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केंद्रीय हिंदी संस्थान, आगरा

संगोष्ठी-कार्यशाला पुस्तकमाला-8

अन्य भाषा शिक्षण के कुछ पक्ष

सम्पादक
अमरबहादुर सिंह



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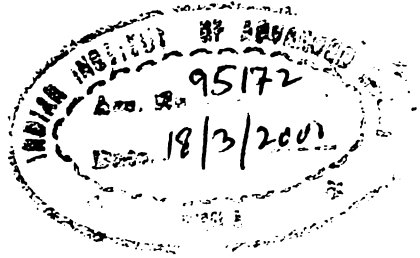
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केंद्रीय हिंदी संस्थान, आगरा द्वारा प्रकाशित
और पायनियर प्रिंटर्स, सेठगली, आगरा द्वारा मुद्रित

भाषा शिक्षण को वैज्ञानिक आधार देने के लिए भाषाविज्ञान के अनुप्रयोग को अब स्पष्ट रूप से स्वीकार किया जाने लगा है। भाषा शिक्षण विशेषकर द्वितीय भाषा शिक्षण-प्रशिक्षण के क्षेत्र में अनुप्रयुक्त भाषाविज्ञान एक सैद्धांतिक पृष्ठभूमि का कार्य करता है।

केंद्रीय हिंदी संस्थान द्वितीय एवं विदेशी भाषा के रूप में हिंदी के अध्ययन अध्यापन एवं तत्संबंधी अनुसंधान, अनुप्रयुक्त हिंदी भाषाविज्ञान एवं भाषा शिक्षण की विधियों-प्रविधियों एवं भाषा के विभिन्न प्रयोजनमूलक व्यवहार रूपों के संबंध में शोध एवं सामग्री निर्माण संबंधी उच्चस्तरीय कार्य के एक विशिष्ट केंद्र के रूप में विकसित हो आया है। अपने शैक्षिक कार्यक्रमों को सैद्धांतिक एवं शोधपरक आधार देने के लिए संस्थान समय-समय पर भाषा शिक्षण के विभिन्न महत्वपूर्ण पक्षों पर संगोष्ठियों एवं विचार-गोष्ठियों का आयोजन करता है।

इसी श्रंखला में तथा संस्थान के तत्कालीन विभिन्न शिक्षण-प्रशिक्षण पाठ्य-क्रमों के शैक्षिक आधार को पुष्ट करने के उद्देश्य से केंद्रीय हिंदी संस्थान ने अपने दिल्ली केंद्र में सन् 1973 में "भाषा-शिक्षण एवं सामग्री निर्माण" विषय पर एक संगोष्ठी का आयोजन किया था। इस संगोष्ठी में प्रस्तुत विचारोत्तेजक लेखों ने संस्थान की शिक्षण-प्रशिक्षण एवं सामग्री निर्माण संबंधी गतिविधियों को एक निश्चित दिशा प्रदान की। इस संगोष्ठी में भाषा शिक्षण की विधियाँ, सामग्री निर्माण के सिद्धांत, भाषाविज्ञान एवं अनुस्तरण, दृश्य-श्रव्य साधन, हिंदी भाषा शिक्षण पर उपलब्ध सामग्री का विवेचन आदि महत्वपूर्ण विषयों पर अधिकारी विद्वानों के द्वारा शोधपूर्ण लेख प्रस्तुत किए गए और उन पर चर्चा-परिचर्चा की गई।

यद्यपि संगोष्ठी के लेखों का प्रकाशन अभी तक नहीं हो सका था लेकिन इनकी उपादेयता को दृष्टि में रखते हुए उसमें और विलंब न हो और यह सामग्री उपयोगकर्ताओं के व्यापक वर्ग तक पहुँच सके, इस उद्देश्य से उक्त संगोष्ठी में प्रस्तुत

कुछ लेखों का "अन्य भाषा शिक्षण के कुछ पक्ष" के रूप में प्रकाशन किया जा रहा है।

आशा की जाती है कि इसके प्रकाशन से भाषा शिक्षण के क्षेत्र में अधिक चिंतन और विचार विमर्श को प्रेरणा मिलेगी।



(बाल गोविन्द मिश्र)
निदेशक

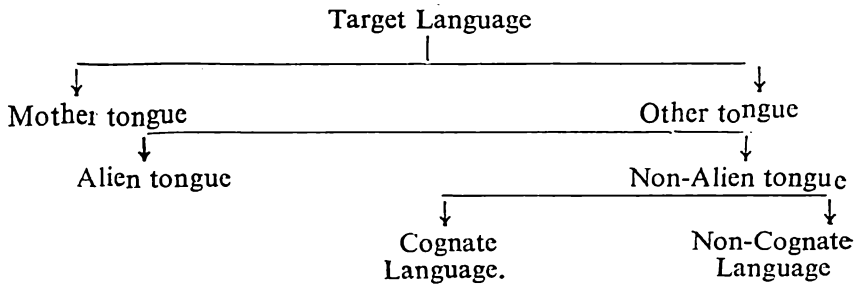
INTRODUCTION

In addition to Linguistics, whose relevance to the discipline of language teaching has already been well established, other disciplines, that have significant contributions to make to language teaching, are cultural anthropology, psychology, sociology, and pedagogy. Each language has some special characteristics of its own and it is these characteristics to which a learner, whether a speaker of a foreign tongue or the other tongue has to be exposed. It is these characteristics which require a thorough planning of the language teaching materials with insight and imagination so that these could be transferred across geographical and cultural boundaries in their true spirits. To meet this challenge the task of the planner of the language teaching materials becomes all the more important and difficult. Many people view the task of language learning as a problem; but in fact it is not. The language learning presents solutions to many a problem provided it is done in right spirit and has been based on a good teaching material. In fact the change that is anticipated in the language behaviour of the learner of an other tongue is roughly the differences between the structure of his source language (SL) and culture and that of the target language (TL) and culture. The language learning involves the development of the skills : receptive, productive, reproductive, and self teaching. Any material intended for language teaching/learning should bear in mind the fact that its sole aim is to develop these skills in such a coordinated fashion as to inculcate the new linguistic habits in the learner gradually.

So far, by and large the language teachers have paid less attention to What in comparison to How (the teaching methods). This fact has been taken up quite seriously by the programme instruction in language teaching. An examination of texts available for other tongue teaching reveals the discrepancies between the linguistically oriented approach to language teaching and its application in the preparation of other tongue teaching materials.

Language learning is started under a controlled situation with controlled material and demands for tight restraint from the learner and teacher both on one hand and the teaching material on the other. This is why 'one step a time' is emphasized time and again. In the

following lines I shall try to outline in brief few salient points that have to be specified and/or kept in mind while planning the preparation of language teaching materials. These points will sketch a broad outline which with little adjustments can be used for any TL, may it be a foreign tongue or other tongue—cognate and non-cognate or both. The following diagram presents the different types of T.Ls.



1. The Learner :

Since the language teaching materials are need based and geared to the requirements of the learner, no efficient planning with effective desired results can be possible unless our learner is defined. In other words, the planner should know the specific use to which the learner intends to put the knowledge of the language. The trade, profession, age-group and educational background and the like will have to be taken into consideration before any planning is done in detail. This will also affect to some extent the selection and gradation of material in order of preferences. A homogeneous group of learners—linguistically and/or otherwise can be handled more efficiently and with better results with one set of teaching material than a heterogeneous group.

2. The Time :

The language learning has to be done in a specific period of time hence the planning of the material and teaching method involved have to be geared to the achievement of the terminal behaviour in most effective way. This calls for a package material which should be self-sustained and open ended and which should provide the basic and salient linguistic dimensions to the learner. The time factor should be spelled out in very specific terms such as Clock Hours since terms such as One year course; Basic course or Intermediate course do not specify as to how many contact hours would be required for teaching a particular course. The planning of the material calls for these specifications in terms of the availability of time for teaching/learning because the selection and also grading are affected by the time factor.

3. The Terminal Behaviour :

Each teaching material has a goal in mind and it tries to impart language skills according to this goal. Hence the amount of the skills of (i) Reception, (ii) Production, (iii) Reproduction, (iv) Comprehension, (v) Speaking, (vi) Reading, (vii) Writing etc. to be achieved should be fixed as the goal of the package materials. The language is more of a skill subject rather than content subject. Hence the teaching of skills cannot be ignored. Our aim is to teach how to use language correctly to achieve desired result in a social setting, and not to teach about the language. This explains why all the (teaching) materials and the language teachers always emphasize on the four main skills—LISTENING, SPEAKING, READING AND WRITING. The learner's performance, so far these skills are concerned, is of utmost importance from the viewpoint of the terminal behaviour. How much of the linguistic dimensions and in what type of social settings is to be achieved by the learner, and the proficiency that the learner will have after completing the material in terms of the operation of the target language has to be specified in clear terms. The terminal behaviour or goal should be defined and decided in terms of the linguistic, social and topical setting and/or dimensions. The planner of the language teaching material or the teacher, in defining the terminal behaviour, must be satisfied about what topics and to what range of social types he wants his learners to be able to communicate with.

4. The Curriculum :

Once the terminal behaviour is defined and time specified, the ways and steps have to be worked out to achieve it in such a fashion that the learner's interest be sustained throughout and movement from one step to another could be made gradual and less conspicuous. In preparing the curriculum selection of items, their proper sequencing and grading from different angles with reference to our learner's group and their requirements has to be done. The preparation of curriculum will require emphasis and concentration on the following points :—

Teaching Points : In view of the behavioural target and limited time the specific teaching point in (i) Phonology (ii) Writing system (iii) Grammar, (iv) Vocabulary and (v) Stylistics should be fixed for each language. The content analysis helps in working out the details of each lesson. The content analysis presents in detail the table

of contents which could be followed in devising and writing the materials.

Grading : The grading should be done in such a way that one step could automatically prepare a background for and lead to the next one.

5. Source Language :

A source language or filter language is the mother tongue of the learner or any other language that the learner uses on par with the mother tongue and which he uses as the medium of learning. The learner is always conditioned by his habits of SL. SL is L-1 if we call the TL L-2. The teaching points in TL have to be listed on the basis of the details of linguistic components in the SL. A thorough linguistic (contrastive) analysis from language teaching point of view of the SL and TL reveals many interesting facts about them. These facts have to be arranged in such a way that the learner can develop a habit for the TL almost exactly the same way as he has for the SL.

To handle problems arising out of the SL it is ideal to have separate teaching material for each L-1 group but sometimes one set of teaching material could be used for a group of language (cognate language) where the drills will be problem oriented and will differ in details for each group. Further, separate Work Book for each L-1 group is required. The work book exercises will be prepared with specific SL teaching point in view so that the interference of SL could be minimized and checked.

Constructive Analysis :

Similarities and dissimilarities between two languages (SL and TL) can be established by contrastive analysis for which adequate linguistic descriptions of the SL (L-1 of the learner) and the TL are required. A careful comparison of the systems of the two languages, step by step, will furnish relevant points for contrastive analysis and the finding can be incorporated in the teaching material. The data thus collected on the basis of the contrastive analysis is the most significant contribution a linguist can make to language teaching and material productions because they pinpoint the teaching points. The contrastive features in phonology, grammar as well as writing system and vocabulary can be prepared for guide line work. If the outline for contrastive phonology is to be prepared, the comparison on phonemic level will also be required.

If the TL is a cognate language the comparison of vocabulary items such as : (i) Words with common origin and same spelling but

with difference in meaning like *Siksa* in Hindi 'instruction', in Marathi 'punishment'.

(ii) Words with common origin, and same meaning but spelt differently like *dusra* in Hindi and *dusra* in Marathi. Second can be listed and taught in the proper context.

Similar comparisons in the writing system of the SL and TL will also be a welcome thing for planning the package material.

6. Test

Every teaching material has to ensure its effectiveness to the learners ; for this purpose the learning has to be tested at different stages. The teaching material has to lay down certain entrance conditions so that the acquisition of and the achievement in the TL could be more or less, uniform. Tests are necessary for two specific reasons : (i) to find out the level of the learners and their aptitude for learning new language ; and (ii) to measure their rate of acquisition or learning at different stages and its cumulative result in the achievement of the terminal behaviour resulting in the learner's proficiency in the TL.

6.1 An ideal teaching material provides the different kinds of tests as an integral part of the package material. The teaching material deals with the language which is to be tested. The language is built of sounds, intonations, stress morphemes, words and arrangements of words having linguistic and cultural meanings. The tests want to find out (i) how much of the language one actually knows (Proficiency tests), (ii) how much one can learn (Prognastic test), (iii) how much one has learned (Achievement test), and (iv) how much remains to be learned (Diagnostic test).

6.2 Entrance test or pretest is always necessary to know the level of the learner before he is initiated to the learning through the material in hand. This will be useful in measuring the learner's achievements properly and correctly at the completion of the course. This kind of test is known as Placement-test as well. The pre-test could be based on the terminal behaviour which is the sum-total of the different teaching objectives defined and fixed in the curriculum. To ensure the effectiveness of a particular part or teaching point of the teaching material, different types of test are administered. (i) An acquisition test, should be given after each teaching point to find out whether the teaching point is learnt properly. If the desired result is not obtained there is either some loop-hole in

the material or method or the learner. This has to be overcome by either improving the material/method or taking the learner back to the same teaching point again. (ii) A Retention test is administered several weeks after a teaching point has been taught to find out the rate of the retention of the teaching points already learnt.

7. Drills :

Each lesson—each teaching point introduced through some kind of text, has to be substantiated in ample measure by different kinds of drills. The drills improve the skill of the learner abundantly and make the learning more automatic. Drills are devised for each component of the language for improvement of each skill of the learner. Through the drills phonology-discrimination, recognition and reproduction; grammar-structure patterns, their expansion and transformation, vocabulary—use and structural categorization, memorization etc. as well as the overall comprehension and reproduction, composition are easily taught. Drills are of varied types such as recognition, repetition substitution transformation, expansion, agreement, response, chain etc. They are equally important for the learning and development of different skills.

8. Work Book :

Work book contains take-home exercises for the learners. It is devised in accordance with the teaching points fixed for and followed in the material. These exercises are devised for giving more practice and comprehension of the teaching points. The learners are expected to attempt these exercises as and when the particular teaching point is introduced in the class. The exercises help in the retention of what has already been acquisitioned. The teacher is expected to check these exercises regularly so that the rate of comprehension and retention of the teaching points could be watched properly.

9. Teacher's Manual :

The teaching material is meant for the teacher. Since the planner of the material and the teacher are two different persons there should be proper communication between the two. The teacher's manual established this communication between the two. The active dialogue between the planner of the teaching materials and teachers centres around the main theme of dos and don'ts regarding the material's use in the class on one hand and bringing out the specific teaching points in the context of the L-1 of the learner on the other. The teacher's manual is a sort of instruction book meant for the teacher alone. On the one hand it explains to the teacher how to

handle the material properly and on the other it trains him as well. It explains to him the rationale behind the details of the teaching points, their sequencing and grading. There should be different teacher's manuals for teachers of different L-1 groups. The teacher's manual chalks out a programme for each lesson and each step therein, which has to be followed rigidly by the teacher. It also tells him, pointing out the similarities and dissimilarities between the SL, and TL, how a particular teaching point has to be explained and introduced.

The teacher's manual warns the teacher against so many things and insists on him to follow the formula of 'one step a time'. It also provides some relevant information to the teacher about the linguistic component and dimensions of the TL which is not needed for the student at that particular step.

10 . Writing Book :

While planning a package teaching material the question of teaching script cannot be ingored. For teaching the script the symbol can be classified either on the basis of increasing difficulty of strokes starting with those with similar appearance or on the similarity of shapes with the symbols of the SL. This helps in speedy learning of the script. There should be a coordination between phonological teaching points and the script teaching points as far as possible. This helps in giving a visual concrete shape to the abstract sound system that the learner learns. In teaching the script the movement of strokes, proportion and shaping should be taught properly from the initial stage itself. The writing book can provide from these things in a sequence already worked out on the basis of the results derived from the analysis. Once all the symbols are introduced, they could be classified and put at one place in the same order in which they appear in system of the TL.

In teaching the script two things have to be separated and taught. They are (i) the writing system, (ii) the calligraphy. The writing book provides ample practice in both making the learner well-conversant with the system as a whole. It is advisable to put some specimens of hand-writings of different people depicting different dimensions of the calligraphy, towards the end of the book. It will train the learner in reading the handwritings of different people and also teach in to pick up one of the many specimens as his mode.

11. Audio-Visual Aids :

The effectiveness of the audio visual aids (AV aids) has been well established for language teaching. Its extensive use all over the world for language teaching has proved beyond doubt that these aids enhance the learning rate. The AV aids supplement the classroom teaching. Tapes and linguaphone records can be used for improving the skills of reception, production, reproduction and comprehension. It is very useful for teaching the phonological discrimination, correct reading, correct accent and intonation as well as comprehension at later stages. It helps in training the ear and tongue both. The visual aids can be used for teaching writing system, grammatical concepts (number, gender, action, quality etc.) and cultural nuances of the TL. Language cannot be detached from the culture. The cultural concepts involved in part of the language being exposed can be explained through the visual aids such as flash cards, still picture slides, film strips, charts, etc. effectively and economically. The AV aids together with proper synchronization and handling can yield amazing results. The text book can also have picture to explain certain objects, actions and concepts.

The preparation of teaching tapes and records calls for certain technical know-how and methods. The main thing is a tape script-detailing out different steps needed for recording a particular text-drill or otherwise. The tape script should not be different from the teaching material.

12. Try Out :

To test the effectiveness of the language teaching material and to evaluate its qualities it is always desirable that a tryout of the materials be conducted with the proposed group of the learners before it is set for a massive and final use. The try-out ensures the adequacy and usefulness of the material to achieve the desired goal and at the same time spots out the weak points and strong points of the material. Try-out should be conducted in full i.e. all the aspects and components of the package material should be put to test in the ideal situation. The planner/writer of the material should take note of each and every detail and incorporate the findings of the try-out in revising and finalizing the material. The try-out will reveal the following facts :—

- (a) Is the content relevant to the needs of the learner ?
- (b) Does it contain sufficient vocabulary and structure-patterns to lead the learner to his desired goal ?
- (c) Is the material valid linguistically and otherwise ?
- (d) Does it sustain the interest of the student throughout and give him real satisfaction of learning ?
- (e) Are the teaching objectives and teaching points so arranged that it does not tire the student ?
- (f) Are all the relevant teaching points covered properly ?
- (g) Can it be used in desired fashion and yield the desired results ?
- (h) All the linguistic dimensions—fixed in the curriculum and thought to be basic for the learner—covered properly ?
- (i) Have the social and topical dimensions—the stylistic Registers and situations—been fully exploited to place the learner at the take-off point ?
- (j) Is the desired aim of the package material fully achieved ?
- (k) Can it provide the learner with adequate vocabulary and structures for his specific use ?
- (l) Can it explain in full the structural relationship adequately and effectively to the learner ?
- (m) Can the package be used as a self-contained complete unit ?
- (n) Can it provide the learner with impetus to follow up his linguistic interests in future ?

13. Approach :

Our approach should be monolingual from the very beginning and avoid as far as possible the use of the filter language. The less the use of the SL the better it is for the learner since he will be forced to follow it up. Even listening learner since he will be forced to follow it up. Even listening to certain expressions time and again will condition the learner's ears. This approach should be followed in classroom as well as in the language laboratory—hence in the material. When it comes to explaining the grammar points, if any, only then the SL can be used.

14. Appendix :

There should be two appendices to the teaching material :
(i) Glossary, (ii) Reference grammar. (i) The glossary is very essential for a package material. In the glossary all the vocables with their references could be listed with their meanings in the SL at the initial stage and gradually switched to TL making it also monolingual, for the ready reference of the learners. (ii) Although the grammar points will be covered and explained, if necessary, along with each lesson, a reference grammar of the TL at the end could present the grammatical aspects and points covered in the teaching material in nut shell with cross references to the text part. This will help the learner to get a picture of the linguistic dimensions that he has covered and learnt and it will also act as a handy reference manual for him.

Our aim should be to teach the colloquial standard form of the TL i. e. how two native speakers of the TL speak it amongst themselves. In preparing the teaching material and using it in the classroom TL should always be given utmost importance. Whatever we do in language teaching material and session should have bearing on the TL directly but it should not be about the TL.

The present volume is an outcome of a Seminar on Language Teaching and Material Production organised by the Kendriya Hindi Sansthan, Agra. I hope the volume will, to some extent fulfill the longself need of a handy reference material on the topic.

Dr. Amar Bahadur Singh
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Kendriya Hindi Sansthan
Gauwahati

Republic Day, 1983

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I

Preliminaries

The rapid advancement in science and technology has brought people of different linguistic and ethnic backgrounds more closer to each other than ever before. This has indirectly made it imperative to understand each other in greater depth and details to understand each other's political set up, and cultural patterns and patterns of social behaviours as well as the ideological norms and technological achievements. This pressing demand has brought to the forefront the relative importance of the medium of communication—the medium of social intercourse and emotional expression. Language, undoubtedly, is the most effective medium of communication in inter and intrasocial and political groups. This kind of growing demand has made the language learning and language teaching of foreign tongue or other tongue almost indispensable in modern times. To achieve this goal different efficient and quick methods of language teaching (foreign and other both) each competing with the other in its efficiency and achievement results—have been evolved : keeping in view the specific use to which the language is to be put to.

Although the success of language learning depends on the combination of several factors—the method, the teaching materials, the teacher and the learner as well as the available teaching aids, the protagonists of different methods go to the extent of claiming the method used to be the cause of the success or failure of language learning. On the other hand there is a view that it is the learner who counts most. They feel that if there is a will to learn, the method is not all that important. There is still another view which holds that any method can yield desirable results provided it is placed in the hands of a good teacher. The methods are simply instruments in the hands of the teacher. It has often been found that pupils of good teachers take less time to remember the materials presented in the class. Hence the language learning may be viewed

as a cumulative effect of the different factors involved in it.

There are more than a dozen different teaching methods of foreign language teaching prevalent in modern times. *W. F. Macky* (1965 : 137 -57) enumerates following fifteen methods of language teaching :

- | | |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. The Direct Method | 2. The Natural Method |
| 3. The Psychological Method | 4. The Phonetic Method |
| 5. The Reading Method | 6. The Grammar Method |
| 7. The Translation Method | 8. The Grammar-Translation Method. |
| 9. The Eclectic Method | 10. The Unit Method |
| 11. The Language Control Method | 12. The Mimicry Memorization Method |
| 13. The Practice-Theory Method | 14. The Cognate Method |
| 15. The Dual Language Method. | |

He further says : 'In addition to these methods there are less widespread variants such as the Situation Method, the Simplification Method, the Conversational Method, the Film Method, the Laboratory Method, the Basic Method, not to mention the hundreds of methods named after their authors' (p. 157).

In addition to these there are two more methods : The Microwave System and Programmed Methods that become very common in the last ten years or so. Besides, the Structural Linguistic Approach, which functions as the basis for most of these methods, directly, or indirectly is very much there. To judge the effectiveness of a particular method, or its superiority over the other or to find out how one method differs from the other it is necessary to have a total view of the methods. All teaching and/or teaching materials must have some sort of *Selection*, some sort of *Gradation*, some sort of *Repetition* and some sort of *Presentation*. 2. Mackey (1965-157), These are four inherent characteristics and it is through these characteristics that one can discover how one method differs from the other. The selection of one method over the other one depends to a large extent on the aim of the learning as well.

Learning a foreign language means acquiring new set of linguistic habits, and teaching it must be based on this reality. The

amount of the contact the student is to have with the target language must be sufficient for him to form new linguistic habits. The foreign language teacher is expected to know the language as well as about the language in order to teach it properly, although he is supposed to teach *the language* and not *about the language*. Linguistic science in modern times has made a very worthwhile contribution to the understanding of the language and this has a great impact on foreign language teaching. Almost all the methods of language teaching are making use of the findings of the linguistic science coupled with the so-called sound pedagogical concepts. To achieve the desired effective result in shortest time and to provide more contact to the student with the target language and the culture of the target language the audio-visual aids are used extensively in foreign language teaching. The importance of the audio-visual aids in the teaching of language has come to the fore in the recent years. It supplements the class-room teaching and provides more opportunity to the learner to be able to do automatic production of the new language patterns. It helps the student through each step of the learning process – from memorization to full control of the graded materials with the aid of (i) pictures whose purpose is to specify the context. Thus providing as natural a social and cultural setting to the learner as could be possible in an alien environment, and (ii) the recorded lessons whose purpose is to provide more opportunity for direct contact with the spoken form of the language, thus making learning process more live and accurate and training the ear and tongue both.

The purpose of this paper is to discuss the role and importance of audio-visual aids in foreign language teaching and evaluate them in the light of modern methods of language teaching and also to discuss whether they can replace the teacher or help him, as well as to see to what extent the learning process can be speeded up.

II

The aids

The essential feature of a spoken language course is that it is designed in such a way as to achieve both rational understanding and automatic production of the patterns of the new language. In the traditional course where student is given the grammar rules and a few examples of their application and left to himself to master them as best as he can, in a spoken language course attempt is made to lead the student with proper guidance

through each step of the learning process. The automatic production and responses can be acquired only by constant repetition of the teaching materials. The language is more of a *Skill Subject* rather than a *Content Subject*, this is why in a language course emphasis is always laid on the four main skills—LISTENING SPEAKING, READING and WRITING. This leads us to conclude that much of the language learning turns out to be a cumulative memorization process geared to the behavioral targets of imparting the skills of Reception, Production, Comprehension and Reproduction. Acquisition of these skills, is of utmost importance for the learner. The use of audio-visual aids in teaching of these skills of a foreign language has been extensively acclaimed as a most effective measure all over the world where the Audio aids are comparable to the use of books in the teaching of a reading knowledge and that of the Visual aid is comparable to the living context of the social and linguistic situation of the target language. The visual aids provide the proper and correct situation of the language use and also explains the meaning of the objects and actions as well as the different nuances of the target language without the interference or mediation of the filter language. By the use of the audio-visual aids the effectiveness of the learning is increased since it helps the learner to assimilate the language contents in a more meaningful yet interesting manner. Through the appeal to eye and ear the aids provide a systematic improvement of knowledge and skill of the target language. The audio-visual aids in the classroom of a foreign language substitute the actual experience that cannot be had otherwise. Although it is best to learn the language by direct experience and live contact but since such possibilities are limited to a certain extent in the classroom this experience is supplemented by the audio-visual aids and their proper co-ordination with the class-room teaching.

The Audio Aids (Recordings)

The audio aids-recordings—are used in foreign language teaching for imparting as well as improving the skills of Reception, Production, Comprehension and Reproduction. These are very effective in teaching the phonological discrimination, identification, correct pronunciation, accent and intonation and comprehension at later stage. It provides the student an opportunity to be in contact with the spoken language beyond the time spent with the teacher in the contact hour. It complements the work of the teacher. This

mechanical device can never replace the teacher but it can help him in the teaching process and the students in the learning process. It is to be remembered that all the materials contained on recordings are first introduced in the class by the teacher in the contact hour. Very few drills on the recordings for aural comprehension and oral response are unfamiliar or fresh to the student. These drills are however based on the materials already introduced by the teacher in the contact hour.

The language recordings are not only useful but are perhaps becoming indispensable a tool in foreign language classes. Sometimes these classes consist of twenty to thirty students making it quite unwieldy for a single instructor to handle it and give the class sufficient time for oral practice. Most of the time, it is not easy to find competent native drill masters to assist the instructor who normally is a trained professional linguist and conducts the class with the help of these drill masters. The adequate learning of automatic responses calls for constant repetition of the materials. The mechanical device helps in the process and maintains uniformity in the quality of the oral presentation of the materials. The learning of new linguistic habit requires high motivation of and active participation by the student. The audio device provides ample opportunity for this participation since it allows for active listening and immediate repetition by the student. The student can compare his performance with that of the teacher and improve his deficiencies there itself. The audio devices present the text in the most natural fashion at normal speed. It thus fulfils one of the basic objectives of the foreign language learning by providing the chance to acquire a reasonably accurate pronunciation, a good speaking knowledge and practice and good auditory comprehension of the target language. Thus it trains and conditions the *Ear* and *Tongue* both. The student is all by himself in the language laboratory unaffected by any outside hindrance and disturbance. The tongue twisters and jawbreaking sounds can well be practiced and mastered over to the utmost approximation of the ideal mastery, that is a native speaker like mastery. There is a very low percentage of those foreigners who really acquire a native like fluency and mastery of an alien tongue, although the language teacher begins his task with the assumption that his aim is to give the student native likemastery and fluency. The audio devices support the teacher's contention and strive for this native like mastery and fluency.

The audio devices can further be used for other purposes namely as an aural review of the material covered in the class or as a supplementary material to more gifted student. These can be used for mere aural comprehension of the speech pattern of different individuals belonging to the foreign language community.

In foreign language teaching there is always an effort to teach the linguistic dimensions in the context of the social dimensions, hence this kind of supplementary recordings expose the learner to a wider group of the language community and thus provide him with an opportunity to experience the language use in a broader context. He is, thus, made aware of the functional variety of the target language as it is spoken by the different members of the language community.

The Visual Aids

Visual aids—in a very loose sense—are indispensable in the teaching process. Reading books, writing something, using the blackboard, drawing diagrams and pictures using the maps and charts are some of the visual aids that are used constantly in the class-room but when one talks about the visual aids in the context of foreign language teaching, one is very specific about the type of visual aid and one variably means some type of pictorial presentation that could make the learning simpler, quicker and more meaningful. The role function and utility of various visual aids in language teaching is determined by their proper characteristics and co-ordination with the teaching materials and process. Pictures—wall pictures, charts and others (given in the book along with the text), still film slides, film strips and motion pictures are the main visual aids employed in the foreign language teaching. The purpose of these visual aids is to specify the context in which the language is used and pin point the meaning. The visual aids bring to the fore the Social Context of the language in determining and explaining the meaning and help in providing automatic comprehension and production of the spoken language without the mediation of the filter language. These aids provide more primary stimulus than translation in the filter language. They depict and present the actual scenes upon which the conversations or language lessons, the students are learning, are based. Thus practicing a sentence the teacher need not resort to the filter language to provide stimulus to the student to produce and master the sentence

instead he draws a picture or projects a slide or portion of the film strip depicting the social context and objects and actions involved in the sentence. This combination of the content of the sentence and picture tells the student what the sentence actually means. This explanation is more meaningful, more real and more lasting than the one provided by the translation in the filter language. The words-objects and actions both as well as the situations of the foreign language are related directly to the objective world rather than to other words in the filter language and situations become more meaningful and real than the explanation provided by the filter language. The presentation of the materials with the help of visual aids does not allow the learner to carry any of the previous mental associations with the filter language that sometimes complicate the learning process. The translations and explanations do not convey the culture of the target language nor are able to represent the nuances and the genius of the foreign language. The visual aids, thus establish a direct contact between the learner and the language-the social context of the language as well as the linguistics dimensions. These could be, very effectively utilised to teach the writing system, grammatical concepts, cultural background, lexical items and the range of meaning. They can become an effective aid to the classroom teaching and take the bulk of the burden of explanation and translation off the shoulders of the teacher.

They lighten the teacher's burden and restrict him to teach more of the language and not about the language. They cannot substitute the teacher but can make the Teaching more effective.

Combination of the two (AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS)

Although the actual learning is done by the student alone the use of audio-visual aids helps the student and teacher further in their effort. Foreign language learning means learning of new linguistic habits, new sounds and sound combinations and patterns, new linguistic patterns, new linguistic contexts, new linguistic concepts, new linguistic culture, new social context, and new sociolinguistic values. All these call for the learning of the new language in its totality. The foreign language courses are devised in such a way as to lead the learner to this goal step by step by coordinating each step with the following one and restricting the objective to a single entity in each step. Although the objective in each step is limited and well defined

and effort directed towards the achievement of this objective the total view of the language learning is never lost sight of.

The audio-visual aids help in imparting this totality when the sound and signs, oral and visual aspects of the language are co-ordinated with precision and propriety. Let me make my point clear. Once the material is presented in the class orally, I insist on oral presentation so that the previous association of the student with the written symbols corresponding to that of his source language if any, do not complicate the learning and the book does not disturb his concentration thus obstructing the total active participation from the side of the student—the student can be taken to the lab and made to listen to and repeat the same materials for oral/aural mastery. The content of the material—the objects, actions, linguistic meanings and social-cultural contexts—could be shown to him through slides or filmstrips synchronized with the materials step by step. This will break the monotony and provide them the meaningful situations which the teacher is not able to provide in the classroom otherwise and also save the student from the sufferings of listening to a tired teacher again and again.

This will supplement the classroom teaching and reduce the involvement of the native drill master for oral practice and that of the teacher for providing translation and explanations in the filter language. The materials does need the teacher for its oral presentation in the classroom and supervision and observation of the student's performance and achievements in the lab session or audio-visual aid session. In this kind of situation what matters most is how well the audio and visual portions are synchronized to produce desired effects and to make the learning automatic and natural.

III

DEVICES

The Teaching Machines

The use of teaching machines does the same sort of thing although it presumes that the major part of the learning can be done by the student on his own without the physical interference of the teacher. The courses meant for the teaching machines are different than those used otherwise. Here the teaching points are well defined to fix the teaching objective for each unit. The

material is supposed to be self contained. A particular pattern is presented first which has to be memorized and through different processes of substitution, addition, transformation etc. the expansion and permutation of the pattern is presented. There are cues and answers provided to check the learners performance. The learner is supposed to follow the instructions given for each pattern and each answer. If the answer is incorrect there is instruction to go back to particular step in the unit again and so forth.

Teaching machines of this kind are making use of programmed materials where every teaching point, objective target and terminal behaviour of the programme is well defined, student follows the book for each programme and uses the machine. The teaching machines, with programmed teaching materials presented through frames can work as a good substitute for the teacher provided the frames are good and tested every time. But here again the teacher is needed to check the progress of the learner and efficacy of the programme. He is supposed to improve the programme or alter it for each individual student. The teaching machines do make use of the audio-visual aid but are not effective to teach the language in its totality, i.e. they can teach the discrimination-the recognition, differentiation and reproduction of items, can teach the patterns-grammatical patterns but are of little use to teach the communication, conversation, composition etc. that is the use of these patterns in a living situation. In other words they can teach the linguistic dimensions fully well but lack in teaching the social dimensions. They call for entirely specialized materials yet cannot form the new linguistic habit and provide the learner with the living and natural contact with the language. They do help in cutting down the learning time for good students, thus enabling them to learn more than the rest of the class.

Most of the teaching machines are meant for individual use and may not be competent to handle the whole class. One such machine is P. I. P. Programmed Individual Presentation which is portable. It helps the student more than anything else to learn through the *self taught* teaching material. Other machines also are most effective for individual learning but whether they can be used in the classroom for collective learning and whether they can replace the teacher in the contact hour is very doubtful. They aid the classroom teaching for individual mastery of the materials already presented in the classroom and enhance his learning.

The Television

In recent years the television is being extensively used for language teaching in general. It is being used for the foreign languages as well and is one of the most interesting new developments for foreign language teaching. In the television classrooms all the students get the same opportunity to see the lips, hand and other gestures of the teacher which helps them in proper imitation and comprehension. Since the television lesson is the result of a combination of specific skills of several members of the television teaching staff, the theory and presentation both can have the ideal combination. It helps in teaching the large group of foreign language students in the same school or various classes in different schools in same or different part (s) of the country where efficient and trained foreign language teachers whether native or with native like fluency are not easily available, and supplements the deficiencies of the teacher.

One disadvantage of the television class is that student is never able to identify himself with a living class but only with the studio class. If the situation is preserved as natural as required in a regular class, the student can make typical responses erroneous as well as correct. The errors will perpetuate since there is seldom any chance to detect and correct them. This is possible only by a teacher in a class room. The television course will be an enrichment or effective supplement to what has already been presented in the contact class by the teacher. The teacher is necessary for the follow up lessons, checking the home-work and so on. The teacher is necessary for the drill sessions, conversation sessions, test sessions for which a smaller group is needed. By combining the televised lessons and the classroom lesson the foreign language teaching can be made more interesting and fruitful in more than one ways. The student in the televised lesson gets to hear the speech patterns of different personalities other than the teacher of the contact class. The new medium of instruction helps sustaining their interest in the whole of the programme. The learner sees an action going on where the unfamiliar sounds and sentences of the foreign language look strange in the beginning but gradually by intuition and inference certain meanings and expressions become clear to him. Through repetitions his perception is increased and refined. The constant practice helps him achieve satisfactory level of performance. Whereas in the silent films, still slides and other visual devices, unless synchronized with the recorded material and used silently, the audi-

tory impact is lost and oral control of the elicited response is not possible and auditory sense of the student is not put to any advantage, in the television lessons and sound motion pictures the auditory sense of the student is well taken advantage of and oral repetition of the presented materials is well guided.

The Radio

In television lessons and motion pictures there is a live situation which the student can perceive and it is stimulating to the student for putting efforts to understand the meaning through the context. The radio lessons are dull and monotonous and do not provide any room for active participation of the student. The whole of the learning process is to be done by the student and teacher on the radio presents new items and their explanation. It does not provide any opportunity to the student for feeling to be really in the process. It tries to train the auditory process but there is no way to check, control and correct the students response nor can it guide his oral control. The entire course cannot be handled on the radio and a spoken course on the radio is not very effective. The radio lessons can also be coordinated with the classroom teaching but the process here will be different. In the teaching machines, there is more control of the teacher whereas on the radio there is none at all. The whole teaching becomes one way action without leaving any room for the active participation of the student. Only few very highly motivated students can learn a course in its entirety. Each and every sound and sentence, word and phrase of the the foreign language in absence of any other device banks on the mediation of the filter language for bringing home the meanings and expressions. The linguistic dimensions of the foreign language can be taken care of, to some extent, by the filter language but the social dimensions, the culture of the language, its genius and nuances can in no way be fully taken care of by the filter language. Hence it can be said that although the radio teaching assumes the role of a classroom teaching but it lacks the liveliness that the presence of the teacher in the actual classroom situation provides and cannot replace the classroom teaching at all. It fails to impart the skill of speaking—production and reproduction both, and does not control the learning of the skills of Reading and writing either.

Significance

From the perceding discussion of aids and devices following

points emerge :

(1) The audio-visual aids are becoming more and more popular in the foreign language teaching.

(2) They supplement the classroom teaching very effectively and enhance the learning rate.

(3) They significantly contribute the learning of language skills.

(4) They help in understanding and assimilating the meaning of the target language.

(5) They present and explain in as natural a way as possible, in an artificial situation, the linguistic and social dimensions of the target language.

(6) They provide ample cue to the learning of the content part of the language without too much interference or mediation of the filter language.

(7) They train the student for aural and oral responses.

(8) They help in building the new linguistic habit.

(9) They lighten the burden of the teacher and help in sustaining the interest of the learner throughout the learning process.

(10) They provide sufficient stimuli for motivating the learner.

(11) They help in handling the larger class in more manageable way without hampering the learning speed.

(12) Some devices encourage the individual learning and thus do not make the good students suffer because of the slow ones.

(13) They provide means to the slow learner to pick up the lesson by spending more time in private.

(14) They help in retaining the uniformity in the quality of the presented lesson.

(15) They provide a chance to hear the voices of other speakers of the language than the teacher.

(16) The material presented in the class with the help of visual aids can be treated aural-oral homework on the records in the laboratory.

(17) The laboratories with projectors become more effective for the aural-oral drills.

(18) The visual aids provide cue and stimulus for freer conversations and review conversations.

Necessity

The necessity of audio-visual aids in foreign language teaching cannot be ignored and denied. The use of language labs and visual aids has improved not only the quality of teaching materials but also the quality of teaching and learning. It has given rise for natural sequencing, grading and logical presentation of the teaching materials on one hand and thoughtful planning of the classroom teaching on the other.

As said earlier, language learning means forming new linguistic habits and mastering the skills of listening, speaking, reading, writing as well as comprehension and reproduction. For increasing the pace in mastering these skill these aids are inevitable. This is the reason why one always refers to package material which means the material supplemented with the audiovisual aids. The visual aids not only clearly explain the linguistic as well as social concepts involved in the language lesson but make these concepts very clear in the mind of the learner, the teacher, with the help of these aids, need not present explanations and descriptions for linguistic and extra-linguistic features and save his time and energy as well as that of the learner for devoting it to other aspects of the teaching.

Utility

Monolingual approach to foreign language teaching i. e. teaching through the target language is supposed to be the ideal one where the learner is made to hear and to listen to the alien language constantly. Even short and useful expressions for instructions are kept in the target language. The audio-visual aids are a great help in the monolingual approach where repetition on the part of the machine in the lab and repetition on the part of the student and representing the context and situation on the part of the visual aids-say slides, film strips etc. become an asset to the learning process and increase the motivation. As a supplement to the classroom teaching and as an aid to the teacher the aids help the student to learn the language without being aware of such things as grammar and syntax.

Auditory materials are among the best means for extending and

enriching the learner's language experience. The main function of the language laboratory is to take over those aspects of drill-work that are repetitive, mechanical and do not absolutely require the presence of a live teacher constantly. The teacher is needed only when the new batch of material is first introduced in the class. The visual material either with sound track or co-ordinated with the recorded material helps explaining the material culture of the foreign language. These aids are valuable adjuncts to the language learning-process and if used properly to supplement the classroom teaching they contribute to the learner's fundamental need, the need of internalizing the habits of the target language and incorporating them into his own behaviour.

Application

It is worthwhile to consider how the audio-visual aids can be put to active use in the learning of foreign language. In the classroom the spoken form of the language, say the conversation, is introduced by the teacher. First the teacher presents the conversation, once or twice and projects the film or slide and the class listens to him and looks at the slides. To make it more lively and interesting and look natural the conversation can be dramatized. The student just listens to the teacher and conditions his ears by listening to the strange and new sounds, and sentences and tries to assimilate the meaning with the context of the slides. Then the teacher reads it again and asks the class to repeat after him and view the slide or the film. Here the order of presentation is sentence, build ups of the sentence and sentence each being done twice, and keeping the slide film static until the process is completed. The film or the slide is projected and corresponding sentence is pronounced by the teacher simultaneously. The teacher leads the class step by step, to figure out the relationship between the sound and action, the sentence and the slide or the portion of the picture. By viewing the film repeatedly any hearing the conversation each time the student gets an understanding of the scene and meaning of the conversation from this kind of presentation of the situation and conversation in co-ordination. This is followed by the aural-oral practice from the records in the language lab. Later the language patterns are practiced through short review conversations and pattern drills stimulated by slides or films. For the review conversations and the drills the class can be divided into smaller groups supervised by a native drill

master. In the whole of this process no written text is used by the student.

The text is used only when the student is able to comprehend and use the sentences of a specific unit or lesson. Once the student has aural-oral facility he is initiated to the script and reading. The grammar is taught only when the grammatical forms have already been learned in context and that too in form of explaining a particular pattern.

To illustrate the whole procedure let us consider the first conversation of *Conversational Hindi Urdu* by John Gumperz, June Rumery, C. M. Naim, A. B. Singh given below, which is meant to be used along with the audio-visual aids.

- | | |
|--------------|------------------------|
| 1. | फलवाले से बात करना |
| 2. | अलीगढ़, बाजार में |
| 3. फलवाला : | आइये साहब । |
| 4. | लीजिए |
| 5. | संतरे खाइये |
| 6. ग्राहक : | केले कैसे हैं ? |
| 7. फलवाला : | अच्छे हैं । |
| 8. | बहुत ताजे हैं । |
| 9. | सेब भी हैं साहब । |
| 10. ग्राहक : | ये क्या हैं ? |
| 11. फलवाला : | ये बेर हैं । |
| 12. | लीजिये, एक सेब खाइये । |
| 13. | बहुत मीठा है । |
| 14. ग्राहक : | वह क्या है ? |
| 15. फलवाला : | पपीता है साहब । |
| 16. ग्राहक : | पपीते का दाम क्या है ? |
| 17. फलवाला : | इसका दाम एक आना है । |
| 18. ग्राहक : | अच्छा, दो पपीते देना । |

- | | |
|--------------|-------------------|
| 19. | पके देना |
| 20. फलवाला : | संतरे भी लीजिये । |
| 21. ग्राहक : | नहीं काफी है । |

The Conversation

The conversation depicts a fruit shop in Aligarh where a foreigner wants to buy some fruits. It presents a natural sequence introducing more frequent, short and colloquial sentences. The conversation is short and has twenty one lines or sentences, each one not having more than maximum five words (if we include का, भी etc. as words). The first two lines present, the situation where the action takes place, i.e. the caption of the conversation. The conversation is purposely broken into four convenient and manageable parts where the title lines make the first part. This breaking up of the conversation is done for easy memorization.

The visual aid for the conversation

The conversation is accompanied by slides or film strip prepared with the help of the slides. The first slide presents a foreigner engaged in natural conversation with a fruit seller sitting in a typical fruit shop. The second slide presents a long shot of the Aligarh market, that brings home the correct understanding of typical Indian market where vegetable and fruit shops are located along with other shops. The long shot of Aligarh market presents the cultural setting and pattern, depicting in most natural way the customary scenes of peddlers, pavement store keepers, cyclists, pedestrians well dressed and shabbily dressed people or bare bodied persons along with other usual features of an Indian market in a middle class, cite. Other slides depict the appropriate scenes in accordance with the conversation Each action and/or object is shot in close ups when it is emphasized in the conversation, thus giving the student a clear understanding of social as well as linguistic content of the conversation and relations between the linguistic form and social situation. This is why, this as well as other conversational situations in *Conversational Hindi-Urdu* were acted out by an Indian and a foreigner and photographed on location in India. Attempt has been made to correspond, virtually, every sentence in each of the conversations to a colour slide which attempts to convey vividly and graphically the social situation, the participants and to some extent the impression

to be conveyed by the speakers. The theme of each conversation is thus developed visually and it has become possible to establish a direct co-relation between the speech forms and visual images. The student looking at the picture sequence can often guess the meaning of the utterance with a minimum reliance on the filter language.

The Presentation

This is how the conversation is to be presented in the class : -

1. When this conversation is presented in the class by the Hindi-Urdu teacher the students are asked to keep their books closed. They are supposed to be looking either at the instructor or at the slides.

2. While the slides are shown in the classroom, the instructor gives the conversation line by line in a natural conversational style. He is not supposed to slow down his speed or make it unnatural for the benefit of the students. The ideal situation for presenting the conversation is to dramatize it with the help of two native speakers. The class is supposed to listen to the conversation and look at the slide at the same time.

3. The slides are shown again and the instructor gives each line twice, each time giving pause for the class to repeat after him.

4. The slides are shown again and the instructor gives each line twice, each build up twice and the line twice again and each time he gives a pause and allows the class to repeat after him. The build up is from the end word by word or phrase by phrase.

5. The slides are shown the fourth time, the instructor gives each line and the class repeats after him and then tries to understand the meaning and translate it in the filter language. Some sentences are recognised easily and immediately while others might need the translation of few vocabulary items.

6. The students are encouraged to make a guess of the meaning of the sentence with clue provided by the teacher, situation and context.

7. Instructor gives the correct colloquial translation of the whole sentence.

8. Instructor gives the Hindi sentences several times, allowing

the class to repeat after him. Here he can present the conversation in parts if felt necessary. The slides are not shown this time.

9. The class is taken to the language laboratory for oral-aural practice and internizing the conversation.

10. He divides the class into groups making each group to act the whole conversation or part of it while the other group listens to it.

The drills in phonology and grammar are done in class and practiced in the laboratory under the supervision of the teacher or drill master. When a particular objective is thus fully presented, the relevant explanations are provided by the teacher in the filter language. The medium of short instructions on tapes and in classroom is in the Hindi-Urdu with little reliance on the filter language. The medium of explanation is gradually shifted to Hindi-Urdu in due course of time.

VI

Concluding Remarks

From the preceding discussions it becomes clear that the mechanical aids in language teaching are of great importance from both the points—(i) the learning of the language skills and the linguistic dimensions and (ii) the meaning-linguistic and social both of the text presented in the classroom. With these mechanical aids—the audio-visual aids—every student in the class is able to get active language practice throughout the learning period. In the language laboratory which is used much more than the visual aid, it is possible to provide different levels of learning and to adjust the rate of progress to the capacity of each learner. Thus the good students—the fast learners—do not lose their interest because of the slow pace of learning of the other students. The teachers, after few hours continuous teaching are tired, but the machine does not tire. The student can practice the lesson in his free periods or after school hours. There is no room for digression and the laboratory makes the audio approach easy and natural. Because of the machines, the shy students do not feel self-conscious. The laboratory provides the model voice and provides them with chance to listen to voices other than the teacher as well.

The language laboratory and the visual aids can be used for conducting different types of tests to evaluate the progress and achievement of the students. The laboratory has more wider use in the whole process because aim of the spoken language course is to make the learner speak like a native speaker in all respect.

The aids, as a supplement to teacher and classroom teaching are indispensable for inculcating the linguistic habit of a foreign language. They cannot replace the teacher or reduce the importance of the teacher. For this kind of package materials, the text and the lay out for preparing the audio visual parts of it requires a pre-planning defining each and every step in full. I have elsewhere talked about these things in some detail and the present topic does not call for any discussion on that point i.e. preparation of tape script and notes for visual part.

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ON AUDIO—VISUAL AIDS.

L. N. Mittal

One would agree with the author that the language is more of a 'skill subject' rather than a "content-subject". The fact is more explicit in a second-language-learning situation. Therefore, the author has rightly emphasised on the use of A. V. aids in foreign language teaching.

The paper is divided into several sections. After reading the long paper one may be disappointed in the sense that one would have thought that the author would have dealt with the application of the various audio-visual aids in (second) language teaching programmes rather than the importance of A. V. aids in language teaching. We, of course, all know that A. V. aids play a significant part in language teaching and training programmes.

Audio-aids are now, extensively, used in second language teaching by the way of language laboratories. But language laboratories may also be of different types such as AAC, AA or AP. Therefore, the use of LL (language laboratories) in second language teaching will depend more in terms of the facilities available and the capacity of the language teacher in using such facilities. Thus the most important aspect of the use of the language laboratories is not the handling of the equipments but preparing the programmes for the various grades.

The LLs should not only be confined to teaching of phonological discriminations, as is believed or, at least practised in most cases in India. Grammatical patterns and structural drills could also be administered through LLs. In an ordinary class-room AP facilities can be provided for a very nominal cost. The facility then, can be

used by the teacher in a normal class-room situation without taking the bother of taking the students to different places where LLs are situated.

I would like to classify the visual aids into two categories..... projected and non-projected. Now, this classification in a language teaching programme is of great importance because whereas the projected visual aids could not be used in an ordinary class-room without the additional facilities of darkening the room and the services of a projectionist etc. the non projected aids can be handled by the teacher himself as supplementary aids.

The author has discussed the use of the teaching machines, the television and the radio at length. We should perhaps, view all the A V aids in Indian contexts. Presently the regular Television services in India do not provide any special programmes in the field of language teaching. Now one prohibitive for many language-teaching institutions—even, at places where facilities of CCT are available for example in I. I. Ts, this has not yet been used in India for language teaching programmes.

The author has not dealt with inexpensive non—projected visual aids such as flannelgraph. This can be extensively used in second language teaching. Flannelgraphs can also be used for naming objects as well as for structural drills : substitution, expansion and concord.

SOME PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING A SECOND LANGUAGE WITH A SPECIAL REFERENCE TO HINDI

K. J. Mahale

Language learning has become an art by itself. While a child learns its mother tongue almost mechanically, it experiences difficulties, sometimes latent, sometimes obvious, in learning the second or third language.

The problem of learning a second language has to be viewed from various angles. It depends on the status and the position of the second language. It further depends upon the geographical and cultural factors as well. It may depend also on the objectives for the fulfilment of which the language is studied. Methodology adopted for teaching or learning a second language will come also in the picture. Methodology will depend, in its turn, on the teaching materials and the trained teachers available during a given period of time.

In olden days, a second language such as Sanskrit, Greek or Latin and even for that matter European Languages like French and German were studied as dead languages, not only in India but also in the advanced countries of the world. A student was expected to read, understand and translate the classics from the foreign language into the mother tongue or into some other foreign language. There was no emphasis on the oral part of learning a language. Consequently, even after studying for years together a person was not able to speak well a living language like French or German. It is now felt that this approach is faulty. It is well established that a person has faculty of learning a language not only by visual means but also by aural means. In the past the aural faculty was neglected and stress was given only on the visual part of it. It is now possible to expedite the learning of a language by exploiting both sorts of faculty of learning a language : oral and visual.

While accepting the above-mentioned position about theoretical possibilities of learning a second language, it is necessary to take into consideration the objectives for which it will be learnt. Very few people in the world speak today Latin, Greek or Sanskrit. So it is pointless to insist on the spoken aspects of these languages. And yet the study of these languages is essential for the general culture and formation of the mind of the people. In such cases the purpose will be served if a student is able to read, understand and write in the language concerned.

Similarly, if a scholar has to use a language for consulting library documents, it may not be necessary for him to be well up in speaking that language. For example, if a scientist is not required to communicate his findings by delivering lectures in a language, which is used by him just as a library language, his purpose will be served when he acquires proficiency in reading science literature in that language. It is, therefore, necessary to take into account the language itself and the purpose for which it is being studied.

The nature of the problem becomes different if we consider the question of living languages such as Chinese, English, French, German, Hindi, Russian, Spanish as against the classical languages like Hebrew, Greek, Latin and Sanskrit. Here again the purpose for which the language is studied can not be lost sight of. While it may be true that a scientist need not give stress on the oral aspects of any living language used as a library language, a person having to deal with people speaking it will have to be quite proficient in speaking it as well. It will not be enough for an Indian student whose mother tongue is a regional language to acquire proficiency just in reading and writing texts in a living language like English. He will have to be trained in speaking it also.

Now let us turn our attention to Hindi. The question of Hindi in my opinion, has to be viewed from four or five angles.

First, it is the language spoken by the largest number of Indians in the country. According to the 1971 census 153,729,062 people claim this language as their mother tongue. To teach this language as mother tongue, we shall have to follow one approach. We are not concerned with it in this paper. We are concerned with teaching Hindi as a second language.

Who will learn it as a second language ? Hindi will be a second language in India to those whose mother tongue is other than Hindi. Here again, we will have to make a distinction between Indians and Indians. For some Indians, whose mother tongue is derived from the Indo-Aryan family of Languages, Hindi will be a sister language in relation to their own mother tongue. It will be easier for such people to learn Hindi as a second language. On the contrary, for the people speaking languages belonging to the Dravidian group of languages such as, Tamil, Telugu, Kannada, Malayalam, the learning of Hindi as a second language will be a little more difficult than for those whose mother tongue is an Aryan language.

Thirdly, Hindi may be learnt as a foreign language by foreigners in a foreign country.

Fourthly, Hindi may be learnt as a second language for just functional purposes by tourists or by scholars who may require the knowledge of this language for specific and limited purposes only.

Fifthly, there are many border regions in the country where a child is exposed to two languages quite early in his life. Similarly, in cosmopolitan cities like Delhi, Bombay, Banglore, Calcutta etc., a person whose mother tongue is other than Hindi, is exposed to this language in day-to-day affairs of life. How can such persons perfect their knowledge of Hindi ?

In general, it can be stated that a second language can be studied almost to a perfection if the language itself is standardised. Which is the standard version of Hindi for both spoken and written purposes ? What scientific materials do we possess by which we can master Hindi as a second language ?

It is the experience of many teachers of second languages that a language can be learnt more effectively, if the oral part of it is taught first long before a student is exposed to the reading or writing of it. The student of a second language must be exposed to the standard sound patterns of the language. It is therefore, essential that the sound patterns and internal structures of the second language must be taught on scientific basis.

The learning of a second language is also facilitated by a comparative study of the mother tongue and the second language. Once

the structures of the two languages involved are compared, it becomes easy for a student to master the second language. To facilitate the study of Hindi as a second language, it is necessary to make available comparative studies of Hindi and the mother tongue of the learner.

The learning of a language is closely associated with the knowledge of the culture of the people speaking that language. This is true in the case of the second languages also. It is, therefore, more and more felt that the teaching of a second language should not be dissociated from the cultural background of the people speaking that language. A student from a Latin American country learning Hindi will necessarily have to be told about the culture of Indians who speak Hindi as their mother tongue.

The teaching of literature in the second language must be postponed till the learner acquires sufficient command over the language, till he really is in a position to understand or appreciate great works of literature in that language. In earlier stages literary extracts of contemporary writings may be used as examples of the language in vogue.

The selection of students for learning second language should be carefully done. Language learning becomes ineffective unless learners have motivation to learn the languages. As M.A.K. Halliday puts it, "Acquiring a positive reason for learning a language will help a pupil to learn it, while a negative motivation may make it impossible for a pupil to learn at all effectively".

Since the learner of a second language has to be thoroughly drilled in the acquisitions of new skills, the ideal number of students for a class would be fifteen to twenty; in no case more than twenty.

The teaching of a second language depends much on the methodology. With the help of the modern equipments such as radio, television, tape-recorders, language laboratories, projectors, film strips etc., the learning of a second language is facilitated to a great extent. But to use these equipments one has to make constant research and develop teaching aids. The text-books and other teaching aids are to be well graded. They are to be carefully written, based on the recent findings of psychologists and linguists

and also on the purposes for which the second language is being learnt.

The teachers have to be previously trained in the pedagogy of language teaching and in the use of the modern equipments. A specialist in literature is not necessarily a good teacher of language. Language teaching has become a discipline by itself.

Attention has also to be paid to the class-room. If the learner has to get a correct idea of the standard sound patterns of a language, the class-room must be acoustically good. This aspect appears to be often neglected ; yet it is very important for language teaching.

If Hindi is to be taught effectively and rapidly as a second language, all these points will have to be borne in mind. Special books and softwear will have to be prepared. The field in this respect appears to be quite vergin. There is a great scope for hard work and research.

THEORIES OF LANGUAGE TEACHING & MATERIALS PREPARATION

V. R. Jagannathan

In spite of the contention that linguistics and language teaching are different though inter-related disciplines the close relationship between them has been quite amazing. In fact the field of language teaching has engaged the attention of almost all linguistic theorists starting from Henry Sweet through Bloomfield, R. R. Firth, to modern linguists like Chomsky and Halliday. But the relationship is not superficial or imaginary. Linguistics describes language and language teaching takes language to the classroom. It is only too appropriate for the teacher to know how languages are described so that he can devise better ways to take language to the learners. On the corollary, the theorist wants to know whether his description of language can do the work better. Thus linguistics (i. e. description of a language) was never away from the teacher and the age old grammar-translation method used the description of language in the classroom.

The second important contribution of linguistics to the field of language teaching is in the rise and propagation of different methods. The field of language has not been contended with some description of language given to that. In fact it has also faced all the polemics and academic exchanges as the theory itself has. No other 'applied' field of linguistics has so closely moved with the paternal discipline. The rise of different methods of teaching languages have some underlying current of linguistic theory, which has caused the pedagogists to construe upon some learning theories on the basis of the linguistic theory and propound his method accordingly.

Even the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) which was in vogue long before modern linguistics was organised, has some linguistic theory behind it. It visualises the dual aspect of languages

to be taught—form (structure) and function (meaning). It resorts to grammar for explaining form and translation to deliver the content to the learners. The teaching of grammar could be made possible, because well worked out grammars of the classical Languages were available to scholars since long.

This system was in vogue since the days when the classical languages were taught in schools or institutions, as an intellectual discipline. Language, those days, was not only a medium of communication and the study of languages certainly was not for that purpose. So the study of those languages through this method was perhaps not in any way defective.

Later language teachers who rallied under the banner of 'Direct' methodists found fault with this method. According to them this method was not suited for modern languages. Translation was not appropriate as a means of explaining cultural contexts or syntactic constructions peculiar to a language. Modern linguistic studies showed that the traditional grammatical descriptions were quite apart and non-cognizable in different languages. On the pedagogical level, the student participation in the class was nil, and this hindered his learning the skills of fluent oral expression. As materials for teaching, this method uses texts taken out from the writings of various authors, with all their peculiarities as the use of high flown, archaic and varied vocabulary, dialectical as well as idiosyncratic usages, different styles, and, important of all, rich in literary content. The teacher, unable to attend to all these language variations settles down to teaching of the literary content. Thus there is the fear of the very objective of language teaching being lost. Little can be said in defence of this method except that it served the purpose of teaching classical languages well, until there came a shift in the objectives of teaching modern languages.

The Direct Method (DM) started in the late 19th century, came as a reaction to the GTM. It was based on the linguistic observation that children do learn their languages without recourse to either grammar or translation, even adults could learn language the same way. Thus it religiously eschews both these techniques of the erstwhile method.

The DM teacher started the course with a few classes for teaching the sound system, over a long period at times. The teacher

would introduce the language in situations in the classroom and in common situations of life when readily available. The teacher would explain meaning by concrete representation; sketches, mimicking and gestures, or explanations through the same language. Reading started only after the students had ample oral practice. This method has another premises based on the modern linguistic insights. It considered sentence the basic unit of speech. The sentences should be used in useful and meaningful contexts. The students could learn grammar inductively through the target language at same or later stage.

The DM caught the imagination of many scholars and spread widely around. It was adopted in quite a few nations as the 'modern method' appropriate to teach languages. But this also had its critics and bad points. The fundamental question raised against the basic theory of the method is that it lost sight of the differences between language acquisition by children and the learning of a second language by an adult. The adult learner has a set of language formulations in his mind which keeps on prodding on the structure of the language he is trying to learn. Secondly to a large extent it was incompatible to present natural situations in the class room as well as plan the structural points to be taught in the class-room. Thus 'in unplanned discourse which arises from a situation created in the class room, all kinds of structures may be heard or be needed by the speakers.....In the DM there was not sufficient provision for systematic practice of structures in a planned sequence. As a result, students often lacked a clear idea of what they were trying to do and made haphazard progress (Rivers 1969 : 21). As it spread to the average school, however it began to decline because it demanded highly competent teachers willing to spend a great deal of time and energy on each lesson, for results which were not always worth the effort. Teachers gradually drifted back to same forms of the grammar-translation approach" (Mackey 1969 : 147).

The DM was not much known in USA, till rather late. In 1927 the Coleman report suggested that in a period of two years of language study the only objective that could be attained was reading ability. This influenced planning of second language teaching in the USA which adopted a method called the Reading Method (RM). The RM was akin to the DM in its initial phase of pronunciation

training, oral practice for developing comprehension as oral practice was considered to be helpful in reading and writing. Translation either as a teaching device or testing was not resorted to extensive reading and some writing was stressed in the later stages of programme. As a counter to the criticism against DM, graded rapid readers were prepared to assist the learners. But this method did not offer to bridge the gap between graded reading and ungraded reading materials at later stages, where the teacher and the learners were left to grope for stabler grounds. Thus the problem of communication still remained as the students were not able to speak the language beyond the very simple structures already learnt.

The next major development in the field of language teaching is the Audio-lingual method (ALM), also called 'Oral-Aural method' or 'Structural method' by others and described by many other names as the Mimicry-Memorization method, the Dialogue-Drill method, and the like. We should remember that this method arose in the wake of Bloomfieldian 'structuralism'. Another factor which contributed to the development of ALM is the development in modern technology which made available a whole range of gadgetry for use in teaching, alongwith the prescribed texts.

Bloomfield based his theory of language description on the basis of behavioural psychology, and described a single speech act as an interaction, where each response is stimulated. Thus the stimulus-response chains constitute the speech chain. Thus language itself is an observable social behaviour. On the formal side, the structure of language was described to contain different inter-linked structural systems as phonology, near phonology and syntax which could be observed empirically from the speech behaviour of individuals. As the speech could be observed and responses could evoke the proper response, he chose to keep meaning away from the structural description. 'Bloomfield' begins by excluding both mind and matter from linguistics on the ground that the linguist is not competent to deal with problems of psychology or physiology. Meaning can not be analysed through linguistics. He also maintained that speech is the primary form of stimulus and script was only secondary.

The possible application of linguistic insights to the teaching of foreign languages came to the attention of people perhaps for the first time. The linguists were joined by a team of anthropologists ;

to whom language appears as an activity learnt in the social life of a people just as were other culturally determined acts. Language use was a set of habits, established; as later behaviourist research in psychology was to suggest, by reinforcement or reward in the social situation. The wartime need of teaching foreign languages quickly and effectively was a goading factor in the interest of linguists in language teaching. Bloomfield himself has written about language teaching. He was followed in spirit by many American scholars, notably C. C. Fires.

The ALM is based on the following assumptions as seen by Rivers in a well known and clear description of this school.

1. Language is speech. So speech is primary and script is secondary.

2. Language is a set of habits. This assumption had three corollaries—(a) that habits are strengthened by reinforcement, (b) that foreign language habits are formed by giving correct responses rather than by making mistakes, and (c) that it can be taught only if the student is made to 'behave' in the language.

3. Language is best learnt through practice of analogous sentences, which are basic for its use.

4. Meaning should be learnt in the cultural matrix of the target language.

He has included the following features in his later work :

5. Teach the language and not about the language.

6. A language is what its speakers say, and not what someone thinks they ought to say.

7. Languages are different.

One can see the features of structural linguistics in these assumptions.

The procedural outlines of ALM in the preparation of materials are like this—

The four skills of language are taught in the order of listening, speaking, reading and writing. The emphasis in the early stages is on the form of the language that is spoken in every day life, moving at advanced levels to more complex and diversified forms. In the initial stages the language is introduced through a small dialogue of

about 20 lines, which the students are asked to memorise and mimic through structural drills (otherwise called pattern practice) like repetition, substitution. This forms the main activity of the class. Generally any mention of grammar is avoided and it is considered that the learner himself will arrive inductively at structural formulations. Reading and writing is started only when the learners have mastered the oral-aural skills.

Before we attempt to review the ALM it would be better to have a look at transformational-generative grammar (TG) and its implications on language teaching. As I have stated at the outset, the controversies in the field of language teaching are not its own creation and that the contribution of linguistics to the field of language teaching is seen in the methods developed. In fact the field of teaching is the best testing ground for linguistic theories. Many learning theories have been formulated on the basis of observations of child language-acquisition, adult second-language learning and language comprehension.

The name of B. F. Skinner will be remembered with indebtedness for the impact he had on language teaching theories which were based on behaviourist psychology. Long before he had codified his theory, an American scholar S. Pressey had experimented with programmes for 'teaching machines' in 1924. But teaching machines is not the same a 'programme' as described by Skinner. It is his theory of learning that captivated the imagination of educational psychologists.

Skinner considers learning as a change in behaviour. Even before him psychologists had described behaviour unitary activity of stimulus and response ; the stimulus functioning as a conditioning for the response (reflex). He found from experiments with animals that if a response is reinforced (rewarded), then it is more likely to seem as desired. The improper response is not condoned (rewarded) and the learner learns through a 'series of successive approximations' with the same stimulus until he gets the reward. Thus the programmes can bring about the desired change of behaviour in the learners through a fore-mediated stimulus-response chain, which controls and carefully guides the learning environment of the learners.

The way of conducting a student from the initial behaviour to

the terminal behaviour is called a 'programme'. Hence the method is called 'programmed instruction' or 'programmed learning.' A programme consists of 'frames,' each frame comprises a question (stimulus) and a correct answer (response). The reward in the case of such an instruction is that the learner checks up his answer with the correct answer given alongwith and moves on to the next frame if he is correct. Otherwise he is required to repeat the frame till he can achieve the change of behaviour.

PL (Programmed Learning) has a few finer points and has some edge over some existing models in some respects. The student has to participate actively in the programme. He has not to wait for his teacher to tell him whether he is right or wrong, as his responses are immediately reinforced at each step, since the frames have an inbuilt testing device throughout. The whole programme is divided into small, effective frames, which do not burden the learner. With a proper programme at the disposal of learner, he can go through the act of learning at a pace suitable for him. The Skinnerian model was a uni-linear programme, where each student was required to go through the same steps, whereas in later models the learner has a choice before him to move on to any suitable frame. Thus he is able to cut down learning time, if he can go through the learning activity soon. The theory of reinforcement is more true in regard to language, where verbal interaction depends mostly on reinforced verbal habits except for the fact that the reinforcement in PL takes place in a contrived class-room situation.

Opinions regarding PL range from the fact that no other discipline lends itself so well to SL (Second language) teaching as PL, to this that *programmed* SL instruction has not yet been shown to be capable of going beyond 'language like behaviour' to produce language competence. Attention has been drawn to the shortcomings of PL by scholars, as is done in all other cases. Most of them say that the rather fixed routine of going through present frame robs the teaching activity of the way to develop creative expressive faculties in learners. They get to know the language but lack the ability to communicate. "Programmes must distinguish clearly between grammatical expertise and oral fluency. On the whole programmed instruction has concerned itself with data teaching, more than with skill teaching and as a result most language programmes have tackled language from the traditional written grammar based standpoint."

Even if the programmes were to be administered orally, it can not proceed without giving language 'rules' as stimulus in the frames and this means a major shift in the objectives. The programming is more suited for motor skills as writing than for a very complex organisation as language structures.

Through PL follows, by virtue of its scheming, the deductive method of TG-model, some of the seathing criticism against it, has come from transformationalists. Chomsky, in his review of Skinner's Verbal Behaviour', has vehemently opposed the stimulus response theory. Transformationalists have reservations about ALM as well as PL, and maintain that there are certain aspects of native-language by-reinforcement theory.' More has been discussed in this regard later in this paper.

The microwave modular approach to language teaching is the latest of teaching models in the field. This approach was codified by Earl W. Stevick of Foreign Service Institute of USA in 1971, who after his long association with the language programmes of the Institute and experimentation with materials in different programmes, gave it the shape of a theory. Instead of calling it a 'method' he calls it an approach or a format for the development of materials.

The word 'microwave' derived from communication engineering is indicative of different aspects of language (channels) to be taught through a single lesson (line). The history of the method can be traced to Thomas Cummings, who realised that the creative learning of a language can be induced by a chain of questions and meaningful answers appropriate in the situation, thus combined into interesting texts. It thus became the historical source of what was called 'microwave' format for writing language lessons.....its meaning was that the length of one 'cycle' (defined as the length of time from first introduction of an item and its use in communication) was extremely short (Stevick 1971 : 312). 'A microwave cycle has a basic utterance and four to eight rejoinders. A Microwave cycle is divided into an M-phase and a C-phase, where 'M' stands for mimicry-memorisation & manipulation. This phase helps practice through repetition, substitution and other drills; alongwith explaining the inner structure. The C-phase follows the M-phase. 'C' stands for Communication, Conversation and Continuity. It combines the

elements of the M-phase along with materials from earlier lessons and ritualistic expressions which are not covered under structural positions and which are useful in a situation.

The main feature of this approach is that it is not a rigid method to be honestly followed. It is, unlike other methods which are 'too massive and too permanent' (Stevick 1971 ; 38) flexible and gives a certain amount of leeway to both students and teachers for their creativity. The label 'modular' pertains to this aspect of this approach. The modular principle may be applied on at least two different scales. On a larger scale it means that instead of having drills, notes, dialogues etc. all printed and bound in a single bulky volume this contains different lessons (modules) which can be used (or thrown away) individually or in different combinations. According to him the approach should have five basic assumptions—(i) people learn features of a language best if they use those features immediately for their own purposes, instead of just mimicking, memorizing and manipulating forms ; (ii) *Organisation*—Linguistic features—phonological, grammatical and lexical should be introduced in some order and class room procedures should also be organised ; (iii) *responsiveness*—There is variation in language aptitude, emotional involvement, motivation, lexical content and in method between individuals ; (iv) *responsibility*—students and instructors should feel some control over the content as well as the method ; and (v) *pluralism*—No one format, and no one system, however ingenious can be sufficient for even one student or group of students. Inside a lesson too, the components have been so arranged that one need use only those which suit him.

The materials developer thus should have the following three qualities—(i)—*strength*—the content should be relevant to the present and likely future needs of the learner ; the materials should be authentic, both culturally and linguistically ; (ii) each lesson should evenly weigh, in length, selection of items etc ; (iii) should be easy to understand. The lessons should be plotted in each of the three dimensions *linguistic, social and topical*. The social dimension lists the kind of people with whom the student needs to interact. The topical is at right angles to the social dimension and suggests the topics or situations in which one has to talk.

The lessons should be evaluated for the following four compo-

nents ; (i) Each lesson should contain a number of clear suggestions for using the language. (ii) Each lesson should contain a sample of how language is used (iii) The student should be able to expand his ability to find the right word at the right moment. (iv) The lesson guides the student in exploring such matters as relationship in both form and meaning in different structures.

The microwave-modular approach to language teaching is not a method as has been categorically stated by Stevick. In fact it is a novel idea of channelising the activities of the materials developer, the classroom teacher and the students in areas which could not be included in the ALM. It tries to bridge the gap between drill situations in the class room and actual communication situations; a lacuna which was pointed out by the opponents of the ALM and “it contains no radical suggestion or new departures in language teaching methodology. But it does reflect certain new insights of anthropologists, psychologists, and linguists that indicate directions we might profitably pursue in our class room activities.....activities which hopefully, will culminate in the students ability to communicate in given socio-linguistic situations in an appropriate manner and with acceptable language competence “(Garner & Schutz Jr—1970).

The TG model was propounded by Noam Chomsky in 1957, (Lyons 1971 : 97) who drew inspiration from various fields of study such as philosophy, psychology, symbolic logic, traditional Indian linguistic thought etc. in formulating his theory. His theory was diagonally opposed to that of Bloomfield's. In fact ‘Bloomfieldian’ linguistics was remarkably and at times ostentatiously, uninterested in general theoretical questions ; whereas Chomsky is strongly opposed to the mechanistic view of Bloomfield which holds language to be a physical act, formed by force of habit or the radical behaviourism of Skinner, who does not differentiate between human and animal learning. His view, is mentalistic and he considers language to be a mechanism of mind and thinks (unlike Bloomfield who considers all languages to be different) that all languages are governed by the same mechanism.

Chomsky repudiates and rejects almost everything in the structuralist theory. According to him language is too complex a mechanism to be handled by stimulus-response theory and habit formation. The basic point in TG—grammer is the ‘competence’ of the language speaker, who by intuitive knowledge of the complex

system of rules in language through in-built formalisations can know the grammaticality of the sentences and its overt 'performance' by which he can generate an infinite number of sentences correct response theory of habit formation by structuralists by saying that language competence is established in the first place from a study of sentences which are samples of performances, but once a theory of competence is elaborated, it can prove invaluable in the study of the more complex aspects of performance (Rivers 1969 : 64-5). All human beings are born with the innate capacity to learn languages. Human beings learn language by a cognitive process of generalisations rather than through the associate process expounded by the behaviourists.

One of the most striking factors about his theory of language is its creativity—which can not be explained through behaviourism—through which even children could wield the language for expression. 'The behaviourists' 'learning theory', however successful it might be in accounting for the way in which certain networks of 'habits and associations' are built up in the 'behaviour patterns' of animals and human beings is totally incapable of explaining 'creativity'—an aspect of human 'behaviour' manifest most clearly (though perhaps not exclusively) in language. Chomsky questions the very word 'habit' in human faculties which are creative. He says that 'there is no sense of 'habit' known to psychology 'in which language use can be described as a grammatical habit'.

To sum up the controversy in the field of language teaching I would say that the issues under discussion concerning the devices of teaching or the ways of producing lessons or the use of drills in the class room are not newer ones. The methods form the linguistic insight provided by the linguistic theories and in this case the controversy between structuralism and transformation theory is a very significant one in that it explains, though in part, the development of knowledge not only in one thinking but in human thinking as a whole. Thus there is a basic shift in the theories of learning and the whole field of teaching methodology is undergoing a change. The ALM theorists are trying to come out with an answer levelled by the TG-grammarians, who, in their turn are trying to make use of the new theory in planning for the language curriculum.

Now let us discuss in some details, the points raised by both the ALM and TG proponents. The view regarding internalisation

of speech is very valid and behaviourism has not any answer. Behaviourism recognizes an inward activity when someone is actually thinking a thought, but says nothing about an inward capacity except in terms of conditioned reflexes. In fact this is not all the blame of structuralists, except that they had fervently followed a school of psychology which they had not tested minutely. 'In short, if structuralists had worked a little harder the new school might not be able to embarrass them by encroaching on what perhaps does not belong as part of language at all. The imaging lend of psychology, 'On the side of teaching, this argument simpler that the learner, through practice of structural drilling, can not internalise the rule, which form the basis of creative learning. This is a valid statement as from experience I know that the habit formation device has two major drawbacks. It contains mechanical drills like repetition and substitution which do not aid formation of language competence. There is always the fear of the learner going well through a substitution drill without ever knowing the meaning of the sentences he 'generates'. Secondly the structural frames called the substitution table may not contain only a single underlying structure. Most teachers who have not an insight into language, would get bogged down in the surface structure level only. This creates a problem, as far as teaching is concerned. Instead of internalising the structure, he is seen struggling to understand the seeming similarity"..... dependence on analogy for the construction of new utterances can be as misleading as it is helpful. The student, having an incomplete knowledge is unable to determine the limits within which analogy may be applied (Rivers 1969 : 77-8). So unless a table is well defined contextually this trouble is bound to occur in each step of learning, because one can not go from surface grammar to deep grammar by way of induction (Bolinger 1978). Let us take the following examples from Hindi to substantiate this statement.

The next important area, where the ALM is vulnerable for attack is its contention that speech is primary, and reading secondary. This assumption stems from the structuralists' view that the basic data of linguistics is speech sounds. Writing is secondary because script is again a symbol of sounds. This argument loses sight of a few practical problems. One, a visual representation of the language helps the learner master both the systems as they are mutually inforced and he can retain language longer. Robert L. Copper maintains that no skill is easy that it be learnt in a fixed order. Students learn that which is taught to them. He cites the

experiment conducted by Cohorer and Wertherier to measure the effectiveness of ALM and, GTM, in teaching German to American College students. After a year of instruction "the audiolingually taught students were superior to the traditionally taught students in listening comprehension and speaking but inferior to them in reading and writing. It would seem therefore that the primary of speech is best justified as an assumption when spoken skills are the primary goals of instruction." (Cooper 1970).

Though Chomsky and his followers had collectively put the principles of structuralism to onslaught and have suggested alternatives, they have not come up with any theory or method of teaching languages, because linguistic insights are not language teaching. Though books like Paul Roberts' 'English Syntax' is an indication of the potentials and future possibilities of direct application of linguistic theories, Chomsky himself is rather doubtful about the significance of such insights and understanding as have been attained in linguistics and psychology for the teaching of language. (Chomsky 1966) The teaching of a language is a very complex system with different kinds of activities purported to meet different needs of the learners. Chomsky points out that "it is difficult to believe that either linguistics or psychology has achieved a level of theoretical understanding that might enable it to support a 'technology' of language teaching."

The problem of the teacher is not which one of the methods he should select or which of the skills he should teach first. In spite of the fact that theorists have tried to impress the teacher or the material developer with latest thinking in the field, the basic problem is still hanging aloof. As the masters have rightly put it, language teaching is not all what the theorists have said. It is a differrent field which in addition to be linguistic component includes pedagogical as welll as organisational components. The first two supply the attitudes, the facts, the theories, the techniques and the methods, by which teachers guide their professional activities' (Halliday 1968 : 276).

Secondly, the problems discussed in a theoretical frame work are not the same or do not have the same verve as the practical problems faced by the teacher in the class room. I can say from my experience that no phonetic studies or contrastive phonemic analysis can list out the problem points in teaching pronunciation, because there are other dark spots arising due to the script of one or both the

MT (Mother Tongue) and OT (Other Tongue). A similar problem is the definition of 'basic' sentences to be taught in a graded syllabus. What is basic to the AL methodist may not be basic to the TG grammarian and vice versa. Hence the need to detach linguistics from language teaching. Once the teacher has been given some knowledge of the former, he could be left to himself to experiment and evaluate different methods.

The need to keep aside Linguistic theories is felt due to the basic difference of the areas of study. Any linguistic theory is the same for all learners and there cannot be different theories of a model for different persons. But the language teacher will have to modify his course according to the age, social, lingual, vocation and other differences among the learners.

I have depicted that the field of language teaching has three inter linked facts of materials, method and training elsewhere (Jagannathan 1972). Both the method (the way of teaching) and materials will vary according to the variables in the learners and proper training programme to the situation. Both research and evaluation will constitute the core or nucleus of this tripartite arrangement. The materials producer and the teacher should constantly experiment with and evaluate their work. (It would not be out of place to mention here that similar experiments are being conducted at the Central Institute of Hindi in the preparation of purpose-oriented function goal-bound, graded, skill-oriented courses, which are not tied to any one of the other methods.) I would like to conclude by saying that linguistics occupies only a small though central place in language teaching and the method maker should be conscious enough not to belittle the other important thing in planning a curriculum.

हिंदी भाषा-शिक्षण के लिए उपलब्ध सामग्री : एक समीक्षा

कैलाश चन्द्र भाटिया

वैसे काफी पहले से भाषा-शिक्षण के लिए अनेक पद्धतियां अपनायी जा रही हैं, पर इधर पिछले दो दशक से द्वितीय भाषा के रूप में भाषा की शिक्षण-पद्धति में आमूल-मूल परिवर्तन हुआ है। विशेषतः भाषाविज्ञान की उपयोगिता को भाषा-शिक्षण के लिए भी स्वीकार कर लिया गया है। मनोविज्ञान से तो पहले से सहायता ली ही जा रही थी, पर इधर भाषा-विज्ञान तथा मनोविज्ञान दोनों का समन्वित रूप विकसित हुआ है। भाषा-प्राध्यापकों को मातृभाषा-शिक्षण से भिन्न विशिष्ट पद्धतियों की आवश्यकता का अनुभव अपने छात्रों को विदेशी भाषा या विदेशियों को अपनी भाषा पढ़ाते समय हुआ। अमेरिका एवं रूस में विदेशी भाषाओं के प्रशिक्षण की आवश्यकता तथा व्यवस्था का विशेष महत्व रहा है। 1942 में अनेक विश्वविद्यालयों से विदेशी भाषाओं का कोर्स प्रारम्भ हुआ और अप्रैल 1942 में अमेरिका में (Language Courses of the Army Specialised Training Programme) आरम्भ किया गया। इसी के अन्तर्गत 'बोलचाल की हिन्दुस्तानी' (स्पोकन हिन्दुस्तानी) का कोर्स भी तैयार किया गया जिसका प्रकाशन 1945 में हुआ। मानसिक परिवेश तथा भाषा सीखने की प्रक्रिया की दृष्टि से दूसरी भाषा का अर्जन पर्याप्त भिन्न होता है।

प्रथम भाषा की तरह द्वितीय भाषा का विकास बालक के आत्मसंस्कार के साथ नहीं होता। प्रथम भाषा तो बालक स्वतः सामाजिक परिवेश में सीख जाता है जबकि द्वितीय भाषा सप्रयास सीखी अथवा सिखाई जाती है। ज्यों-ज्यों विश्व एक इकाई बनता जा रहा है द्वितीय भाषा-शिक्षण का महत्व बढ़ता जा रहा है।

द्वितीय भाषा के बढ़ते हुए महत्व से बड़ी तेजी से अनेक शिक्षण पद्धतियां विकसित हुई हैं जिनके पूर्व परम्परागत शिक्षण-पद्धति ही चल रही थी। काफी समय तक प्रत्यक्ष (डाइरेक्ट) प्रणाली, अनुवाद प्रणाली तथा परम्परागत और प्रत्यक्ष प्रणाली का मिश्रित रूप चलता रहा, पर इधर पिछले दो दशकों से सबसे राजभाषा के रूप में हिंदी का प्रयोग भारत तथा भारतेतर देशों में बढ़ा तो कई नवीन पद्धतियां विकसित हुईं जिनका प्रयोग हिंदी-शिक्षण में भी किया जाने

लगा। अधुनातन पद्धति में भाषा सीखने की सहज प्रक्रिया पर बल दिया गया। इसके बाद नवीन पद्धतियों में तुलनात्मक व्यतिरेकी, क्रमबद्ध अध्ययन, प्रकार्यात्मक, संरचनात्मक, सूक्ष्म भाषा विज्ञान के सिद्धांतों पर आधारित अनेक पद्धतियां विकसित हुई हैं जिनका प्रयोग हिंदी शिक्षण में भी किया जा रहा है। आज भाषा शिक्षण में व्याकरण के नियमों से अधिक बल ध्वनिविवेचन, ध्वन्यानुकरण, भाषण वाकसंश्लेष, अचेतन स्मरण, वाक्यसांचा प्राभ्यास आदि पर बल दिया जाता है। वस्तुतः द्वितीय भाषा-शिक्षण अन्य विषयों की तरह केवल वस्तु ज्ञान मात्र प्रदान करना नहीं वरन् उच्चारण, वाक्य में पद-रचना, पद-संयोजन, पद-समता, आदि का अभ्यास करवा कर एक नया भाषा-संस्कार उत्पन्न कराना है। यह सब कुछ भाषा के गहन अध्ययन से ही सम्भव है जिसमें सभी उपयुक्त प्रणालियों के साथ-साथ भाषा प्रयोग-शाला, फिल्म प्रदर्शन, प्रत्यक्ष दर्शन आदि की पर्याप्त सहायता ली जाती है।

यहां विवेच्य विषय है 'द्वितीय भाषा के रूप में हिन्दी भाषा-शिक्षण के लिए उपलब्ध सामग्री की समीक्षा'। इस दिशा में पर्याप्त कार्य हुआ है जिसके फलस्वरूप जो उपयोगी सामग्री आज उपलब्ध है, वह हिन्दी के महत्व को प्रतिपादित करती है। देश-विदेश में प्राप्त सभी उपलब्ध सामग्री को यहां समीक्षार्थ लेना सम्भव नहीं है। उपलब्ध शिक्षण सामग्री में विभिन्न पद्धतियां अपनाई गई हैं क्योंकि प्रत्येक सामग्री की पृष्ठभूमि में भिन्न लक्ष्य रहे हैं जिनकी ओर लेखकों की दृष्टि बनी रही, जिससे वे वांछित उद्देश्य को प्राप्त कर सकें। यहां उल्लेखनीय एक और बात है कि द्वितीय भाषा-शिक्षण की पद्धति एक भाषा से दूसरी भाषा के संदर्भ में बदलती रहती है। भारतवासियों को हिंदी सिखाना और विदेशियों को (विशेषकर अमेरिकनों को) हिंदी सिखाना पर्याप्त भिन्न है। भारतीय भाषाओं की शब्दावली में तो पर्याप्त समानता है ही, वाक्य संरचना में भी समानता है। ऐसी स्थिति में भाषा तथा संस्कृति से सर्वथा अपरिचित विदेशियों को जिस पद्धति से हिंदी सिखाने के लिए सामग्री तैयार की गयी है उसकी नकल मात्र से तैयार की गई सामग्री उपयोगी, नूतन तथा भौतिक नहीं कही जा सकती, यह एक कटु सत्य है जिसे हमें स्वीकार करना चाहिए और भविष्य में शिक्षण-सामग्री तैयार करते समय इस ओर विशेष ध्यान रखना चाहिए।

विवेच्य सामग्री को कई दृष्टियों से विभाजित किया जा सकता है :

1. शिक्षण-पद्धति की दृष्टि से
2. द्वितीय भाषा के रूप में हिंदी सीखने वालों की दृष्टि से

2-1— भारतीय

2-1-1— आर्य भाषा वर्ग

2-1-2— द्रविड़ भाषा वर्ग

2-1-3— अन्य भाषा वर्ग

2-2— विदेशी

3. शिक्षण उद्देश्य की दृष्टि से

3-1— देशाटन के लिए

3-2— सामान्य कार्य संचालन के लिए

3-3— प्रशासन के लिए

4. सीखने वालों की अवस्थानुसार

4-1— बाल वर्ग

4-2— किशोर वर्ग

4-3— प्रौढ़ वर्ग

5. काल क्रमानुसार

यदि यहां काल क्रमानुसार चर्चें और साथ में शिक्षणपद्धति तथा उद्देश्य को भी ध्यान में रखें तो अधिक सुविधा रहेगी ।¹

प्रस्तुत अध्ययन में 'स्वयं शिक्षकों' को नहीं लिया जा रहा है क्योंकि स्वतन्त्रता के बाद इस प्रकार की पुस्तकों की वाढ़ आ गई है ! पर्याप्त पुस्तकें बाजारू तथा मध्यम कोटि की हैं जिनका प्रकाशन मात्र व्यापारिक दृष्टि से किया गया है, फिर भी यहां दो 'स्वयं-शिक्षक' पुस्तकों का उल्लेख करना आवश्यक समझता हूँ :

1. Hindi English Self Instructor—1928.

2. Hindi Self Taught for Non-Hindi M.Ps—1950

दोनों ही पुस्तकें अंग्रेजी के माध्यम से भारतीयों को हिंदी सिखाने के लिए लिखी गई हैं । पहली पुस्तक के लेखक हैं हिन्दी भाषा के कर्मठ प्रचारक तथा सेवक श्री एम० सत्यनारायण तथा अवधनन्दन और प्रकाशित किया है—दक्षिण भारत हिंदी प्रचार सभा मद्रास ने । पुस्तक का आमुख सुप्रसिद्ध राजनीतिज्ञ श्री सी० राजगोपालाचार्य का लिखा हुआ है जिसमें बड़े स्पष्ट शब्दों में यह घोषणा की गई है कि यदि हम यथार्थ में तथा सच्चे स्वरूप में सच्चा प्रजातन्त्र चाहते हैं और अगर हम नहीं चाहते कि शक्ति-सम्पन्न तथा प्रभावशाली पदों पर शिक्षित व्यक्ति ही कार्य करें तो हिंदी ही केंद्रीय सरकार तथा विधान सभा में (अब लोक सभा) साथ ही भारत सरकार और आपस में व्यवहार के लिए प्रयुक्त भाषा होगी । स्पष्ट शब्दों में तीसरे दशक में (सन् 1928 में) जो घोषणा की गई उसका राजनीतिक दृष्टि से आज भी महत्व है ।

पुस्तक के आरम्भ में 10 पृष्ठों की उपयोगी भूमिका है जिसमें उच्चारण तथा लिपि के पारस्परिक सम्बन्ध पर प्रकाश डाला गया है । पुस्तक में परम्परागत

प्रणाली से लिखे गये 36 पाठ हैं। 230 पृष्ठों की मूल पुस्तक व्याकरण के नियमों के आधार पर लिखी गई है। अन्त में परिशिष्ट 'अ' में भूतकाल के क्रिया रूप तथा 'ब' में वर्गीकृत शब्दावली दी गई है जिसकी संख्या लगभग 1050 है।

दूसरी पुस्तक है 'राजभाषा बोधिनी' जो अहिंदी भाषी लोकसभा के सदस्यों को छः सप्ताह में हिंदी सिखाने के उद्देश्य से लिखी गई है। प्रत्येक पाठ के प्रारम्भ में शब्द तथा शब्द-समूह देकर रोमनीकरण के साथ अंग्रेजी अनुवाद भी प्रस्तुत किया गया है। प्रारम्भ में छोटे-छोटे वाक्यों से बड़े वाक्यों की ओर चला गया है। पाठों में शब्दों के वाद जो सामग्री दी गई है उसमें एक ही विषय पर सम्बद्ध वाक्यों को दिया गया है। पाठ के अन्त में नोट में व्याकरणिक नियम दिये गये हैं। बोलचाल की भाषा में प्रतिदिन व्यवहार में आने वाले विषयों पर सामग्री दी गई है।

हिंदी सिखाने के लिए जो पाठ्यपुस्तकें तैयार की गई हैं उनमें बोलचाल की सामग्री को बोलचाल की हिंदी में ही दिया गया है। इसकी परम्परा प्रारम्भ होती है 1945 में प्रकाशित होनिग्ज़वाल्ड की स्पोकन हिन्दुस्तानी से जिसकी चर्चा प्रारम्भ में की जा चुकी है। यह पुस्तक भी स्वयं-शिक्षक जैसी ही है जिसको वस्तुतः सैनिकों के लिए लिखा गया और बाद में जन-सामान्य के लिए प्रकाशित कर दिया गया। वस्तुतः इस पुस्तक के पहले हार्लो की 'बोलचाल की हिन्दुस्तानी' (1943) उपलब्ध थी, फिर भी इस पुस्तक का विशेष महत्व है क्योंकि पहली बार इसके साथ मिर्जा जाफ़र की वाणी में रिकार्ड किए गए फोनोग्राफ़ रिकार्ड भी उपलब्ध कराए गए जिनका अंग्रेजी में अनुवाद भी दिया गया है। पहली बार हिंदी के बेसिक वाक्यों का गहन अध्ययन प्रस्तुत किया गया है, साथ में छोटे-छोटे अभ्यास पाठ, स्मरणार्थ सामग्री, बेसिक वाक्यों में आए हुए व्याकरणिक नियम भी दिए गए हैं।

लेखक ने यह ठीक ही अनुभव किया है कि हिन्दुस्तानी संसार में सर्वाधिक बोली जाने वाली भाषाओं में से एक है जिसमें हिंदी-उर्दू दोनों समाहित हैं।

पुस्तक पाँच मुख्य भागों में विभाजित है जिसके प्रत्येक भाग में पाँच अध्ययन यूनिट हैं, प्रत्येक यूनिट में कई विभाग हैं; पुस्तक दो खण्डों में विभाजित है। प्रथम खण्ड में 12 यूनिट हैं जिसके अन्त में प्रश्नों के उत्तर दिए गए हैं तथा द्वितीय खण्ड में 18 यूनिट (13 से 30) हैं।

पुस्तक की सबसे बड़ी विशेषता यही है कि उसमें बेसिक वाक्यों को दिया गया है जिसके प्रथम दो भागों में उच्चारण के संकेत तथा शेष तीन भागों में उच्चारण अभ्यास, 'ब' तथा 'स' भाग में शब्द अध्ययन व बेसिक वाक्यों की

समीक्षा, 'द' में उनका श्रवणाभ्यास, 'ई' तथा 'एफ' में वातचीत का अभ्यास। पहली बार ऐसी पुस्तक लिखी गई है जिसमें प्रत्येक इकाई (यूनिट) में कितने नये शब्दों को लिया गया है, इसकी सूची प्रस्तुत की गई है साथ ही अन्त में लगभग 1000 शब्दों को हिंदुस्तानी, अंग्रेजी तथा अंग्रेजी-हिंदुस्तानी दोनों रूपों में दिया गया है।

इसके बाद काफी समय तक इस दिशा में कोई उल्लेखनीय कृति नहीं आई। जो भी कृतियाँ हैं, वे सभी सातवें दशक की हैं। भाषा विज्ञान का प्रशिक्षण और हिंदी पाठ्य-पुस्तकों के निर्माण की बात भाषा विज्ञान के समर स्कूलों के फल-स्वरूप 1955 के आम-पास प्रारम्भ हुई जिसका फल सातवें दशक में दिखाई दिया। शिक्षा मन्त्रालय के तत्वावधान में प्रकाशित 'भाषा' में भी जो हिंदी पाठों का धारावाहिक प्रकाशन 1959-60 से प्रारम्भ हुआ उससे ही कालान्तर में 'पत्राचार पाठ्यक्रम' की नींव पड़ी और केंद्रीय हिंदी निदेशालय हिंदी पत्राचार पाठ्यक्रम बड़ी सफलता के साथ चला रहा है।

इस दशक की प्रथम पुस्तक सन् 1961 में प्रकाशित अग्यूलर तथा ब्रूस आर० प्रे द्वारा 'हिंदी में बेसिक पाठ्यक्रम' (ए बेसिक कोर्स इन हिंदी) है जिसकी प्रीति कौल जोहरी तथा ब्रजेन्द्र सिंह की सहायता से तैयार किया गया और कैलीफोर्निया, मिशीगन, आदि कई स्थानों पर जिसका परीक्षण भी किया गया। इससे यह स्पष्ट होता है कि अमेरिकनों को हिंदी सिखाने के लिए यह पुस्तक लिखी गई। यह पुस्तक हिंदी की बेसिक संरचना की भूमिका मात्र प्रस्तुत करती है जिममें बोलचाल की भाषा को महत्व दिया गया है। लेखकों ने यह स्पष्ट घोषणा की है कि पुस्तक 'स्वयं-शिक्षक' नहीं है वरन् कक्षा में मातृभाषा भाषी अनुदेशकों की सहायता ली जानी चाहिए। सामग्री को टेपांकित किया जा सकता है।

मूल पुस्तक दो भागों में विभाजित है। प्रथम भाग में ध्वनि प्रक्रिया के अन्तर्गत उच्चारण में स्वनिमों की चर्चा के साथ अनुदेशकों के लिए निदेश की हैंड-बुक तथा द्वितीय भाग में संरचना के अन्तर्गत व्याकरण 24 पाठ, 4 पूरक तथा 18 पाठों में पठन सामग्री दी गई है। अन्त में 2 परिशिष्ट लेखन व्यवस्था तथा विषय अनुक्रमणिका के हैं। मूल पुस्तक के 24 पाठों में हिंदी की संरचना की मुख्य-मुख्य विशेषताएँ हैं जिनमें से एक से नौ तक हिंदी की बेसिक रूप प्रक्रिया (लिंग-वचन अनुयोजन, क्रिया-संज्ञा समता आदि) तथा 10 से 24 तक अन्य संरचनात्मक वाक्य दिए गए हैं।

उच्चारण अभ्यास के पाठों की संख्या 38 है जिसके अन्त में चेकलिस्ट भी दी गई है। इस प्रकार की सूची किसी अन्य पुस्तक में नहीं है। संरचना अभ्यास के पाठों में साधारणतः पांच उपविभाग हैं—संरचना, व्याकरणिक टिप्पणी, अभ्यास, शब्दावली, शब्दावली-अभ्यास।

14 पाठों के अनन्तर नागरी लिपि का प्रयोग भी किया गया है। कहीं-कहीं अणुद्वियाँ भी हैं—जैसे 'अ. 3. 3.' में अंश को अंज लिखा गया है।

प्रतिदिन व्यवहार में आने वाली शब्दावली पर आधारित सामग्री पूरक पाठों में दी गई है :

1. संस्थाएं 2. समय से संबंधित अभ्यास (रिक्त स्थानों के साथ)
3. अभिवादन, सप्ताह के दिन, वर्ष के माह।

पाठ्य सामग्री 18 पाठों में दी गई है। प्रत्येक पाठ के प्रारम्भ में मूल पाठ है और बाद में शब्दावली तथा अभ्यास।

अलीगढ़ मु० विश्वविद्यालय में भी प्रारम्भिक स्तर पर उर्दू-हिंदी को अलग-अलग न मानकर 'बेसिक-हिंदी-उर्दू रीडर' दो भागों में तैयार की गई जिसका लेखन-कार्य सन् 1963 में लेखक ने पूरा किया, सहयोगी थे श्री शकील। पुस्तकों की लिपि रोमन रखी गई। इन रीडरों की सबसे बड़ी विशेषता यह थी कि सीमित शब्दावली (प्रथम भाग) में लगभग 650 तथा द्वितीय में 1050 में ही पाठ तैयार किए गए हैं जो क्रमशः सरल से कठिन होते गए हैं। प्रारम्भिक शब्दावली आक्षरिक सांचे पर आधारित है। पुस्तक के अन्त में सभी प्रयुक्त शब्दावली अकारादिक क्रम से दे दी गई है। इस पुस्तक का प्रयोग अहिंदी भाषा-भाषियों को हिंदी-उर्दू पढ़ाने के लिए किया गया।

इस क्रम की अगली पुस्तक है डा० पेन्थर वैक्स तथा पंडित द्वारा लिखित 'हिंदी ए स्पोकन एप्रोच' जिसका प्रकाशन दक्कन कालेज, पूना में 1965 में हुआ। पुस्तक आकार में छोटी, केवल 84 पृष्ठों की होते हुए भी पर्याप्त महत्वपूर्ण है। वस्तुतः यह कांसिल फार इण्डियन स्कूल सर्टिफिकेट परीक्षा, नई दिल्ली के तत्वावधान में अंग्रेजी माध्यम के स्कूलों में 7 से 9 वर्ष तक की अवस्था के बालकों के लिए उपयुक्त सामग्री तैयार करने के हेतु बुलाई गई अप्रैल-मई 1964 की 'हिंदी-कायगोष्ठी' की उपलब्धि है।

इस पुस्तक में तीन बातों पर बल दिया गया है :—

1. सांचा—अभ्यास, 2. लिपि, 3. दृश्य तथा अन्य सहायक उपकरण।

पुस्तक में 28 पाठ हैं। प्रत्येक पाठ में हिंदी का सांचा तथा प्रयुक्त शब्दावली दी गई है। यह आवश्यक नहीं कि एक पाठ में एक ही वाक्य-सांचा दिया जाए, एक से अधिक वाक्य सांचे भी हो सकते हैं, जैसे पाठ 20 में 8 सांचे जबकि पाठ 14 में 11 से अधिक सांचे दिए गए हैं। प्रत्येक पाठ में सांचे के साथ नई शब्दावली को प्रत्यक्ष प्रणाली से समझाने की व्यवस्था के साथ प्रतिस्थापन भी दिया गया है। पाठ के अन्त में दुहराना, पुनरावलोकन और नई शब्दावली की सूची दी गई है। किसी-किसी पाठ में नया सांचा तो दिया गया है पर कोई नया शब्द नहीं।

पाठों में विविध प्रकार के अभ्यास हैं। अन्तिम कुछ पाठों में वार्तालाप के अभ्यास भी दिए गए हैं।

जैसा कि स्पष्ट है कि प्रस्तुत पुस्तक कम अवस्था के उन भारतीय बच्चों के लिए लिखी गई है जो अंग्रेजी के माध्यम से पढ़े होने के कारण विदेशी तुल्य ही है।

इस दशक की महत्वपूर्ण पुस्तक है फ़ेयर बैंक्स तथा मिश्र की बोलचाल की तथा लिखित हिंदी (स्पोकन एण्ड रिटेन हिंदी) (1965-66 ई०)। यहां यह उल्लेखनीय है कि द्वितीय भाषा-शिक्षण के रूप में विश्व की अनेक भाषाओं की पुस्तकें फ़ेयर बैंक्स महोदय पहले ही लिख चुके थे और संयोग से हिंदी की पुस्तक लिखने का निश्चय किया गया। इस कार्य में बाल गोविन्द मिश्र का सहयोग मिला।

द्वितीय भाषा के रूप में हिंदी की शिक्षण-सामग्री में इस पुस्तक का विशेष महत्व है जो हिंदी प्रारम्भ करने वालों के लिए लिखी गई और आगे लिखी जाने वाली पुस्तकों का आधार बनी जैसे हैरिस तथा शर्मा की 1969 में प्रकाशित 'बेसिक हिंदी रीडर'। पुस्तक में 24 पाठ तथा 6 रिव्यू पाठ हैं जो क्रमशः प्रत्येक बार पाठ के बाद दिए गए हैं। अन्त में लगभग 1800 शब्द (हिंदी-अंग्रेजी तथा अंग्रेजी हिंदी) दिए गए हैं। प्रत्येक पाठ के तीन भाग हैं—1. वार्तालाप, 2. व्याकरण, 3. अभ्यास। प्रत्येक पाठ में 30-40 नई शब्दावली दी गई है जिसको सीखने के लिए अभ्यास भी हैं। वार्तालाप में प्रस्तुत रूप तथा व्याकरणिक नियम 'व्याकरण भाग' में दिए गए हैं। सादृश्य के आधार पर नये वाक्यों के निर्माण की क्षमता (पढ़ाई गई सीमित शब्दावली के अन्तर्गत ही) बढ़ाने के लिए प्राभ्यास दिए गए हैं।

पुस्तक के प्रारम्भ में 10 पृष्ठ 'उच्चारण' पर है जिसमें स्वर-व्यंजनों के भाषा-वैज्ञानिक विवरण, अंग्रेजी स्वर-व्यंजनों से तुलना के साथ उदाहरण मय अर्थ के प्रस्तुत किए गए हैं। मुख्य विशेषता यह भी है कि कुछ स्वरों के विशिष्ट संरचनात्मक उच्चारणों की ओर भी संकेत दिए गए हैं जैसे 'अ' का उच्चारण 'ह' के पूर्व भिन्न रूप से होता है। इससे पूर्व प्रकाशित पुस्तकों में ऐसा कोई उल्लेख नहीं मिलता। अनुनासिक स्वरों का भी विस्तार से विवेचन मिलता है जिसके अन्त में कन्ट्रास्ट के अभ्यास—प्राभ्यास हैं।

पाठों के प्रारम्भ में वार्तालाप है और अन्त में प्रतिस्थापन, रचनांतरण तथा अनुवाद के प्राभ्यास हैं। मध्य में व्याकरणिक नियमों को बड़े ही विस्तार से समझाया गया है। इस प्रकार के नियमों की संख्या घटती-बढ़ती रहती है जैसे पाठ संख्या 12 में 11 नियम हैं तो पाठ संख्या 8 में 13 नियम।

अमेरिका में हिंदी पढ़ाने के लिए एक और पुस्तक वार्तालाप की हिंदी-उर्दू (कनवर्सेशनल हिंदी-उर्दू) का रिप्ले मूर तथा जायसवाल के प्रयास से गम्पर्ज तथा

जून रमरी की पुस्तक का देवनागरी संस्करण सन् 1967 में प्रकाशित हुआ जबकि इसका मृत रूप रोमन में (अमर वहादुर सिंह तथा सी० एम० नईम के सहयोग से तैयार) 1962-63 में ही बर्कले से प्रकाशित हो चुका था ।

भाषा संस्कृति का अंग है, इस बात को ध्यान में रखकर सामाजिक स्थिति के परिवेश में जीवन्त भाषा में बात-चीत के साथ-साथ छायाचित्र 1960 में फोटोग्राफर तथा भाषाविदों कोक्टोम द्वारा तैयार किए गए जिनको आगे चलकर 1960-62 में दक्षिण एशिया भाषा प्रोजेक्ट के द्वारा परिपूर्ण किया गया । टीम द्वारा तैयार की गई सामग्री का परीक्षण भी कैलीफोर्निया (बर्कले), शिकागो, मिनीसोटा, विस्कान्सिन आदि स्थानों पर किया गया ।

पहली बार वार्तालाप की हिंदी का कोर्स रंगीन स्लाइडों के साथ प्रस्तुत किया गया, वार्तालाप को टेपांकित भी किया गया । वेश-भूषा, मुखाकृति तथा संचार के अन्य साधनों का सामाजिक महत्व होता है । स्लाइडों का उपयोग रिव्यू, प्रश्न-उत्तर प्राभ्यास, मुक्त बातचीत के लिए किया गया है । सांचा-प्राभ्यास के पाठ के भाषा-प्रयोगशाला के पाठों के रूप में भी काम में आ सकते हैं । सभी पाठ स्तारित (ग्रेडेड) हैं लेकिन व्याकरणिक दृष्टि से कम बातचीत के रूप में अधिक पाठों का मूल उद्देश्य बातचीत तथा पढ़ने का अभ्यास बढ़ाना है । मूल पुस्तक से देवनागरी संस्करण में जो संशोधन किए गए हैं उनमें देवनागरी पर बल तो है ही साथ में कुछ और भी संशोधन किए गए हैं जैसे भूतकाल का कुछ पहले ही प्रारम्भ । जो लोग आज भी भारत में रोमन का राग अलापते हैं उन्हें मूर महोदय के वक्तव्य से शिक्षा लेनी चाहिए जिन्होंने स्वीकार किया है कि रोमनीकरण को छोड़ने से कोर्स अधिक अच्छा हुआ है । देवनागरी की वर्तनी में एकरूपता का ध्यान भी रखा गया है जो मानक कोश पर आधारित है । देवनागरी की वर्तनी से जहाँ उच्चारण पर्याप्त भिन्न है और मानक उच्चारण के रूप में मान्य है वहाँ संकेत दे दिए गए हैं । स्वतः पूर्ण पैकेज सामग्री का यह अन्यतम नमूना है ।

प्रत्येक बातचीत का विषय दृश्य के साथ ही मौखिक रूप से आगे बढ़ाया जाता है । इस पुस्तक में अनुवाद पद्धति को सबसे कम अपनाया गया है । विद्यार्थी अपनी शब्दावली में वृद्धि कर सकें इसके लिए, विशेष शब्दाध्ययन, विभाग है । यह सामग्री प्राभ्यास तथा बातचीत से सम्बद्ध है ।

सम्पूर्ण पुस्तक 2 खण्डों में है । प्रथम खण्ड में 14 पाठ तथा द्वितीय खण्ड में 12 पाठ हैं । प्रत्येक पाठ बातचीत से प्रारम्भ होता है जिसके आगे प्रत्येक शब्द तथा पदबंध का अनुवाद, सांस्कृतिक परिचय, शब्द अध्ययन, प्रश्नोत्तर, अवसरानुकूल उत्तर, बातचीत का प्राभ्यास आदि है । दो प्रकार के अभ्यास-प्राभ्यास पाठ हैं:—

1. उच्चारण तथा 2. व्याकरण ।

उच्चारण सम्बन्धी प्राभ्यासों के अन्तर्गत अनुकरण ड्रिल, परिवर्द्धन ड्रिल, व्यतिरेकी विरचन ड्रिल तथा व्याकरण सम्बन्धी अभ्यासों के अन्तर्गत प्रतिस्थापन एवं रचनांतरण ड्रिल दिए गए हैं। प्राभ्यासों में सुनना, दुहराना (व्यक्तिगत तथा कक्षा), प्रबलन आदि हैं। व्याकरण के प्राभ्यासों के चार क्रम हैं—दुहराना, प्रबलन, कक्षा द्वारा प्रस्तुतीकरण तथा व्यक्तिगत प्रस्तुतीकरण। शब्द अध्ययन के अन्तर्गत 1. नवीन-शब्दावली, 2. किसी भी एक विषय से संबद्ध शब्द जैसे शरीर के अंग, रंग आदि, 3. हिंदी-उर्दू शैलीगत प्रभेद, 4. व्युत्पन्नपद; जैसे संज्ञा से विशेषण, विशेषण से भाववाचक संज्ञा आदि। मोटे तौर पर पाठों में दी गई सामग्री का क्रम एक-सा है। जिस पृष्ठ-भूमि के साथ पाठ तैयार किए गए हैं वस्तुतः वह स्तुत्य है और प्रारंभिक स्तर पर उर्दू-हिंदी का भेद है भी नहीं। अन्त में लगभग 1250 शब्दों की शब्द सूची सम्मिलित की गई है।

हिंदी की पाठ्य पुस्तकें जो अब तक तैयार की गईं उससे सर्वथा नई दिशा में 'गहन अध्ययन' को ध्यान में रखकर पाठ्य पुस्तक का निर्माण अमेरिकन इंस्टिट्यूट ऑफ़ इण्डियन स्टडीज़ के तत्वावधान में संस्थान के मुख्य भाषाविद देवीप्रसन्न पटनायक ने अपने कुछ सहायकों के साथ प्रारंभ किया जो 1967-68 में संपूर्ण हुआ। अमेरिकनों को हिंदी पढ़ाने के उद्देश्य से लिखी गई 'इन्टेन्सिव हिंदी कोर्स-1' पुस्तक भी फ़ैयरबैंक्स तथा मिश्र की पुस्तक पर आधारित है। संपूर्ण पुस्तक में 24 पाठ हैं। प्रत्येक पाठ के प्रारंभ में वार्तालाप है जिसके साथ विरचन, प्रतिस्थापन-रूपांतरण, वातचीत में प्रतिवचन, वातचीत का रिव्यू आदि स्तंभों में प्राभ्यास है। प्रस्तुत पुस्तक में भाषा के बोलचाल के स्वरूप का ही प्राभ्यास कराने का लक्ष्य रखा गया है। लिपि प्रारंभ में रोमन तथा 18वें पाठ से नागरी है। प्राभ्यासों की विविधता इस पुस्तक की विशेषता है जिसके माध्यम से ही व्याकरणिक नियमों को स्पष्ट किया गया है। पृथक से कोई भी नियम नहीं दिए गए हैं क्योंकि इस संबंध में पर्याप्त सामग्री फ़ैयरबैंक्स तथा मिश्र की पुस्तकें दी जा चुकी थीं जिस पर यह आधारित है।

इसी सन्दर्भ में लिखी गई दूसरी पुस्तक पटनायक ने एस० कुर्ल के सहयोग से तैयार की थी। वस्तुतः यह पुस्तक उच्चस्तरीय पाठ्य-सामग्री प्रस्तुत करती है। इसका प्रकाशन भी पूना स्थित अमेरिकन इंस्टिट्यूट से हुआ है। इसमें आकाशवाणी से प्रसारित सामग्री का भी पाठ्य सामग्री के रूप में प्रयोग किया गया है, साथ-साथ टिप्पणियाँ भी हैं। पुस्तक के अन्त में लगभग 1200 शब्दों को (हिंदी-अंग्रेजी) संकलित किया गया है।

जिस प्रकार अमेरिकनों को हिंदी सिखाने के लिए अनेक नूतन पद्धतियों पर पाठ्यपुस्तकों का निर्माण हुआ उसी प्रकार अन्य देशों में भी प्रयास किए गए

जिनकी ओर सामान्यतः हमारा ध्यान नहीं जाता। रूस में जो अनेक पाठ्यपुस्तकें तैयार की गई हैं उनमें सबसे उल्लेखनीय श्री दिमशीत्स (अन्य सहयोगियों के साथ) की हिंदी पाठ्य पुस्तक है। पुस्तक के मूल भाग को हम दो भागों में बांट सकते हैं अर्थात् प्रारम्भ में हिंदी के नागरी अक्षरों का ज्ञान, उनकी लेखन विधि, ध्वनियों का उच्चारण आदि 15 पाठों में दिया गया है। इन पाठों की विशेषता यह है कि पहली बार प्रस्तुत पुस्तक में कुछ पाठों में अनुवादात्मक चिह्नों का प्रयोग किया गया है जिसकी सहायता से शिक्षक वाक्य को उपयुक्त स्वरलहर के साथ पढ़ना सिखा सकता है, विशेषतः प्रश्नवाचक वाक्यों को।

व्याकरण संबंधी नियमों पर आधारित 17 पाठ हैं जिनका प्रारम्भ किसी भी व्याकरण—नियम से होता है। नियम सरल से कठिन होते चलते हैं। नियम के उपरान्त उस नियम पर आधारित वाक्यों का रूमी से हिंदी में अनुवाद हिंदी से रूसी में अनुवाद एवं प्रश्नात्मक/नकारात्मक वाक्यों को दिया गया है, तत्पश्चात् पाठ्य सामग्री दी गई है जिसके साथ नये शब्द, व्याकरण तथा शब्दावली संबंधी टिप्पणियां तथा विभिन्न प्रकार के अभ्यास हैं। अभ्यास परम्परागत प्रणाली पर ही दिए गए हैं जैसे शब्दों/वाक्यों का अनुवाद, रिक्त स्थानों की पूर्ति, क्रियाओं के रूपांतरण तथा अनुवाद/पुस्तक के अन्त में लगभग 2000 शब्दों की तालिका है जिसमें शब्द, उसका उच्चारण, व्याकरणिक कोटि, अर्थ तथा जिस पाठ में प्रयुक्त हुआ है उसके निर्देश दिए गए हैं।

इस पुस्तक की सबसे बड़ी विशेषता है परिशिष्ट में दी गई उपयोगी शब्दों की वर्गीकृत सूची, जिसमें सचित्र तालिकाएँ प्रस्तुत की गई हैं जैसे जंगली तथा घरेलू जानवर, मछलियाँ, पक्षी, खाने का कमरा, अध्ययन कक्ष, सोने का कमरा, नाश्ता, लंच, डिनर, मेज़; निजी उपयोगी चीजें, आदमी का शरीर आदि।

अमेरिकनों को हिंदी सिखाने के लिए जिन दो विशिष्ट पुस्तकों का उल्लेख (फ़ेयरबैंक्स-मिश्र तथा गम्पज़ रमरी) किया जा चुका है उनकी ही सहायक पाठ्य-पुस्तक के रूप में हैरिस तथा रामनाथ शर्मा ने 'हिंदी की बेसिक रीडर' उन विद्यार्थियों के लिए तैयार की है जो प्रथम वर्ष में देवनागरी से हिंदी पढ़ने के लिए तैयार है।

मूल पुस्तक दो भागों में विभाजित है : प्रथम भाग में हिंदी रचना संबंधी क्रमबद्ध सामग्री है जिसका उद्देश्य पढ़ने का अभ्यास कराना है। इसमें 136 पृष्ठों में 41 पाठ दिए गए हैं। द्वितीय भाग में (पृष्ठ 137 से 234) विविध ढंग से शैली तथा विषय की विविधता के साथ 22 पाठों में पाठ्य सामग्री संकलित की गई है जिसके अन्त में सांस्कृतिक तथा व्याकरणिक टिप्पणियाँ हैं। पुस्तक के अन्त में लगभग 1250 शब्द (हिंदी-अंग्रेजी) दिए गए हैं।

प्रस्तुत पुस्तक यह मानकर लिखी गई है कि इस पुस्तक के माध्यम से हिंदी सीखने वाले विद्यार्थी को बोलचाल की हिंदी का प्रारम्भिक ज्ञान तथा हिंदी का लेखन प्रणाली (देवनागरी लिपि में) का सामान्य ज्ञान प्राप्त है। पुस्तक काफ़ी परिश्रम के साथ आशान्वित होकर लिखी गई है जिसकी सबसे बड़ी विशेषता है कि इसको काफ़ी स्पष्ट अक्षरों में तथा टाइपों में मुद्रित किया गया है जिससे भाषा का प्रारम्भिक ज्ञान प्राप्त करने वालों के नेत्रों पर जोर नहीं पड़ता। पुस्तक लिखने का मूल उद्देश्य ही यह है कि पढ़ने की गति में विकास हो।

हिंदी संरचना के आवश्यक तत्वों पर बल दिया गया है। प्रारंभ में हिंदी संरचना का सांचा प्रस्तुत किया गया है तत्पश्चात् किसी भी एक समस्या पर पूरा-पूरा विवरण है, साथ ही उस पाठ में निहित अन्य व्याकरणिक नियमों पर आगे के पाठों के पृष्ठों का संकेत भी कर दिया गया है। वाक्य प्रायः छोटे-छोटे हैं जो भली प्रकार से एक पंक्ति में आ जाते हैं, जहाँ मिश्र वाक्य लिए गए हैं वहाँ भी उसका एक उपवाक्य ही एक पंक्ति में मुद्रित किया गया है, जैसे

आज हमारा स्कूल बन्द है,
इसलिए हम घर पर हैं।

उच्चारण की ओर वहीं संकेत किया गया है जहाँ लिखित रूप से उच्चारित रूप पर्याप्त भिन्न है जैसे यह Yee वह Voo मिलते-जुलते शब्दों का (प्रयोग द्वारा) अर्थ स्पष्ट किया गया है जैसे किसी का Some One's तथा किसका Whose "का" (17/4) का सम्बन्धवाचक तथा विशेषण रूप में प्रयोग का स्पष्टीकरण केवल दो उदाहरण मात्र से किया गया है जिसमें यह नहीं बताया गया कि ये संज्ञाओं के विभिन्न रूप हैं।

पुस्तक की एक और विशेषता है कि यह एक प्रयोग के साथ अन्य प्रयोगों को भी साथ में ले लिया गया जैसे इन्तजार करना तथा इन्तजार करना एवं 'होना' के प्रयोग में पैदा होना, डूर होना, शुरू होना, इकट्ठा होना आदि। पर कहीं-कहीं भ्रांतियाँ भी हैं, जैसे पृष्ठ 33 पर लिखा है होना (to be) it is said to' alter-nate' with-ke pass (with)।

हो सकता है, पर पृष्ठ 108/4 पर इसको संयुक्त भाव का द्योतक मात्र कर दिया गया है। क्रम संदर्भ देने से जहाँ कुछ नियम अधिक स्पष्ट हुए हैं वहाँ उसके अतिरेक से कुछ उलझ भी गए हैं, जैसे पृष्ठ 120/10 आप चाहे जितना भी दे सकते हैं ('चाहे' has the meaning however (much). Compare

चाहे जब तक रुको (you can stay as long as you like) the Particle चाहे has a range of meaning depending on the context.

इन दोनों को मिला देने से कुछ इस प्रकार की भ्रंति होती है कि 'चाहे' के दोनों अर्थ 'however' तथा 'like' एक ही हैं केवल संदर्भ भेद से अन्तर होता है। वस्तुतः यह ठीक नहीं, दोनों चाहे भिन्न-भिन्न हैं, एक का प्रयोग क्रिया विशेषण के रूप में है जबकि दूसरे का क्रिया रूप (like, desire) दोनों, चाहे निपात (Particle) मात्र नहीं है।

पुस्तक की अन्यतम विशेषता यह है कि इसमें विशिष्ट प्रयोगों पर ध्यान दिया गया, जैसे आमतौर का, भले ही, फिर भी, दांव-पेंच, बुरा-भला आदि। एक ही प्रयोग के दो पर्याप्त भिन्न अर्थों के स्पष्टीकरण की ओर भी लेखक द्वय सतर्क रहे हैं जैसे के पास (having in one's possession) ऐसे प्रयोगों में नियम निकालने का भी स्तुत्य प्रयास किया गया है जैसे प्रथम प्रयोग 'inanimate object' के साथ किया जाता है जबकि दूसरा 'animate object' के साथ।

जैसा कि संकेत किया जा चुका है, पिछली लिखी हुई पुस्तकों की पूरक पुस्तक होने के कारण तथा सामग्री की तैयारी में लगभग एक दशक का अन्तराल होने के कारण प्रणाली तथा तकनीक में पर्याप्त परिवर्तन होना उचित ही था। लेखकों का यह दावा कि हिंदी की व्याकरणिक संरचनाओं को क्रमवद्ध रूप से प्रस्तुत किया गया है मात्र समस्या प्रधान वाक्यों को रूपान्तरण विधि तथा अंग्रेजी में अनुवाद कर देने की विधि से प्रस्तुत कर देने मात्र से पूरा नहीं हो जाता। उद्देश्य हिंदी पढ़ना तथा बोलना सिखाना है जो बिना व्याकरणिक नियमों तथा अनेक प्रयोगों के कोई नहीं सीख सकता। कभी-कभी यह अनिवार्य हो जाता है कि व्याकरण के नियमों पर बड़ी गहराई से चर्चा की जाए। व्याकरणिक संरचनाओं का क्रम किस पद्धति से रखा गया है स्पष्ट नहीं हो पाता। लिंग के कुछ स्थानों पर प्रयोग चिन्त्य हैं जैसे 'जो काम तुलसी के रामायण ने किया, (223,5), 'अपनी पलंग' बादशाह ने अपने दरवारियों से सलाह किया (142/15)।

इन सबके होते हुए भी निश्चित रूप से वेसिक हिंदी रीडर ने हिंदी की पाठ्य-पुस्तकों के लेखन-क्रम में सामग्री तथा मुद्रण दोनों दृष्टियों से एक आदर्श उपस्थित किया है।

नई दिल्ली के संध्यकालीन हिंदी संस्थान में सन् 1967-68 में चलाए गए 'प्रारम्भिक हिंदी के कोर्स' के लिए तैयार की गई सामग्री ही लोथर, लुक्स तथा बहादुर सिंह द्वारा द्वितीय भाषा के रूप में (हिंदी एज ए रेफण्ड लैंग्वेज) नाम से सन् 1970 में प्रकाशित हुई।

लेखक द्वय के समक्ष पाठ्य सामग्री तैयार करते समय स्पष्ट उद्देश्य थे कि :

1. कोर्स को सफलतापूर्वक समाप्त करने के बाद कोई भी विद्यार्थी दैनिक व्यवहार की सरल हिंदी समझ, बोल तथा लिख सकता है,

2. द्वितीय भाषा के रूप में हिंदी पढ़ना आरम्भ करते समय उसको हिंदी का ज्ञान न के बराबर है,

3. विद्यार्थी को अंग्रेजी का ज्ञान होने के कारण उसका सम्पर्क भाषा के रूप में प्रयोग सम्भव है, तथा

4. हिंदी सीखने वाले प्रौढ़ हैं जिनको भाषा सीखने में रुचि है अतएव उन्हें उत्प्रेरित किया जा सकता है।

प्रस्तुत पुस्तक का स्वतंत्र रूपेण प्रयोग भी किया जा सकता है और फ़ायर वैंक्स तथा मिश्र की पुस्तक के साथ भी क्योंकि इसकी भूमिका (अ, ब, स) नवीन है और आगे के भाग 1. 2. 3. आदि फ़ायरवैंक्स की पुस्तक पर आधारित है। अभ्यास के लिए टेपरेकार्डर का प्रयोग भी किया गया है।

पद्धति की दृष्टि से द्वितीय भाषा शिक्षण की सभी पद्धतियों का संयुक्त प्रयोग इसमें किया गया है और त्रिपय सामग्री के साथ ही विद्यार्थी के मानसिक स्तर के अनुसार विभाजन (फ़िजग) भी की गई है। हिंदी शब्दों के अर्थों के स्पष्टीकरण के लिए संकेत, संदर्भ, अभिनय रेखाचित्र, परिभाषा तथा अनुवाद सभी विधियों को आवश्यकतानुसार निया गया है और उनके निर्देश भी दिए गए हैं। व्याकरणिक टिप्पणियों को छोड़कर भी इन पाठों का प्रयोग वाक्य साँचों के अभ्यास के लिए 'प्रारम्भिक-हिंदी कोर्स' में किया जा सकता है। बंधे प्रयोग के लिए फ़ायरवैंक्स द्वारा चुने गए अभ्यासों का प्रयोग किया जा सकता है जबकि मुक्त प्रयोग के लिए वातचीत के इस पाठ्यक्रम को दो सत्रों में 83 दिनों के कोर्स में 166 अन्तरो में परीक्षित भी सफलतापूर्वक किया जा चुका है।

पुस्तक के प्रारम्भ में उच्चारण तथा लिपि संबंधी कठिनाइयों पर प्रकाश डाला गया है। सम्पूर्ण पुस्तक में 24 पाठ हैं। साधारणतः प्रत्येक पाठ में वाक्य साँचा, व्याकरण, पठन-सामग्री, लेखन, अभ्यास, वातचीत, पुनरावलोकन, मध्यावधि परीक्षा, अन्तिम परीक्षा दी गई है। देवनागरी लिपि को ही हिंदी पढ़ने-लिखने के लिए उचित समझा गया है। 92 पृष्ठों की सीमित पुस्तक में ही पर्याप्त सामग्री तथा वाक्य साँचे दे दिए गए हैं जिनका प्रयोग सम्भवतः पर्याप्त भाषिक तथा भाषा-वैज्ञानिक ज्ञान के अभाव में सम्भव नहीं है अतएव शिक्षक की उपस्थिति अनिवार्य है। पाठों की संख्या भी सीमित होने के कारण एक ही पाठ में एक से अधिक पाठ्य बिन्दु समाहित है। जैसे पाठ 3 में 'के पास' 'चाहिए' 'कौन सा' 'होता है' आदि चार प्रयोगों को समझाया गया है। अन्य पुस्तकों की तुलना में पुस्तकें आकार में लघु हैं पर सामग्री देने में विपुल।

सन् 1970 में ही एक पुस्तक सर्वथा नवीन पद्धति से मैंग्रेगर के सम्पादन में 'बोलचाल की हिंदी-अभ्यास' (एक्सरसाइज-इन स्पोकन हिंदी) शीर्षक से प्रकाशित हुई जिसमें 19 पाठ हैं। प्रत्येक पाठ के प्रारम्भ में एक छायाचित्र (फोटोग्राफ) दिया गया है जिसके नीचे इसका विशद वर्णन 40-41, पंक्तियों में दिया गया है; साथ-साथ उतना ही भाग रोमन में उच्चारणानुसार अंकित है। पाठों के अन्त में पृष्ठ 46-47 तक व्याकरणिक टिप्पणियां भी हैं जिनमें पर्याप्त सुधार अपेक्षित है। जहां पर परदादा, परनाला स्पष्ट किया गया, परकोटा छोड़ दिया गया। पुस्तक के अन्त में लगभग 1000 शब्दों को भी दे दिया गया है। एक ही शब्द से व्युत्पन्न शब्द भी दे दिये गए हैं जैसे शहर से शहरी, अधिकांश के साथ अधिकांशतः भी।

पुस्तक की सबसे बड़ी विशेषता यह है कि उसमें संकलित पाठों के हिंदी टेपांकित रूप भी ए० एस० कालसी की आवाज में प्राप्य हैं। इस प्रकार पुस्तक का मूल्य द्विगुणित हो गया है।

राष्ट्रीय प्रशासन अकादमी, मसूरी के हिंदी विभाग से भी अहिंदी भाषा-भाषियों (क्लास एक के अधिकारियों) को हिंदी सिखाने के लिए आधुनिक प्रणाली के आधार पर द्वितीय भाषा के रूप में हिंदी पाठ्य-पुस्तक का निर्माण दुवे ने अपने सहयोगियों जोशी तथा चौबे के सहयोग से किया। 1971 में पुस्तक के प्रकाशन से पूर्व 1969-70 में इम सामग्री का परीक्षण कक्षाओं में किया गया। प्रस्तुत पुस्तक भी एक विशेष उद्देश्य को सामने रखकर तैयार की गई है। जहाँ अन्य पुस्तकें केवल सामान्य ज्ञान कराने मात्र के लिए हैं वहाँ यह पुस्तक भाषिक ज्ञान के आगे प्रशासनिक भाषा-ज्ञान की कड़ी का काम करती है। यही इसकी सबसे बड़ी उपलब्धि है। पुस्तक छः खण्डों में विभाजित है, पहले में पर्याप्त लम्बी 115 पृष्ठों की भूमिका, दूसरे में 20 पाठ रोमन में तीसरे में वही 20 पाठ नागरी लिपि में, चौथे में वाक्य अभिरचना एवं पुनर्रचना के 20 पाठ तथा पांचवें में पाठ्यसामग्री के अन्तर्गत निबन्ध और प्रशासनिक पत्राचार। इस प्रकार पूरी पुस्तक में 85 पाठ हैं जिनको पूरा करने के लिए पर्याप्त समय अपेक्षित है।

प्रारम्भिक 20 पाठों में बातचीत के रूपों में बोलचाल की भाषा के नमूने प्रस्तुत किए गए हैं जिनके अन्त में अमेरिकनों को हिंदी पढ़ाने के लिए तैयार की गई पुस्तकों में दिए गए अभ्यासों के आधार पर पर्याप्त प्राभ्यास दिए गए हैं जैसे विरचन, प्रतिस्थापन परिवर्धन, रूपान्तरण, प्रतिवचन प्राभ्यास आदि। पाठ्य-सामग्री (पाठ 64-85) के अन्त में अभ्यासों के अन्तर्गत हिंदी में अनुवाद करने के लिए अंग्रेजी के काफ़ी क्लिष्ट गद्यांश दिए गए हैं।

उस्मानिया विश्वविद्यालय के प्रोफ़ेसर विद्यासागर ने एक बृहदकाय पुस्तक 2760 पृष्ठों में हिंदी भाषा के शिक्षण पर तैयार की। यह बुखारेस्ट विश्व-

विद्यालय से प्रकाशित हुई है। तीन भागों में विभाजित पुस्तक में क्रमशः 11,21 तथा 26 पाठ हैं। पुस्तक परम्परागत पद्धति से लिखी गई है जिसमें स्थान-स्थान पर विस्तार से व्याकरणिक नियमों का सोदाहरण विवेचन किया गया है।

पुस्तक रोमनिया में हिंदी के अध्ययन को आगे बढ़ाएगी ऐसी आशा है। इधर कुछ विशिष्ट पाठ्य पुस्तकें केन्द्रीय हिंदी संस्थान, आगरा में तैयार की गई हैं जिनका परीक्षण कई सत्रों में हो चुका है और आजकल प्रकाशनाधीन है। इनमें सर्वप्रथम उल्लेखनीय है 'गहन हिंदी शिक्षण पाठ्यक्रम' जो भारत सरकार में काम कर रहे सभी अधिकारियों को ध्यान में रखकर तैयार किया गया है। यद्यपि इसका उपयोग अन्य लोगों के लिए भी किया जा सकता है क्योंकि इसमें पाठ तथा कार्यालय हिंदी के पाठ अलग-अलग हैं और पूरे कार्यक्रम में संयुक्त किए गए हैं। कुछ पाठ कार्यालय के कार्य को हिंदी में चलाने के लिए काफी उपयोगी है।

यह पाठ्यक्रम शिक्षित भारतीय भाषा-भाषियों के लिए है : कुछ पाठों के संदर्भ शिक्षित व्यक्ति ही समझ सकते हैं। भारतीयों को दृष्टि में रख कर शब्दावली की संख्या काफी अधिक है।

प्रस्तुत पाठ्यक्रम का उद्देश्य हिंदी न जानने वाले लोगों को 450 घण्टों में हिंदी के चारों कौशलों में इतनी दक्षता प्रदान करना है जिससे सीखने वाले कार्यालय में लौटकर हिंदी माध्यम से कुछ काम कर सकें।

पाठ्यक्रम के लिए निम्नलिखित सामग्री तैयार की गई है जिसे सात भागों में प्रस्तुत किया गया है:—

भाग 1—40 पाठ, 25 सहायक पाठ हैं जो संरचना के पाठ्य बिन्दुओं के आधार पर स्तरित है : 40 पाठों में हिंदी के समस्त वाक्य रूपों को समाहित करने का प्रयत्न किया गया है। सहायक पाठों में ऐसे व्याकरणिक बिन्दु रखे गए हैं जो पाठों में नहीं आ सकें अथवा जिन्हें एक जगह रखने की बात है। पाठों में विषय, शैली, भाषा की अभिव्यक्ति के विविध रूप को ध्यान में रखा गया है।

भाग 2 :—पाठ से वाक्य समझने तथा सांचा अभ्यास से वाक्य बनाने के अभ्यास के बाद सीखने वाले अभ्यास करते हैं जो पढ़ाए गए सभी वाक्य रूपों की परीक्षा के लिए बनाए गए हैं। इस प्रकार हर पाठ के साथ एक अभ्यास है, जो शिक्षक को शिक्षार्थी की प्रगति का विवरण देता है। पाठ, सांचा अभ्यास तथा अभ्यास तीनों कार्य पहले दिन से ही शुरू हो जाते हैं और लिपि की आवश्यकता नहीं पड़ती।

भाग 4—(लिपि) लिपि का ज्ञान पाठ से स्वतन्त्र रूप में पहले दिन से ही प्रारम्भ करवा दिया जाता है। 15 पाठों में हिंदी लिपि का पूरा परिचय मिल जाता

है। लिपि पाठ भी स्तरित हैं और हर पाठ के बाद वाचन, लेखन के अंश दिए गए हैं। 20 ध्वनि तथा 6 अनुतान गठ उच्चारण अभ्यास के लिए दिए गए हैं।

भाग 5—(भूमिका तथा शिक्षण टिप्पणी भाग) पाठों के निर्माण की विधि के साथ-साथ पाठ पढ़ाने तथा परीक्षण करने के बारे में बताता है।

भाग 6—(कार्यालय हिंदी) : यह पूरे पाठ्यक्रम के उद्देश्य को ध्यान में रखकर तैयार किया गया है।

भाग 7—(भाषा व्यवहार) इस भाग की सामग्री की सहायता से शिक्षार्थी भाषा का स्वतन्त्र तथा नियन्त्रित प्रयोग करता है जिससे भाषा की आदत सुदृढ़ बन सके। इसमें भाषा-खेल, गाने-कहानी-मुनना, चर्चा, फ़िल्म देखना आदि सम्मिलित हैं।

इस प्रकार 450 घण्टे के कार्यक्रम को स्वयंपूर्ण तथा बनाने का यत्न किया गया है और सभी कौशलों को विकास, पग-पग पर परीक्षण, रोचकता के साथ पढ़ाना, विविध कौशलों के लिए विविध प्रकार के कार्यक्रमों को ध्यान में रखा गया है।

पाठों के निर्माण में सभी उपयोगी पद्धतियों को अपनाया गया है, जैसे, प्रकाश्यात्मक, संरचनात्मक तथा प्राकृतिक स्थितिपरक।

केन्द्रीय हिंदी संस्थान ने विदेशियों के लिए बेसिक हिंदी-कोर्स भी तैयार किया है। यह पाठ्यक्रम वृहत पाठ्यक्रम का अंश है जिसके तीन अंग हैं—बेसिक, माध्यमिक तथा उच्च। तीनों का क्रमिक उद्देश्य है, अर्थात्

(क) सामान्य बोलचाल की भाषा का परिचय देना जिससे सीखने वाला दैनंदिन जीवन में आने वाली स्थितियों में भाषा का व्यवहार कर सके।

(ख) माध्यमिक अवस्था में सीखी हुई भाषा का विकास करना जिससे वह जीवन के विविध संदर्भों में भाषा का प्रयोग करें।

(ग) उच्चावस्था में भाषा का प्रयोग क्षेत्र भी बदल जाता है। भाषा का प्रयोग विविध विषयों की अभिव्यक्ति के लिए किया जाता है।

बेसिक कोर्स के तीन भाग हैं : प्रथम भाग में 25 पाठ हैं। प्रत्येक पाठ वार्तालाप के रूप में हैं जिसकी शब्दावली सीमित है और पाठों में वाक्य संरचना के त्रिन्दु स्तरित तथा क्रमिक रूप से रखे गए हैं। वार्तालाप के लिए वे ही प्रसंग चुने गए हैं जो दिल्ली में रहने वाले विदेशी के जीवन में घटित होते हैं। छात्र वार्तालाप के वाक्य दुहराता है और फिर पूरे वार्तालाप को छात्र नाटकीयता से बोलते हैं फिर मिलते-जुलते संदर्भों में स्वतन्त्र वार्तालाप की प्रेरणा दी जाती है।

इस प्रकार हर पाठ में छात्र किसी न किसी संदर्भ में भाषा का व्यवहार करना सीखता है। आरम्भ से ही सही उच्चारण की अपेक्षा की जाती है। इसलिए 25 पाठों के बाद सीखने वाला प्रवाह तथा उच्चारण की सहजता के साथ कई संदर्भों में भाषा का व्यवहार कर सकता है। द्वितीय भाग में अध्यापकीय टिप्पणियां दी गई हैं जिसमें छात्रों की जिज्ञासा के अनुसार व्याकरण की प्रकायात्मक रूपरेखा तथा भाषा बोलने के व्यवहार के लिए सुझाव दिए गए हैं तीसरे भाग में पूरक सामग्री है जिमें सीखे हुए वाक्य रूपों को प्रयोग में लाने वाले अन्य उपयोगी संदर्भ दिए गए हैं जो छात्रों के भाषायी ज्ञान की दृष्टि से महत्वपूर्ण पहचानने का अभ्यास कराया जाता है।

‘पत्राचार के माध्यम से हिंदी’ हिंदी सिखाने के लिए केन्द्रीय हिंदी निदेशालय दिल्ली कई वर्षों से तुल्य कार्य कर रहा है। निदेशालय द्वारा प्रयुक्त सामग्री सत्र प्रकाशित रूप में उपलब्ध है जिसके पूरक के रूप में लिगुआ रेकर्ड भी तैयार किए गए हैं जिससे सुनकर अभ्यास भी किया जा सकता है।

प्रत्येक मुख्य पाठ के साथ एक उत्तर के लिए शीट तैयार की गई। प्रत्येक पाठ में ध्वनियों के साथ कुछ वाक्य सांचा भी सिखाया जाता है। साधारणतः एक पाठ में कई अंग हैं :—

- 1—उच्चारण 2—शब्दावली 3—व्याकरणिक पाठ्य विन्दु
4—शब्द-क्रम 5—विराम चिह्न 6—बलाघात 7—पुनरावलोकन 8—उच्चारण
प्राभ्यास 9—दुहराना।

पाठ बड़े-ही परिश्रम के साथ तैयार किए गए हैं। सम्पूर्ण पाठ्यक्रम स्तरित है। शब्द जब दिया जाना है तो उसका नागरी रूप (मकान), नागरी में प्रत्येक वर्ण पृथक् करके (म—का—न), रोमन के उच्चारण (makaan) तथा अर्थ (house) स्पष्टतः दिया जाता है जिससे किसी प्रकार का भी भ्रम न रहे क्योंकि अध्यापक की अनुपस्थिति में उन्हें सीखना होता है। व्याकरणिक विन्दु एक या एक से अधिक हो सकते हैं।

जगन्नाथन तथा बाहरी द्वारा लिखित ‘बोलचाल की हिंदी में प्रारम्भिक कोर्स’ (इंट्रोडक्टरी कोर्स इन स्पोकन हिंदी) सूक्ष्म भाषा विज्ञान की सहायता से भाषा शिक्षण की दिशा में सर्वथा नूतन एवं प्रशंसनीय प्रयास है। मूल पुस्तक की सामग्री अमेरिकन पीस कोर के तत्वावधान में ही तैयार की गई है। वहीं इसका प्रयोग परीक्षण भी किया गया। इधर कुछ वर्षों से भाषा विज्ञान तथा मनोविज्ञान के द्वारा भाषा-शिक्षण को जो कुछ भी दिया गया है उसका समन्वित प्रयास प्रस्तुत पुस्तक में किया गया है जो अर्ल डबल्यू स्टेविक की ‘मोडूलर माइक्रोवेव’ शिक्षण पद्धति पर आधारित है।

इस पुस्तक में जहां भाषिक सामग्री का चयन क्रमबद्ध तथा स्तरित है वहीं साथ ही उसको प्रकार्यात्मक तथा व्यावहारिक रूप में प्रस्तुत किया गया है। सम्पूर्ण सामग्री का प्रस्तुतीकरण इस प्रकार किया गया है कि वह स्वयंशिक्षक के रूप में भी ली जा सकती है अथवा हिंदी भाषा-भाषी अथवा अन्य किसी अध्यापक की सहायता से पढ़ी जा सकती है।

प्रारम्भ में पुस्तक के सम्यक् प्रयोग के संबंध में 11 पृष्ठों की बड़ी सारगर्भित भूमिका दी गई है जो विद्यार्थी तथा शिक्षक अथवा भाषा-शिक्षण में रुचि रखने वाले किसी भी विद्वान के लिए परम उपयोगी है। भाषा के भाषिक तथा सामाजिक पक्ष के साथ विषयगत अध्ययन करना होता है। प्रायः भाषा के अन्तर्गत हम व्याकरणिक चर्चा आदि में ऐसे उलझ जाते हैं कि उसका जीवंत पक्ष ओझल हो जाता है। प्रस्तुत पुस्तक में इस बात का पूरा-पूरा ध्यान रखा गया है कि जीवंत भाषा का ही शिक्षण हो, सरल से कठिन पाठ्यसामग्री की ओर बढ़ते चलें, आवृत्ति पर आधारित बहु प्रयुक्त शब्दावली का प्रयोग बढ़ता जाए।

पाठ्य सामग्री एम फ़ेज तथा सी फ़ेज दो रूपों में ली गई है। प्रथम फ़ेज में आदर्श वाक्य सांचों पर बल दिया गया है जिसमें कुछ शब्द/पदबन्ध प्रतिस्थापित किए जा सकते हैं। ऐसे शब्दों/पदबन्धों को छोटे कोष्ठक में मुद्रित किया गया है, कोष्ठक के बाहर प्रस्तुत सामग्री व्याकरणिक रूपों को प्रस्तुत करती है। द्वितीय फ़ेज में वार्ता तथा वास्तविक स्थिति में हुई वातचीत को प्रधानता दी गई है। दोनों रूपों को पढ़ाने के लिए शिक्षक को विशेष निर्देश ही नहीं दिए गए हैं वरन् एक आदर्श पाठ भूमिका में दे दिया गया है। शब्दार्थों को संकेतों, मुखाकृति, दृश्यपदार्थों तथा अभिनय के माध्यम से समझाने पर बल दिया गया है जब किसी भी प्रकार से अर्थ स्पष्ट न हो सके तो अंग्रेजी में अनुवाद किया जा सकता है। कक्षा में अंग्रेजी का प्रयोग यथासम्भव सीमित कर दिया गया है। विद्यार्थी को भी हिंदी सीखने की दक्षता प्राप्त करने के लिए भूमिका में सुझाव दिए गए हैं।

मूल पुस्तक के प्रारम्भ में हिंदी के लिपि चिह्नों (ध्वनियों) तथा उनके उच्चारण का विवरण, संकेतादि दे दिए गए हैं।

समस्त पुस्तक चार इकाइयों में विभाजित है, प्रत्येक इकाई में 10 पाठ हैं। प्रत्येक पाठ के प्रारम्भ में विषयगान तथा व्याकरणिक पाठ्यबिन्दुओं का रोमन लिपि में उच्चारण और अंग्रेजी में अनुवाद प्रस्तुत किया गया है। जो भी नई शब्दावली पाठ में प्रयुक्त हुई है उसका उच्चारण तथा अनुवाद बाद में दे दिया गया है। अन्त में टिप्पणियां तीन भागों में विभाजित हैं—शिक्षक के लिए, शिक्षार्थी के लिए तथा व्याकरणिक जिसके अन्त में सप्लीमेंट शीर्षक से विभिन्न प्रकार के संकेत, अभ्यास आदि दिए गए हैं जिनमें वैविध्य मिलता है। कुछ पाठों में पाठ्यसामग्री के

रूप में उपयोगी पदबंध भी दिए गए हैं। प्रायः पाठों में सामग्री का क्रम एक-सा है पर व्याकरणिक टिप्पणियों में आवश्यकतानुसार विस्तार होता गया है। सामग्री वर्गीकृत होते हुए भी एक-दूसरे से संबद्ध है।

पुस्तक के अन्त में चार परिशिष्ट हैं : 1—लेखनप्रणाली, 2—हिंदी का संक्षिप्त व्याकरण, 3—सामान्य शब्दावली जिसको-20 वर्गों में विभाजित कर अंग्रेजी हिंदी में अर्थ दिए गए हैं (संख्या-लगभग 600), 4—तकनीकी शब्दावली जो पुस्तक को समझने में सहायक सिद्ध होगी।

सर्वथा नवीन पद्धति में प्रस्तुत की गई पुस्तक द्वितीय भाषा के रूप में हिंदी शिक्षण में क्रांतिकारी कदम है।

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The way we implement our teaching is conditioned by the *goal* we set before us and the *perspective* we want to give to the subject matter. The question, for example, *why* a student should learn a given foreign language is hierarchically of a higher order than the question *what* the lesson should be like and *how* to execute the teaching materials most effectively. This is because it is the approach and methodology which is conditioned by its goal and objectives and not otherwise (Srivastava-1968).

Our answer to the question that why one needs to learn Latin, Greek, Sanskrit or any classical language of which no native speakers to communicate with exist will obviously be different from the answer to the question why one is motivated to learn some of the less known exotic languages in which no written literature exists at all. If the answers to the question 'why' is different, it is logical to assume that the approach and methods employed in teaching them will also be not identical. There is no *the* method of language teaching firstly, because there is no *the* answer to our question-why one wants to learn a (foreign) language and secondly, because there is no *unique* answer to the question—'what is language?'¹

The two extreme ends of learning a foreign language have been set forth by Jespersen (1961 : 9) ; the highest purpose is to make access to 'the spirit of the nation in the widest sense of the word' and the lowest purpose is to make one self able to communicate with members of another community for immediate fulfilling needs. The

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1. The question 'what is language ?' in whatever guise it appears is as diffuse and disingenuous as other similar questions, such as what is literature ? Which are likewise excluded from examination and demand the privilege of a qualified answer."
- Halliday, M.A.K. 1969. Relevant Models of Language. Pl.

one treats language as 'a way of connection between souls' 'which' bridges the psychical chasm between individuals in manifold cases (Jespersen 1961: 4) and the other treats language as 'railway tracks' on which the engine of present day commercialized and immediate fulfilling needs of face to face communication moves.*²

It might be thought that language when accepted as 'way of connection between souls', will encourage language teacher to base his teaching materials heavily on written text and will prompt him to adopt teaching methodology suited to interpret and appreciate the literature. On the other hand, language accepted as 'railway tracks' for the day to day practical usage will motivate a language teacher to rely basically on the colloquial; spoken form of language. The former will lay his finger on the crystallised literary expressions of the written aspect of language and will emphasize on reading and writing skills. The latter will tend to accept the spoken variety of language with a greater attention to the listening comprehension and speaking skills. Obviously, the preferences in the teaching methodology will also differ.**

*According to Jespersen there may be other reasons for learning foreign languages, for instance, studying languages for their own sake, as the case is with the student of comparative philology. One may learn a foreign language to get the wisdom embodied in it, as the case is with the translators. But according to him 'it is clearly a special study, which has nothing to do with the reasons why people generally learn language (p. 6).

2 Scherba, the founder of Leningrad School of Linguistics, also holds the same sharply defined two-fold division. According to him, the higher goal of foreign language learning motivates student to develop his personality; by helping in concept formation and placing 'objects' in the right perspective it educates the learner. The lower goal, on the other hand, is 'utilitarian in approach and is directed to the practical needs of tourists, diplomats, businessmen etc.

**For Example, experiment conducted by Scherer and Wertheimer (1964), shows that American students learning German Language through audio-lingual method were superior in listening ability and speaking skills but were inferior in reading and writing achievements to the students who were taught through grammar-translation method.

It is interesting to note that though Jespersen sharply divides the purpose of language learning into higher and lower objectives, nevertheless, he was quite aware of undue emphasis a language teacher is apt to put on this distinction in language teaching. Thus, he promptly writes—'we do not learn our native tongue merely so as to be able to read Shakespeare and Browning, and neither do we learn it for the sake of giving orders to the shoemaker or making out the washerman's bill. So like-wise in the case of foreign languages, we ought not exclusively to soar above the earth, nor on the other hand exclusively to grovel the ground. (Jespersen 1961 : 9).

The question why Jespersen wants to adopt a golden-mean path in setting teaching materials—neither 'exclusively to soar above the earth, nor on the other hand exclusively to grovel the ground,' is worth understanding. For Jespersen, it is in this golden-mean area that the material of everyday language, falls, which 'contains the most necessary material of the language' 'used in 'sensible communication'. It is the material of everyday language which is the matrix of our experience and only by focussing it we can develop a sense of composite whole of language use in natural way. It is the 'natural conditions' which is the key-concept in Jespersen's view of language teaching.

It is the naturalness condition which demand that 'we ought to learn language through sensible communications' because 'disconnected words are but stones for bread (Jespersen 1961-11) words' when in their natural connections, show their vitality and gain their 'power of breeding new connection in the image of old ones' (Jespersen 1961 : 22). The suggestion that 'We must not be afraid of using irregular forms (irregular declension and inflexions) in the very first selection' (Jespersen 1961 : 11)' provided words are ordinary, indispensable and natural to the context. Those idiomatic expressions which are indispensable to the everyday language should not be set aside even if they are grammatically complex (Jespersen 1961:16) Similarly the most 'natural method of learning is by practice (Jespersen 1961 : 110) and so 'people should practice using everyday language (Jespersen 1961 : 79).

As regards the relationship between linguistic structures and the principles governing pedagogy, Jespersen was clear in his mind that given to practice the everyday language, even the simplest stories contain so many grammatical forms, and so many words, that the

beginner would be overwhelmed and confused by having them all thrown at him at once. There must be gradual process in difficulty,” (Jespersen 1961 : 14). The obvious solution is to simplify and grade the text so that lessons pass gradually from that which is easy to that which is more difficult. Jespersen accepts this view but with a caution that the text should not be unnatural and sentences disconnected in order to suit the gradual progress of linguistic complexity. Language is as complex as life is and as difficulties in life do not come one at a time, so in the natural piece of conversation patterns do not come according to the graded linguistic structures designed by a linguist. The principle of gradual progress in linguistic difficulty is sound, ‘but it is unsound to put it into practice in such a manner that other pedagogical principles which are just as sound are neglected.’ (Jespersen 1967 : 14). Life is restless and varies so is the everyday language: e living and complex and hence ‘the method of teaching them must be elastic and adaptable’ to meet the naturalness conditions.

One may, at this stage, point out to the fact that Audiolingual method accepted initially Jespersen’s notion of simplified but natural version of spoken variety of everyday language in the natural setting as a take-off point in teaching foreign languages but under the influence of structural linguistics soon began organising the teaching material on the linguistic principles of structural complexity (on the expense of other pedagogical principles). In reality, in this linguistic method linguistic forms were first isolated and graded and further, disconnected sentences were filled in within the linguistic frame provided by a linguist. Naturalness conditions were considered secondary (*and at times even discarded*) and peripheral and teaching materials were prepared and administered to suit and attest the linguists notion on language of structures. Thus, words with irregular declension and inflexion were intentionally dropped out after being labelled as unique instances even though they were ‘ordinary’ and even those idiomatic expressions and syntactically deviant phrases are delayed in operation which were statistically higher in occurrences in everyday variety of language and were indispensable for a learner.

Pattern-practice is the key concept used in the new audiolingual method. This method reduces the naturally differentiated system of everyday language to linguistically attested certain pattern rather than the particular sentence is driven intensively into his

(learner's) habit-reflexes (Lado & Fries, 1958 : xv). This extra-emphasis on pattern-drill is nothing but what Leonard Newmark calls, 'an index of the return from natural' material to grammatical-illustration material (Newmark 1970 : 212). According to him, 'in the traditional textbook the examples seem to be given largely for the sake of an intellectual understanding of the formulated rules, while in the newer structural textbook the examples are practiced on to instill implicit 'habits' whose formulation in rules may not even be presented explicitly, but both traditional and structural textbooks select and organize material in the interests of a particular view of the principles governing linguistic form, and both isolated linguistic forms from natural contexts.' (Newmark 1970 : 213).

This return from Jespersen's 'Living' approach to the formal grammatical-illustration' method was indeed a step backward in theory and practice in the teaching of languages. In spite of the eruption of electro-mechanical equipments as tools in aid, even language teachers trained in these skills have come to realize that the effective use of language is more than the mechanically conditioned response; it is an art and like other fields of human behaviour it needs creative aspect of mental faculty. Paradoxically enough, the last two decades have witnessed the startling acceleration of technological developments and its use in the teaching programme of languages though during the same period almost all these assumptions which underlie the audio-lingual method have given way to the diagonally opposite view of transformational grammar, with the polarization of views it has become now necessary to see afresh what is meant by the 'living' method of teaching natural sentences of 'every-day' language.

By natural sentences of everyday language one may safely mean those sentences which are spoken during the open conversation on topics common to everyday life. There is some truth in the saying

"Virtually every tenet that he had proclaimed in his heyday would have been returned to him upside down : writing once again beginning to assert itself over speech, grammar once not learned indirectly nor extended by analogy ; language learning not a matter of habit formation ; the goal of language study to learn something about the human mind and not about linguistic behaviour". (Bolinger :1)

that all spoken variety are derivative realisations of the conversation. But the interesting question which stems from accepting the underlying assumption of structural linguistics (or say, audio-lingual method) that 'speech is primary and writing is secondary, is what variety of speech is central and cardinal to our language system? If we accept 'conversation' as central to the speech-behaviour then strangely enough one finds that 'sentences' or 'text' used in audio-lingual method are not at all akin to this variety.

Conversational variety of a language is marked by broken texture, loose grammatical strands and deviant sentences. It is characterised by fluctuations in temper and tempo in its delivery. Presence of prolonged pauses, false starts and interpolated interjections within and across sentences are rules rather exceptions to it. A genuine spontaneous conversation 'is always illogical, disorganized, repetitious and ungrammatical.' (Abercrombie 1965 : 6). A faithfully written record of a conversational text is pretty horrifying' for one who has taken sporting it because 'we are quite unused to listening to disembodied voices taking part in conversation' (Abercrombie 1965 : 5)

Despite its claim of primacy of speech, no structuralist would like to build its teaching material based on the spontaneous spoken variety of conversation which is inherently illogical, disorganized, repetitious and ungrammatical, then what spoken variety one should choose attesting speech as the underlying code? The next obvious choice is the spoken variety used in radio news-bulletins. "However although news bulletins are *spoken*, they are undoubtedly '*spoken prose*'—not real spoken language, with the structure of conversation" (Abercrombie 1965 : 5). The ideal news-bulletin represents that variety of 'prose' which when read aloud gives the feeling that it is spontaneously produced—, a feeling akin to the one we get at hearing the genuine conversation.

'Spoken prose' is primarily a 'prose' and secondarily a 'speech'. Prose and speech are qualitatively different stylistic realizations; their differences attest not the degree but kind of performance phenomenon. There is no gain in saying that teaching materials should be based on the 'decent' variety of conversation unless we

explain what the 'decency' in manner is and what regulatory force transforms non-decent to decent utterances*

Srivastava and Daswani (1970) have proposed three distinct features** for the classification of style which a speaker uses in executing the 'internalised' grammar into its speech variety'. Prose, whether frozen or non-frozen, is always marked by the feature complex (+CR +Ed) while conversation spontaneous or controlled, is characterized by the feature (-CR). A genuine spontaneous conversation is (-Ed) while its controlled variety represents certain qualities of (+CR). Writing is essentially a device compatible with the feature (+CR +Ed), and thus, suited to the prose style and is totally misfit for the spontaneous spoken conversation style.

A 'spoken prose' is thus a text inherently married by the feature complex (+CR +Ed) but when read aloud make the feature (+Ed) as a fluctuating variable in order to partake some of the characteristics of spontaneously produced conversation. This colouring instils in the text an additional quality of being 'natural.' A writer may employ this phenomenon creatively to make the 'dialogue' of its characters 'natural' as is evident from many text from writers of novels, short stories and dramas. Though no body converses in a way a character of a novel speaks, whatsoever the extent of 'naturalistic dialogue he might use, readers of the text feel that certain dialogues are more natural in their realisation while others are unnatural as it is far removed from the everyday language. (compare the use of language in the dialogues present in the novels of Premchand & Ilachandra Joshi).

*"Decency may be regarded as the manners of discourse and bears the same relation to speaking and writing that good table manners have to eating. The schoolboy who declares, "we ain't goin' to have no baseball this year" is using language with competence, for his meaning is perfectly clear, but he is not using it with decency. Quote in Hill : 1953 : 312.

**These features are : (i) \pm centrally regulated (CR), (2) \pm edited (Ed) and (3) \pm technical. The style is centrally regulated when there is a close or near-match between competence and performance ; presence versus absence of re-examination yields + edited ; use of the expressive resources and lexical riches are responsible for the feature \pm technical.

The obvious conclusion is that spoken prose or naturalistic dialogue' is basically a prose with inbuilt flexibility to take some characteristics of conversation, and thus are not far removed from the free conversation on common topic of everyday life and it is this style which is the most 'natural' variety of language to be used as 'text' in teaching.

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Prose is a language form used in literature when interpreted liberally. Kelkar (1970) is right in differentiating the liberal interpretation of literature (text under *letters*) from the narrower interpretation (texts under *fine-literature*). Fine literature represents the intersection of letters and art, because a piece of letters need not be a work of art. According to Kelkar, 'the linguistic underpinning of letters is essentially that of the formalised, non-casual version of languages' which can be interpreted in our feature-complex for style as (+ CR, + Ed).

Definitely, it is not this variety of language form that one seeks initially in the text-material for language teaching. This prose style deals with the commonplace topic but with dull expression ; it is a matter-of-fact say but with unimaginative thinking ; it establishes the close match between the competence and performance but in no way exploits the creative and imaginative use of language. A prosaic statement is banal in content as it attests the maximum of redundancy with the minimum of information.

A prosaic prose-text is transformed into 'spoken-prose' or 'naturalistic dialogue' by creative writers through a process which instils into the text the elements of *natural conversation*. What a colossal task it is to use a living expression for commonplace topic, think imaginatively in matter-of-fact style or use the language structures creatively without breaking the relationship between competence and performance ? It is to this agonizing endeavour that Flaubert points out when he admits : "How exasperated I am by my Bovary.....I have never in my life written anything more difficult than these conversations full of trivialities.

And further, "*Bovary* is driving me mad ! I am coming to the conclusion that it *can not be written* I have to make up a conversation between my young woman and a priest, a vulgar, stupid conversation, and because the matter is so commonplace the language must be appropriate. I understand the feeling, but the ideas and words escape me."

The answer to the question what is the most appropriate language form for spontaneous conversation, is vital to our understanding the very nature of language in use. "One unalterable rule that we had for the rendering of conversation—for genuine conversations that are exchange of thought not interrogatives or statements of fact—was that no speech of one character could ever answer the speech that goes before it. This is almost invariably the case in real life where few people listen, because they are always preparing their own next speeches....." (Ford Madox Ford 19.4 : 297).

The linguistic behaviour of involved characters in 'genuine conversation' or 'naturalistic dialogue' clearly demonstrates that the language learning is not a matter of habit formation ; rather it is a gradual achievement in the competence over the creative use of a language. Creative act is the antithesis of reaction and not the mere reaction "to the given stimulus. No doubt, that literary-texts are the best language texts which attest and exemplify the creative use of language, as evidenced in any genuine conversation."

Even a cursory glance over any piece of genuine conversation reveals how differently linguistic elements are structured under purely different extrinsic demands specific to culture. "The varied extrinsic demands made by the users on a language inevitably lead to the functional plurality and multivocality of expressions. The fact that a language successfully serves a variety of social functions in the life of a speech community proves that it has an in-built ability to shape and programme its internal organisation to suit the various transactions". (Srivastava 1971 : 28). A 'naturalistic dialogue (literary texts) is like conversation, a natural realisation of basic linguistic structures in the context of a given speech-situation attesting the functional plurality and multivocality of expressions.

Halliday (1970) points out to the three distinct grammatically relevant 'language functions': the *ideational* function wherein a language serves for the speaker's experience of the real world ; the *interpersonal* function wherein a language serves for the expression of social roles ; and the *textual* function, wherein a language provides for making links with itself and with features of the situation in which it is used. All these functions are inherently manifested in any piece of a 'naturalistic dialogue.'

The focal point of the above discussion rests on the fact that a creative writer transforms a piece of *prose* into a text of 'naturalistic dialogue' by instilling into it the basic three grammatically relevant language functions which add 'something more' to the fact conveyed by the redundant prosaic statement.

A general nature of argument against the use of literary-texts in language teaching has been that they, often than not, are characterised by style, semi-sentences, idiomatic expressions and words with irregular forms ; that they are marked by violations of standard rules of grammar ; that languages in literary-texts are charged with 'sense, feeling, tone and intonation' as complementary aspects of meaning ; that they raise issues of aesthetics rather than powers of 'true' communication ; that they pose the problem of emotive and figurative use of language and are often conditioned by the traditional literary forms. And for all these reasons, it is often suggested that literary-texts or its features are either to be intentionally avoided or carefully be postponed till the basic four skills are imparted initially and students have gained sufficient command over the language use. In a way, literature is confined as merely a tool to the higher learning in aesthetics, national culture and the spirit of nation.

Such scholars carefully dissociate literature from language as if they are not related and their problems intrinsically interlinked. The pamphlet issued by the Ministry of Education, London (1954 : 133) has warned against the separation of literary studies and language analysis from class-room language-teaching..... "any attempt to separate language from literature, either in the human mind or in the practice of teaching is fraught with danger, not only to our national culture, but also to standards of linguistic achievements in the school."

In fact, all features of literature are realised through the manipulation of linguistic structures (Srivastava : 1972). According to Ohman (1964) the notion of style is dependent on a theory of linguistics and given a powerful theory of linguistics, (like Transformational Grammar), stylistic realisations can be shown as characteristic *use* of the options permissible within the language system. Thus, stylistic study is nothing but the study in the use of and choice in the options of alternative potentials of a system. From the standpoint of meaning and information, style may also be understood "as an

emphasis (expressive, effective or aesthetic) added to the information conveyed by the linguistic structure, without alteration of meaning” (Riffaterre : 1954 : 413). This means that a system of a language expresses the meaning, writes the choice in alternative potentials, emphasizes one or the other aspects of meaning and adds to the centrally constant meaning a complementary aspect of ‘sense, feeling’ tone and intonation.”

Similarly, ‘semi-sentences’ are not the result of having no syntactic structure and hence, are not ungrammatical. It is true that they cannot be interpreted by the grammar of well formed sentences; nevertheless, they have their grammar. To explain the grammar of semi-sentences, Chomsky (1965 : 148-60) invokes the concept of ‘degree of grammaticalness, while Katz (1964) proposes the notion of a ‘counter-grammar,’ the main difference between semi-sentences or figurative use of a language and ungrammatical non-acceptable sentences rests on the fact that the former presupposes language as a code of rules (which can be broken) while the latter does not imply this code of rules as an antecedent fact.

Language of literature is a language of imagination ; it is an outcome of writer’s linguistic creativity. It often demands from the reader a ‘nonce-interpretation’, because a ‘literal interpretation’ gives anomalous reading. For example, the title of Yashpal’s famous novel ‘Jhuutha-Sacha’ (false-truth) can only be interpreted ironically i.e facts generally accepted as ‘truth’ by others are ‘lie’. This shows that any deviation or violation of syntactic/semantic ‘norm’ demands from a reader a critical flight of imagination making him conscious about the norm, as well as, of the deviation potentiality inherent in a language.

What is being emphasized here is that the language of literature stylistically marked has identifiable structural patterns and is just as much a manifestation of linguistic competence as the ability to form judgements about grammaticality and acceptability. (Thorne : 1970 : 188). Secondly, those features which are characteristic of literary language invariably exist in the genuine ‘conversation-text’ and have their roots in every-day uses of language. In other words, a genuine conversation is never devoid of ‘sense, feeling, tone and intonation, element of information, and, in no sense, free from the use of ‘semi-sentences’ or stylistically deviant syntactic structures. Thirdly, if one accepts that is the genuine conversation or every-day

uses of language which serves the 'reference-point' for the teaching material, literary-texts (or to be more specific, linguistic correlates of literary features) thus become unavoidable. (How to grade these correlates is another area of investigation, which can be subject matter of another paper).

The up-shot of the above discussion and conclusions is that we are at present in need of a more inclusive conception of grammar which could bridge two of the widest gaps which have opened up in teaching—the gap between grammar and style and that between speech and writing' (Mittins 1959 : 99). Like Mittins, we may also endorse R. C. Pooley's contention that "the building of sentences and the manipulation of sentence materials for improved style are at the very centre of grammar instruction and are the chief reason for the teaching of grammar." This tangible goal can only be achieved by looking fresh the relationship between 'conversation-texts' and 'literary-texts' on the one hand, and 'grammar' and 'style', on the other hand.

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LITERATURE LEARNING AS EXTENSION OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

Suresh Kumar

Abstract : The problem of 'literature learning' as extension of language learning is examined linguistically, pedagogically, and sociologically. Questions are raised and answers attempted.

I am aware of the implication of floating the collocation 'literature learning' fashioned obviously on the model of 'language learning', for the reason that the same is rather unusual and therefore unfamiliar. The synthetic character of the phrase, which however reflects the language-external reality as I see it, puts a constraint on my attempt to define the problem in the way that would satisfy the literary specialist on one hand and the educational psychologist on the other. It is very likely that I may be found wanting by these specialists in course of wending my way through territories traditionally held by them.

I have referred to the unusualness of the collocation which, nevertheless, is deliberate and underlines the basic assumption in the title of this paper. Despite the fact that the problem is equally relevant to both the situations—that of mother tongue (MT) and of other tongue (OT)—I shall lay greater emphasis on the latter which is more consistent with my assumption in the present context.

Let us begin with the most fundamental clarification as to what is meant by literature learning as extension of language learning. The clarification is necessary as the implicit and tenuous link between literature learning and language learning is, in general, not explicitly recognized. It is reflected in the nature of literary materials selected for presentation and more than that, in the way they are presented, and in defining educational and instructional objectives for which the whole operation is undertaken. The clarification depends on our understanding the term 'literature' in the context of learning within

the broader framework of education. It is a relevant observation to make here that we better begin with the liberal interpretation of the term—the descriptive one—and go in graded fashion towards the narrower conception of literature as fine letters—the evaluative one.¹ It is the nature of literature learning as extension of language learning that demands such a comprehensive and graded characterization of the term 'literature'.

Accordingly, literature may be understood as text in context, whatever its extent. Text in context is a given set of linguistic expressions structured at a number of layers in cohesive design of a sort so as to show a match between text-internal components and text-external dimensions. Overall cohesion is the fundamental feature of the text in context. A text, if cohesive contextually, situationally, lexically, and grammatically (Enkvist 1973 : 122), is qualified to be called 'literature'—to be more concrete and operational, a literary text. The conception of multi-layeredness of linguistic expressions in the text corroborates the above view. A text embodies language organization at three conceptual levels—the levels of structure, literature, and style. Language in structure gets transformed into literature through a process where it is characterized as language in style, which is a kind of level in itself though not so explicit as the earlier two.

Now come to learning. Learning may be defined 'as the change in behaviour or state of knowledge (of the learner) caused by exposure to experience' (Ghosh *et al* 1977 : 9). Any account of psychology of literature learning should, therefore, be subject to two considerations : (1) what is the nature of literature, (2) literature learning is an extension of language learning. Literature as defined earlier may suitably be specified as a cogno-cultural entity. In the descriptive sense, learning literature is undergoing cognitive experience. In the evaluative sense, it is acquiring cultural experience—experience of the material and mental, including aesthetic, culture of the language community to which the works of literature belong. The view of literature learning as extension of language learning takes us to the root of the problem where psychology of language learning has also to be accounted. Whatever the merits of behaviourist assumptions in describing the facts of psychology of language learning, the nature of language as structure as a level in a literary text is predominantly subject to cognitive experience, and hence is

learnt cognitively rather than as conditioned behaviour. Learning language is, therefore, acquiring language experience and as extended to learning literature is acquisition of literary experience. The consequent change in the state of the knowledge of the learner is reflected in his improvement in the receptive and productive communicative competence of language as structure, as style, and as literature. Keeping in view the complexity of the literary text, it is not possible to formulate a monistic approach to psychology of literature learning. The empirical fact that a learner learns a language and extends his experience to learning its literature, indicates that the learner learns a language in a setting of psychological facts that takes care of learning literature as well. It seems logical to assume that the creative faculty of language, which is recognised as central to literature, does form part of the learning achievement of the learner while learning language. Correspondingly, the nature of learning language is duly modified and adapted to learning literature so as to form a *sort* of continuum. Consequently, I would say that learning literature is learning *facts of literature*, and also to *understand, to interpret, to evaluate, and to enjoy literature*.

At this juncture, I would like to pose a set of related questions by way of elaborating the notion of literature learning as extension of language learning as specified above, and attempt to answer them in an exploratory spirit, with the intention of initiating a dialogue on the problem rather than pronouncing the last word on it. So, I would like to ask myself the following three questions :

1. What to identify as issues in literature learning ?
2. How to relate literature learning to language learning ?
3. What motivates the learner to learn literature in course of his education ?

While attempting answers, I will try to see what evidence is there in the language itself that justifies the answers, what teaching procedures give us the clue to the answers, and what are the socio-cultural facts that lend credibility to the explanations offered.

As for issues in literature learning, or facts of literature to be learnt, I will speak of them briefly. In our descriptive or liberal conception of literature, text is the operational unit and thus the target in itself. A cohesive text is structured according to the rules of the code which basically realises it, in consonance with the con-

ventions of 'use' of language appropriate to the situation, of which the text is the embodiment. This characterization lays open the horizon in which issues in literature learning can be identified. While imposing a particular semantic interpretation on the text, the learner gets a new experience which he relates to his past experience of language, and thus extends it. At this level he learns the facts of literature at the level of language structure. This forms the foundation for his further encounter with the text at a higher level.

He also feels that certain items and patterns of language are selected purposefully so as to give the text a relatively distinct shape. The distinctive shape may also be given by deviating from the norm of the normal language use that he previously learnt. Reduced sentences, archaic forms and many other things can be cited as example. He also notices that certain words acquire an additional dimension of meaning—the connotative and the suggestive—which relates to the total effect of the text. In short, laws of text structure, conventions of language use appropriate to a situation, the particular significance of relevant items and patterns of language, relation of the particular text to contextually related (and unrelated) texts—these may be regarded the main facts that he learns. At this level, he learns the facts of literature at the level of style, corresponding to the level of texture of the literary form. The learner goes still further and identifies issues of structure of the literary form known by traditional labels of plot, character, theme, etc., without, of course, losing consciousness of the link between this level and the earlier one, that of texture. The pedagogic practices in vogue for classroom and awaiting necessary annotations to the textbook give ample clue to the identity of the above-mentioned issues in literature learning. The issues are, essentially, a matter of convention in the socio-cultural setting of the communities. The point becomes clear when the issues are identified in the context of what is referred to as imaginative literature. In Hindi literature, for example, pangs of love in separation are felt more by a woman than the man, and the amount of language content that goes into realising it is correspondingly larger. It is a matter of literary convention within the total cultural framework of Hindi speech community.

Identifying facts of literature have to be complemented with learning how to understand the interconnections among structural components of literary form and network of relationships obtaining

between textural properties and the structural constituents of the literary form. He further learns to interpret what he has understood—the type of particular language, the metalanguage, used for the purpose, mode of arguments, and so on. This will give him an insight for exploring the world of aesthetic and social values that the work of literature ultimately stands for, paving his way for enjoyment—enjoyment with understanding.

How to relate literature learning to language learning is of major importance to us. Conceptually, linkage between the two can be highlighted with reference to notions of acceptability and appropriateness which according to Corder (1973 :101) are key concepts of language learning. Acceptability is concerned with sense-relation rule, i. e. relationship among the cotextual components on semantic level, and appropriateness with reference-relation rule, i. e., relationship between the literary text as an autonomous entity and the literary and social conventions associated with it. What is important in literature is that the two show high degrees of closeness and are duly modified by the nature of literary situation. This is the reason that even such expressions as 'niirav taar hriday men guunj rabe hain manjul lay men' (i. e. voiceless strings are echoing in the heart) or 'vahninaa sincati' (i. e. waters with fire) or 'colourless green ideas sleep furiously' are neither felt unacceptable nor inappropriate. This, of course, is an additional dimension—additional to the normal acceptability and appropriateness, examples of which abound.

We have another notion with us which clarifies the nexus between literature learning and language learning at operational level. It is the notion of language functions. Whether the text is predominantly representational or expressive or cognitive,² it is characterization of the text in respect of the dominant element in its total output in correlation with the set of specific items and patterns of language which realise the text. The consciousness that, for example, a number of imperatives and second person pronouns are responsible for highlighting the persuasive dimension of a particular text to be appropriately named as didactic text, amply demonstrates the link between literature learning and language learning. The correlative pedagogic practice of literature through language, still remains at the pedestal of proposal, has a lot to contribute towards consolidation of learner's experience of literature learning as

extension of language learning, and is therefore strongly recommended for practice in the class-room and writing annotations in the text-book. (For specimen of the latter see Suresh Kumar 1978, appendix section).

There is one more angle to look at the problem. It is concerned with grading of the teaching materials. Grading the teaching materials may be likened to, speaking metaphorically, undertaking a journey from freedom to control on one dimension and from control to freedom on the other ; freedom and control of course, being relative rather than absolute. Language learning texts, at the initial stage, are subjected to grammatical-lexical-phonologic-graphonomic control while context of situation is kept in low key. This gives the learner the advantage of learning the language mainly as conditioned behaviour, which, understandably, needs to be extended. As the next step in learning, we envisage such texts where integrity of the context of situation gets higher consideration and thus is subject to perception rather than conditioning to a skill. Clearly, it is a switch from structural linguistic homogeneity of early learning to functional linguistic heterogeneity of later learning. We can imagine, it is an important switch ; learner's conditioning to linguistic homogeneity is modified to that of situational homogeneity achieved through linguistic heterogeneity. I propose, the above switch be regarded as the bridge for crossing over to literature learning from language learning. Theoretically speaking, concept of functional grammar as aid to language learning is directly related in the concept of style in language.³ I wish to emphasize that learning situationally homogeneous texts is the first step in literature learning. Pedagogically, it is correlated with presenting a variety of situationally appropriate norms of language use through 'style readers'. Socio-culturally, style learning matches with learning to perform appropriately through language in a variety of situations.

Now I come to the last question : what motivates the learner to learn literature in course of his education ? It correlates pedagogically with the notion of educational and instrumental objectives, and sociologically with imbibing practical social considerations, values and norms of a particular community. A host of expressions are invoked—effective communication, creative use of language, comparative culture learning, personality development, access to the spirit of the nation, etc. There can be no quarrel about them. Observance of

stylistic norms and manipulation of appropriate stylistic switches make our communication effective. Employing constructions which are not normally used, to achieve desired effects in communication and to weave a texture and structure of a 'heterocosm' are manifestations of creative use of language.

One does learn about the cultures of the communities through literary texts, where cultural tenets are exploited for achieving desired aesthetic effects. The use of literature as secondary source of learning culture of the communities is an established educational practice.

The experiential dimension of literature certainly affects our personality even in other tongue situations, and makes, in its own way, the spirit of the nation accessible to the reader. However, I want to underline another motivation of encountering literature—the enjoyment which has terminal value in literature learning as compared with the rest which are marked by instrumentality. People read literature for the sake of enjoyment also and sometimes for enjoyment only. The enjoyment of literature has been characterized as 'the pleasure of affirmative response.' We may be motivated for learning a particular other tongue to enjoy its literature. Literary enjoyment is incommensurate with any other enjoyment, and this unique feature of it accounts for the motivation of an encounter with literature.

While dealing with the experiential segment of motivation, I have deliberately omitted the word 'learner'. This is to recognise the fact that ultimate experience of literature has no direct link with act of learning. It is the logical result of learning facts of literary communication as based ultimately on facts of linguistic communication, together with social and literary conventions, and as such, the highest achievement of the student/reader of literature.

NOTES

1. Literature in descriptive sense is any text performing any kind of function—the language-external function. In this sense, a technical report, an advertisement, a poem, a newspaper account, all are equally qualified to be called literature. Literature in evaluative sense is a discriminatory view, according to which only aesthetically satisfying texts qualify as literature.

2. According to Bühler, language is usually at once symbol, symptom, and signal. Symbol is information and is text-centred, symptom is self-expression and is speaker-centred, and, signal is persuasion and is hearer-centred. Accordingly, language performs three functions—informational (or representational), expressive (or emotive), and persuasive (or conative).
3. Functional grammar, in contrast with formal grammar, is concerned with describing language patterns in accordance with its actual functions in different social situations. The concept of style in language refers to purposeful language variation—purpose being relevant to a given social situation. The commonness of social component in both the approaches gives a clue to their linkage and is useful for preparing teaching materials

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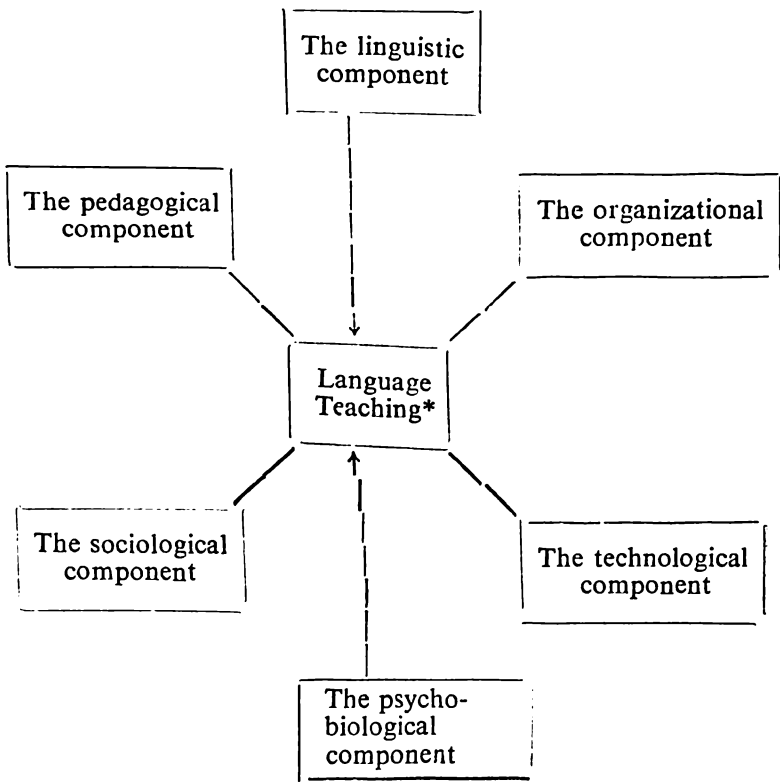
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COLOPHON

The materials presented here originally formed part of the paper read in the seminar on Language Teaching and Materials Preparation, organized by Kendriya Hindi Sansthan at Delhi in 1973. The paper was thoroughly revised before being read in the Seminar on Language Learning in Multilingual Indian Context, organized by Kendriya Hindi Sansthan and Department of Linguistics, University of Delhi at Delhi in 1979, and then published in a slightly modified form in Language Forum V. 1 (1979), pp. 1-7.

Shivendra K. Verma

Second language teaching is a multi-dimensional and interdisciplinary activity. Its main dimensions may be said to be : *organizational* (concerned with physical and administrative facilities such as the size of the class, status of the languages involved, educational and linguistic policy of the government, national provision of facilities for research development, coordination, and information about language teaching, etc.), *technological* (facilities for the use of mass media such as radio, television, language laboratories etc ; the inherent advantage and limitations of radio, television, film, etc. in language teaching), *psychobiological* (motivation, aptitude, language behaviour, problems of interference, relation between maturation and language learning, built-in language learning mechanisms, language being due to as yet% known species-specific biological capacities, etc.), *sociological* (concerned with the use of language in a variety of socially determined situations), *pedagogical* (concerned with the overall organization and coordination of language teaching activities : selecting, grading, presenting and testing items), and *linguistic* (concerned with the scientific description (s) of the language to be taught and contrastive analysis of the patterns of languages in contact). The aim of all these activities is to help pupils acquire the basic language skills : speaking (selection of appropriate sounds and their organization), understanding (indentification of sound; decoding sounds as meaning), writing (selection of appropriate graphological symbols and their organization) and reading (identifications of symbols ; decoding symbols as meaning). This may be represented diagrammatically as :



*Objective Four Basic Skills (Ronald, 1970)

| <i>*Aspect</i> | <i>Medium</i> | <i>Mode</i> | <i>Function</i> |
|----------------|---------------|------------------------|-----------------|
| Productive | Spoken | — Speaking | Selection |
| | Written | — Writing | Execution |
| | Spoken | — Understanding speech | Selection |
| | Written | — Reading | Execution |
| Receptive | Spoken | — Understanding speech | Identification |
| | Written | — Reading | Identification |
| | | | Interpretation |

What we have called, 'linguistic study of language', it is clear is only one of the inputs of a total language teaching strategy. It is supposed to give language teachers, course designers, and producers of teaching materials an inside view of the complex network of mutually defining and interlocking systems that we get in languages.

Language teachers have begun to feel that linguistics has failed to provide them with the help they seek for improving both content and methodology in their chosen field. The real fact is not that linguistics has failed but that the hawkers of linguistics have failed. Linguistics per se has different aims from language teaching. It is surely not concerned with providing evidence about the most effective procedures for language teaching. It does not have any techniques of language teaching to offer: it has no 'do it yourself' kit of classroom procedures to display. "It should be noted that the various linguistic insights that emerge do not determine any particular teaching method or methods. Too often in the past the assumption was made that a linguistic technique (for example "the minimal pair" technique) or that apparent insights into linguistic structure achieved by linguistics had to be communicated directly to learners... Generative-transformational grammar provides language teachers with new insights into language. However, it gives them no way of teaching these insights. In his paper on "Linguistic Theory" read at the Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (1965), Chomsky expresses his doubt whether there can be any direct application in language teaching of the insights achieved in linguistics and psychology. ".....I am frankly, rather sceptical about the significance, for the teaching of languages, of such insights and understanding as have been attained in linguistics and psychology.

Certainly the teacher of language would do well to keep informed of progress and discussion in these fields, and the efforts of linguists and psychologists to approach the problems of language teaching from a principled point of view are extremely worthwhile, from an intellectual as well as a social point of view. Still, it is difficult to believe that either linguistics or psychology has achieved a level of theoretical understanding that might enable it to support a 'technology' of language teaching" (Chomsky, 1971.)

This is the quintessence of the problem. At present neither the linguist nor the psychologist knows enough about the process of

second language acquisition to tell the language teacher what to do. Fundamental insights about language should certainly help us understand how language works but a description of a language is not in itself a set of directions as to how to learn or teach that language. Fragments of grammar and flashes of bright ideas cannot replace teaching grammars. "Whatever the place of phonetics and linguistics may be in *language teaching*, the formulation of linguistic statements is by no means essential to language learning." (Halliday et. al, 1964 : 179). Linguists are getting more and more involved in the metaphysical aspects of language. Another important aspect of their activity is their anxiety to use a highly abstract formalism for externalizing their insights. This anxiety has made them explore the fields of symbolic logic and mathematics. Language teachers, on the other hand, are interested in presenting the facts of language they are teaching in sociocultural contexts and thereby helping students increase their competence to use and understand different registral and stylistic varieties of their language.

This does not, however, mean that language teaching is a simple process of pouring "language" into empty vessels. All effective language teaching is a process of helping students move on from the level of context-governed performance to that of context-free competence. It is not enough to have our pupils perform well in doing simple, context-bound exercises. They must be helped to use the language in non-classroom situations, communicating with a variety of speakers in a variety of contexts. Language teaching is a cooperative enterprise in which teachers help their students internalize the system of the language they are learning. In acquiring their native language children do not depend on any special tutoring. All they seem to need is sufficient exposure to their language. Their built-in language learning mechanism help them abstract the basic rules of the language and formulate a mini grammar, which they go on refining and expanding in course of their interaction with their native language. "A child who has learned a language has developed an internal representation of a system of rules that determine how the sentences are to be formed, used, and understoodHe has done this on the basis of what we may call primary linguistic data" (Chomsky, 1965 : 25). One of the main reasons why linguistics is worth doing is that it can help us understand the

nature of this rather remarkable aspect of the psycholinguistic development of the human child.

How does a child acquire his second language? This is a question which has not yet been answered satisfactorily. Our understanding of the concepts of "habit", "analogy", and "ruleformation" in the context of second language is so very limited that we cannot come out with any definitive statements about second language acquisition. We do, however, have some idea of the problems involved in the organization of second language teaching. It is not possible to teach pupils *the whole* of a language. It is equally obvious that no teacher can teach his pupils *the whole range* of registerbased utterances they may be expected to use. Every teacher uses his own intuition, experience and training to select, stage, and grade his materials. Every teacher has his own way of reducing 'tokens' to 'types', of showing the interrelatedness of the types.

Grading is a complex process of grouping and sequencing interrelated patterns in terms of increasing complexity¹. "Gradation answers the questions : What goes with what ? What comes before what" ? (Mackey, 1967 : 24). Linguistics can come in here and offer linguistically graded phonological, syntactic, and lexical patterns. This does not mean that what is linguistically "complex" is, in every case, going to be pedagogically 'complex'. All I am trying to say is that linguistic insights into language can be used to group related patterns and formulate productive rules. By 'insight' I mean linguistic notions that increase one's understanding of the nature of language and of language learning.

A linguistically-oriented grading would bring together such interrelated patterns as declarative and interrogative, affirmative and negative, active and passive, causative and non-causative and so on.²

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- 1 Gradation means passing from the known to the unknown by easy stages, each of which serves as a preparation for the next. (Palmer. 1971 : 173).
 - 2 "In order to encourage uniformity, related things should be taught together ; opposites should also be taught together because when placed side by side they become clear, and one helps in teaching the other." (Mackey 1967 : 205)

And then combine these features to move in the direction of complexity. For example, a negative interrogative is more complex than a simple interrogative, and a passive, negative, interrogative more complex than a negative interrogative. Complexity in this context is defined in terms of features. The number of features or embeddings in a pattern may be used to mark its degree of complexity. Consider the following inter-related patterns in Hindi :

| | |
|-------------------|---|
| Statement | $NP_1 + (NP_2) + MV + Aux$ |
| Confirmation type | $(Kyaa) + NP_1 + (NP_2) + MV + Aux$ |
| Question | |
| Information type | $(NP_1 + NP_2 + MV + Aux)$ One of the lexical items groups to be replaced by a K-word. |

(Note that *Kyaa* is optional ; it is not place bound).

It can now be said that questions are 'transformed' versions of statements. If we have already introduced the declarative patterns, we can use them to 'generate' interrogative patterns. This will not only be linguistically meaningful, it will also put some 'life' into our language teaching activity. Our pupils will then have statements, questions, short answers (affirmative and negative).

The other parameters on which linguistics can help us grade the syntactic patterns are the following :

- (a) We can start off with simple verb-based patterns, with one participant, two participants, and three participants. This will give us 'ho' type, intransitive verb type, transitive verb type patterns. We may then introduce question, negation, passive, and causative transformation.
- (b) Verbs constitute the core of the sentence types. If we subcategorize the verbs in terms of the participants each

verb can take and also in terms of the complements (clausal, participial and infinitival) it can take, it will help us organize our teaching and testing materials efficiently and effectively, for we will have then a verb-based grammar of the language. This kind of a 'role'-oriented grammar will help language teachers distinguish superficially similar sentences :

- (i) yah laRkaa aapke juutoN ko camkaa detaa hai.
- (li) billi shuu paalish aapkee juutoN ko camkaa detti hai.

In (i) the subject NP (yah laRkaa) is the 'actor' but in (ii) the subject NP (billishuu paalish) is not the actor ; its real role in the sentence is that of an instrument. Since (ii) is a result of subjectivization transformation triggered off by stylistic and registral considerations, it may be advisable not to group it with (i). In fact, in terms of the order of introduction, (ii) should not be brought in at the elementary level. On this and a number of similar problems we can make use of the insights into a language provided by Chomsky's *transformational-generative grammar*, Fillmore's *Case Grammar* and Halliday's *Systemic Grammar*. These models can help teachers relate superficially dissimilar sentences. Consider the following :

(iii) laRkene roTii khaai hai

(iv) roTii laRkene khaai hai

They look different but they have the same experiential constituents. The main difference between the two is that in (iv) *roTii* has been front-shifted to make it the topic of discourse. It is useful to expose the pupils to variety of registers and styles. And this can then be used as the taking off point for their move from the level of contextgoverned performance to that of context-free competence. Even simple substitution tables organized on the basis of syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations in language have tremendous possibilities in second language teaching. They can be used to generate a large number of sentences. The following is an example of such a productive table :

| | | |
|---------------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| LaRkoNne laRkiyoNne | lekh patra | likhaa hai paRhaa hai |
| laRke | lakh patra | likh rahe haiN |
| laRkiyaaN | | lekh rahii haiN |

The new transformationally-oriented drills tend to hold the principle content vocabulary constant and change the sentence patterns to different but related patterns. The idea is to make students familiar with a group of related sentence patterns as shown on page 93.

At what stage and at what a particular pattern is to be introduced is a decision which has to be taken by the teacher ; linguistics can help him take more informed decisions. The real contribution of linguistics is to increase the teacher's understanding of the nature and complexity of language and thereby make him more careful and competent and therefore a better language teacher. Linguistically oriented teaching materials can produce satisfactory results only when they are used by teachers and textbook writers who are aware of the ideas and assumptions about language upon which they rest.

→ **Interrogative**
 (Kyaa) laRkene davaa Khaaii hai ?
 Kise davaa khaii hai ?
 laRkene kyaa khaayaa hai ?

Declarative (Affirmative)
 LaRkene davaa
 haaii hai.

→ **Negative Interrogative**
 (Kyaa) laRkene davaa nahiiN khaaii hai ?
 kise davaa nahiiN khaaii hai ?
 laRkene kyaa nahiiN khaayaa hai ?

→ **Negative**
 laRkene davaa
 nahiiN khaaii
 hai.

→ **Negative passive**
 laRkese davaa —
 nahiiN khaaii
 gaii hai

{ **Negative passive interrogative**
 (kyaa) laRkese davaa nahiiN
 khaaii gaii hai ?
 kisse davaa nahiiN khaaii gaii
 hai ?
 laRkese kyaa nahiiN khaayaa
 gayaa hai ?

In fact we can have many more related patterns .

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1.1. The distinction between a “first language” and a “second language” is valid from the learner’s point of view. A language is first, because it happens to be the medium of communication in the family or the society in which a child is born and its (the child’s) mental faculties—perception, conception, recollection, ideation etc. —develop along with the recognition and acquisition of the (first) language. The first language leads the infant from the language-less state to the language-full state. The emotional development of the child also depends much on the acquisition of the (first) language. And then the education by which the hidden or dormant propensities of the child are brought out, depends much on the language learnt first.

1.2. The second language is second because it is learnt when the boy has already acquired a language. He is no more in a language less state, but he has already acquired the behaviour of a particular language in which his mental faculties are active. The real problem in learning a second language is the presence of the first language, so to say, impressed on the mental state of the boy.

1.3. The epithet second does not indicate the numerical status of a language that a person has learnt. A person may learn any number of languages, but all except the first one are ‘second’ in the technical sense.

2.1. The process of teaching depends on the process of learning on the learner’s part. Learning, as the psychologist says, is the replacement of an old behaviour by a new one, or it is acquirement of an additional behaviour. This involves “motivation” on the part of learner. Motivation is awareness of a need and active interest in a thing or activity. There is motivation at the root of the learning of a language whether it is first or second. In the case of the first language the awareness of the need, to express to or communicate

with others is the motivation for learning it. The child struggles for its existence and language is a very powerful helping tool in this struggle. But in the case of a second language such a powerful need does not exist. The second language can only play a secondary role. The boy or adult needs instruction as to how a second language will be helpful to him in his life. The teaching of a second language has the additional burden of creating proper motivation in the learner's mind. The emotional involvement that is found in the case of first language also lacks in the case of the second one.

2.2. Social prestige, cultural enhancement, religious fervour, political need or careeristic consideration may give a very great motivation for acquiring a second language; at times a greater motivation than that in learning the first language.

2.3. There are instances where the learner is negatively motivated in learning a second language by adverse political movements, religious prejudices or obstructive feeling of any nature.

3. In teaching Hindi to non-Hindi speaking Indians much care is to be taken in creating proper motivation. The failure in this has been largely responsible for the lack of sufficient success in the propagation of Hindi.

4. Success in teaching a second language requires proper, effective and harmless method of teaching. The teaching method has to take into consideration the general nature of learning activity as well as the nature of the subject, which is being taught. Lack of proper conception of what a language is and confusion of language with non-language has been another reason for the failure of proper teaching of second language. As the first language has to play an important role in the development of a child, emotionally, rationally, culturally and at times spiritually, the instruction of first language includes literature, moral ideas, ancient lore etc. As no proper distinction between the first and the second languages was made by the teaching did not differ in the first and second language instruction. This has led to many complications, the main one being the acquirement of the second language in a particular colour or brand, not acceptable to the native speaker. The traditional instruction of Hindi in the non-Hindi regions has produced many "brands" or 'varieties' of Hindi.

5. The purpose of second language is much limited as compared to the first language. The utility in practical life, that a language possesses, is the limit of purpose of learning it. In the case of Hindi, the purpose of teaching it to the non-Hindi speakers has not been properly understood by the teachers. I need not dilate upon the political and administrative utility of learning Hindi here : nor is it necessary for me to say here that Hindi is conceived to become a common communication medium in different spheres of life in India, and that this fact demarcates the aim of teaching it on large scale in the non-Hindi regions.

6. The traditional methods of teaching a language, whether it is first or second, were mainly based on teaching the rules of grammar, translation from one language to another or giving synonyms, explanations etc. ; the traditional from one language to another or giving synonyms, explanations etc. ; the traditional method also had the view that language is mainly vocabulary, which was wrong. We can say that the traditional method attempted to teach vocabulary, not the language as structure. It taught sentences only because the vocabulary has to be used in the sentences. The traditional method on account of its preoccupation with the first language teaching has started teaching a second language with the script ; ('the ABC of a subject' has become an idiomatic usage in English which evidences this fact) and gave prominence to reading and writing rather than to listening and speaking. The learner was, thereby, compelled to associate the new script with his already acquired first language and his acquisition of the second language got the constant interference from his first language.

7. The modern linguistic studies have led to new thinking about the language teaching. There are many thoughts (or rather schools of thought) as to what is a linguistic method (linguistic approach to be more precise) ? The difference in these "Linguistic thoughts" is on account of the different theories of language, which are the bases of the different linguistic schools. But all agree on the point that a proper (linguistic) analysis of the language taught, must be the basis for teaching it ; the second point on which they agree is that the primary skills of language, i.e, listening and speaking must precede the instruction of script and the secondary skills i.e., reading and writing. The linguistic approach has also clarified the nature of

language as against literature, rules of usage, lists of vocabulary, script etc.

8.1. The modern techniques of language teaching involve a great deal of mimicry and memorization (what had once been referred to as "mim-mem technique". Of late, much emphasis has come to be laid on recognition drills at the first instance in language teaching.

The recognition drills are devised in order to enable learner to discriminate between the various elements of language structure. These are based on minimal-pair recognition. The method minimal-pair recognition is applied not only in teaching pronunciation, but also in the contrastive features of the grammatical structure.

8.2. The second stage involves what may be called "imitation drills". In fact, this is the core of second language teaching. The pattern-drill makes the learner internalize the different structural patterns of the language. Not only the phonological elements and grammatical patterns, but also the sets of glossary can be taught through pattern-drills". The teacher should successfully enlist active co-operation from the learner in this drill. The learner should be made to discover for himself the laws operating in the language structure. This requires much ingenuity not only in preparing the pattern-drills, but also in the creation of class-room situations.

8.3. The third stage contains "repetition drills". Sufficient repetition of various patterns of different levels help to relieve the learner from the burden of conscious controlling of the details of sentence, sound sequence or use of vocabulary. The repetition should go on until the learner's response is fluent and accurate ; his response should become almost a physical motor habit.

9.1. Many schools of thought which we referred to above, limit their language teaching process to the third stage. That is to say, these methods teach "performance" of the language. Certain amount of language material-sentences, sound-sequences, vocabulary sets etc., are given to the learner, and he is encouraged to imitate the teacher or the native speaker in using the second language.

9.2. But the most modern linguistic theories have recognised that there is another aspect of the language in human beings ; that is, the competence in the brain ; what is meant by 'competence' is

the ability to produce and recognise new patterns. Mastery of language means, the ability to 'creat' new patterns which will be acceptable to the native speakers. So the schools, which place much value on 'competence' rather than performance insist on giving drills for producing this 'competence' in learner. The device for this contains two types of drills : One is what may be called 'variation drills' and the other may be termed as 'selection drills.'

9.3. The variation drills may be one of the following :

(1) Substitution (2) Transformation and (3) Combination. Substitution drill holds the sentence pattern constant and varies the vocabulary used in the sentence by substituting one with another whereas the transformation drill keeps the vocabulary constant and changes the sentence pattern. Combinatory drill involves combining of different items in proper order. These three kinds of drills enable the learner to produce novel sentences, and give him an insight into the workings of the language.

10.1. The 'selection drill' is devised to teach the learner how and when to use a particular item, grammatical, and phonological (intonational) patterns and also the 'registers', 'styles' etc. The learner is taught to differentiate between a formal speech and an informal talk, the standard language and the colloquial dialect or slang. The situational restraints of language use are taught to the learner by these drills.

10.2. The ultimate aim of language teaching is "communicative competence". This is the ability, which comes after one has acquired the "grammatical competence." This "communicative competence" needs to be taught even in the case of the first language. A second language may not create same types of problems in the same degree to the speakers of various languages as their first language does. If the first language of a learner happens to be cognate with the second language then the problems will be of different nature from those learners whose first language is not cognate within the second language. At times, the speakers of cognate languages show much influence of their first language in their second language use, whereas the speakers of non-cognate languages are free from such influences as they learn the second language in its totality or in all aspects. For instance a Gujarati speaker shows much influence of his first language in his Hindi where as a Telugu speaker is free

from such influences. Here the "cognitive competence" of the learner is much in evidence. A Tamil-speaker may find it very difficult to utter Hindi aspirates, as his language does not contain aspirates and he is conditioned to a particular type of language behaviour which defies uttering aspirates. But if the Tamil speaker has cognitive ability in sufficient degree, he can succeed in learning an entirely new type of language behaviour. So the Tamil speaker's inability to utter Hindi aspirates need not be considered as the phenomenon of language interference.

12. 'What to teach' is an important question in second language teaching. For instance, as a second language only the standard form should be taught, not the local dialects. This entails a proper analysis, evaluation, selections and presentation of the language materials.

13. At the presentation stage, the contrast of the second language with the learner's first language must be kept in view. So the nature of the teaching materials of a language will be the same for all learners ; but the arrangement and presentation of the materials will vary according to the nature of the first language of the learner.

14. In conclusion, it may be mentioned that (1) a proper linguistic analysis of a language along with a contrastive study of it with various languages, is the basis on which the proper materials for teaching and method to be employed in teaching are dependent.

(2) The teaching of a second language must proceed on different stages, namely (1) recognition (2) imitation (3) repetition (4) variation and (5) selection.

(3) The aim of language teaching is not merely a performance in imitation, but grammatical competence, communicative competence and creativity in the language.

(4) Proper remedial steps should be taken in order to save the second language learning from the interference of the first language.

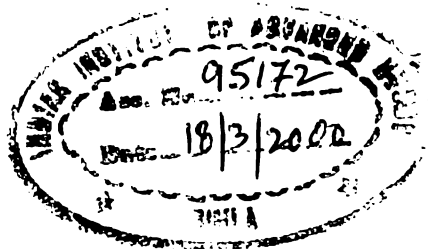
(5) The standard form of the second language is the aim of teaching it.

(6) The second language is to be taught from the point of view of utility in various functions.

(7) The above points should be kept in view in teaching Hindi to the speakers of non-Hindi languages.

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