

**Language Teaching Through Television**  
**The Case of English in India**

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**MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY**

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My Parents

who imbibed in me the  
love for those who did  
not have an opportunity  
to get educated



CERTIFICATE

Certified that the dissertation entitled Language Teaching Through Television : The Case of English in India by Chandra Bhushan Sharma for the partial fulfilment of the degree of Master of Philosophy has not been previously submitted for any other degree of this or any other University. We recommend this dissertation to be placed before the examiners for evaluation.

  
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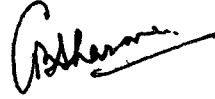
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The shortcomings, whatever left, are entirely mine and are regretted.



(CHANDRA BHUSHAN SHARMA)



## INTRODUCTION

## INTRODUCTION

To know a language and to know about a language are entirely different things. Literature of a language helps one to know about a language in terms of its development which is the result of evolution of the people as the user of their language alongwith the evolution of their psychological, cultural, social structures. Linguistics helps to know a language by explaining its sounds (through phonetics) its meaningful structures (through semantics) its grammatical system (through syntax) its patterns of word construction (through morphology) etc. Putting together, the knowledge of the literature of a language and a linguistic study of the same language can make the teaching and learning of that language scientific and easy.

Some scholars think that literature has no role to play in teaching a language. The place of teaching literature is often put after the teaching of a language i.e. explaining the structures. It is paradoxically felt that learning a language is like learning a formula in mathematics which once learnt can be applied to any number of lexical items and grammatically correct sentences will be produced. In fact, literature and language

teaching are complementary to each other. When a story is prescribed in a junior class it is not entirely for its literary value that it is taught but also for drilling the students in the linguistic constructions i.e. syntactic, morphological etc. used in the story. Practise of linguistic patterns in this way can be easily and interestingly done. Someone with the knowledge of the literary works and also the structure of a language can prove to be more useful in preparing the course material and helpful in the education of the students.

Now let us turn to my choice of second language viz. English. The most important argument in favour of English would be that as Kachru puts it, "provides stable linguistic threads for unity and is an 'access' language among ethnically diverse Indians"<sup>1</sup>. Out of the twentythree Indian states, six - Arunachal Pradesh, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland, Tripura and all the Union Territories except Delhi have English as the official language. In school curriculum, Arunachal Pradesh, Daman and Nagar Haveli have English as the first language as optional with other Indian languages. In

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1. Braj B. Kachru, "The Indianization of English", in English Today, NO.6, April 1986, p.31.

Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu and Kashmir, Karnataka, Kerala, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Tripura, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Andaman and Nicobar, Goa Daman and Diu, Lakshadweep and Pondicherry English is taught as the second language. In the rest of the states - Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa and Punjab - English is the third language.<sup>2</sup> The objective situation that emerges is that every student who passes from an Indian school from any state has to study English at one stage or the other. The Union Public Service Commission which appoints the civil servants has made English compulsory for qualifying for the exams. All other Indian languages are optional.

It is interesting to notice that Indira Gandhi National Open University which has a national character more than any other university in this country has made English compulsory for all students reading for their Bachelors Degree. This is as late as 1988, when they are launching their Bachelor's Degree Programme. For those students who wish to study an Indian language in lieu there of read a second optional course in English at the foundation level.

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2. M.G. Chaturvedi and B.V. Mahale, "The Position of Languages in School Curriculum in India, New Delhi, NCERT, 1976.

Considering the overwhelming need for teaching English at all levels, it becomes imperative that English should be taught in the best possible manner. The standards of English in the government schools has been deteriorating ever since Independence. The number, however, of private English medium schools and English teaching departments in different universities has been on the increase.

The language controversy going on in different states and the opposition to Hindi as a link language or official language have resulted in more and more emphasis on the teaching of English. If on the one hand the central schools have tried to popularise Indian languages, on the other hand, private English medium schools have been going up in number. People of means prefer to send their children to English medium schools, to enable their children to go for higher education to good universities, where invariably the medium of instruction is English. To enable a student to attain this, a good knowledge of English seems to be the basic qualification. Under-proficiency in English is taken as a handicap.

The amount of writing that is done in English and the amount translated from Indian languages into English in India is enormous and

considerable. The total publication done in English would be much more than many Indian languages. Besides, Sahitya Akademi which is the recognised body for promoting writings in Indian languages recognises English as one of the languages.

English, is no longer a foreign language. It is, however, a language of the elite in India who find their vocation in the professions. Thus the demand for English education is always on the increase compared to its supply. Hence, the availability of good teachers of English is small. Most of the schools and colleges have been found to have faculties with poor competence. The setting up of the Central Institute of English and Foreign Languages at Hyderabad in 1973 was a step towards rectifying this situation. To boost the teaching and learning of English, we have to utilise the available experts to the maximum. And this is possible only if we take help of the modern educational media.

It has been realised, of late, by educators that technology can be of great help in achieving academic goals. The teacher in the class-room, black-board and chalk had been the media most relied upon till recently. It has been only in the last three decades that means of audiovisual

media have been employed for academic purposes. Radio, cassette players, television and videos have come to be used more and more for pedagogical purposes.

Television has been used by distance education academics in different parts of the world but not very often for language teaching. Television was invented in the University of Iowa in the year 1932 but it was adopted for educational purposes only in the 1950s<sup>1</sup>. British Broadcasting Company in the United Kingdom and Radiodiffusion Television Francaise in France started programmes for the schools in the 1950s<sup>2</sup>. Television, however, was first employed to teach English as a second language in the nineteen-fifties itself in the United States<sup>3</sup>. Unfortunately this could not become very popular as it became with other subjects.

With the expansion of television network today it is generally held that in our country

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1. Wilbur Shramm, Jack Lyle, Ithiel De Sola Pool. The People Look at Educational Television, Stanford, California; Stanford University Press, 1963 p.1.
  2. Alle E. Koeing and Ruane B. Hill., The Farther Vision: Educational Television Today, Milwaukee and London, The University of Wisconsin Press, 1967, p.167.
  3. Richard Sherrington, Television and Language Skills, London, Oxford University Press, 1973,, p.30.

90% of the population is covered by television broadcasts. What is implied is not that every family possesses a television set but that majority of the population can have access to television viewing. Against this background we can say that we have been much behind the rest of the world in exploiting the resources of television for education in India. Although television was introduced in the schools in 1961 but without much success. The major experiment television during with/ was done/ the period 1st of August 1975 to 31st of July 1976. The programme popularly known as the Satellite Instruction Television Experiment was an experiment in general education. The television has been used on a regular basis from the 15th of August 1984 for educational purposes by the University Grants Commission. Educational broadcasts are made everyday for one hour between 12.45 pm and 1.45 pm and a repeat of the programme is shown between 4.00 pm and 5.00 pm.

English, however, has not been taught effectively through the television and that is one of the dominant reason for the present study. It is a major gap in TESL, TEFL and ELT studies in this country that the subject of second language teaching through television especially English has so far not been taken up. This is the gap that is sought to be filled by the present study.



The word 'Television' in the title is not used in the sense of "through the air terrestrial transmission". This term has been used here synonymously with video. To the majority of viewers broadcasting and video seem to share the same characteristics. The viewers lack video vs. television consciousness. The viewers do not differentiate between the relayed programmes which are ephemeral and cannot be reviewed and the video programmes which can. They refuse to make use of the stop-start-rewind facility available on a V.C.R. Some students are also video conscious "in the sense that they find its technology inconvenient to use"<sup>1</sup>.

It would be appropriate to mention that teaching through television would not contain total teaching material. It would be used as supplementary, enrichment or remedial material. In fact this is the only medium which is dispensed with in a majority of the open universities. As we know, out of the fourteen autonomous open universities functioning in 1982, only two, that is the British Open University and the Chinese Central Television University use television for more than five hours a week for "through the

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1. Stephen Brown, "Video Cassettes" in The Role of Technology in Distance Education, ed., A.W. Bates, Sydney, Australia, Croom Helm Ltd., 1984, p.49.

air transmission.<sup>1</sup> "In the U.K., the open university uses television for 35 hours a week. In China's Central T.V. University, it is used for about 32 hours..."<sup>2</sup> So far none of the four open universities in our country teaches through television.

It is obvious from the available facts that television has not sufficiently been recognised as a powerful aid and almost an indispensable part of distance education. There is, however, a misconception about the relationship between teaching through television and distance education. It has often been conceived that distance education and teaching through television are synonymous, which is entirely untrue. All forms of media are equally important in distance education and have some important role to perform. Television is one of the several resources available to distance teachers and in some respects a unique resource.

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1. Tony Bates, "Broadcasting Television", in The Role of Technology in Distance Education, A.W. Bates (ed.), Sydney, Australia, Croom Helm Ltd., 1984, p.29.
  2. G. Ram Reddy, "Role of Communication Technology in Distance Education", in Communicator, Vol. XXIII, no.1-2 January-April, 1988, p.29.

The class-room teacher has very little help at his disposal and he cannot in most cases explain things with the help of examples and experiments for instance from real life situation the bird, animals and aboriginals in their natural habitat, management on a factory floor etc. Television "places virtually infinite number of unique resource experiences within the reach of students. Complex expensive experiments, field visits, microscopic experiments, plays, archival films, interviews with distinguished people and authorities on various subjects"<sup>1</sup> in the class-room. This has not been made available so far to students in the class-room of the traditional school or college.

On the 20th of September 1985, by an act of Parliament, Indira Gandhi National Open University was set up. Open Universities, as is well known, make use of all forms of media viz. print, audio and audiovisual. Although television is not used by IGNOU as yet, it does propose to use it and is going ahead with its preparation. The group setup by the Ministry of Human Resource Development to study the use of satellite services for education in 1990 is believed to have suggested

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1. G. Ram Reddy, Role of Communication Technology in Distance Education, in Communicator, Vol. XXIII, no.1-2, IIMC, January-April, 1988, p.31.

that "an exclusive educational channel is needed to meet the educational television broadcast requirements"<sup>1</sup>.

With this background, an effort has been made to examine the utility of the television in language teaching in India. Television is not expected to replace all other media but it is expected to perform a distinctive role. An examination of the role of television in English language teaching, in the Indian context is sought to be undertaken in this dissertation.

The current study is divided into 4 chapters.

In the first chapter we have tried to trace the history of education with particular reference to distance education in India. We have made an attempt to define the place of television as a teaching medium in open education system.

In the second chapter we have made a comparison of different communication media available to distance educators and the relevance of television in the system.

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1. G. Ram Reddy, "Role of Communication Technology in Distance Education" in Communicator Vol. XXIII no.1-2 IIMC, January-April, 1988, p.31.

In the third chapter a detailed study has been made of the development of educational television (ETV). Further in this chapter an attempt has been made to examine the semiotics of television programmes and linguistic relevance of language teaching programmes.

In the last chapter we have discussed the various skills of language learning and different approaches to language teaching. We have also tried to suggest a method applicable to teaching English through television.

CHAPTER - I

DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION AND  
THE MULTI-MEDIA APPROACH

## 1.1. CONVENTIONAL EDUCATION

1.1.1. ANCIENT INDIA: Since time immemorial students in India were taught by the teachers or gurus at the ashram by a direct method. The student went to the teacher's place and stayed with him all through the period of formal education. 'Ancient education' it has been said "was mostly individual. The mode of teaching was through stories, plays etc."<sup>1</sup>. There were no textbooks like the ones available today so the knowledge had to be transmitted orally, in the form of stories and students in turn expressed these in the form of plays.

With the change in the mode of production and the desire of the Indian people for 'upward social mobility' (IGNOU, DE-I-1, p.10) the demand for education grew. During this period the centres of Kashi, Takshila, Nalanda, Vikramshila, Vallabhi, Odantpur, Jagadal, Nadia, Mithila, Prayag, Ayodhya etc. came up in the northern part of this country. In the south, centres of learning that became

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1. Hindi Viswakosha, Part 11, Varanasi, Nagri Pracharini Sabha, 1969, p.268.

"प्राचीन शिक्षा प्रायः वैयक्तिक ही थी । कथा, अभिनय इत्यादि शिक्षा के साधन थे ।"

well known were Ennarium, Salotgi, Tirumuknddal, Malankpuram, Tiruworiyur etc. "Education was supported by kings for several centuries through land grants. The lands grants of Kadipur and Sarvajnapur were the leading and well known"<sup>1</sup>. The Subjects of study were astrology, astronomy ethics, linguistics, philosophy etc. The medium of instruction was Sanskrit, as the core of all study were the Vedas.

As the Muslim influence in India became strong by the end of 12th and beginning of 13th century, the socio-political power passed from the hands of the Hindu rulers who supported the system of Ashram education into the hands of the Muslims who did not. With the ascendancy of the Turko-Afghans and later the Mughals, Islamic studies naturally became more important than even before. Partly because of the religious and generally due to broader cultural reasons Perso-Arabic began to replace the classical Sanskrit as a medium of polite discourse and literary and religious writings. The result was that the schools imparting Sanskrit education began to decay.

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1. Hindi Viswakosh, Part 11, Varanasi, Nagri Pracharini Sabha, 1969, p.268.

आहारों के द्वारा शिक्षा का प्रचार और प्रसार शताब्दियों होता रहा । कादिपुर और सर्वकपुर के आहार विशिष्ट शिक्षा केन्द्र थे ।



A knowledge of the Persian language ensure upward socio-political mobility through preferments at court and positions of profits at Subhas. For the protection and propogation of Islam, mosques were constructed, and side by side Maktabs and Madarsas were built. The Maktabs imparted primary education and the Madarsas higher education. The education in Maktabs were of a religious nature and sections of the Quran were committed to memory as part of the religious education of an individual.

Instead of individual teaching as in the Ancient India now it was group teaching where one teacher taught to a group at a time. The subjects were not taught according to the accumen of each student but were common for all students. Although education was free, the teachers got grants from the state. The poor students on the top of the free education got scholarships from the government. The text, however, was still hand written and there was no provision of mass produced educational material even in medieval India.

#### 1.1.2. COLONIAL INDIA

More or less the same form of education continued till the British rule was established in India. In 1781 Warren Hastings set up Calcutta

Madarsa and in 1791 Jonathan Duncan started Sanskrit College at Varanasi, for oriental studies<sup>1</sup>. In, however, less than half a century, the entire attitude towards education changed. In 1835 English was made the medium of instruction in schools and colleges. Twenty years later Macaulay the law member in the Governor General's Council, in his famous minutes, argued in favour of teaching western sciences through the medium of English.

In 1857 universities were set up in Bombay, Calcutta and Madras. These became the seat of learning and their degrees became the hallmarks of education. Teaching was performed in a language alien to the land, at schools and colleges and at fixed hours and the teacher and the taught had less personal contact unlike in the ashram system discussed above. This type of education has been termed 'conventional education' and is "applied to formal classroom based instruction in a school, college or university setting, where teachers and students are present at the same time and at the same place"<sup>2</sup>.

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1. Bipan Chandra, Modern India, New Delhi, NCERT, 1980.
  2. A. Kaye and G. Rumble, An Analysis of Distance Teaching Systems, Milton Keynes, Open University, 1979, p.22.

In the conventional institutions instead of the study of astrology, astronomy ethics, linguistics, philosophy subjects like biology, chemistry, economics, physics etc. were taught. The motive of study was not only knowledge but also a degree because this alone qualified one for employment. The student teacher relation was not personal and intimate but impersonal and formal. The selections of the students was not on the basis of merit and intelligence but on the economic basis. Education became commercialised. There existed different schools with different fees and facilities. Students with poor economic background could not go to schools with higher fees. Education began to have a class bias. (For details see IGNOU-DE-I-1).

### 1.1.3. INDEPENDENT INDIA

By the time the Britishers left India the total structure of education had changed once again. Instead of the lingua-franca being the medium of instruction the 'elite' language i.e. English replaced the medium of instruction at higher levels. Books and other sources were mostly in English as such inaccessible to the common reader. Education had become a middle and affluent class venture. As the population grew and the job opportunities did not increase in the same

proportion competition for degree became more and more pronounced. The possession of higher and more than one degree qualified one better for the job market. One of the consequences of the struggle for degrees was the lowering of the standards of examination, another was the use of unfair means on a mass scale. As a result the quality of education became mediocre. The commercialization of education made learning mediocre rather than specialized.

In Independent India the state took upon itself to educate every citizen regardless of all considerations of class, colour, creed and status - economic and social. The first education commission headed by Dr. S. Radhakrishnan (1948-1949) favoured universalisation of education. The constitution of India had taken upon itself to educate every citizen within ten years.

The problem that our country was facing was being faced by countries all the world over. It was realized that, if education had to be significantly better and universalised the method and means had to be substantially different. Educational improvement does not always mean more teachers, books, facilities and thus more expenditure. It was realized that more of involvement and application

of rare talent and latest developments in technology could raise educational standards. Hence the effort was made to bring together the talent of the nation on one platform for the purpose of education of the students on a mass scale. Thus, the rare resource would be made use of by students at large and not just as in the conventional system by only a group of students.

## 1.2. ADVENT OF NON-CONVENTIONAL OR CORRESPONDENCE EDUCATION

The concept of application of rare talent as a scarce resource gave birth to correspondence education, which goes as late as the 19th century. Some trace the history to 1833 when an entrepreneur started teaching English composition and provided two way communication. Isaac Pitman started giving shorthand courses by the means of the Penny Post in 1840. In 1856 Gustav Langeuscheidt a German and Charles Tonssaint a French man started giving foreign language courses through correspondence. Sherry's College (1880), Clough's College (1880) and Chamber's College (1885) in Britain and the Correspondence University at Ithaca, New York (1883) were some of the pioneering institutions in the area of correspondence courses.

### 1.2.1. THE INDIAN SCENE

Although education through correspondence had caught up in Europe and America by the mid

19th century it became popular in India in the 20th century. The first example (although exact date not known) is of the British Institute of Bombay, which started giving courses through correspondence and made use of printed material delivered through post.

It was only in 1962 that University of Delhi started its correspondence unit and offered courses to students all over the country. It thus became the pioneer in the area of correspondence education in the country.

Currently language courses are being offered by a couple of institutes and universities like the Central Institute of English and Foreign Languages (CIEFL) Hyderabad, Central Institute of Indian Languages (CIIL) Mysore, Central Hindi Directorate (CHD) New Delhi, Andhra University, Annamalai University, Himachal Pradesh University, Madras University, Madurai Kamaraj University, Mysore University, Punjab University, Punjabi-Patiala University and Rajasthan University.

CIEFL is offering Post Graduate Diploma in Teaching of English (PGDTE) and M.A. in French, German and Russian, Andhra University, Annamalai University and half a dozen other universities

M.A. in English and so many other universities  
M.A. in other Indian languages. Diploma in Indian  
Languages is being given by CIIL and Diploma in  
Hindi by CHD. (For details see appendix II).

#### 1.2.2. SALIENT FEATURES OF CORRESPONDENCE EDUCATION

This form of education slowly became so popular that it gained attention of many teaching universities. In colleges and universities separate department of correspondence education were set up. According to a UNESCO report correspondence education was:

"Education conducted by the postal services without face-to-face contact between teacher and learner. Teaching is done by written or type-recorded materials sent to the learners, whose progress is monitored through written or taped exercises to the teachers, who correct them and returns them, to the learner with criticism and advise"<sup>1</sup>.



In India most of the correspondence departments impart courses only through printed material. CIIL has recently introduced audio-cassettes for language courses. Some universities have introduced contact classes and a few have also made the contact classes compulsory.

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1. UNESCO, Terminology of Adult Education, Paris, (1979).

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Correspondence education in India was in the beginning imparted by a department of the traditional universities. The prime medium of communication, as already mentioned, was the printed material. These printed material used to be the same that was used for face-to-face teaching in the classroom. In correspondence education face-to-face teaching was absent.

As the evaluators were basically from the conventional teaching universities and colleges their comments were precise and often unexplained like 'good', 'bad', 'keep it up' etc. The students were not able to decipher these comments and know their qualities and weaknesses.

### 1.3. DISTANCE EDUCATION

#### 1.3.1. DISTANCE EDUCATION: HISTORY AND DEFINITION

The concept and the term 'distance education' was introduced only in this decade. The term 'distance education' was officially first accepted at the twelfth World Conference organised by the International Council of Correspondence Education held at Vancouver (Canada) in 1982. The Conference was presided over by Professor Bakshish Singh, the then Director Punjabi University, Patiala now Consultant at Indira Gandhi National Open University, New Delhi.



Many authors even before this Conference used the term 'distance education' for this type of teaching but some had given it other names as well. Moore (1975) calls it "telematic teaching" and describes it as learning supported by 'those teaching methods in which because of the physical separateness of the learner and the teachers, the interactive, as well as the practice phase of the teaching, is conducted through print, mechanical or electronic devices.'<sup>1</sup>

As against Moore who laid emphasis on the use of 'print, mechanical or electronic devices' in carrying teaching Dohen (1977) defines distance education as "a systematically organized form of self study in which student counselling, the presentation of learning materials and securing and supervising of students' success is carried out by a team of teachers each of whom has responsibilities. Each is made possible by means of media which can cover long distances"<sup>2</sup>.

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1. M.C. Moore, "Cognitive Style and Telematic (distance) teaching", in ICCE Newsletter, Vol.5, no.4, 1975, pp.3-10.
  2. My source:  
Growth and Philosophy of Distance Education, Indira Gandhi National Open University, DE-1, Block 2, 1988, p.15.  
Original Source:  
G. Dohen, Das Fernstudium, Ein neues pedagogisches Forschungs - und - Arbeitsfeld Tübingen, DIEF (1977).

If we compare the UNESCO definition of correspondence education and Moore's and Dohen's definition of distance education, we find that in both the emphasis is on the absence of classroom or face-to-face teaching. At the same time, the favoured medium is a mass-medium. The educators have been continuously trying to reach the students through one or the other form of mass-media - print, radio, audio-cassettes etc.

Borje Holmberg has suggested some characteristics of distance education. They are:

#### 1.3.2. CHARACTERISTICS OF DISTANCE EDUCATION

- (1) Pre-produced courses;
- (2) Organised two-way communication;
- (3) Individual study;
- (4) Mediated form of guided didactic conversation.

Each one of these are important feature and need attention.

- (1) Pre-produced courses:

To tap the best talent in each field the course material is written by the elites in each field. This makes the textbooks meant for

distance learners a compilation of the best material in the subject. And as these are printed each year the material is up dated which puts it above the text-books adopted by conventional universities, which are reprinted once in a while and mostly without much improvement.

(2) Organised two-way communication:

Two way communication in conventional education is done only in the classroom. The text-book and the answer script is not used to establish a rapport with the student. In distance education two-way communication is approached through text-books which are written differently, through audio cassettes, video-cassettes and detailed comments on the assignments submitted by the students.

(3) Individual study:

In distance education every student has the freedom to study at one's own convenience. The rules are very flexible and the students can study at home and he does not have to be bound by the routine of a school.

(4) Mediated form of guided didactic conversation:

The teachers involved in distance education try to attain 'didactic conversation' through all means. The students are instructed through letters, through

instructions in between the 'units', through audio and video cassettes and also through detailed explanatory teacher-comments on the assignments which are returned to the students.

As the latest development 'student counselling' has also become a feature of distance education. The teacher and the students meet in classroom at regular intervals and the teacher tries to solve the problems of the students.

As against Holmberg's characteristic, Keegan has listed a few more characteristics of distance education. He has insisted on the absence of all the paraphernalia such as library, playground, cafeteria, class-room, tutorial rooms, seminar rooms, recreation, facilities and amenities for music and drama, attached to a regular institution.<sup>1</sup> At the same time the presence of facilities which can help produce pedagogic material through different means of media like printed postal material and audio-visual material the facilities which often resemble factories.

What is remarkable is that the emphasis from printed material as the source of communication

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1. Desmond Keegan, The Foundations of Distance Education, London, Croom Helm, 1986, p.10.

alongwith scanty comments on assignments shifted on to print, mechanical and electronic devices. Further, the definition became much broader and accomodated 'team of teachers' who had to undertake also the 'counselling'. The first thing that was dispensed with in distance teaching was face-to-face teaching. Now what we find is that it has once again been included.

The other important aspect which has attracted the attention of distance educators is teacher-comment. This is yet another effort to compensate for the distance of the teacher and the taught which is inevitable in distance education. The evaluators are required to give detailed explanatory comments on assignments which to some extent, can bridge the gap between the teacher and the taught. Kaul (1987)<sup>1</sup> has given examples of 'positive' and 'constructive' comments as against 'harmful' teacher comments. For instance he gives the following comments:

Examples of positive comments:

(a) "Your argument about situations/themes

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1. B.N. Kaul, "Tutor Comments: A Distance Teaching Technique" in Studies in Distance Education (ed.), B. N. Kaul, Bakshish Singh and M.M. Ansari, New Delhi, Association of Indian Universities, 1988, pp.45-46.

determining vocabulary is acceptable and the illustration given about cricket is good"

(b) "You could have discussed the issues further with the aid of your illustrations. Besides you should have talked about the following points.

(1).....

(2).....

(3).....

(4).....

Examples of harmful comments:

(a) "Horrible language. Pay more attention to your language".

(b) "You have beaten about the bush".

In distance education we see that teacher comments have to be elaborate and explanatory. This is a major important development on correspondence education in the distance education system.

From the above comparison it would be clear that there is no marked difference between correspondence education and distance education. Similar systems have been given other names such as 'Home Study', 'Independent Study', 'External Study', 'Off-campus Study', 'Open Learning' 'Open Education', etc.

It is, as Jevons would call, only "A bewildering nomenclature."<sup>1</sup> The distance teaching has been improving upon the techniques and technologies already used by educators. More and more forms of media have been made use of in this connection. It is not that any form of distance teaching debars any form of media from being used. Computer Aided Teaching (CAT) besides video, television and other forms have been made use of by correspondence teachers. It is the development in educational technology which has made the difference. All types of distance education institutions now a days lay "emphasis not only on print medium but also on other media. In fact multimedia approach is the corner stone of distance education systems".<sup>2</sup>

#### 1.4. OPEN EDUCATION SYSTEM

The latest in the development in distance education has been open form of teaching. Open Universities aim at reaching all interested learners

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1. F.R. Jevons, "Role of Education: Towards Parity of Esteem" in Technological Innovation: University Roles, London, Association of Commonwealth Universities, 1983, p.344.
  2. G. Ram Reddy, "Distance Education: What, why and How?", in Studies in Distance Education (ed.), B.N. Kaul, Bakshish Singh, M.M. Ansari, New Delhi, Association of Indian Universities, 1988, p.12.

irrespective of geographical location, age constraint or educational background. This system, according to the first Vice-Chancellor of an Open University in India (Andhra Pradesh Open University) Prof. G. Ram Reddy "incorporates all the elements of the correspondence courses and provides additional and new methods of instruction...and makes use of the latest development in the field of communication technology to achieve this end." <sup>1</sup>

The open system is not in any way different from the 'distance' system as 'distance' is from 'correspondence' system. It is only a change towards development in the direction of utilising more and more means to make learning easier. As the term 'open' itself would suggest that in this form no basic academic qualifications are required for admission and there are quite relaxed criteria regarding duration a student can take to finish a course.

In most of the open universities multi-media approach is applied and practically all forms of media are made use of. But the basic

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1. G. Ram Reddy, Readings in Distance Education - I, (A collection of papers presented ~~at~~ on various occasions by Prof. G. Ram Reddy, Vice-Chancellor Indira Gandhi National Open University, New Delhi), 1987-88, p.1. Published in the Indian Express, October 29 and 30, 1982.



material remains to be the print. In open universities audio-visual aids and television form important aids to subsist the print material.

In conclusion : We can say that the latest in the development of education is the application of all forms of media and re-recognising the importance of face-to-face teaching or "student counselling". In the open form all the forms of media viz. print, audio-cassettes and television-video and students counselling are made use of. The role each medium plays is defined and limited. In the next chapter we intend to examine the role each medium plays and the place of television in media-mix.

CHAPTER - II

THE MEDIA IN DISTANCE EDUCATION

A COMPARATIVE STUDY

## 2.1. INTRODUCTION

We have already seen that modern distance education institutions try to simulate classroom situations for the student through modern technology, while it allows him to choose his own pace and place of work. The choice may actually be limited in a real world situation by, for instance, the time of a television or radio broadcast or tele-conferencing\* through a satellite. Here however, we examine only three media i.e. print, radio and television in the context of distance education. The reason for the choice is that only these three media are presently being used by our distance education institutions, if at all they make a multipronged approach to education. Telephones are not yet in as much use here as for instance they are at Athabasca University, Edmonton (Canada) or the Open University (U.K.). We hope the computers will very soon be available to students in India as well but at present no empirical study is possible on it. Teleconferencing of the sort practised in the Philippines is nowhere on the horizon.

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\* Teleconferencing is making groups of students sit in actual classrooms at the same time (not local but, for instance a standard Greenwich Mean Time) while the teacher actually teaches in one classroom in any one city. The students in various other cities can see that classroom on the T.V. screen and can also be seen by the teacher when it is so desired. So This has been tried in the Philippines's many islands. The actual time of attendance in this case, however, is not very convenient for all concerned.

## 2.2. LESSON BROADCASTS AND PACING OF WORK

Before we go on to an examination of the use of the different media, we may sort out a minor snag in our study. This is the difference between radio and audio on the one hand and television and video on the other for pedagogical purposes.

One of the functions that a teacher performs in a classroom is that he prods his students to learn things in a systematic manner i.e. in a sequence through time. He does this partly by direct exhortation, partly through exercises and partly because his present lecture may be based on the one delivered earlier.

In a distance education situation the teacher also uses the radio and television for all the three purposes. In fact the internal assessment done partly by the tutor or counsellor and partly by the computer, further emphasises the exercise aspect of conventional education.

From the point of view of exercises or activities, however, the radio and television lessons can be less useful than the audio and video cassette facilities because of the simple fact that radio and television programmes cannot be stopped and started at will. An exercise requires intermittant

gaps which is not possible in television programmes.

The best distance education institutions Athabasca University, Edmonton (Canada) and the Open University, Milton Keynes (U.K.), to name only two, send a detailed schedule of the radio and television programmes to be broadcast through the year and each programme has a code which indicates the subject, course, block and unit it is related to. The faculty plans the amount of work that a student would reasonably be expected to do through the weeks and months after which he should listen to a radio lesson or view one on the television. The arrangement helps the student to pace his work as much as the assignments and the hints and suggestions of the teacher on the speaker or the screen.

Let us now examine the relative importance of the various media in the conventional and distance education situation.

### 2.3. PRINT MEDIUM

In the distance education regime, the self instructional print material is supplied to the student in lieu of the class-room lectures that a student receives in conventional education. The print material hence has been called the Mainstay of the distance education system. Most distance

education institutions spend a lot of their time and money in training their staff for the purpose. Writing of a distance education unit, requires skills of a specialised kind.

The writer of a distance education unit at time suggests readings which have to be done before the student is advised to read further into the unit. These units thus evaluated and vetted and standardised, turn out to be even more useful as instructional material than class-room lecture. Through self-check exercises, the teacher ensures that he has laid sufficient emphasis on the more important points.

While in these ways the lessons are complete in themselves, the question is how will they prompt the reluctant reader to pick up the printed material that he has received in his mail. There will always be some who will need the prodding. The study centres, of which there are many in some affluent countries but woefully too few in ours, are one of the means of providing this initial impetus. The regular visits to these centres, the sessions with the counsellors and the fellow students, are very helpful in not only prodding the student to read but also to learn more and more from a discussion with his fellow students.

Some even in the affluent countries and many more in our country are such who cannot afford to come to any of the study centres. How will their appetite for learning be vetted? Who will prod them to pick up their units and read? How will their knotty problems be solved? It is the television and radio programmes that come to their rescue. Such programmes also give them a feeling of belongingness to an institution and to a community of peers with whom one may like to compete.

So we discover that the television and radio have a powerful motivational element for the system of distance education. The television naturally does this better because of its twin i.e. audio-visual appeal. The imaginary student of the distance education system, however, does at times turn round and say that he can 'see better' while listening to a radio programme, than while viewing a lesson on a telly screen. The exception, however, proves the rule.

While the television provides motivation to the student in a powerful way, in itself it is a weak teaching medium in a particular sense. Difficult concepts cannot be explained through the television. It can generally and roughly illustrate certain points involving many and

live illustrations which at times cannot be easily done with the help of the printed page. For instance, mathematical equation. can better be solved on a printed page than on a television screen, but the growth and decline of Mughal architecture and the mingling of the various styles in architecture can much better be compared and contrasted on a television screen than in printed material.

The same thing can be said about the various operations - surgical or otherwise. For instance, students in technology and medicine learn from seeing things in action and the television and more than that the video with a stop-start facility can be of greater help to the student in understanding them. If these facilities are available to the distance education student he is perhaps better off than the student in a conventional system where each student does not get the same attention and a part of a process that has missed someone's attention cannot be repeated for him. What is true about a surgical operation is to some extent also true about language 'variety'. The peculiarities in each variety of language spoken in different parts of the country would not be imagined or explained without actual performer. One particular speaker also may not be able to



be a representative. In such a situation, every student cannot be placed in different places to observe the difference for oneself.

We have so far examined the distinctive role of print material in the system of distance education and in that context discovered the unique role of the television in motivating the student to learn. Besides this, we have discovered that there are certain things which can be done better through the printed page like explaining complex concepts - while others can be explained better through television. Operations and processes, comparison and contrast between styles and location studies are required in Geography or Political Science or Economics or Management can be done better through television.

#### 2.4. RADIO AND AUDIO

The radio is sometimes a neglected medium in the system of distance education. The emphases lie generally on the preparation of the print material in which the academic faculty is involved and in the preparation of video-cassettes and television programmes which attract the producers more than the radio and audio recording.

At this point, however, it may be necessary

to indicate that the empirical study conducted on the Indira Gandhi National Open University showed that the academic and communication division staff hardly showed any distinction between a radio and an audio programme. Audio cassettes are being prepared that are proposed to be put at the study centres, where there will be cassette players available and they will also be broadcast on the radio as and when the university will be given that time. The same thing can be said mutatis mutandis about the television and video programmes under preparation at the Indira Gandhi National Open University. It is obvious that the rubbing away of such fine distinctions between radio and audio and video and television programmes will as much destroy the utility of the one as of the other. How it is so, is discussed below.

The main purpose of the radio programme is to motivate the student to work and to get him interested in a subject. The main idea behind the preparation of an audio-cassette is to tutor the students. Such audio-cassettes must be accompanied with the audio notes which should indicate what the student should do before, during and after listening to the programme. If the support at the study centres is strong the teacher who has written the unit should send a separate note

to the counsellor who should initiate a discussion on the relevant points.

A part of what has been said above can be explained better with the help of an example. Let us imagine a course on child language development. After a student has read a block or unit on it and also some of the suggested reading he would like to have practical experience of listening to child language. At home he may not have an adequate large sample. So the teacher can give five excerpts of children of different age groups, say, from the age of two to eight, and ask the student to record the observed features. After every such example the student is suggested to stop the tape, rewind if necessary and record his observations on a piece of paper and then listen to the teacher's own observations recorded on the tape. Such an audio which is called 'interactive-audio' in the jargon of distance education is obviously very useful. Such a programme should not be confused, for instance, with an interview with Chomsky on 'Government and Binding' or with David Crystal on 'Communicative Grammar' or with Braj Kachru on the conversational habits of the speakers of English in India. Such programmes teach a little but create interest in the subject and thus motivate the student to read on his own.

## 2.5. TELEVISION AND VIDEO

What is true about radio and video programmes may not always be true about television and video programmes. Video information is something crucial to the understanding of a subject, for instance, we have talked about child language and the use of the video in that context, above. A teacher of a language would like to have a look at a printed page. Obviously this can be done away with if fascimile copies of the text can be provided. If more than one example is used, more such sheets will be necessary. In actual practice this can become quite messy. A television programme would not be so. In one such programme we observe David Crystal discuss how children learn to use the connectives. He makes some of them read their scripts and presents their scripts on the screen. Given below is one of the examples taken down from the screen. It was written by Paula who was eight year old\*.

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\* Open University, U.K. Programme,  
Language Development, BBC, OU, no. P.232.

A NARROW ESCAPE

One day I was in bed and my bed room door was open and I dreamed about a snake coming into my bed room and a baby elephant to it was horrible And the snake bit my leg and I was dead and and the snake and the baby elephant what a way and then a baby money came in and spoiled my bed and a alarm clock and my bed to and to covers to.

The teaching point was a demonstration of the blanket use of a single connective - and- and that it may pass into adults' way of writing and speaking, making discourse, on the one hand blank and dull and on the other confusing and quite inaccurate. If such a thing was done in print the material would have been dull and would not have been readily acceptable to an undergraduate student just being exposed to a new subject.

In the Indian situation we may use such a programme to show the writing habits of people from various linguistic backgrounds. For instance many school children from Punjab may say - 'in the middle of' where an ordinary English speaker would say 'in'. For instance he may say -

- (a) The pretty girl was standing in the middle of the road.

(b) I sleep in the middle of the room.

In both these cases the speaker only means 'in' rather than actually in the middle of the road or room. Similarly, in spoken language the speakers of Hindi mother tongue may say "increase me the rice" where one only means "pass me the rice please". In both examples it is the gravitational pull of the mother tongue structure that causes such deviation from standard practise in English. Such examples can go to make very interesting programmes both for the students and teachers of English.

This is just one example. In teaching the strategies of style in writing and using various words appropriately and correctly in different contexts, the television can be a very useful medium. The bend in the river, the curve of the Swan's neck and that of the upper part of the head of a woman can be feelingly described with the help of some descriptive words provided the students are trained in it. What is true about description is also true about narration, introspection and exposition and the T.V. can play a significant role in teaching English to our students.

Perhaps, more than writing English for creative purposes, one uses it every day,

especially in the cities, to create a favourable impression about oneself among one's peers, superiors and subordinates. The television can remarkably change the speaking habits of students if we show them live examples of conversations in comparative formal to informal situations.

## 2.6. CONCLUSION

In conclusion we can say that although the television and video are weak media for explaining complicated points and for the purposes of coaching, the television is wonderfully good from the motivational, affective and experiential point of view. These are very important in any case, more so in a distance education situation because it is weak in terms of human contact from which one learns in a conventional system.

In the next chapter we will discuss the nature and the characteristics of some of the important television programmes that have been telecast in the last few years.

CHAPTER - III

TELEVISION PROGRAMMES AND ENGLISH TEACHING

CONTENT AND FORM



### 3.1. EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION AND ITS DEVELOPMENT

Educational television (henceforth E.T.V.) is a natural succession to educational radio. But the stars under which ETV was born were far brighter than educational radio. Radio became operational for public communication in 1920's and almost the same time it was used for educational purposes. But "the growth of educational television commenced with the British Broadcasting Company and Radiodiffusion Television Franchise presenting enrichment programmes for schools during the early 1950's"<sup>1</sup> Italy introduced Telescuola or Television Schools of the air in 1958, Yugoslavia and Poland in 1960 and Soviet Russia and China in 1962. Many more countries joined the race.

Television in education is a paradox. Television developed as and is still the greatest selling medium but in education it sells nothing. Commercial television is programmed to reach the maximum number of people but the ETV is designed to reach only a minority. Round the world television is subsisted by the advertising money but in education

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1. Allen E. Koeing and Ruane B. Hill, The Farther Vision: Educational Television Today, Milwaukee and London, The University of Wisconsin Press, 1967, p.167.

it gets no advertising support. But the greatest paradox is that "the people who first experimented with it were educators. Experimental telecasts were made at the University of Iowa as early as 1932, but it was the entertainment side that drew audiences and support. There were 200 commercial stations....before the first non-conventional educational station went on the air on May 12, 1952"<sup>1</sup>.

As the entertainment side of television took the lead and the only role the television is expected to perform is of entertaining in the family domain. Once the television is accepted in the family as a teaching tool the teacher would find many more uses of the television. The educational role of the television should not be taken too literally. Specialists in particular fields or creative writers and poets who might not have time to meet individuals or groups may be interviewed on the television. Although this might not be accepted as an educational function by conventional educationists but this certainly is a step towards

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1. Wilbur Shramm, Jack Lyle, Ithiel De Sola Pool, The People Look at Educational Television, Stanford, California, Stanford University Press, 1963, p.1.

educating masses. Some individuals hesitate to make conspicuous visit to the school and stay on with their problems. Television can be of much use in helping such people becoming educated.

### 3.2. INDIAN SCENE

#### 3.2.1. TELEVISION IN EDUCATION IN INDIA

In India, except for the first two plan periods, television has been seen as a positive asset for education. In the first two plans no mention was made of television in context of education. Television was seen only as a luxury item with very little developmental and educational use. It was only in 1959, in the middle of second plan period that television was introduced in Delhi after the announcement that it was meant for schools and rural areas. In 1961 the Delhi School Television started with the installation of 5KWA transmitters and 300 sets in different schools.

The experiment with television was made on a large scale in general education during 1975-76. The programme is known as Satellite Instructional Television Experiment (SITE)

India during the 70s did not have a satellite of its own. The National Aeronautical and Space Administration (NASA) of the USA made available

to us its satellite 'Application Technology Satellite' (ATS-F). This was for a period of one year, from 1st of August 1975 to 31st of July 1976, the period during which SITE was operational. UNESCO and UNDP provided valuable help during the experiment<sup>1</sup>.

SITE focused on general developmental programmes on agriculture, health, hygiene, science and technology, family planning entertainment and national news. The programmes were telecast everyday in the morning and evening. The morning programmes were meant and designed for children of 5-12 age group. The evening programmes were for adults.

SITE programmes reached 2400 villages in six state of Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa and Rajasthan simultaneously. SITE is estimated to have cost over 100 million rupees.

### 3.2.2. TELEVISION AND MASS LITERACY

The effort that has been made in the direction of using television for education and the expenditure incurred on it seems encouraging and a determination of the government in using this medium for education.

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1. C.K. Bose and K. Ravichandran, "Satellite Television Experiment in India" in Reading in Educational Technology, B. Anand Rao & S. Ravishankar (ed.) Himalayan Publishing House, Bcmbay, India 1982 p.206-216.

The University Grants Commission in the "country-wide classroom"\* has been regularly telecasting programmes for science and social science subjects. The response to the country-wide classroom has been encouraging. Gipwell's report<sup>4</sup> on the Zambian television for literacy also confirms that the television programmes did not have many drop-outs.

But the paradox that seems quite apparent is that the UGC is banking so much on the programmes borrowed from the O.U. (London). In fact "the University Grants Commission has already started using the selected O.U. (London) ETV programmes which are obtained under the ODA assistance of the British Government." Besides the O.U. the British Council has also offered some programmes. The embassies of certain other countries in India like that of France, Soviet Union, Poland, USA,

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1. K. Gipwell, "Television for literacy the Zambian Project" in Literacy Discussion, Vo. 1-2, no.38-39, Spring, 1970 p.47.

\* Country-wide classroom - The UGC has named its programmes meant for higher education as countrywide classroom. It was started on the 15th of August, 1984 and on all working days the programmes are telecasted between 12.45 p.m. to 1.45 p.m. and repeat broadcast are made between 4.00 p.m. to 5.00 p.m. All the colleges covered by Doordarshan Kendras have been requested to procure T.V. sets with assistance from the UGC to show these programmes.

FRG, Romania and Japan have offered some of their educational programmes made in English for transmission through INSAT - IB.

The problem that one visualises in using such programmes is great. The language (English in our case\*) should have a phonological system based on the English spoken by Indian speakers. The programmes that are borrowed obviously have a presenter with a very different accent. This leaves the learner at a loss to understand the language itself.

The language of the foreign programmes represent a value system and semiological system entirely different from the semiological system of the learners. Such borrowed programmes would not be appropriate for a culture different from the culture it has been made basically for.

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\* The high level programme committee set up by the UGC consisting of representatives from Doordarshan, All India Radio, Indian Council of Agricultural Research, Space Application Centre and the Planning Commission decided that the programmes produced should be in English in the first instance.

### 3.3. ENCULTURATION AND SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

The process by which every member of a society acquires his culture is termed enculturation. Enculturation of each member of the society takes place on two levels - one automatically the other through institutions. Schools have played an important role of enculturation since ancient times. In modern times means of mass-communication play the same role. The mass-media like the newspaper, radio, television etc. play a very important part in enculturation.

The language of each social group helps transmit culture from one generation to another. Language is the key component of culture. Learning a second language or even a second dialect often involves learning a second culture.

There are many examples which prove that teachers from different culture from the students fail miserably in teaching. On the basis of the study made of the Navajo an American Indian group Saville - Troike reports that "the stranger teacher talks to them immediately, and it is Navajo custom to keep silence initially upon encountering unfamiliar

people and situations" <sup>1</sup> The Navajo children face this conflict on the very first day of the school. Similar things are bound to happen in even the television and video programmes which will have a culture and value system being represented different from the learners.

#### 3.4. AREAL FEATURES AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

Just as we have to take pan-Indian cultural features into account to make the television programmes relevant for the whole nation so we have to take into consideration the pan-Indian linguistic features. In spite of the fact that there are four language families - Indo-Aryan, Dravidian, Tibeto-Burman and Austro-Asiatic being represented by more than three thousand languages, there are certain features common to all the languages. India fortunately is one 'Linguistic area'\* which has been well studied by scholars for common features

1. Muriel Saville - Troike, "Anthropological Considerations in the Study of Communication" in Nature of Communication Disorders in Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Population, California, College, Hill Press, 1986, p.237.

\* Linguistic area has been defined by M.R. Emeanean as "an area which includes languages belonging to more than one family but showing traits in common which are found not to belong to other members of (at least) one of the families".  
 "India as a Linguistic area" in Language 32:1.3-16 (1956) p.16.



- termed as 'areal features' in the jargon of Linguistics. Grierson, Emeneau, Abbi etc. have studied the presence or absence of certain features in different languages. Although English and a good number of Indian languages belong to the Indo-European family of languages English does not share features with the Indian languages of Indo-European branch. The Indo-European languages spoken in India commonly known as Indo-Aryan languages share features with Dravidian and other languages of non Indo-Aryan family.

These areal features can be divided into different groups such as lexical, phonetic/phonological, syntactic etc.

We have already proposed that the lessons proposed to be taught should be based on the corpus of English spoken by Indian speakers and presenters who have Indian accent. We would take the lexical and phonetic features in brief.

#### 3.4.1. LEXICAL FEATURES

The pan-Indian lexical items can be identified and should be incorporated into teaching lessons. The speakers of English all over the country tend to use almost the same set of words which are either borrowed into English or inflected on the basis of the English grammar. Items like banyan, bearer,

black-crop, king-crow, rat-snake, sacred-bull, ~~lathi~~-charge, dacoity, mela, compound, sacred-thread, soap stone, banyan, salt-giver, mail-gari, jail-khana, gherao etc. are used by English speakers all over the country. Terms expressing cultural traits, religious customs, caste-systems, natural products etc. have acquired a place in the lexicon. We intend to suggest that these may be used in the programmes in teaching as they won't have proper equivalents in non-native English.

#### 3.4.2. PHONETIC FEATURES

The phonetic features which needs to be mentioned are the use of suprasegmentals in English as against the inflection in Hindi verbs to express politeness hierarchy or honorification. In Hindi the sentence 'sit down' can be expressed in descending hierarchy of politeness as:

- (a) baith jaiye baIthe baith jae
- (b) baith jao
- (c) baith ja
- (d) baItho
- (e) baith

All the variations in (a) is useful for elders or in formal situations where the person addressed to is not very friendly (b) is used for youngsters and also for equals in informal situations but the

form (c) is used in informal situation and only for very close people. The forms (d) and (e) can both be used in informal situation but (d) is commonly used amongst friends and (e) is found to be used for addressing low caste people or servants etc.

The forms in (a) are used in many more situations like in social and public gathering where the speaker cannot discriminate between elders, equals or youngsters. This form is also preferred because this form is accepted as very polite.

The point which should be emphasised in teaching is that this quality is compensated in English (a) by putting accent on 'sit' and adding various request words such as 'please' 'kindly' etc. or by the use of modals i.e. may, would etc.

The honorification is also made in Indian languages by different forms of pronouns. For example in Hindi the hierarchy of politeness is expressed by three forms like [ap] for elders [tum] for equals or youngsters and [tu] for very close friends with whom the speaker is informal. In English, on the contrary, there is only one second person pronoun 'You' to express all the three forms.

Thus, for a sentence like 'You sit down'

Hindi can have so many variables as:

- ap baith jaiye
- (a) ap baith jae
- ap baith
- (b) tum baith jao
- (c) tu baith ja
- (d) tum baitho
- (e) tu baith

but in English (a) forms can be expressed by adding 'please' or 'kindly' but (b) (c) (d) and (e) would be expressed by only 'sit down'. However, the differentiation between (b) (c) (d), (e) can be maintained by using various strategies such as intonation, modals and other phrases which should form an important part of the lesson. Since television is an audiovisual instrument, this can be taught better as T.V. has an additional benefit of kinesics.

#### 3.4.3. SYNTACTIC FEATURES

The syntactic difference between the Indian languages and English create a lot of confusion for the learners. We often come across glossary or booklets which list "common errors of Indian students". On examination it can very easily be found that these mistakes occur not because the learners are inefficient but because the teaching is defective.

The teaching of grammar on television should take into account the Indian features. Teaching lessons should be based upon the results of contrastive study made on English and pan-Indian linguistic features. The importance of such study is clear enough by the examples discussed above.

The verb in Indian languages are inflected for gender as well. For example the verb [kha] 'to eat' can be inflected for gender as:

[khati] Fem. and

[khata] Mas.

The phenomenon is not found in English and this should be explained with contrast to English verbs.

#### VERB ENDING AND THE SUBJECT OF A SENTENCE

In Indian languages the verb gets inflected according to the subject in the case of intransitive verbs. Like in Hindi

a. { ram jata hai  
sita jati hai

b. { ram sota hai  
sita soti hai

but the subject of transitive verbs do not change

according to the verb in perfective like in

a. { ram ne akhbar parha  
sita ne akhbar parha

b. { ram ne kitab parhi  
sita ne kitab parhi

the point mentionable is that in Hindi the subject of intransitive verb and the direct object of transitive verb both influence the inflection on verb but this does not happen in English.<sup>1</sup> The verb in English is inflected only according to tense and number but not for gender.

Regarding the grammatical aspect of English speakers in India Kachru<sup>2</sup> has pointed out 5 features which are very prominent. They are:

(a) There is a tendency to use complex sentences.

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1. Berrard Comrie, 'Why Linguists Need Language Acquirers' in Language Universals and Second Language Acquisition (ed.) William E. Rutherford, Amsterdam, Philadelphia, John Benjamins Publishing Co. 1984, p.21.
  2. Braj B. Kachru, 'Models of Non-Native Englishes' in The Other Tongue - English Across Cultures, (ed.) B.B. Kachru, Urbana, University of Illinois Press, 1982, p.46-47.

(b) Selection restrictions are 'violated' in be + ing constructions (eg. use of hear and see in I am hearing, I am seeing.

(c) A deviant pattern appears in the use of articles.

(d) Reduplication is common.

(e) Interrogations are formed without changing the position of subject and auxiliary items.

The first three (a), (b) and (c) can be corrected by regular pattern-practice and exercises, (d) and (e) need detailed discussion.

Reduplication, now a well studied phenomenon in Indian languages occurs in practically all languages of India. On the basis of the empirical study of 30 Indian languages Abbi & Mishra<sup>3</sup> report that simultaneity and iteration are expressed by reduplicative forms. This in English by Indian speakers is compensated by the distortion of be and ing constructions. The reduplicated forms are duplicated in English as well by Indian English speakers. We very often find sentences like:

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3. Anvita Abbi and Mithilesh Mishra, "Aspectual Elements of Simultaneity and Iteration in Indian languages". A Case for an Areal Universal" in Studies in Linguistic Sciences Vol.17, No.1, Spring 1987.

- (a) Sitting-sitting I got tired.
- (b) I want some hot-hot tea.
- (c) I had little-little toys.
- (d) You have bought so many new-new shirts.

Nouns, verbs, adverbs and adjectives are reduplicated in all Indic languages. Semantically reduplication of one part of speech is very different from the other.

#### 3.4.4. WORD ORDER

The word order of most of the Indian languages is SOV whereas the word order followed in English is SVO. Because of the difference in word order we find many sentences which are ungrammatical but are frequently used.

In forming the interrogative sentences the Hindi speakers juxtapose the Wh-element and leave the subject and auxiliary unchanged. For example :

What you will like to have?

This happens because in Hindi the auxiliary is placed after the subject.

ap kya khana chaheggē?

The same type of construction we find in

These all mangoes are ripe



These types of errors are categorized under the misunderstood adjectives<sup>1</sup> which is not an appropriate term. Instead these should be considered as confused word order problem. The teacher in the classroom and the tele-teacher should emphasise on bringing out the difference in word order to achieve the correct result.

#### 3.4.5. COMPOUND VERBS

Another important aspect which needs emphasis in teaching English to Indians is the non-occurrence of compound verbs in English. Unlike English, in Indian languages, "verb has consisted of a verb occurring as a bare stem followed by a secondary element that carries as desinance"<sup>2</sup>. This secondary element acts as explicator, auxiliary, intensive auxiliary, operator etc. Although each compound verb has only one corresponding simple verb there might be more than one compound verb corresponding to this simple verb. For example the verb 'likh' to write may have compound forms like:

- (a) likh maaraa
- (b) likh Dalaa
- (c) likhaa
- (d) likh diyaa

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1. T.L.H. Smith-Pearse, The English Errors of Indian Students, N. Delhi, Oxford University Press, 1968 (5th edition).
  2. P.E. Hook, Compound Verbs in Hindi, Michigan, The University of Michigan, 1974, p.17.

Even though the simple verb corresponding to all these forms is likh but these are all compound formations with slightly different meaning from likh and amongst themselves.

Compound formations, like the English phrasal constructions often hold slightly different shades of meaning. We can notice the difference in the following verbs and the compound verb constructions.

fēkna - to throw fēk dena - to throw away.

torna - to break tor dalna - to break to pieces.

katna - to cut kat dalna - to cut off.

girna - to fall gir parna - to fall down.

hona - to be ho jana - to become

etc.

#### 3.4.6. ENGLISH PHRASAL CONSTRUCTIONS

On the other hand the features of English which are different from Indian languages need to be emphasized. For example the word 'put' for which the dictionary gives the meaning as:

vt. "to push or thrust : to cast, throw, hurl (esp. by a thrusting movement of the hand from the shoulder): to drive: to impel: to convey, transport: to force, constrain: to incite: to place, or cause to be, in such and such a position, state, predicament, relation etc: to set: to place, lay, deposit: to apply: to append, affix: to connect: to add: to commit: to assign: to assign or suggest a course

action to (with on, as a diet, a study, a track; or to, as a task): to subject: to reduce: to convert: to render: to express: to assert, have: to propound: to submit to a vote: to impose: to impute: to call upon, oblige, stake, venture, invest: to repose (as trust, confidence) - v.i. to thrust: (to proceed, make one's way: to set out esp. hurriedly: to flow.

But it would not be sufficient to explain the said meaning. The phrasal constructions formed with 'put' hold so many different shades of meaning. The phrases formed with it can have so many different meanings sometimes entirely different from the meaning given in the dictionary. Phrasal constructions formed with put can have the following forms and meanings:

put away to renounce: to divorce: to kill: to stow away, pack up, set aside: to imprison: to eat.

put across to carry out successfully, bring off: to perform so as to carry the audience with one.

put about to change the course, as of a ship: to publish, circulate.

put the blame on to attribute, ascribe, assign.

put off postpone, postpone engagement with (person); evade (person etc. with excuse etc.) hinder or dissuade from, offend, disconcert, remove (clothes that one is wearing).

put up speciously preconcerted.

put an end or a stop to to cause to discontinue.

put back to push backward: delay: repulse:  
turn and sail back for port.

put by to set aside: parry: stone up; lay  
(money etc.) aside for future use.

put (the) case to suppose an instance  
to take for example.

put down to crush, quell: to kill: to degrade;  
to enter, write down on paper: to reckon:  
to attribute.

put for to make an attempt to gain.

put forth - to extend, to propose: to publish:  
to exert: to display: to lend at interest:  
to set out from port: to produce, extrude.

put forward - thrust (oneself etc.) into  
prominence, advance, set forth (theory  
etc.) advance hands of (clock).

put in to introduce, to insert, to lodge,  
deposit, hand in: to make a claim or application:  
to enter: to enter a harbour: to interpose:  
to perform towards completing a total:  
to spend, pass, fill up with some occupation:  
to appoint.

put in an appearance to appear in person.

put in mind remind

put it put it to you; appeal to you.

put it past one judge it inconsistent with  
one's character.

put on to don, clothe with: to assume,  
esp deceptively; to superpose: to impose:  
to affix: attach, apply: to add (as weight,  
charges, & C.) to stake, to move forward:  
to set to work to set in operation: to  
incite: to turn on the supply of: to score:  
to stage.

put out to expel: to dismiss from a game and innings:  
~~to send forth~~: to stretch forth: to extinguish:  
 to place at interest: to expend: to publish: to  
 disconcert: to put to inconvenience: to offend:  
 to dislocate: to exert: to produce: to place with  
 others or at a distance: to go out to sea, leave  
 port: to remove bodily or blind (an eye).

put over to refer: to carry through successfully:  
~~to impress~~ an audience, spectators, the public,  
 favourably with; to impose: pass off: make acceptable  
 or effective.

put through to bring to an end, to accomplish:  
~~to put in~~ telephonic communication.

put together form (whole) by combination of parts,  
~~combine~~ (parts) into whole.

put to to apply; to add: to connect with: to harness:  
~~to shut~~: to set to.

put to death to kill, to cause to be killed.

put to it to press hard, to distress.

put to rights to set in order.

put to sea to begin a voyage.

put two and two together to draw a conclusion  
 from various facts.

put under render unconscious by anaesthetic etc.

put up to start from cover, as a hare: to stow  
 away, put aside: to parcel up: to sheathe: to  
 compound; to accommodate with lodging: to take  
 lodgings: to nominate or stand for election: to  
 expose for sale: to present (as a good game, fight,  
 or defence, a prayer, proposal, petition): to  
 preconcert.

put up to to construct; build; raise (price etc.)  
 to incite to: to make conversant with, supply  
 with useful information or tips about.

put (up) on deceive, victimize, play joke on (person).

put upon ~~to~~ upon to take undue advantage of: to  
 impose upon.

put up with to endure, submit to tolerate (annoyance insult etc.).

Stay put to remain passively in the position assigned.

put and take a game of chance played with a modification of the old "tee-to-tum" one side of which is marked put - signifying that the player pays - and another take. It was popular in the 1920s.

to put one's shoulder to the wheel to make a determined effort; as a carter would put his shoulder to the wheel to assist his horses hauling his wagon out of a rut.

to stay put to remain firmly in a position, literally or figuratively.

not know where to put oneself be much embarrassed or uncomfortable.

### 3.5. CONCLUSION

Concluding we can say that in <sup>teaching</sup> English to Indians we have to pay proper attention to the pan Indian cultural and linguistic features. In linguistic features we have to take those features which are areal in occurrence and in contrast to the characteristics of English language.

In the next chapter we will review the approaches and methods of languages learning and teaching. On the basis of this we will also suggest a method to be used for teaching languages on television.

CHAPTER - IV

LANGUAGE LEARNING - APPROACHES AND METHODS

4.1. In this chapter we intend to examine different aspects of language teaching. We start by examining the qualities that qualify a person to be called a speaker of a language. Then we examine the skills of a language that any learner has to learn in order to be called a knower of language.

Since ancient times different approaches to learning have been advanced to accelerate or understand learning process. The language teachers have adopted or taken help of different approaches. On the basis of these, different methods of language learning have been suggested and practised.

All these methods have been evolved with a view to accelerate classroom teaching. With the invention of television and its use in teaching in general and language teaching in particular the need to adopt these for television has become important. At the end we have tried to suggest a method based on the existing methods and approaches. The efficacy of the method is yet to be tested as it would have to be applied to a television lesson.

#### 4.2. WHAT DOES IT MEAN TO KNOW A LANGUAGE

Noam Chomsky has divided the linguistic



ability into two different categories - competence and performance. Competence would be the knowledge about the language in terms of lexical items, syntactic rules etc. and performance would be using or communicating in the language; i.e. producing syntactically correct sentences in a pronunciation accepted as the standard. Chomsky defines competence as "the speaker's - hearer's knowledge of the language" and performance as "the actual use of language in concrete situation". Evaluating competence would be possible only under "idealised" condition where performance would be a direct reflection of competence. The condition for competence and performance set by Chomsky are "an ideal speaker hearer, in a completely homogenous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance."<sup>1</sup>

According to Chomsky's criterion, and this is the most accepted by the modern pedagogues, any one who has knowledge of the structure of

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1. Robert Lado, Language Teaching : A Scientific Approach, New Delhi, Tata McGraw Hill Publishing Co. Ltd., 1964, pp.230-31.

a language and can use these in concrete situations would be a potential speaker.

#### 4.3. KNOWING A LANGUAGE IN TERMS OF SKILLS

The language teachers have divided the same qualities into four 'skills' for the convenience of class-room teaching. These skills have been named as 'understanding', 'speaking', 'reading', and 'writing'. Understanding and reading would fall under the domain of competence and speaking and writing under the domain of performance.

The Steering Committee of the Foreign Language Programme of the Modern Language Association of America has endorsed certain qualities for the 'Superior', 'good', and 'minimal' secondary school teachers.<sup>1</sup> We can accept these as the parameters for a superior language learner.

For the different skills they prescribe the qualities as : for understanding "Ability to follow closely and with ease all types of standard speech, such as rapid or group conversation, plays, and movies."<sup>2</sup> For Speaking "Ability to approximate

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1. Robert Lado, Language Teaching : A Scientific Approach, New Delhi, Tata McGraw Hill Publishing Co. Ltd. , 1964, pp.230-31.

2. *ibid*, p.230.

native speech in vocabulary, intonation (eg. the ability to change ideas and to be at ease in social situation)."<sup>1</sup> For reading "Ability to read, almost as easily as in English (in our case mother tongue\*) material considerable difficulty, such as essay and literary criticism."<sup>2</sup> For writing "Ability to write on a variety of subjects with idiomatic naturalness, ease of expression, and some feeling for the style of the language."<sup>3</sup>

The oracy skills (i.e. understanding and speaking) can be easily and in a much better way be handled by the passive medium of television and tape recorders. But the literacy skills (i.e. reading and writing) the most "individualistic creative acts" would be difficult to be handled.

#### 4.3.1. LISTENING

Listening skill would mean ability to understand conversation in all circumstances and movies with ease. This means ability to understand

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1. *ibid*, p.230

2. *ibid*, p.230.

3. *ibid*, p.230.

\* It is universally accepted that language learning can be accelerated by being in contact with the native speakers. As we propose to teach the form of English, spoken by university students and teachers in any standard university we have to make programmes based on the corpus of the English, spoken by these. These can be said to have a native like command, with a language based on the Indian semiotic system.

all the sounds of a language. In learning the sounds of a language a learner not only requires to recognise the sounds but also to differentiate it from similar sounds. A large number of examples will enable a learner to do this. As the television has the availability of practically all forms of media it can present innumerable examples of any feature in a very short space of time. A classroom teaching becomes mere repetition without much meaning for the learner because the teacher cannot give so many examples within the classroom resources. Television can attach meaning by presenting the picture on the visual mode and giving the auditory information on the sound mode.

The teacher in the class-room may face difficulties finding examples for a p/f contrast or initial u/v contrast etc. and even explaining these by the help of demonstration of the articulators. Television can do this much easily by showing the articulators in closeup shots and explaining things from the background in the form of a documentary. The only limitation is that the chosen examples should be picturable and unambiguous.

#### 4.3.2. SPEAKING

"Language is knowledge in our heads; speech is the realization of that knowledge in

behaviour".<sup>1</sup> It is individual and created in nature. Time and again it has been pointed and rightly so, that the receptive skills can be much easily handled on television. It would not be possible to monitor each learner's speech and to point out each speaker's mistakes and remedies. But the ability to produce the right instead of the wrong structures is closely correlated to distinguishing right from the wrong structures. Explanations for the right structures would be given in course of or during the lessons on understanding and practice of these sounds and structure, would cultivate the ability to speak.

For the performative part popular quiz programmes and highly involving programmes can be shown. The programmes should be so involving that the viewer feels motivated to respond. This will become more effective for home learners who view the programmes in isolation.

#### 4.3.3. READING

Reading is a perceptual process. It is a literacy skill as against the Oracy skills of listening and speaking. To make this perceptual process more efficient the thought process should be able to internalize the symbols and use them with meaning in decoding the written text.

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1. C.B. Cazden, Child Language and Education, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, p.3.

Reading skill is very individualistic in character as the 'saccadic movement', fixations' and 'eye-span' would differ from person to person.\*

And each individual learner will have unique problems : some might have perceptual, some related to general intelligence and comprehension and some related to concentration and memory.

Taking into account the expense on television teaching it would not be possible to provide enough reading material on the television but some selected pieces can be screened deciding on an arbitrary speed.

#### 4.3.4. WRITING

Writing is the next literacy skill and represents visually the sounds of a language. This developed in the language system after speech. Sometimes it is mistakenly thought that speech is the representation of written language.

Of all the linguistic activities writing is the most individualistic act. Unlike speaking and reading, writing is not a group activity.

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\* The eyes move along a line of written material in an irregular fashion, called saccadic movement; our eyes pause at certain points called fixations; what we perceive clearly at each fixation is called the eye-span, Sherrington, p.83.

It needs the maximum amount of personal help. In the initial stage, during the formation stage the demonstration of the forms by the teacher can help speed up the learning. Subsequently practise by the learners and correct the misunderstood forms can be well handled by television lessons. The class-room teacher will obviously take much more time correcting the mistakes of each of the learner, television can demonstrate this for the whole range of learners through close-ups and reflections of the writer in mirror placed over-head. The writing skill have been taught through television in Italy, Jamaica, Uganda and elsewhere.

The linguistic ability can be divided into three major heads : a) In terms of knowledge about language and the actual use of the language i.e. competence and performance; b) in terms of skills; understanding, speaking, reading, and writing and c) in terms of academic and non-academic use i.e. oracy and literacy. We have been discussing the learning of these skills and qualities through the medium of television. For certain skills like understanding and speaking we find television very useful and for certain skills television less useful to self practise or pattern-practise drill - like reading and writing. This can be

expressed in the form of a table as:

Language learning aid/device Language ability	T.V.	Self practice <sup>c</sup>
Competence	Listening/seeing	Reading
Performance	Speaking	Writing
	Oracy	Literacy

To teach these skills and develop abilities certain approaches to language learning and methods of teaching have been suggested. We will examine the main approaches to language learning first and then the methods of teaching.

#### 4.4. LANGUAGE LEARNING APPROACHES

During the beginning of the century the approaches of de Saussure (1916) and Bloomfield (1933) dominated the scene. Their emphasis was on the descriptive aspects of language. The spoken language was given priority over written language.

There are three main approaches which have come to be regarded as important in the development of the recent language learning approaches. They are the:



- a) Behaviourist approach;
- b) Mentalistic approach;
- and c) Procedural approach.

We will examine each one of these in detail and discuss the merits of each.

#### 4.4.1. a) BEHAVIOURISTIC APPROACH

John B. Watson is often regarded as the founder of Behaviourism. Around 1920 he proposed a very simple explanation for language abilities. He suggested that we learn lexical items and keep making permutation and combination till we find a correct and satisfactory structure.

There are several other names like A. Steats, C.C. Fries etc. which are associated with this school of thought. But the most important name which is associated with this theory is of the Harvard experimental psychologist B.F. Skinner. Skinner in the year 1957 in his book Verbal Behaviour (Appleton Century - Crofts, Inc.) made stimulating suggestions on the basis of his experiments mainly on rats.

Skinner based his theory on the study of behaviourist psychology and said that the learning behaviour is the same in all organisms. Skinner believed that the theory of language learning should be derived from the general behaviourist

theory of learning. His aim was to manipulate the physical environment of the learner and on that basis predict the verbal behaviour of the learner. Skinner believed that by monitoring the 'stimulus' on the learner and studying the 'response', it would be possible to study verbal behaviour into 'identifiable units'. Skinner did not take the mind as an independent entity which played a role. He only considered the function and impact of external verbal behaviour on learning.

#### 4.4.2. MENTALISTIC APPROACH

The followers of the mentalistic approach to learning disagreed with the views of the behaviourist approach. The mentalistic approach to learning also has a pretty old history. The names which figure prominently are of Locke, Descartes, Putnam, Chomsky and the Gestalt psychologists. But the name which is responsible for making this school important in contemporary times is of Noam Chomsky.

Chomsky's mentalistic approach got a great boost from his Transformational Generative Grammar (TG). In TG it is assumed that the ability to learn language is innate. The Language Learning Device (LLD) enables the learning child to make simple rules about the language in general and about the language he is learning in particular.

The main emphasis of Chomsky was on the function and role of mind in language learning.

#### 4.4.3. PROCEDURAL APPROACH

Both the approaches, the behaviourist and the mentalistic seem to be partial. Language learning seems to be neither only external stimulus, reinforcement and response nor innate quality. A neutral and rational understanding would suggest that it is a result of both.

As far back as in 1907, Stern and Stern suggested and quoted in Blumenthal (1970, 87) that "In his form of speech, a child learning to speak is neither phonograph reproducing external sounds nor a sovereign creator of language. Rather, his speech is based on the internal system". This can be represented in short as:

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Input	Internal	Output
Language data	Analysis	Individual language behaviour

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This approach seems to be balanced and more scientific. But it is not very common as not many have followed it.

#### 4.5. LANGUAGE LEARNING METHODS

Although the need of learning and teaching of languages has always existed but the necessity to study in depth the process and mechanism of learning languages arose only when the need to learn foreign languages became necessary. The earliest method of learning language when people had fascination for Greek and Latin was through hired teachers who taught language through a bilingual method. Later the learner used to be sent to the place of actual language use so that the learner could learn more through direct contact of the native speakers.

In real sense of a method no method was systematically named and used till the nineteenth century. It was only in the nineteenth century when the demand for foreign language learning became popular. Since the nineteenth century so many methods have appeared. But the methods that have been widely accepted and used are:

- (a) Grammar Translation Method
- (b) Direct Method
- (c) The Audio-lingual Method
- (d) The Audio-visual Method.

We will examine each of these methods in detail.

#### 4.5.1. GRAMMAR TRANSLATION METHOD

This method is also known as the 'traditional method', because it is of the type that Greek and Latin had been taught for centuries. The main emphasis of the followers of this method is extensive memorization of the grammatical rules and their application in translating texts. It was done to equate the learning of modern languages to that of classical languages, in importance. It became popular in the nineteenth century and most of its advocates are found in this century.

The emphasis in this method is on learning grammatical rules, defining parts of speech, memorizing conjugations and declensions. With the help of these translating pieces with the help of bilingual dictionaries and glossaries. The exercises had a definite emphasis on developing competence in learners. The drawback was noticed when the learners were needed to use language in context. The oral skills had not adequately been taken care of and as such pronunciation of the learners were poor.

#### 4.5.2. DIRECT METHOD

As a reaction against the grammar translation method and the need to be able to use foreign language in situations so many methods were adopted. These

were named as new method, reform method, natural method and oral method which can be referred to as direct method. The proponents of this method, as against the practitioners of grammar translation method, emphasised upon the fact that written language is a mere inexact representation of oral language. So the leaders of this movement like Victor, Jespersen, Palmer and others devised methods to acquire oral skills than written skills.

The meaning of the words and sentences with native like pronunciation became central to the language teaching. Although only partially true but the assumption in direct method is that learning L2 is like learning L1 and as such ESL learners to the target language speakers would be of great help. The pull of the mother tongue never permits the L2 learner to behave or learn as L1.

#### 4.5.3. AUDIOLINGUAL METHOD

Audiolingual method can also be termed as one of the direct methods. As a result of the development of audio technology during the 1950's and the benefits of direct method, teachers favoured the application of audio technology in learning and teaching of foreign languages. Linguists like Bloomfield, C.C. Fries, Nelson Brooks and

hold the interest and concentration is maintained.

This method would also be a type of direct method. This method developed in the last thirty years with the development in modern technology and improvement in facilities of producing and reproducing visual information. The visual aids are used to evoke objects and situations in the learning process. The use of slides, pictures, films etc. help in situating objects and concretising concepts. The learning process is accelerated..

#### 4.6. CONCLUSION

Having reviewed all the methods, it does not seem possible to apply any of these methods straightaway for making a television programme. All these methods are time consuming and so much time cannot be provided on a television network. Besides, the means which can help highlight the points on a tele screen are very different. For television programmes we suggest a method that we shall call the Multi-presentational method.

#### MULTI-PRESENTATIONAL METHOD

By Multi-presentational method we mean that the teaching would not be confined to one method but will take the help of the different aspects of the existing methods. Besides there

are certain formats like the documentary, lecture type, role play, docudrama, group-discussion interview etc., on which the programmes are made for television. Once again we will not stick to a particular format. We would suggest that different formats be used if and when necessary in preparing the lessons.

We suggest that like the 'lecture type' programmes, the rule that has to be explained can straightaway be stated and for the convenience of the learner be put on the screen.

In the second step the rule can be explained by a presenter with the help of 'Black Board' and 'Chalk' besides playcards and other means.

In the third step excerpts from everyday life in the form of docudrama group discussion etc. can be presented to prove the rules.

After that some easy exercises might be given to test the competence of each learner. At the end standard answers can be provided.

Unlike the usual programmes which are made of 22 to 30 minutes, language teaching programmes may be made longer. These programmes can be of one hour duration.



## APPENDICES

## APPENDIX-I

Following is the list of the open universities functioning in various countries. The left hand column specifies the year of establishment.

1. 1969 - The Open University, Milton Keynes the U.K.
2. 1973 - Universidad National de Education a Distance (UNED), Spain.
3. 1974 - Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad, Pakistan.
4. 1974 - Everyman's University, Israel.
5. 1975 - Fern University, Haque, West Germany.
6. 1975 - Athabaska University, Edmonton, Canada.
7. 1978 - Universidad National Abierta (UNA), Venejuela.
8. 1978 - Universidad Estatal a Distance (UED), Costa Rica.
9. 1978 - Free University of Iran (now closed down)
10. 1978 - Sukothai Thamathiral Open University (STOU), Bangkok, Thailand.
11. 1979 - Central Radio and Television University, Beijing, China.
12. 1980 - Open University of Sri Lanka.
13. 1982 - Andhra Pradesh Open University, Hyderabad, India.
14. 1982 - The Korea Air and Correspondence University, Seoul, South Korea.
15. 1983 - National Open University, Abuja, Nigeria, (later closed).
16. 1983 - The University of the Air, Japan.

17. 1983 - The Netherlands Open University, Netherlands.
18. 1984 - The Indonesian Open University, Jakarta, Indonesia.
19. 1985 - Indira Gandhi National Open University, New Delhi, India.
20. 1985 - Al Quds Open University, Amman.  
(Expected to be functional by 1988).
21. 1987 - Kota Open University, Rajasthan, India.
22. 1987 - Nalanda Open University, Bihar, India.

List of courses run by different Distance Education Institutes/Directorates/Universities in India (1985)

Pre-University/Pre-Degree Course

Calicut, Himachal Pradesh, Kerala, Kurukshetra, Punjab, Patna (Inter), Punjabi-Patiala, Utkal (Inter-Arts and Inter-Com.)

B.A.

Allahabad, Andhra University, A.P. Open University, Annamalai, Bangalore, Bhopal, Bombay, Calicut, Delhi, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu, Kashmir, Kerala, Kurukshetra, Madras, Madurai-Kamraj, Meerut, M.L. Sukhadia-Udaipur, Mysore, Osmania, Punjab, Patna, Punjabi-Patiala, Pune, SNT-Bombay, Sri Venkateswara, Utkal.

B.Com

Allahabad, Andhra University, A.P. Open University, Annamalai, Bhopal, Bombay, Calicut, Cochin, Delhi, Jammu, Kashmir, Kerala, Madras, Madurai-Kamraj, M.L. Sukhadia-Udaipur, Mysore, Osmania, Punjab, Patna, Punjabi-Patiala, Pune, SNT-Bombay, Sri Venkateswara, Utkal.

B.Com. (Hons)

Delhi.

B.Sc./B.Sc. (Maths)

Andhra University, A.P. Open University, Annamalai, Madras, Madurai-Kamraj.

B.Ed.

Andhra University, Annamalai, Bhopal, Jammu, Kashmir, Madurai-Kamraj, Osmania, Rajasthan, Sri Venkateswara.

M.Ed.

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LI.B/BGL

Annamalai, Cochin, Jammu, Kashmir, Madurai-Kamraj, M.L. Sukhadia-Udaipur, Mysore.

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Delhi, Himachal Pradesh, Mysore, Punjab, Rajasthan.

M.A. Sanskrit

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M.A. Economics

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M.A. Sociology

Annamalai, Mysore, Rajasthan.

M.A. Political Science

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M.Sc. Chemistry

Annamalai

M.A./M.Sc. Maths

Annamalai, Bombay.

M.Phil, English and Punjabi

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M.A. in Gandhian Thought

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