national harmony. The following guidelines may help us achieve this aim:

- Language teaching needs to be multilingual not only in terms of the number of  languages offered to children but also in terms of  evolving strategies that would use the multilingual classroom as a resource.

- Home language(s) of children, as defined above in 3.1, should be the medium of learning in schools.

- If a school does not have provisions for teaching in the child's home language(s) at the higher levels, primary school education must still be covered through the home language(s). It is imperative that we honor the child's home language(s).

According to Article 350A of our Constitution, 'It shall be the endeavour of every State and of
every local authority within the State to provide adequate facilities for instruction in the mother-tongue at the primary stage of education to children belonging to linguistic minority groups'.

- Children will receive multilingual education from the outset. The three-language formula needs to be implemented in its spirit, promoting multilingual communicative abilities for a multilingual country.

- In the non-Hindi-speaking states, children learn Hindi. In the case of Hindi speaking states, children learn a language not spoken in their area. Sanskrit may also be studied as a Modern Indian Language (MIL) in addition to these languages.

- At later stages, study of classical and foreign languages may be introduced.

## 3..2  Home/First language(s) or Mother-tongue education

It is clear that through their innate language faculty and interaction with the family and other people around them, children come to school with full-blown communicative competence in their language, or, in many cases, languages. They enter the school not only with thousands of words but also with a full control of the rules that govern the complex and rich structure of language at the level of sounds, words, sentences and discourse. A child knows not only how to understand and speak correctly but also appropriately in her language(s).

She can modulate her behaviour in terms of person, place and topic. She obviously has the cognitive abilities to abstract extremely complex systems of language-from the flux of sounds. Honing these skills by progressively fostering advanced-level communicative and cognitive abilities in the classroom is the goal of first-language(s) education. From Class III

> Literature can also be a spur to children's own creativity. After hearing a story, poem or song, children can be encouraged to write something of their own. They can also be encouraged to integrate various forms of creative expression.

Onwards, oracy and literacy will be tools for learning and for developing higher-order communicative skills and critical thinking. At the primary stage, child's languages must be accepted as they are, with no attempt to correct them. By Class IV, if rich and interesting exposure is made available, the child will herself acquire the standard variety and the rules of correct orthography, but care must be taken to honour and respect the child's home language(s)/mother tongue(s). It should be accepted that errors are a necessary part of the process of learning, and that children will correct themselves only when they are ready to do so. Instead of focusing attention on errors and 'hard spots', it would be much better to spend time providing children comprehensible, interesting and challenging inputs.

It is indeed hard to exaggerate the importance of teaching home languages at school. Though children come equipped with basic interpersonal communicative skills, they need to acquire at school cognitively advanced levels of language proficiency. Basic language skills are adequate for meeting situations that are contextually rich and cognitively undemanding such as peer-group interaction; advanced-level skills are required in situations that are contextually poor and cognitively demanding such as writing an essay on an abstract issue. It is also now well established that higher-level proficiency skills easily transfer from one language to another. It is thus imperative that we do everything we can to strengthen the sustained learning of Indian languages at school.

Language education is not confined to the language classroom. A science,

social science or mathematics class is ipso facto a language class. Learning the subject means learning the terminology, understanding the concepts, and being able to discuss and write about them critically. For some topics, students should be encouraged to consult books or talk to people in different languages, or gather material in English from the Internet. Such a policy of languages across the curriculum will foster a genuine multilingualism in the school. At the same time, the language class offers some unique opportunities. Stories, poems, songs and drama link children to their cultural heritage, and also give them an opportunity to understand their own experiences and to develop sensitivity to others. We may also point out that children may effortlessly abstract more grammar from such activities than through explicit and often boring grammar lessons.

While many of the differently abled learners may pick up basic language skills through normal social interactions, they could additionally be provided with especially designed materials that would assist and enhance their growth and development. Studying sign language and Braille could be included as options for learners without disabilities.

### 3.1.3  Second-language Acquisition

English in India is a global language in a multilingual country.  A variety and range of English-teaching situations prevail here owing to the twin factors of teacher proficiency in English and pupils' exposure to English outside school. The level of **introduction of English** is now a matter of political response to people's aspirations rather than an academic or feasibility issue, and people's choices about the level of its introduction in the curriculum will have to be respected, with the proviso that we do not extend downwards the very system that has failed to deliver.

The goals for a second-language curriculum are twofold: attainment of a basic proficiency, such as is acquired in natural language learning, and the development of language into an instrument for abstract thought and

knowledge acquisition through (for example) literacy. This argues for an

**Across-the-curriculum approach** that breaks down the barriers between English and other subjects, and English and other Indian languages. At the initial stages, English may be one of the languages for learning activities that create the child's awareness of the world. At later stages,

> Within the eight years of education constitutionally guaranteed to every child, it should be possible to achieve basic English- language proficiency in a span of about four years. A multilingual approach to schooling from the very outset will counter possible ill effects such as loss of one's own languages and the burden of sheer incomprehension.

all learning happens through language. Higher-order linguistic skills generalise across languages; reading, (for example) is a transferable skill. Improving it in one language improves it in others, while reading failure in one's own languages adversely affects second-language reading.

English does not stand alone. The aim of English teaching is the creation of multilinguals who can enrich all our languages; this has been an abiding national vision. English needs to find its place along with other Indian languages in different states, where children's other languages strengthen English teaching and learning; and in "English-medium" schools, where other Indian languages need to be valorised to reduce the perceived hegemony of English. The relative success of "English- medium" schools shows that language is learnt when it is not being taught as language, through exposure in meaningful context. Thus English must be seen in relation to other subjects; a language across the curriculum is of particular relevance to primary education, and later all teaching is in a sense language teaching. This perspective will bridge the gap between "English as subject" and "English as medium". We should in this way move towards a common school system that does not make a distinction between " teaching a language" and "using a language as a medium of instruction".

Input-rich communicational environments are a prerequisite for language

learning, whether first or second. Inputs include textbooks, learner-chosen texts, and class libraries, allowing for a variety of genres: print (for example, Big Books for young learners); parallel books and materials in more than one language; media support (learner magazines/newspaper columns, radio/audio cassettes); and "authentic" materials. The language environment of disadvantaged learners needs to be enriched by developing schools into community learning centres. A variety of successful innovations exists whose generalisability needs exploration and encouragement. Approaches and methods need not be exclusive but may be mutually supportive within a broad cognitive philosophy (incorporating Vygotskian, Chomskyan, and Piagetian principles). Higher-order skills (including literary appreciation and role of language in gendering) can be developed once fundamental competencies are ensured.

Teacher education needs to be ongoing and onsite (through formal or informal support systems), as well as preparatory. Proficiency and professional awareness are equally to be promoted, the latter imparted, wherever necessary, through the teachers' own languages. All teachers who teach English should have basic proficiency in English. All teachers should have
the skills to teach English in ways appropriate to their situation and levels based on some knowledge of how languages are learnt. A variety of materials should be available to provide an input-rich curriculum, which focuses on meaning.

Language evaluation need not be tied to "achievement" with respect to particular syllabi, but must be reoriented to the measurement of language proficiency. Evaluation is to be made an enabling factor for learning rather than an impediment. Ongoing assessment could document a learner's progress through the portfolio mode. National benchmarks for language proficiency need to be evolved preliminaryto designing a set of optional English language tests that will balance curricular freedom with standardization of  evaluation that certification requires, and serve to counter the current problem of English (along with Mathematics) being a principal reason for failure at the Class X level.  A student may be allowed to "pass without English" if an alternative route for

English certification (and therefore instruction) can be provided outside the regular school curriculum.

### 3.1.4  Learning to Read and Write

Though we strongly advocate an integrated approach to the teaching of different skills of language, the school does need to pay special attention to reading and writing in many cases, particularly in the case of home languages.  In the case of second and third, or classical or foreign languages, all the skills, including communicative competence, become important. Children appear to learn much better in holistic situations that make sense to them rather than in a linear and additive way that often has no meaning.  Rich and comprehensible input should constitute the site for acquisition of all the different skills of language. In several communicative situations, such as taking notes

While listening to somebody on the phone, several skills may need to be used together.  We really wish children to read and write with understanding. Language – as aconstellation of skills, thought encoders and markers of  identity– cuts across school subjects and disciplines. Speech and listening, reading and writing, are all generalised skills, and children's mastery over them becomes the key factor affecting success at school.  In many situations, all of these skills need to be used together.  This is why it is important to view language education as everybody's concern at school, and not as a responsibility of the language teacher alone.  Also, the foundational role of the skills associated with language does not stop with the primary or elementary classes, but extends all the way up to secondary and senior secondary classes as new needs arise in the subject areas. Development of life skills such as critical thinking skills, interpersonal communication skills, negotiation/ refusal skills, decision making/ problem-solving skills, and coping and self-management skills is also very critical for dealing with the demands and challenges of everyday life.

The conventionally trained language teacher associates the training of speech with correctness rather than with the expressive and participatory

functions of language. This is why talking in class has a negative value in our system, and a great deal of the teacher's energy goes into keeping children quiet, or getting them to pronounce correctly.  If teachers see the child's talk as a resource rather than as a nuisance, the vicious cycle of resistance and control would have a chance to be turned into a cycle of expression and response.  There is a vast body of knowledge available on how talk can be used as a resource, and pre- and in-service teacher education programmes must introduce teachers to this. Designers of textbooks and teacher manuals could also plan and provide precise guidance to teachers regarding

ways in which the subject matter can be explored further with the help of  small group talk among children, and undertaking activities that nurture the abilities to compare and contrast, to wonder and remember, to guess and challenge, to judge and evaluate.  In the orbit of listening, similar detailed planning of activities for incorporation in textbooks and teacher manuals would go a long way in resurrecting the significant skill and value area.  It covers the ability to pay attention, to value the other person's point of view, to stay in touch with the unfolding utterance, and to make flexible hypotheses about the meaning of what is being said.   Listening, thus, forms as complex a web of skills and values as talking does. Locally available resources include folklore and storytelling, community singing and theatre. Storytelling is appropriate not only for pre-school education, but continues to be significant even later. As a narrative discourse, orally told the stories lay the foundations of logical understanding even as they expand the imagination and enhance the capacity to participate vicariously in situations distant from one's life.  Fantasy and mystery play an important role in child development.  As a sector of language learning,  listening also needs to be enriched with the help of music, which includes folk, classical and popular compositions. Folklore and music also deserve a place in the language textbook as discourses capable of being developed with the help of exercises and activities unique to them.

While reading is readily accepted as a focus area for language education, school syllabi are burdened with information-absorbing and memorising tasks, so

much so that the pleasure of reading for its own sake is missed out. Opportunities for individualised reading need to be built at all stages in order to promote a culture of reading, and teachers must set the example of being members of such a culture. This requires the

nurturing of  school and community libraries.  The perception that the reading of fiction is a waste of time acts as a major means of discouraging reading. The development and supply of a range of supplementary reading material relevant to all school subjects and across the grades require urgent attention. A great deal of such material, though of varying quality, is available in the market, and could be utilised in a methodical manner to expand the scope of classroom teaching of a subject. Teacher training programmes need to familiarise teachers with such material, and to give them yardsticks by which to select and use it effectively.

The importance of writing is well recognised, but the curriculum needs to attend to its innovative treatments.  Teacher s insists that children write in a correct way. Whether they express their own thoughts and feelings through writing is not considered too important. Just as the prematurely imposed discipline of pronunciation stifles the child's motivation to talk

 freely, in his or her own dialect, for instance, the demand for writing in mechanically correct ways blocks the urge to use writing to express or to convey one's ideas. Teachers need to be persuaded and trained to place writing in the same domain as artistic expression, and to cease perceiving it as an office skill. During the primary years, writing abilities should be developed holistically in conjunction with the sensibilities associated with talking, listening, and reading. At middle and senior levels of schooling, note making should receive attention as a skill-development training exercise. This will go a long way in discouraging mechanical copying from the blackboard, textbooks and guides.  It is also necessary to break the routinisation of tasks like letter and essay writing, so that imagination and originality are allowed to play a more prominent role in education.

Article 29 ( protection of interest of minorities )
and
Article 30 ( right of minorities to establish and administer educational institution ),
Part III, Constitution of India :
Scope of minority rights :
To preserve the language, script or culture
To establish and administer educational institution according to their choice.
https://india.gov.in/constitution-india

## Article 29: (Part III.—Fundamental Rights.—Arts. 29 )

### Cultural and Educational Rights

### ( protection of interest of minorities )

29. (1) Any section of the citizens residing in the territory of India or any part thereof having a distinct language, script or culture of its own shall have the right to conserve the same.

(2) No citizen shall be denied admission into any educational institution maintained by the State or receiving aid out of State funds on grounds only of religion, race, caste, language or any of them.

## Article 30: (Part III.—Fundamental Rights.—Arts. 30)

### Cultural and Educational Rights

### ( right of minorities to establish and administer educational institution )

30. (1) All minorities, whether based on religion or language, shall have the right to establish and administer educational institutions of their choice.

| Right of minorities to establish and administer educational institutions. |
|---|

(Part III.—Fundamental Rights.—Arts. 30—31A.)

1 [(1A) In making any law providing for the compulsory acquisition of any property of an educational institution established and administered by a minority,

referred to in clause (1), the State shall ensure that the amount fixed by or determined under such law for the acquisition of such property is such as would not restrict or abrogate the right guaranteed under that clause.]

(2) The State shall not, in granting aid to educational institutions, discriminate against any educational institution on the ground that it is under the management of a minority, whether based on religion or language.

https://india.gov.in/sites/upload_files/npi/files/coi_part_full.pdf

**Scope of minority rights :**

To preserve the language, script or culture

To establish and administer educational institution according to their choice.

**Language policy in education  and the role of English in India:  From library language to   language of empowerment**

Ramanujam Meganathan

## Introduction

Throughout India, there is an extraordinary belief, among almost all castes and classes, in both rural and urban areas, in the transformative power of English.  English is seen not just as a useful skill, but as a symbol of a better life, a pathway  out of poverty and oppression. Aspiration of such magnitude is a heavy burden  for any language, and for those who have responsibility for teaching it, to bear.  The challenges of providing universal access to English are significant, and many are bound to feel frustrated at the speed of progress. But we cannot   ignore the way that the English language has emerged as a powerful agent for  change in India. (Graddol 2010:120)

This chapter explores language policy-making processes in the Indian context, implementation issues and the place and role of English in school education. Language in education policy derives from the Indian Constitution which guarantees linguistic rights to all citizens; most importantly, members of minority groups (both religious and linguistic) are granted a special right to be educated in their mother tongue. Despite this consensus, there have been numerous political and educational controversies regarding implementation of these constitutional provisions.

The national language policy (or strategy) for school education, the three-language formula recommended by the National Commission on Education 1964–1966,  was incorporated into the national education policies of 1968 and 1986. Accommodating at least three-languages in school education has been seen as a convenient strategy, but concerns have also been expressed from various quarters about its 'unsatisfactory' implementation.

India's pluralism is regflected in its linguistic diversity. According to the 1971 census, the country has 1,652 languages belonging to five different language families:  Indo-Aryan, Dravidian, Austro-Asiatic, Tibeto-Burmese and Semito-Hamitic (GOI 1971). The Indian constitution identifies 22 'recognised languages'.

About 87 languages are used in print media, 71 languages are used on radio and the administration of the country is conducted in 15 languages. According to Rao (2008), two decades ago the number of languages used as media of instruction was about 60 but by the time Rao's study was carried out the number had dropped to 47. (As we will see below, it appears that this number has now fallen further still.) English – formerly perceived as a library language and the language of higher education – is now in demand by every quarter as a means of progress and the key to a better life. As Graddol points out, the language which was a 'key part of the mechanism of exclusion because of its very unequal distribution in society' is now seen 'as a

means of inclusion' (Graddol 2010:120). The English language in India today is both an admired and a hated phenomenon. On the one hand, there is an increasing demand for the language which is associated with progress and development, while on the other the language is perceived as a killer of native or indigenous languages.

The demand for English emerges from many factors, as recognised by the position paper on the teaching of English produced by the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT 2006) in connection with the National Curriculum Framework 2005 (NCERT 2005):

English in India today is a symbol of people's aspirations for quality in education and fuller participation in national and international life ... The level of introduction of English has now become a matter of political response to people's aspirations, rendering almost irrelevant an academic debate on the merits of a very early introduction. (NCERT 2006:1)

However, the disparity in the quality of English language education experienced by children further intensifies the already existing divide between English languagerich and English language-poor children. The present condition of English language teaching in the varied contexts of India is summed up in the following manner:

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Language- rich and English language-poor children. The present condition of English language  teaching in the varied contexts of India is summed up in the following manner:

1. ↑↑TP ↑↑EE (e.g. English medium private/government aided elite schools): Prohcient teachers; varying degrees of English in the environment, including  as a home or first language.

2. ↑↑TP ↑↑EE (e.g. New English medium; private schools, many of which use both English and other Indian languages): Teachers with limited prohciency; children with little or no background in English; parents aspire to upward mobility through English.

3. ↑↑TP↑↑ EE (e.g. Government-aided regional medium schools): Schools with a  tradition of English education along with regional languages, established by

educational societies, with children from a variety of backgrounds.

4. ↑↑TP ↑↑EE (e.g. Government regional medium schools run by district and municipal education authorities): They enrol the largest number of elementary school children in rural India. They are also the only choice for the urban poor (who, however, have some options of access to English in the environment).

Their teacher may be the least proficient in English in these four types of school.

 TP = Teachers' English language proficiency; EE = English language environment

(Kurrien 2005 quoted in NCERT 2006:9)

The rest of this chapter consists of seven sections, beginning with a brief historical overview of the three-language policy. The next section discusses the **number of languages taught in Indian schools.** This is followed by details of **languages taught as  first, second and third languages**. The following section looks at the languages used as media of instruction. There is then a section focusing on the introduction of the second and third languages. The penultimate section then summarises all the findings reported here which relate to English and the chapter ends with a conclusion.

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**Language policy in school education**:

**The three-language formula**

Language planning for school education in India can be seen more as a question of status planning rather than corpus or acquisition planning. The language policy which emerged as a political consensus in the formative years of independence is also an illustration of democratic processes in the Asian context. The three- language formula emerged as a policy or a strategy after a quarter of a century of debate and deliberations from political and academic perspectives by educational advisory bodies and politicians representing national and regional interests.

The Central Advisory Board on Education (CABE), the oldest statutory body on  education in India, initiated the discussion on languages in school education in the  1940s and this continued to be a major concern in their discussions until 1960.

CABE identified five major issues which required attention:

1. The number of languages to be taught at various levels of school education
2. The introduction of second and third languages

3. The place and role of English

4. The place and role of Hindi

5. The teaching of Sanskrit and minor language(s) in school.

The Board devised the 'three-language formula' in its 23rd meeting held in 1956 with a view to removing inequalities among the languages of India. It  recommended  that three-languages should be taught in the Hindi as well as non-Hindi-speaking  areas of the country at the middle and high school stages and suggested the  following two possible formulae:

1. (a)  i.  Mother tongue or

  ii.  Regional language or

  iii. A composite course of mother tongue and a regional language or

iv. A composite course of mother tongue and a classical language or

  v.  A composite course of regional language or a classical language,

(b) Hindi or English

(c) A modern Indian language or a modern European language provided it has

not already been taken under (a) and (b) above.


2. (a) As above

(b) English or a modern European language

(c) Hindi (for non-Hindi-speaking areas) or another modern Indian language

(for Hindi-speaking areas)

(MOE 1957, quoted in Agarwal 1993:79)

## The three-language formula was simplified and approved by the Conference of Chief Ministers held in 1961 as follows:

1. The regional language or the mother tongue when the latter is different from the regional language

2. Hindi or any other Indian language in Hindi speaking areas; and

3. English or any other modern European language.

(GOI 1962:67)

## CABE also deliberated in detail on the study of English as a compulsory subject as recommended by the education ministers' conference held in 1957:

1. English should be taught as a compulsory language both at the secondary and

the university stages, students acquire adequate knowledge of English so as to

be able to receive education through this language at the university level.

2. English should not be introduced earlier than class V. The precise point at which

English should be started at the middle stage was left to each individual state to

decide.

(MOE 1957, quoted in Agarwal 1993:98)

A comprehensive view of the study of languages at school was undertaken and concrete recommendations were made by the Education Commission between 1964 and 1966 (MOE 1966). The Commission, having taken account of the diversity of the Indian context, recommended a modified or graduated three-language formula:

1. The mother tongue or the regional language

2. The official language of the Union or the associate official language of the Union so long as it exists; and

3. A modern Indian or foreign language not covered under (1) and (2) and other than that used as the medium of instruction.

(MOE 1966:192)
The Commission's observation on the status and role of English is of importance from the point of view of language planning and the way the language was perceived by policy planners. The Commission said:
 English will continue to enjoy a high status so long as it remains the principal medium of education at the university stage, and the language of administration at the Central Government and in many of the states. Even after the regional languages become media of higher education in the universities, a working knowledge of English will be a valuable asset for all students and a reasonable pro@ciency in the language will be necessary for those who proceed to the university. (MOE 1966:192)


This brief historical scan of the evolution of the language policy in India tells us how the apprehension about the dominance of English (as a colonial language which signifies the master's language) has been naturally alleviated by the role which the language has attained. This is in spite of the efforts (political and systemic) to contain its spread. Today, every child and parent wants the language.

## Number of languages available and taught

The Sixth All India School Education Survey in 1993 explored the number of languages actually taught and the number of languages actually used as media of instruction at different stages of schooling throughout India. It also found the number and percentage of schools teaching particular languages and using specific languages as media of instruction (NCERT 1993). The Seventh All India
Survey replicated this research in 2002 and its report was published in 2007
(NCERT 2007).
According to the 2002 Survey, the number of schools in the country having
primary, upper primary, secondary and higher secondary stages are 850,421,
337,980, 130,675 and 43,869 respectively (NCERT 2007).

Some of the findings of the two surveys are summarised in Table 1.

Table 1: School language policies in India ( per cent)

| Policies | Primary | | Upper primary | | Secondary | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1993 | 2002 | 1993 | 2002 | 1993 | 2002 |
| 'Three-Language Formula' offered | * | * | 82.16 | 90.61 | 79.54 | 84.86 |
| Two or more languages offered | 34.85 | 91.95 | 95.56 | 90.61 | 96.65 | 84.86 |
| Hindi taught as first language | 40.49 | 59.70 | 38.25 | 39.92 | 30.85 | 33.08 |
| Hindi taught as second language | 11.97 | - | 29.81 | - | 31.99 | - |
| English taught as first language** | 2.09 | - | 4.52 | 9.89 | 6.57 | 13.26 |
| English taught as second language | 60.33 | - | 55.05 | - | 54.12 | - |

*The Three-language Formula comes into effect from Class 6.
**Although it is very difficult to define English as a first language in India, some schools and school systems mentioned it as a first language.

Table 1 shows that in 2002 nearly 91 per cent of schools followed the three-language formula at the upper primary stage and almost 85 per cent did so at the secondary stage. An increase in the percentage of schools following the formula can be seen because in 1993 the corresponding figures were 82 per cent and almost 80 per cent respectively.

Table 1 also reveals that in 2002 almost 40 per cent of schools at the upper primary stage and 33 per cent at the secondary stage were teaching Hindi as a firrst language. These figures show a slight increase compared to 1993 when the comparable figures were 38 per cent and 31 per cent respectively.

Meanwhile, in 2002 almost ten per cent of schools at the upper primary stage and 13 per cent of schools at the secondary stage claimed to be teaching English as a first language. Although these figures are still relatively modest they indicate that the percentage of schools teaching English as a first language had more or less doubled over a period of ten years, from five per cent and seven per cent respectively. (It has to be remembered that the term 'first language' is used here in the context of India's three-language policy. In other words, it is the first language which the child encounters at school and not necessarily the child's own first language or mother tongue.)

Box 1 lists all the languages taught in each state and Union Territory. The information shown here was collected from curricular documents, syllabi and statements by officials in the states and UTs. The information covers all stages of schooling from Primary to Higher Secondary, from Classes I to XII. The languages listed here are taught as first, second, third, classical and elective languages.

**Box 1: Languages taught in the school curriculum**

| No. | State/Union Territory | Languages available/offered | Total languages available |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Andhra Pradesh | Telugu, Urdu, Hindi, Tamil, Kannada, Oriya, Marathi, Sanskrit, Persian, Arabic, English | 11 |
| 2. | Arunachal Pradesh | English, Hindi, Sanskrit, Assamese, Butia, Bhoti | 6 |
| 3. | Assam | Assamese, Bengali, Bodo, Garo, Hindi, Khasi, Manipuri, Mizo, Nepali, Urdu, Hmar, Sanskrit, Persian, Arabic, English | 15 |
| 4. | Bihar | Hindi, Urdu, Bengali, English, Bhojpuri, Arabic, Maithili, Persian, Magahi, Sanskrit | 10 |
| 5. | Chhattisgarh | Hindi, English, Marathi, Bengali, Gujarati, Tamil, Punjabi, Urdu, Sindhi, Telugu, Malayalam, Sanskrit, Kannada, Oriya | 14 |
| 6. | Goa | Konkani, Marathi, Hindi, English, Urdu, French, Portuguese, Sanskrit, Arabic | 9 |
| 7. | Gujarat | Gujarati, Hindi, Marathi, English, Urdu, Sindhi, Tamil, Sanskrit | 8 |
| 8. | Haryana | Hindi, English, Punjabi, Sanskrit, other MILs | 4 |
| 9. | Himachal Pradesh | Hindi, English, Sanskrit, other MILs | 3 |
| 10. | Jammu and Kashmir | Urdu, Kashmiri, English, Dogri, Punjabi, Arabic, Sanskrit, Persian, Gojri, Pahari, Hindi | 11 |
| 11. | Jharkhand | Bengali, English, Hindi, Urdu, others | 4 |
| 12. | Karnataka | Kannada, English, Hindi, Marathi, Urdu, Telugu, Tamil, Sanskrit, Arabic, Konkani, Persian | 11 |
| 13. | Kerala | Malayalam, Tamil, Kannada, Sanskrit, Hindi, English, Urdu, Arabic, French, Latin, Syriac, Russian | 12 |
| 14. | Madhya Pradesh | Hindi, English, Urdu, Marathi, Sanskrit, Punjabi, Sindhi, Malayalam, Persian, Arabic, French, Russian | 12 |
| 15. | Maharashtra | Data could not be collected | - |
| 16. | Manipur | Manipuri, Hindi, English, Bengali, Paite, Hmar, Thadou-Kuki, Mizo, Tangkhul, Zou, Nepali, Kom, Vaiphei, Mao | 14 |
| 17. | Meghalaya | Data could not be collected | - |
| 18. | Mizoram | Mizo, English, Hindi, Bengali, Nepali, Manipuri | 6 |
| 19. | Nagaland | English, Jenyidie, Sumi, Ao, Lotha, Hindi, Bengali | 7 |
| 20. | Orissa | Oriya, Urdu, Bengali, Hindi, Telugu, English, Sanskrit, Persian | 8 |
| 21. | Punjab | Punjabi, Hindi, Urdu, English, Sanskrit, Persian, Arabic, Nepalese, Tibetan, French, German, Portuguese, Russian, Bengali, Gujarati, Marathi, Telugu, Tamil, Malayalam, Oriya, Kannada | 23 |
| 22. | Rajasthan | Hindi, English, Sanskrit, Urdu, Sindhi, Gujarati, Punjabi, Malayalam, Tamil, Rajasthani, Prakrit, Persian | 12 |
| 23. | Sikkim | English, Nepali, Bhutia, Lepcha, Limboo, Newari, Tamang, Sharpa, Gurung, Rai, Manger, Sunuwar, Hindi | 13 |
| 24. | Tamil Nadu | Tamil, Malayalam, Telugu, Urdu, English, Hindi, Kannada | 7 |
| 25. | Tripura | Bengali, Kokbarok, English, Bishnupriya, Chokma, Manipuri, Holam, Kuki, Lakshai, Hindi | 10 |
| 26. | Uttar Pradesh | Hindi, English, Sanskrit, Urdu, Pali, Arabic, Persian, Latin, Gujarati, Punjabi, Bengali, Marathi, Assamese, Kannada, Kashmiri, Sindhi, Tamil, Telugu, Malayalam, Nepali, French, German, Tibetan, Chinese, Russian | 25 |
| 27. | Uttaranchal | Hindi, Sanskrit, English, Urdu, Bengali, Punjabi, Nepali, | 7 |
| 28. | West Bengal | Bengali, English, Hindi, Urdu, Oriya, Tamil, Telugu, Gujarati, Tibetan, Nepali, Santhali as first language with Alchiki script | 11 |
| 29. | Andaman and Nicobar Islands | English, Hindi, Tamil, Telugu, Bengali | 5 |
| 30. | Chandigarh | Punjabi, Hindi, Urdu, English, Sanskrit, Persian, Arabic, Nepalese, Tibetan, French, German, Portuguese, Russian, Bengali, Gujarati, Marathi, Telugu, Tamil, Malayalam, Oriya, Kannada | 21 |
| 31. | Dadra Naagar Haveli | English, Gujarati, Hindi, Marathi, Sanskrit, others | 5 |
| 32. | Daman and Diu | Gujarati, Hindi, English | 3 |
| 33. | Delhi | Hindi, Urdu, Punjabi, English, Sanskrit; also any modern Indian language as students wish | 5 |
| 34. | Lakshadweep | Data could not be collected | - |
| 35. | Puducherry | Tamil, Malayalam, Telugu, Urdu, English, Hindi, French, Kannada | 8 |

Box 1 shows that three states/UTs did not provide data. Among the remaining 32 states/UTs, Daman and Diu offers the smallest number of languages – just three – while at the other extreme 21 languages are taught as subjects in Chandigarh, 23 in Punjab and 25 in Uttar Pradesh

_Table 2: Most frequently mentioned languages offered by states/UTs_

| No. | Language | Number of states/UTs offering this language N=32 |
|---|---|---|
| 1= | Hindi | 32 |
| 1= | English | 32 |
| 3= | Urdu | 21 |
| 3= | Sanskrit | 21 |
| 5 | Bengali | 15 |
| 6 | Tamil | 13 |
| 7 | Telugu | 12 |
| 8= | Arabic | 11 |
| 8= | Persian | 11 |
| 10= | Punjabi | 10 |
| 10= | Marathi | 10 |
| 12= | Malayalam | 9 |
| 12= | Kannada | 9 |
| 12= | Gujarati | 9 |
| 15 | French | 7 |
| Sub-total | | 222 |
| 60 other languages | | 98 |
| Total | | 320 |

Table 2 summarises the data in Box 1. The total number of language choices available is 320, an average of ten language choices per state/UT, with, as we saw, a range from three to 25. The two most frequently offered languages are Hindi and English, both of which are taught in all 32 states which made data available.

Another 13 languages are frequently offered by between seven and 21 different states. These 15 most frequently taught languages, therefore, account for 222 (69 per cent) of the 320 language choices available. A further 60 different languages are offered, accounting for just 98 language choices (1.6 states/UTs per language). Thus, in total, 75 different languages are taught in Indian schools (excluding the three states for which information is not available), but Hindi and English between them account for 20 per cent of all the language choices available.

## Languages taught as first, second and third language

Languages are taught or available to learners as first, second and third language. Regarding the number of languages available and offered to students in 2002, the numbers are:

### Upper primary

96.32 per cent of schools offered just one language as the first language 3.68 per cent of schools offered a choice of two or more languages as the first language

### Secondary

93.62 per cent of schools offered only one language as the first language 6.38 per cent of schools offered a choice of two or more languages as the first language Full details of the languages taught as first, second and third language in each state/UT are given in Box 2.

Box 2: First, second and third languages

| No. | State/Union Territory | Stage of schooling | 1st language | 2nd language | 3rd language |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Andhra Pradesh | Primary | Mother tongue/ regional language, Telugu, Urdu, Hindi, Tamil, Kannada, Oriya, Marathi, Sanskrit, Persian, Arabic | - | English from Class III |
| | | Upper Primary | Telugu, Urdu, Hindi, Tamil, Kannada, Oriya, Marathi, Sanskrit, Persian, Arabic | Hindi, English | English, Hindi |
| | | Secondary | Mother tongue, Telugu, Urdu, Hindi, Tamil, Kannada, Oriya, Marathi, Sanskrit, Persian, Arabic | Hindi | English |
| 2. | Arunachal Pradesh | Primary | English | Hindi | - |
| | | Upper Primary | English | Hindi | Sanskrit, Assamese, Butia, Bhoti |
| | | Secondary | English | Hindi | - |
| | | Higher Secondary | English | - | - |
| 3. | Assam | Primary | Assamese, Bengali, English | English | - |
| | | Upper Primary | Assamese, Bengali, English | English | Arabic, Assamese, Hindi, Sanskrit |
| | | Secondary | Assamese, Bengali, English | English | - |
| 4. | Bihar | Primary | Hindi, Urdu, Bengali | English | - |
| | | Upper Primary | Hindi, Urdu, Bengali | English | Sanskrit |
| | | Secondary | Hindi, Urdu, Bengali | English | |
| 5. | Chhattisgarh | Primary | Hindi, English | Hindi, English | - |
| | | Upper Primary | Hindi, English | Hindi, English | Sanskrit |
| | | Secondary | Hindi, English | Hindi, English | Sanskrit |
| 6. | Goa | Primary | Konkani, Marathi | English | - |
| | | Upper Primary | English | Hindi | Konkani, Marathi |
| | | Secondary | English | Hindi | Konkani, Marathi, French, Portuguese |
| | | Higher Secondary | English | Konkani, Hindi, Marathi, Urdu, French | Modern Indian language (MIL) |
| 7. | Gujarat | Primary | Gujarati, English | Gujarati, Hindi | - |
| | | Upper Primary | Gujarati, English | Gujarati, Hindi | Hindi, English |
| | | Secondary | Gujarati, English | Gujarati, Hindi | Hindi, English |
| 8. | Haryana | Primary | English, Hindi, MIL | - | - |
| | | Upper Primary | English, Hindi, MIL | English, Hindi | Punjabi, Sanskrit, MIL |
| | | Secondary | English, Hindi, MIL | English, Hindi | - |
| 9. | Himachal Pradesh | Primary | Hindi, English | - | - |
| | | Upper Primary | English, Hindi | English, Hindi | Sanskrit |
| | | Secondary | English, Hindi | English, Hindi | Sanskrit |
| 10. | Jammu and Kashmir | Primary | Hindi, Urdu | English | Kashmiri |
| | | Upper Primary | Hindi, Urdu | English | Kashmiri |
| | | Secondary | Hindi, Urdu | English | Dogri, Punjabi, Arabic, Sanskrit, Persian |
| | | Higher Secondary | English | Hindi, Urdu | Dogri, Punjabi, Arabic, Sanskrit, Persian |
| 11. | Jharkhand | Primary | Bengali, English, Hindi, Sanskrit, others | - | - |
| | | Upper Primary | Bengali, English, Hindi, Urdu, others | English, Hindi, Sanskrit, others | English, Hindi, Sanskrit, others |
| | | Secondary | Bengali, English, Hindi, Urdu, others | English, Hindi, Sanskrit, others | English, Hindi, Sanskrit, others |
| 12. | Karnataka | Primary | Kannada, English, Hindi, Marathi, Urdu, Telugu, Tamil | - | - |
| | | Upper Primary | Kannada, English, Hindi, Marathi, Urdu, Telugu, Tamil | Kannada, English | Kannada, English, Sanskrit, Hindi, Arabic, Persian, Konkani |
| | | Secondary | Kannada, English, Hindi, Marathi, Urdu, Telugu, Tamil | - | Kannada, English, Sanskrit, Hindi, Arabic, Persian, Konkani |
| 13. | Kerala | Primary | Malayalam, Tamil, Kannada | English | - |
| | | Upper Primary | Malayalam, Tamil, Kannada; Option: Sanskrit/ Arabic/Urdu | English | Hindi |
| | | Secondary | English | Malayalam/ Tamil, Kannada, Sanskrit, Arabic, Urdu, Hindi, Syriac, French | - |

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| No. | State | Level | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 14. | Madhya Pradesh | Primary | Mother tongue | General English or General Hindi | Urdu, Sanskrit, Marathi or any other MIL |
| | | Upper Primary | Mother tongue | General English or General Hindi | Urdu, Sanskrit, Marathi or any other MIL |
| | | Secondary | Hindi, English, Urdu Sanskrit | Hindi, English | Any other MIL other than languages studied as Language L1 and L2 |
| 15. | Maharashtra | Primary | Hindi, Marathi | English | - |
| | | Upper Primary | Marathi, English | Hindi, Marathi, others | English, Hindi, others |
| | | Secondary | Marathi, English | Hindi, Marathi, others | English, Hindi, others |
| 16. | Manipur | Primary (two languages) | Manipuri, Hindi, one of ten recognised tribal languages/MIL | English | - |
| | | Upper Primary (three languages) | Manipuri, Hindi, one of ten recognised tribal languages/MIL | English | Manipuri, Hindi, one of ten recognised tribal languages/MIL |
| | | Secondary (two languages) | Manipuri, Hindi, Assamese, Bengali, Mizo, Paite, Hmar, Tangkhul, Nepali, Zou, Thadou-Kuki, Vaiphei, Korm, Mao | English | - |
| 17. | Meghalaya | Primary | English, Garo, Khasi, others | English, Garo, Khasi, others | - |
| | | Upper Primary | English, Garo, Khasi, others | English, Garo, Khasi, Hindi, others | Hindi, others |
| | | Secondary | English, Garo, Khasi, others | English, Garo, Khasi, Hindi, others | Hindi, others |
| 18. | Mizoram | Primary | Mizo | English | Hindi |
| | | Upper Primary | Mizo | English | Hindi |
| | | Secondary | English | Mizo | Hindi up to Class VIII |
| | | Higher Secondary | English | Mizo | - |

| No. | State | Level | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 19. | Nagaland | Primary | English | MIL, alternative English | Hindi |
| | | Upper Primary | English | MIL, alternative English | Hindi |
| | | Secondary | English | MIL, alternative English | - |
| | | Higher Secondary | English | MIL, alternative English | - |
| 20. | Orissa | Primary | Oriya | English | - |
| | | Upper Primary | Oriya, Hindi, Sanskrit, others | English | Hindi, Sanskrit |
| | | Secondary | Oriya, Hindi, Sanskrit, others | English | Hindi, Sanskrit |
| 21. | Punjab | Primary Class I–III | Punjabi, Hindi and Urdu as first language | English as compulsory language | - |
| | | Primary Class IV–V as 2nd language | Punjabi, Hindi, Urdu | English as compulsory language | Punjabi, Hindi, Urdu (if not studied as L1) |
| | | Upper Primary | Punjabi, Hindi, Urdu | English | Punjabi, Hindi, Urdu and many more MIL (not studied as L2) |
| | | Secondary | Punjabi (pass in Punjabi is compulsory) | English | Hindi; one of following languages can be taken as elective subject: Sanskrit, Urdu, Persian, Arabic, Nepalese, Tibetan, French, German, Portuguese, Russian, Bengali, Gujarati, Marathi, Telugu, Tamil, Malayalam, Oriya, Kannada |

| 22. | Rajasthan | Primary | Hindi | English | - |
| | | Upper Primary | Hindi | English | Sanskrit, Urdu, Sindhi, Gujarati, Punjabi |
| | | Secondary | Hindi | English | Sanskrit, Urdu, Nepali, Gujarati, Punjabi |
| 23. | Sikkim | Primary | English | MIL/local/tribal languages | Hindi (from Class IV-V) |
| | | Upper Primary | English | MIL/local/tribal languages | Hindi |
| | | Secondary | Data could not be collected | | |
| 24. | Tamil Nadu | Primary | Tamil, Telugu, Kannada, Urdu, Malayalam, Hindi | English | - |
| | | Upper Primary | Tamil, Telugu, Kannada, Urdu, Malayalam, Hindi | English | - |
| | | Secondary | Tamil, Telugu, Kannada, Urdu, Malayalam, Hindi | English | - |
| 25. | Tripura | Primary | Bengali, Kokborok, English, Bishnupriya, Manipuri, Chokma, Holam, Kuki | English | - |
| | | Upper Primary | Bengali, English | English, Bengali | Sanskrit, Hindi |
| | | Secondary | Bengali, English | English, Bengali | - |
| 26. | Uttar Pradesh | Primary | Data could not be collected | | |
| | | Upper Primary | Data could not be collected | | |
| | | Secondary | Hindi, Urdu | English | Sanskrit, Urdu |
| 27. | Uttaranchal | Primary | Hindi, Urdu, Sanskrit | English | - |
| | | Upper Primary | Hindi, Urdu, English | English, Hindi, Sanskrit, others | English, Sanskrit, Urdu |
| | | Secondary | Hindi, Urdu, English | English, Hindi, Sanskrit, others | English, Sanskrit, Urdu |

| 28. | West Bengal | Primary | Bengali, Hindi, Nepali, Santhali, Telugu, Oriya | English | - |
| | | Upper Primary | Bengali, Hindi, Santhali, Tamil, Telugu, Oriya, Urdu, Nepali, Gujarati, Tibetan | English | Hindi, Sanskrit, others |
| 29. | Andaman and Nicobar Islands | Primary | Hindi, Tamil, Telugu, Bengali | English | - |
| | | Upper Primary | Hindi, Tamil, Telugu, Bengali | English | - |
| | | Secondary | Hindi, Tamil, Telugu, Bengali | English | - |
| 30. | Chandigarh | Primary | Punjabi, Hindi, Urdu | English as compulsory language | Punjabi, Hindi Urdu (not studied as L1) |
| | | Upper Primary | Punjabi, Hindi, Urdu | English | Punjabi, Hindi, Urdu and many more MIL (not studied as L1) |
| | | Secondary | Punjabi (pass in Punjabi is compulsory) | English | Hindi; one of following can be taken as elective subject: Sanskrit, Urdu, Persian, Arabic, Nepalese, Tibetan, French, German, Portuguese, Russian, Bengali, Gujarati, Marathi, Telugu, Tamil, Malayalam, Oriya, Kannada |
| 31. | Dadra Nahar Haveli | Primary | Gujarati, Hindi, Marathi | English | Sanskrit |
| | | Upper Primary | English, Gujarati, Marathi | Hindi | English, Gujarati, Hindi, Sanskrit, others |
| | | Secondary | English, Gujarati, Marathi | Hindi | English, Gujarati, Hindi, Sanskrit, others |

| 32. | Daman and Diu | Primary | Gujarati | Hindi | - |
| | | Upper Primary | Gujarati | Hindi | English |
| | | Secondary | Gujarati | Hindi | English |
| 33. | Delhi | Primary | Hindi | English, Urdu, Punjabi | - |
| | | Upper Primary | Hindi | English | Sanskrit, Urdu, Punjabi, any other MIL |
| | | Secondary | Hindi | English | Sanskrit, Urdu, Punjabi, any other MIL |
| 34. | Lakshadweep | Primary | Data could not be collected | | |
| | | Upper Primary | Arabic, English, Malayalam | English, Hindi, English | Hindi, Malayalam |
| | | Secondary | Arabic, English, Malayalam | English, Hindi, English | Hindi, Malayalam |
| 35. | Puducherry | Primary | Tamil | English | - |
| | | Upper Primary | Tamil | English | Hindi |
| | | Secondary | Tamil | English | Hindi |

As shown in Box 2, the 'first language' offered at the primary stage is usually – but not always – the language of the region or the language of neighbouring states; this is in line with the requirement that the 'first language' provided at the primary-level school should be the child's mother tongue or home language. At the secondary stage it is also usually the mother tongue or home language, the language of the region or the state or the language of a neighbouring state which is offered. English is also available as a first language in some states.

Various patterns emerge in different regions of the country. In the primarily Hindi-speaking states the languages offered are generally Hindi, Urdu, English, Sanskrit and the language of the neighbouring state. For example, Bengali is available in the state of Bihar (which borders West Bengal) and Marathi is available in the state of Madhya Pradesh (which borders Maharashtra, the home of Marathi).

The states of the southern part of India tend to offer all four major languages of the region – Tamil, Telugu, Kannada and Malayalam – as well as Urdu, Hindi and Sanskrit and the languages of neighbouring states. The state of Karnataka has Konkani as a language in addition to the languages mentioned above. These states also offer Persian and Arabic.

The states of Punjab, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Orissa and West Bengali fall into a different category. At the primary stage they tend to offer the state's majority language, Hindi, Urdu and another modern Indian language as first language and then English as second language. At the upper primary stage the scene is a bit different. For example, Maharashtra has Marathi and Hindi as first languages and English as second language at the primary stage; however, at the upper primary stage Marathi and English become first languages and Hindi becomes the second language. It is clear, then, that Marathi, Hindi, English and other modern Indianlanguages (MIL) are studied as first, second and third languages in the state.

Similarly, Punjab offers Punjabi, Hindi and Urdu as first language and English as a compulsory second language. Meanwhile, Orissa provides Oriya and English as first and second language respectively at the primary stage while Oriya, Hindi, Sanskrit or another MIL are studied as first language at the upper primary stage with English as second language and Hindi or Sanskrit as third language.

The states of the North East region offer some of the tribal languages of that region together with English, Hindi, Sanskrit and Bengali. Some of the North East states teach English as a first language.

The state of Jammu and Kashmir stands alone on many counts. It is the only state which introduces the third language as late as Class IX; consequently, the duration of study of the third language is reduced to only two years.

Tables 3 and 4 summarise the data of Box 2. Data was provided by all 35 states/UTs, but with some gaps. Table 3 shows the number of first, second and third language choices offered by the states at each school level as well as the total number of individual languages made available by the states at each school level. It can be seen that collectively the 33 states for which data is available, provide 83 choices of first language at primary level (an average of 2.5 languages per state); these choices involve 25 different languages. The richest choice is available for first languages at the upper primary level (an average of 2.8 language choices per state) while the least choice is offered for third languages at the primary level (an average of only 0.4 languages per state; in other words, many states do not offer any third language at the primary level). In terms of individual languages, the richest choice is for first languages at the secondary level where, across India, 27 different languages are available. The least choice occurs at the primary level where for both second and third languages only seven different languages are offered

Table 3: Numbers of first, second and third language choices and number of individual languages offered by states/UTs (N=35)

| School Level | Language choices offered by states/UTs | | | | | | Individual languages available | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | L1 | | L2 | | L3 | | L1 | L2 | L3 |
| | N | x̄ | N | x̄ | N | x̄ | | | |
| Primary N=33* | 83 | 2.5 | 33 | 1.0 | 12 | 0.4 | 25 | 7 | 7 |
| Upper primary N=34** | 95 | 2.8 | 48 | 1.4 | 69 | 2.0 | 23 | 8 | 19 |
| Secondary N=34*** | 93 | 2.7 | 51 | 1.5 | 88 | 2.6 | 27 | 15 | 25 |
| Sub-total | 271 | | 132 | | 169 | | 31 | 16 | 30 |
| Total | 572 | | | | | | 75 | | |

* Data for primary level missing from two states
** Data for upper primary level missing from one state
*** Data for secondary level missing from one state

Table 4: Languages most frequently offered by states/UTs as L1, L2 and L3 (N=35)

| School level | L1/L2/L3 | English | Hindi | Urdu | Sanskrit |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Primary N=33* | L1 | 10 | 18 | 7 | 2 |
| | L2 | 23 | 5 | 1 | 0 |
| | L3 | 1 | 4 | 2 | 2 |
| Upper primary N=34** | L1 | 16 | 16 | 11 | 3 |
| | L2 | 27 | 14 | 0 | 2 |
| | L3 | 8 | 18 | 6 | 15 |
| Secondary N=34*** | L1 | 17 | 18 | 10 | 3 |
| | L2 | 21 | 14 | 1 | 3 |
| | L3 | 8 | 12 | 6 | 12 |
| Total | | 131 | 119 | 44 | 42 |

* Data for primary level missing from two states
** Data for upper primary level missing from one state
*** Data for secondary level missing from one state

Table 4 shows the frequency with which the four most popular languages – Hindi, English, Urdu and Sanskrit – are offered as first, second and third languages at each of the three school levels. It can be seen from this analysis that English is the most frequently offered second language (offered by 27 of 34 states at the upper primary level, 23 of 33 states at the primary level and 21 of 34 states at the secondary level). However, Hindi is the most frequently offered first language and third language at almost all educational levels.

## Media of instruction

The three-language formula envisaged that children in primary school would study through their mother tongue and that this would lead to harmonious personal  development and contribute to a pedagogically sound high quality education.  This vision was proposed by the Education Commission in 1964–1966 and was  reαected again in the national curricular frameworks from 1975, the National  Education Policy (GOI 1986) and the Programme of Action (GOI 1992). In this  section we discuss the extent of mother tongue schooling in 2002 (NCERT 2007) in comparison with the situation ten years earlier (NCERT 1993).

Table 5 summarises the proportion of primary and upper primary schools which taught using the mother tongue in 1993 and 2002.

Table 5: Schools teaching through mother tongue in India (per cent)

| Policies | Primary | | Upper primary | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1993 | 2002 | 1993 | 2002 |
| Rural schools | 91.70 | 92.39 | 89.49 | 92.71 |
| Urban schools | 91.32 | 90.39 | 86.07 | 87.37 |
| All schools | 91.65 | 92.07 | 88.64 | 91.34 |

The Seventh Survey found that in 2002 just over 92 per cent of primary schools were teaching through the mother tongue; ten years earlier the figure was almost identical, just below 92 per cent. Rural schools showed an increase of less than one per cent in their tendency to use the mother tongue while urban schools showed a decline of less than one per cent over the ten-year period.

As far as the upper primary stage is concerned, more than 91 per cent of schools were using the mother tongue in 2002, an increase of just over two percentage points compared to 1993. In 1993 rural upper primary schools were about three per cent more likely to use the mother tongue compared to urban schools. By 2002 the proportion of both rural and urban schools using the mother tongue had increased, but the rate of increase was slightly higher in the rural schools.

Overall, then, more than 90 per cent of schools at the primary and upper primary stages teach through the children's mother tongue; there was a slight overall increase in the number of schools teaching through the mother tongue between 1993 and 2002.

The Seventh Survey also found that 12.14 per cent of primary schools, 14.47 per cent of upper primary schools and 8.53 per cent of secondary schools were offering two or more media of instruction. The sixth Survey, a decade earlier, showed that the equivalent figures were 7.21 per cent, 12.49 per cent and 13.34 per cent respectively. In other words, the proportion of primary and upper primary schools offering multiple media of instruction had increased while the proportion of  secondary schools making such an offer had declined quite sharply.

The sixth and seventh surveys also reported how many schools were teaching through the media of Hindi and English. The findings are summarised in Table 6. In  1993 Hindi was used as a medium of instruction in 42 per cent of primary schools,  41 per cent of upper primary schools

and 34 per cent of secondary schools. By 2002 the figures had become almost 47 per cent at primary level, just over 47 per cent at upper primary and 41 per cent at secondary. That is to say, there had been an increase in schools offering Hindi medium education at each educational level over the decade, but secondary schools continued to be rather less likely than primary and upper primary schools to do this

Table 6: Schools with Hindi and English medium policies in India (per cent)

| Policies | Primary | | Upper primary | | Secondary | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1993 | 2002 | 1993 | 2002 | 1993 | 2002 |
| Hindi as medium | 42.26 | 46.79 | 40.93 | 47.41 | 33.94 | 41.32 |
| English as medium | 4.99 | 12.98 | 15.91 | 18.25 | 18.37 | 25.84 |

The pattern regarding the use of English as a medium of instruction is rather different. In 1993 English was used in five per cent, 16 per cent and 18 per cent of primary, upper primary and secondary schools respectively. But in 2002 the equivalent figures were 13 per cent, 18 per cent and 26 per cent. In other words, the tendency for schools to offer English as a medium of instruction had increased at every level over the decade, with the most rapid increases occurring in primary and secondary schools.

It is particularly striking that over a quarter of all secondary schools in India now claim to offer English as a medium of instruction.

It is also interesting to note that the number of states/UTs offering education at primary and upper primary levels through the medium of languages other than the majority language increased from 30 to 32, indicating an increasing awareness of the need to cater to the needs of linguistic minorities.

Box 3: Media of instruction

| No. | State/Union Territory | Media of instruction | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Primary | Upper Primary | Secondary |
| 1. | Andhra Pradesh | Telugu, Urdu, Oriya, English, Hindi, Marathi, Kannada, Tamil | Telugu, Urdu, Oriya, English, Hindi, Marathi, Kannada, Tamil | Telugu, Urdu, Oriya, English, Hindi, Marathi, Kannada, Tamil |
| 2. | Arunachal Pradesh | English, Hindi | English | English |
| 3. | Assam | Assamese, Bengali, Bodo, English | Assamese, Bengali, Bodo, English, Hindi, others | Assamese, Bengali, Bodo, English, Hindi, others |
| 4. | Bihar | Hindi, Urdu, Sanskrit, English | English, Hindi, Sanskrit, Urdu | English, Hindi, Sanskrit, Urdu, others |
| 5. | Chhattisgarh | Hindi, others | Hindi, others | English, Hindi, others |
| 6. | Goa | English, Konkani, Marathi, Urdu, Kannada (dual medium) | English, Marathi | English, Marathi |
| 7. | Gujarat | Gujarati, others | English, Gujarati, Hindi, others | English, Gujarati, Hindi, others |
| 8. | Haryana | English, Hindi, others | English, Hindi, Sanskrit, others | English, Hindi, Sanskrit, others |
| 9. | Himachal Pradesh | English, Hindi, others | English, Hindi, others | English, Hindi, others |
| 10. | Jammu and Kashmir | Dogri, English, Hindi, Kashmiri, Urdu, others | Dogri, English, Hindi, Kashmiri, Urdu, others | Dogri, English, Hindi, Kashmiri, Urdu, others |
| 11. | Jharkand | English, Hindi, Sanskrit, others | Bengali, English, Hindi, Sanskrit, others | Bengali, English, Hindi, Sanskrit, others |
| 12. | Karnataka | Kannada, English, Hindi, Marathi, Tamil, Telugu, Urdu, Malayalam, Sanskrit, Arabic | Kannada, English, Hindi, Marathi, Tamil, Telugu, Urdu, Malayalam, Sanskrit, Arabic | Kannada, English, Hindi, Marathi, Tamil, Telugu, Urdu, Malayalam, Sanskrit, Arabic |
| 13. | Kerala | Malayalam, English, Tamil, Kannada (dual medium) | Malayalam, English, Tamil, Kannada (dual medium) | Malayalam, English, Tamil, Kannada (dual medium) |
| 14. | Madhya Pradesh | Hindi, English, Urdu, Marathi | English, Hindi, Urdu, Marathi, others | English, Hindi, Urdu |

Box 3 shows, state by state, the languages offered as media of instruction at each educational level.

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| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 15. | Maharashtra | Marathi, Hindi | English, Marathi, Hindi, others | English, Marathi, Hindi, others |
| 16. | Manipur | English, Hindi, Manipuri, others | English, Hindi, Manipuri, others | English, Hindi, Manipuri, others |
| 17. | Meghalaya | English, Garo, Khasi, others | English | English |
| 18. | Mizoram | English, Mizo | English, Mizo, others | English, Mizo, others |
| 19. | Nagaland | Angami, Ao, English, Hindi, Konyak, Lotha, Sema, others | Angami, Ao, English, Hindi, Konyak, Sema, others | Angami, English, Hindi, others |
| 20. | Orissa | English, Oriya | English, Hindi, Oriya, others | English, Hindi, Oriya, Sanskrit, others |
| 21. | Punjab | English, Hindi, Punjabi | English, Hindi, Punjabi, others | English, Hindi, Punjabi, others |
| 22. | Rajasthan | Hindi, others | Hindi, others | Hindi, others |
| 23. | Sikkim | English, others | English, others | English, others |
| 24. | Tamil Nadu | English, Tamil (dual medium) | Tamil, Telugu, Malayalam, Urdu, Kannada | Tamil, Telugu, Malayalam, Urdu, Kannada |
| 25. | Tripura | Bengali, Kokborok, English, others | Bengali, English, others | Bengali, English, others |
| 26. | Uttar Pradesh | Hindi, others | English, Hindi, Sanskrit, others | English, Hindi, Sanskrit, others |
| 27. | Uttaranchal | Hindi, others | English, Hindi, Urdu, others | English, Hindi, Urdu, others |
| 28. | West Bengal | Bengali, others | Bengali, Hindi, English, Urdu, Oriya, Tamil, Telugu, Gujarati, Tibetan, Nepali | Bengali, Hindi, English, Urdu, Oriya, Tamil, Telugu, Gujarati, Tibetan, Nepali |
| 29. | Andaman and Nicobar Islands | Bengali, English, Hindi, Tamil, Telugu | Bengali, English, Hindi, Tamil, Telugu | Bengali, English, Hindi Tamil, Telugu |
| 30. | Chandigarh | English, Hindi, Punjabi, others | English, Hindi, Punjabi, others | English, Hindi, Punjabi, others |
| 31. | Dadra Nagar Haveli | English, Gujarati, Hindi, Marathi | English, Gujarati, Hindi, Marathi, Sanskrit | English, Gujarati, Hindi, Marathi, Sanskrit |
| 32. | Daman and Diu | English, Gujarati | English, Gujarati | English, Gujarati |
| 33. | Delhi | English, Hindi, Urdu, others | English, Hindi, Urdu, others | English, Hindi, Urdu, others |
| 34. | Lakshadweep | Malayalam, others | English, Malayalam, others | English, Malayalam |
| 35. | Puducherry | English, Tamil, others | English, Tamil, others | English, Tamil, others |

From Box 3 we can see that at least two languages are available as the media of instruction in each state/UT, while two states (Karnataka and West Bengal) offer as many as ten. The state with the largest number of media of instruction at the primary level is Nagaland, with at least seven languages on offer.

There is a general tendency for a wider range of languages to be made available as media of instruction in upper primary and secondary schools compared to primary schools. An example is Orissa, which offers just Oriya and English as media of instruction at the primary level but in addition provides Hindi, Sanskrit and other MILs at the secondary stage.

Other states and UTs, however, offer the same number of media of instruction at all levels. These include Daman and Diu, which provides only Gujarati and English in primary, upper primary and secondary schools.

Yet other states have a policy of offering a wider range of languages of instruction in primary schools compared to higher levels. Goa provides an illustration here, where five languages – Konkani, Marathi, Kannada, Hindi and English – are used at the primary level but only two – Marathi and English – are available at the upper primary and secondary levels.

Unlike the rest of the country, three states (Goa, Kerala and Tamil Nadu) have a 'dual medium' policy, which means that two different media of instruction are available in the same school.

Tables 7 and 8 summarise the data recorded in Box 3. From Table 7 we can see that the 35 states/UTs offer a total of 355 language choices for medium of instruction, with somewhat greater choice at the upper primary and secondary levels (124 choices each) compared to the primary level (107 choices). The total number of individual languages offered as medium of instruction is 31. As we noted in the Introduction above, according to Rao (2008), approximately 60 languages were used as media of instruction in the 1980s and 47 were used as media at the time of Rao's own survey.

Meanwhile, Table 8 summarises information concerning the five most frequently reported languages used as media of instruction. It is interesting to note that higher proportions of states and UTs claim to make English available as a medium of instruction than do those offering Hindi as a medium; this pattern applies at all three educational levels. For example, 33 of 35 states say that they offer English as a medium of instruction at the secondary level, while only 24 states offer Hindi as a medium at this level.

*Table 7: Number of language choices and number of individual languages offered as medium of instruction by states/UTs (N=35)*

| School level | Language choices offered by states/UTs | Individual languages available |
|---|---|---|
| Primary | 107 | 31 |
| Upper primary | 124 | 25 |
| Secondary | 124 | 24 |
| Total | 355 | 31 |

*Table 8: Languages most frequently offered by states/UTs as medium of instruction (N=35)*

| School level | English | Hindi | Urdu | Tamil | Sanskrit |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Primary | 27 | 21 | 7 | 6 | 3 |
| Upper primary | 32 | 24 | 9 | 7 | 6 |
| Secondary | 33 | 24 | 9 | 7 | 7 |

However, a word of caution is required here. The fact that a state allows English to be offered as a medium of instruction does not mean that every school in the state will be able to implement this policy, nor that every child in each school will choose English. In fact, as we saw from Table 5, 91 per cent of schools teach through the mother tongue, while from Table 6 it was observed that only 26 per cent of schools offer English as a medium of instruction compared to 41 per cent offering Hindi as medium.

## Introduction of second and third languages

This section considers the points in a child's education when the second and third languages are introduced and the number of years which are allocated for studying these languages.

## Introduction of second language

Table 9 summarises policies regarding when the second language should be used. In all states and UTs the second language is introduced within the first five years of schooling.

*Table 9: Introduction of second language (N=35)*

| Class at which L2 is introduced | Duration of study (years) | States/Union Territories |
|---|---|---|
| Class I | 10 | Andhra Pradesh (English), Arunachal Pradesh (Hindi), Bihar (Urdu, Bengali), Chhattisgarh (English/MIL), Goa (English), Gujarat (English), Himachal Pradesh (English), Jammu and Kashmir (English), Madhya Pradesh (General English/General Hindi), Manipur (Hindi/one of the recognised languages/MIL), Mizoram (English), Nagaland (MIL/Alternative English), Punjab (Hindi, Punjabi, Urdu), Rajasthan (English), Sikkim (MIL), Tamil Nadu (English), Tripura (English), Uttaranchal (English), Andaman and Nicobar Islands (Hindi/English), Chandigarh (Hindi/English), Delhi (English, Urdu, Punjabi), Puducherry (English) |
| Class III | 8 | Assam (Hindi/Bengali), Kerala (English), Orissa (English, Hindi, Sanskrit), Daman and Diu (Hindi), Dadra Nahar Haveli (Hindi) |
| Class V | 5 | Karnataka (English), West Bengal (English) |

From Table 9 it can be seen that 22 out of the 35 states/UTs introduce the second

language from the first year of schooling; in the other states teaching of the second language starts either in Class III (for example, Assam) or in Class V (Karnataka and West Bengal).

In 21 cases the second language is English while Hindi is offered as a second language in eleven states. Urdu, Bengali and Punjabi are also offered as second

Languages in states where these languages are spoken or which have neighbour states where they are spoken. Out of the 21 states offering English as the second language, 17 introduce it from Class I, two from Class III and two from Class V.

Assuming children stay in school until they complete Class X, those in the majority of states will be able to study their second language for ten years. However, those who begin studying the second language in Class III will be able to study it for a maximum of eight years and children in Karnataka and West Bengal will be able to study English as their second language for just five years.

## Introduction of third language

Only 26 states reported offering a third language, but there is considerable variation in policy, as Table 10 indicates. Fourteen states introduce the third language from Class VI, meaning that children who stay in school until the end of Class X will be able to study that language for five years. Four states start the third  language in Class V, so allowing children six years of study. Three states offer a third language from Class III and two make third language provision from Class IV.  Just one state begins third language teaching in Class VII, another in Class VIII and yet another in Class IX.

Table 10: Introduction of third language (N=26)

| Class at which L2 is introduced | Duration of study (years) | States/Union Territories |
|---|---|---|
| Class III | 8 | Manipur, Mizoram (Hindi), Nagaland (Hindi), Uttaranchal (English, Sanskrit, MIL) |
| Class IV | 7 | Punjab (Hindi, Punjabi, Urdu, any MIL), Sikkim (Hindi) |
| Class V | 6 | Dada Nagar Haveli, Goa (Marathi, Konkani, French, Portuguese), Kerala (Hindi) |
| Class VI | 5 | Andhra Pradesh (Hindi), Arunachal Pradesh (Sanskrit, Assamese, Butia), Assam, Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Gujarat, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh (Urdu, Sanskrit, Marathi or any MIL), Rajasthan (Sanskrit, Urdu, Sindhi, Gujarati, Punjabi, any MIL), Uttar Pradesh (Sanskrit, Urdu, any MIL), West Bengal (Sanskrit, Hindi), Andaman and Nicobar Islands, Daman and Diu (English), Delhi (Sanskrit, Urdu, Punjabi, any MIL). |
| Class VII | 4 | Tripura (Sanskrit, Hindi) |
| Class VIII | 3 | Orissa (Hindi, Bengali, Sanskrit, Telugu, MIL) |
| Class IX | 2 | Jammu and Kashmir (Dogri, Boding, Punjabi, Arabic, Sanskrit, Persian) |

The third language in most non-Hindi-speaking states is Hindi if it has not already been introduced as a second language, while in Hindi-speaking states it is Urdu,  Sanskrit, Punjabi, Persian or the language of a neighbouring state.

English is mentioned as a third language by only two states (Uttaranchal from Class III and Daman and Diu from Class VI).

## The role and place of English

English was perceived as a library language during the formative years of India's independence; indeed at one point there was a proposal that Hindi should be given fully fledged official language status and that English should be abolished from public use. However, having been granted 'associate official language' status (though it is still not a language listed in the eighth schedule of the Indian constitution), English continued to dominate higher education. Increasingly, it has been spreading its wings and is moving into school education.

**This study has found that**:

■■ 75 different languages are used in India's education system.

■■ 31 different languages are used as media of instruction; this is approximately half the number of languages that were being used for this purpose in the 1980s.

■■ English is taught somewhere in the curriculum of all the 32 states and Union Territories which provided data for the survey reported here. Only Hindi is taught in as many states.

■■ The percentage of schools teaching English as a 'first language' doubled between 1993 and 2002 from five per cent to ten per cent in primary schools and from seven per cent to 13 per cent in upper primary schools.

■■ English is offered as a second language by more states than any other language.

■■ 33 of 35 states claim to offer English as a medium of instruction; this is more than any other language.

■■ Between 1993 and 2002 there was an increase in the proportion of schools offering English as a medium of instruction; the sharpest increase (from five per cent to 13 per cent) occurred in primary schools.

■■ By 2002, more than a quarter of all secondary schools were offering English as a medium of instruction.

■■ English is offered as a second language in 19 states, of which 16 introduce it in Class I, one in Class III and two as late as Class V.

There has been a shift in perception as the demand for English is now felt in every quarter, even though there are pedagogically sound arguments against the early introduction of the language. As mentioned in the introduction to this chapter, the recent curricular revision at the national level – which culminated in the framework for the National Curriculum 2005 – records half a century of development in attitudes towards English. English is now an institutionalised subject in the school curriculum.

However, English is still simultaneously sought after and suspected (Tickoo 1996).

The motives, generally, are not only social-political but academic too. While the demand increases on the one hand, the quality of English language education in our state-run schools, more particularly in rural schools, presents an abysmal picture. The divide between urban and rural is further exacerbated by the increasing tendency to use English as a medium of instruction. This paradox of demand and suspicion is re蕉ected through the paradox of access depicted by the report of the National Knowledge Commission (NKC):

There is an irony in the situation. English has been part of our education system for more than a century. Yet English is beyond the reach of most of our young people, which makes for highly unequal access. Indeed, even now, barely more than one percent of our people use it as a second language, let alone a first language ... But NKC believes that the time has come for us to teach our people, ordinary people, English as a language in schools. Early action in this sphere would help us build an inclusive society and transform India into a knowledge society. (GOI 2007)

The National Focus Group on Teaching of English has adopted a strong position in addressing the 'English language question':

English is in India today a symbol of people's aspiration for quality in education and a fuller participation in national and international life. Its colonial origins now forgotten or

irrelevant, its initial role in independence India, tailored to high education now felt to be insufficiently inclusive socially and linguistically, the current state of English stems from its overwhelming presence on the world stage and the reflection of this in the national arena. (NCERT 2006:1)

Stating that 'English does not stand alone', the National Focus Group's position paper argues that:

(English) needs to find its place. (i) Along with other Indian Languages (a) in regional medium schools, how can children's other languages strengthen English learning? (b) in English medium schools, how can other Indian languages be valorised, reducing the perceived hegemony of English? (ii) In relation to other subjects, a language across the curriculum perspective is perhaps of particular relevance to primary education. Language is best acquired through different meaning-making contexts and hence all teaching in a sense is language teaching. This perspective also captures the centrality of language in abstract thought in secondary education. (NCERT 2006:4)

As stated above, English language education has to find its place in the holistic and broader plan of language education where it plays a complementary and supplementary role in the creation of multilinguals/bilinguals. The National Curriculum Framework 2005 stresses the need for a multilingual education from the beginning of schooling and English has its place in this scheme. However, the Framework also cautions about the danger of introducing English (or, for that matter, any language) without ensuring that the basic provisions and infrastructure for its study are already in place. Language teachers with a satisfactory level of proficiency and quality materials to support the teaching-learning process are among the essentials for language learning in any context and are even more important in the case of second or third languages.

## Conclusions

Language policy in India has adapted itself to the changing demands and aspirations of people over the period of time from 1947 to the present. Change has occurred on many counts. Firstly, the question of a national language – which was wisely addressed during the formative years of independence by not declaring any language as the national language – has now been permanently settled. The existence of English in India means that it is no longer necessary to consider the issue of a national language. In other words, India does not need a national language since there are no functions which a national language might play that are not already fulfilled in some other way. The beneficiaries of this de facto policy are the indigenous Indian languages in the regions where they prevail; if any additional function were to be required then it could be satisfied by bringing in English.

In a way an associate official language, English knowingly or unknowingly has played an instrumental role in maintaining the diversity of India's language scene because the existence of English has meant that it has not been necessary to select any one Indian languages as a national

language. In fact, the states which used to rally to slogans such as angriji hatao (remove English) are now eagerly introducing English in the first year of schooling.

English today is almost a compulsory second language. Once deprived sections of the society now perceive the language as an instrument for progress. The recent news of a temple for English language in a village in the Hindi heartland (Pandey 2011) tells the thing.

However, the public's demands are not being met meaningfully. Most schools in the country do not have the facilities and proficient teachers needed to cater to the demand. As mentioned above, meaningful language education requires teachers who are skilled and knowledgeable as well as contextualised materials (print and others). But an enabling English language environment in the school also needs to be ensured. The most important of these three prerequisites is the English teacher, but the English language proficiency of English language teachers in quite a number of schools is questionable. Consequently, teacher education is one major area which needs drastic changes if quality teachers are to become available. Materials development (particularly textbooks) for the teaching and learning of English has not yet been professionalised. On the contrary, materials development has been commercialised to the extent that India now has thousands of publishers who publish English language textbooks. An enabling English language environment also cannot be created overnight. Learners need to experience appropriate input so that they can become engaged with the language, but a language teacher who himself or herself does not possess the required proficiency cannot create such an environment. Children need to feel the language in the air in school because, for

the vast majority of children, English is not available outside school. The creation of such an enabling environment has to be encouraged through curricular and other activities in and outside school.

It is better to have English taught as a subject rather than impose a bad English medium education. Equipping English language education with the essentials in the native medium schools would benefit learning in general and language learning in particular. But converting schools to become English medium without proper support would be detrimental and counterproductive. Schools can be developed as multimedia schools where both the content subjects and the language are taught and learnt well in a complementary and supplementary manner. A 'language across the curriculum' perspective and a strategy of multilingualism (NCERT 2005) would be of benefit on many counts. The centrality of language in learning needs to be recognised. English, then, can play a vital role as a language of mutual benefit –

benefiting Indian languages as well as itself – and so enriching education as a whole.

**Reference :**

Dreams and Realities : Developing Countries and the English Language

Edited by Hywel Coleman

Paper 4 : Language Policy in Education and the Role of English in India : From Library Language to Language of Empowerment by Ramanujam Meganathan

## Unit II

# Theories of language Acquisition

**Module I**

**Unit II :Theories that explain language acquisition**

a) The continuity and Discontinuity theory of Language acquisition

b)  Environmental and Biological-Skinner's and Chomsky's theories on language acquisition

c)  The Deficit theory (Eller)

# Unit II : a) The continuity and Discontinuity theory of Language acquisition

**Introduction**

⦿ The origin of language will always continue to be a puzzling question for researchers and linguists. So much is unknown about where language could have originated from resulting in much interpretation and theory. In Ib Ulbaek's, "The Origin of Language and Cognition," he discusses the four main theories that dominate this field, those dealing with interpretations **on whether language is either innate or learned and whether it is based on a discontinuity approach or rather a continuity approach.**

> **What is language?**
> " A systematic means of communicating ideas or feelings by the conventionalized signs, sounds, gestures, or marks having understood meaning " (Merriam-Webster)
> "Language is the expression of ideas by means of speech-sounds combined into words. Words are combined into sentences, this combination answering to that of ideas into thoughts. " ( Henry Sweet, Encyclopedia Britannica)

# The continuity theory

**The Continuity Hypothesis:**
- ◉ **Gradual evolution of language.**
- ◉ **Some language ability in existing non-human primates.**
- ◉ **Overlap between language and other cognitive abilities.**
- ◉ **A large part of language is learned.**
- ◉ *Continuity theories of language evolution hold that it must have developed gradually, starting among the earliest ancestors of humans, with different features developing at different stages until people's speech resembled what we have today.*

## Continuity theory - Darwinian perspective

- ◉ The continuity approach has a Darwinian perspective of language suggesting the potential for language to have evolved from more primitive forms of animal communication.
- ◉ This theory makes a connection between our human language and the rather advanced forms of animal communication such as bird and whale songs and even the complex chirps of crickets.

- ◉ To fully grasp this approach of continuity, we can also consider language as born out of necessity.
- ◉ In an article by Pinker and Bloom which depicted language as a necessity to properly function in life.  Researchers in the field today try to connect even our most abstract ability of language to Darwin's theory of evolution.
- ◉ This impresses upon us the idea that language has evolved from precursors within us and without these "hard-wired devices" humans would be without the capabilities of language..

## Argument  For Continuity Theory

- ◉ "Continuity theories" build on the idea that language exhibits so much complexity that one cannot imagine it simply appearing from nothing in its

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final form; therefore it must have evolved from earlier pre-linguistic systems among our primate ancestors.

- ◉ *we cannot doubt that language owes its origin to the imitation and modification, aided by signs and gestures, of various natural sounds, the voices of other animals, and man's own instinctive cries.*
- ◉ Charles Darwin 1871

## **Ulbaek – another profounder of the continuity theory**

- ◉ Ulbaek begins defending his position of continuity and the innateness of language by stating that language came not from animal communication but rather cognition.
- ◉ He emphasizes how language originated from pre-existing structures in the body and believes that all of the cognitive functions that cooperate to create our human language were all established well before language ever arose.
- ◉ Ulbaek emphasizes the evolutionary purposes of language through the Darwinian perspective: how language has both advantages and disadvantages to fitness.
- ◉ **Language contributes multiple weaknesses to human fitness**. For instance, by having and using language, it requires us to have significantly more brain tissue than other species and have changes to our respiratory system in order to utter the sounds we define as language, both of which could hinder us in our athletic abilities due to added mass and potential obstruction to the respiratory system.
- ◉ But rather than give up this ability to better our fitness, **humans embraced this ability for its productivity.** Language allows us to work cooperatively and ultimately more efficiently. As Ulbaek points out, language does provide fitness to us and our families. From a familial perspective, sharing information amongst family so that the family survives and continues to thrive is in some respects even more important than our individual survival.

## According to Pinker

- The continuity approach is further supported by Pinker who suggests, "**Evolutionary theory offers clear criteria for when a trait should be attributed to natural selection: complex design for some function, and the absence of alternative processes capable of explaining such complexity**" **(Pinker).**
- Clearly language possesses both of these characteristics leading us to believe it is indeed a product of evolution. Language would have also theoretically harmed our level of fitness because it allows us to give away ideas that could give us an edge over our competitors.

- //public.wsu.edu/~kimander/languageorigins.html

# Criticism of the continuity theory

- However the approach of discontinuity depicts language as too complicated to have ever come from mere animals, expressing that language is unique to humans and far more complex than other forms of communication on Earth. Noam Chomsky defends this position and suggests the concept of a "language organ" (Ulbaek, 30). Yet, rather than accepting that this "organ" could have evolved from pre-existing structures in the body, Chomsky instead suggests that language could be due to a sporadic mutation in our species.

## Discontinuity theory

- Discontinuity theories" take the opposite approach—that language, as a unique trait which cannot be compared to anything found among non-humans, must have appeared fairly suddenly during the course of  human evolution.
- Some theories see language mostly as an innate faculty—largely genetically encoded.

# The discontinuity theory

## The Discontinuity Hypothesis:

- Punctuated evolution of language.
- No language ability in existing non-human primates.
- Language is a module separate from other cognitive abilities.
- Discontinuity theory : language is a unique trait - appeared fairly suddenly during of human evolution (Noam Chomsky).



## Who is Chomsky?

- Avram Noam Chomsky
- Born on December 7, 1928 in Philadelphia
- Studied at University of Pennsylvannia – BA, MA and PhD
- American linguist, philosopher, cognitive scientist, logician, political commentator and activist
- Sometimes described as the "father of modern linguistics"
- Professor Emeritus of Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT)
- Wrote over 100 books
- Creator or co-creator of Chomsky hierarchy, the universal grammar theory and the Chomsky-Schutzenberger theorem
- Especially critical of the work of B. F. Skinners
- www.chomsky.info

## Noam Chomsky - Discontinuity theory

- Naom Chomsky , a prominent proponent of discontinuity theory, argues that a **single chance mutation occurred in one individual in the order of 100,000 years ago, instantaneously installing the language faculty (a component of the mid brain in "perfect" or "near-perfect" form.**

⦿ According to this view, emergence of language resembled the formation of a crystal; with digital infinity as the seed crystal in a super-saturated primate brain, on the verge of blossoming into the human mind, by physical law, once evolution added a single small but crucial keystone. It follows from this theory that language appeared rather suddenly within the history of human evolution.

# Criticism of discontinuity theory

⦿ Taking a scientific approach linguists say that there is no other way that language could have originated but from the evolution of pre-existing structures. It is inconceivable to think that this complex capability, requiring the function of many organs is just due to one freak mutation in our body.

## Chomsky Perspective on Langauage – a biological perspective

Noam Chomsky is a prominent proponent of discontinuity theory. He believes that children are born with an inherited ability to learn any human language.

He claims that certain linguistic structures which children use so accurately must be already imprinted on the child's mind.

Chomsky believes that every child has a 'language acquisition device' or LAD which encodes the major principles of a language and its grammatical structures into the child's brain.

Children have then only to learn new vocabulary and apply the syntactic structures from the LAD to form sentences.

⦿ Chomsky points out that a child could not possibly learn a language through imitation alone because the language spoken around them is highly irregular – adult's speech is often broken up and even sometimes ungrammatical.

- Every language is extremely complex, often with subtle distinctions which even native speakers are unaware of. However, all children, regardless of their intellectual ability, become fluent in their native language within five or six years.

Chomsky points out that a child could not possibly learn a language through imitation alone because the language spoken around them is highly irregular – adult's speech is often broken up and even sometimes ungrammatical.

Chomsky's theory applies to all languages as they all contain nouns, verbs, consonants and vowels and children appear to be 'hard-wired' to acquire the grammar.

- Even before the age of 5, children can, without having had any formal instruction, consistently produce and interpret sentences that they have never encountered before. It is this extraordinary ability to use language despite having had only very partial exposure to the allowable syntactic variants that led Chomsky to formulate his "poverty of the stimulus" argument, which was the foundation for the new approach that he proposed in the early 1960s.

## CHOMSKY'S VIEW ON LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

- He argues that language acquisition is an innate structure, or function, of the human brain.
- Chomsky believes that there are structures of the brain that control the interpretation and production of speech.
- Children do not need any kind of formal teaching to learn to speak.
- Factors that Chomsky used to support his theory:
  - There is an **optimal learning age**. Between the ages 3 to 10 a child is the most likely to learn a language in its entirety and grasp fluency.
  - The child **does not need a trigger to begin language acquisition**, it happens on its own. The parent does not need to coax the child to speak, if it around language production, the child will work to produce that language on its own
  - It does not matter if a child is corrected, they **still grasp the language in the same manner and speak the same way**. During one stage, a child will make things plural that are already plural.

# Chomsky's idea of the Language  Acquisition Device

- ◉ **Noam Chomsky**, put forth an idea called the **language acquisition device** or LAD, for short.
- ◉ **The LAD is a hypothetical tool hardwired into the brain that helps children rapidly learn and understand language**. Chomsky used it to explain just how amazingly children are able to acquire language abilities as well as accounting for the innate understanding of grammar and syntax all children possess.
- ◉ **LAD is a theoretical concept. There isn't a section of the brain with 'language acquisition device' printed on it and a big switch to turn on and learn a new language**. Rather, the LAD is used to explain what are most likely hundreds or thousands of underlying processes that humans have in their brains that have evolved to make us particularly exceptional at learning and understanding language.
- ◉ Chomsky developed the **LAD in the 1950s** and since then, has moved on to a greater theory called **universal grammar** (or UG)

- ◉ Chomsky proposed that every child was born with a LAD that holds the fundamental rules for language. In other words, children are born with an understanding of the rules of language; they simply need to acquire the vocabulary.
- ◉ Chomsky offered a number of pieces of evidence to support his theory. He posed that language is fundamentally similar across all of humanity. For instance, every language has something that is like a noun and a verb, and every language has the ability to make things positive or negative.
- ◉ Chomsky also discovered that when children are learning to speak, they don't make the errors you would expect. For instance, children seem to understand that all sentences should have the structure 'subject-verb-object', even before they are able to speak in full sentences.
- ◉ From his experiments, Dr. Chomsky also noted that young children, well before reaching language fluency, would notice if adults around them spoke in a grammatically incorrect manner.

# Rationale for universal grammar

- In Chomsky's view, the reason that children so easily master the complex operations of language is that they **have innate knowledge of certain principles that guide them in developing the grammar of their language**. In other words, **Chomsky's theory is that language learning is facilitated by a predisposition that our brains have for certain structures of language.**

- For Chomsky's theory to hold true, all of the languages in the world must share certain structural properties. **And indeed, Chomsky and other generative linguists like him have shown that the 5000 to 6000 languages in the world, despite their very different grammars, do share a set of syntactic rules and principles**. These linguists believe that **this "universal grammar" is innate and is embedded somewhere in the neuronal circuitry of the human brain**. And that would be why children can select, from all the sentences that come to their minds, only those that conform to a "deep structure" encoded in the brain's circuits.

- Universal grammar, then, consists of a set of unconscious constraints that let us decide whether a sentence is correctly formed. This mental grammar is not necessarily the same for all languages. **But according to Chomskyian theorists, the process by which, in any given language, certain sentences are perceived as correct while others are not, is universal and independent of meaning.**

- Thus, we immediately perceive that the sentence "Robert book reads the" is not correct English, even though we have a pretty good idea of what it means. Conversely, we recognize that a sentence such as "Colorless green ideas sleep furiously." is grammatically correct English, even though it is not so meaningful.

# Criticism of  Chomsky's theory

⊙ Chomsky thus continues to believe that language is "pre-organized" in some way or other within the neuronal structure of the human brain, and that the environment only shapes the contours of this network into a particular language. His approach thus remains radically biological opposed to that of Skinner or Piaget, for whom language is constructed solely through simple interaction with the environment.

⊙ This latter, behaviorist model, in which the acquisition of language is nothing but a by-product of general cognitive development based on sensori- motor interaction with the world, challenged Chomsky theory.

**Limitation of the theory** : The theory is hsrd to prove because it is not allowed to insolate somebody just to do a research.

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Noam Chomsky

 Chomsky's major contribution to studying language was that he made it scientific.  He  demonstrated  that  despite  the  observable  variety  of  the world's  languages,  there  is  in  reality  only  one  language.  All other languages; dead, still spoken or even future ones, are variations of a single theme.  After Chomsky, linguistics is defined as "The Scientific Study  of Language", "language" in the singular.

Chomsky  is  considered  one  of  the  most  important  linguists  in  the  twentieth century. His main contribution in the field of linguistics is the influential   "transformative-generative grammar" which is an attempt to describe the syntactical processes common to all human language mathematically (Smith, 1999).  Chomsky draws a key distinction between the deep structure and surface structure of languages. He argues that the deep structure, which contains the meaning of a sentence, is not culturally determined but rather "hardwired" in the human brain.  The meaning is then converted by a  transformation  into  surface  structure,  which  includes  the  sound

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s and words in a sentence. The Language Acquisition Device (LAD) is the hypothetical brain mechanism that according to Chomsky explained the acquisition of syntactic structure of language (McGilvray, 2005). Chomsky hypothesized that the language acquisition device was the system that determined the features of the child's native language. This falls under the realm of the nativist theory of language which states that humans are born with the innate ability for acquiring language

At its heart, Chomsky's theory of Generative Grammar is a way of describing the way people learn to communicate. The core of this theory is the idea that all human language originates from a common source, an innate set of grammatical rules and approaches that is hardwired into the human mind. This is a very naturalistic approach, but one that has found ever increasing acceptance amongst experts in the field

With regard to learning language, Chomsky purports that some aspects of language are explicitly taught in school such the spelling conventions of the written representation of language and forms of technical vocabulary; however, the most fundamental aspects of language are universal. We all know the same unique human language. This notion of universal grammar is the set of linguistic principles that we are endowed with at birth in virtue of being human (Smith, 1999). Chomsky also asserts that there is a genetically determined "window of opportunity" for language acquisition. If the child does not learn its first language during this period, then it will never attain full "native-like mastery" of any language

According to Chomsky, the goal in teaching is to help cultivate growth and to help the students become interested in learning. He states that students, "typically they come in interested, and the process of education is a way of driving that defect out of their minds. But if children's normal interest is maintained or even aroused, they can do all kinds of things in ways we don't understand (Chomsky, 1992). In other words, the teacher's role in the transmission of learning is to keep the children engaged in the learning process and interested in exploration and independence. The focus is on the students learning rather than the teachers teaching.

http://www.oakwoods.in/downloads

## Difference between Continuity theory and Discontinuity theory of Language acquisition

| parameter | The Continuity theory of Language acquisition | The Discontinuity theory of Language acquisition |
|---|---|---|
| prominent proponent of theory | Continuity-based theories are currently held by a majority of scholars, but they vary in how they envision this development. Those who see language as being mostly innate, such as Steven Pinker, hold the precedents to be animal cognition, whereas those who see language as a socially learned tool of communication, such as Michael Tomasello, see it as having developed from animal communication, either primate gestural or vocal communication. Other continuity-based models see language as having developed from music. | Noam Chomsky, a prominent proponent of discontinuity theory |
| | Continuity theories : evolved from earlier prelinguistic systems among our primate ancestors (many linguistic scholars in 2015). | Discontinuity theories : language is a unique trait - appeared fairly suddenly during of human evolution (Noam Chomsky) |
| | Language developed over a long period of time from communication systems of our primate ancestors. | Language is unique and emerged fairly suddenly. |

| parameter | The Continuity theory of Language acquisition | The Discontinuity theory of Language acquisition |
|---|---|---|
| | "Continuity theories" build on the idea that **language exhibits so much complexity** that one cannot imagine it simply appearing from nothing in its final form; therefore it must have evolved from earlier pre-linguistic systems among our primate ancestors. | "Discontinuity theories" take the opposite approach—that **language, as a unique trait** which cannot be compared to anything found among non-humans, must have appeared fairly suddenly during the course of <u>human evolution</u>. |
| Hypothesis<br><br>evolution of language | The Continuity Hypothesis:<br><br>**Gradual evolution of language**<br><br>Continuity theories of language evolution hold that it must have developed gradually, starting among the earliest ancestors of humans, with different features developing at different stages until people's speech resembled what we have today | The Discontinuity Hypothesis:<br>**Punctuated evolution of language** |
| language ability | Some language ability in existing non-human primates | No language ability in existing non-human primates |
| | Overlap between language and other cognitive abilities. | Language is a module separate from other cognitive abilities |
| | A large part of **language is learned**. | A large part of **language is innate** |
| | language learned through **<u>social interaction</u>** | Language **not** learned through <u>social interaction</u> **language mostly as an <u>innate</u>** |

# Skinners Language acquisition theory- the behaviorist approach

A major proponent of the idea that language depends largely on environment was the behaviorist **B. F. Skinner.**

He believed that language is acquired through principles of conditioning, including association, imitation, and reinforcement.



## Who is Skinner?

- **Burrhus Frederic (B. F.) Skinner** (March 20, 1904 – August 18, 1990) was an American psychologist, behaviorist, author, inventor, and social philosopher.
- Born in Pennsylvania
- began working on ideas of human behavior after earning his doctorate from Harvard.
- Skinner's works include *The Behavior of Organisms* (1938) and a novel based on his theories *Walden Two* (1948).
- He explored behaviorism in relation to society in later books, including *Beyond Freedom and Human Dignity* (1971).
- Skinner died in Massachusetts in 1990.

# Behaviorist view

⊙ According to this view, children learn words by associating sounds with objects, actions, and events. They also learn words and syntax by imitating

others and adults enable children to learn words and syntax by reinforcing correct speech.  People begin to repeat actions based on reinforcement to create a habit.

⊙ Children begin by babbling, uttering nonsense syllables and slowly children realize that parents pay attention to some of the words.


⊙ Skinner viewed babies as 'empty vessels' which language had to be 'put in to'
⊙ Skinner also viewed language acquisition as a cognitive behaviour
⊙ **operant conditioning** - child goes through trial-and-error in other words they tries and fails to use correct language until it succeeds; with reinforcement and shaping provided by the parents gestures (smiles, attention and approval) which are pleasant to the child.
⊙ Skinner in *Verbal Behavior (1957)* differentiated between two types of verbal responses that a child makes :

**-** Verbal behaviour that is reinforced by the child receiving something it wants.

- Verbal behaviour caused by imitating others.


⊙ This gets registered as praise and association leading to stimulus response bonding.
⊙ Approaches child as a blank slate that is filled up by knowledge gained through experience
⊙ Bandura and Vygotsky added the modeling and imitation component in language.
⊙ Vygotsky stressed on the environment and individual interaction. The role of the social environment.

## SKINNER'S VIEW ON LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

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  - Verbal behaviour that is reinforced by the child receiving something it wants.
  - Verbal behaviour caused by imitating others.

# Differenes between the two theories

| Chomsky's Theory | Skinner's theory |
|---|---|
| Innate biological ability that all humans possess. He believed that every child has a '**language acquisition device**'. | Learning process involving the shaping of grammar into a correct form by the **re-enforcement** of other stimulus. |
| innate learning mechanism enables a child to figure out how the language works (Traxler 2012) | Approaches child as a blank slate that is filled up by knowledge gained through experience & reinforcement (Traxler, 2012) |

# Criticism of Skinners approach

◉ Chomsky was the strongest critic. He said there has to be a biological innate readiness without which children cannot reproduce such complex thinking as language.

◉ Even if parents don't pay attention to the speech of their child language will develop.

◉ Shaping takes time and children learn lang. faster.

◉ Imitation without reinforcement will also lead to learning of language.

- Limitations :

    - 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.
    - Critical period for language acquisition. Children who have not acquired language by the age of about seven will never entirely catch up.
    - Observational studies of parent-child conversations (Brown and Hanlon, 1970) show that parents rarely reinforce correct grammar in a child's speech, but instead tend to focus on the truthfulness or accuracy of statements.

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| Chomsky- Mentalists | B.F.Skinner –Behaviorist |
|---|---|
| 1) Language is an **innate**, **in-born process.** | 1) Language acquisition is a **stimulus – response process.** |
| 2) Language is not a behavior like other behaviors, but a **specific mental process.** | 2) Language is a **conditioned behavior**. |
| 3) Children learn language by **application**. | 3) Children learn language by **imitation and analogy.** |
| 4) Language learning is **analytical generative and creation**. | 4) Language learning is **based on practice**. |
| 5) The role of exposure to language is quite vital. | 5) The role of imitation, repetition, reinforcement and motivation is very significant in language learning. |
| 6) **Language acquisition** is the **result of nurture.** | 6) **Language acquisition** is the **result of nature.** |
| 7) Everybody has **an innate language learning mechanism**. | 7) Language learning is entirely the **product of experience** and that our **environmen**t affects all of us. |
| 8) **re-enforcement** | 8) **language acquisition device (LAD)** |
| 9) **Exposure is important for language learning.** | 9) **Practice is important for language learning** |

**Similarity between chomsky's and skinner's theory.**

**Similarities**

- Both men have different views and theories on the same study which is how all humans manage to obtain grammar.

- Subject of their study is children.

## CONCLUSIONS

❖ Environment makes contribution in both theories:
- As for Chomsky, he believes that as long there are people available to speak to the child, the child's biological endowments will do the rest.
- But for Skinner, he believes that children will learn by imitation, reinforcement that comes from the environments.

# EllER theory

◉ **Deficit Theory of Linguistic Deprivation**

◉ Researchers in the 1990s began to postulate that failure among those students occurred because there was not sufficient verbal foundation in the home for success (Eller, 1989)

◉ Eller (1989) adds that all children who enter school "are highly competent language users…" but because of language and cultural diversity, they may not always be in a position to demonstrate their abilities.

◉ Eller told the difficult truth, that "their language may be perceived as deficient" (1989)

◉ "Educational deficit thinking is a form of blaming the victim that views the alleged deficiencies of poor and minority group students and their families as predominantly responsible for these students' school problems and academic failure, while frequently holding structural inequality blameless." Valencia, R. R. (1997)

◉ Must put a "face" on labeling the poor ELL the to positively influence dispositions and policy. Eugene Garcia (2008). Utah Association of Bilingual Education.

## Argument 1 for Eller's Deficit theory

◉ Many children come from homes with parents who do not speak both languages as they do. These children come from backgrounds that are very similar to those who learn English first, we must remember to treat them as such. It is important to bring parents into the education of their students; if a parent does not understand English that does not automatically mean they are uninterested in the education of their children

### Argument 2

◉ Just because a family may not be entirely English speaking, a member of that family still has great potential. A teacher needs to see the good and praise it

and notice the weaknesses and help to strengthen them, they need to be positive. Family life may not be the easiest for people who are learning English as a second language but they need to learn and want to. Sometimes a teacher can misinterpret a child's behavior."

◉ **Argument three**

◉   Patience is a key part of teaching ELL students. They are trying to accomplish things that most students don't have to worry about. They have to learn a language AND learn in school. Which is incredible that they are wanting to try to do that...They should be looked up to, not looked down.

## Teacher expectation and deficit theory

◉   The deficit theory is a danger in education because teacher expectation can have a large influence on how a student performs. If a teacher believes that only students of higher socioeconomic status families can succeed in advanced classes, then that teacher will likely teach in a way so that only these students will succeed. For example, a teacher might inadvertently give more attention, effective instruction, and better grades to the students who are expected to perform well. Conversely, if teachers expect a student to do poorly, they'll probably deliver instruction of lower quality in response to the lowered expectation.

# Consequences of believing in the deficit theory

◉ Other than poor student performance, the deficit theory also encourages student delinquency. Students can tell when teachers have a low level of expectation. They also know when they are seen as 'remedial' by their teachers. When teachers hold deficit theory attitudes and judgements, they believe it is impossible for students to improve. Students can perceive their teachers' apathy, and begin to feel as if nothing they do will improve their academic performance. A feeling of helplessness settles in. That feeling in turn leads students to become apathetic toward their own learning. Eventually

they lose interest in school and end up causing problems in the classroom or dropping out entirely.

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## Module 2 : Transacting language across Disciplines/Curriculum

## Unit 3 - Classroom talk matters

a ) Importance of oral language in the classroom

- The significant role of Discourse and structure in the classroom (Chang)

b) Engaging learners in language learning – Importance of Questioning & types of questioning and Discussion based learning

c) Teacher's role in promoting language across the curriculum

# Unit 3 : a)Importance of oral language in the classroom. The significant role of Discourse and structure in the classroom (Chang)

- Oral language is the foundation for student learning. It is essential for literacy learning, and successful use of language is critical for students' wellbeing. Almost all classroom-based learning relies on oral language.

- Through talk, concepts are explained, tasks demonstrated, questions posed, and ideas discussed; there are no significant school activities that do not involve talk in some way.

- Language is how we think. It's how we process information and remember and is our operating system. Vygotsky (**1962**) suggested that thinking develops into words in a number of phases, moving from imaging to inner speech to inner speaking to speech. Speech and talk is the representation of thinking. Therefore classrooms should be filled with talk.

- **Vygotsky** also explains the interaction between learning and development, among which the concept of the **zone of proximal development** (ZPD) is the central idea. He defines **ZPD** as 'the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the

level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers'. Learning and teaching in the ZPD obviously depends on social interaction, and this certainly involves 'face-to-face interaction mediated by speech' in classrooms. Speech plays a critical role in children's learning in the ZPD and in the processes of assistance and instruction.

- Teachers must recognize that a focus on language no matter what subject they are teaching is crucial.
- They must engage children in classroom discussions of subject matter that are more and more sophisticated in form and content.
- And they must know enough about language to discuss it and to support its development in their students.
- Academic language is learned through frequent exposure and practice over a long period of time from the time children enter school to the time they leave it.

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**Discourse** is a form of communication either in spoken or written form. The types of discourse are such as, discussion; asking and answering questions, storytelling, genres, novels and debates.

### http://www.teachers.net/gazette/JUL02/chang.html

**CLASSROOM DISCOURSE**
The term *classroom discourse* refers to the language that teachers and students use to communicate with each other in the classroom. Talking, or conversation, is the medium through which most teaching takes place, so the study of classroom discourse is the study of the process of face-to-face classroom teaching.

http://education.stateuniversity.com/pages/1916/Discourse.html

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## Structure of discourse

- Discourse in a classroom can be divided into 4 structures namely,

1) **Initiation-response-evaluation (IRE),**
2)**Instructions,**
3)**Probing questions and**
4)**Argumentation**.

# Structure of discourse

- Discourse in a classroom can be divided into 4 structures namely,

## 1) Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE),

- IRE ,a traditional pattern of discourse in which the teacher asks a question, the student answers and the teacher evaluates. The teacher continues to ask another question and so the sequence continues.

- The students' responses are usually brief and the main concern of the students is to provide the answer that is expected by the teacher.

- The teacher's role is to ask questions in order to pursue the desired answer but only a few students are actively involved.

## 2) Instructions,

- Giving instructions is another type of discourse, which is monopolized by the teacher. The teacher gives either directive or informative statements. The students do not respond verbally, however, they understand the statements as instructions by following them physically.

## 3) Probing Questions.

- It is a more complex structure with less-well defined rules. The teacher asks referential questions or thinking questions and the students are encouraged to give longer answers through their thinking. Their answers may challenge the teacher's position. However, evaluation does not come immediately after the students' responses. The teacher may express praise for the process the students have followed and he does not pursue the correct aggressively.

4) **Argumentation**

- This is more or less like probing questions where the teacher challenges the student in order to have him to justify his reason. The questions asked are normally referential questions, which try to invoke predictions, explanations and clarification from the student. The argumentation may be in question or statement forms.

# THE  REALITY

- Teachers are talking most of the time in the class

- Students are expected to listen and not talk among themselves.

- Even when teachers pose questions they are normally seeking recalling of facts and may elicit one worded or brief answers. This also encourages a lot of guessing.

- Those students who normally respond in the class tend to monopolize, the majority of class is passive listeners.

- The teacher has the concern of covering the syllabus in the prescribed time and accomplish other tasks and as a result has no scope for involving students in meaningful, lengthy discussions in the class.

There are huge classrooms of 60 students and classroom talk time of 35 to 40 minutes.

Diverse backgrounds of students in terms of proficiency, ability and motivation to communicate in a language.

Students can develop academic discourse only when they engage in discussions that involve thinking, constructing knowledge on their own and learning to speak appropriately for discussing points of view,opinions,evaluating and judging.

# Unit 3 :  b) Engaging learners in language learning

When we think of student engagement in learning activities, it is often convenient to understand **engagement** with an activity as being represented by good behavior (i.e. behavioral engagement), positive feelings (i.e. emotional engagement), and, above all, student thinking (i.e. cognitive engagement) (Fredricks, 2014). This is because students may be behaviorally and/or emotionally invested in a given activity without actually exerting the necessary mental effort to understand and master the knowledge, craft, or skill that the activity promotes.

In light of this, research suggests that considering the following interrelated elements when designing and implementing learning activities may help increase student engagement behaviorally, emotionally, and cognitively, thereby positively affecting student learning and achievement.

1.  questioning  and  Discussion based learning

## DISCUSSION-BASEDLEARNING

PURPOSE Discussion-based learning provides deeply engaging learning experiences, particularly when outcomes are complex, and require application and synthesis.

## DESCRIPTION

Discussion-based learning enablesstudent involvementthrough instructor-directed questions and student participation. Thisrequiresthat students contribute and learn from each other in an environment that is directed by prepared instructors. Consider these ideas:

## Plan

Unfortunately, many instructors assume that leading a discussion requiressimply showing up to class. Such a view minimizesthe power of preparation. Consider the following questionsin your planning:


• What are the learning outcomes?

 • What questions open, transition, and close class?

• How will I manage the time?

• What preparation do the participants need?

 • How can I assess perspectives before discussion?

• Are there specific individualsI should include?

 • Are these ideas captured in a teaching plan?

**Create a Participatory Environment**

 Discussion-based learning requiresstudent

**participation**—both by contributing comments and by listening to others. Find waysto involve everyone in the discussion, foster a safe learning environment, and encourage accountability.

**Manage "Pastures" of Learning**

The analogy of a pasture can be a useful way to think about leading a discussion. Herdsmen allow their flocksto graze on fertile pastures. The flocks do not wander aimlessly.

 • **Choose the pasture**. Usually, but not always, the pasture should be defined by you. The choice of pasture should be informed by the learning outcomes for the course and lesson.

• **Fence in the pasture**. Do not allow a discussion to drift or become erratic. Deepen the discussion within a given topic. When comments drift, redirect and deepen the conversation.

• **Allow freedom within a pasture. Avoid over-**management. Within a given discussion, allow students opportunitiesto explore areasthat reflect their own preparation and engagement.

• **Graze on what is green**. Recognize when a topic is exhausted. Keep track of your learning outcomes. Manage transitionsto maximize student learning.


**Ask Effective Questions**

An **effective question** encouragesstudentsto engage in **self-thinking** and self-discovery. Consider questions that require not only knowledge but application and synthesis. Be thoughtful in preparing questions.

**Deepen the Discussion**

• **Allow students time to think**  -  Once you have asked an effective question, wait for a response. Do not be so anxious to get a response that you call of the first hand raised.

 • **Listen** -  Don't be so anxiousto move forward that you forget to listen and learn with theirstudents. Practice restating comments. React based on what you hear.

 • **Ask deepening questions** -   Do not settle for cursory responses. Use follow-up questionsthat deepen discussion and set expectations: "Why do you feel that way?" or "How did you reach that conclusion?" Expand questionsto the rest of class: "How would you respond to David's position?" or "What else should we consider?"

• **Make connections** - Help the class make important connections to previous lessons or to ideas within the discussion itself. And while you may articulate these directly, it is often more effective do this through questions: "How does this relate to what David said earlier?" or "How is the American Revolution different than Pakistani independence?"

• **Reflection and Synthesis** - Many discussion-based strategies encourage divergent discussion before convergence occurs. Some approaches specifically advocate cognitive dissonance, leaving students unsettled on conclusions. Regardless, it is important to allow reflection and synthesis. This might occur through in-class questions or through outside reflection activities.

There are many teaching strategies that can be brought into a discussion to deepen the learning. Consider:

• **Enriching content -** Consider incorporating additional media, quotes, visual aids, videos, or other teaching materials to support a discussion.

• **Effective problems -** Invite students to take a position, defend an answer, vote, or take action. Consider effective problems, such as concept tests and case studies to focus your discussion.

• **Other forms of engagement -** Incorporate complementary teaching strategies. Consider using paired-learning strategies, group work, and other Teach One Another strategies.

**EXAMPLES**

American Foundations

• **Pre-class planning -** Professor Jones prepares for tomorrow's discussion on Colonial attitudes in pre-Revolution America. To initially assess his learning outcomes he uses a pre-class poll. He includes a question on whether students would have been Loyalist or Revolutionary. Reviewing the poll data, he realizes that over 90% of the class vote Revolutionary. He then uses this information to revise his teaching plan. He notes he hasn't heard from David in class, whose poll response was Revolutionary. He also notes that Jill, a consistently sharp student, was in the 10% that voted Loyalist. Jones decides to draw on a quote from John Adams in the class discussion.

• **Classroom Discussion -** Professor Jones opens the discussion: "David, why do you say you would have been a Revolutionary?" David responds: "Because England was imposing on my rights?" Professor Jones engages with follow-up questions before asking the class what other reasons they would have for being Revolutionaries. He encourages them to bring in information from the pre-class reading. Jones then begins to push back by asking questions. He then calls on Jill and asks her: "Why would so many people have remained Loyalists?" Jones designs a role play between Jill and David. He then introduces the quote from John Adams that appears to defend England. A discussion ensues.

• **Reflection and Synthesis**. Toward the end of discussion, Professor Jones asks the class: "Why is it important to understand the tension we have discussed?" He pairs students and asks them to discuss,

"How will understanding the reasons to remain a Loyalist affect other decisions leading-up to the Revolution?" Jones then asks the class to think about what they learned in that day. A similar question is included in the weekly quiz.

**TIPS**

• **Focus on learning outcomes -** Too often, discussions can drift from key learning outcomes. Be flexible and adaptive, but ensure the discussion support your learning outcomes.

• **Teaching plan** - Prepare for the discussion by writing a teaching plan with key questions, estimated time allocations, and key materials.

 • **Practice writing questions.** Outline opening and transition questions. Anticipate follow-up questions and practice writing them separately.

**PITFALLS**

• **Erratic Discussion** - When a discussion shifts erratically from one topic to another, it is difficult for students to engage and participate. Shifting too rapidly also prevents deep discussion.

• **Inflexibility   -** It is important to have a plan and meet learning objectives, but an instructorshould not be so inflexible that he or she does not respond to student energy or to the impressions of the Spirit.

## 2. Make It Meaningful

In aiming for full engagement, it is essential that students perceive activities as being meaningful. Research has shown that if students do not consider a learning activity worthy of their time and effort, they might not engage in a satisfactory way, or may even disengage entirely in response (Fredricks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2004). To ensure that activities are personally meaningful, we can, for example, connect them with students' previous knowledge and experiences, highlighting the value of an assigned activity in personally relevant ways. Also, adult or expert modeling can help to demonstrate why an individual activity is worth pursuing, and when and how it is used in real life.

## 3. Foster a Sense of Competence

The notion of competence may be understood as a student's ongoing personal evaluation of whether he or she can succeed in a learning activity or challenge. (Can I do this?) Researchers have found that effectively performing an activity can positively impact subsequent engagement (Schunk & Mullen, 2012). To strengthen students' sense of competence in learning activities, the assigned activities could:

- Be only slightly beyond students' current levels of proficiency
- Make students demonstrate understanding throughout the activity
- Show peer coping models (i.e. students who struggle but eventually succeed at the activity) and peer mastery models (i.e. students who try and succeed at the activity)
- Include feedback that helps students to make progress

**4. Provide Autonomy Support**

We may understand autonomy support as nurturing the students' sense of control over their behaviors and goals. When teachers relinquish control (without losing power) to the students, rather than promoting compliance with directives and commands, student engagement levels are likely to increase as a result (Reeve, Jang, Carrell, Jeon, & Barch, 2004). Autonomy support can be implemented by:

- Welcoming students' opinions and ideas into the flow of the activity
- Using informational, non-controlling language with students
- Giving students the time they need to understand and absorb an activity by themselves

**5. Embrace Collaborative Learning**

Collaborative learning is another powerful facilitator of engagement in learning activities. When students work effectively with others, their engagement may be amplified as a result (Wentzel, 2009), mostly due to experiencing a sense of connection to others during the activities (Deci & Ryan, 2000). To make group work more productive, strategies can be implemented to ensure that students know how to communicate and behave in that setting. Teacher modeling is one effective method (i.e. the teacher shows how collaboration is done), while avoiding homogeneous groups and grouping by ability, fostering individual accountability by assigning different roles, and evaluating both the student and the group performance also support collaborative learning.

5. Establish Positive Teacher-Student Relationships

High-quality teacher-student relationships are another critical factor in determining student engagement, especially in the case of difficult students and those from lower socioeconomic backgrounds (Fredricks, 2014). When students form close and caring relationships with their teachers, they are fulfilling their developmental need for a connection with others and a sense of belonging in society (Scales, 1991). Teacher-student relationships can be facilitated by:

- Caring about students' social and emotional needs
- Displaying positive attitudes and enthusiasm
- Increasing one-on-one time with students
- Treating students fairly
- Avoiding deception or promise-breaking

6. Promote Mastery Orientations

Finally, students' perspective of learning activities also determines their level of engagement. When students pursue an activity because they want to learn and understand (i.e. mastery orientations), rather than merely obtain a good grade, look smart, please their parents, or outperform peers (i.e. performance orientations), their engagement is more likely to be full and thorough (Anderman & Patrick, 2012). To encourage this mastery orientation mindset, consider various approaches, such as framing success in terms of learning (e.g. criterion-referenced) rather than performing (e.g. obtaining a good grade). You can also place the emphasis on individual progress by reducing social comparison (e.g. making grades private) and recognizing student improvement and effort.

## Importance of Questioning & types of questioning and Discussion based learning :

## Question :

A **question is** a statement or a sentence that is asked to inquire about something and in return an answer is provided.

## Importance of Questions :

*"All our knowledge results from questions, which is another way of saying that questioning is our most important intellectual tool." (Neil Postman)*

- A problem solving device.
- An important means of stimulating thinking and learning.
- Bring the teacher and the taught into close contact, motivate mental effort, stimulate reflective thinking and lead learners to creative efforts.
- Good questions are educative and important in all kinds of learning.

## Types of Questions

- Memory questions.
- Organizing questions.
- Causal reasoning questions.
- Evaluation question.
- Inference question.
- Information question.
- Summary question.
- Analysis question.
- Interpretation question

## Types of Questions

- ## Memory questions.

Memory is often defined as application of learning over time.

~~Memmry questions – base on memory~~ .

Retrieving,recognizing, and recalling relevant knowledge from long-term memory.

Eg. list, recite, outline, define, name, match, quote, recall, identify, label, recognize.

How many…..?

Who spoke….?

Who was  …..?

https://www.apa.org/ed/precollege/topss/lessons/memory.pdf

Memory questions:

| USEFUL VERBS | SAMPLE QUESTIONS | POTENTIAL ACTIVITIES AND PRODUCTS |
|---|---|---|
| - Tell<br>- List<br>- Describe<br>- Relate<br>- Locate<br>- Write<br>- Find<br>- State<br>- Name | - What happened after...?<br>- How many...?<br>- Who was it that...?<br>- Can you name the...?<br>- Describe what happened at...?<br>- Who spoke to...?<br>- Can you tell why...?<br>- Find the meaning of...?<br>- What is...?<br>- Which is true or false...? | - Make a list of the main events..<br>- Make a timeline of events.<br>- Make a facts chart.<br>- Write a list of any pieces of information you can remember.<br>- List all the .... in the story/article/reading piece.<br>- Make a chart showing... |

- **organizing questions.**

**Organizing Questions**

Organizing questions are the "big picture" questions. They can engage students in meaningful exploration of the community and local environment. Posed by the teacher, organizing questions provide students with a framework for learning in many areas: general and disciplinary knowledge; thinking and problem-solving skills; basic life skills; and understanding of their local environment as it relates to the Chesapeake Bay watershed.

Effective organizing questions are those that

- arouse and sustain student interest
- encompass both natural and social systems and topics
- encompass the essential Science Standards of Learning content to be covered
- stimulate inquiry and focus student work
- allow for creation of interdisciplinary activities and investigations
- require students to propose and evaluate a variety of solutions rather than lead to one "obvious" response or one "right" answer
- are stated in language easily understood by students
- are related to everyday life
- require students to revisit the problem frequently as knowledge and understanding evolves
- recur naturally throughout the completion of an interdisciplinary program.

Prior to class time, teachers should determine (1) what question they want the students to answer or (2) what question to use as an example so that students can determine a question they as a class would like to answer.

**Examples of organizing questions**
- *What impact does our school have on the Chesapeake Bay?*
- *In what ways does development in our community affect the Chesapeake Bay?*
- *How does the Chesapeake Bay affect the economy of our community?*
- *In what ways does our school parking lot affect the natural systems of a nearby stream?*
- *Does our schoolyard provide a healthy habitat for a wide variety of organisms?*
- *What vegetation can we plant in our schoolyard to attract native animals?*

- **<u>causal reasoning questions.</u>**

> **Causal reasoning** is the process of identifying <u>causality</u>: the relationship between a <u>cause</u> and its <u>effect</u>.

> # Types of causal reasoning
>
> While causal understanding can be automatic, in complex situations advanced reasoning is necessary. Types of causal reasoning[2] include:
>
> ## Deduction
>
> <u>Deductive reasoning</u> implies a general rule; an event is a guaranteed conclusion. An outcome may be deduced based on other arguments, which may determine a cause-and-effect relationship.
>
> ## Induction
>
> <u>Inductive reasoning</u> is an inference made with uncertainty; the conclusion is likely, but not guaranteed. Induction can be used to speculate about causality.
>
> ## Abduction
>
> In <u>abductive reasoning</u>, the premises do not guarantee a conclusion. Abduction moves from data description to a <u>hypothesis</u>without a necessary relationship between cause and effect.

Causality is the relationship between an event (the cause) and a second event (the effect), where the second event is a consequence of the first.

The philosophical treatment of causality extends over millennia. In the Western philosophical tradition, discussion stretches back at least to Aristotle, and the topic remains a staple in contemporary philosophy. Aristotle distinguished between accidental (cause preceding effect) and essential causality (one event seen in two ways). Aristotle's example of essential causality is a builder building a house. This single event can be analyzed into the builder building (cause) and the house being built (effect). Aristotle also had a theory that answered the question "why?" 4 different ways. The first was material cause, next was formal cause, then efficient cause, and lastly was final cause. These rules are known as "Aristotle's four causes"

Though cause and effect are typically related to events, candidates include objects, processes, properties, variables, facts, and states of affairs; characterizing the causal relationship can be the subject of much debate.

## Examples of question

1) When a gas is turned into a liquid, the process is called

○ **A.** condensation

○ **B.** evaporation

○ **C.** deposition

○ **D.** sublimation

**Answer / Explanation :** Answer : A.

2) Which of the following parts of the sun is easily visible only during a total solar eclipse?

○ **A.** core

○ **B.** photosphere

○ **C.** sunspots

○ **D.** corona

**Answer / Explanation :** Answer : D.

3) Earth's seasons are caused by which of the following?

○ **A.** The tilt of the earth's rotation relative to the ecliptic as earth revolves around the sun

○ **B.** The varying amount of sunspot activity

○ **C.** The earth's orbit around the sun as an exlipse rather than a circle

○ **D.** The rotation of during a 24-hour day

**Answer / Explanation :** Answer : A.

4) Which of the following is most likely to cause a rise in the average temperature of earth's atmosphere in future?

○ **A.** Atomic warfare

○ **B.** CO2 from fossil fuels

○ **C.** Dust clouds from valcanoes

○ **D.** Depletion of earth's ozone layer

**Answer / Explanation :** Answer : B.

5) The accumulation of stress along the boundaries of lithospheric plates results in which of the following?

○ **A.** Earthquakes

○ **B** Magnetic reversals

○ **C.** Hurricanses

○ **D.** Increased deposition of deep-sea sediments

**Answer / Explanation :** Answer : A.

**CAUSAL REASONING**

- **definition:** one condition or event (the "antecedent") contributes to or brings about another condition or event (the "consequent").

  - example: studying hard (antecedent) leads to good grades (consequent)

  - example: passive smoke causes lung cancer in nonsmokers

- **causal relationships are <u>inferred</u>, not directly observed**

  - One can observe that B *follows* A, but not that B is *caused* by A.

  - An eye witness might see an assailant shoot a victim, but a coroner would still have to determine the cause of death

- **a cause must <u>precede</u> its effect**

  - Does TV violence cause kids to be violent, or are kids who are predisposed toward violence drawn to watch violent TV shows?

## Everyday cause-effect reasoning

- Most people have a good, common sense understanding of causation:
  - "If I turn on the burner, the water will boil."
  - "Turning the key starts my car."
  - "When I exercise, I sweat."
- Common sense understandings of causation only go so far.
  - People often makes erroneous cause-effect inferences
    - example: Superbowl Sunday and claims of increased spouse abuse
    - example: superstitions, like Ground Hog Day
    - example: "lucky" lottery strategies
    - example: internal attributions for success, external attributions for failure

## Types of Causal Reasoning

- **partial or contributory cause**
  - example: driver inattention and a car crash on a freeway
  - example: coral reefs are declining due to global warming, water pollution, and human contact
- **necessary cause:** a condition that must be present in order for the effect to occur
  - example: a college degree is a prerequisite for certain jobs
  - example: to be eligible for social security benefits one must be a certain age.
- **sufficient cause:** a condition capable of bringing about the effect in and of itself
  - example: a blood alcohol level > .08 is sufficient for a DUI conviction
  - example: having unprotected sex one time is sufficient for contracting HIV
- **necessary versus sufficient: the distinction**
  - A necessary condition for the occurrence of an effect is a state of affairs without which the effect cannot occur, while a sufficient condition is a state of affairs that guarantees the effect will happen.

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## MORE TYPES OF CAUSAL REASONING

- **sole cause** (both necessary <u>and</u> sufficient)
  - extremely rare in public, social controversies
  - beware of arguers who use "scapegoating" by pinning all of society's problems on a single cause
    - example: recent lawsuits alleging McDonald's was the sole cause of a person's obesity
    - example: global warming isn't the sole cause of

the decline of coral reefs

- example: As a condition of the Versailles treaty, Germany was required to accept sole responsibility for causing World War I.

☀ **effect-to-cause reasoning** (a form of "sign" reasoning)

– looking at effects or symptoms and inferring back to their cause

- example: You have a fever, so you may have an infection.
- example: All the flags are flying at half mast, so it must be due to a national tragedy.
- example: Jake slammed the door when he came in so he's probably in a bad mood.

---

☀ MORE TYPES OF CAUSAL REASONING

☀ **reciprocal causation: two things are both causes and effects of each other**

– example: stuttering and shyness
– example: the United States' policy toward Mexico and Mexico's policy toward the U.S.
– example: couples' conflicts "I read the paper because you never stop talking." "I talk because you won't stop reading the paper."

☀ **causal "chain" or multi-step causation**

– Will Viagra help save endangered species? (Associated Press, December 26, 2002)
– Does media reporting about famous people who commit suicide produce "imitation" suicides? (New England Journal of Medicine, September 11, 1986)
– 1% increase in unemployment "causes" 10,000 fatalities (Annual Review of Public Health, 1996, 17:449-65. )

commfaculty.fullerton.edu/.../**Causal**%2...

- ☀ TESTS OF CAUSAL REASONING
- ☀ **is the cause <u>necessary</u> to produce the effect?**
  - – Is it necessary to smoke marijuana to be cool?
  - – Are computer skills a must in today's job market?
  - – Does everyone need a cell phone?
- ☀ **is the cause <u>sufficient</u> to produce the effect?**
  - – Is having a "cool ride" sufficient for getting dates?
  - – If someone is religious, does it guarantee she/he is honest?
  - – Does "being in love" ensure that a couple will be happy together when married?
- ☀ MORE TESTS OF CAUSAL REASONING
- ☀ **Are there <u>cumulative</u> (additional, contributory) causes?**
  - – example: Urban density, plus unemployment, plus poverty lead to crime.
  - – example: The collapse of the dot.com industry, plus Sept. 11, plus the Enron scandal all damaged the economy.
- ☀ **Are there <u>alternative</u> causal explanations?**
  - – example: Can "backward masked" song lyrics make someone commit suicide?
  - – example: What was the cause of the school shootings in Littleton, Colorado?
- ☀ **Are there <u>countervailing</u> causes?** Would other factors or circumstances prevent the effect from occurring?
  - – example: a person's computer keeps freezing up, so the person suspects a virus. However, the person recently updated her/his anti-virus software.
  - – example: an arguer claims that pornography is linked to sexual assaults, but evidence shows that Sweden--a country with lots of porn--has low rape and sexual assault rates.

# • <u>**Evaluation Question.**</u>

4. **Evaluative** – These types of questions usually require sophisticated levels of cognitive and/or emotional (affective) judgment. In attempting to answer these types of questions, students may be combining multiple cognitive and/or affective processes or levels, frequently in comparative frameworks. Often an answer is analyzed at multiple levels and from different perspectives before the answerer arrives at newly synthesized information or conclusions.

**Examples:**

a. How are the the deaths of Ophelia and Juliet the same and yet different? (Compare and contrast.)

b. What are the similarities and differences between Roman gladiatorial games and modern football?

c. Why and how might the concept of Piagetian schema be related to the concepts presented in Jungian personality theory, and why might this be important to consider in teaching and learning?

http://thesecondprinciple.com/teaching-essentials/five-basic-types-questions/

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1. Evaluation question: Requires judgment, value or choice based upon comparing of ideas or objects to established standards.
   > Ex: "Which of the two books do you believe contributed most to an understanding of the Victorian era? Why?"
   > "Assuming equal resources, who would you rate as the most skillful general, Robert E. Lee or Ulysses S. Grant? Why?

http://www.lamission.edu/devcom/ProbingQuestions.htm

- **Inference Question.**

    Intends students to go beyond available facts or information and focus on identifying and examining suggestive clues embedded in the complex network of facts or information.

Example : What do you know by looking at this picture?

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Inference questions make up nearly 15% of all SAT Reading questions (based on analysis of four publicly available new SATs). Answering inference questions correctly requires the ability to take information given in the text and then draw logical, supported conclusions from it.

**What are the different kinds of inference questions asked on the SAT Reading Section, and how should you go about answering them?** I've got the answers for you in this article.

# What Are Inference Questions?

**Inference questions ask about the meaning of a line, paragraph, or even an entire passage**. The ideas being asked about are not directly stated in the text, which mean that inference questions often include the phrases "could be interpreted to mean" or "suggests that." Since there can only be one correct answer to any SAT question, however, the answers to these questions cannot be subjective or ambiguous.



**Inference questions often also require big picture skills**, since you must be able to

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get meaning from entire passages to answer questions about paired passage relationships, or from entire paragraphs for other inference questions. In contrast to function questions, which ask "what does [this word, phrase, or line] DO," inference questions ask "what does [this word, phrase, or line] MEAN?"

There are three main kinds of inference questions: **deduction, speculation, and examination.**

### Type 1: Deduction

Inference questions that fall into this subcategory ask you to **fill in missing information**. The gist of most of the questions is **"If something is said in the passage, what is the logical extension?"** Deduction questions are very close to detail questions, except that you must make a logical deduction, rather than relying only on information in the passage. For example:

> According to the passage, Woolf chooses the setting of the bridge because it
>
> **A)** is conducive to a mood of fanciful reflection.
>
> **B)** provides a good view of the procession of the sons of educated men.
>
> **C)** is within sight of historic episodes to which she alludes.
>
> **D)** is symbolic of the legacy of past and present sons of educated men.

The relevant lines:

> Close at hand is a bridge over the River Thames, an admirable vantage ground for us to make a survey. The river flows beneath; barges pass, laden with timber, bursting with corn; there on one side are the domes and spires of the city; on the other, Westminster and the Houses of Parliament. It is a place to stand on by the hour, dreaming. But not now. Now we are pressed for time. Now we are here to consider facts; now we must fix our eyes upon the procession — the procession of the sons of educated men.

To get the correct answer, **(B)**, you must **deduce** from the info given. My thoughts:

*Normally we'd be on the bridge to dream and have fanciful reflection, but that's not the case now. Instead, now we have to do something else while standing on the bridge. What is that something else? Fixing our eyes on the procession of the sons of educated men.*

There will be a more full walkthrough of an inference question later on in this article – the point of that was to show the eensy, teensy step you have to take beyond what is written to answer inference questions. It's not like high school English literature classes, where you're encouraged to make any interpretation you can, as long as you can back it up with enough words/rambling. In fact, I know that some people just think of these kinds of inference questions as paraphrasing, becaus so little interpretation is involved.

Some examples of how these questions have been asked on the SAT (with some modifications to keep them on the same theme):

- Based on the passage, the authors' statement "If a pair consisted of two piccolos, for example, there would not be room for it" (lines 29-30) implies that a pair
- The narrator implies that Ms. Boulanger favors a form of education that emphasizes
- In Passage 1, Bach contends that breaking the laws of counterpoint has which consequence?

*From my constant comments about musicians, you may be able to DEDUCE that I, too, am a musician.*

### Type 2: Speculation

These inference questions ask you to **speculate about the meaning (or "suggested" meaning) of a statement, description, or something else in the passage.** In some ways, these are similar to function questions, but the answers the SAT is looking for are very different. Take this question:

In the passage, Akira addresses Chie with

**If this were a function question,** the answer choices would be generic, like "a continuation of an extended comparison" or "an unexpected answer to a question."

**Since this is an inference question,** the answer choices are more specific, along the lines of "affection but not genuine love" or "amusement but not mocking disparagement."

Some examples of how this sort of inference question is asked:

- It can reasonably be inferred that "the strong-minded" (line 32) was a term generally intended to
- In line 42, the authors state that a certain hypothesis "can best be tested by a trial." Based on the passage, which of the following is a hypothesis the authors suggest be tested in a trial?
- The phrase "liquid gold" (line 71) most directly suggests that
- What does the author suggest about the transgenic studies done in the 1980s and 1990s?

### Type 3: Examination

Inference questions which fall into the examination subcategory **question you about the internal life (thoughts, feelings, motivations) of the narrator, author, or someone mentioned in the passage**. They can mostly be summed up as asking "What would [this person] think about [that thing]?" Examination questions are the most complicated type of inference questions, because they ask you to get into the head of the author/narrator/character/other person mentioned in the text. You will often see these sorts of questions on paired passages.

Fortunately, it is pretty easy to identify examination inference questions, since they do tend to fall into "what does X think about Y" format. See below for some examples:

- The "social psychologists" mentioned in paragraph 2 (lines 17-34) would likely describe the "deadweight loss" phenomenon as
- The passage indicates that when the narrator began working for Edward Crimsworth, he viewed Crimsworth as a
- It can be inferred that the authors of Passage 1 believe that running a household and raising children
- It can most reasonably be inferred from Passage 2 that Paine views historical precedents as
- Beecher would most likely have reacted to lines 65-68 ("Now . . . woman") of Passage 2 with

http://blog.prepscholar.com/inference-questions-on-sat-reading-6-strategies

# Inference question starters

- From the title/heading, you can predict that the text will be about …..?
- Why do you think …..?
- Why did …..?
- How do you know that …..?
- What might happen if …..?
- What can you infer from the picture on the page?
- Why do they …..? How do you know?
- Do you think …..? Why do you think that?
- Why does the author use the word …..?
- What is the author implying?/What message is the author trying to give?
- Can you infer the meaning of …..?
- What probably caused …..?
- How might ………….. feel ……………………….?

# INFERENCE

An inference is "reading between the lines" to understand things not directly stated by the author. Inferences are based on information stated in text as well as what is known from personal experience which relates to the passage being read.

**TIPS:**

Making inferences means making a guess based on information.

Prior knowledge and details are needed for inferences.

Predictions are what the reader thinks will happen.

Conclusions can be drawn from thinking about the facts or details in the text.

- **information question.**

| **Information Questions** | |
|---|---|
| The answers for **simple** questions in English are "Yes," "No," or "I don't know" (or its equivalent). The answers for **information questions** are varied--because they areused to ask about specific kinds of information. Information questions are also called **"Wh-" questions** because many of the words that are used to ask this type of question begin with **Wh-**. | |
| **Information Questions: Common Question Words** | |
| **Use this question word** | **to ask about** |
| Who* | people (names and other identifying information) used as **subjects*** |
| Whom* | people (names and other identifying |

| | |
|---|---|
| | information) used as **objects***|
| What | things (subject or object) |
| Whose* ( + noun) | ownership |
| Where | locations (places) |
| When | time (general) |
| What time | time (specific) |
| What . . . do | actions (verbs) |
| Why* | reasons |
| What ( + noun) | one part of a group (when all of the parts are not known) |
| Which ( + noun) | one part of a group (when the parts are known) |
| What kind of ( + noun) | descriptive names for categories |
| What color | colors |
| How | manner; methods |
| How many ( + noun) | number (used with countable nouns) |
| How much ( + noun) | quantity (used with uncountable nouns) |
| How long* | duration (periods of time); length |
| How far* | distance |
| How old | age |
| How ( + adjective or adverb) | degree or extent |

**Special Notes**


1.      In careful writing and speaking, **who** is used for **subjects** and **whom** is used for **objects**, but in "relaxed" (casual) speech, **who** is often used for **both** subjects and objects. The difference in meaning is clear, however, because the grammar for subject and object questions is different (to be treated later).

2.      **Whose** (for ownership) **sounds** the same as **Who's** ( = Who is or Who has), but their meanings are quite different.

3.      Two idiomatic "Why" questions are very commonly heard in everyday conversation: **How come?** and **What for?**

        **How come** does not use question grammar: it's followed by a statement.

        **What for** can be used alone or with **What** at the beginning and **for** at the end. Except for this requirement, it uses question grammar.

4.      **How far** is normally used in this way:

        How far is it . . . . .?

5.      **How** is also common with adjectives used in **measurements**:

        How tall / How heavy / How long (length) / How wide / How big, etc.

http://www.eslcafe.com/grammar/information_questions01.html

- **Summary question.**

What is the summary Question?

- A comprehension question where you have to derive point from a particular part of the text.
- The answer should be written in your own words.
- Word limit of 80 words should be adhered to.

## Summary question

**Summarize in not more than 120 words, describing the author's trip in Cherokee. You may adopt the author's point of view.**

During my vacation last May, I had a hard time choosing a tour. Flights to Japan, Hong Kong and Australia are just too common. What I wanted was somewhere exciting and exotic, a place where I could be spared from the holiday tour crowds. I was so happy when Joan called up, suggesting a trip to Cherokee, a county in the state of Oklahoma. I agreed and went off with the preparation immediately.

We took a flight to Cherokee and visited a town called Qualla Boundary Surrounded by magnificent mountain scenery, the town painted a paradise before us. With its Oconaluftee Indian Village reproducing tribal crafts and lifestyles of the 18th century and the outdoor historical pageant *Unto These Hills* playing six times weekly in the summer nights, Qualla Boundary tries to present a brief image of the Cherokee past to the tourists.

Despite the language barrier, we managed to find our way to the souvenir shops with the help of the natives. The shops are filled with rubber tomahawks and colorful traditional war bonnets, made of dyed turkey feathers. **Tepees**, cone-shaped tents made from animal skin, are also pitched near the shops. "Welcome! Want to get anything ?" We looked up and saw a middle-aged man smiling at us. We were very surprised by his fluent English. He introduced himself as George and we ended up chatting till lunch time when he invited us for lunch at a nearby coffee shop.

"Sometimes, I've to work from morning to sunset during the tour season. Anyway, this is still better off than being a woodcutter ..." Remembrance weighed heavy on George's mind and he went on to tell us that he used to cut firewood for a living but could hardly **make ends meet**. We learnt from him that the Cherokees do not depend solely on trade for survival. During the tour **off-peak** period, the tribe would have to try out other means for income. One of the successful ways is the "Bingo Weekend". On the Friday afternoons of the Bingo weekends, a large bingo hall will be opened, attracting huge crowds of people to the various kinds of games

like the Super Jackpot and the Warrior Game Special. According to George, these forms of entertainment fetch them great returns.

Our final stop in Qualla Boundary was at the museum where arts, ranging from the simple hand-woven oak baskets to wood and stone carvings of wolves, ravens and other symbols of Cherokee cosmology are displayed.

Back at home, I really missed the place and I would of course look forward to the next trip to another exotic place.

**Answer**

We visited Qualla Boundary, a town in Cherokee. The mountain scenery surrounding the town was a breathtaking sight. The traditional lifestyle of the Indians, the tribal crafts they made and the historical pageant played six times a week, presented to tourists a rough image of Cherokee in the 18th century. We also visited the souvenir shops which sold rubber tomahawks and war bonnets. There we befriended a local, George, who told us that besides trade, the "Bingo Weekend," where the tourists can enjoy various kinds of games in a large hall, is another source of income for them during off-tour seasons. Finally, we visited the town's museum where different kinds of arts, like handwoven baskets and carved figurines are displayed . ( 118 words )

http://www.englishdaily626.com/summary.php?003

summary question:

Summary questions always come at the end of the question set and are worth 2 points. These ask you to summarize the main points of the passage by choosing 3 answer choices from a number of options. Some choices have too specific of information, and some don't relate to the passage.

http://englishsimple.org/free-toefl-help/toefl-reading-task-summary-question/

- **Analysis question**.

• **Analysis-** Analysis refers to the ability to break down material into its component parts so that its organizational structure may be understood. This may include the identification of the parts, analysis of the relationship between parts, and recognition of the organizational principles involved. Learning outcomes here present a higher intellectual level than comprehension and application because they require an understanding of both the content and structural form of the material.

- <u>Illustrative General Instructional Objectives</u> Recognises unstated assumptions. Recognises logical fallacies in reasoning. Distinguishes between facts and inferences. Evaluates the relevancy of data. Analyses the organisational structure of a work (art, music, writing).

- <u>Illustrative Verbs for Stating Specific Learning Outcomes</u> Breaks down diagrams, differentiates, discriminates, distinguishes, identifies, illustrates, infers, outlines, points out, relates, selects, separates, subdivides.

- **EXAMPLES OF QUESTIONS** Analysis question

| ANALYSIS | | |
|---|---|---|
| **USEFUL VERBS** | **SAMPLE QUESTIONS** | **POTENTIAL ACTIVITIES AND PRODUCTS** |
| • Analyse<br>• Distinguish<br>• Examine<br>• Compare<br>• Contrast<br>• Investigate<br>• Categorise<br>• Identify<br>• Explain<br>• Separate<br>• Advertise | • Which events could have happened...?<br>• I ... happened, what might the ending have been?<br>• How was this similar to...?<br>• What was the underlying theme of...?<br>• What do you see as other possible outcomes?<br>• Why did ... changes occur?<br>• Can you compare your ... with that presented in...?<br>• Can you explain what must have happened when...?<br>• How is ... similar to ...?<br>• What are some of the problems of...?<br>• Can you distinguish between...?<br>• What were some of the motives behind...?<br>• What was the turning point in the game?<br>• What was the problem with...? | • Design a questionnaire to gather information.<br>• Write a commercial to sell a new product.<br>• Conduct an investigation to produce information to support a view.<br>• Make a flow chart to show the critical stages.<br>• Construct a graph to illustrate selected information.<br>• Make a family tree showing relationships.<br>• Put on a play about the study area.<br>• Write a biography of the study person.<br>• Prepare a report about the area of study.<br>• Arrange a party. Make all the arrangements and record the steps needed.<br>• Review a work of art in terms of form, colour and texture.<br>• Review a film |

# Interpretation question

Interpretation question include – interpretation of table chart, pie chart, Bar chart, Line chart, map, picture, photo, Arial photograph, Imagery.

- Table Charts
  Study the following table and answer the questions based on it.

**Expenditures of a Company (in Lakh Rupees) per Annum Over the given Years.**

| Year | Item of Expenditure | | | | |
|------|--------|--------------------|-------|------------------|-------|
|      | **Salary** | **Fuel and Transport** | **Bonus** | **Interest on Loans** | **Taxes** |
| 1998 | 288 | 98 | 3.00 | 23.4 | 83 |
| 1999 | 342 | 112 | 2.52 | 32.5 | 108 |
| 2000 | 324 | 101 | 3.84 | 41.6 | 74 |
| 2001 | 336 | 133 | 3.68 | 36.4 | 88 |
| 2002 | 420 | 142 | 3.96 | 49.4 | 98 |

1.  What is the average amount of interest per year which the company had to pay during this period?

    **A.** Rs. 32.43 lakhs

    **B.** Rs. 33.72 lakhs

    **C.** Rs. 34.18 lakhs

    **D.** Rs. 36.66 lakhs

2.  The total amount of bonus paid by the company during the given period is approximately what percent of the total amount of salary paid during this period?

    **A.** 0.1%

    **B.** 0.5%

    **C.** 1%

    **D.** 1.25%

3.  Total expenditure on all these items in 1998 was approximately what percent of the total expenditure in 2002?

    **A.** 62%

    **B.** 66%

    **C.** 69%

    **D.** 71%

4. The total expenditure of the company over these items during the year 2000 is?

    **A.** Rs. 544.44 lakhs

    **B.** Rs. 501.11 lakhs

    **C.** Rs. 446.46 lakhs

    **D.** Rs. 478.87 lakhs

5. The ratio between the total expenditure on Taxes for all the years and the total expenditure on Fuel and Transport for all the years respectively is approximately?

    **A.** 4:7

    **B.** 10:13

    **C.** 15:18

    **D.** 5:8
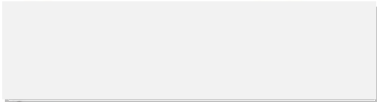
## Interpretive Question

~ Asks students to provide missing information or ideas so that the whole concept is understood.
- Does not have just *one* correct answer.
~ Correct answers are any answers that you can support with evidence from the text.
- The *best* interpretive questions, ones that generate the most engaging discussions are those with several different correct answers.

### EXAMPLES
❖ Is Margo a good person?
❖ Which has more of an effect on Jack's success: luck or intelligence?

# Supporting Questions

Students will not have enough knowledge at the start of the project to answer the organizing question. Therefore, teachers must generate supporting questions that will help students find the missing information needed to answer the organizing question. These smaller, supporting questions can help provide direction and keep the class moving if students are stumped.

Before presenting an organizing question to the class, teachers should determine what major concepts will be involved and should prepare supporting questions that introduce the concepts. A good initial brainstorming technique here is to create a large web of supporting questions that branch out from the organizing questions.

As they generate supporting questions, teachers will want to include questions that bring in a variety of subject disciplines: English, science, mathematics, and history and social science, as well as other areas that may apply.

To illustrate, if the classroom focus is to be biodiversity, the teacher may first need to introduce the concept of habitat and the idea that different animals need different environmental conditions to survive. The teacher may ask supporting questions such as

- *What is an animal that you can see near the school?*
- *What do you see this animal doing during the day?*
- *What does it eat?*
- *What does it drink?*
- *Where does it sleep?*
- *What dangers does it face?*
- *How does it stay safe?*
- *What things does it need in order to live?*
- *Have there always been animals of this type around here?*
- *How many of these animals do you think live in this area?*
- *Why are there so few (or so many) of these animals around here?*

The organization question that could then be asked of the students is "How could we increase the number of animals living on or near our school grounds?"

## Teacher Planning Activities

### Using KWL Charts:

At the beginning of the questioning process, Know-Wonder-Learned (KWL) charts are an effective way to identify what students already know about a topic, determine what they would like to learn or discover, and assess their progress as the unit proceeds.

The chart will also provide a way to assess what the students have learned. Teachers can make KWL charts on large sheets of paper (they can use an electronic table or spreadsheet) and have students revisit the charts periodically to fill in the "Wonder" and "Learned" columns. The "Learned" column can get very long, so it is important to leave a great deal of space.

# Questioning

Techniques > Questioning

Asking questions is a fundamental part of finding information and for subtle (and otherwise) persuasion. Here are various pages on questioning:

- Action Requests: Questions that influence for action.
- Closed Questions: That seek short answers.
- Chunking Questions: Chunk up and down for more or less detail.
- Clear Questions: That are simple and unambiguous.
- Columbo Technique: Asking stupid questions that get the answers you want.
- Double Bind Questions: Whichever way you answer, the result is the same.
- Echo Questions: Repeat what they say as a question.
- Empowering Questions: That release limits on people.
- Funnel Questioning: Seeking more detail or more general information.
- Group Questioning: Tips for asking questions of many people at once.
- Interrogation Questions: Questions that lead to answers.
- Kipling Questions: Rudyard Kipling's six servants.
- Leading Questions: That may or may not be a good thing for you.
- Open Questions: For long and detailed answers.
- Open and Closed Questions: yes/no or long answer.
- Positive Questions: Deliberately leading the other person.
- Probing: Digging for more detail.
- Probing Questions: Specific questions for finding detail.
- Provocative Rider: Wind them up with a secondary question.
- Rhetorical Questions: Questions without answers.
- Socratic Questioning: Socrates' method of questioning in order to elicit learning.
- Tag Questions: Some questions encourage agreement, don't they?

And...

- Control Answering of Questions: You do not have to answer directly.
- Dodging the Question: How not to answer the question.
- Questioning Traps: A few pitfalls you may like to avoid.
- Responding to Questions: Turning questioning to your advantage.
- Selling with Questions: how to sell by asking instead of telling.
- The Power of Questions: How questions are just so very useful.

http://changingminds.org/techniques/questioning/questioning.htm

# Importance of Discussion

- 1) Learner is an active participant. Emphasizes self-direction, involves critical thinking and effective in analyzing problem of common concern to the group.

- 2) Helps students arrange their ideas logically and put it before the audience.

- 3) Teaches students to use appropriate language and learn to use it.

- 4) Helps students practice structures, pronunciation, stress, intonation and vocabulary.

- 5) Helps students overcome fear of speaking in front of an audience and develop confidence in speaking.

- 6) Helps in building social skills such as taking turns and speaking, speaking concisely in the given time, being tolerant and empathetic.

- 7) Exposes the student to various perspectives on a given topic and expands the horizons of thinking.


- Every subject -Science,History,Geography ,Civics and Environmental Science have a lot of topics that can induce debates, discussions in the class.

- Teachers should involve the students in classroom meaningful discussions that will help them construct knowledge as well as develop language.

# Unit 3 : c) Teacher's role in promoting language across the curriculum

- **Teacher's awareness**
- **Teacher's Attitude**
- **Teacher's initiatives**

## 1. Teacher's awareness

- Teachers should be proficient users and aware of elements of language.

- Elements contributing to god teacher language are(adapted from Hoare P., Kong S. & Evans M. (2000)-Principles and Practice of Immersion Teaching)

- Speed,vocabulary,language

  structures,content,rephrasing and repeating and flexibility.

- Subject teachers should be aware that there is a subject specific language; terms very specific to the content of a subject, general academic language; which is used to explain processes,phenomema, events, happenings using effective grammatical structures using sequencing and other cohesive devices and peripheral language that we use for social interactions.

- As a result they have to present good models of speech to the students.

## 2. Teacher's Attitude

- Subject teachers need to have a positive attitude towards language. Developing language is not the function of the language teacher alone. Development of thinking skills are related with language learning and hence every teacher should do his or her part in the class. Students should be encouraged to learn the appropriate terms, lexicon in different subjects and should be encouraged to discuss and elaborate ideas and concepts orally in the class.

# 3. <u>Teacher's strategies and initiatives</u>

- Team Teaching- Teachers of different subjects can collaborate and teach,giving students an exposure to rich academic language and encouraging student presentations as asignments.

- Teachers across all subjects can provide opportunities of discussions using collaborative teaching strategies which have activities where every student is involved- speaking in pairs,triads,small groups and classroom, presentations should be used in the class.

- Dialogue in education of Paulo Freire was used to teach literacy and develop critical thinking among adult learners. Integrating methods like this in classroom teaching can also help enhance students oral language and speech.

References

- *Classrooms as Discourse Communities*

  by **Daniel Chang** file:///I:/-%20DANIEL%20CHANG_%20CLASSROOMS%20AS%20DISCOURSE%20COMMUNITIES%20-.html

- **Classroom discourse: The promise and complexity of dialogic practice**
  Adam Lefstein and Julia Snell*, Institute of education, University of London*

- Promote a Language-across-the-Curriculum (LAC) approach
  http://www.edb.gov.hk/attachment/en/edu-system/primary-secondary/applicable-to-secondary/moi/support-and-resources-for-moi-policy/lsplmfs-sch/d-sch/ow/tifeltiem-sch/content.pdf

- Classroom Discourse and Student Learning- Yani Zhang
  http://www.ccsenet.org/journal/index.php/ass/article/viewFile/1078/1038

# Unit 4 : Reading and writing across content areas:-
# Topics:
a) Identifying Nature of texts and Language structures – Expository vs Narrative, Transactional vs Reflective language schema, text structures
b) Techniques to enhance Reading Comprehension (Scanning, Skimming, Columnar Reading and Key word reading)
c) To develop different types of writing skills

# Unit 4 :
a) <u>Identifying Nature of texts and Language structures – Expository vs Narrative, Transactional vs Reflective language schema, text structures</u>

1. **Meaning , Nature of Expository text:**

| |
|---|
| What is expository text ?<br><br>Expository writing is a mode of writing in which the purpose of the author is to inform, explain, describe, or define his or her subject to the reader.<br><br>Examples of expository texts are textbooks, encyclopedias, scientific books/ journal, atlases, directions, guides, biographies, newapapers. |
| http://www.slideshare.net/ghaitram/expository-texts |

| |
|---|
| Expository texts:<br><br>In education, these can be used to  present facts and  information.  Found in Science, Economics, Commerce , Geography textbooks.<br><br>Common in encyclopedias . Used during exhibitions. |

**Meaning of Expository text :**
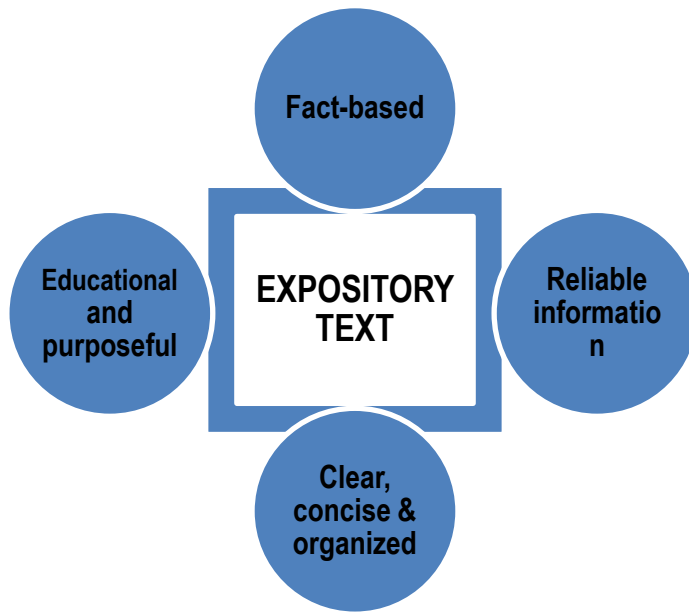


## 2. Expository text Definition

i) Expository text is a text that inform, explain, describe, or define the author's subject to the reader.

ii)   Expository text is non-fiction text meant to inform, analyze, explain or give additional detail about a topic. Some types of expository text include cause-and-effect writing, literary analysis, compare-and-contrast writing and reports.

https://www.reference.com/art-literature/expository-text-af6282a01260ad48

**Expository Text**
- **Expository text is non-fiction (true).**
- **It seeks to explain or inform.**
- **The information can be verified as true.**
- **Structures: descriptions, comparison/contrast, cause/effect, problem/solution.**
- **Focused on a specific topic.**
- **There are often headings and subheadings.**
- **It contains facts and information.**

Expository texts

- They include text forms such as definitions, explications, summaries and many types of essay.

may be subjective (essay) or objective (summary, explication, definition)

- may be analytical (starting from a concept and then characterizing its parts; e.g. definitions) or synthetic (recounting characteristics and ending with an appropriate concept or conclusion; e.g. summaries)
- are characterized by state verbs and epistemic modals (Pop music has a strong rhythmic beat; Texts may consist of one or more sentences) or by verbs indicating typical activities or qualities (fruitflies feed on yeast)

http://www.cittastudi.org/uploads/Text_Types.pdf

---

**3. Generic structure of** Expository texts :

1. A general statement to position the reader.

2. A sequenced explanation of why or how something occurs.

---

## 4. Some common examples of expository text

| Textbooks | Instruction Manuals | News Articles |

| Recipes | City Or Country Guides |

## 5. Example of Expository Text

### Biographies and Autobiographies



### Reports/Graphs/Charts



### NEWSPAPER AND MAGAZINE ARTICLES



### NOTICE THAT THESE ARE BOTH TECHNICAL AND EXPOSITORY

### BROCHURES

**6. EXPOSITORY TEXT. Example :**

This family was a victim of a problem they could have avoided-a problem that, according to Florida park rangers, hundreds of visitors suffer each year. "Several times a month," ranger Rod Torres of O'Leno State Park said, "people get scared and leave the park in the middle of the night." Those people picked the wrong kind of park to visit. Not that there was anything wrong with the park: The hikers camped next to them loved the wild isolation of it. But it just wasn't the kind of place the couple from New Jersey had in mind when they decided to camp out on this trip through Florida. If they had known about the different kinds of parks in Florida, they might have stayed in a place they loved.

(Hanifa Rahmawati. Sastra Inggris 2010. Universitas Brawijaya)

https://hanifarahmawati.wordpress.com/2013/06/20/definition-characteristics-example-of-narrative-descriptive-and-expository-text/
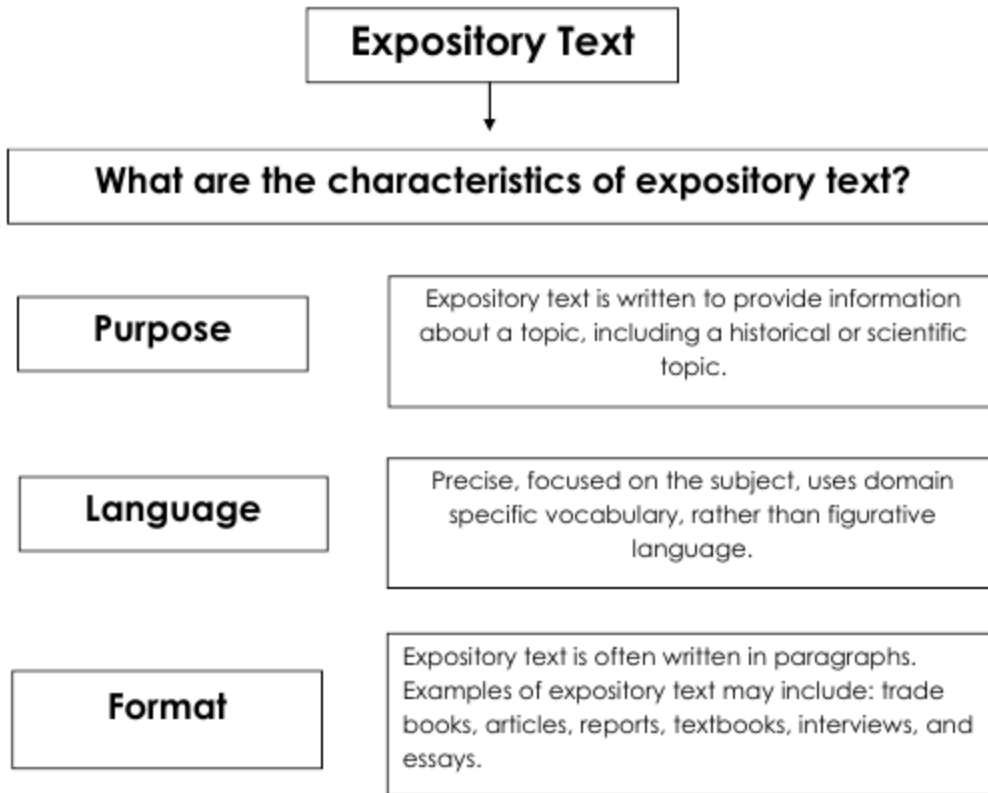
# 7.  Characteristics of Expository text:

1.  Deals with topics often not known

2.  New information makes prediction difficult

3.  Key vocabulary is usually new

4.  Abstract concepts are explained

5.  Text is thing or subject oriented

6.  Facts make text more concept- dense

7.  Explanations have impersonal meaning

8.  May have no relation to own life/interest

9.  Mainly gives authentic and accurate information

10. Purpose is to inform, explain or persuade

**Characteristics of Expository Text**

- Expository text is a type of informational text that provides factual information about a topic using a clear, non-narrative organizational structure with a major topic and supporting information.

- Expository texts can include topics such as historical, scientific or economic information

- Information is presented with a clear organizational text structure which includes but is not limited to: description, chronology, comparison, cause/effect, problem/solution.

- The language in expository text is precise, specific to the subject, and includes domain specific vocabulary to explain concepts and information.

- Expository text often includes organizational tools such as table of contents, headings, index, glossary, pronunciation guide, appendices.

- Includes text features that support or enhance the text such as photographs, illustrations, captions, charts, diagrams, tables, graphs, and timelines.

- Examples of expository text may include: trade books, articles, reports, textbooks, interviews, and essays.
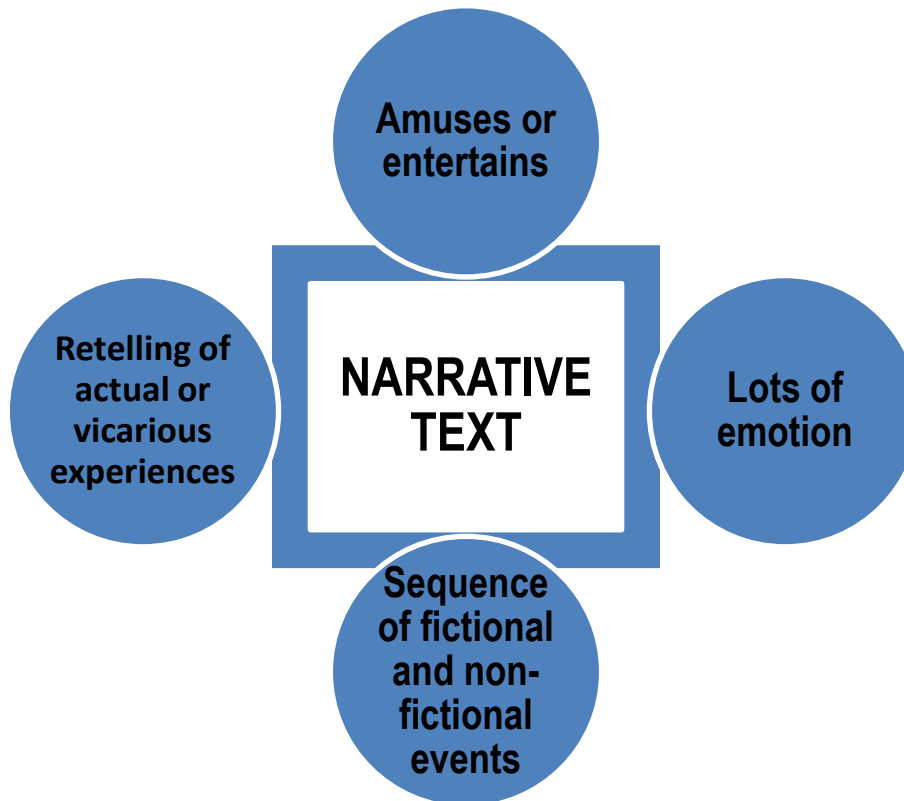
## Concept Map 📖 Expository Text

Expository Text

↓

What are the characteristics of expository text?

| | |
|---|---|
| **Purpose** | Expository text is written to provide information about a topic, including a historical or scientific topic. |
| **Language** | Precise, focused on the subject, uses domain specific vocabulary, rather than figurative language. |
| **Format** | Expository text is often written in paragraphs. Examples of expository text may include: trade books, articles, reports, textbooks, interviews, and essays. |

Adapted from:

Fountas, I.C. & Pinnell, G.S. (2012). *Genre study: Teaching with fiction and nonfiction books.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

http://mcnair5thgrade.yolasite.com/resources/Characteristics%20of%20Expository%20Text.pdf

# Narrative text :

## 1.Meaning , Nature  of Narrative text:



## 1. Definition :

### i) The definition of narrative text

Narrative text is a story with complication or problematic events and it tries to find the resolutions to solve the problems. An important part of narrative text is the narrative mode, the set of methods used to communicate the narrative through a process narration.

ii)  A narrative text is a story that is created in a constructive format that describes a sequence of fictional or non-fictional events.

## 2. Example : – Cinderella –

Once upon a time there was a girl called Cinderella. She lived with her step sisters and step mother. They treated her badly. She had to do all the house work.

One day an invitation to the ball came to the family. But, her step sisters would not let her go. Cinderella was very sad. The step sisters went to the ball without her.

Fortunately, the fairy godmother came and helped her to get to the ball. At the ball, Cinderella danced with the prince. The prince fell in love with her and then married her. They lived happily ever after.

https://hanifarahmawati.wordpress.com/2013/06/20/definition-characteristics-example-of-narrative-descriptive-and-expository-text/

**3.** The purpose of narrative text **:** To entertain/to amuse the readers.

## 4. Generic Structures of Narrative Text

1) Orientation

Sets the scene: where and when the story happened and introduces the participants of the story: who and what is involved in the story.

2) Complication

Tells the beginning of the problems which leads to the crisis (climax) of the main participants.

3) Resolution

The problem (the crisis) is resolved, either in a happy ending or in a sad (tragic) ending

4) Re-orientation/Coda

This is a closing remark to the story and it is optional. It consists of a moral lesson, advice or teaching from the writer

http://duoulala.blogspot.in/2013/07/narrative-text-definition-purposes.html

| GENERIC STRUCTURE of NARRATIVE text | |
|---|---|
| Orientation | Once upon a time, there was a little girl called Cinderella. |
| Evaluation | She was pretty, loving and clever. |
| Complication | But she was very poor. She lived with her stepmother and stepsisters. They were very mean. |
| Resolution | Fortunately, she met a prince. He fell in love with her. |
| Reorientation | Then Cinderella became a princess |

# 5. Some common examples of narrative text

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **folk-tales** | **fables** | **myths** |

| | |
|---|---|
| **epics** | **Fiction and non-fiction** |
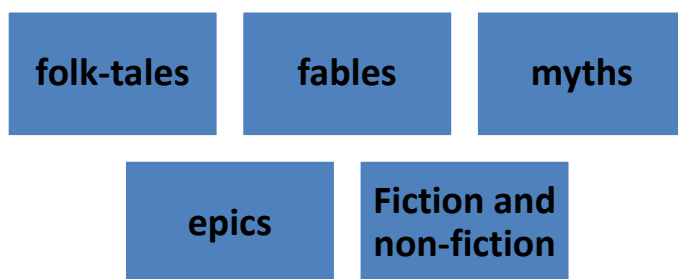
## 7. Characteristics of Narrative text:

1. Text based on common and familiar events from life

2. Familiarity makes prediction easier

3. Key vocabulary often known and easy

4. Cause and effect known

5. Usually based on concrete and simple concepts

6. People oriented

7. Dialogue makes text less concept-dense

8. Stories can have personal meaning

9. May give insight for own life/interest

10. Purpose is to entertain or share experience

**Characteristics of a Narrative**

1. Detail what happened and in which order

2. Contain mainly actions: *She bit the apple.*

1. some verbal: *The bad witch said …*
2. some relational in the Orientation: *She was very lonely.*

3. Mainly in simple past tense.

1. Some past perfect to skip back to the past:

*She had lost her way*


# Expository vs. Narrative texts

**They differ greatly in tone, style, structure, and features.**

**The five most common structures utilized in Expository texts are**:
- cause-effect
- comparison-contrast
- definition-example
- problem-solution
- Proposition support or sequential listing.

**The generic structure of a narrative text**:
- Orientation: Sets the scene and introduces the participants
- Complication: A crisis arises
- Resolution: The crisis is resolved for the better or for worse,
- Re-orientation
- Evaluation: A stepping back to evaluate the plight.

- **Expository vs. Narrative texts**

| Narrative texts | Expository texts |
|---|---|
| Tell a story | Gives information |
| Focuses on one moment or day in time. This is where you will see explode the moments , show not tell, etc. | Author gives reasons and examples to support the thoughts and information they are writing about |
| Author's Purpose: To entertain | Author's Purpose: To inform |
| Reader's Purpose: To be entertained | Reader's Purpose: To learn or be informed |
| Genre of the Narrative Text - Tell about a sequence of events. | Genre of the Expository Text - Explain something. |
| **Narrative** : Types of Writing Genres : <ul><li>Novels</li><li>Story books</li><li>Fairytales/folktales/fables</li><li>Myths and legends</li><li>Plays</li><li>Poems and nursery rhymes</li><li>Saga/Epic stories</li><li>Comic books</li><li>Diaries</li><li>Possibly biographies/autobiographies</li></ul> | **Expository** :Types of Writing Genres <ul><li>Newspaper reports</li><li>Documentaries</li><li>Biographies/autobiographies</li><li>Magazine articles</li><li>Research reports</li><li>Reviews</li><li>Pamphlets/Brochures</li><li>Summaries</li><li>Textbooks</li></ul> |
| The same prompts can be used for both narrative and expository writing. How you write it is the only thing that changes. *Prompt: Write about your favorite holiday.* ||
| Narrative Example : <br><br> I sat at the dining room table that was sparkling like diamonds from the crystal and fancy china set upon it. Mouth watering smells were drifting from the kitchen as my relatives from Wisconsin took their seats around me. A smile stretched across my face when my cousin Lexi sat next to me. I would love Thanksgiving just for the reason of getting to see my extended family. However, another great reason to love the season was just entering the room. My dad groaned under the weight of the 30 pound, brown, glistening bird. It was time to eat… | Expository Example : My favorite day of the year is Thanksgiving. For those who don't know about American Thanksgiving, it is the day we honor how the Pilgrims and the Native Americans learned to work together to provide ample food and supplies for survival. Thanksgiving is my favorite holiday for a variety of reasons. First, it is the one day of the year I can count on for my extended family to come together. My dad's side of the family is from Wisconsin, so I value the day when we get to catch up and reconnect with them. I also love to eat and have a massive sweet-tooth. Thanksgiving is one of the few days of the year when it is acceptable for me to have five desserts and not feel guilty… |

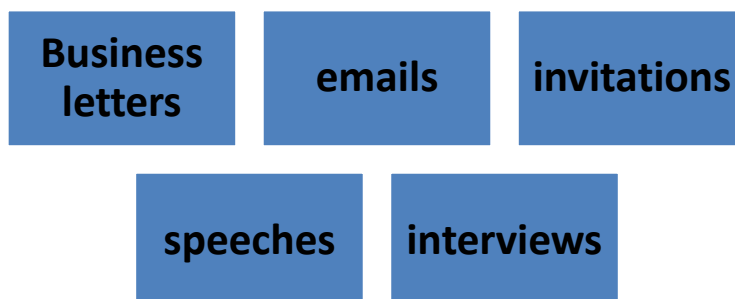## Meaning of Transactional text:

Transactional text is a text that intended to communicate, persuade or inform.

Transactional text is wide range of text.

Transactional text is brief, formal professional communication.

## Intended to communicate, persuade or inform

## Brief, formal, professional communication

## TRANSACTIONAL TEXT

## Wide range of texts

## Structured format for every text
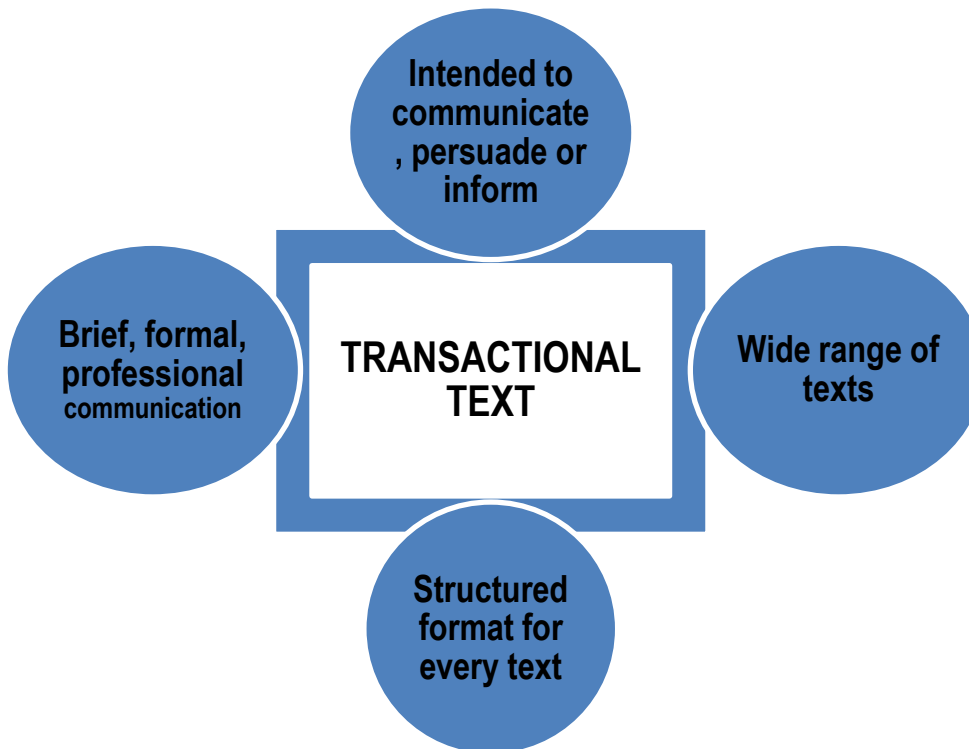
## Some common examples of transactional text

## Business letters

## emails

## invitations

## speeches

## interviews

**Characteristics of Transactional text**:

1. Transactional text is brief and simple.

2. It has a clear sense of purpose, audience and format.

3. Usually planned before committing to paper or screen. More emphasis is given to quality than length.

4. A type of formal and professional communication.

5. Contains a lot of  technical/ specific vocabulary

6. Special care with spelling, punctuation

and format is taken.

7. Consists of coherent, logical structures with     originality of expression.

# Transactional text :

McCary (1991:36) asserts that language serves international and transactional functions. The former relates the function to establish social roles and relationship with other persons.  In other words, the language is used as "lubricant of social; wheel". In transactional talks people use language to achieve optional and efficient transference information. As transactional talks are message oriented, cohesive and accurate communication is highly acquired.

## Type of transactional text:

1. Ordering/commanding :

Ordering or commanding is an utterance which makes the hearers do something and the thing being ordered or commanded is the thing that the speaker wants to happen.

examples:
Shut down the computer and do your homework now.
so, turn on the heater.

2. Requesting

Speech act of request contain communication intention in which the speaker asks the heare to perform an action which is for benefit of the speaker ( Trosborg , 1995). As it is face-threatening act, the speaker can modify it by involving internal and external modification device . According

to sifianou ( 1999) , internal modification devices refer to linguistics elements which function to mitigate or even intensify its force, whilst the external modification devices function to justify the request.

Example :

Leave me alone.

I really wish you'd stop bothering me.

why don't you get lost?

3.  promising :

Promising is an utterance that the speaker commits to himself to do something in the future , and the thing promised must be the one that the hearer wants it to happen.  A promise can be in the form of performative  utterance , the utterance that actually describes the act that it performs. But a promise is not always in performative.

Example

Tommorrow, at nine.

Swear, I'll be on time.

4.  threatening : Threatening is an utterance in which the speaker commits himself to do something in the future, but thing which will be executed is the one that the hearer does not want to happen.

Example :

I'II make the tires of your motorcycle flat.

I'll tell Mom that you broke my mp3 player.

5.  warning

Warning is an utterance to make the hearer know that something bad or dangerous will happen to him or her . According to Austin (1962), warning can be conveyed by both declarative and imperative utterance.

Examples:

 There's a snake in the tent.

If you keep skipping the class, you'll fail this subject for sure.

6. Complaining

Complaint is an expression of displeasure or annoyance as a reaction to a past or ongoing action, the consequences off which affect the speaker unfavorably and the complaint is addressed to the hearer, whom the speaker holds responsible for the offensive action ( Olshtain and weinbach , 1993)

Example

Just a week ago we had new roof put on. Yesterday, it rained and the roofs leaked in some places.
I've been here for 30 minutes and you just cut my queue.

7. Refusing :

Refusing is an expression of rejection as responses to initiating acts such as request , invitation, offer , and suggestion.

Examples:

Sorry, I can't, you know I have my assignments due on Friday.
that's kind of you , thanks, but I'd rather use mine.

8. Blaming :

Blaming is an utterance expressed by the speaker to the hearer because the hearer because the hearer is assumed to be responsible for the wrong doning  or bad condition.
Examples:
Hello? Who had noodle a couple hours ago?
You must be the one who broke it , you're alone at home taday.
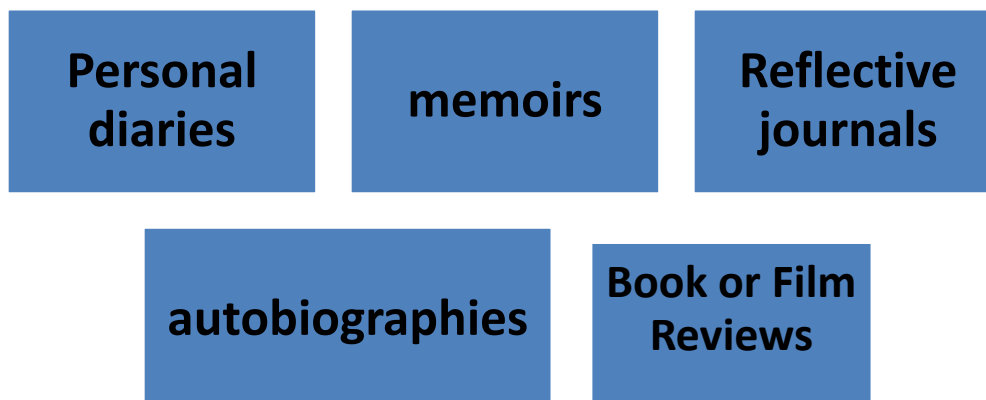
# **Meaning of Reflective text:**

**Reflective writing** is writing that is formal or informal about a subject matter after it has been presented in literature or other media, using emotions, memories or thoughts. Reflective writing is often used as a reaction to what has been read or to pull knowledge from a specific event, piece of literature or lesson that has been presented. It can be used to determine key points or to form new ideas about a subject. Reflective writing is a key strategy that can help improve writing by making thoughts more developed and precise, as well as enhance critical thinking.

**http://study.com/academy/lesson/reflective-writing-definition-examples.html**

## Meaning of Reflective text :

**Inner dialogue with oneself**

**Helps to make sense of 'what' and 'why' of our actions**

**REFLECTIVE TEXT**

**Description of a particular practical experience**

**Subjective in nature**
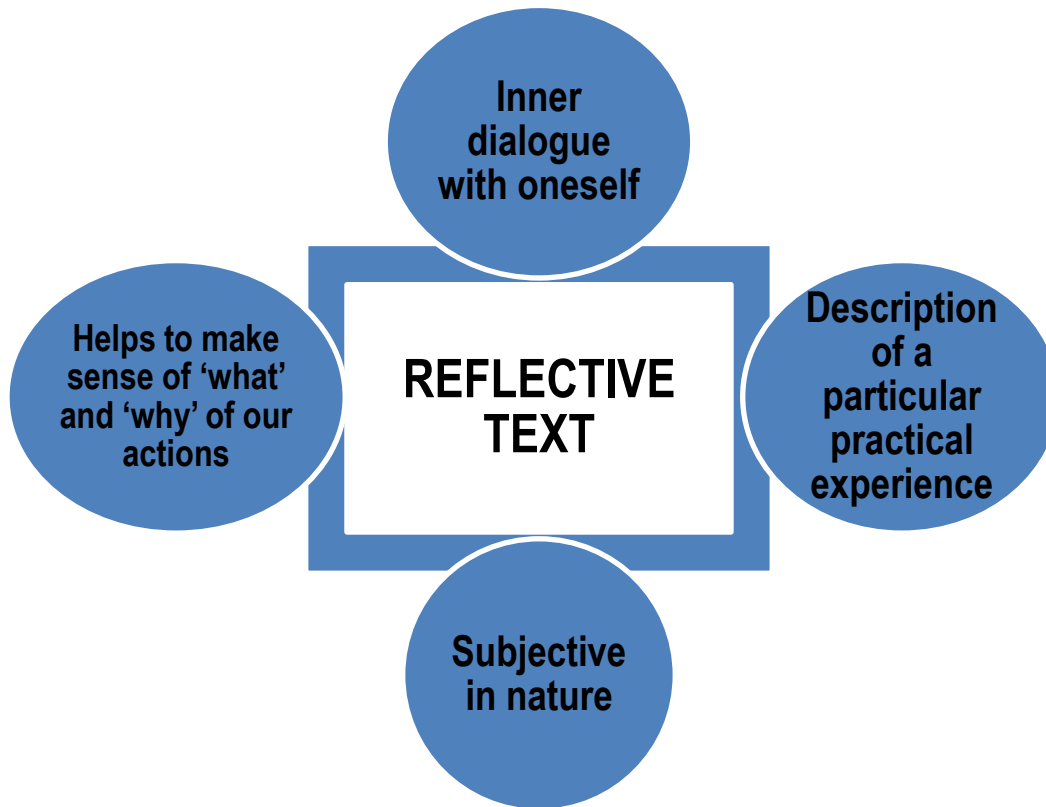
## Some common examples of Reflective text

**Personal diaries**

**memoirs**

**Reflective journals**

**autobiographies**

**Book or Film Reviews**

# Characteristics of Reflective text:

1. It integrates theory and practice.

2. It draws connections between the material being studied, one's experiences and knowledge.

3. It is personal.

4. Writing style is informal. Words such as 'I', 'me' are used.

5. Although thoughts in reflective text are random, they are put forth in a manner easily understood by the reader.

6. Views and ideas are linked to the readings from the subject, to other writers and to the key theorists in the field.

7. It identifies the learning outcomes of your experience. So it include a plan for next time identifying what you would do differently, your new understandings or values and unexpected things you have learnt about yourself.

# Transactional vs. Reflective Texts:

- **Transactional texts-communication between two or more people, whereas a reflective text is an inner dialogue with oneself.**

- **Transactional text intends to gather or provide information whereas in a reflective text the writer contemplates an idea and gives his or her emotional reactions and feelings.**

- **Transactional texts have a broad range of text types each having a specific structure whereas a reflective text may include:**

Description
What happened?

Feelings
What were you thinking and feeling?

Evaluation
What was good and bad about the experience?

Analysis
What sense can you make of the situation?

Conclusion
What else could you have done?

Action plan
If it arose again what would you do?
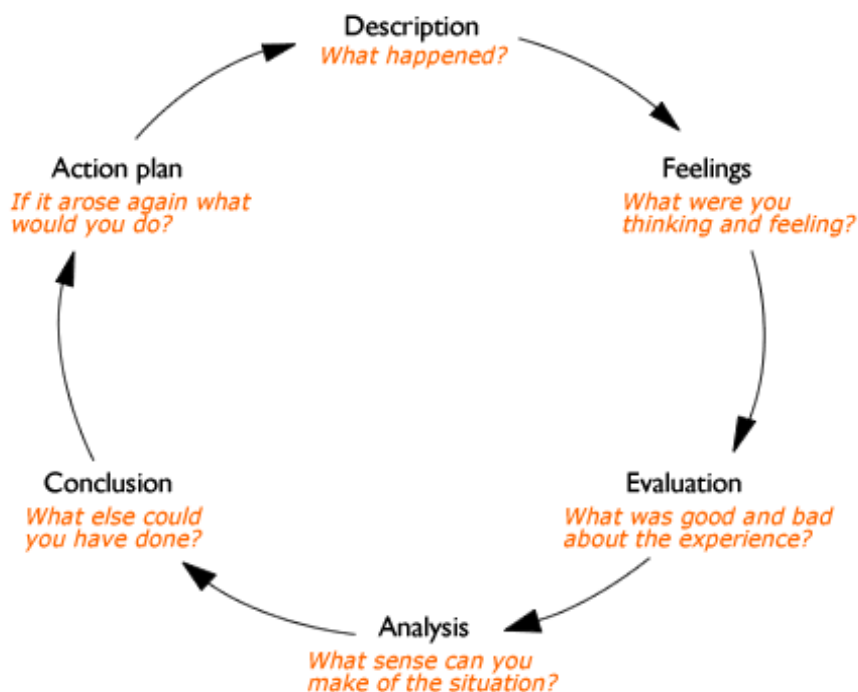
# The Schema Theory

## Frederic Bartlett

- developed the Schema theory
- views organized knowledge as an elaborate network of abstract mental structures which represent one's understanding of the world.
- Schema - internal knowledge structure. New information is compared to existing cognitive structures called "schema". Schema may be combined, extended or altered to accommodate new information. (schemata - plural)
- Schemata grow and change as new information is acquired.

1932 - Psychologist Frederic Bartlett Proposes the Schema Theory.

## Who is Frederic Bartlett

Sir Frederic Charles Bartlett (1886–1969) was a British psychologist, the first professor of experimental psychology at the University of Cambridge and one of the precursors of cognitive psychology. The schema theory was one of the leading cognitivist learning theories and was introduced by Bartlett in 1932 and further developed in the '70s by Richard Anderson. Bartlett advanced this concept to provide a basis for a temporal alternative to traditional spatial storage theories of memory, since schema theory describes the way knowledge is acquired, processed and cerebrally organized.

## The Schema Theory Structure

While exploring the recall of Native American folktales, Bartlett noticed that many recalls were not accurate and involved the replacement of unfamiliar information with facts already known. In order to categorize this class of memory errors, Bartlett suggested that human beings

apparently possess generic knowledge in the form of unconscious mental structures (schemata) and that these structures produce schematized errors in recall when they interact with incoming information. Thus, it is through schemata that old knowledge influences new information. So, basically, schemata (plural of schema) are psychological concepts that were proposed as a form of mental representation for selected chunks of complex knowledge, which are then stored in the long-term memory.

## The 4 Key Elements of a Schema:

- An individual can memorize and use a schema without even realizing of doing so.

- Once a schema is developed, it tends to be stable over a long period of time.

- Human mind uses schemata to organize, retrieve, and encode chunks of important information.

- Schemata are accumulated over time and through different experiences.

## Schema theory

- **Schema theory suggest that what we already know will influence the outcomes of information processing**

  - **Based on the assumption that "humans are active processors of information."**

- **Encoding (put into memory), storage ( maintain in memory), retrieval (recover from memory)**

## The practical aspect of Schema Theory

- Schema theory emphasizes on the importance of generic knowledge that will help the formation of mental representations.

- In the educational process:

The task of teachers would be to help students develop new schemata and establish connections between them –something that will eventually improve their memory.

## PRACTICAL ASPECTS OF SCHEMA THEORY (contd.)

- **Reading comprehension:** Schema based instruction is often used to assist the learning of a second language, since it usually requires reading many texts in the target language. If we fail to create a sufficient number of schemata when reading a text, then reading comprehension and consequently mastering another language will become difficult.

- **Math:** Schema based instruction has been proven to be supportive for students with Learning Disabilities in Math. It goes beyond the basic algorithms by teaching students how to understand the word problems.

- **Motor learning:** Discrete motor skills are performed in a short period of time, and involve the use of our senses to understand what is happening and then of our bodies to take action.

Since most movements are unique, our ability to perform a movement class is represented by three things, according to Richard A Schmidt (1974):
- a generalized motor program that captures the basic movement form
- a recall schema that provides info about specific situations and intentions
- a recognition schema that allows us to realize a mistake we have made

# TEXT STRUCTURES

Background

Text structure refers to how the information within a written text is organized. This strategy helps students understand that a text might present a main idea and details; a cause and then its effects; and/or different views of a topic. Teaching students to recognize common text structures can help students monitor their comprehension.

## Meaning Of  Text Structure :

- Text structure refers to how the information within a written text is organized.

- Teaching students to recognize common text structures can help students monitor their comprehension.

**TEXT STRUCTURES :   How text is organized.**

# Benefits

Teachers can use this strategy with the whole class, small groups, or individually. Students learn to identify and analyze text structures which helps students navigate the various structures presented within nonfiction and fiction text. As a follow up, having students write paragraphs that follow common text structures helps students recognize these text structures when they are reading.
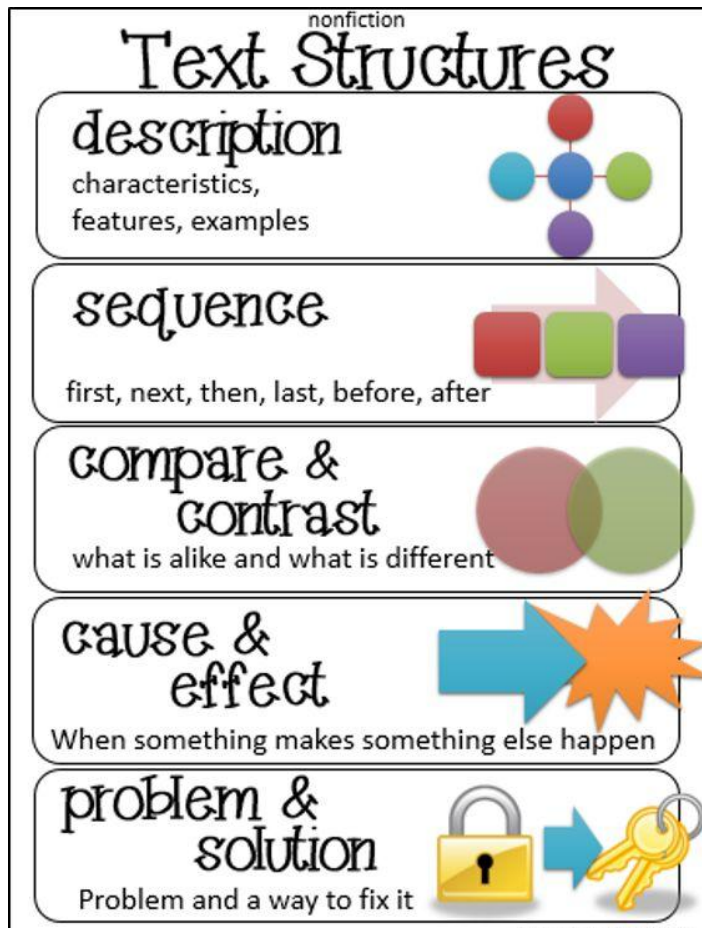
**Text structure :  Discription :**

 Describes something in order of space.

Describes how something looks.
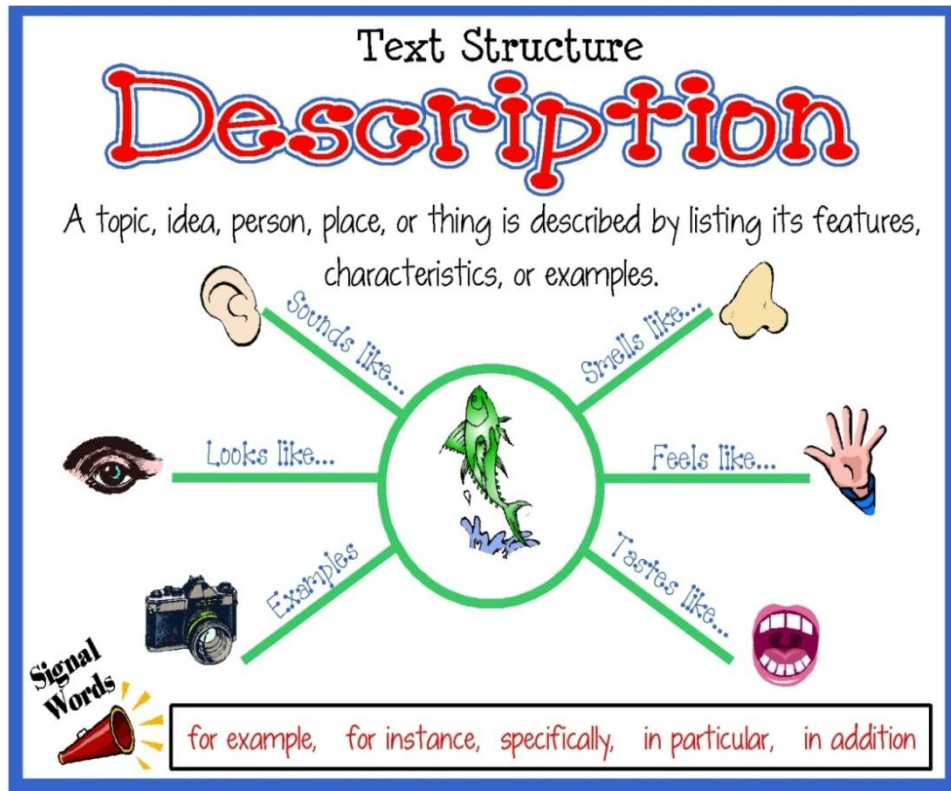
## Spatial / Descriptive Writing

**Racial** is to **race** as **spatial** is to **space**.

Describes something in order of space.

Describes how something looks.

**TIME DOESN'T PASS in these passages.**



Two windows on the west Wall

A television across from the bed.

My bedroom

A bed in the middle.

A closet by the TV
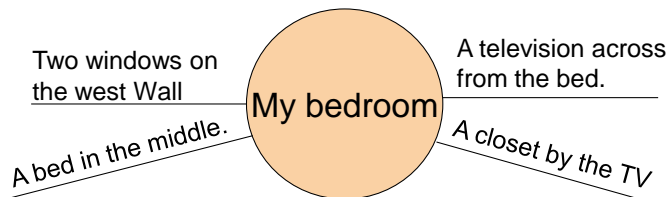
## Text structure :  cause and effect :

Explains reasons why something happened. Or explains the effects of something.
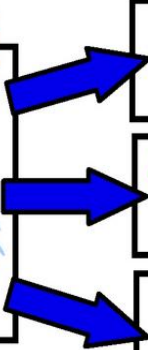
Text Structure

# Cause and Effect

Shows relationship between cause (event) and effect (what happened because of the event)

Cause

Effects

**Signal Words**

consequently
therefore
as a result
reason why
because of
may be due to



# Cause and Effect

Explains reasons why something happened.

Or explains the effects of something.

Not feeding it.

Not petting it.

Not loving it.

Why Dog Ran Away

Text is not telling the story of a dog.

Lots of Karate Movies in 60's

Many Karate Schools Opened

Nunchuck sales Increased 400%

Hospital cases went up.

## Text structure : Compare and Contrast :

**Compare = find similarities**      **Contrast = find differences**

**Shows what's in common and what's different.**
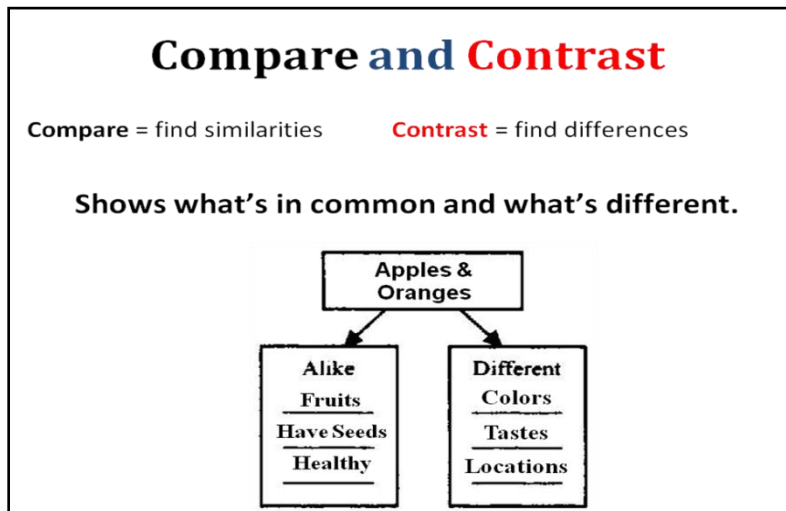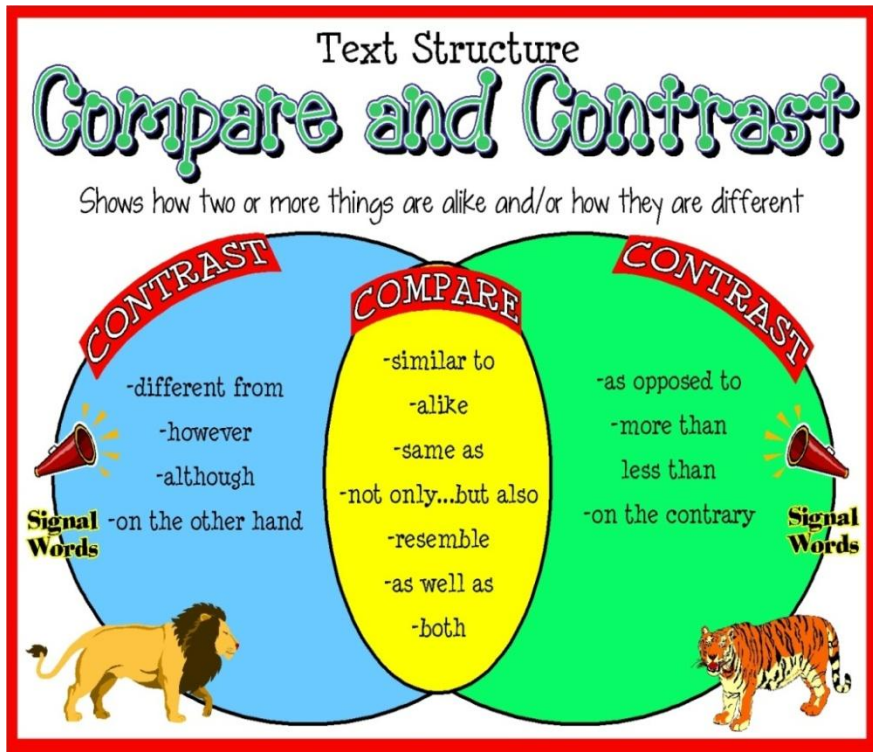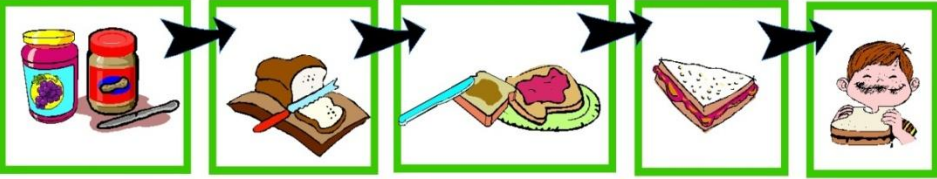




# Text structure :  Sequential

**Sequence** / Order of **Importance**

**Steps described in the order they occur.**



## Sequence / Order of Importance
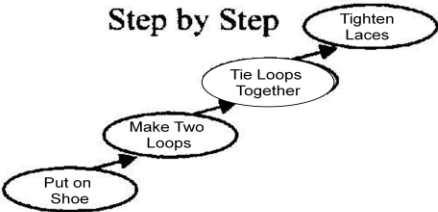
**Steps described in the order they occur.**



Step by Step
- Tighten Laces
- Tie Loops Together
- Make Two Loops
- Put on Shoe

1. Get bread
2. Open jars
3. Spread peanut butter
4. Spread jelly
5. Combine slices
   Enjoy.

**Does not take place at any specific point in time.**

# Sequence / Process Writing

Information is listed **step-by-step.**

Explains how to do *it* or how *it* happens.

**Don't confuse with chronological!**

**4. Flip omelet.**

**3. Cook on one side.**

**2. Add cheese.**

**1. Crack a few eggs.**
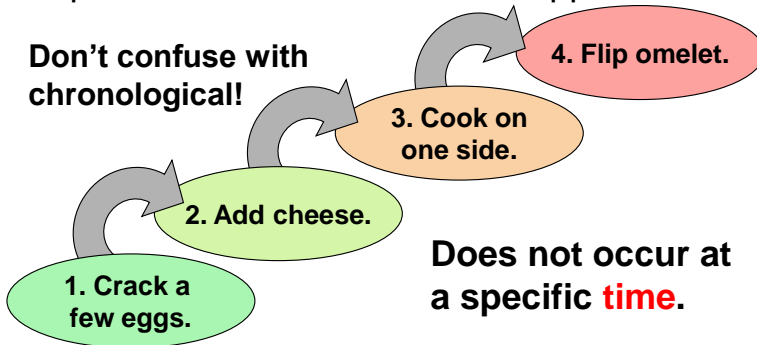
**Does not occur at a specific time.**

---

## Text structure : Problem and Solution:

**Author states a problem and solution(s).**

**Similar to cause and effect.**

### Text Structure
### Problem and Solution

Tells about a problem and then gives one or more solutions

Problem → Solution

**Signal Questions**
What happened? Why did it happen? What caused it to happen?

**Signal Words**
Question is…, Dilemma is…, The puzzle is…, To solve this…, One answer is…, One reason for the problem is…,

# Problem and Solution
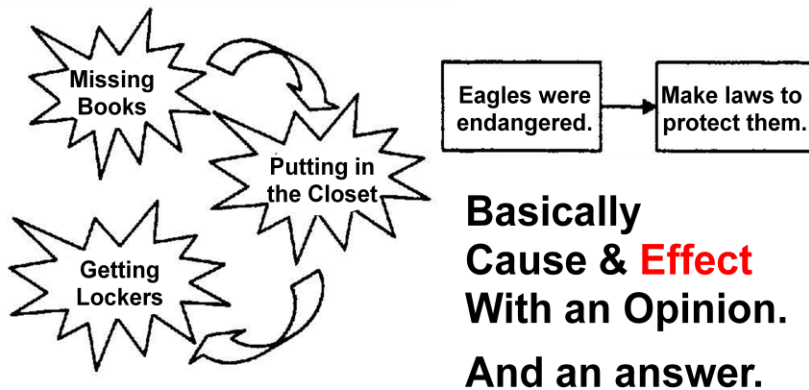
**Author states a problem and solution(s).**

**Similar to cause and effect.**



Missing Books — Putting in the Closet — Getting Lockers

Eagles were endangered. → Make laws to protect them.

**Basically**
**Cause & Effect**
**With an Opinion.**
**And an answer.**

---

## b) Techniques to enhance Reading Comprehension (Scanning, Skimming, Columnar Reading and Key word reading)

### LAC AND READING

What is an LAC approach?

➤ An LAC approach is one that integrates language learning and content learning.

1.



LAC approach ( integrates)
├── Content learning
└── Language learning
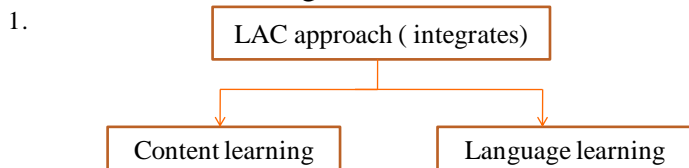
2. The benefits of an LAC approach
   I. School
   II. Teacher
   III. Students

I. **School**- Supportive organizational structure formulated and implement language policy across the curriculum

II. **Teacher**- Using language more effectively

III. **Students**- Minimize problems of adjusting to the new medium of instruction and to learn subject/ content matter.

---

## Role of Teachers
A. **Language Teacher-**
1) Introduce and
2) Teach the skills
3) Reinforce them

B. **Content Teacher-**
1) Re-teach those skills
2) Introduce / related skills / concepts in their lesson
3) Integrating content/ language

---

Reading and Writing across Curriculum

1) **Types of texts**
  I. Text structures
  II. Schema theory

2) **Strategies/ techniques to increase the speed of Reading and improve reading comprehension**

3) **Writing**
  I. Note making
  II. Summarizing
  III. Process writing

# Reading Strategies

These strategies equip the students for reading
1. Guessing meaning of word from the texts
2. Making use of typographic clues
3. Making use of Patterns of Knowledge
4. Making use of Graphics
5. Making use of Headings and subheadings
6. Making use of Information transfer aetvrties
7. SQR3

# Reading Strategies

These strategies equip the students for reading

## 1. Guessing Meaning of Word from the Context /text :

♦ This helps students develop higher order thinking skills.

### Steps to guessing the meaning of word from the context /text

1. Look at the unknown word and work out its part of speech. If possible, break it down into parts: prefix, root and suffix.

2. Look at the clause or sentence containing the unknown word and ask these question:

- If the unknown word is a verb, what nouns does it go with? Is there any adverb modifying it?
- If the unknown word is a noun, what adjective(s) describes it?
- If the unknown verb is an adjective, what noun is it modifying?
- If the unknown word is an adverb, what verb is it modifying?

3. Look at the relationship between the clause or sentences containing the unknown word and other sentences or paragraphs. Can you find any hints? Can you follow the line of argument? What is the theme of the paragraph?

4. Use the information you have gained from steps 1 to 3 to guess the meaning of the word.
5. Check that your guess is correct by looking it up in a dictionary.

**Eaxmple**
Support for vocabulary: Helping students guess meanings of unknown words
EPA / Geography S1
Population Growth of Hong Kong
 Read this passage about the population growth of Hong Kong during 1900-2000. The word indenparsely' may be too difficult for you but you can try to guess its meaning. We're talking about growth here, something growing, something that gets bigger and bigger, more and more. We're talking about population growth, the number of people in Hong Kong that is growing, getting more and more. The word 'indenparsely' ends with –ly. What part of speech do you think this word is? Is it a verb, noun, an adjective or an adverb? Right, it's an adverb. So it must be describing how the population has grown in Hong Kong. Has it grown quickly or slowly or what? Read the other sentences. What do they suggest? Now, can you guess the meaning of the word 'indenparsely'?

     The population of Hong Kong has grown * indenparsely toward the second half of this century. At the beginning of the century, the population was only 200,000. Between 1900 and 1949, the population remained level at about 500,000. In 1949, there was an explosion. The population rose rapidly until it reached 5 million in 1970. Since 1970, the growth has continued but the population has risen relatively slowly. The latest figures show that it has reached 6.5 million and is continuing to grow steadily.

(The word 'indenparsely' is purposely made up to shower how the meaning of an unknown word (in the case, a nonsense word) can be guessed. You must have been able to get the meaning of it by now. The original word was 'immernsely'.)

# 2. Making Use of Typographic Clues

To help students in reading, teachers can draw students' attention to the following typographic clues and explain that they are used to emphasize important terms and definition:

| 1.  Italics |
| --- |
| e.g. The degree of polynominal is the degree of the term with the highest degree.<br>   (Maths) |
| 2.  boldfaced print |
| e.g. Ancient Egyptians used a water reed called papyrus to make paper.<br>(History) |

# 3. Making Use of Patterns of Knowledge

Patterns of knowledge, i.e. patterns through which knowledge is organised, are found in all subject content areas. Draw students' attention to the specific language features related to each of these patterns which appear at the sentence level. This helps students in understanding and development of concepts.

| Patterns of knowledge | Explanation | Examples of language features |
|---|---|---|
| Description | To provide information about facts, events, concepts, ideas, features, characteristics, objects and people. | …has…<br>…is situated at…<br>…is…<br>…looks like…<br>…contains…<br>…is made up of …<br>…is made of…<br>…is used for/to… |
| Sequence | To put facts, events or concepts into a sequence. | Now<br>Before<br>After<br>When<br>First<br>Second<br>Then<br>Next<br>Finally |
| Comparison and contrast | To show likeness (comparison) and or differences (contrast) among facts, events concepts and people. | However<br>But<br>…as well as…<br>On the other hand<br>Either…or<br>While<br>Although<br>Unless<br>Similarly<br>Instead |
| Cause a nd e ffect | To show how facts, events or effects happen because of other facts, events or causes. | …because…<br>…because of …<br>Since<br>Therefore<br>As a result<br>…so that…<br>…is due to…<br>…is a result of … |
| Classification | To classify objects, people etc. in groups. | …is classified as…<br>…is classified into…<br>There are … types of…:<br>…is a type/kind of … |
| Hypothesis | To put forward ideas or suggestions as a starting-point for reasoning or explanation | If…, then…<br>…unless…<br>It is likely/unlikely/ possible/impossible that… |
| Exemplification | To give examples. | For example<br>For instance<br>…such as…<br>…is an example of…<br>In other words |
| Evaluation | To decide the value of something. | …is good/bad/right/wrong/ satisfactory<br>…like/dislike/approve/ disapprove…<br>…enough/too… |

## 4. Making Use of Graphics

Graphics are used to organise and present information. Graphics which complement the written language can help to show the ideas in a text visually. Students who are able to make use of graphics can read more effectively.

Examples of graphics

| |
|---|
| 1.  Tables <br><br> They are used to classify information so that comparison between and among data can be made. |
| 2.  Bar graphs <br><br> They are used to make comparisons between amounts or quantities. |
| 3.  Line graphs <br><br> They are used to show the relationship between the variables. |
| 4.  Pie charts <br><br> They are used to show the relationships of parts to the whole. |
| 5.  Flowcharts <br><br> They are used to show a process or procedure. |
| 6.  Diagrams <br><br> They are used to present information in a visual way. |
| 7.  Pictograms <br><br> They are used to show specified amounts in an interesting way. |
| 8.  Maps <br><br> They are used to show location and direction. |
| 9.  Photographs <br><br> They are used to enhance interest in reading. |
| 10.  Cartoons <br><br> They are used to lighten the text. |
| 11.  Time-lines <br><br> They are used to show the sequence of events. |
| 12.  Venn diagrams <br><br> They are used to show the relationships between two sets of information. |

## 5. Making Use of Headings and Sub-headings

Headings suggest the major topics of a chapter while sub-headings often suggest the specific focus toward a particular topic. So they are important clues to reading.

Example

I want you to read page X of your textbook at home before our next lesson.

Now, let's turn to page X and see what it's about.

Look at the heading. What is it?

From the heading, we know that it's about _____

Now look at the sub-headings. They are printed in _____ (e.g. blue). What do they

tell you about '_____' (the heading)?

Now let's turn each sub-heading into a question.
(Ask students the questions they have formulated.)
Very good questions. Do you want to find the answers to your questions?
Read this page at home and you'll find the answers to your questions.

## 6. Making Use of Information Transfer Activities

**Information transfer activities require students to transfer the information given in a text to a graphic or vice versa. Text -> graphic activities are reading activities while graphic -> text activities are writing activities.**

**Benefits of text -> graphic activities:**
**1. help students visualise the organisation and relationships of ideas spatially**
**2. to complete the graphic, students need to read and understand the information in the text before they can re-present it in a graphic.**

## Example

*History S1*
*Ancient Egypt*

*The following paragraph describes the different classes in ancient Egyptian society. The picture below also shows the classes. Read the paragraph carefully to find out what these classes were and what they did. Complete the picture with the correct information.*

In ancient Egypt, people were divided into different classes. The king / pharaoh was at the top of the society. He was also the leader of the army and chief priest. The next class of people were the officials. They helped the king rule the country. Then came the scribes and craftsmen. They kept records and made things such as jewellery and furniture. At the bottom were the common people. They grew crops. They also worked for the government by building pyramids and temples.

Who were they and what did they do?

_____

_____

_____

_____

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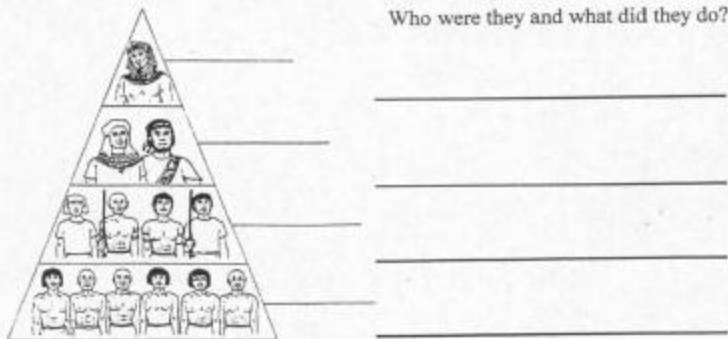
## 7.     SQR3 :

♦ Each step of SQR3 facilitates the processing of information.

♦ SQR3 helps students acquire higher order thinking skills.


## A. Introduction

– SQR3 is a study technique that helps students comprehend and retain the materials they are going to read.

- To read actively and effectively and to assist comprehension, readers complete

some tasks before reading, while reading and after reading. These tasks include:

 S = Survey
 Q = Question
R = Read
 R = Recite
 R = Review

**S = Survey**

Survey:

Good readers preview the materials to anticipate content by looking at the titles, headings, subheadings, terms or words in bold or italics, pictures, maps, diagrams and other visual material.

♦ <u>Steps</u>:

1. Read the title. Change it into a question.

2. Read the introduction, summary and questions, if there's any. What is the main point of the text?

3. Read the terms and words in bold or italics. Why are these terms and words highlighted?

4. Study the visual materials. What do they tell you about the text?

- <u>Question :</u>

Good readers ask questions that they think they will find answers to in the text e.g.
they turn each subheading into a question and formulate additional questions to read to answer.

- **Read:**
Good readers think about the questions that they have asked and search for ideas and information that will answer their questions.

## **Review:**

Good readers review and reflect a text by going back and skimming the text, placing a check to parts of the text that they are sure they understand and a question mark to those parts that are still unclear to them and that they need to further study.

**B. Point to note:**

Do not teach SQR3 as a formula: memorize the steps, practise the strategies and use it for life. To make this system effective, students have to learn to control it through selective and flexible use.

**C. Examples of applying SQR3 in different subjects:**

**1. To read a chapter in a Geography textbook**

**-** students survey the chapter
- they turn the subheadings into questions
- they read to answer the questions
- they try to remember the main ideas and specific details
- they summarise / write a brief outline of the chapter


2. To solve a word problem in Maths
- students skim the problem to form a general impression of it
- they decide:  i. the question in the problem
ii. the facts required to solve it
iii. the steps required to solve it
- they read to understand the question and decide the steps required to solve the problem
- they decide the facts on which the answer depends
- they estimate the answer and check it after the problem has been solved

**Extra notes**

# Reading for Understanding: The SQW3R Method

**What is SQ3R**

1. **Survey**
2. **Question**
3. **Read**
4. **Rcite**
5. **Review**

Reading is one of the core activities of study. You need to be able to understand what you read and to be able to recall the main ideas when you need them. You can use the SQW3R method to improve your comprehension, to remember a reading for tutorials, seminars or to review for exams.

# S = Survey

***Before you start to read, survey the material to gain an overview of the contents.***

Look through the whole reading/ chapter to preview it. Approach it by scanning:

- title(s) and subheadings
- summaries or abstracts
- the introduction and conclusion
- visual materials (pictures, charts, graphs or tables) and their captions
- the first and last sentences in paragraphs
- the conclusion
- any focus questions

Note how the reading has been structured and look for the author's plan. This will give you an idea of the main thesis.

# Q = Question

***Your reading will be more memorable if you question the material.***

As you are surveying, note down your questions. Writing down questions keeps you alert and focused on your work.

**1. Ask yourself:**
- What is this chapter/ article about?

- What did my lecturer/ tutor say about this chapter or subject?
- What do I already know about this subject?
- How does this reading relate to what I already know/ have read?

**2. Devise questions that will guide your reading:**

- Think about specific questions for which you need to, or would like to, find answers.
- Read any focus questions at the end of the reading.
- Turn the title, headings and subheadings into questions. For example, if the heading is Qualitative and Quantitative Research, your question might be: 'What is the difference between these two types of research?'

**3. Make a list of your questions for consideration**. You will use them during review to help you remember what you have read.

# R1 = Read

***Be prepared to READ material twice.***

First, read without making notes:

1. Decrease your pace and read actively. Active reading requires concentration, so take your time and find a quiet place where you can read and focus.

2. As you read, look for answers to the questions you noted down earlier.

3. Question the author's reasoning. Is each point justified? Is there enough evidence? What is the evidence?

4. Compare diagrams and illustrations with the written text. Often you will understand more from them.

5. Make sure you understand what you are reading. Reduce your reading speed for difficult passages. Stop and reread parts which are not clear.

6. If you have difficulty understanding a text, look up difficult words in the dictionary or glossary of terms and reread. If the meaning of a word or passage still evades you, leave it and read on. Perhaps after more reading you will find it more accessible and the meaning will become clear. Speak to your tutor if your difficulty continues.

7. Use reflection to increase your understanding of what you read. When the author makes a claim, reflect on your prior knowledge to support or disprove it. If this raises more questions, note them down. This will help you remember and understand. But keep in mind that you are using personal reflection only as a learning tool—it is not sufficient to prove or refute a research finding.

# W • (Read) + Write

***On your second reading, begin to take notes:***

1. Take notes from the text, but write information in your own words.

2. Read one section at a time (a section might be divided up by headings or subheadings).

3. After you read a section, try to sum up the main point in one sentence.

4. Note down the main idea(s) of each paragraph in a section. They are often found in the first or last sentence.

5. Examples and illustrations can further your understanding and be good cues for memory. Look for important details (supporting evidence, written illustrations of points, provisions or alternatives).

6. In your notes, underline or highlight the important points. This will be useful for later review.

7. Refer to the list of questions you made earlier and try to answer them.

# R2 = Recall

***RECALL straight after you finish taking notes.***

You should have an outline of the reading in note form. You should now try to recall and write your thinking about what you have read.

1. Close the book and cover your notes.

2. Make notes of what you remember about the main thesis and points of the reading.

3. Check their accuracy against the notes you made during your reading.

4. Return to the reading. Read one section at a time and try to recall what you have read. If you were unable to recall one of the major points, then reread that section of the reading to clarify it further.

5. It can also be helpful to RECITE ideas aloud to help you remember. Sum up the main points verbally—reciting can help you put ideas into your own words.

# R3 = Review

***Now REVIEW what you have read.***
At the end of your study period:

Check the accuracy of your notes against the original material (if you have underlined the main points, this should be simple). This is an important part of the process because it can really help you clarify and remember what you have read.

The next day:

1. Read through your notes to reacquaint yourself with the main thesis and key points.

2. Now read through the questions you noted down and try to answer them from memory.

3. Try doing the same thing after a few days.

If you are reading for a course, periodically reviewing notes will help you at exam time. The more you review throughout semester, the less you will need to cram during exam study periods.

| Techniques to enhance Reading Comprehension |
|---|
| • Scanning |
| • Skimming |
| • Columnar  Reading |
| • Keyword  reading |

Skimming and scanning are two very different strategies for *speed reading*.

They are each used for different purposes, and they are not meant to be used all the time. They are at the fast end of the <u>speed reading</u> range, while studying is at the slow end.

People who know how to skim and scan are flexible readers. They read according to their purpose and get the information they need quickly without wasting time. They do not read everything which is what increases their reading speed. Their skill lies in knowing what specific information to read and which method to use.

## 1 <u>What Is Skimming?</u>

| **Skimming** |
|---|
| ○ **Reading techniques used to get a general impression/ overview of the information you are reading.** |
| ○ **Getting the gist/ basic overall idea (not absorbing all the details)** |

**Skimming**
– Skimming is a quick reading to get:
– To know the general meaning of a passage.
– To know how the passage is organized, that is, the structure of the text.
– To get the author's purpose.

| **Skim** |
|---|
| **Read quickly and superficially** |
| – **General idea** |
| – **Knowledge of context** |
| **How to skim** |
| – **Read the introduction and first sentence of each paragraph (topic sentences)** |
| – **Read any headings.** |
| – **Look for linking words-link ideas (therefore, in addition, because, resulting in, since compare/contrast words.)** |

I. **SKIMMING** is a method of rapidly moving the eyes over text with the purpose of getting only the main ideas and a general overview of the content.

    A. Skimming is useful in three different situations.
- Pre-reading--Skimming is more thorough than simple previewing and can give a more accurate picture of text to be read later.
- Reviewing--Skimming is useful for reviewing text already read.
- Reading--Skimming is most often used for quickly reading material that, for any number of reasons, does not need more detailed attention.

    B. Steps in skimming an article
- Read the title--it is the shortest possible summary of the content.
- Read the introduction or lead-in paragraph.
- Read the first paragraph completely.
- If there are subheadings, read each one, looking for relationships among them.
- Read the first sentence of each remaining paragraph.
  - a. The main idea of most paragraphs appears in the first sentence.
  - b. If the author's pattern is to begin with a question or anecdote, you may find the last sentence more valuable.

6. Dip into the text looking for:
  - a. Clue words that answer who, what, when, why, how
  - b. Proper nouns
  - c. Unusual words, especially if capitalized
  - d. Enumerations
  - e. Qualifying adjectives (best, worst, most, etc.)
  - f. Typographical cues--italics, boldface, underlining, asterisks, etc.
7. Read the final paragraph completely.

    C. Mastering the art of skimming effectively requires that you use it as frequently as possible.

    D. Skimming can usually be accomplished at about 1000 words per minute.

Skimming is one of the tools you can use to read more in less time.**Skimming** refers to looking *only* for the general or main ideas, and works best with non-fiction (or factual) material. With skimming, your overall understanding is reduced because you don't read everything. You read only what is important to your purpose. Skimming takes place while reading and allows you to look for details in addition to the main ideas.

How to skim.?Many people think that skimming is a haphazard process placing the eyes where ever they fall. However, to skim effectively, there has to be a structure but you don't read everything. *What you read is more important than what you leave out.* So what material do you read and what material do you leave out?

Let's say you are doing research on a long chapter or a web site. By reading the first few paragraphs in detail, you will get a good idea of what information will be discussed. Once you know where the reading is headed, you can begin to **read only the first sentence of each paragraph**. Also called *topic sentences*, they give you the main idea of the paragraph. If you do not get the main idea in the topic sentence or if the paragraph greatly interests you, then you may want to skim more.

At the end of each topic sentence, your eyes should drop down through the rest of the paragraph, looking for important pieces of information, such as names, dates, or events. Continue to read only topic sentences, dropping down through the rest of the paragraphs, until you are near the end. Since the last few paragraphs may contain a conclusion or summary, you should stop skimming there and read in detail. Remember that your overall comprehension will be lower than if you read in detail. If while skimming, you feel you are grasping the main ideas, then you are skimming correctly.

When to skim.Because skimming is done at a fast speed with less-than-normal comprehension, you shouldn't skim all the time. There are many times, however, when skimming is very useful.

Suppose you are taking a presentation skills class and have to deliver an oral report in a few days about the first computers ever made. You locate six books and four newspaper articles about this topic. Because you must be ready soon, you do not have time to read each word, but you need a large quantity of solid information.

Skimming will help you locate the information quickly while making sure you use your time wisely. It will also increase the amount of usable material you obtain for your research.

Suppose you have an exam in a few days. You need to review the material you learned, but you don't want to reread everything. By skimming, you can quickly locate the information you haven't mastered yet and study only that material.

While reading, ask yourself the following questions to help you decide whether or not to skim. If you answer yes to any of these, then skimming is a useful tool.

? Is this material non-fiction?

? Do I have a lot to read and only a small amount of time?

? Do I already know something about this?

? Can any of the material be skipped?

If you have sufficient background knowledge or believe you don't need the information, then skip it! That's right—don't read it at all! Believe it or not, skipping material may sometimes be the best use of your time. Just because someone wrote something doesn't mean you have to read it. *If you pick and choose carefully what you skim and skip, you will be pleasantly surprised at the large amount of information you can get through in a short period of time.*

## 2 What Is Scanning?

> **Scanning:**
>
> - **Reading technique.**
> - **Locating specific information by selectively digging out information out of books.**
> - **Locating specific facts and information**

- **A quick reading, focusing on locating specific information.**

- **Scanning involves quick eye movements, not necessarily linear in fashion, in which the eyes wander until the reader finds the piece of information needed.**

- **Scanning is used when a specific piece of information is required, such as a name, date, symbol, formula, or phrase, is required.**

II. **SCANNING** rapidly covers a great deal of material in order to locate a specific fact or piece of information.

    A. Scanning is very useful for finding a specific name, date, statistic, or fact without reading the entire article.

    B. Steps in scanning an article.
- Keep in mind at all times what it is you are searching for. If you hold the image of the word or idea clearly in mind, it is likely to appear more clearly than the surrounding words.
- Anticipate in what form the information is likely to appear-- numbers, proper nouns, etc.
- Analyze the organization of the content before starting to scan.
   a. If material is familiar or fairly brief, you may be able to scan the entire article in a single search.
   b. If the material is lengthy or difficult, a preliminary skimming may be necessary to determine which part of the article to scan.
- Let your eyes run rapidly over several lines of print at a time.
- When you find the sentence that has the information you seek, read the entire sentence.

    C. In scanning, you must be willing to skip over large sections of text without reading or understanding them.

    D. Scanning can be done at 1500 or more words per minute.

**Scan**

**Reading quickly for:**

- **Specific information**
- **Knowledge of context**

**How to scan:**

- **Answer questions who, what, where, when, why.**
- **Look for- key, words. Phrase, dates or names (look for capital letters and numbers)**
- **Move eyes systematically over page.**

Scanning is another useful tool for speeding up your reading. Unlike skimming, when **scanning,** you look *only* for a specific fact or piece of information without reading everything. You scan when you look for your favorite show listed in the cable guide, for your friend's phone number in a telephone book, and for the sports scores in the newspaper. For scanning to be successful, you need to understand how your material is structured as well as comprehend what you read so you can locate the specific information you need. Scanning also allows you to find details and other information in a hurry.

How to scan. Because you already scan many different types of material in your daily life, learning more details about scanning will be easy. Establishing your purpose, locating the appropriate material, and knowing how the information is structured before you start scanning is essential.

The material you scan is typically arranged in the following ways: alphabetically, chronologically, non-alphabetically, by category, or textually. **Alphabetical** information is arranged in order from A to Z, while**chronological** information is arranged in time or numerical order.

Information can be also be arranged in **non- alphabetical** order, such as a television listing, or by **category**, listings of like items such as an auto parts catalog. Sometimes information is located within the written paragraphs of text, also known as a **textual** sense, as in an encyclopedia entry.

Learning to use your hands while scanning is very helpful in locating specific information. Do you do anything with your hands to locate a word in a dictionary? To find a meeting time on your calendar? To read a train or bus schedule? Using your hand or finger is extremely helpful in focusing your attention and keeping your place while scanning a column of material.

Your peripheral vision can also help you scan effectively. When your hand moves down a list of names, you see not only the name your finger is pointing to, but also the names above and below. Let your eyes work for you when searching for information.

Keep the concept of key words in mind while scanning. Your purpose will determine the key words. Suppose you are looking for the time a train leaves from New York City for Washington, D.C.The key words to keep in mind are "from New York City" and "to Washington,D.C." If you are

looking for the cost of a computer printer with the code number PX-710, the key word to locate in a list of many printers is "PX-710."

When to scan.?You scan when your aim is to find specific pieces of information. If you were doing the research for an oral presentation, you could scan the index of books, web sites, and reference materials. You would discover whether they contain any information you want and the pages where the information can be found.

In the past, you probably scanned without knowing you were doing it. Now with the information provided in this section, you can use scanning more intentionally and frequently. The more you practice, the more effective scanning will become. Finally, the most important benefit of scanning is its ability to help you become a more flexible reader. Scanning adds another high gear to your reading.

Permission to not read everything.?Because you may be used to reading every word and may be uncomfortable leaving some words out, you need to give yourself permission to overlook some words by skimming, scanning, and skipping material according to your reading purpose. I give you permission to NOT read everything!

**Scanning Activities**

– Make predictions and guesses.
– Use titles and tables of contents to get an idea of what a passage is about.
– activate prior knowledge.
– anticipate what they want to learn about the topic.
– Use titles , picture , and prior knowledge to anticipate the contents of the text.
– Use key words , that may have been given to them by the teacher, that do not appear in the text , that allude to the main idea.

# 3.Columnar Reading

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## Columnar Reading

- Reading the text in the form of columns
- Faster technique
- Most convenient

</div>

# Columnar transposition

In a columnar transposition, the message is written out in rows of a fixed length, and then read out again column by column, and the columns are chosen in some scrambled order. Both the width of the rows and the permutation of the columns are usually defined by a keyword. For example, the keyword ZEBRAS is of length 6 (so the rows are of length 6), and the permutation is defined by the alphabetical order of the letters in the keyword. In this case, the order would be "6 3 2 4 1 5".

In a regular columnar transposition cipher, any spare spaces are filled with nulls; in an irregular columnar transposition cipher, the spaces are left blank. Finally, the message is read off in columns, in the order specified by the keyword. For example, suppose we use the keyword ZEBRAS and the message WE ARE DISCOVERED. FLEE AT ONCE. In a regular columnar transposition, we write this into the grid as follows:

```
6 3 2 4 1 5
W E A R E D
I S C O V E
R E D F L E
E A T O N C
E Q K J E U
```

Providing five nulls (QKJEU) at the end. The ciphertext is then read off as:

```
EVLNE ACDTK ESEAQ ROFOJ DEECU WIREE
```

In the irregular case, the columns are not completed by nulls:

```
6 3 2 4 1 5
W E A R E D
I S C O V E
R E D F L E
E A T O N C
E
```

This results in the following ciphertext:

```
EVLNA CDTES EAROF ODEEC WIREE
```

To decipher it, the recipient has to work out the column lengths by dividing the message length by the key length. Then he can write the message out in columns again, then re-order the columns by reforming the key word.

In a variation, the message is blocked into segments that are the key length long and to each segment the same permutation (given by the key) is applied. This is equivalent to a columnar transposition where the read-out is by rows instead of columns.

Columnar transposition continued to be used for serious purposes as a component of more complex ciphers at least into the 1950s.

# 4. **keyword** reading **technique**

---

. **Keyword reading**
- **In key word reading, the basic unit of teaching is the word**
- **Key word reading is a word that serves as a key to a code and is used as a reference point for finding other word/information.**

---

What do I mean by the 'keyword' technique?

By 'keywords' I mean: words in the text that have a similar meaning to words in the questions.

The table below shows the keywords that helped my students to find the answers to the test on page 122 of Cambridge IELTS 6.

| Keywords in questions | Similar words in the text |
| --- | --- |
| conflicting theories | a matter for disagreement |
| widespread destruction of life | wiped out three quarters of species |
| existed all over the world | colonised all continents |
| clear proof | establishing definitely |
| hunted from the air | catching fish over open water |
| concrete evidence | proof of this |
| have been discovered | are known today |

---

# Reading and Writing Connections

**The process of mastering any language**
1. lies in mastering the skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing
2. Writing- challenging
   -Content
   - grammatical structures
   - vocabulary
   - organizational issues/ sequence
3. - Note making
   - Summarizing
   - Process Writing
4. Reading and Writing connections

Writing is born out of Reading

      Good Readers    →     Good Writers

      Poor Readers    →     Poor Writers

# 5. **Role of Teacher**

Expose children - Good reading – aesthetic value

# **Similarities**

- ✓ Both – aim - composing meaning
- ✓ Practice – one – contributes – success - other
- ✓ Saturation & Immersion in Literature leads to good writing
- ✓ Realistic fiction and fantasy
- ✓ Non fiction – Newspaper reading
- ✓ 'How to' Books  and Cookery Books
- ✓ Newspaper and Magazines
- ✓ Mutually beneficial
- ✓ Transfer of Learning

# **Note  making**

- • An advancement writing skill
- • complex- skill – combines – several skills
- • Active learner / active learning
- • Organize, categorize and recall information
- • Effective note makers – efficient learners
- • Time and Practice

**Note making** is an advanced writing skill which is acquiring increasing importance due to knowledge explosion. There is a need to remember at least the main points of any given subject. Making notes is a complex activity which combines several skills.

http://www.cbseguy.com/learn-note-making-cbse/

# ❖Effective Note makers

Effective note makers are efficient learners. Effective note making is a skill that each person develops over time and with practice to suit their own style of working.

## Effective Note makers:

- recognize main ideas
- Identify relevant information
- Developed system
- Visual diagrams / mind maps / flow charts
- Own words (use)
- Record details of source (bibliography)
- Capture thoughts and ideas

# ❖Techniques

- **Annotation**
- **Diagrams – visual (mind maps, charts, tables, graphs)**
- **Paraphrasing (ideas and information – own words)**
- **Summaries (Short overview)**

# ❖Techniques

## Note making techniques:

There are many different ways to take and make notes and some tools you may want to try, bearing in mind copyright issues. Thinking about how your notes can be used for revision and for writing your assignments is also important. Using abbreviations for common words will save you time so you can focus on essential ideas and information.

1. **Annotation** involves you adding comments to a text that explain or critique what you have read. These can be written in the margins and may accompany words you have highlighted to identify key information. Of course, this would not be on borrowed texts.

2. **Diagrams** are a more visual form of taking notes. They could be mind-maps, charts, tables, graphs, or perhaps a drawing to capture a process or cycle for example.

3. **Paraphrasing** is expressing the ideas and information of others in your own words. Transforming the original source material helps you to understand it.

4. **Summaries** are focused on the main points of the source material so they are a shorter overview.

## ❖Tools

- Pens, Pencils, Highlighters, Paper, Note pads
- Electronic items – Computer / Tablet / iPad / Smart phones

Pens, pencils, coloured highlighters and paper note pads are familiar tools for hand written notes. However, there are other effective tools for recording lecture material and for making notes electronically on a computer, tablet, iPad or smartphone for example. A variety of note-taking software and mobile applications are also available.

It can be useful to audio record lectures for later review and follow-up note making. Digital recorders are increasingly affordable and files can be transferred to a computer. Many mobile phones also enable audio recording. Mobile devices such as iPads and other tablets and smartpens are becoming popular options. **Please note that you must first have the permission of the lecturer to make such digital recordings.**

## ❖Issues

- Intellectual copyrights

Intellectual copyright is a crucial issue to consider when recording audio or photographing presentation slides in lectures. You must have the permission of the lecturer to record these. Some lecturers may provide students with a copy of their lecture and/or presentation slides on their unit site or by request.

## ❖Do's

- Logical organization : Organise notes in some form (it could be as outlines, flowcharts, diagrams, lists, column styles
- Highlighting words
- Summarize (memory aid) : Summarise your notes to help remember ideas and information – your goal now is to minimise them to serve as a memory aid
- Mind maps :Consider creating mindmaps or brief outlines to summarise
- Abbreviations - common

## Abbreviations for note making :

Whichever note-making layout you choose to use, you may find it useful to use abbreviations and shortened versions of commonly used words. This will help you save time with writing so that you can concentrate on noting the essential points or ideas. Some common abbreviations are listed below

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| About, regarding, concerning | **re** | | Less than | **<** |
| Against, opposite, versus | **vs** | | Man/men, male(s) | ♀ |
| Agree | ☺ | | Member of | ∈ |
| And | **&, +** | | Micro | **µ** |
| And others | **et al** | | Negative, bad, not | — |
| And so on, so forth | **etc** | | Necessary, necessarily | □ |
| Approximately, roughly, round about | **≈** | | Not | **nx or —** |
| At | **@** | | Not a member of | ∉ |
| Because | ∵ | | Note | **nb** |
| Before | **b4** | | Not the same as, does not equal | **≠** |
| Can't, couldn't | **cx** | | Number | **#** |
| Change | **Δ** | | Parallel | ∥ |
| Characteristics | **chx** | | Percent | **%** |
| Confused, clarify | **?** | | Plus or minus | **±** |
| Confused totally | **???!!!** | | Positive, good, plus, in addition | **+** |
| Copyright | **©** | | Possibly, possible | ◊ |
| Definition | **defn** | | Same as, equals, identical | **=** |
| Don't, does not | **dx** | | Should be | **s/b** |
| Down, declining, decreasing | ↓ | | Sum of, collectively | ∑ |
| Each way | ↔ | | Therefore | ∴ |
| Equal to or greater than | **≥** | | That is | **ie** |
| Equal to or less than | **≤** | | Unequal, not the same as | **≠** |
| Especially | **≡** | | Up, rising, increasing | ↑ |
| Example | **eg** | | Very important | **\*\*** |
| Frequency | **fr** | | With | **w/ or c** |
| Greater than | **>** | | Without | **w/o** |
| Important | **\*** | | Woman/women, female(s) | ♀ |
| Infinity, forever, always | **∞** | | | |

❖**<u>How to make notes</u>**
- Read
- Heading (Central idea)
- Subheadings
- Points
- Indenting

# How to make notes

1. **Read** the passage carefully.
2. *Heading*

   What is the main idea of the passage? Frame a heading based on the central idea and write it in the middle of the page.
3. *Subheadings*

   How has the main idea been presented and developed? Are there two or three subordinate/associated ideas? You can frame subheadings based on these.
4. *Points*

   Are there further details or points of the subtitles that you wish to keep in these notes? Indent, i.e., suitably space and number.

   All subheadings should be written at a uniform distance from the margin.

5. *Indenting*

   All points should also maintain the same distance away from the margin.


# Help with abbreviations

1. Use standard abbreviations and symbols as far as possible:

a.       *a. Capitalized first letters of words*

e.g. U.P.,U.S.A.,U.K.,U.S.S.R.,etc.

b.       *b. Common abbreviations*

Sc. (for science), Mr., Mrs., Dr., Govt., etc

c.       *c. Common symbols*

e.g., : \, ∴, +ve, -ve, ® (leading to), ↑ (rising), ↓ (falling), =, etc.

d.       *d. Measurements and Figures*

e.g., : 100′, 100", 100 kg, 1000 mm, 100ml, etc.

 2. Making your own abbreviations:

 .       a. Keep the main sounds of the word. For example, edn. (education), progm. (programme)

a.       b. Retain the suffix so that later when you are going over the notes you may recall the full form of the word —e.g., ed'nal (educational), prog've (progressive).

 3. Caution

 .       **a. Do not** get over-enthusiastic about abbreviations. **You should not** abbreviate every word. One abbreviation in point is enough.

a.       b. As a general rule, the heading should not be abbreviated. You may use abbreviations in subheadings.

Your notes should look like this

## Heading

1. **Subheading**
   - 1.a Point 1
   - 1.b Sub-Sub heading
     - 1.b.1 Sub Point 1
     - 1.b.2 Sub Point 2
   - 1.c Point 1

2. **Subheading 2**
   - 2.a Point 1
   - 2.b Sub-Sub heading
     - 2.b.1 Point 1

Key
abbr. - abbreviation
avt. - aviation
fmly. - family
pnt. - point
engg. - engineer

Notice that indenting, i.e., shifting from the margin has been used to clearly indicate subheadings, points and sub points. Subheadings, though separated by points occur below one another. Points and sub points too come below one another, similarly. Such use of indenting gives your notes a visual character. At a glance you can see the main idea and its aspects.

# Summarizing

- A summary is a **shortened version** of a longer text ( Brief)
- Is used when **researching**, **gathering** or **presenting information**
- **Extract** the main points – decision- opinion to draw conclusions
- **Should not** contain **unnecessary details/ essay**
- **Does not** need to contain information / descriptions or opinions – general meaning
- Main points – original text – own words copying – chunks is **strictly forbidden**
- **A**cademic writing

## Summarising

A summary is a shortened version of a text. It contains the main points in the text and is written in your own words. It is a mixture of reducing a long text to a short text and selecting relevant information. A good summary shows that you have understood the text.

Look at this example:

**Source**

The amphibia, which is the animal class
to which our frogs and toads belong,
were the first animals to crawl from the
sea and inhabit the earth.

**Summary**

The first animals to leave the sea and
live on dry land were the amphibia.

http://www.uefap.com/reading/notetake/summary.htm

# Hints for summarizing a text

- Read – original text ( overall meaning)
- Hidden information ( read – between the lines)
- Use a dictionary
- Highlights main points
- Ignore – unnecessary facts , descriptions, opinions
- Note the important details – Diagram / Pictures
- Link – Key points
- Additional meaning (Images)
- Headings / subheadings
- Draft – lost original information
- Amendments

**Summarising a written text**

Here are some **hints for summarising** a text:

- **Read** the original text thoroughly to make sure you understand its overall meaning.
- Be aware that sometimes you might have to 'read between the lines' to pick up '**hidden' information.**
- **Use a dictionary** or ask someone who knows to help you find the meaning of any unfamiliar words.
- Underline or **highlight the main points** of the text, ignoring any unnecessary facts, descriptions or opinions. Make a **note** of the most **important details** - you could even draw a **diagram** or use **pictures** if this helps.
- **Link** together the **key points** using sentences or paragraphs, as appropriate. If images provide additional meaning then these can also be included in your summary.
- Use **headings or sub-headings** if the text you're shortening is long.
- Read your **draft** to make sure you haven't **lost** the overall point of the **original information.**

- Make **amendments** to your draft, as necessary.

# Unit :4  C)To develop different types of writing skills
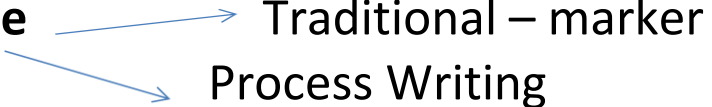
| |
|---|
| **What is writing?**<br><br>Writing is a form of communication that allows students to put their feelings and ideas on paper, to organize their knowledge and beliefs into convincing arguments, and to convey meaning through well-constructed text. In its most advanced form, written expression can be as vivid as a work of art. As children learn the steps of writing, and as they build new skills upon old, writing evolves from the first simple sentences to elaborate stories and essays. Spelling, vocabulary, grammar, and organization come together and grow together to help the student demonstrate more advanced writing skills each year. |
| https://msu.edu/course/cep/886/Writing/page1.htm |

## Process Writing:

Is a creative act which requires time and positive feedback to be done well

➢ Change – Role of Teacher

- **Traditional role** ⟶ Traditional – marker
  Process Writing

## Role of Teacher – Process writing

- Reader
- Respond – content
- Intended – audience

➢ **Students**
  - Can change
  - Deleted / added / restructured / re-organized

**What is process writing?**

# <u>Process Writing:</u>

The process approach treats all writing as a creative act which requires time and positive feedback to be done well. In process writing, the teacher moves away from being someone who sets students a writing topic and receives the finished product for correction without any intervention in the writing process itself.

Why should teachers be interested in a process approach to writing? White and Arntd say that focusing on language errors 'improves neither grammatical accuracy nor writing fluency' and they suggest instead that paying attention to what the students say will show an improvement in writing.

Research also shows that feedback is more useful between drafts, not when it is done at the end of the task after the students hand in their composition to be marked. Corrections written on compositions returned to the student after the process has finished seem to do little to improve student writing.

# The changing roles of teacher and students

The **teacher** needs to move away from being a marker to a reader, responding to the content of student writing more than the form.

**Students** should be encouraged to think about audience: Who is the writing for? What does this reader need to know? Students also need to realise that what they put down on paper can be changed: Things can be deleted, added, restructured, reorganised, etc.

# Stages of Process Writing

- Pre-writing
- Focusing ideas
- Evaluating, Structuring and Editing

# Pre-writing

- Brainstorming
- Planning
- Generating ideas
- ( describe / compare/ associate/ analyze / apply / argue for- against)
- Questioning
- Discussion and debate

# Focusing Ideas

- Fast writing
- Group compositions
- Changing view points
- Varying form

# Evaluating , Structuring and Editing

- Ordering
- Self-editing
- Peer editing and proof reading (Feedback)
- As communication
- Potential problems

What **stages are there** in a **process approach** to writing?

Although there are many ways of approaching process writing, it can be broken down into **three stages**:

# Stages of Process Writing

1. Pre-writing
2. Focusing ideas
3. Evaluating, Structuring and Editing

# I.   Pre-writing

The teacher needs to stimulate students' creativity, to get them thinking how to approach a writing topic. In this stage, the most important thing is the flow of ideas, and it is not always necessary that students actually produce much (if any) written work. If they do, then the teacher can contribute with advice on how to improve their initial ideas.

**1.Classroom activities**
Here are some ideas for classroom activities related to the stages above:

**2. Brainstorming**
Getting started can be difficult, so students divided into groups quickly produce words and ideas about the writing.

**3. Planning**
Students make a plan of the writing before they start. These plans can be compared and discussed in groups before writing takes place.

**4. Generating ideas**
Discovery tasks such as cubing (students write quickly about the subject in six different ways - they:

1. describe it
2. compare it
3. associate it
4. analyze it
5. apply it
6. argue for or against it.

**5. Questioning**
In groups, the idea is to generate lots of questions about the topic. This helps students focus upon audience as they consider what the reader needs to know. The answers to these questions will form the basis to the composition.


**6. Discussion and debate**
The teacher helps students with topics, helping them develop ideas in a positive and encouraging way.


# II.   Focusing ideas

During this stage, students write without much attention to the accuracy of their work or the organisation. The most important feature is meaning. Here, the teacher (or other students) should concentrate on the content of the writing. Is it coherent? Is there anything missing? Anything extra?

**1. Fast writing**
The students write quickly on a topic for five to ten minutes without worrying about correct language or punctuation. Writing as quickly as possible, if they cannot think of a word they leave a space or write it in their own language. The important thing is to keep writing. Later this text is revised.

**2. Group compositions**
Working together in groups, sharing ideas. This collaborative writing is especially valuable as it involves other skills (speaking in particular.)

**3. Changing viewpoints**
A good writing activity to follow a role-play or storytelling activity. Different students choose different points of view and think about /discuss what this character would write in a diary, witness statement, etc.

**4. Varying form**
Similar to the activity above, but instead of different viewpoints, different text types are selected. How would the text be different if it were written as a letter, or a newspaper article, etc.


# III. Evaluating, structuring and editing

Now the writing is adapted to a readership. Students should focus more on form and on producing a finished piece of work. The teacher can help with error correction

and give organisational advice.

## Classroom activities
Here are some ideas for classroom activities related to the stages above:

## 1. Ordering
Students take the notes written in one of the pre-writing activities above and organise them. What would come first? Why? Here it is good to tell them to start with information known to the reader before moving onto what the reader does not know.

## 2. Self-editing
A good writer must learn how to evaluate their own language - to improve through checking their own text, looking for errors, structure. This way students will become better writers.

## 3. Peer editing and proof-reading
Here, the texts are interchanged and the evaluation is done by other students. In the real world, it is common for writers to ask friends and colleagues to check texts for spelling, etc. You could also ask the students to reduce the texts, to edit them, concentrating on the most important information.

## ( The importance of feedback
It takes a lot of time and effort to write, and so it is only fair that student writing is responded to suitably. Positive comments can help build student confidence and create good feeling for the next writing class. It also helps if the reader is more than just the teacher. Class magazines, swapping letters with other classes, etc. can provide an easy solution to providing a real audience. )

## 4. Writing as communication
Process writing is a move away from students writing to test their language towards the communication of ideas, feelings and experiences. It requires that more classroom time is spent on writing, but as the previously outlined activities show, there is more than just writing happening during a session dedicated to process writing.

## 5. Potential problems
Writing is a complex process and can lead to learner frustration. As with speaking, it is necessary to provide a supportive environment for the students and be patient. This approach needs that more time be spent on writing in class, but as you have seen, not all classroom time is spent actually writing.
Students may also react negatively to reworking the same material, but as long as

the activities are varied and the objectives clear, then they will usually accept doing so. In the long term, you and your students will start to recognise the value of a process writing approach as their written work improves.

# 5 Step Process

1. Pre-writing
2. Writing
3. Revision
4. Editing
5. Publishing

## 1. **Pre-writing**

    a) Find your idea
    b) Build your idea
    c) Plan and Structure

## 2. **Writing**

  - Free writing exercise

## 3. **Revision**

    a) Add
    b) Re-arrange
    c) Remove
    d) Replace

## 4. **Editing**

## 5. **Publishing**

# The Writing Process

Whether you know it or not, there's a process to writing – which many writers follow naturally. If you're just getting started as a writer, though, or if you always find it a struggle to produce an essay, short story or blog, following the writing process will help.

I'm going to explain what each stage of the writing process involves, and I'll offer some tips for each section that will help out if you're still feeling stuck!

## *1. Prewriting*

Have you ever sat staring at a blank piece of paper or a blank document on your computer screen? You might have skipped the vital first stage of the writing process: prewriting. This covers everything you do before starting your rough draft. As a minimum, prewriting means coming up with an idea!

### Ideas and Inspiration
Ideas are all around you. If you want to write but you don't have any ideas, try:

Using a <u>writing prompt</u> to get you started.
Writing about incidents from your daily life, or childhood.
Keeping a <u>notebook of ideas</u> – jotting down those thoughts that occur throughout the day.
Creating a vivid character, and then writing about him/her.
See also <u>How to Generate Hundreds of Writing Ideas</u>.
*Tip: Once you have an idea, you need to expand on it. Don't make the mistake of jumping straight into your writing – you'll end up with a badly structured piece.*

### Building on Your Idea
These are a couple of popular methods you can use to add flesh to the bones of your idea:

**Free writing**: Open a new document or start a new page, and write everything that comes into your head about your chosen topic. Don't stop to edit, even if you make mistakes.
**Brainstorming**: Write the idea or topic in the center of your page. Jot down ideas that arise from it – sub-topics or directions you could take with the article.
Once you've done one or both of these, you need to select what's going into your first draft.

### Planning and Structure
Some pieces of writing will require more planning than others. Typically, longer pieces and academic papers need a lot of thought at this stage.

First, decide which ideas you'll use. During your free writing and brainstorming, you'll have come up with lots of thoughts. Some belong in this piece of writing: others can be kept for another

time.

Then, decide how to order those ideas. Try to have a logical progression. Sometimes, your topic will make this easy: in this article, for instance, it made sense to take each step of the writing process in order. For a short story, try the eight-point story arc.

## 2. Writing

Sit down with your plan beside you, and start your first draft (also known as the *rough draft* or *rough copy*). At this stage, don't think about word-count, grammar, spelling and punctuation. Don't worry if you've gone off-topic, or if some sections of your plan don't fit too well. Just keep writing!

If you're a new writer, you might be surprised that professional authors go through multiple drafts before they're happy with their work. This is a normal part of the writing process – no-one gets it right first time.

Some things that many writers find helpful when working on the first draft include:

**Setting aside at least thirty minutes to concentrate**: it's hard to establish a writing flow if you're just snatching a few minutes here and there.

**Going somewhere without interruptions**: a library or coffee shop can work well, if you don't have anywhere quiet to write at home.

**Switching off distracting programs**: if you write your first draft onto a computer, you might find that turning off your Internet connection does wonders for your concentration levels! When I'm writing fiction, I like to use the free program Dark Room (you can find more about it on our collection of writing software).

You might write several drafts, especially if you're working on fiction. Your subsequent drafts will probably merge elements of the writing stage and the revising stage.

*Tip: Writing requires concentration and energy. If you're a new writer, don't try to write for hours without stopping. Instead, give yourself a time limit (like thirty minutes) to really focus – without checking your email!*

## 3. Revising

Revising your work is about making "big picture" changes. You might remove whole sections, rewrite entire paragraphs, and add in information which you've realized the reader will need. Everyone needs to revise – even talented writers.

The revision stage is sometimes summed up with the A.R.R.R. (Adding, Rearranging, Removing, Replacing) approach:

**Adding**

What else does the reader need to know? If you haven't met the required word-count, what areas could you expand on? This is a good point to go back to your prewriting notes – look for

ideas which you didn't use.

**Rearranging**
Even when you've planned your piece, sections may need rearranging. Perhaps as you wrote your essay, you found that the argument would flow better if you reordered your paragraphs. Maybe you've written a short story that drags in the middle but packs in too much at the end.

**Removing**
Sometimes, one of your ideas doesn't work out. Perhaps you've gone over the word count, and you need to take out a few paragraphs. Maybe that funny story doesn't really fit with the rest of your article.

**Replacing**
Would more vivid details help bring your piece to life? Do you need to look for stronger examples and quotations to support your argument? If a particular paragraph isn't working, try rewriting it.

*Tip: If you're not sure what's working and what isn't, show your writing to someone else. This might be a writers' circle, or just a friend who's good with words. Ask them for feedback. It's best if you can show your work to several people, so that you can get more than one opinion.*
*4. Editing*

**The editing stage is distinct from revision, and needs to be done after revising**. Editing involves the close-up view of individual sentences and words. It needs to be done after you've made revisions on a big scale: or else you could agonize over a perfect sentence, only to end up cutting that whole paragraph from your piece.
When editing, go through your piece line by line, and make sure that each sentence, phrase and word is as strong as possible. Some things to check for are:

**Have you used the same word too many times** in one sentence or paragraph? Use a thesaurus to find alternatives.
**Are any of your sentences hard to understand**? Rewrite them to make your thoughts clear.
**Which words could you cut to make a sentence stronger**? Words like "just" "quite", "very", "really" and "generally" can often be removed.
**Are your sentences grammatically correct**? Keep a careful look out for problems like subject-verb agreement and staying consistent in your use of the past, present or future tense.
**Is everything spelt correctly**? Don't trust your spell-checker – it won't pick up every mistake. Proofread as many times as necessary.
**Have you used punctuation marks correctly**? Commas often cause difficulties. You might want to check out the Daily Writing Tips articles on punctuation.
*Tip: Print out your work and edit on paper. Many writers find it easier to spot mistakes this way.*
*5. Publishing*

The final step of the writing process is publishing. This means different things depending on the piece you're working on.

**Bloggers** need to upload, format and post their piece of completed work.
**Students** need to produce a final copy of their work, in the correct format. This often means adding a bibliography, ensuring that citations are correct, and adding details such as your student reference number.
**Journalists** need to submit their piece (usually called "copy") to an editor. Again, there will be a certain format for this.
**Fiction writers** may be sending their story to a magazine or competition. Check guidelines carefully, and make sure you follow them. If you've written a novel, look for an agent who represents your genre. (There are books like Writer's Market, published each year, which can help you with this.)
*Tip: Your piece of writing might never be published. That's okay – many bestselling authors wrote lots of stories or articles before they got their first piece published. Nothing that you write is wasted, because it all contributes to your growth as a writer.*
### Conclusion

The five stages of the writing process are a framework for writing well and easily. You might want to bookmark this post so that you can come back to it each time you start on a new article, blog post, essay or story: use it as a checklist to help you.

| *Extra notes* |
| --- |

# *The 5-Step Writing Process: From Brainstorming to Publishing*

Every writer follows his or her own **writing process**. Often the process is a routine that comes naturally and is not a step-by-step guide to which writers refer. Being conscious of your own writing process is especially helpful when you find yourself struggling with a particularly tricky piece. Here are five steps towards creating or identifying your personal writing process.

## 1. Prewriting
You're ready to start writing. So why has that blank page been staring back at you for the past hour? Prewriting identifies everything you need to do before you sit down to start your rough draft.

### Find Your Idea
Ideas are all around you. You might draw inspiration from a routine, an everyday situation or a childhood memory. Alternatively, keep a notebook specifically devoted to catching your ideas as they come to you. Your own imagination is the only limit to finding your source of inspiration.

### Build On Your Idea
Two of the most popular methods of fleshing out your idea are free writing and brainstorming. Free writing means writing every idea that comes into your head. Do not stop to edit your mistakes, just let the ideas flow. Or, try brainstorming. If you're on a computer, try a manual process first to help you visualize your narrative: write your idea in the center of the page and work outwards in all of the different directions you can take your story.

### Plan and Structure
Piecing the puzzle together comes next. It's time to sort through your ideas and choose which ones you will use to form your story. Make sure you keep your notes even after your book is published – there may be the seeds for your next story as well.

## 2. Writing
Now you have your plan and you're ready to start writing. Remember, this is your first rough draft. Forget about word count and grammar. Don't worry if you stray off topic in places; even the greatest writers produce multiple drafts before they produce their finished manuscript. Think of this stage as a free writing exercise, just with more direction. Identify the best time and location to write and eliminate potential distractions. Make writing a regular part of your day.

## 3. Revision
Your story can change a great deal during this stage. When revising their work, many writers naturally adopt the A.R.R.R. approach.

**Add:** The average novel has between 60,000 and 100,000 words. Does your book have enough

words to be considered a novel? Have you given your readers all the information they need to make sense of your story? If not, go back to your notebook that you kept for additional scenes and any additional details.

**Rearrange:** Consider the flow, pacing and sequencing of your story. Would the plot be better served if some of the events occur in a different order.

**Remove:** After making additions to your story, how is your word count now? Are your readers experiencing information overload? You may need to eliminate passages that don't quite fit.

**Replace:** The most effective way to revise your work is to ask for a second opinion. Do you need more vivid details to help clarify your work? Is one scene contradicting another? Ask friends or fellow writers to take a look and give you feedback, and if something isn't working rewrite it and replace it.

## 4. Editing

You have overhauled your story. It's time to fine tune your manuscript line by line. Check for repetition, clarity, grammar, spelling and punctuation. Editing is an extremely detailed process and its best when performed by a professional. You can hire your own editor or utilized the editing services available through LifeRich Publishing. Nobody wants to read a book that is full of mistakes, and they certainly won't buy a book that is riddled with them.

## 5. Publishing

You now have a completed manuscript ready to publish. LifeRich Publishing's extensive portfolio of publishing services can help you beome a published author. Explore LifeRich Publishing's range of available publishing packages. To learn more about the benefits of publishing with LifeRich, read this article.

Once your book is published, celebrate your accomplishment knowing you've achieved a remarkable goal. But if you plan to reach readers and sell books, then it's time to educate yourself in the process for marketing your book. Read more about the best ways to find your book's audience in our marketing tips.

*http://www.liferichpublishing.com/AuthorResources/General/5-Step-Writing-Process.aspx*

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**Writing skill**

**Introduction**

**Writing** skills helps the learner gain independence, comprehensibility, fluency and creativity in writing.

**Definition :**

Writinng are specific abilities which help writers put their thoughts into words in a meaningful form and to mentally interact with the message.

**Kinds of writing skill**

Comprehensibility skills for writing include understanding that writing is communicating messages or information.

- Fluency skill for writing include:
    - Recognizing the linear sequence of sounds.
    - Mastering writing motion and letter shapes.
    - Recognizing the chunking of words
    - recognizing the need for space between words.
    - Writing quickly
- Creativity skills for writing include the ability to write freely anything the learner wants to write.

**Micro –skills of writing:**
- Use the correct forms of words. This may mean using forms that express the right tense, or case or gender.
- Put words together in correct word order.
- Use vocabulary correctly.
- Use the style appropriate to the genre and audience.
- Make the main sentence constituents, such as subject , verb , and object , clear to the reader.
- Make the main ideas distinct from supporting ideas or information.
- make the text coherent.

http://www.slideshare.net/Aria893/writing-skill-15126665

# how To develop students different types of writing skills :

**General Strategies**
- **View the improvement of students' writing as your responsibility.**
  Teaching writing is not only the job of the English department alone.  Writing is an essential tool for learning a discipline and helping students improve their writing skills is a responsibility for all faculty.
- **Let students know that you value good writing.**
  Stress the importance of clear, thoughtful writing. Faculty who tell students that good writing will be rewarded and poor writing will be penalized receive better essays than instructors who don't make such demands. In the syllabus, on the first

day, and throughout the term, remind students that they must make their best effort in expressing themselves on paper. Back up your statements with comments on early assignments that show you really mean it, and your students will respond.

- **Regularly assign brief writing exercises in your classes.**
  To vary the pace of a lecture course, ask students to write a few minutes during class. Some mixture of in-class writing, outside writing assignments, and exams with open-ended questions will give students the practice they need to improve their skills.

- **Provide guidance throughout the writing process.**
  After you have made the assignment, discuss the value of outlines and notes, explain how to select and narrow a topic, and critique the first draft, define plagiarism as well.

- **Don't feel as though you have to read and grade every piece of your students' writing.**
  Ask students to analyze each other's work during class, or ask them to critique their work in small groups. Students will learn that they are writing in order to think more clearly, not obtain a grade. Keep in mind, you can collect students' papers and skim their work.

- **Find other faculty members who are trying to use writing more effectively in their courses.**
  Pool ideas about ways in which writing can help students learn more about the subject matter. See if there is sufficient interest in your discipline to warrant drawing up guidelines. Students welcome handouts that give them specific instructions on how to write papers for a particular course or in a particular subject area.

**Teaching Writing When You Are Not an English Teacher**

- **Remind students that writing is a process that helps us clarify ideas.**
  Tell students that writing is a way of learning, not an end in itself. Also let them know that writing is a complicated, messy, nonlinear process filled with false starts. Help them to identify the writer's key activities:
  - Developing ideas
  - Finding a focus and a thesis

- Composing a draft
- Getting feedback and comments from others
- Revising the draft by expanding ideas, clarifying meaning, reorganizing
- Editing
- Presenting the finished work to readers

- **Explain that writing is hard work.**

Share with your class your own struggles in grappling with difficult topics. If they know that writing takes effort, they won't be discouraged by their own pace or progress. One faculty member shared with students their notebook that contained the chronology of one of his published articles: first ideas, successive drafts, submitted manuscript, reviewers' suggested changes, revised version, galley proofs, and published article.

- **Give students opportunities to talk about their writing.**

  Students need to talk about papers in progress so that they can formulate their thoughts, generate ideas, and focus their topics. Take five or ten minutes of class time for students to read their writing to each other in small groups or pairs. It's important for students to hear what their peers have written.

- **Encourage students to revise their work.**
  Provide formal steps for revision by asking students to submit first drafts of papers for your review or for peer critique. You can also give your students the option of revising and rewriting one assignment during the semester for a higher grade. Faculty report that 10 to 40 percent of the students take advantage of this option.

- **Explain thesis statements.**

  A thesis statement makes an assertion about some issue. A common student problem is to write papers that present overviews of facts with no thesis statement or that have a diffuse thesis statement.

- **Stress clarity and specificity.**

  The more the abstract and difficult the topic, the more concrete the student's language should be. Inflated language and academic jargon camouflage rather than clarify their point.

- **Explain the importance of grammar and sentence structure, as well as content.**
  Students shouldn't think that English teachers are the only judges of grammar and style. Tell your students that you will be looking at both quality of their writing and the content.

- **Distribute bibliographies and tip sheets on good writing practices.**
  Check with your English department or writing center to identify materials that can be easily distributed to students. Consider giving your students a bibliography of writing guides, for example:

Crews, F.C. Random *House Handbook.* (6th ed.) New York: McGraw-Hill, 1992.

A classic comprehensive textbook for college students. Well written and well worth reading.

Lanham, R.A. *Revising Prose.* (3rd ed.) New York: Scribner's, 1991. Techniques for eliminating  bureaucratese and restoring energy to tired prose.

Tollefson, S. K. *Grammar Grams and Grammar Grams II.* New York: HarperCollins, 1989,

1992. Two short, witty guides that answer common questions about grammar, style, and usage. Both are fun to read.

  - **Science and Engineering**
    Barrass, R. *Scientists Must Write.* New York: Chapman and Hall, 1978. Biddle, A. W., and Bean, D. J. Writer's Guide: Life Sciences. Lexington, Mass.: Heath, 1987.
  - **Arts and Humanities**
    Barnet, S. *A Short Guide to Writing About Art.* Boston: Little, Brown, 1989. Goldman, B. Reading and Writing in the Arts. Detroit: Wayne State University Press, 1978.
  - **Social Sciences**
    Biddle, A. W., Fulwiler, T., and Holland, K.M. *Writer's Guide: Psychology.* Lexington, Mass,:

Heath, 1987.
McCloskey, D. N. *The Writing of Economics.* New York: Macmillan, 1987.

- **Ask a composition instructor to give a presentation to your students.**
  Invite a guest speaker from the composition department or student learning center to

talk to your students about effective writing and common writing problems. Faculty who have invited these experts report that such presentations reinforce the values of the importance of writing.

- **Let students know about available tutoring services.**
Individual or group tutoring in writing is available on most campuses. Ask someone from the tutoring center to give a demonstration in your class.
- **Use computers to help students write better.**
Locally developed and commercially available software are now being used by faculty to help students plan, write, and revise their written work. Some software available allows instructors to monitor students' work in progress and lets students collaborate with their classmates.

## Assigning In-Class Writing Activities

- **Ask students to write what they know about a topic before you discuss it.**
Ask your students to write a brief summary of what they already know or what opinions they hold regarding the subject you are about to discuss. The purpose of this is to focus the students' attention, there is no need to collect the summaries.
- **Ask students to respond in writing to questions you pose during class.**
Prior to class starting, list two or three short-answer questions on the board and ask your students to write down their responses. Your questions might call for a review of material you have already discussed or recalling information from assigned readings.
- **Ask students to write from a pro or con position.**
When presenting an argument, stop and ask your students to write down all the reasons and evidence they can think of that supports one side or the other. These statements can be used as the basis for discussion.
- **During class, pause for a three-minute write.**
Periodically ask students to write freely for three minutes on a specific question or topic. They should write whatever pops into their mind without worrying about grammar, spelling, phrasing, or organization. This kind of free writing, according to writing experts, helps students synthesize diverse ideas and identify points they may not understand. There is no need to collect these exercises.
- **Have students write a brief summary at the end of class.**

At the end of the class period, give your students index cards to jot down the key themes, major points, or general principles of the day's discussion. You can easily collect the index cards and review them to see whether the class understood the discussion.

- **Have one student keep minutes to be read at the next class meeting.**
  By taking minutes, students get a chance to develop their listening, synthesizing, and writing skills. Boris (1983) suggests the following:
    - o Prepare your students by having everyone take careful notes for the class period, go home and rework them into minutes, and hand them in for comments. It can be the students' discretion whether the minutes are in outline or narrative form.
    - o Decide on one to two good models to read or distribute to the class.
    - o At the beginning of each of the following classes, assign one student to take minutes for the period.
    - o Give a piece of carbon paper to the student who is taking minutes so that you can have a rough copy. The student then takes the original home and revises it in time to read it aloud at the next class meeting.
    - o After the student has read their minutes, ask other students to comment on their accuracy and quality. If necessary, the student will revise the minutes and turn in two copies, one for grading and one for your files.

- **Structure small group discussion around a writing task.**
  For example, have your students pick three words that are of major importance to the day's session. Ask your class to write freely for two to three minutes on just one of the words. Next, give the students five to ten minutes to meet in groups to share what they have written and generate questions to ask in class.
- **Use peer response groups.**
  Divide your class into groups of three or four, no larger. Ask your students to bring to class enough copies of a rough draft of a paper for each person in their group. Give your students guidelines for critiquing the drafts. In any response task, the most important step is for the reader to note the part of the paper that is the strongest and describe to the writer why it worked so well. The following instructions can also be given to the reader:
    - o State the main point of the paper in a single sentence
    - o List the major subtopics

- o Identify confusing sections of the paper
- o Decide whether each section of the paper has enough detail, evidence, and information
- o Indicate whether the paper's points follow one another in sequence
- o Judge the appropriateness of the opening and concluding paragraphs
- o Identify the strengths of the paper

Written critiques done as homework are likely to be more thoughtful, but critiques may also be done during the class period.


- **Use read-around groups.**
  Read-around groups are a technique used with short assignments (two to four pages) which allows everyone to read everyone else's paper. Divide the class into groups no larger than four students and divide the papers (coded for anonymity) into as many sets as there are groups. Give each group a set and ask the students to read each paper silently and decide on the best paper in the set. Each group should discuss their choices and come to a consensus on the best paper. The paper's code number is recorded by the group, and the same process is repeated with a new set of papers. After all the groups have read all the sets of papers, someone from each group writes on the board the code number from the best paper in each set. The recurring numbers are circled. Generally, one to three papers stand out.
- **Ask students to identify the characteristics of effective writing.**
  After completing the read-around activity, ask your students to reconsider those papers which were voted as excellent by the entire class and to write down features that made each paper outstanding. Write their comments on the board, asking for elaboration and probing vague generalities. In pairs, the students discuss the comments on the board and try to put them into categories such as organization, awareness of audience, thoroughness of detail, etc. You might need to help your students arrange the characteristics into meaningful categories.

https://www.uww.edu/learn/improving/restiptool/improve-student-writing