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Contents

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Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:3 April 2016

Asha Rani Brahma. M.A, B.Ed., Ph.D. Research Scholar A Comparative Analysis of the Numeral Classifiers of Bodo, Rabha and Kok Borok Languages	1-13
K. R. Athista, M.A., M.Phil., B.Ed. and Dr. G. Baskaran, M.A, M.Phil., Ph.D. The Royal Clan Vs the Marginalised: An Analysis of the Lifestyles of Women in Mahasweta Devi's <i>Panchakanya</i> (Five Women)	14-21
Nasrullah Khan, Mohammad Saleem Afaqi and Kiramat Shah A Study of the Parents' Attitudes about Their School-Going Daughters at Secondary Level	22-36
Phonological Analysis of Nick Names in Punjabi Faiza Abid, M.Phil., Amina Deen, M.Phil., Farah Khurshi, M.Phil., Sonodia Ashraf, M.Phil., Aisha Niazi, M.Phil. and Naheed Ashfaq, M.Phil.	37-48
Jenny Mevis Dsouza and Rahul Aravind, Ph.D. Scholar Auditory Discrimination Tests in Konkani – Performance of Children (6-9 Years) in Quiet and Noisy Conditions	49-60
Lasekan Olusiji, PGD, M.A., Ph.D. Candidate Parents, Teachers and Peers Effects on College Students' Motivational Intensity to Learn English	61-80
Nasrullah Khan A Study of the Use of Eye Contact in Teaching Learning Process at Secondary Level in District Peshawar	81-98
Rajkumari Rajbala, Ph.D. Candidate Phoneme Substitution of Borrowed Words in Manipuri	99-113
S. Rajendran, Ph.D. Noun Modifying Expressions in Tamil	114-154
K. L. Ramanan Different Types of Free Variation in the Writing of Sri Lankan ESL Learners	155-164
B. Ramya Devi, M.A. (English), PGDTE, (M.Phil.) Problems Faced by the Teachers of a Large Class in Imparting Writing Skills at the Tertiary Level	165-173
Dr. Redhwan Qasem Ghaleb Aziza Abdullah's <i>Taif Walia</i> (<i>Phantom of Walia</i>): A Critical Reading	174-189

Saadia Rasheed, M.Phil. Applied Linguistics and TESOL, M.Sc. Applied Linguistics Faiza Abid, M.Phil. Applied Linguistics A Comparative Study of Lexical Cohesive Devices Used by L1 and L2 Urdu Speakers	190-217
Salimsha Nazer, MASLP and Vishnu, V. K., BASLP Pitch Range Comparison between Trained Singers, Amateur Singers and Non-Singers	218-226
Sheela Debbarma, Ph.D. Research Scholar The Socio-Cultural Contexts of Recent Loan Substitutions in Kokborok	227-235
Silpa P., BASLP, Ananya P C., BASLP, Noorul Huda Kasim, BASLP and Jenny Mevis D'souza, Lecturer VHI & VRQOL in Temple Priests	236-247
Srija Sanyal Where the Mind Is Without Fear: Tracing Elements of Psychological Realism in Selected Works of Tagore	248-264
Vivek Rajapadmanabhan, M.Sc. (Agriculture), Ph.D. Candidate Alternatives to Corporate Social Responsibility in Rural Development	265-277
Prof. Kausar Husain, M.A., M.Phil., Ph.D. and Sadaf Zarrin, M.A., Ph.D. A Contrastive Approach to Materials Adaptation for the Teaching of Grammar to ESL Students	278-285
Sukanto Roy, M.A. in ELT <i>Causes for the Failure of Students in Developing Writing Skills at the HSC Level in Bangladesh – Masters Dissertation</i>	286-383
Ambreen Sherwani, Ph.D. Scholar Semio-Communicative Aspect of Urdu-Hindi Loan Words in English	384-393
Selvi Bunce <i>Sisters in the Wilderness</i> by Delores Williams	394-400

A Comparative Analysis of the Numeral Classifiers of Bodo, Rabha and Kok Borok Languages

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Abstract

This paper attempts to compare and analyze numeral classifiers of Bodo, Rabha and Kok Borok languages. They have been recognised with same sub-group and they migrated together in North-East India. (Chatterji, Suniti Kumar, Kirata Jana Kriti, 2007, page -45-46). Some Similarities and Dissimilarities are found among these languages. Each language has its own Structures and Functions in numeral classifiers.

Key Words: Classifiers, Structures, Functions, Similarities and Dissimilarities.

1. Introduction

Bodo, Rabha and Kok Borok languages has developed from same sub-group of Tibeto-Burman branch of the Sino-Tibetan language family which is second largest language family in the world. These languages spread in different places in North-East India. Today the Bodo and Rabha have their basic concentration in Assam and the Kok Borok in Tripura. The gap in communication and relation among these languages led to dissimilarities among them. To study the historical relationship between these languages many comparative study has been done by writers and researchers.

2. Scope of Study

This study is to explore the comparative analysis of some of the classifiers (structure and function) of Bodo, Rabha and Kok Borok languages, which have its own unique characters in classifiers.

3. Methodology

Conversation and Observation methods were used to collect the data from native speakers for the primary data, and for the secondary sources written materials in form of Books, Journal Articles, Internet and Newspapers, etc., have been collected.

4. Meaning of Classifiers

In grammatical category, the classifier is the important category of nominal group of Bodo Morphology. The classifiers are used for the shape and size, quantity and quality of things and objects. These relate to human beings, nonhuman beings, God, Goddess and Ghost. In Bodo, Rabha and Kok Borok languages classifiers are added to numerals to define the original nature of things and original quantity of human and nonhuman beings.

The topic of discussion is the structure and function of classifiers among these three languages.

5. Classifiers of Bodo Language

1. {sa} : This classifier is used for human beings and for God and Goddess in Bodo language.

For example -

sa – se mansi or mansi sa – se. (One man)

sa – nuḡi gosai or gosai sa – nuḡi. (Two Gods)

2. {ma} : This classifier is used for all kinds of animals, birds, insects, water animals, creatures and sometimes for ghosts.

For example –

ma – se muḡsuḡu or muḡsuḡu ma – se. (a cow)

ma – nuḡi bat^ho or bat^ho ma – nuḡi. (Two parrots)

ma – t^ham gondola or gondola ma – t^ham. (Three dragon flies)

ma – bruḡi na or na ma – bruḡi. (Four fishes)

ma – ba t^hampuḡi or t^hampuḡi ma – ba. (Five mosquitoes)

ma – d^ho muḡdai or muḡdai ma – d^ho. (Six ghosts)

3. {p^hang} : This classifier is used in Bodo language for tree, herb and climbers.

For example -

P^hang – se goi or goi p^hang – se. (one areca nut tree)

P^hang – nuji t^haizuqu or t^haizuqu p^hang – nuji. (Two mango trees)

4. {gong} : This classifier is used for things, house, musical instruments, furniture, household articles, fishing, hunting tools, agricultural tools, transport, electronic media and many other related things.

For example –

gong – se k^hanzong or k^hanzong gong – se. (One comb)

gong – nuji no or no gong – nuji. (Two houses)

gong – t^ham sipung or sipung gong – t^ham. (Three flutes)

gong – bruji bisina or bisina gong – bruji. (Four beds)

gong – ba t^huqrsi or t^huqrsi gong – ba. (Five dishes)

gong – d^ho zek^hai or zek^hai gong – d^ho. (Six fishing tools)

gong – sni ruuqa or ruuqa gong – sni. (Seven axes)

gong – dain laot^hi or laot^hi gong – dain. (Eight sticks)

gong – gu nao or nao gong – gu. (Nine boats)

gong – zi T.V. or T.V. gong – zi. (Ten Televisions)

5. {t^hai} : This classifier is used for fruits and vegetables.

For example –

T^hai – se t^halir or t^halir t^hai – se. (one banana)

T^hai – nuji t^haibeng or t^haibeng t^hai – nuji. (Two cucumbers)

T^hai – t^ham pant^hao or pant^hao t^hai – t^ham. (Three brinjals)

6. {pong} : This classifier is used for human speech, biting, kicking hands and beating with sticks.

For example –

Pong – se batra or batra pong – se. (One word)

Pong – nuḡi zuḡnai or zuḡnai pong – nuḡi. (Two kick)

Pong – t^ham bunai or bunai pong – t^ham. (Three times beating)

7. {duḡng} : This classifier is used for long and flexible things like –hair, rope, necklace, tail, string and electrical string.

For example –

duḡng – se k^hanai or k^hanai duḡng – se. (A hair)

duḡng nuḡi dirung or dirung duḡng – nuḡi. (Two ropes)

duḡng – t^ham mala or mala duḡng – t^ham. (Three necklaces)

duḡng - bruḡi lanzai or lanzai duḡng – bruḡi. (Four tails)

duḡng – ba k^hundung or k^hundung duḡng – ba. (Five strings)

8. {t^hong} : This classifier is used in Bodo language for cutting bamboo and tree for posts.

For example –

t^hong – se k^huntia or k^huntia t^hong – se. (One post)

t^hong – nuḡi sal k^hunt^ha or sal k^hunt^ha t^hong – nuḡi. (Two posts of weaving loom)

9. {dung}: This classifier is used in Bodo language for holes of insects.

For example –

dung – se k^hangk^hrai gudung or k^hank^hrai gudung dung – se. (One hole of crab)

dung – nuḡi anzor gudung or anzor gudung dung – nuḡi. (Two holes of rat)

10. {g^hor} : This classifier is used in Bodo language for small and round things like – seeds, stones.

For example –

g^hor – se sibing or sibing g^hor – se. (One lentil)

g^hor – nuꞑi but^h or but^h g^hor – nuꞑi. (Two grams)

g^hor – t^ham ont^hai or ont^hai g^hor – t^ham. (Three stones)

11. {muꞑzuꞑm} : This classifier is used for things like – rice, paddy seed, sugar, sand, soil and seeds.

For example –

muꞑzuꞑm – se mai or mai muꞑzuꞑm – se. (One handful of paddy seeds)

muꞑzuꞑm – nuꞑi sini or sini muꞑzuꞑm – nuꞑi. (Two handful of sugars)

muꞑzuꞑm – t^ham bala or bala muꞑzuꞑm – t^ham. (Three handful of sands)

muꞑzuꞑm – bruꞑi dali or dali muꞑzuꞑm – bruꞑi. (Four handful of dhal seeds)

12. {haldinga} : This classifier is used for a string of meat, insects and fishes and also sometimes for fruits, vegetables and flowers too.

For example –

haldinga – nuꞑi khusengra or khusengra haldinga – nuꞑi. (Two strings of one kind of insects)

haldinga – t^ham na or na haldinga – t^ham. (Three strings of fishes)

haldinga – bruꞑi pit^hai or pit^hai haldinga – bruꞑi. (Four strings of fruits)

6. Classifiers of Rabha Language

1. {sak} : This classifier is used for human being in Rabha language.

For example –

sak – sa k^hai or k^hai sak – sa. (One man)

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Asha Rani Brahma. M.A, B.Ed., Ph.D. Research Scholar

A Comparative Analysis of the Numeral Classifiers of Bodo, Rabha and Kok Borok Languages

sak – niN triNgir or triNgir sak – niN. (Two students)

2. {ma} : This classifier is used for all kinds of animal, birds, insects, water animals and creature.

For example –

ma – sa masu or masu ma – sa. (One cow)

ma – niN t^hok^ha or t^hok^ha ma – niN. (Two crows)

ma – t^ham k^harok^h or k^harok^h ma – t^ham. (Three cockroaches)

ma – c^har k^hen or k^hen ma – c^har. (Four crabs)

ma – ba luk^hbak^h or luk^hbak^h ma – ba. (Five frogs)

3. {p^haN} : This classifier is used for tree, herb and climbers.

For example –

p^haN – sa k^hui or k^hui p^haN – sa. (One areca nut tree)

p^han – niN p^hoc^ho or p^hoc^ho p^haN – niN. (Two mango trees)

p^haN – t^ham zaluk^h or zaluk^h p^haN – t^ham. (Three chilli trees)

p^haN – c^ha narim or narim p^haN – c^ha. (Four cucumber trees)

4. {k^hon} : This classifier is used in Rabha language for leaves, pieces of cloths, wings, books and papers, all kinds of flat things, house, household things, furniture, musical instruments, fishing tools, hunting tools, agricultural tools, utensils, transport, sport and educational tools and so on.

For example –

k^hon – sa sak or sak k^hon – sa. (A leaf)

k^hon – niN nen or nen k^hon – niN. (Two cloths)

k^hon – t^ham t^hareN or t^hareN k^hon – t^ham. (Three wings)

k^hon – c^har boi or boi k^hon – c^har. (Four books)

k^hon – ba nok or nok khon – ba. (Five houses)

k^hon – soi k^hoc^heN or k^hoc^heN k^hon – soi. (Six combs)

k^hon – siya t^hibil or t^hibil k^hon – siya. (Seven tables)

k^hon – gin domphol or d^homp^hol k^hon – gin. (Eight drums)

k^hon – gin k^hodur or k^hodur k^hon – gin. (Eight baskets for keeping fish)

k^hon – biN bak^heN or bak^heN k^hon – biN. (Nine axes)

k^hon – sat^ha t^hu^rsi or t^hu^rsi k^hon – sat^ha. (Ten dishes)

k^hon – sat^ha tringdam or tringdam k^hon – sat^ha. (Ten schools)

5.{t^he} :This classifier is used in Rabha language for fruits and vegetables.

For example –

t^he – sa poc^ho or poc^ho t^he – sa. (A mango)

t^he – niN bant^hao or bant^hao t^he – niN. (Two brinjals)

6.{t^huka} :This classifier is used for the human speech.

For example –

t^huka – sa kat^ha or kat^ha t^huka – sa. (One word)

t^huka – niN kat^ha or tat^ha t^huka – niN. (Two words)

7.{tu^hng} : This classifier is used for long and flexible things like – rope, hair, necklaces, tail, string and so on.

For example –

tu^hng – sa k^hur or k^hur tu^hng – sa. (A rope)

tu^hng – sa k^horo or k^horo tu^hng – sa. (A hair)

tu^hng – niN zimi or zimi tu^hng – niN. (Two tails)

tu^hng – t^ham nent^heng or nent^heng tu^hng – t^ham. (Three strings)

8. {t^hok} : This classifier is used in Rabha language for drops of liquids.

For example –

t^hok – sa c^hoki or c^hoki t^hok – sa. (A drop of wine)

t^hok – niN mac^hu-p^hu or mac^ho-p^hu t^hok – niN. (Two drops of milk)

9. {bada} : This classifier is used for bunch of fruits like – areca nut, grapes, coconut and litchi.

For example –

bada – sa k^hui or k^hui bada – sa. (A bunches of areca nuts)

bada – sa nariyol or nariyol bada – sa. (A bunch of coconuts)

bada – niN lesu or lesu bada – niN. (A bunch of litchis)

10. {pal} : This classifier is used in case of flock of birds, herd of cows, cattle etc.

For example –

pal – sa bugil or bugil pal – sa. (A herd of cranes)

pal – sa masu or masu pal – sa. (A herd of cows)

11. {halsiN} : This classifier is used for a string of fishes, meat or so on.

For example –

halsiN – sa na or na halsiN – sa. (A string of fishes)

halsiN – niN kaka or kaka halsiN – niN. (Two string of meats)

12. {zor} : This classifier is used for pairs of peoples and birds.

For example –

zor – sa misa or misa zor – sa. (A pair of girls)

zor – niN tiya or tiya zor – niN. (Two pair of parrots)

7. Classifiers of Kok Borok Language

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

Asha Rani Brahma. M.A, B.Ed., Ph.D. Research Scholar

A Comparative Analysis of the Numeral Classifiers of Bodo, Rabha and Kok Borok Languages

1. {khorok/borok}: This classifier is used in Kok Borok language for human being.

For example –

k^horok – sa borok or borok k^horok – sa. (One man)

k^horok – nui serai or serai k^horok – nui. (Two children)

2. {ma} : This classifier is used for all kinds of animals, insects, birds and creatures.

For example –

ma – sa musuk or musuk ma – sa. (A cow)

ma – nui larima or larima ma – nui. (Two butterflies)

ma – t^ham tak^hum or tak^hum ma – t^ham. (Three ducks)

3. {p^hang} : This classifier is used for all kinds of tree, herb and climbers.

For example –

p^hang – sa boroi or boroi p^hang – sa. (A plum tree)

p^hang – nui t^halik or t^halik p^hang – nui. (Two banana trees)

p^hang – t^ham fant^hak or fant^hak p^hang – t^ham. (Three brinjal trees)

p^hang – brui milok or milok p^hang – brui. (Four pumpkin trees)

4. {k^hung} : This classifier is used for house, weapons, all kinds of household things, furniture, musical instruments, agricultural tools, hunting and fishing tools, utensils and any kind of things.

For example –

k^hung – sa gatinok or gatinok k^hung – sa. (One kitchen)

k^hung – sa manui or manui k^hung – sa. (A weapon)

k^hung – nui betra or betra k^hung – nui. (Two combs)

k^hung – t^ham tailam or tailum k^hung – t^ham. (Three windows)

k^hung – brui godal or godal k^hung – brui. (Four spades)

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

Asha Rani Brahma. M.A, B.Ed., Ph.D. Research Scholar

A Comparative Analysis of the Numeral Classifiers of Bodo, Rabha and Kok Borok Languages

k^hung – ba c^hai or c^hai k^hung – ba. (Five fishing nets)

k^hung – ba mairang or mairang k^hung – ba. (Five dishes)

5. {t^hai} : This classifier is used for fruits and vegetables.

For example –

t^hai – sa jambi or jambi t^hai – sa. (One lemon)

t^hai – nui fant^hak muk^hui or fant^hak muk^hui t^hai – nui. (Two tomatoes)

6. {pung} : This classifier is used for human speech and beating by hands, kicking by legs and with other things like stick.

For example –

pung – sa tapora or tapora pung – sa. (One slab)

pung – nui yamasung or yamasung pung – nui. (Two times of kick)

7. {tung} : This classifier is used for long and flexible things like rope, hair, tail and string.

For example –

tung – sa kut^hung or kut^hung tung – sa. (A string)

tung – nui kanai or kanai tung – nui. (Two hairs)

tung – t^ham dukui or dukui tung – t^ham. (Three ropes)

8. {kok} : This classifier is used for small round things like seed.

For example –

kok – sa sobai or sobai kok – sa. (One land till)

kok – nui huqiruy or huqiruy kok – nui. (Two seeds of mustard oil)

9. {lam} : This classifier is used for hole of insects.

For example –

lam – sa buqlam or buqlam lam – sa. (One hole)

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A Comparative Analysis of the Numeral Classifiers of Bodo, Rabha and Kok Borok Languages

lam – nui sinzo buɣlam or sinzo buɣlam lam – nui. (Two holes of snake)

10. {bar} :This classifier is used for flower.

For example –

bar – sa bubar or bubar bar – sa. (One flower)

bar – nui bubar or bubar bar – nui. (Two flower)

11. {lai} :This classifier is used in Kok Borok language for leaves.

For example –

lai – sa buɣlai or buɣlai lai – sa. (One leaf)

lai – nui buɣlai or buɣlai lai – nui. (Two leaves)

12. {lap} :This classifier is used for small pieces of skin.

For example –

lap – sa buk^hur or buk^hur lap – sa. (One piece of skin)

lap – nui buk^hur or buk^hur lap – nui. (Two pieces of skin)

8. Structure of Classifiers

The classifiers of these languages have some similarities and dissimilarities in structure. In Bodo, Rabha and Kok Borok languages, the classifiers are found to be monosyllabic and polysyllabic (more than one syllable) too. Like in Bodo {sa}, {ma}, {p^hang}, {gong}, {t^hai}, {p^hong}, {duŋg}, {t^hong}, {dung}, {g^hor}, are monosyllabic and some classifier like {muɣzuɣm}, {haldinga} are found to be polysyllabic.

In Rabha language, the classifier {sak}, {maN}, {p^han}, {k^hon}, {t^he}, {tuŋg}, {t^hok}, {pal}, {zor} are monosyllabic and {t^huka}, {bada}, {halsing} are polysyllabic.

In Kok Borok language, the classifiers like {ma}, {p^hang}, {k^hung}, {t^hai}, {pung}, {tung}, {kok}, {lam}, {bar}, {lai}, {lap} are monosyllabic and the classifier {k^horok} is polysyllabic.

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

Asha Rani Brahma. M.A, B.Ed., Ph.D. Research Scholar

A Comparative Analysis of the Numeral Classifiers of Bodo, Rabha and Kok Borok Languages

In Kok Borok language, maximum classifiers are monosyllabic in structure unlike in Bodo and Rabha languages. The first phonemes of classifiers of these Languages starts with consonant phoneme than vowel phoneme like Alveolar fricative voiceless consonant {s}, Bilabial voiced nasal consonant {m}, Bilabial stop voiceless consonant phoneme {p^h}, velar voiced stop un aspirated phoneme {g}, alveolar voiceless stop phoneme {t^h}, Alveolar voiced stop phoneme {d}, glottal fricative phoneme {h}, alveolar voiced fricative phoneme {z}, velar voiceless stop phoneme {k^h}, alveolar lateral voiced phoneme {l} and bilabial stop voiced phoneme {b}.

9. Function of Classifiers

The classifiers of these languages are used before and after a noun and before the numeral in sentence. Noun precedes or follows the classifier and most of the classifiers of these three languages are used as bound morphemes in sentence.

10. Conclusion

This paper tries to explore the similarities and dissimilarities of classifiers of three cognate languages in structure and function. In North-East India, four language families, Indo-Aryan, Tibeto-Burman, Austro-Asiatic and Dravidian (a small number of Tamil speakers in Morch District of Manipur) are found. The Bodo, Rabha and Kok Borok belong to the Bodo group of Tibeto-Burman language family. This paper tries to highlight the unique characters of classifiers of Bodo group of languages that it shares by other languages families.

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Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

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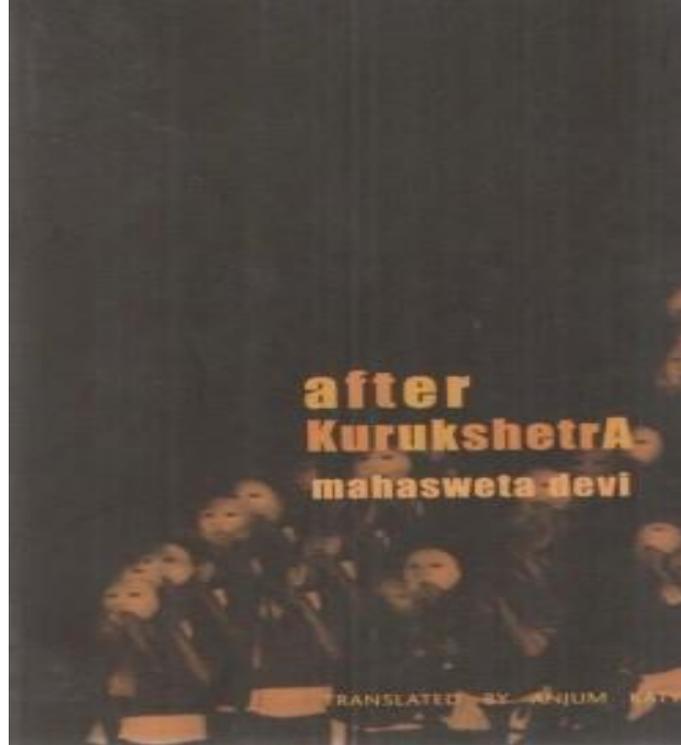
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*The Royal Clan Vs the Marginalised:
An Analysis of the Lifestyles of Women in Mahasweta Devi's
Panchakanya (Five Women)*

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Mahasweta Devi

Mahasweta Devi is a contemporary Bengali woman writer and committed social activist working for the welfare of the tribal communities in India. Born in 1926 in a family of writers and culture workers, Devi mixes the high literary style of old Bengali literature with tribal language. She has come to be regarded as one of India's most radical writers. In newspapers and journals, she has written articles in support of the tribal people and their rights. "I am wary of the West," (Shands, 19) says Devi in an interview with Gayatri Spivak. She underlines that "the tribal population of India is about one-sixth of the total population of the country (India)" and yet they have not been a part of decolonization, even though "they have paid the price" (Spivak, ix, xi). Debasish Chattopadhyay, a critic, suggests that Devi's "voice does not simply ventriloquize

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the plight of those at the edges of civilization, but goes deeper to analyse and reflect upon how the power structures that engender marginalisation are replicated in the texture of the society of the marginalized.” (Chattopadhyay, 111).

After Kurukshetra

Devi’s *After Kurukshetra* translated by Anjum Katyal is a collection of the three stories, namely, “*Panchakanya [Five Women]*”, “*Kunti o Nishadin [Kundi and the Nishadin]*” and “*Souvali [Souvali]*”. As a visionary, Devi foresees the aftermath of the *dharmayudha* (the holy war) of Kurushetra in all her three stories. The *dharmayudha* takes place in Kurukshetra between the Pandavas and the Kauravas. The Indian epic *The Mahabharatha* documents the war and its after effects. *After Kurukshetra* narrates the story of the great war in *The Mahabharata*. Taking the source from the ancient epic, Devi weaves the three stories by looking at the events through the eyes of the marginalized and the disposed women. There are two classes of women in *Panchakanya* : the *rajavrittis* and the *lokavittis*. The *rajavrittis* are the royal women living in the palace and the *lokavrittis* belong to the world of the common men. The *Rajavrittis* enjoy the privileges which are denied to the *lokavrittis*. The latter belong to the class of the farmers and the hunters. The aim of this paper is to analyse the contrasted lifestyles of the women belonging to the royal clan and the marginalised in Devi’s *Panchakanya*.

John Keay, a historian, states in *India a History*, “An Aryanised society may be defined as one in which primacy is accorded to a particular language (Sanskrit) to an authoritative priesthood (Brahmans) and to a hierarchichal social structure (caste)” (Keay, 28). Indian society has a fourfold division: the *Brahmans* (the priests), the *Kshatriyas* (the warriors), the *Vysyas* (the merchants) and the *Sudras* (the marginalised). The *Brahmans* occupy the highest position in the social hierarchy and the *Sudhras* hold the lowest position. Uttara (widow of Abimanyu), Queen Subhadra and Draupadi (mothers – in –law of Uttara), Kunti and Gandhari represent the *rajavritta* women in *Panchakanya*. Godhumi, Gomati, Yamuna, Vitasta, Vipasha (the five widowed women of the foot soldiers) and Madraja (the head *dasi* of the royal women’s quarters) represent the *lokavritta* women in the story.

Marginalised

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The *padatiks* are foot soldiers. They are protectors of chariot – mounted heroes of war. The *padatiks* are slaughtered innumerable in the *dharmayuddah*. Being armless, their deaths are disproportionately huge. There is stench of their decaying flesh. Owing to mass human destruction, the warriors are given common cremation by piling up several of their dead bodies simultaneously on the funeral pyre. This creates an eerie atmosphere. The *chandals* (a lower caste attending on the funeral pyre) have no role in the war. They gather firewood after the war. Their primary job is to quench with water the heat of the fire of the nameless dead soldiers in the war. As the war continues for years, they say, “Let the river flood, drown the fires.”(Devi, 2). Womenfolk of the families of the *padatiks* gather together and mourn in the dark. The *Kurukshetra* ground protests in spews, ‘angry heat’ so that the five black - clad women find themselves unable to return to their homes in the *Kurjangal* region. Madraja engages the five widows to assist the young and pregnant Uttara. Devi employs this situation for a juxtaposition of the lifestyles of the women belonging to the royal clan and the marginalised.

Wedding Celebrations in the Royal Household and the Marginalised

Devi provides a contrasted picture of the wedding celebrations in the royal household and the marginalised. The weddings of the royal clan usually fill the air with happiness. Fire ceremonies take place in royal weddings. To witness royal weddings, the entire country gathers at a single place. The nomadic traders, the wandering magicians, the snake charmers, the dancers and the puppeteers visit the country during the marriage eve. The entire kingdom resounds with narration of wondrous tales, dance and songs. On the other hand, the marriages of the farming families are simple. Married women are assigned the responsibility to decorate the young brides. Therefore, they “walk to river to collect water . . . to bathe a new bride.”(Devi, 17). Encircled with bustling activities, they laugh, talk loud and walk restlessly in the entire town.

Widows of the Royal Clan and the Marginalised

Devi next contrasts the appearance of the widows of the royal clan and the marginalised. Women in both the sections of the society wear different colour dresses during their widowhood. The widows of the *padatiks* wear black cloth covering their breasts with a knot behind. A plain black cloth is worn around their waists, covering their heads. They conduct themselves very

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naturally. They chat and talk. They pose riddles and solve them. The women of the *rajavritta* are “white-clad” (Devi, 13). They wear no ornaments. Their hair hangs heavily on their shoulders. They roam around the palace in grief like “shadowy ghosts” (Devi, 17). They are forbidden from smiling and they are instructed to walk in a timid and hesitant manner. Subhadra says that the *rajavritta* widows must follow the example set by Arya Kunti in this world. The *acharyas* (teachers at the palace) instruct them the rigorous rules of widowhood.

Widow Remarriage

Devi’s contrasts the remarriage prospects for the widows. Royal widows suffer endlessly without provisions for remarriages. From the epical times, the royal households have not permitted widow remarriages. So, they live alone sorrowfully. They lead shadowy existence. Contrarily, widow remarriages are common among the marginalised. So, widows remarry after the death of their husbands and live happily in their homes. The widows of the *janavritta* (common humanity) lead normal lives doing their daily chores. They enjoy the provisions of remarriages after the death of their husbands. The five women say “we marry our brother-in-law” (Devi, 22). After performing the funeral rites of the husband, the elders of the family arrange remarriage for a widow. *Janavritta* women say “We need husbands, we need children. The village needs to hear the sound of chatter and laughter. We will ... create life. That’s what nature teaches us.”(Devi, 22). There seems to be self-imposed royal objection to widow remarriages in their own clan.

Attitude to Nature

The *Janavritta* community worships nature and the earth. The people live in harmony with nature. They till their fields and rear their cattle. They eat venison meat. They optimistically say “After a terrible calamity, the sun always rises.’ The women of the royal family, on the other hand, are far removed from nature. Uttara has no personal intimacy with nature. She sees distant mountain ranges from the roof of her father’s house. She harbours only recollected memories of lakes mentioned by her nurse in her childhood. After her wedding, she is totally removed from nature. The *Janavritta* women hunt animals. They enjoy deer hunting and use war weapons like the spear. The royal women know that spears are war weapons used

by men. They are ignorant that peasants are turned into foot soldiers and they use spears. They only know how to “cook venison every day.” (Devi, 13).

Attitude to Pregnancy and Gender of the Children

There is a contrast between the royal and the marginalised women in their attitude to pregnancy. The royal women take rest during their pregnancy. The *Janavritta* women, on the other hand, consider pregnancy a law of nature. The pregnant women in their clan are not allowed to lie down and to take rest. The women are busy doing ‘light chores’ (Devi, 9). They walk in the garden at daybreak and do simple household chores like folding clothes and watering the *tulsi* (herbal and devotional) plants. “Keep active, the birth’ll be easier” (Devi, 9) is their belief.

There is a contrast in the attitude of the women to the sex of the children to be born. A *Janavritta* accepts any child whereas the royal family longs only for a female child. When Subhadra predicts a boy in Uttara’s womb, the latter says, “It would be nice if it were a girl. If it’s a boy, he too will go to war.” (Devi, 8). War, according to the royal women, take away the lives of their male children. The attitude to have girl-children in the royal household underlines the gruesomeness, horror and antipathy to war.

Naming Ceremonies

The naming ceremonies of the newborn children differ between the royal clan and the marginalised. The rituals are simple in the houses of the marginalised. The community as a whole is involved in the rituals. Grandparents choose the name. The baby is shaven and bathed in water warmed by the sun. Musicians play and the women sing. The maternal uncle feeds the baby. The villagers are treated to a feast. The naming ceremony in a royal household is an elaborate ritual. There are offerings to *Agni* (fire). The elder male members decide the name, the priests study the signs and the *Acharya* (head priest) draws up the horoscope. The female members of the royal clan are not consulted in the choice of names of their children. The mother in a palace rears her child just for a year. Afterwards, wet mothers take over its upbringing. Royal offsprings are not raised by their mothers. The marginalised women rear their children from birth to adulthood.

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Gender Equality

There prevails gender equality in the *Janavritta* community. The domestic work is shared between the men and the women on an equal basis. In the absence of men, the women take the responsibility of completing the job. The marginalised women say, “When the men go off to war, we women protect our homes” (Devi, 13), Further, they say, “Not just the men, the women also guard the fields.” (Devi, 12). The royal women, on the other hand, live in their quarters in palaces. They do minimum work and they are assisted by women servants.

Heavenly Abode

The royal belief was that the heroes of war were destined to *divyalok* (heaven). The five women question this belief. “Godhumi says,” No chariots came down from *divyalok*. They did not go to heaven. The foot soldiers died fighting in the very same *dharmayuddha*. But no funeral rites were held for the souls.” (Devi, 16). There is a powerful indictment against the war: “Brother kills brother, uncle kills nephew, *shishya* (disciple) kills *guru* teacher.” (Devi, 23). Marginalised women refuse to accept *Kurukshetra* war as *dharmayudda*. They see no holiness or righteousness in it. They see only greed for throne in it. The funeral song of the five *dasis* runs thus: “This war’s turned villages into cremation grounds, hai hai! (Devi, 10). Gandhari representing the royal women also endorses the view of the marginalised. She holds Lord Krishna Vasudeva responsible for the war. She describes the war as “fratricide” and “savage” (Devi, 8).

Wholesome Contrast

To conclude, *Panchakanya* offers a contrasted picture of the lives of the women of the royal clan and the marginalised. Ceremonies predominate in a royal wedding whereas a marriage is a social event in the household of the marginalised. Royal widows live shadowy lives according to the instructions of priests and the head priest of the royal society. Royal weddings are ostentatious and elaborate. Fire ceremony is an important part in royal weddings. The weddings in the families of the marginalised are simple. Married women conduct the bridal ceremonies. Widowhood is a scaring and terrifying experience for the royal women. They live alone in austerity. The marginalised widows live naturally and the elders arrange remarriages for

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them. Remarried marginalised widows continue their procreative function. The royal women live in palaces isolating themselves from nature. The marginalised women live in close proximity with nature. Pregnant women in royal households avoid manual labour. The marginalised women do physical work during their pregnancy. Royal women expect the would-be-born child to be a female. A prince in the royal household grows to become a war hero and he perishes. The royal women disapprove themselves of war. A princess does not participate in a war and so her life is secure. The marginalised women do not attach any importance to the sex of the would-be-born child. They accept any child – male or female. The royal women leave their babies in the care of the wet mothers. The marginalised women rear their babies themselves. The marginalised women harbour gender parity. They support their male counterparts in their daily lives. There is gender inequality in royal households. The royal women depend on their male members on all occasions. Hence, there is male-female equality among the *lokavrittis*. The male-female relationship is marked by inequality in the royal households. The royal women attach holiness to the *Kurukshetra* war. The marginalised women dispel the holiness associated with the war and indict it powerfully. Thus, the *Panchakanya* presents contrasted pictures of the lifestyles of women of the royal clan and the marginalised.

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A Study of the Parents' Attitudes about Their School-Going Daughters at Secondary Level

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Nazish Farid
Shahabullah**

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Abstract

The present descriptive study is conducted to find out the relationship between the attitude of parents and the performance of their school going daughters in district Charsadda. The study was descriptive in nature. Data was collected through questionnaire by direct contact with principals, teachers, of Government girl's high schools. The parents were interviewed in Pashto by the researcher. A structured interview schedule was developed for this purpose. Literature related to the study was reviewed; the data was collected and organized. The results of the students were analyzed. Discussion was made on the basis of the result, it was concluded that there is a close relationship between the attitude of parents and the performance of their school going daughters. The parental styles effect the academic and occupational achievements of their school going daughters. On the basis of discussion and finding some suggestion were made to improve the attitude of parents towards their school going daughters.

Key Words: parents' attitude, school, daughters.

Introduction

In Pakistan, education starts from the age of five year. Pre-school classes are known as *kachee*. Primary education consists of five years schooling. After post Primary education, Middle and Secondary education starts. Secondary school is up to 9th & 10th where as Higher Secondary School is up to 11th & 12th classes. In Pakistan people live in different social back grounds.

Parents and community's traditional beliefs determine the role of women and girls in society. Women are weak and they only need protection and guidance. Socio-economic changes define the role of women, not only for earning opportunities, but also to use potential abilities to improve the standard of living of communities, families and individual. Those people who have traditional beliefs have negative attitude towards girl's education, and limit family and community support for girl's education. Examination and identification of these traditional people and their attitudes is necessary. Without the involvement of the parents and community support, no progress in the field of girl's education will be possible.

Attitude is a concept of an individual towards thing, place, object, person, or subject which can be observed from the behavior of an individual. An individual has positive or negative attitude towards a particular object, subject, or idea. There are two types attitude positive or negative attitude towards a particular object, subject or idea which has different components which include knowledge, beliefs, and ideas, feeling, like and dislike. Attitude is defined as the way we think, feel, and act in certain ways in the world around us. The quality and effectiveness of attitude determines all of our thinking, emotion, and behavior. Our attitude is based upon our perception, and our expectation as well as our definition of life. Attitudes are judgments.

We should understand parents' attitude from their behavior. There are various factors which affect the attitude of parents towards their daughter's education. These are social, economic and global change.

This study is important in the sense that it would bring to light the attitude of parents about the education of their school going daughters in Charsadda. The study would identify the effect of parental style on the achievement rate of their school going daughters. The researcher would also educate those parents who are unaware of the parental style on the achievement of their school going daughters. This study would provide guideline the policy makers, planners, school directors, and parents, about the strengths, and weakness of the girl's education.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- (1) To identify the relationship between parent's attitude and their daughter's performance in school.

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

Nasrullah Khan, Mohammad Saleem Afaqi and Kiramat Shah

A Study of the Parents' Attitudes about Their School-Going Daughters at Secondary Level 23

- (2) To find out the influence of parents education on performance of their school going daughters.
- (3) To suggest parents that supportive attitude helps in the performance of their school going daughters.

Research questions

- Do Parents regularly contact school to know their daughters performance?
- Does the attitude of parents affect their daughter's performance?
- Do the educated parents provide guidance to their daughters?

Review of Related Literature

Besides household wealth, the educational level and labour market position of the parents is expected to play a role. There is ample evidence that children from better educated parents more often go to school and tend to drop out less (UNESCO, 2010).

Parents who have reached a certain educational level might want their children to achieve at least that level. For educational enrolment of girls, education of the mother might be especially important (Emerson & Portela Souza, 2007).

Mothers who have succeeded in completing a certain level of education have experienced its value and know that it is within the reach of girls to complete that level. Therefore, we expect them to use the power and insights derived from their higher education to make sure that their daughters are educated too (Smits & Gündüz-Hogör, 2006).

The income of the parents plays a strong determinant of children education. Regarding father's labor market position, we expect fathers who are in salaried employment to be more aware of the importance of education and hence to invest more in their children's education (Breen & Goldthorpe, 1997).

Hence farmers and business owners may feel less need to invest in their children's education than people in dependent employment. Also, for small farmers the opportunity costs of sending their children to school may be high, since they are more likely to expect their children to help out tending the land and rearing livestock, especially during peak working times (Bhalotra & Heady 2003; Basu, Das & Dutta, 2003).

Bogunović Blanka and Polovina Nada (2007) found in a study that the family stimulation is the resultant of the influence of cultural and educational profile of the family and active parental attitudes regarding education and attainment of their children. They examined the students' attitudes towards schooling, and to obtain answers to the question: which stimulating aspects of family context are the most predictable for the development of educational aspirations, i.e. attitudes towards school and gaining knowledge, educational interests and plans for further education.

Huisman, Rani, and Smits, (2010) studied the role of socio-economic and cultural factors, and of characteristics of the educational infrastructure on primary school enrolment, the results indicated that most of the variation in educational enrolment (around 70%) is explained by factors at the household level, of which socio-economic factors are most important. And the result also indicated that, in the cities schooling decisions are hardly influenced by supply-side factors. In rural areas, however, these factors do play an important role. If there are fewer schools or teachers, or if the local culture is more patriarchal, rural children (in particular girls) participate substantially less. The major finding of this respect was that in rural areas inequalities between socio-economic status groups are lower if more schools and teachers are available.

It has been emphasised that (Bhalotra & Heady (2003); Basu, Das and Dutta, (2003) that fathers who are in salaried employment are more likely to be aware of the importance of education and hence to invest more in their children's education. The children themselves may also be more aware of the benefits of education. On the other hand, parents are less likely to invest in their children's education when direct occupational transmission or transference of capital is a viable option to obtain a good position in society for their children. Hence farmers

and business owners may feel less need to invest in their children's education than people in dependent employment.

Wentzel (1998), in her study of African-American and European-American parents, found an indirect relationship between ethnic background and parental aspirations. African-American parents have the higher educational attainment aspirations for their children.

A similar study by Okagaki and Frensch (1998) examined the relationship between parental attitudes and expectations (educational attainment, and grades) and children's school performance, and how this relationship may differ across ethnic groups. Their sample consisted of 75 Asian American, 109 Latino, and 91 European-American families. The data revealed that there were group differences. More specifically, Asian-American parents were said to have set higher educational expectations for their children. Parents from this particular ethnic group, more so than the other groups, wanted their children to have more education. They also set higher standards of acceptable academic achievement in terms of grades and amount of education completed.

Emily (2000) stated that the mothers and fathers attitudes toward their children s educational performance and their Academic ability matter. The objectives of the study were to discover the relationship of parental attitude to the performance. The result of the study was the parent's wants that their children perform well. Both of parents want that their children obtained good academic competencies while some have preferred their sons in education.

Mukhtar (2002) concluded from his study on the Gender Issue in Pakistan that poor families favored their sons to educate rather than their daughters due to poverty. Ali (2003) had discovered the problems of girls schooling in Pakistan. The studies provide the statistical data about female learning rates. According to them, girl's primary enrolment in Punjab is 0.72, for Sindh for 0.63, Khyber pakhtunkhwa 0.42 and Baluchistan 0.38, for the year 2006-07. According to them female education in rural is lower than urban areas of the country. Elementary literacy rates are 48% for girls and 60% for the boys in Pakistan.

Buzzad & Ali (2011) investigated the parents' attitude towards daughter education in the tribal area of Dera Ghazi Kahn Pakistan. The questions of the study were how much tribal parents give importance to girl's education? What type of role tribal parents are contributing for their daughter's education? The result of the study was that the tribal people wanted to educate their girls. Educated people migrate from tribal areas to settled areas to educate their girls. While these people who have low income and have traditional belief they wanted to give Islamic education, which is (Recitation) of Holy Quran.

Methodology of the Study

It was a descriptive study which investigates the attitude of parents and the performance of their school going daughters. The study used both quantitative and qualitative techniques of research. The quantitative data converted in to percentage that was subjected to meaningful interpretation and discussions.

Population & Sample

All female teachers and the students of governments Girls High Schools and their parents were the population of the study in Charsadda. Ten high schools were selected as sample randomly, 100 teachers and 100 students of the secondary schools were selected after monitoring the variables like age, social status, health high, schools for girls and their overall achievement in the result. 200 (100 Mothers 100 Fathers) Parents were interviewed.

Research Instrument

The nature of the study was descriptive, so questionnaires and interviews were the tools of study. The achievement rate of the enrolled students was analyzed to know the performance of the students. The questionnaire was developed in Urdu to collect real and valid data. The parents were interviewed in Pashto for validity and reliability of the data. All the collected data was organized and tabulated. The data was tabulated discussed and finally conclusions were drawn and for the improvement of students, schools and teachers and parents recommendations were made.

Data Analysis and Discussions

Table No. 1: TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS (DAUGHTERS-100)

S. No	Question	Yes	%	No	%
1.	Do your other sisters (if any) get education?	90	90	10	10
2.	Do your parents help in your studies?	90	90	10	10
3.	Do your parents know the name of your principal?	30	30	70	70
4.	Do you have definite schedule for your studies?	80	80	20	20
5.	Do your parents visit your school to know your performance	60	60	40	40
6.	Do your parents check yours copies and homework?	90	90	10	10
7.	Do your parents go to the weddings of relative during your examination?	90	90	10	10
8.	Do your parents help you in the examination?	70	70	30	30
9.	Do your parents arrange tuition when you feel any difficulty for your study?	80	80	20	20
10.	Are you satisfied with yours parent's attitudes?	100	100	00	0

Discussions

Table No. 1. Responses of Question No.1 show that 90% of good performer students' sisters also get education. In Question No.2 responses show that 90% of girls are helped by their parents. In Question No.3 responses show that 70% of parents do not know the name of the school principal. Responses of Question No.4 show that 80% of students had definite schedule for study. Responses of Question No.5 show that 60% of parents visit the school. Responses of Question No.6 show that 70% of student's homework and copies are checked by their parents. In Question No.7 Responses show that 90% of parents arrange marriages during examination. Responses of Question No.8 show that 70% of parents arrange tuition when their daughters feel any difficulty. In Question No.9 responses show that 90% of parents help their daughters in

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016
Nasrullah Khan, Mohammad Saleem Afaqi and Kiramat Shah
A Study of the Parents' Attitudes about Their School-Going Daughters at Secondary Level 28

preparation of examination. Most of parents are aware of their daughter's difficulty, whereas some parents have no sense of their daughters' education. Responses of Question No.10 show that 100% of students are satisfied of parent's behavior.

Table No. 2

Total Number of Respondents (Teachers-100)

S. No	Question	Yes	%	No	%
1.	What is the strength of students?	90	90	10	10
2.	How many girls perform well in your class?	80	80	20	20
3.	Do schools provide guidance to students?	80	80	20	20
4.	Do the parents attend P. T. C meeting?	70	70	30	30
5.	Do educated parents take interest in daughter education?	50	50	50	50
6.	Do poor parents ask their daughters performance?	50	50	50	50
7.	Do parent's contacts school to know their daughters performance?	80	80	20	20
8.	Do attitudes of parent affect their daughter's performance?	80	80	20	20
9.	Do parents permit their daughters to take interest in co-curricular activities?	70	70	30	30
10.	The same school, same teacher, the same method, what is the main reason of good performance of girls?	80	80	20	20

Discussion

Table No. 2. Responses of Question No.1 show that 90% of teachers have 180 students enrolled in the class. Moreover, 10% of the teachers have 120 students enrolled in the class. This show that ratio teacher-student ratio is very high. Responses of Question No.2 show that 80% of teachers said that most of the students performed well because of good parental style, whereas 20% of teachers said that performance of students were better because of their own talent. Responses of Question No.3 show that 80% of school provide guidance and counseling to the students for the admission and course selection. Responses of Question No.4 show that 70%

parents do not attend PTC meeting. Responses of Question No.5 show that 50% poor parents also got awareness of the environment and thought to educate their daughters as the time needs. Responses of Question No.6 show that 50% poor parents ask about their daughter's performance. Responses of Question No.7 show that 80% of parents have no contact with school while 20% of parents were contact in with school. Responses of Question No.8 show 90% of teachers responded that the attitudes of parents affect the performance of their daughters. Responses of Question No.9 show that most teachers responded that 40% parents allow their daughters to participate in the co- curricular activities whereas 60% of parents do not allow their daughters to participate in co-curricular activities. Responses of Question No.10 show that 80% students' performance was better due to parenting style.

Table No. 3 Total number of Responded (Mothers-100)

S. No	Question	Yes	%	No	%
1.	Do you think that education of woman is necessary in changing world?	90	90	10	10
2.	Do you arrange tuition for your daughters?	70	70	30	30
3.	Do you think women should be give higher education?	40	40	60	60
4.	Do you think that education brings awareness in girls about their rights and duties?	80	80	20	20
5.	Do you think that educated girls assist their family financially?	70	70	30	30
6.	Do you think that female education can bring social change?	70	70	30	30
7.	Do you satisfy educational facilities for women education?	60	60	40	40
8.	Do you know that attitudes of mothers affect their	60	60	40	40

	daughter's performance?				
9.	Do you think that it is easy to find a life partner for educated girls?	80	80	20	20
10.	Do you think that women should go for job after education?	60	60	40	40

Discussion

TABLE No. 3. Responses of Question No.1 show that 90% of mothers said that education is necessary for their daughters. Responses of Question No.2 show that 70% of mothers help their daughters to get education. Responses of Question No.3 show 60% of mothers said that women should get higher education. Responses of Question No.4 show 80% of mothers said that education brings awareness in their daughters about their rights and duties. Responses of Question No.5 show 70% of mothers said that educated girls help their family financially. Responses of Question No.6 show that 90% of mothers said that education can bring social changes in their daughters. Responses of Question No.7 show that 60% of mothers were satisfied with the educational facilities provided for women education. Responses of Question No.8 show that 60% of mothers were aware of their attitude, which affect their daughter's performance. Responses of Question No.9 show that 80% of mothers said that it is easy to find a life partner for educated girls. Responses of Question No.10 show that 60% of mothers said that women should go for job after completing of their education.

Table No. 4 Total number of Respondents (Fathers-100)

S. No	Question	Yes	%	No	%
1.	Do you think that education of women is necessary?	70	70	30	30
2.	Do you help your daughters to get education?	90	90	10	10
3.	Does women education have well effect on society?	60	60	40	40
4.	Is Education necessary for daughters?	60	60	40	40

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Nasrullah Khan, Mohammad Saleem Afaqi and Kiramat Shah

A Study of the Parents' Attitudes about Their School-Going Daughters at Secondary Level 31

5.	Do you think that your attitude affect the performance of daughters?	50	50	50	50
6.	Do you know that education creates religious awareness in your daughters?	70	70	30	30
7.	Do you know that women should give higher education?	30	30	70	70
8.	Do you think that woman should go for job after education?	50	50	50	50
9.	Does education develop confidence in female?	70	70	30	30
10.	Do you feel that your daughters become a symbol of pride?	80	80	20	20

Discussion

Table No. 4. Responses of Question No.1 show that 70% of fathers know that education was necessary for women. Responses of Question No.2 show that 90% girls were helped by their fathers to get education. Responses of Question No.3 show 80% of fathers said that educated girls have good effect on the society. Responses of Question No.4 show 60% of fathers said that education was necessary for their daughters. Responses of Question No.5 show that 60% of fathers were aware of their attitudes, which affect their daughter's performance. Responses of Question No.6 show that 90% fathers said that education created religious awareness in their daughters. Responses of Question No.7 show 30% fathers said that women should get higher education. 70% fathers gave negative response about girls' higher education. Responses of Question No.8 show 50% of fathers said that educated women should go for job. Responses of Question No.9 show that 70% parents said that education developed confidence in female. Responses of Question No.10 show that 80% of fathers wanted their daughters to be a symbol of pride.

Findings, Conclusion and Recommendations

The study analyzed the responses of the students and concluded that those students whose performance were better, they were regular in the class. The sisters of the good performer students were also getting good education. Most of daughters were appreciated by their parents. The homework of good performer students was strictly checked by their parents. Most of the parents did not know the name of their daughter's school principal. Most of parents helped their

daughters during examination. All parents were responsible in providing pick and drop to their daughters from schools. Mostly marriages arranged during examination sessions. Most of the parents arranged tuition for their daughters when they felt difficulty in the class. Most of the parents wanted their daughters to continue education. Most of the parents were unaware about parent's day. Most of the teachers had 160 students in the class, whereas some had 80 students in the class. Most of the teachers said that half of students had better performance instead of the whole class. The good performer students always completed their work and assignments on time. Educated parents were more interested in the education of their daughters. 80% of the teachers said that the main reason of good performance of girl was due to parent's attitudes, whereas 20% said that the reason of good performance girls were their mental ability and good teaching. The performance of the students was greatly affected by the attitudes of their parents. Most of the parents gave permission to their daughters for co-curricular activities. Most of the parents not allowed their daughters to re-join failure class. The schools encouraged the parents to educate their daughters. The school also encouraged the failure students to try again and again to minimize the drop out rate. The schools also provide guidance and counseling to students to get education about their aptitudes and attitudes. All the schools do not celebrate the parent's day. All the schools encourage the best performance of students. Some of the parents wanted their daughters to get jobs. Some of the parents said that they wanted their daughter's to continue education. Most of the parents said that education created in their daughter's self-confidence and self-reliance in their daughters. Some of the parents said that they gave educated mothers to the nation. Some of the parents did not realize the value of education. Some of the parents said that they wanted their daughters to become aware of the changing society. Those parents, whose attitudes was better to their daughter's education, majority of those students gave good performance

Conclusion

On the basis of discussion, the following conclusion has been drawn. It was observed that people of district Charsadda had soft corner for their daughters' education. Because of poverty parents were compelled to ignore daughters' education. Unfavorable situation is the main reason for not to sending girls to schools for education, especially for the higher education. Most of

parents favour both of their children for education while some parents favour their son for education. Most of the parents know that their attitude affects their daughter's performances, whereas some of the parents have no awareness that their daughter's performance is related to their attitudes. Those students, whose parent's attitude were supportive, showed good performance in examinations. Those parents, whose attitude were uncertain; their daughters got average marks in examination. Those parents, whose were not involved in their daughter's educations, only pass in examination. They failed to get position in the class. Most of the parents were supportive. Some of the parents were un-certain. Some of the parents remained indifferent towards education of daughters.

Recommendations

On the basis of the results, the following recommendations have been made. The good performer students can be given scholarship, if parents cannot afford. Parent's day can be celebrated and parents must be invited to know about their daughter's performance. Conveyance can be arranged for those students who come from far flung areas. Awareness can be developed in parents, who have no sense about their daughters' education. Parents-teacher's counsel should be made and parents must be invited to discuss the school problems. The parents must be made aware that they should not celebrate marriages during examination. The performance of better students can be encouraged to give them incentives. Guidance and counseling can be given to the students about their aptitudes and specially those students whose parents are unaware. The government should gave protection to Women Education in disturb society. Special attention can be given to female education in education policies. The women could be given self-confidence that they fulfill the challenge of the new world. Female teachers can be appointed in those schools, where they were required. Financial support can be given to talented girls in the field of education by the government in order to continue further education. Favorable situation can be created by the government for female education. Awareness can be created in parents to educate their daughters. Motivational campaign can be started for female literacy. New schools and girls Colleges can be established. Double shift can be started in those girls' schools, where classes are overcrowded. In every girl's high and higher secondary school examination hall should be constructed. Appointment for training and teaching must be on merit basis. Female science teachers can be given to every girl school. Local community should be involved so that

educational standard can be raised. Drinking water, electricity, boundary walls and others school problems should be solved, so that students should take interest in education. Female teachers should encourage parents to enroll their daughters in school, especially those parents, who are not sending their daughters due to unawareness and ignorance. Media also can paly positive role to create awareness in the parents for their daughter education. Islam gives equal opportunities of knowledge to both men and women of the state. Muslim people can also give equal opportunities to their children as well as their daughters. Special allowance should be given to those female teachers, who perform their duty in rough and far areas.

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A Study of the Parents’ Attitudes about Their School-Going Daughters at Secondary Level 36

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Phonological Analysis of Nick Names in Punjabi

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Abstract

This paper relates to the study of nicknames in Punjabi language .it help us to understand about the transitions of syllable from name to nick names. The names are categorized depending upon the number of syllables in name and the characteristics of first syllable. In this paper only those nicknames are focused which have connection with the names, however passing a comment is also one of the convention of nicknames that directly have no connection with the names.

Keywords: Phonological, Transition, syllable, Nicknames

Introduction

1. Background

Nickname is familiar or shortens form of a proper name but sometimes it is also use in deceptive and negative meanings. Now a days this practice have become so common not to one particular part of world but in all over the globe. All names can have more than one nickname but it depends on who is saying? To whom it is been said? What is the social setting? In which circumstances it is used?

This paper has tried to explore the basic pattern on which these nicknames are based and what is main procedure involve

1.1 Problem Statement

To find out the phonological rule that governs the transformation of names to nicknames in Punjabi.

2. Literature Review

There was no work done in past that is concerned with the names and their nickname formation. found in the past years regarding to nicknames. There are some phonological rules for the transition of names into nicknames in different languages in it and which helps in transition from an original name to a nickname.

Through this paper we are exploring nicknames in Punjabi language and also give a brief introduction of nicknames in other languages. Sound changing is a common feature in every spoken language. When a new word is formed its phonetic content is changed. These sound changes are done under certain rules. Some of these rules are:

2.1 Metathesis

According to Pyles.T & Agleo.J, (1982) the transposition within a word of letters sounds and syllables is called metathesis. Moreover, (Bukhari, 1985) stated that there are three possibilities when consonant sounds change their places, with the vowels remaining intact. One is that two simple sounds change their features. Secondly, words become completely reversed and thirdly, aspirated sounds become unaspirated. The example of this technique is

given as that the name /nɔ̃bil/ changed to /bɔ̃nnu/. In this nickname formation metathesis plays a vital role along with deletion and epenthesis

2.2 Assimilation

Phonology this phenomena is about changing of sound in a word to become similar to another sound in the same word. This assimilation can be synchronic or diachronic, the synchronic assimilation is the active process in present and diachronic is the historical sound change. Assimilation is progressive and regressive as well. When the sound assimilates because of preceding sound its progressive assimilation but when sound changes because of following sound its regressive assimilation. (Crowley & Terry, 1997)

2. Epenthesis

The insertion of sound in the body of a word is called epenthesis

Elision

An **elision** is known as the omission of a sound for reasons . . . : 'cause (also spelled 'cos, cos, from *because*; fo'c'sle from *forecastle*; or ice tea from *iced tea* (in which -ed is pronounced /t/ but omitted because of the immediately following /t/)." (John Algeo, "Vocabulary," in *The Cambridge History of the English Language, Volume IV*, ed. by Suzanne Romaine. Cambridge Univ. Press, 1999)

Lengthening Rule

This rule is explained by Dona Jo Napoli (1985) that is usually accompanied by some loss within a word or some other sound is repeated twice. To understand this rule an example is given by the formation of /nɔ̃jjo/ from /nurjɔ̃han /.lengthening of /j/ is accompanied by both epenthesis and deletion rule. Some researchers have assigned it a particular name called germination.

Compression

Bukhari states that this is simply a shortening of a word (1985)

2.2 Names from other languages

Different names in Punjabi are derived from other languages for example from Persian and Arabic and from Hindi origin for example Arabic like / ə b d u l l ə h /, / ə b d u l m ə j i d /, / m u s t ə f ə / etc. then there are names from Persian origin like / j ə m f ə d /, / b ə b u r /, / m ə h r u x /, / g u l r u x / etc and there are names from Hindi origin like / ə m ə r /, / k ə v i t ə /, / s ə n g i t ə / etc.

2.3 Influence of English language

As English is used as a second language in the entire world. Similarly in Pakistan it has great influence on our people either by media or by official purposes. So it is observed that people often tend to form nicknames which is specially dominated phonetically or phonologically by English

2.4 Nicknames in Japanese

A dialect of Japanese rustic girls has a phonological rule for a subset of names and is explained below. These names are formed by taking original full names of girls and make them limited to the first two moras to form the nickname (Poser, 1990). The rule is that three entities can form a nickname: an open syllable with a long vowel, a consonant-vowel-nasal sequence, and two light syllables. These fall into a natural class as two moras, or a bimoraic foot. The table shows the process:

TABLE 1: Formation of nicknames in Japanese

Full Name	Circumscribe Two moras	Truncated nickname
Yuuko	[Yuuuu]koμ	o-Yuu
Ranko	[Raunμ]koμ	o-Ran
Yukiko	[Yuukiμ]koμ	o-Yuki

Trends for assigning names

There are different trends settle for assigning names in Punjabi .such as assigning a name consist of one word and having particular meaning. For example

bilal bɪlɪl
aisha aɪʃa

Connection between names and nicknames

Sometimes we have observed that there is no connection between the names and nicknames. There are 3 reason to understand this connection

- Nicknames can be given on physical appearance of the person.
- By just having resemblance of nicknames of some other person, in the name without knowing why the name was nicked originally
- Varies from person to person. Depends on the individual likes or dislikes. Whenever he cannot find out any suitable nick, he tries to map the nickname on to the one he likes the most. Hence no explanation can be given for his act,

3. Methodology

3.1 Data collection

For the analysis 40 names were picked from Punjabi language 20 of females and 20 of males .this list of names also includes some religious names like aisha, khatija, sakeena, Mustafa, usman, Mohammad etc people were asked to form nicknames on their own if they did not have directly friends or relatives with such names. Everyone was given the option that if he could not think of a name he can pass on to the next name.

Mostly the names selected were simple but different in length. these names are common in Pakistan.

3.1.1 Analysis

To find out structural change in the syllable of the name to the nickname firstly all the possible syllable structures that exist in Punjabi names and secondly all the possible structures of their nicknames were written attempt was made to formulate a rule that could do conversion from names to nicknames structures. The most commonly used syllable structures were taken out by finding out their percentage of occurrences. The starting point was to take into consideration the number of syllables (Napoli,1993) that a name has and then formulate a rule for that transition. The categorization was done on the basis of the structure of the first syllable of the name

3.2 Nicknaming of English names

In the second experiment the names used were from English but the subjects were asked to make their Urdu nicknames. Thus the structural transition could be figured out and analysed whether they follow some rule.

3.2.1 Analysis

In the experiment an attempt was made to find the consonants and vowels that were induced in the nickname and in the analysis it was tried to relate a relation between the names and the nicknames.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Syllable Structure Percentage of Occurrence

The vowel consonant behaviour of the nicknames showed that most frequently occurring vowel consonant structure found in the nicknames are CVCV and of CVC. The mentioned calculation of percentages are calculated with both male and females names. These statistical calculations shows that CV CV and CVC are observed in the nicknames

4.2 Consonant rule

If we make a nickname by choosing consonants from the name then the order of consonants observed in the nickname is same as in the name.

4.3 Vowel rule

1. If a name starts with a consonant and its nickname starts with any consonant of the original name then the first vowel in the nickname would be same as the first vowel after that consonant in the original name.

2. If a name starts with a vowel and its nickname template has a vowel in start then the nickname would start with the same vowel.

3. The last vowels can be anyone of the following.

1. a

2. i

3. u

5 Discussions

Mostly the names were taken was of single syllable.

5.1 Single Syllable name

Hence it can be seen that the rule formulated above for the 1-syllable names that are of the form CVC is verified from the data and can be seen below with the help of few examples from the English names.

TABLE 5.1 Examples of single syllable names from other languages.

Name	Nick	Trans
Tom	TOMY	Tomi
Raam	Rami	Rami

The vowel 'i' was appended at the end of the name.

5.2 Two Syllable name

The variability between nicknames was to such an extent that 10 different people gave almost five different nicknames for each of the name.

5.4.2.1 First Syllable having no code

As we concluded before that a name with the first syllable structure, can be converted to following three different syllable structures unpredictable. The data of the English name Ada is shown below.

TABLE 27: Examples of bi-syllabic names from other languages.

Name	Nick	Trans.	Prob.
Ada	Dama	d5a ma	.4
Ada	Aedi	æ d5i	.1
Ada	Aadam	a d5↔m	.2
Ada	Dunno	d5Yn no	.1
Ada	Aadi	a d5i	.2

And we can see that the nick rule was applicable but if we changed the consonants like in ‘Dunno’ and then there can be no rule applicable.

Fulfil Religious concept

The names that belongs to some pious personalities in Islamic religion are observed that they are not converted into nicknames . (Mustafa usman etc) 95% people left those space of nicknames blank.the rest 5 % people give like Ayesha to əɪʃɑ and əʃi

Sound (z)

It can be seen through data collection that sound z changes to (ḍʒ) in Punjabi language for example

Nazir	naḏʒir
Razia	raḏʒo
Nazia	naḏʒo

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Appendix

Males

Name	transcription	nickname
aslan	əɾslɑn	əɾsəl
wajid	vədʒɪd̪	vədʒi
mustafa	mʊstɑfɑ	
waqas	vɑqɑs	vɪqi
imran	ɑmɾɑn	mɑnɑ
arfan	əɾfɑn	fɑni
jawad	dʒɑwɑd̪	dʒedi
ashraf	əʃɾəf	ɑʃɾaf
rasheed	rɑʃɪd̪	ʃɪdɑ
nazir	nɑzɪɾ	nɑdʒɪɾ
kamran	kɑmɾɑn	kɑmi
usman	ʊsmɑn	
Mohammad	mohɑmɑd̪	
sohail	sɔhəl	səni
ashfaq	ɑʃfɑq	fɑqɑ
zahid	zɑhɪd̪	zædi
shahid	ʃɑhɪd̪	ʃɑhɑ
afzaal	əfzɑl	fɑzlu
bilal	bɪlɑl	bɑlɑ

Females

Name	transcription	nickname
sumaira	sumæɾɑ	summi
ishrat	ɪʃɾət	ɪʃɪ
shabana	ʃɑbɑnɑ	ʃɑbi
maria	mɑɾæ	mɑri
shabnam	ʃɑbɪnɑm	ʃɑbu
razia	rəzɪɑ	rɑdʒo
ayesha	əɪʃɑ	ɑʃɪ
hafza	hɑfzɑ	həfzo
shameem	ʃəmɪm	ʃɑmo
nabeela	nɑbɪlɑ	bɪlɑ
shagufta	ʃɔɡʊftɑ	ɡʊfto
zareena	zɾɪnɑ	dʒɑri
sidra	sɪdɾɑ	sɪd
uzma	uzmɑ	uzmi
nazia	nɑzɪɑ	nɑdʒo
sakeena	səkɪnɑ	səkɔ
khatija	χɑtɪdʒɑ	dɪdʒɑ
shaista	ʃæstɑ	ʃɪstɑ
kauser	kɔsər	kɑosər

shumaila	ʃomæla	ʃumi
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Auditory Discrimination Tests in Konkani – Performance of Children (6-9 Years) in Quiet and Noisy Conditions

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Abstract

Auditory discrimination skills are very important in the classroom. Deficits in auditory discrimination are also believed to be one of the causes of central auditory processing disorder (CAPD). Children with these disabilities often fall behind in school, particularly in reading and spelling, because they lack the phonological awareness needed to make relationships between sounds and the symbols that represent them. The need of the study is to develop a screening tool in Konkani language to perform a discrimination test in young children's to rule out their performance in repetition and same-different task. The study aimed to develop the normative for subject's performance in quiet and noisy conditions and to compare it with each other. 90 native Konkani speakers were taken as subjects from various rural schools. The 36 word stimulus was binaurally presented to the child through the headphone. The test conditions were repeated with response measure of repetition and same/different tasks. Result showed that, while comparing the performance in quiet and noisy conditions, the auditory discrimination ability was significantly better in quiet conditions compared to that of noisy condition. There are no differences in auditory discrimination ability with repetition and same/different tasks. Evaluating the materials created in this study with a group of hearing impaired, CAPD individuals is a possible topic for future research and would provide a valuable comparison to this current study.

Key words:

Introduction

The hearing mechanism is an amazingly intricate system. Sound is generated by a source that sends out air pressure waves. These pressure waves reach the eardrum, which vibrates at a rate and magnitude proportional to the nature of the waves. The tympanic membrane transforms this vibration into mechanical energy in the middle ear, which in turn

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converts it to hydraulic energy in the fluid of the inner ear. The hydraulic energy stimulates the sensory cells of the inner ear, which send electrical impulses to the auditory nerve, brainstem, and cortex (Stach, 2010).

Broadly stated, (Central) Auditory Processing [(C) AP] refers to the efficiency and effectiveness by which the central nervous system (CNS) utilizes auditory information. Narrowly defined, CAP refers to the perceptual processing of auditory information in the CNS and the neurobiologic activity that underlies the processing and gives rise to electrophysiologic auditory potentials (ASHA, 2005)

CAP includes the auditory mechanisms that underlie the following abilities or skills: sound localization and lateralization; auditory discrimination; auditory pattern recognition; temporal aspects of audition including temporal integration, temporal discrimination, temporal ordering, and temporal masking; auditory performance in competing acoustic signals and auditory performance with degraded acoustic signals (ASHA, 1996; Bellis, 2003; Chermak & Musiek, 1997).

CAPD is assessed through the use of special tests designed to assess the various auditory functions of the brain. There are numerous auditory tests to assess central auditory function. Types of measures those are available for central auditory assessment: Auditory discrimination tests, Auditory temporal processing and patterning tests, Dichotic speech tests, Monaural low-redundancy speech tests, Binaural interaction tests & Electrophysiological measures.

An auditory discrimination test (ADT) is a screening or diagnostic assessment tool designed to identify and diagnose deficits in auditory discrimination. ADT's measure a child's ability to detect subtle similarities and differences between speech sounds. Two of the most commonly used ADT's are Wepman's Auditory Discrimination Test (WADT) and the Goldman-Fristoe-Woodcock Test of Auditory Discrimination.

Review of Literature

Auditory discrimination skills are very important in the classroom. Deficits in auditory discrimination are also believed to be one of the causes of central auditory processing disorder (CAPD). Children with these disabilities often fall behind in school, particularly in reading and spelling, because they lack the phonological awareness needed to make relationships between sounds and the symbols that represent them.

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Jenny Mevis Dsouza and Rahul Aravind, Ph.D. Scholar

Auditory Discrimination Tests in Konkani – Performance of Children (6-9 Years) in Quiet and Noisy Conditions

Beving & Eblen (1973) found that youngest children scored better on the imitation task than on the “same-different” task, while the other groups did not differ in their ability to perform either task. Elliot, Connors, Kille, Levin, Ball and Katz (1979) found no age-related performance changes when the words were presented against a 12-talker babble or against filtered noise. In quiet, however, performance improved between the ages of 5 and 10 years. Nabelek and Robinson (1982) revealed that the scores declined with thresholds for all ages. The best scores were obtained by the young adults.

Neuman and Hochberg (1983) found that phoneme identification scores in reverberant conditions improved with increasing age and decreased with increased reverberation time. Dubno, Dirks and Morgan (1984) found a difference in performance in noise as a function of age were observed for both normal-hearing and hearing-impaired listeners despite equivalent performance in quiet. Nozza, Rossman, Bond and Miller (1990) found that infants are at a greater disadvantage than adults when processing speech in noise and that concern over the effects of a noisy environment on the acquisition of language is justified.

Fallon, Trehub and Schneider (2000) concluded that children required more favourable SNR's than adults to achieve comparable performance in low noise, an equivalent decrease in SNR had comparable consequences for all age groups. Klatte, Hellbruck, Seidel And Leistner (2000) concluded that children from reverberating classrooms performed lower in a phonological processing task, reported a higher burden of indoor noise in the classrooms than children from classrooms with good acoustics.

Abraham (2009) developed auditory discrimination test in Kannada and revealed that there was significant difference between the age groups and concluded that, as age increases the performance was better. Kallikadan (2009) developed auditory discrimination test in Tulu and found that as age increases there is an increase in performance of quiet and noisy conditions. Varghese (2009) developed auditory discrimination test in Malayalam and found that there was improved performance in quiet and noisy conditions as age increases.

Klatte, Lachmann, and Meis (2010) concluded that children were more impaired than adults by background sounds in both speech perception and listening comprehension. Neuman, Wroblewski, Hajicek and Rubinstein (2010) concluded that more reverberant the environment, the better the SNR required. Dadgar, Ghorbani, Bakhtyari, Khatoonabadi

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(2012) concluded that child's ability in discrimination of sounds was increased with age. Wróblewski, Lewis, Valente and Stelmachowicz (2012) concluded that speech recognition decreased in the reverberant conditions and with decreasing age.

Need of the Study

The review indicates that auditory discrimination test in various languages have been developed for use in western literature. Despite their usefulness in providing information of the child's language status particularly at central levels, such attempt in Indian languages such as in Konkani are yet to be found. There is a need to develop discrimination test in Konkani and compare the performances of typically developing children in quiet and noisy conditions. Thus the present study is a primary step in developing an auditory discrimination test in Konkani using minimal pair words and test performance in 6-9 year typically developing children.

Aim

1. To develop auditory discrimination test in Konkani using minimal pair words.
2. To evaluate the test in 6 – 9 year old typically developing children.
3. To compare the performance of subjects in quiet and noisy conditions in the age groups 6-7 years, 7-8 years, and 8-9 years.

Methodology

Subject and Stimulus

In order to develop an auditory discrimination test in Konkani, 90 native Konkani speakers were taken as subjects from various rural schools. Prior to study, all children were confirmed to have hearing within normal limits. Oral peripheral mechanism examination was carried out. Their academic performances were significantly good. The subjects were then divided into 3 groups based on their age, each group consisting of 30 participants. The group I contained subjects between ages 6-7, group II contained children with age ranged from 7-8 years, group III ranged from 8-9 years age.

To develop a word list, 50 minimal pairs which appeared quite frequently in daily Konkani usage were listed. These words were analysed by two Speech language pathologists. Finally most frequently used 36 Konkani minimal pair selected. The entire set of stimuli

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

Jenny Mevis Dsouza and Rahul Aravind, Ph.D. Scholar

Auditory Discrimination Tests in Konkani – Performance of Children (6-9 Years) in Quiet and Noisy Conditions

consisted of 36 word pairs out of which 30 word pairs were minimal pairs, which differed in a single feature and 6 word pairs were catch trials in which each word pair consisted of a single word repeated once. Recording was done in sound treated room using PRAAT software (version.5.1) by a native Konkani female speaker at a sampling rate of 44100 HZ. Later, using Audacity software, white noise was added to the entire stimulus duration with SNR kept at 0 dB SNR. The stimulus was binaurally presented to the child through the headphone. The test conditions were repeated with response measure of repetition and same/different tasks were conducted on successive days to avoid learning effect.

Scoring was done separately for quiet as well as in noisy conditions. The scores obtained for the repetition and same- different were calculated and entered separately in a response sheet. For each correct response the child was scored with zero. Statistical analysis was done using t-test and p-test. The tests were analysed to find out Mean, Standard deviation, t-value and p-value in all conditions.

Results and Discussion

The present study aimed to find the normative value for the performance of children on listening to minimal pairs in quiet and noisy condition for the age range 6 – 7, 7 – 8, and 8 – 9 years. Mean, standard deviation, t – value and p – value was obtained. The obtained data was statistically analysed and results are discussed below.

Age group		Mean	Std. Deviation	t value	p value
6 to 7	Quiet- R	35.53	.819	.433	.679
	Noise-R	35.10	1.494		
7 to 8	Quiet- R	36.00	.000	-	NS
	Noise-R	36.00	.000		
8 to 9	Quiet- R	36.00	.000	-	NS
	Noise-R	36.00	.000		

Table 1: Shows the mean difference, standard deviation, p – value, t – value and significance for the different conditions under various age groups for Repetition task.

Age group		Mean	Std. Deviation	t value	p value
6 to 7	Quiet-SD	33.63	1.938	.433	.898
	Noise-SD	33.20	2.310		
7 to 8	Quiet-SD	36.00	.000	-	NS
	Noise-SD	36.00	.000		
8 to 9	Quiet-SD	36.00	.000	-	NS
	Noise-SD	36.00	.000		

Table 2: Shows the mean difference, standard deviation, p – value, t – value and significance for the different conditions under various age groups for Same-different task.

Under Quiet and Noisy Conditions (Repetition Tasks)

The first group 6-7 years showed a mean of 35.53 in quiet condition and 35.10 in noisy condition whereas 7-8 years group showed a mean of 36.0 and 36.0 respectively. In 8-9 years group, the mean of 36.0 were seen in quiet condition and 36.0 in noisy condition. Results indicated no significant difference between quiet repetition and noisy repetition tasks.

Under Quiet and Noisy Conditions (Same/Different Tasks)

The first group 6-7 years showed a mean of 33.63 in quiet condition and 33.20 in noisy condition whereas 7-8 years group showed a mean of 36.0 and 36.0 respectively. In 8-9 years group, the mean of 36.0 were seen in quiet condition and 36.0 in noisy condition. Result suggestive of no significant difference between quiet same/different and noisy same/different tasks.

Age group	Mean	Standard deviation	ANOVA F	P value
Quiet - R	6 to 7	35.53	9.733	.000
	7 to 8	36.00		
	8 to 9	36.00		
Noise - R	6 to 7	35.10	10.892	.000
	7 to 8	36.00		
	8 to 9	36.00		
Quiet – SD	6 to 7	33.63	44.062	.000
	7 to 8	36.00		
	8 to 9	36.00		
Noise – SD	6 to 7	33.20	44.062	.000
	7 to 8	36.00		
	8 to 9	36.00		

Table 3: Showing the mean, standard deviation, p value, ANOVA F and significance for repetition and same-different tasks under different age groups.

When the overall scores were compared of the subjects across the 3 age groups it was seen that there was an age related change in the performance of the subjects, with the older age group subjects performing better than the other age groups. These changes in performance were seen in both the quiet and noisy conditions, for both the repetition as well as the same- different task. From the above table it clearly shows that all 4 conditions (Quiet-R, Quiet -D, Noise-R, Noise- D) showed highly significant difference ($p = .000$) among three age groups.

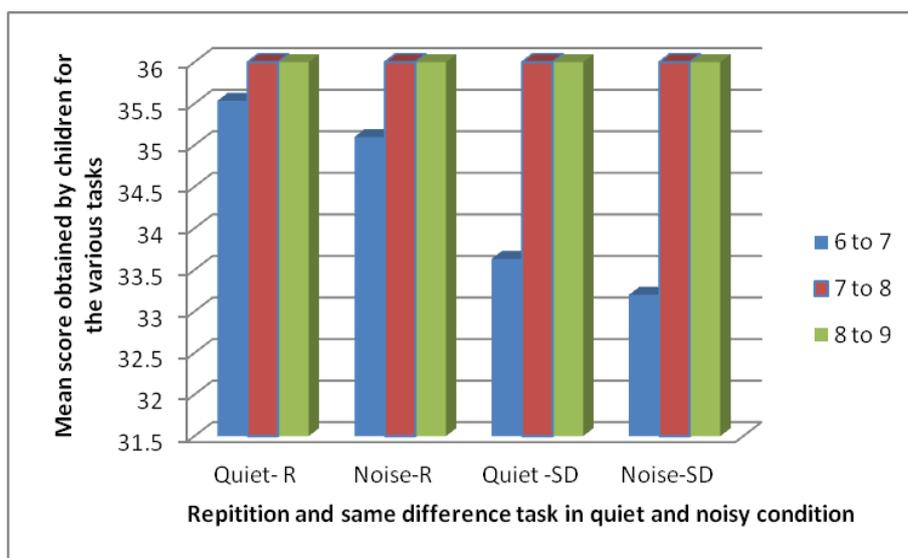


Figure 1: Represents and compares the scores obtained by each group for specific task and conditions.

From figure 1, it is evident that the mean scores for the 8-9 years old group of children were better than the scores of children of 6-7 years, also the mean scores of 7-8 years group were better than those of the 6-7 years old children, in both quiet and noise condition for both type of tasks.

Discussion

The present study investigated the ability of 6-9 years old children to discriminate minimal pairs in quiet as well as in noisy condition. The children were asked to respond to the minimal pairs by repetition and by indicating same/ different. In 6-7 age groups, the auditory discrimination ability was significantly better in quiet condition compared to that of

noisy, but other 2 age groups (7-8 & 8-9 years) showed no significant difference in both tasks.

While comparing the response task, it is noted that the scores obtained for the same/different task is poorer than repetition task in group I age group, no significant difference seen in other two groups. But statistical analysis couldn't identify any significant differences between the response tasks. This indicate that both the task, i.e. repetition as well as indicating same/different can be used to identify the auditory discrimination ability.

The present study's results indicate that on first trial of testing, the subjects found it difficult to discriminate the words in noisy condition. These results in general indicate usefulness of same/different task as a better tool in auditory discrimination tests. The results of the present study and the normative can help researchers to develop further research. The study shows an increase in auditory discrimination scores with age. The performance of children in both the tasks is becoming better in both quiet as well as in noisy conditions.

Summary and Conclusion

Auditory discrimination refers to the ability to differentiate behaviourally between auditory stimuli of many types. It is the ability to identify and distinguish between different sounds. Auditory discrimination test evaluates the auditory discrimination ability of the person. The auditory discrimination can be affected by the variables like age, context and conditions. Most of the auditory discrimination test materials have been developed for use with individuals who speak American English. However, there remain many languages without developed materials for speech audiometry. Hence, the present study describe and record a set of high quality digital speech materials that can be used to evaluate the auditory discrimination abilities of individual whose native language is Konkani. The study aimed to develop the normative for subject's performance in quiet and noisy conditions and to compare it with each other.

While comparing the performance in quiet and noisy conditions it is observed that, the auditory discrimination ability was significantly better in quiet conditions compared to that of noisy condition. Although significant improvement in the auditory discrimination ability was observed across the age, a slight increase in score can be noted. This result shows that the auditory discrimination ability increases with age in children. There are no differences in auditory discrimination ability with repetition and same/different tasks. But a slightly poorer performance is observed while using same/different task in 6-7 years age group.

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Jenny Mevis Dsouza and Rahul Aravind, Ph.D. Scholar

Auditory Discrimination Tests in Konkani – Performance of Children (6-9 Years) in Quiet and Noisy Conditions

The minimal pairs used in the present study can be used to test the auditory discrimination ability in children with mother tongue Konkani. We can effectively screen out children who are at risk for speech discrimination difficulties due to learning disability, auditory processing disorder, hearing losses etc.

Directions for Future Research

Evaluating the materials created in this study with a group of hearing impaired, CAPD individuals is a possible topic for future research and would provide a valuable comparison to this current study. Understanding how hearing impaired, CAPD populations perform on auditory discrimination tests is imperative diagnosis and treatment. The test-retest reliability of the word lists developed in this study is another possible area of investigation. Test items in this were administered to each subject only once. Information on consistency in performance of the same subject across a second administration can be further taken up.

Limitation of the Study

The present study only used 30 subjects due to time constraints, and hence the data obtained in this study can be administered in a higher number of subjects for validation. While words used in this study are the common words used in the Konkani language in Dakshina Kannada District, it is necessary to develop minimal pair list representing the other dialects in Konkani language. The number of subjects in each group can be increased.

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Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

Jenny Mevis Dsouza and Rahul Aravind, Ph.D. Scholar

Auditory Discrimination Tests in Konkani – Performance of Children (6-9 Years) in Quiet and Noisy Conditions

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Appendix

Test material/ word list

ಮೀಟ್ _ ಮೂಟ್	ಧಂಪ್ _ ಧುಂಪ್	ಕೊಂಬೋ _ ಕಾಂಬೋ	ಧೀಸ್ _ ತೀಸ್
ಪಿಡೋ _ ಪಾಡೋ	ಮೂಸ್ _ ಮಾಸ್	ವಾಟ್ _ ವಾಡ್	ತೀಕ್ _ ತೀಕ್
ಕಾಂಟ್ _ ಗಾಂಟ್	ಹಾತ್ _ ಹಾತ್	ಹಟ್ _ ಹಡ್	ಕಡಿ _ ಕಡಿ
ಸರ್ _ ಸಲ್	ಮೂಸ್ _ ಮೀಸ್	ಧೂಕ್ _ ಧೀಕ್	ಬೊಂವ್ _ ಮೊಂವ್
ತಾನ್ _ ಧಾನ್	ಮೀಟ್ _ ಪೀಟ್	ಮಾಡ್ _ ಮೋಡ್	ಸೋರ್ _ ಸುರ್
ಊಟ್ _ ಊಡ್	ಕೂಡ್ _ ಕೀಡ್	ಮೇಜ್ _ ಪೇಜ್	ತಾನ್ _ ತಾನ್
ಮೀಟ್ _ ಮೀಟ್	ಗೀಟ್ _ ಗೂಟ್	ರಾಕ್ _ ರಾಗ್	ಗೊಂವ್ _ ಗಾಂವ್
ಥೈಯ್ _ ಥೈಯ್	ಗುಡ್ _ ಗೂಡ್	ಊಟ್ _ ಊಟ್	ಮಾಯಿ _ ಮುಯಿ
ಸರ್ _ ಸರ್	ಮಾರ್ _ ಮೋರ್	ರಾನ್ _ ಲಾನ್	ಮಾಸ್ _ ಮೀಸ್

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Parents, Teachers and Peers Effects on College Students' Motivational Intensity to Learn English

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Abstract

The significant roles of human motivational factors such as parents, peers and teachers in influencing students to learn English have generated so much attention among scholars over the years. However, very few empirical research have been carried out to determine the effect of each motivational component on students' motivational intensity which is a parameter to measure the level of effort students' exert on English language learning. The aim of this paper is to investigate the level of motivation and support students' receive from each human factor and how each of the factors affects students' motivational intensity. The data obtained through survey questionnaire administered to 46 students comprises of both second year pre-university and first year degree students showed that teachers' factor is perceived to be the most influential component while the most highly correlative human factor with students' motivational intensity is parents. This suggests that students' effort towards learning of English is as a result of parental encouragement even though teacher is perceived to play the most significant role in motivating students to learn English.

Keywords: Parents, Peers, Teachers, Motivation, English, India

Introduction

In second language learning research, motivation has been identified as one of the most important predictor of students' success in learning any target language (Gorges, Kandler, & Bohner, 2012; Yu & Shen, 2012). This has led to plethora studies investigating different socio-cultural factors influencing the generation, sustenance and promotion of learner's motivation(Heinzmann, 2013; Williams & Burden, 2004). However, few empirical studies have been conducted to ascertain the role of human factors such as parents, teachers and peers in

students' motivation to learn second or foreign language. This is necessary especially in India where several studies on this discourse have attributed students' low proficiency and performance in English to lack of motivation (Pardeep Kumar, 2014; Rao, 2014). Therefore, this study is mainly concerned with the investigation of the extent parents, teachers and peers motivation and encouragement influence students' to learn English and how such motivation affects their motivational intensity.

Literature Review

One of the most significant factors that determine the success rate of a second and foreign language learner is motivation. According to (Dörnyei, 1998), motivation is a catalyst needed to initiate second language learning process and later act as the driving force that sustain the process. However, motivation as a concept and factor is a multifaceted constructs which is cognitive, connative and affective in nature (Gardner, 1985; Williams & Burden, 2004). All these constructs have been used to explore and develop second language motivation research in the past two decades which consecutively define different perspective views of motivation in language learning. According to Robert Gardner who is one of the pioneer of research in second language learning motivation, he described motivation as a combination of three component which includes effort or motivational intensity, desire to achieve the goal of learning the language and favorable attitude towards learning the language (Gardner, 1985). Among all these three components, motivational intensity as a component has been stressed extensively in the body of literature because effort as a common measure of motivation has been identified as the pivotal needed by any L2 learner to succeed in learning the target language successfully (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002).

Many scholarly research works have also examined the effect of social demographic factor variables on learner's language motivation. According to (Dörnyei, 1994), the development of motivational psychology originates from numerous studies conducted in socio-cultural context rather than Self concept paradigm. Since the emergence of sociocultural theory propounded by Vygotsky, findings on the effect of Socio-cultural factors such as age, gender, culture amongst other on students' motivation have been widely reported in the field of second

language learning research (Donato, 1994; Lantolf & Pavlenko, 1995). Considering the fact that socio-cultural factors of language learning are set of variable factors capable of influencing student language learning process and ability, hence, languages in every speech community are held in either high or low prestige because of economic, political or cultural values associated with them (Stern, 1983, p. 273). Therefore, learners are compelled to enter into L2 learning process with positive or negative attitude derived from the society which in turn affect their motivation to learn the target language (Chambers, 1999, p. 44).The discourse of the effect of socio-cultural factor on English language learning has also generated so much attention in India because of the prestigious and official status English holds in the country (Agarwal & Thakur, 2014; Sridhar, 1996).This is the main reason English language has been made a compulsory subject offered at every level of the country's educational system .However, learning and teaching of the language is accompany with so much challenges such as overcrowded classrooms, lack of teaching materials, de-motivated teachers amongst others (Anjini, 2012; Nabanita, 2011). However, in order to surmount these challenges, educators and scholars have been investigating and suggesting various ways to improve students' English language learning ability of which low motivation to learn English among students has been identified in some quarters as a major impediment to learners' high English achievement. Lukmani (1972) established that among group of Marathi speaking students learning English as a second language in India, those with instrumental orientations scored higher in English proficiency test.

Regarding the difference in learning motivation with respect to gender, Narayanan et al. (2007) finding shows that male students have less motivation to learn English language than their female counterpart which in turn cause their low English proficiency. Having established the connection between motivation and students' English performance, Scholars shifted their focus on the extent external factor such as socio-cultural factors affect students motivation which is expected to improve their learner's English proficiency. Among the socio-cultural factors are human factors such as parents, teachers and peers which have been found to influence students' academic motivation (Juvonen & Wentzel, 1996; Wang & Eccles, 2012).However, very limited studies have investigated the role play by parents, teachers and peers in motivating students to

learn English. The present study will be reviewing literature on the singly effect of parents, teachers and peers on students' motivation to learn English in Indian context.

Parents tend to strongly influence their children to learn English by holding high expectation for their learning, believing in their competence to learn, exposing them to new experience of learning and giving them moral support (Gottfried, 1994). However, this level of influence have been based on Parents' socio-economic status(SES). That is, there is a strong relationship between parents' level of education, their financial status and occupation and their students' performance in English language (Carhill, Suárez-Orozco, & Páez, 2008). They argue that students whose parents have low SES tend to perform poorly in English language learning and vice versa.

From parents' level of education standpoint, parents educational background can also influence students' performance in English because parents who have benefited from the value and advantage of being able to communicate in English would want exactly the same for their children. But from psychological perspective, highly educated parents tend to act as a role model to their children. This has a positive impact on students' English learning performance. for example, there is a positive correlation between number of students that did not complete university education and their parents who did not finish their university education likewise (Nannyonjo, 2007). Studies have also identified the role each parents play in motivating their children. (Okumu, Nakajjo, & Isoke, 2008) findings revealed that educated mothers are more effective in monitoring and supervising children academic progress while fathers are better in solving children academic problems. However, in as much as parents levels of education influence students academic performance, there is still need to investigate exceptional cases of students whose uneducated parents still manage to motivate them and how such motivation is being deployed.

Parent's financial status has been cited as another important factor that influence students English language achievement (Salameh, 2012, Carhill, Suárez-Orozco, & Páez, 2008). For instance, students who do not have responsibility towards income, job and economic factor have

been found to do well in English language education (Steven, 1999). Regarding parents commitment and responsibility towards financing of their children English language education, it is possible that many parents will not be able to sponsor or fund their child's education in private medium of instruction schools or colleges which is considered to offer a better English language teaching subject contrary to what is obtainable in regional medium of instruction schools or colleges because they provide a better physical infrastructure necessary for learning than regional medium schools (Gouda & Das, 2013)

Parents' occupation also plays a key role in learner's performance in English language. For instance, highly professional sound parents have been found to be in best position to create enabling environment for children to learn English at home. (Sandefur, Meier, & Hernandez, 1999). Thus, since English is the language of administration and business transaction in India and most professions require the mastery and usage of English, then parents who holds such a highly skilled professions have to use English in their day to day operation which consequently aids the creating of suitable environment for children to speak and learn English.

Even though there is a consensus among scholars regarding the positive effect of parents with high SES on students' language learning achievement (Salameh, 2012, Carhill, Suárez-Orozco, & Páez, 2008). However, the level of parents' involvement on children education varies across different level of education such as high school and college. Since most of the students are below the age of 18 in high school, some countries such as United State considered them as minors, therefore, teachers have a right to disclose students' information regarding their academic performance to their parents whereas information about college students' performance is confidential and can only be revealed to the concerned students because college students are considered to be self regulated English language learners which is associated to intrinsic motivation (Pintrich & Groot, 1990). This gives rise to low level of co-operation and partnership between college students' parents and teacher which reduce parents level of interest in their children English language education.

When students perceived that they are emotionally supported by their English teachers, their motivation to succeed in learning English successfully is enhanced (Wentzel, 1994).

Teacher can play a critical role in motivating students in language learning. In fact, a very good teacher consider students' motivation as part of his or her duty in English language teaching classroom (Winke, 2005).Furthermore, learner will not be positively and actively engaged in learning without receiving considerable amount of support from teacher (Ramage, 1990). This critical role has led to several propositions by many educators on different kind of strategies needed to motivate students. (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998) proposed what they called the Ten Commandments for teachers on how to motivate students to master English. It focuses on several ways of creating basic motivational condition such as maintaining of good relationship with the student, creating and maintaining a supportive atmosphere in the classroom and adopting a group norm to promote a cohesive learner's group. Another study suggested twelve ways for teacher on how to motivate students. Some of these suggestions deal with promotion of language related values and attitude and creating of realistic learner's belief (Williams & Burden, 2004). Since the proposition of these commandment and suggestions, scholars have been exploring and testing the effectiveness of some these motivational strategies on learning outcome. Investigation of students' perception on teachers' motivational strategy and vice versa have been research extensively. For example in Taiwan, some of the motivational strategies perceived to be effective by teachers in Hungary are considered to be ineffective by Taiwanese teachers (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007).

In another study to test the effectiveness of co-operation and influence as a motivational strategy on students' motivation shows that co-operation is more effective than influence (Brok, Levy, Brekelmans, & Wubbels, 2005). Considering that some of these motivational strategies yield positive result while some do not, it is still the duty of English teacher to adopt a suitable motivational strategy to encourage students to learn English. However, it is important to consider other various factors that might reduce the effectiveness of teachers' motivational strategies in class. For example, it could be difficult to motivate students in an overcrowded classroom because a good teacher-student relationship which is a rapport needed for student impetus to learn English can be disrupted. Furthermore, the task of a teacher to motivate college students could be difficult because of the ambiguity associated with the role of being a teacher or lecturer.

Teachers are mostly found in high school while lecturers are college or university faculty. Being a teacher or a lecturer is a matter of choice for an individual and the teaching philosophy of a school or college. It is easier as a teacher to implement motivational strategy than lecturer because lecturing involves delivering of instructional material through talk, acts, persuades, cajoles without questioning the students understanding on the delivered subject while a teacher is expected to be a facilitator, planner, assessor, information provider, role model and resource developer (Waugh & Waugh, 1999). Even though both teacher and lecturer can choose to adopt a standard teaching practice, but their choice are all being influenced by different kind of motivation. As reported by Menyhart (2008), teachers are highly influenced by intrinsic motivation while lecturer is motivated extrinsically. In a nut shell, all these issues will eventually influence the students' motivation at both high school and university level.

Peer support is also considered to be very important factor in facilitating language learning in other peers. While teachers motivational support for students stem from authoritative relationship, peer support can be considered to be reciprocity because of equality status sharing (Wentzel, 1994). This is essential for learners because of considerable amount of time they spend on learning the language together, Apart from peers rendering of English teaching support for each other, a student can also serve as a role model which can enhance other students' motivation towards English language learning (Tim Murphey, 1998). This concept of peer assisted learning is defined as the acquisition of knowledge and skills through act of helping and supporting among equal status or matched companions (Topping & Ehly, 1998). Several studies have proven the effectiveness of using peers rather than teachers to facilitate language learning (Fitz-Gibbon & Reay, 1982). The major argument is that when peer instruct formality and boundary associated with teachers' instruction is reduced. In sum, peers and classmates play a huge role in motivating one another. More studies on to what extent peer can render support to other peer regarding practicing of spoken English outside classroom worth investigating.

Several studies have investigated the role of peers among other human motivational component in helping other peers to learn English. For instance, peers motivational factor have been identified as the most influential human factor in Hong Kong schools (Wong, 2007). In

another study conducted among students in Philippines schools, enhancement of student motivation to learn English was attributed to parental encouragement(Paran & Tibli, 2009).

Considering Newton's third law of motion which states that "for every action there is equal and opposite reaction" ,it can be implied that every English learning motivation received by students from either parents, peers or teachers is equal to the degree of effort such students exerted towards the task of English learning. Thus, it is very important to investigate how students respond to human factor motivation through effort. Since, there are limited studies on the level of influence of parents, teachers and peer on students' motivation to learn English in Indian colleges and how such each influential factor correlate with students' motivational intensity. This study will shed more light on the relationship between students' effort to learn English and the received motivation from parents, teachers and peers.

Objective

The purpose of this present study was to investigate teachers, parents and peers motivational factor on students' motivation to learn English and how each motivational component correlate with the students' motivational intensity. The questions underlying this research were

1. Which of these human factors influence the students most?
2. Is there a correlation and significant impact between human motivational factor and the students' effort to learn English?

Methodology

Material and Methods

Subjects of the Study

Indian pattern of education follows what is commonly called "10 +2 +3".that is, every students received 10 years of primary education, followed by 2 years of pre-university education, afterward spend 3 to 4 years in a graduation program. The main subject of this study comprises of equal composition of 46 college students from second year of pre-university class in Chandrakanth Patil P.U College and 1st year Bachelor Degree College in N. V College in the city of Kalaburagi. The choice of combining these two groups is to determine the role of parents,

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

Lasekan Olusiji, PGD, M.A., Ph.D. Candidate

68

Parents, Teachers and Peers Effects on College Students' Motivational Intensity to Learn English

teachers and peers in motivating the students at college level. The respondents' age range falls within 16 and 19. Both groups of students are in science stream of English medium of instruction of their respective colleges. In other words, in addition to learning of Functional English as a course, all other courses such as the sciences are also being taught in English.

Instrumentation

The current investigation involved administering of structured questionnaire which was adapted from sub-motivational component of Dornyei (2001). It is an extended framework of (Gardner & Lambert, 1972) questionnaire in motivational variable in second language acquisition. It was designed to elicit information from the respondents. The first part of the questionnaire deals with respondents' demographic profile such as age, gender and medium of instruction background. The second part consists of 12 closed questions that focus on participants' perception of parents, teachers and peers influence to learn English and respondents view about their own motivational intensity towards English. Five-point Likert scale was adopted for respondents to indicate their responses ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

Data Gathering and Analytical Procedures

In order to gather the data, permission of the head of the two schools were first sought. The respondents were encouraged to be cooperative and sincere in providing information for this research work by ensuring confidentiality. The questionnaire was retrieved right after the respondents had completely answered the items. The responses in the questionnaires were classified, tallied and tabulated. A reliability test was first run on the questionnaire to verify if there was an internal consistency for all the 22 items set. The results of the computations were carefully analyzed and interpreted through the use of appropriate statistical method such as SPSS software. The data use to determine the aforementioned motivational factor were interpreted by calculating the weighted mean of each human factor while Pearson product moment correlation were applied to find the relationship between each factor and students' motivational intensity.

Results

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

Lasekan Olusiji, PGD, M.A., Ph.D. Candidate

69

Parents, Teachers and Peers Effects on College Students' Motivational Intensity to Learn English

This present study is aimed to determine and rank the level of motivational effect of parents, teachers and peers on students. The result of internal consistency (Cronbach alphas) for the entire motivational component was high with an alpha value of 0.741.

Table 1 reveals parental motivational support for students' English language learning. The component record the second highest mean of 3.4. Majority of the respondents agree that parents encourage them to learn English while expectation of parents towards students English motivation receives the least mean value.

Table 1

Summary Statistics of Students, Parent-Specific Motivation

Parental Factor items	W.M	S.D
1. My parents encourage me to study English	3.80	1.108
2. My parents show considerable interest in my English lesson	3.26	1.163
3. My parents encourage English at home	3.33	1.212
4. I am learning English in other to meet my parents high expectation	3.20	1.327
Composite mean	3.40	1.20

Source: Compiled data

As detailed in Table 2, the mean value of perceived English teachers motivation by students reveal that teachers encourage them to learn English and have high expectation regarding their performances(item 1 and 3). However, very few participants agree that teachers do not insist on students using English in the class.

Table 2

Summary Statistics of Students, Teacher-Specific Motivation

Teacher Factor items	WM	SD
1. My English teacher motivates and encourages me to learn English	4.33	.89
2. My English teacher reward me whenever I do well in English class	4.02	1.0
3. My English teacher has high expectation regarding my performance in English	4.33	.67
4. My English Teacher insists I speak in English in class	3.24	1.1

Composite mean	3.98	.93
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Source: Compiled data

Table 3 displays peers encouragement and support to learn English, The average mean value recorded is 3.3, item 2 elicits the strongest agreement which shows that participants received encouragement from the peers while the least mean recorded is 3.04.very few participants agree that they are encouraged by their classmate to speak in English.

Table 3

Summary Statistics of Students: Peer-Specific Motivation

Peers Factor items	WM	SD
1.My classmates encourage me to speak in English	3.04	1.010
2.My classmates help me to solve the problem whenever I have problem with my assignment or class work	3.52	1.150
3.If I speak in English to my classmates, most of them respond to me in Kannada	3.39	1.220
4.Brilliant English students in my class influence me to work harder	3.37	1.306
Composite mean	3.33	1.172

Source: Compiled data

Overall, base on the number of mean recorded among each motivational support group, teachers' support and encouragement is perceived to be the most significant factor while peers are perceived to be the least motivational component.

Table 4 illustrates the measured mean value of the students' motivational intensity. As it can be observed in item 4 and 5,most of the students believe that they pay so much attention during English classes (3.85) and they are working so hard to improve their English language competency (3,78). However, small fraction of the participants (3.20) concur that they don't spend enough time studying English language.

Table 4***Summary Statistics of Students Motivational Intensity***

Motivational intensity Factor items	WM	SD
1. I spend a lot of time studying English.	3.20	1.108
2. I study English on my own beyond my English coursework.	3.72	.958
3. Compared to other students, I think I study English relatively hard.	3.22	1.153
4. I work hard to improve my English ability.	3.78	1.114
5. During my English classes I am absorbed in what is taught and concentrate on my studies.	3.85	.842
6. I study hard for English exams	3.61	1.437
Composite mean	3.56	1.102

Source: Compiled data

Table 5 shows the degree correlation between each human motivational component and students' motivational intensity. Since all the significant value of each motivational component is less than the P value of 0.05 and all the correlation coefficient (r) is between -1 and +1. Then, all the motivational factors is considered to have a positive correlation with the students' motivational intensity. The Pearson coefficient of correlation(r) between each human motivational component and student motivational intensity is .408, .631 and .403 for teachers', parental and peer group factor respectively. Thus, every degree of motivation students received from their parents positively influenced students' effort to learn English by 63% while the other motivational factors influence on students' effort stands at 40% each. This shows parental encouragement is strongly correlated with student motivational intensity while others are moderately correlated.

Table 5***Summary Statistics of the correlation between each human motivational component and students' motivational Intensity***

	Teacher factor impact	Parental factor impact	Peer group factor impact
Student motivational Intensity	r = .408**	r = .631**	r = .403**
	Sig= .005	Sig. = .000	Sig. = .006
	N = 46	N = 46	N = 46

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

N is the sample of this study

“r” indicates Pearsons’ correlation value.

Discussion

Previous studies have shown the significant role that teachers, peers and parents play in influencing students to learn English (Paran & Tibli, 2009; Wong, 2007). The purpose of this study is to determine the level of support and encouragement rendered by each group to students’ English motivation and also make an attempt to investigate the level of relationship between each motivational group factor and student motivational intensity. The findings of this paper revealed that teachers’ factor is the most influential compared to parents and peers factor. This is in contrast with a similar study conducted by Wong (2007) in Hong Kong context which reported that peers play the highest motivational supportive role in students’ English language learning while parental role is recorded to play the least role (Wong, 2007). Majority of the respondents claimed that their teacher motivates them and have high expectation regarding their English performance despite the fact that they hardly reward them for achieving their goals. The high level of motivation recorded among teachers is due to the fact that participants selected for this study are from private English medium colleges. Teachers in this medium of instruction have been found to be more motivated than their counterpart in public colleges (Gouda & Das, 2013). Several studies have also shown that students’ motivation is a reflection of teachers’ motivation (Skinner & Belmont, 1993). For example, in a study conducted to understand teachers’ motivation in ten public and private schools of Tonk District of Rajasthan in India, unlike public school teachers, teachers in private schools are described as the one who communicate with the children, draw energy from their interaction with the children, concerned about what and how much they have learnt (Ramachandran, Pal, Jain, Shekar, & Sharma, 2005). This explains the main reason for the huge surge in the number of students enrolling in private English medium college at the expense of public vernacular colleges across the country over the years even though public colleges are considered to be more affordable.

Students' perception regarding non-practicing of positive reinforcement by their teachers in colleges is because students' are considered to be self regulated in their English language learning at college level. Teachers do not need to reward students as a form of motivation because students are instrumentally motivated to learn English considering that they are matured enough to understand the importance of English language learning for their future. Most of them are motivated to study English as a subject because they have to meet university requirement. For instance, second pre-university students need to perform very well in the national board exams such as CBSE or State board exam which include English examination .The overall score in either of this examinations determine the quality of university or college they got admitted to. Another good explanation to support non practicing of reward system to motivate college students' is that lecturing as a form of instruction are bound to be the norm at college level, Therefore, lecturers are not incline to the idea of rewarding students. Whereas a teacher at instructing in high school might resort to positive reinforcement in other to motivate students who needs form of external and internal motivation to learn English

As per the role of parents which is ranked second in the considered three motivational components, majority of the respondents agreed that parents encourage them in learning English. However, few believe that their learning does not stem from meeting their parents expectation. This corroborates with Grolnick (2009) findings which showed that parents can enhance students feelings of competence even if they are not competent enough to assist students in the teaching of English language at home. However, in the findings of this present study, parents are not encouraging spoken English at home because of its insignificant value to pre-university degree students who are learning English as a subject in other to pass the State or National board exam in which spoken English as a task is not being assess. Additionally, comparing parents' SES such as skills, level of education and financial status in metropolitan cities to Kalaburagi which is the site where the data for this study was collected. It can be argued that being a semi-urban area, SES of most of the parents in Kalaburagi is lower compared to the metropolitan cities. This result affects the level of parental support that is being offered to the students especially in the creating of enabling environment for English language usage.

Most of the respondents acknowledged that they get massive support to solve problems related to their class work and assignment from their peers. This is in line with several peer assisted learning studies on the significant role of peers and classmates in language learning. This positive role can be attributed to the fact that English language learning is a collaborative exercise which requires peers or classmates offering encouragement and companion support for each other. Bulks of the respondents agreed that brilliant English students in their class serve as motivator for them to learn English. This is in consistent with previous studies on peer serving as a role model to others (T Murphey & Arao, 2001). However, in the area of communicating in English, respondents disagreed with the notion that they receive support from their peers .In other words, the dominance language among peers to peers or classmate is Mother tongue even though they are studying in English medium college. This implies that most of these schools are encouraging rote learning of English as a subject rather than the usage of the language. Since those that use the language frequently have higher English proficiency, Then, it is very important promote communicative language teaching in classroom and spoken English within the school as an effective approach to enhance the usage of the language which will consequently improve students' English proficiency.

Majority of the students also concurred that teachers are not encouraging spoken English in class. Several factors might be responsible for this .It is either the teachers are not competent in the usage of the language or it is a strategy deploys in order to accommodate different groups of student whose level of proficiency is unequal to others in English class

Measuring student motivational intensity shed light on the level of effort students are expending into learning of English. The result of this study demonstrated that students pay so much attention during English class and they believed that they are working hard to improve their English proficiency even though they spend little time in learning the language. This suggests that English is taught as a subject and the students will have to spend quality time to attend to other subjects being taught in their colleges.

Having understand the level of motivational influence received from parents, peers and teachers, There is need to understand how students responds to such influence through effort and

persistence. This study established the strong relationship between motivational intensity and each human motivational component. Out of the three motivational components, parental factor is recorded to have the highest of level of correlation with motivational intensity. This shows that effort exerted by the students towards learning of English is mostly influenced by parents even though teachers' influence is perceived to be the most influential factor. Contrary to less parental involvement in students' English education at secondary school level in Hong Kong (Wong, 2007). This study established that parents play a significant role in motivating student to learn English. Some of these supports are rendered by taking interest in students' English performance, encouraging students to learn English and provide the enabling environment for student to learn English.

Conclusion

This study examines the level of influence parents, peers and teachers have on students' motivation to learn English. The result shows that all the motivational components play a significant role in motivating students to learn English. Teachers' role was discovered to be the most significant among other factors while peers factor is the least motivational component. On the other hand, parental encouragement is attributed as the cause of effort exerted by the students towards learning of English. This paper also demonstrates a total dependence on rote learning of English which does not encourage spoken English among the students. Therefore, the only pedagogical solutions that can be suggested in this study is the promotion of communicative language teaching and creating of enabling environment for the usage of the language within and outside the classrooms.

Furthermore, most notably, this is the first study to my knowledge to investigate the perception of students on parents, peers and teachers motivation with respect to students' motivational intensity .Even though, this paper provides compelling evidence on the significance role of parents, peers and teaches .However, there is limitation that worth noting, for instance, there is need to compare high school and college students perception of human factor motivation in order to ascertain the difference in level of human influence on students' motivation between the two levels of educational system. Future work should therefore fill this research gap.

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A Study of the Use of Eye Contact in Teaching Learning Process at Secondary Level in District Peshawar

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Abstract

The research was descriptive. The objectives of the study were to explore the perception to teachers, students, regarding non-verbal communication as an important teaching learning tool, also to analyze the non-verbal communication use in English language teaching learning process. Research questionnaire were: 1. Why teachers use non-verbal communication in the English language classroom? 2. Does non-verbal communication influence English language learning at Middle level? 3. Is non-verbal communication in English language learning important? 4. What type of non-verbal communications are most frequently used by English language teachers in the classroom? Major findings were included that non-verbal communication was not only supportive and helpful for the students but also for the teachers. The researcher made the following recommendations. 1. Non-verbal correspondence is an expertise, which ought to be used by instructors at all levels of training. 2. Educators at all levels ought to be given an introduction in non-verbal correspondence and the abilities in this way gained ought to be used in their instructing strategies. The major findings were included that the use of eye contact is helpful in motivating the learners and also important for making teaching learning process effective. The study recommended that training about the use of eye contact should be given to teachers and its importance maybe highlighted in the future curriculum.

Key Words: Non-Verbal Communication, Eye Contact, Secondary Level, Teaching Learning Process.

Introduction

As educators we often look for confirmation that our students are grasping the concepts under discussion. This is frequently referred to metaphorically as a light bulb in or over a student's head. However, by nature, not all individuals are animated in a way that allows educators to identify their nonverbal communication. The way teachers communicate to students is one of the many factors that help determine effective teaching and how this is perceived by students might affect their affective and cognitive learning and their feelings throughout the learning process. Verbal and nonverbal immediate behaviors on the part of the teacher enhance positive and effective instructional interaction, which has direct effects on the students' attitudes towards the teacher and the course and the students' willingness to learn. The way in which the teacher allocates time to spend on academic content affects student achievement. Good classroom management is a skill that can lead to high student achievement. It involves planning effectively, establishing rules that are reasonable and not excessive in number, and arranging the classroom so that instruction goes smoothly. Skills that are necessary for maintaining a well-managed classroom include group alerting, wittiness, overlapping, using the principle of least intervention, and creating smooth transitions.

A good teacher is expected to be committed to his work, would have the ability to take the initiative. Teacher's personality in the attitudinal sense is a significant factor in teacher's behavior and it has great impact on student's achievement. The teachers as a professional must know the art of communication, understanding others and ability to learn from the experiences. They should be able to facilitate learning effectively.

Many educators receive formal or informal training in the nonverbal communication that we, as instructors, intentionally or unintentionally exhibit in the classroom. However, rarely does that training include discussion of how to interpret the nonverbal communication of our students.

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A Study of the Use of Eye Contact in Teaching Learning Process at Secondary Level in District Peshawar

In an environment where educators are consistently attempting to better understand and better communicate with our students, it should be critical that we develop the skills necessary to identify and interpret student nonverbal communication. Nonverbal communication plays a pivotal role in teaching learning environment but most teacher do not know about the nonverbal or the role of eye contact in teaching. They can get good results through nonverbal communication skills. Therefore an experimental class has been arranged on the eye contact in a high school by researcher at district Peshawar. The experience had a great impact on student's learnability. The selected topic of eye contact is usually neglected by teachers. Teachers and students communicate non-verbally constantly.

Objectives of the Study

- To investigate the use of teachers' use of eye contact in the classroom and its effect on students high school level.
- To highlight the present status of eye contact in Pakistan.
- To make workable recommendations for the use of eye contact in classroom setting.

Research Questions

This study was designed to find out answer to these questions:

- What non-verbal behaviors are used by effective teachers in high schools?
- What non-verbal behaviors are frequently used by effective teachers?
- What recommendations will be made for making eye contact use useful?

Literature Review

Khan & Akbar (2000) reports that in teaching learning process eye contact is perhaps the most powerful way we communicate. Longer eye contact is associated with trust, good feelings and participation of students. Most teachers already know that it is too much important to look at your students but some teachers ignore eye contact in teaching learning process as a result the students are sleeping in the classroom. Eye contact is very important in keeping a class focused.

Moore (2003) reports that the use of eye contact is probably the most meaningful channel of nonverbal communication. Through use of eye contact we can open communication, extend communication, or disconnect communication. Teachers often use eye contact to control discipline, disruptive behavior and interaction of students in the classroom. When teachers want a student to speak they make direct eye contact with him or her. In addition teachers sometime use eye contact to determine which students may not be able to answer a question, which student have not completed their home woks or which student may be lying. Direct eye contact can also be used to change behavior. Upton & Cook (2004).

Castagnaro (2007) cites a famous proverb “The eyes are the mirror of the soul”. Eyes can attract an individual and convey what words may be able to deliver and may not be able to deliver. Words expressed upon the sincerity of the eyes. With the help of spoken words nearly one can reach the minds of others, this is why eye contact is important in teaching learning process. Eye contact often equals to our ability to verbally express a thought. Interestingly, we are least aware of this skill, yet this skill often speaks louder than our words. When a teacher maintains eye contact, he presents an air of confidence in students. If a teacher loses eye contact or focus on everything else but the students he is speaking to, the students may not be taken seriously and the truth in points may be lost. If a teacher fail to maintain eye contact during his discussion can create lack of interest in between the students. Eye contact convey our inner most warm thoughts and desires, it can let the students we are speaking with know our emotional connection and interest in what we are conversing about. The ability to smile with your eyes can often deliver a fine message of interest.

Shah (2007) finds that eye contact plays a very significant role in maintaining discipline, confidence, interest and communication within the students at elementary school. Ibrahim (2008) adds that there is significant relationship between eye contact of teachers and academic achievement of students at secondary school level, eye contact also helpful in maintaining discipline in teaching learning process. Moore (2009) is of the opinion that eye contact is perhaps the most powerful way we communicate. Longer eye contact is associated with interest,

confidence, trust and good feelings all of which are important qualities. So although we want to utilize the power of eye contact and should use it often, we shouldn't overdo it.

1. This is an easy habit to get in to.
2. You become so focused presenting your material that you fail to engage your students.
3. Eye contact of just 2-3 seconds with each student acts as an invitation to take part in whatever you're presenting.

It pulls them into your lessons and stories and causes them to become invested and committed to seeing them through to the end.

Eye contact also builds instant rapport, influence, and likability. When you purposefully seek out brief moments of eye contact while presenting lessons, you'll notice your students nodding along with you, smiling, and hoping you'll make another eye-to-eye connection with them. Eye contact helps to maintain discipline in the classroom and to watch students to make sure that students are participating in the activities. A relaxed and/or smiling facial expression is an indication of student satisfaction with their current environment (Gukas et al., 2010).

Atta (2012) writes, "When sum of the series is divided by its number of items with in the same series then so obtained value is called arithmetic mean". Arithmetic mean is most popular and sItem average and is based on all observations. It is used in the calculation of t-distribution. Miller (2005) provides a rather simplistic view of nonverbal communication as communication without words. Non-verbal (sic) communication refers to all aspects of message exchange without the use of word,and goes on to say that "it includes all expressive signs, signals and cues (audio, visual, etc.)"

Nonverbal communication includes the tone, loudness, speed, and timing of the words used in communication, but it does not include words and their associated meanings. Thus, when communication occurs, in a face-to-face context, it can and likely Brock E. Barry, P.E. Ph.D. Student Nonverbal Communication in the Classroom does include more than just words.

In fact, of all the physical activity and parameters that is involved with communication, including the use of words, intonation, pace of speech, facial expressions, gaze, gestures, etc.

Trehnolm & Jensen (2008) note that nonverbal actions modify and refine concurrent verbal messages and help to regulate the flow of interaction. Zoric, Smid et al. (2007) describe nonverbal conditions occurring in clusters (multiple displays at one time). Nonverbal cues are exhibited both consciously and unconsciously some nonverbal behaviors are learned such as a wink; while others are innate, such as a blush. As an educator, looking for a student's nonverbal cues, it is important to realize that unconscious actions and reactions are often the manifestation of a statement that a student feels uncomfortable otherwise expressing.

The nonverbal process of looking directly at an individual, gazing, is also a cultural variable. While listening to another speaker, White Americans make eye contact 80% of the time. Further, while speaking, White Americans only make eye contact 50% of the time. Conversely, African-Americans make more eye contact while speaking and less eye contact while listening (Suinn, 2006).

Cultural norms influence behavior at multiple levels; including the nonverbal cues that individuals exhibit and the way that we interpret nonverbal cues made by others. Riggio & Feldman (2005) discuss the influence of culture on the encoding (sending out) and decoding (interpreting) of nonverbal behavior. As instructors, Suinn (2006) says that we must be aware that our own cultural backgrounds are what we use to make meaning of behavior in the classroom.

Women tend to use more animated facial expressions and are more animated with head, hand, and arm gestures during communication than men. Women are more likely than men to engage in self-touch and touch other individuals during communication. Women also exhibited a higher level of what he calls interpersonal sensitivity. He suggests that women tend to more readily notice, are better at decoding, and are more influenced by nonverbal cues than are men. In general, men tend to be more restless (foot and leg movement, shifting, fidgeting), assume more expansive stances (arms and legs further apart), and recline when seated more than women.

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Nasrullah Khan

A Study of the Use of Eye Contact in Teaching Learning Process at Secondary Level in District Peshawar

Men also establish and maintain a larger interpersonal space than women do. McCroskey, Richmond, & McCroskey, 2006). Thus, given the potential impact on student learning that nonverbal communication has, it would seem important that all instructors be mindful of their personal outward nonverbal projection, as well as observation of student nonverbal cues.

The following list of cues is generalized relative to culture, gender, type of academic institution, and course subject. It has been accumulated from a variety of sources and in most cases adapted specifically to classroom conditions.

Miller (2005) also points out that students will avoid eye contact when they simply dislike or are disinterested in the subject matter.

Breed & Colaiuta (2006)) researched and found a positive correlation between the amount of student eye contact with an instructor and student comprehension. Specifically, higher test scores were associated with increased time looking at the instructor during discussions and less time looking elsewhere about the room.

Kinesics: Kinesics encompasses all forms of body movements. As such, several of the primary kinesics' indicators are addressed separately in the following paragraphs. Eye movement: Observation of eye movement can provide instructors with an indication of a student's mindset and thoughts.

While studies have shown that deliberate and appropriate student/instructor touching in the classroom can be academically beneficial (Miller, 2005), the modern academic environment suggests that the risks of misinterpretation outweigh the benefits. At the college-level a hearty handshake between student and instructor, for a job well done, appears to be the limit of appropriate physical touch. Physical Appearance: Students project their outward view of the world through their dress, hairstyle, and jewelry.

Methodology of the Study

It was a descriptive study to analyze the current status of the problem and to find out the gaps for remedial solution and propose a strategy for effective implementation of eye contact in

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

Nasrullah Khan

A Study of the Use of Eye Contact in Teaching Learning Process at Secondary Level in District Peshawar

teaching learning process in district Peshawar. The data was collected both from primary as well as secondary sources.

Population and Sample of the Study

There population was all the Teachers and Students of the Government High Schools of district Peshawar. The sample of the study was 100 students and 100 teachers of the High Schools of district Peshawar.

Data Collection Tools

- 1.Questionnaire for Teachers
- 2.Questionnaire for Students.

The researcher developed a set of questionnaires for the Teachers and Students of High Schools. The researcher analyzed the collected data by using tabulated and percentile method and made it clarified with the help of discussion. The researcher made recommendation on the basis of finding which were drawn from the analysis.

Questionnaire about Teachers Responses

No	Question Items	YES %	NO %
1	I use eye contact in my classroom regularly.	50%	50%
2	Eye contact is a useful tool in Teaching Learning Process	60	40
3	Eye contact can improve classroom discipline.	25	75
4	Eye contact can make students attentive.	45	55
5	Eye contact is useful for students 'motivation.	50	50
6	I control my class through eye contact.	50	50
7	Eye contact relaxes me in classroom	35	65
8	I Prefer eye contact in the classroom.	50	50

9	Eye contact makes classroom healthy.	65	35
10	Eye contact is supportive in the classroom.	57	43
11	Eye contact is an important part of learning.	50	50
12	I Look at students' eyes while talking.	45	55
13	I uses a variety of vocal expressions while talking to the class	23	77
14	Eye contact has a very tense body position while talking to the class.	60	40
15	Teachers makes different Gestures while teaching class	13	87

Discussion

As the question was asked, the respondents replied yes were 50, which is 50% and those who not agree were 50, which is 50% as well. So the result is 50 %. As the question was asked, the respondents replied yes were 70, which is 70% and those who not agree were 30, which is 30%. So the result is 70 %. As the question was asked, the respondents replied yes were 40, which is 40% and those who not agree were 60, which is 60%. So the result is 40 %. As the question was asked about the student's attention by teacher using eye contact in the classroom during teaching. The respondents replied yes were 25, which is 25% and those who not agree were 75, which is 75%. So the result is 75 %. The question was asked by researcher about the student's motivation by teacher's eye contact in the classroom during teaching. The respondents replied yes were 45, which is 45% and those who not agree were 55, which is 55%. So the result is 45 %. The question was asked by researcher about the controlling students by teacher using eye contact in the classroom during teaching. The respondents replied yes were 50, which is 50% and those who not agree were 50, which is 50%. So the result is 50%. The question was asked by researcher about relaxing of teacher's body by using eye contact in the classroom during teaching. The respondents replied yes were 35, which is 35% and those who not agree were 65, which is 65%. So the result is 35%. The question was asked by researcher about the preference eye contact in the classroom during teaching. The respondents replied yes were 50, which is 50% and those who not agree were 50, which is 50%. So the result is 50%. The response of the Item-9 shows that the teacher uses eye contact makes classroom healthy, because the respondent replied with yes are 65, which is 65% and those who not agree is 35, which is 35%. So the result was 65%. The responses of the Item-10 shows that the teacher uses eye contact makes classroom

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

Nasrullah Khan

A Study of the Use of Eye Contact in Teaching Learning Process at Secondary Level in District Peshawar

healthy, because the respondent replied with yes are 57, which is 57% and those who not agree is 43, which is 43%. So the result was 57%. The response of the Item-11 shows that the teacher uses eye contact plays an important role in teaching learning process, because the respondent replied with yes are 50, which is 50% and those who not agree is 50, which is 50%. So the result was 50%. The question was asked by researcher about eye contact in the classroom during talking. The respondents replied yes were 45, which is 45% and those who not agree were 55, which is 55%. So the result is 45%. The response of the Item-13 shows that teacher uses a variety of vocal expression while talking to class. The respondents replied with yes are 23, which is 23% and those who not agree is 77, which is 77%. So the result was 23%.

The question was asked by researcher about the body language during classroom. The respondents replied yes were 60, which is 60% and those who not agree were 40, which is 40%. So the result is 60%. The response of the Item-15 shows that teacher makes different gestures while teaching. The respondent replied with yes are 13 which is 13% and those who not agree is 87 which is 87%. So the result was 13%.

Questionnaire about Students Responses

Table -1 your teacher uses eye contact in the classroom.

No	Questions Items	YES %	NO %
1	Your teacher uses eye contact in the classroom.	60%	40%
2	Teacher encourage you by using eye contact	50%	50%
3	The teaching is effecting while teacher gazing at you.	70	30
4	I get nervous when the teacher asks questions	70	30
5	I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.	21	79
6	I feel confident when I speak in class	33	66
7	It wouldn't bother me at all to take more eye contact classes.	67	33
8	I don't understand why some people get so upset over eye contact in classes.	80	20
9	I feel confident when I speak in class.	51	49

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

Nasrullah Khan

A Study of the Use of Eye Contact in Teaching Learning Process at Secondary Level in District Peshawar

Discussion

The question was asked by researcher about the teacher using eye contact during classroom. The respondents replied yes were 60, which is 60% and those who not agree were 40, which is 40%. So the result is 60%. The response of the item-2 shows that the respondents replied with yes are 50 which is 50% and those who not agree is 50 which are 50%. So the result was 50%. The question was asked by researcher about the teacher's gazing and its effect on you during classroom. The respondents replied yes were 70, which is 70% and those who not agree were 30, which is 30%. So the result is 70%. The question was asked by researcher. The respondents replied yes were 70, which is 70% and those who not agree were 30, which is 30%. So the result is 70%. The question was asked by researcher. The respondents replied yes were 21, which is 21% and those who not agree were 79, which is 79%. So the result is 21%. The question was asked by researcher. The respondents replied yes were 33, which is 33% and those who not agree were 66, which is 66%. So the result is 33%. The question was asked by researcher. The respondents replied yes were 67, which is 67% and those who not agree were 33, which is 33%. So the result is 67%. The response of the Item-8 shows that the respondents replied with yes are 80 which is 80% and those who not agree is 20 which are 20%. So the result was 80%. The response of the Item-10 shows that the respondents replied with yes are 51 which is 51% and those who not agree is 49 which are 49%. So the result was 51%.

Summary, Findings, Conclusions and Recommendations

Summary

It was a descriptive study which attempted to carry out the need assessment of eye contact for improving the performance of High School Teachers in public sector in district Peshawar. The following key questions were examined in the study.

- What non-verbal behaviors are used by effective teachers in high schools?
- What non-verbal behaviors are frequently used by effective teachers?
- What recommendations will be made for making eye contact use useful?
- What is the current status of non-verbal communication in district Peshawar?
- What's the importance and benefit of eye contact in local as well as global prospective?

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

Nasrullah Khan

A Study of the Use of Eye Contact in Teaching Learning Process at Secondary Level in District Peshawar

- What implemented strategy does the study propose for introducing eye contact in teacher education at High level?
- What recommendations does the study make for implementation of the proposed strategy?
- The sample of the study will be the government High Schools, its Teachers and Students of the schools of district Peshawar.
- To investigate the use of teachers' use of eye contact in the classroom and its effect on students high school level.
- To highlight the present status of eye contact in Pakistan.
- To make workable recommendations for the use of eye contact in classroom setting.

The study used both quantitative and qualitative techniques for the analysis of data. The quantitative techniques converted the data into percentages and presented them in Items for understanding and discussion while the qualitative treatment ensured placement of data under different categories, pattern and its explanations.

The study found out that there was dire need to introduce non verbal communication in main stream of education at High level in district Peshawar Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. Many gaps were found which included lack of proper use of eye contact.

It was also discovered that the contact helped teachers establish goal and fulfilled their psycho-social and career related needs. The effectiveness of teachers and their pedagogical skill could be improved with the use of eye contact. Teachers generated self-confidence, enthusiasm and communication skills. It motivated teachers to accept challenges, find solution of the problems and learn to manage stress.

The study proposed a mechanism of eye contact for training teachers and other key stakeholders of education department and made recommendations for its proper induction in main stream of education for Govt. Boys' High Schools in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa- Pakistan.

Findings

1. The question was asked, the respondents replied yes were 50, which is 50% and those who not agree were 50, which is 50% as well. So the result is 50 %. As the question was asked, the respondents replied yes were 70, which is 70% and those who not agree were 30, which is 30%.
2. The question was asked, the respondents replied yes were 40, which is 40% and those who not agree were 60, which is 60%. So the result is 40 %. The question was asked about the student's attention by teacher using eye contact in the classroom during teaching. The respondents replied yes were 25, which is 25% and those who not agree were 75, which is 75%. So the result is 75 %.
3. The question was asked by researcher about the student's motivation by teacher's eye contact in the classroom during teaching. The respondents replied yes were 45, which is 45% and those who not agree were 55, which is 55%. So the result is 45 %.
4. The question was asked by researcher about the controlling students by teacher using eye contact in the classroom during teaching. The respondents replied yes were 50, which is 50% and those who not agree were 50, which is 50%. So the result is 50%.
5. The question was asked by researcher about the controlling students by teacher using eye contact in the classroom during teaching. The respondents replied yes were 35, which is 35% and those who not agree were 65, which is 65%. So the result is 35%.
6. The question was asked by researcher about the preference eye contact in the classroom during teaching. The respondents replied yes were 50, which is 50% and those who not agree were 50, which is 50%. So the result is 50%.
7. The response of the Item-9 shows that the teacher uses eye contact makes classroom healthy, because the respondent replied with yes are 65, which is 65% and those who not agree is 35, which is 35%. So the result was 65%.
8. The responses of the Item-10 shows that the teacher uses eye contact makes classroom healthy, because the respondent replied with yes are 57, which is 57% and those who not agree is 43, which is 43%. So the result was 57%.
9. The response of the Item-11 shows that the teacher uses eye contact plays an important role in teaching learning process, because the respondent replied with yes

- are 50, which is 50% and those who not agree is 50, which is 50%. So the result was 50%. The question was asked by researcher about eye contact in the classroom during talking. The respondents replied yes were 45, which is 45% and those who not agree were 55, which is 55%. So the result is 45%.
10. The response of the Item-13 shows that teacher uses a variety of vocal expression while talking to class. The respondents replied with yes are 23, which is 23% and those who not agree is 77, which is 77%. So the result was 23%.
 11. The question was asked by researcher about the body language during classroom. The respondents replied yes were 60, which is 60% and those who not agree were 40, which is 40%. So the result is 60%.
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 15. The question was asked by researcher. The respondents replied yes were 33, which is 33% and those who not agree were 66, which is 66%. So the result is 33%.
 16. The question was asked by researcher. The respondents replied yes were 67, which is 67% and those who not agree were 33, which is 33%. So the result is 67%.

17. The response of the Item-8 shows that the respondents replied with yes are 80 which is 80% and those who not agree is 20 which are 20%. So the result was 80%. The response of the Item-9 shows that the respondents replied with yes are 70 which is 70% and those who not agree is 30 which are 30%. So the result was 70%.

Conclusions

On the basis of the findings and results analysis of the collected data, the following conclusions were drawn:

- The data analysis supported that there is a need to introduce eye contact programme in the education system at High level.
- Some of the gaps were found i-e lack of non-verbal communication system, need of professional support to the prospective and new teachers, poor performance of the Students in the field and lack of opportunities to career exploration.
- Eye contact provided the services of highly qualified persons to develop teaching learning process.
- It was found that eye contact helped teacher to establish goals and develop objectives for students.
- A large number of respondents agreed to the assumption that high quality professional development of teachers could be insured through eye contact of commitment, devotion and dedications.
- A majority number of the respondents admitted that the relationship between teacher and student may be strengthened to overcome weaknesses and solve problems.
- The study revealed that eye contact provided opportunity to learn coping strategies to build the capacity of student. Proper staff may be inducted. Good teachers to be promoted.
- There was no denying fact that eye contact motivated teachers to find solution of the problems, avoid pitfalls and to manage stress.
- A majority of the respondent agreed that eye contact did help to improve and refine the attitude of the teachers towards professional duties.

- The summary of the study was that there was no formal system of eye contact in vogue in High system of education at Government level.

Recommendations

After analyzing the Secondary Education System in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and carrying out a detailed survey of district Peshawar, the following recommendations were proposed for integrating non-verbal communication in Government High Schools for Boys and training of the Teachers and other key personnel's of education department.

1. There is no material in the present curricula at secondary level about the use of non-verbal communication. It is suggested that curricula must include the effective items.
2. Teachers should be trained not in the effective use of verbal but also in non-verbal communication.
3. Training should be given to the school head teachers about nonverbal communication so that they guide their teachers for the use of effective eye contact.
4. Instructors must use eye contact for classroom motivation. They must use it while teaching to the students and explaining the difficult items by using eye contact in support of the items to be explained.
5. He/ she must use eyes contact for students' attention. As students always feel happy when get teachers attention.
6. Instructors should use eye contact for maintaining classroom discipline. All the instructors are to be careful about the classroom discipline.
7. Eye contact is an effective tool for making a friendly environmental classroom. Now days the environment for learning must be made very students friendly.

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Nasrullah Khan

A Study of the Use of Eye Contact in Teaching Learning Process at Secondary Level in District Peshawar

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Nasrullah Khan

A Study of the Use of Eye Contact in Teaching Learning Process at Secondary Level in District
Peshawar

Phoneme Substitution of Borrowed Words in Manipuri

Rajkumari Rajbala

Abstract

This paper will deal about a brief study of changes in sounds in borrowed words of Manipuri. Manipuri is also known as Meiteilon is a language spoken in Manipur. It is an attempt to study the substitution of a phoneme by another, increase in the number of syllable, lose of aspiration, deletion and addition of phoneme. Many changes in sound are found in the loan words or borrowed words of Manipuri language. Substitution of sounds is found in both vowel and consonant. There are changes from /j/ > /ɟ/ , /v/ > /b/ , /ɕʰ/ > /c/ , /o/ > /u/ , /ə/ > /o/ , /u/ > /o/ , /a/ > /o/ , /e/ > /i/ , etc. Pull of mother tongue is one of cause of phoneme substitution in borrowed words of Manipuri.

Key words: Meiteilon, Manipur, borrowed words, phoneme substitution, Manipuri

1. Introduction

Manipuri is one of the Tibeto Burman languages in India. Manipur is a north eastern state of India. On the other hand Hindi and English are the two languages of Indo European language family. Manipuri also known as Meiteilon is a language spoken by the Meitei community. Due to contact with main land of India words from languages that belong to Indo Aryan languages are borrowed into Manipuri. The language from which borrowing is done is from Sanskrit, Bengali, Assamese, Hindi and English. Contact with Sanskrit, Bengali and Assamese is much older than English.

It is stated by Lyle Campbell (1999) that borrowing is not restricted only to lexical items but any other linguistic items can be borrowed such as sounds, phonological rules, etc. In order to borrow a loanword the people has to have at least some knowledge of both the donor language and the receiving language.

Loan words are usually modified whether slightly or very much to suit the phonological structure of the receiving language. This modification leads to phoneme

substitution of foreign sounds by native sounds or phoneme. It occurs when the receiving language does not have the particular phoneme sound. Phoneme substitution is also known as adaptation, where a foreign sound in a loan word is replaced by an equivalent phoneme in the borrowing language. This paper deals with borrowed words from two languages that are loan words from Hindi and English into Manipuri language.

2. Hindi and Sanskrit Loan Words

Many changes in sound are found in the loan words of Manipuri language. Some substitution is due to the pull of the mother tongue, which is a natural phenomenon. Some substitutions are in consonant sounds while some others are in vowel sounds. There occurs sound deletion and addition also.

2.1 Consonant Replacement

First replacement is from ‘j’ to ‘ɟ’ (voiced palatal approximant to voiced palatal plosive).

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
juvraɟ	ɟubəraɟ	‘prince’
jəntɾə	ɟəntɾə	‘instrument’
jəɡɟə	ɟəɡɟə / ɟəigə	‘religious sacrifice’
jatra	ɟətra	‘journey/travel’
jəmrəɟ	ɟəmraɟ	‘God of death’

Secondly, from ‘v’ to ‘b’ (voiced labio dental fricative to voiced bilabial plosive).

‘v’ to ‘b’

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
divəs	dibos	‘day like birthday etc’
vilajjəti	bilaiti	‘foreign’
vəɾ	bor	‘boon/bridegroom’
vən	bən	‘forest’
vida:i	bidai	‘farewell’
jiv	ɟibə	‘creature’
jivika	ɟibika	‘living/livelihood’
əndʰəvisʰvas	əndʰəbiswas	‘superstition’

əvtaɾ	əbətɑɾ	‘incarnation’
Sanskrit	Manipuri	Gloss
pɾtʰvi	pɾitʰibi	‘earth’
vidʱi	bidʱi	‘creator/providence’
vicɑɾ	bicɑɾ	‘justice’
vindu	bindu	‘point/dot’
vides	bides	‘foreign’
vənvɑs	bənbɑs	‘dwelling in forest’

Third example of substitution is from voiceless bilabial plosive ‘p’ to voiceless aspirated bilabial plosive ‘pʰ’.

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
pɑpəɾ	pɑpʰoɾ	‘papad’

Fourth example of replacement of sound is from ‘v’ to ‘p’ (voiced labiodental fricative to voiceless bilabial plosive).

‘v’ to ‘p’

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
bʱav	bʱap	‘sentiment’

Fifth example of sound substitution is from ‘p’ to ‘b’ (voiceless bilabial plosive to voiced bilabial plosive) and ‘d’ to ‘r’ (voiced alveolar plosive to voiced alveolar trill).

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
(S) peḍɑ	(M) beɾɑ	‘sweets’

Sixth example is phoneme substitution from ‘b’ voiced bilabial plosive to ‘p’ voiceless bilabial plosive.

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
tʰɑt bɑt	tʰɑt pɑt	‘luxury, pomp and show’
dʱəb	dʱəp	‘way/manner/fashion’

Seventh phoneme replacement is from ‘g’ to ‘k’ (voiced velar plosive to voiceless velar plosive) and ‘b^h’ to ‘b’ (voiced aspirated bilabial plosive to voiced bilabial plosive).

Hindi	Manipuri	
gob ^h i (cauliflower)	kobi	‘cauliflower / cabbage’

Eighth example of substitution is from voiced alveolar lateral ‘l’ to voiced alveolar nasal ‘n’.

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
gulel	gulen	‘pellet bow’

Ninth example is from ‘g^h’ voiced aspirated velar plosive to voiced unaspirated velar plosive ‘g’.

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
g ^h us	gus	‘bribe’

Tenth example is from ‘t^h’ to ‘t’

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
ʃ ^h ut ^h mut ^h	ʃ ^h ut mut	‘falsely’

The following substitution is of single consonant ‘k’ (voiceless velar plosive) substituted by consonant cluster ‘kr’.

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
cækki	cækkri	‘mill/ pulverizer’

Next example is substitution from aspirated voiceless velar plosive ‘k^h’ to unaspirated voiceless velar plosive ‘k’.

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
tarik ^h	tarik	‘date’

Thirteenth example is substitution of voiced labiodental fricative ‘v’ by semi vowel ‘w’.

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
təva	təwa	‘iron pan’

2.2. Consonant Deletion

Examples:

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
bra ^h mən	bamon	‘priest’
u ^ɾ ra	u ^ɾ a	‘ruined’
bənd	bən	‘closed/blocked’
ɟəga ^h	ɟəga	‘place’
bara ^h	baro	‘twelve’
kenc ^h i	kati	‘scissors’
nənha	nəha	‘child/youth’
ɟ ^h anɟ ^h	ɟ ^h an	‘cymbal/sistrum’

2.3. Replacement of Vowel and Deletion of Consonant

Examples:

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
p ^h əlar	p ^h ola	‘fruit custard’
kacija	koci	‘fastener/ hook’
bara ^h	baro	‘twelve’

2.4. Sound Substitution of Vowels

‘o’ rounded back close-mid vowel substituted by ‘u’ rounded back closed vowel.

Examples:

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
d ^h olak	d ^h ulok	‘drum’
ɟora	ɟura	‘pair’
topi	tupi	‘cap’

The following examples are substitution of ‘ə’ mid central vowel by ‘o’ rounded back close-mid vowel.

Examples:

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
ɟəta	ɟota	‘tangled/matted hair’

əmər	omər	‘immortal’
əinək	ənək / ənəp	‘spectacle’
andolən	əndələn	‘protest’
b ^h avək	b ^h abək	‘audience’
nərək	norək	‘hell’
kət ^h a	kot ^h a	‘story’
p ^h əl	p ^h ol	‘result’
k ^h ərca	k ^h orsa / k ^h rosa	‘expenditure’
besən	besən	‘gram flour’
bəndi	bondi	‘prisoner/captive’
vər	bor	‘boon/bridegroom’
vən	bon	‘forest’
qələm	koləm	‘pen’

The following vowel substitution is from ‘u’ rounded back closed vowel to ‘o’ rounded back close-mid vowel.

Examples:

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
d ^h uri	d ^h ori	‘string’
k ^h ula	k ^h ola	‘open’
c ^h uri	sori	‘knife’

Below are examples of substitution of unrounded front open vowel ‘a’ by rounded close-mid back vowel ‘o’.

Examples:

(B) p ^h arsa	(M) p ^h orsa	‘flop’
(H) taŋga	(M) toŋga	‘horse cart’
(H) dak ^h il	(M) dok ^h on	‘’
(H) bara ^h	(M) baro	‘twelve’

The following example is replacement of mid central vowel ‘ə’ by rounded back close vowel ‘u’.

Example:

(H) ərhər (M) uron / urhon ‘pigeon pea’

Another substitution is from mid central vowel ‘ə’ to unrounded front open vowel ‘a’.

Example:

(H) ər^h (M) ar^hə / at^hrə ‘meaning’

Next vowel substitution is from mid central vowel ‘ə’ to unrounded close mid front vowel ‘e’.

Examples:

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
vjəŋjən	benjən	‘consonant’
dəsta	desta	‘quire of paper’

And the following vowel substitution given below is substitution of unrounded close front vowel ‘i’ by unrounded close mid front vowel ‘e’.

Examples:

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
əbir	əber	‘colour powder’
ilaqa	elaka	‘region / area’

Replacement of unrounded close mid front vowel ‘e’ by unrounded close front vowel ‘i’.

Examples:

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
t ^h eka	t ^h ika	‘contract’
t ^h ekedar	t ^h ikadar	‘contractor’
deh	dihe	‘body’

Another substitution is of mid central vowel ‘ə’ by unrounded close front vowel ‘i’.

Examples:

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
nəʃa	nisa	‘intoxication’
nəʃabəndi	nisabən	‘prohibition of drugs’

2.5. Insertion or Addition of Vowel or Consonant

Examples:

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
əŋk (number)	əŋkə	‘mathematics’
balti	batin	‘bucket’
əmrit	əmritə	‘nectar’
əlmari	əmbari	‘wardrobe’
kund	kundə	‘pool’
grə ^h	grəhə	‘planet’
dənd	dəndi	‘punishment’

2.6. Deletion of One Sound and Addition of Another

Examples:

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
bartə	baton	‘invitation’
balti	batin	‘bucket’
əlmari	əmbari	‘wardrobe’
gaiti	gəjenti	‘pick axe’

Deletion of ‘w’ and ‘j’

Examples:

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
viswərgo	bisərgo	‘a consonant sound’
vjəŋjən	benjən	‘consonant’

2.7. Substitution of Both Vowel and Consonant

Examples:

Sanskrit	Manipuri	Gloss
vjapari	bepari	‘merchant/businessman’
vjapar	bepar	‘business’
vjəŋjən	benjən	‘consonant’
Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss

kən ^h i	kati	‘scissors’
cəmməç	caməs	‘spoon’
ʂəlɲi	caloni	‘sieve / strainer –flour’
ʂətri	satɪn	‘umbrella’
ʂəɲna	səna	‘sieve / strainer- water’
ʂatrə	satrə	‘pupil/student’
ʂuri	sori	‘knife’
ʂeni	serni	‘chisel’
ʂutti	suti	‘holiday’

2.8. Substitution of Vowel and Addition

Examples:

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
g ^h ətna	g ^h otona	‘occurrence’
deh	dihe	‘body’

2.9. Substitution of Consonant and Addition

Examples:

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
təmbu	dəmbur	‘tent’

2.10. Diphthong Substitution by Single Vowel - ‘ai’ to ‘a’

Example:

(H) cai	(M) ca	(tea)
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2.11. Single Vowel is Substituted by Diphthong

Substitution of rounded back close-mid vowel ‘o’ to ‘əu’

Examples:

Hindi	Manipuri	Gloss
coki (a low square seat)	cəukri	(chair)
cokidar	cəukidar	(watchman)

Next substitution of mid central vowel ‘ə’ to ‘oi’.

Examples:

pə ^h la	poila	‘first’
prələj	prəloi	‘’

2.12. Change in Syllable and Reduplication

Example:

Hindi	Manipuri
cuci (nipple/pap)	cucu / cici (breast/nipple)

3. Loan words of English came after British colonization in Manipur

3.1 Following are the examples of vowel phoneme substitution in English loan words.

First example is substitution of ‘æ’ open mid front unrounded vowel to ‘e’ close mid front unrounded vowel.

æ > e

Examples are as follows:

Manipuri	English	Gloss
kelendər	kælɪndə	calendar
bek	bæg	bag
bekteria	bæktiəriə	bacteria
bej	bædʒ	badge
bekgraun	bækgraʊnd	background
blekbod	blækbɔ:d	blackboard
bendej	bændɪdʒ	bandage
belens	bælens	balance
betri	bætri	battery
beŋ	bæŋk	bank
b ^h en	væn	van
teŋki	tæŋk	tank
hebit	hæbit	habit
p ^h en	fæn	fan

Second example is substitution of ‘ʌ’ open mid back unrounded vowel by ‘ə’ mid central vowel.

ʌ > ə

Examples

Manipuri	English	Gloss
dəbəl	dʌbl	double
drək	drʌg	drug
bəs	bʌs	bus
brəs	brʌʃ	brush
kəp	kʌp	cup
kəmpəs	kʌmpəs	compass
trək	trʌk	truck
kəndəktər	kəndʌktə	conductor
kərəpsən	kəʀʌpʃn	corruption

Thirdly, ‘ɪ’ near close front unrounded vowel is substituted by ‘e’ close mid front unrounded vowel.

ɪ > e

Examples

Manipuri	English	Gloss
kolej	kɒlɪdʒ	college
kelender	kælɪndə	calendar
ekjəmpəl	ɪgza:mpəl	example
eləben	ɪlevn	eleven
helmet	helɪt	helmet

Next substitution is of vowel ‘e’ close mid front unrounded vowel by ‘ə’ mid central vowel.

e > ə

Example

Manipuri	English	Gloss
əit	eɪt	eight

Fifth example of phoneme replacement is replacement of ‘ɒ’ open front unrounded vowel by ‘o’ close mid back rounded vowel.

ɒ > o

Example

Manipuri	English	Gloss
bɔks	bɒks	box
bɔm	bɒm	bomb
bɔtəl	bɒtl	bottle
colɛʃ	kɒlɪdʒ	college
dɔktər	dɒktə	doctor

Next replacement is ‘ə’ mid central vowel by ‘o’ close mid back rounded vowel.

ə > o

Example

Manipuri	English	Gloss
kerosin	kerəsi:n	kerosene

Next example is insertion ‘u’ close back rounded vowel between two consonants.

‘u’ insertion

Examples

Manipuri	English	Gloss
tuwɛlp	twelve	twelve

Another example of insertion is ‘ə’ mid central vowel inserted between two vowels.

insertion of ‘ə’

Examples

Manipuri	English	Gloss
bɔtəl	bɒtl	bottle
bəlɛp	bʌlb	bulb
dəbəl	dʌbl	double
dɪʃɛl	di:zl	diesel
eləben	ɪlevn	eleven
p ^h ɪləm	film	film

The following example is addition of ‘i’ close front unrounded vowel after a consonant at the final position.

‘i’ addition

Example

Manipuri	English	Gloss
inci	mtʃ	inch

3.2 Substitution of diphthong by single vowel also takes place in borrowed words of Manipuri.

Diphthong ‘ei’ closing in front is substituted by single vowel ‘e’ close mid front unrounded vowel.

Example

‘ei’ > ‘e’

Manipuri	English	Gloss
p ^h rem	freim	frame
p ^h el	feil	fail
get	get	gate
eʃukesən	edʒokeiʃn	education

Diphthong ‘əʊ’ closing in back is substituted by ‘o’ close mid back rounded vowel.

‘əʊ’ > ‘o’

Manipuri	English	Gloss
həlo	hələʊ	hello
motor	məʊtə	motor

3.3 Now, following are the examples of consonant phoneme substitution.

Phoneme ‘v’ voiced labio dental fricative is substituted by ‘b’ voiced bilabial plosive or ‘p’ voiceless bilabial plosive.

v > b or p

Examples

Manipuri	English	Gloss
p ^h aip	farv	five

səben sevn seven

Next examples are substitution of ‘f’ voiceless labio dental fricative by ‘p^h’ voiceless bilabial aspirated plosive.

‘f’ > ‘p^h’

Example

Manipuri	English	Gloss
p ^h on	fəʊn	phone
p ^h oto	fəʊtəʊ	photo
p ^h ail	faɪl	file
p ^h iləm	fɪlm	film
p ^h el	feɪl	fail
p ^h ri	fri:	free
p ^h i	fi:	fee
p ^h ut	fʊt	foot
p ^h en	fæn	fan
p ^h ebuəri	febrʊəri	february

3.4 In English phoneme ‘r’ voiced post alveolar approximant is not pronounced when it is followed by a consonant sound in a sentence but this is not the same as how the words with ‘r’ sound at final position is pronounced by Manipuri speakers. The ‘r’ sound at final position is properly pronounced by the Manipuri speakers.

Examples:

Manipuri	English	Gloss
kar	ka:	car
kəmpʊtər	kəmpju:tə	computer
kukər	kʊkə	cooker
kərpət	ka:pɪt	carpet
kelendər	kælɪndə	calendar
kəndəktər	kəndəktə	conductor
giər	giə	gear
eksərsais	eksəsaɪz	exercise
enərʒi	enədʒɪ	energy

doktər	døktə	doctor
draib ^h ər	draivə	driver
riguletər	regjuleitə	regulator
sentər	sentə	centre
silindər	sılɪndə	cylinder
sərdibiget	sətifikət	certificate

4. Conclusion

From the brief analysis of loan words in this paper it is observed that loan words in Manipuri have lots of phoneme substitution. Many vowel as well as consonant phonemes of donor languages has been substituted by equivalent phoneme which is available in Manipuri. On the other hand younger generations have adapted some phonemes like ‘f’ and ‘v’ as a result of English education.

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Noun Modifying Expressions in Tamil

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Abstract

Nouns are modified by noun modifiers. English makes use of pre and post modifiers. Tamil makes use of pre modifiers only. The pre modifiers in Tamil could be phrasal or clausal in nature. The phrasal modifiers include determiners, possessive nouns, possessive pronouns, attributive adjectives, participial adjectives, nouns and appositive noun phrases. Postpositional noun modifiers are absent in Tamil. The clausal modifiers are adjectival participle or relative participle clauses. The clausal modifiers are referred here as noun modifying expressions and they are the target of this paper. There are two kinds of noun modifying expressions. They are correlative relative clause and relative participle clause. The correlative relative clause has two parts: the first part containing a finite verb suffixed by the interrogative suffix *-oo* is called modifying part and the second part containing the modified noun or noun phrase is called head. The relative participle clause contains a verb in relative participle or adjectival participle form. The relative participle clause can modify a noun which belongs to the verb in relative participle form or it can modify a noun which does not belong to the verb in the relative participle form. The first types of nouns are called argument nouns and the second type of nouns are called non-argument nouns. Not all the non-argument nouns can occupy the head position. There are constraints on the heads of the noun modifying expressions. Only a set of nouns which is capable of expressing or abstracting or objectivizing the information contained in the relative participle clause can occupy the head position. There are noun modifying expressions with finite clauses and they are linked to the head noun by *en-* complementizers.

Key words:

adjective participle , adjective participle clause, argument nouns, clausal modifiers, compressed noun modifying expression, correlative relative clause, non-argument noun, NME, noun modifying expression, phrasal modifiers, post modifiers, pre modifiers, relative clause proper, relative participle, relative participle clause

1. Introduction

Based on the positions of their occurrence, noun modifiers can be classified into two types: pre modifiers and post modifiers. Pre modifiers are those which come before nouns and post modifiers are those which come after nouns. Based on the constitution, noun modifiers can be further classified into two types: phrasal modifiers and clausal modifiers. Phrasal modifiers are phrasal in nature whereas clausal modifiers are clausal in nature (i.e. with a verb inside). All the above mentioned types of modifiers are found in English. English makes use of attributive adjectives (e.g. *a clean vessel*), participial adjectives (*a broken vessel, a washing power*) and nouns (e.g. *office work*) as phrasal pre modifiers. Determiners including articles (e.g. *this boy, a boy, and the girl*), possessive nouns (e.g. *Kannan's book*) and possessive pronouns (e.g. *our car, his child*) are also pre noun modifiers. Prepositional phrases (e.g. *the door of the car, the money inside the box*) and appositive noun phrases (e.g. *the chairperson, Mr. Kannan*) function as phrasal post modifiers in English. English makes use of relative clause (e.g. *the deer that has spots, the person who drew the picture*), *ing*-clause (e.g. *the crow sitting on the tree, the woman preparing the food*) *ed*-clause (e.g. *the plate paced on the table, the thief chased by the police*) and *to*-clause (e.g. *the person to see*) as clausal post modifiers (Biber et al 2009).

Tamil makes use of pre-modifiers only. The pre-modifiers in Tamil can be further separated as in the case of English into phrasal and clausal modifiers. The adjectival participle clauses or relative participle clauses that come before the head nouns are clausal modifiers in Tamil. The following table gives the list of phrasal and clausal modifiers in Tamil:

Phrasal modifiers		
Sub types of phrasal modifiers	Example	Comment
Determiner	<i>andtap paiyan</i> 'that boy' <i>oru paiyan</i> 'a boy' <i>paiyan</i> 'the boy'	Tamil does not have articles. It makes use of <i>oru</i> 'one' which can be considered as equivalent to article 'a' in English. It does not have article equivalent to 'the' in English. Sometimes not having an article <i>oru</i> 'a' give the sense 'the' in Tamil.

Possessive Nouns	<i>pacuv-in paal</i> ‘cow’s milk’ <i>pacum paal</i> ‘cow’s milk’ <i>pacuv-in-atu/uTaiya paal</i>	<i>pacu-m</i> ‘cow’s’ and <i>pacuv-in</i> are incremented forms of <i>pasu</i> ‘cow’ which function as a possessive nouns. <i>atu</i> and <i>uTaiya</i> are genitive/possessive case markers.
Possessive Pronouns	<i>en viiTu</i> ‘my house’, <i>enn-atu/uTayia kuzandtai</i> ‘my child’	<i>en</i> is the oblique form of <i>ndaan</i> ‘I’ which function as a possessive pronoun and <i>atu</i> and <i>uTaiya</i> ‘my’ are possessive case markers.
Attributive adjectives	<i>ndalla paiyan</i> ‘good boy’, <i>ciRiya viiTu</i> ‘small house’	<i>ndalla</i> ‘good’ and <i>ciRiya</i> ‘small’ are attributive adjectives. They modify <i>kuTTi</i> ‘child’ and <i>viiTu</i> ‘house’ respectively. Both the modifiers give information about the nouns they modify.
Participial adjectives	<i>keTTa paiyan</i> ‘bad boy’ <i>paTitta paiyan</i> ‘educated boy’	<i>keTTa</i> ‘bad’ is the past-adjective participial form of the verb <i>keTu</i> ‘become bad’ and <i>paTTitta</i> ‘educated’ is the past-adjectival participial form of the verb <i>paTi</i> ‘learn’. But these forms are lexicalized as adjectives. The adjective participle forms of this type that are lexicalized as adjectives to form new meanings need to be differentiated from the adjectival participle forms that are clausal in nature.
Nouns (as pre-modifiers)	<i>payaNac ciiTTu</i> ‘travel ticket’ <i>viiTTu vaaTakai</i> ‘house rent’	<i>payaNa</i> is the oblique form of the noun <i>payaNam</i> ‘travel’ and <i>viiTTu</i> is the oblique form of the noun <i>viiTu</i>

		'house'
Appositive noun phrase	<i>talaimai aaciriyar tiru raamanaatan</i> 'head master Mr. Ramanadhan'	
Clausal modifiers		
Clausal modifiers	Example	Comment
adjectival participle clause or relative participle clause	<i>ndeeRRu va-ndt-a paiyan yesterday come-PAST-ADJP boy</i> 'the boy who came yesterday' <i>avan iRa-ndt-a campavam</i> he die-PAST-ADJP event 'the event that he died'	Tamil does not make use of a relative pronoun for the formation of relative clause. Rather it makes use of an adjectival participle form of the verb which modifies the noun which follows it. The adjectival participle clause in the first example is referred generally as relative clause proper whereas the second one is called appositive clause. Annamalai (1969, 1997) discusses elaborately both these two types of adjectival participle clauses.

Post-positional noun modifiers (equivalent to English prepositional modifiers, for example '*the crow sitting on the tree*') are absent in Tamil as they need a verbal support to modify a noun.

1. **cuvar-in pinnaal manintan*
wall-GEN behind man
2. *cuvar-in pinnaal ndiR-kiR-a manitan*
wall-GEN behind stand-PRES-ADJP man
'the man who is standing behind the wall'

The clause modifiers are referred here as noun modifying expressions (NMEs) and they are the target of this paper. NMEs in Tamil are significantly different from that of English.

2. Two Kinds of NMEs

Like other major Dravidian languages Tamil makes use of two relativisation processes resulting in two types of relative clauses. The first one is known by the term sentential relative clause or correlative relative clause; it is a sort of correlative construction which belongs to Indo-Aryan group of languages. The second one is known by the term participial relative clause which belongs to some Dravidian family of languages.

2.1. Correlative Relative Clauses as NMEs

Ramasamy (1981) discusses in detail about the correlative clause formation in Tamil. Lehman talks about the different types of correlative relative clauses (Lehman 349-356). The correlative relative clause found in Tamil closely bears a resemblance to the structure found in Hindi and other Indo-Aryan languages. This could be considered an aerial feature borrowed from them. The correlative relative clause found in Tamil is considered artificial or very formal. Such constructions are rarely or occasionally used in Tamil especially in written Tamil. This is a subordinating construction in which the verbal element in the relative clause is in finite form.

We can assume that a correlative relative clause contains two parts. The first part contains a question word *endta* ‘which’ attributing the concerned noun and a verb in finite form suffixed with an interrogative particle *-oo* found in yes-or-no questions. The second part contains a remote demonstrative determiner *andta* and the head noun (attributed by *endta* in the first part) or an *a-* initial pronoun (such as *avan* ‘he’, *avaL* ‘she’, *avar* ‘they’, etc) anaphoric to the *endta*-attributed noun. The first part can be considered as the modifying part and the second part as the head. The above mentioned correlative relative clause pattern is a typical instance. The pattern of correlative relative clause may vary. Lehman (1993:315) has a list of correlative NPs that appear in the first part and the parallel demonstrative NPs that appear in the second part.

3. *endta paiyan ndanRaaakp paTi-kkiR-aan-oo andtap paiyan teerv-il veRRipeRu-v-aan*
which boy well study-PRES-HE-Q that boy examination-LOC succeed-FUT-HE
‘The boy who studies well will pass in the examination’

4. *yaar ndanRaakap paTi-kkiR-aarkaL-oo avarkaL teerv-il veRRipeRu-v-aarkaL*
 who well study-PRES-THEY-Q they examination-LOC pass-FUT-THEY
 ‘Those who study well will pass in the examination’

2.2. Relative Participial Clauses as NMEs

A relative participial clause or adjective participial clause is a pre modifier. It can modify a noun or a pronoun or a noun phrase (NP). A relative participial clause ends with a nonfinite form of a verb known as a relative participle (RP) or adjectival participle (ADJP). Relative participle forms can assume three tensed forms such as past, present, and future forms like a finite verb and a negative form. The past tense, present tense and negative relative participial forms contains the relative participle marker *a*. The future relative participle form does not carry the relative participle marker *a* and we can presume that it is zero after future suffix *-um*. The ambiguity which could arise out of this homonymy is resolved by clear cut context. We can expect a relative participial clause to bear the same range of arguments like a finite verb in a simple sentence.

5. *ndeeRRu va-ndt-a payiyan*
 yesterday come-PAST-ADJP boy
 ‘the boy who came yesterday’
6. *angkee ndiR-kinR-a paiyan*
 there stand-PRES-ADJP boy
 ‘the boy who is standing there’
7. *cennai-kkup pook-um toTar vaNTi*
 Chennai-DAT go-FUT-ADJP train
 ‘the train which will go to Chennai’
8. *.paaTam paTikk-aatt-a paiyan*
 lesson study-NEG-ADJP boy
 ‘the boy who did not study the lesson’

The future adjectival participle with zero marker is, however, very rarely used, particularly in the spoken language. Reference to future time in a relative participle clause is usually indicated by present tense participle. We can say that the distinction between present and future is nullified or the original present tense marker is a non-past marker.

9. *cennai-kkup cel-kiR-a peerundtu*

Chennai-DAT go-PRE/FUT-RP bus

'the bus which will go/goes to Chennai'

Future is otherwise realized in relative clause as a verb in infinitive form (marked by *a*) followed by adjectival participle form of *poo* 'go'.

10. *ndaaLai ndaTakk-a poo-kiR-a teertal*

tomorrow take-place-INFIN go-PRES-ADJP election

'the election that is going to take place tomorrow'

A noun can be modified by a series of relative participle clauses.

11. *pooTT-il ven-R-a cennaiy-ilirundtu va-ndt-a paiyan*

match win-PAST-ADJP Chennai-ABLA come-PAST-ADJP boy

'the boy who came from Chennai and won the competition'

2.2.1. Argument Nouns as Heads of the NMEs

Almost all the arguments (subject, object, indirect object, locative, etc) of a verb can be moved to the head position during relativization and thereby modified by the remaining elements in the relative participle clause. Subject NPs of intransitive verbs and transitive verbs, objective NPs, locative NPs, dative-experiencer NPs, dative-destination NPs, indirect object (recipient) NPs, instrument NPs, possessor NPs, ablative NPs and adverbial NPs (i.e. the adverbs reduced back to noun forms, for example *veekam* 'speed' from *veekamaaka* 'fast') can function as the heads of adjectival participle clauses.

Intransitive Subjects as Heads of NMEs

12. *malar-ndt-a puu*

bloom-PAST-ADJP flower

'the flower which blossomed'

13. *puu malar-ndt-atu* (possible source of 12)

flower bloom-PAST-IT

‘The flower bloomed’

Transitive Subjects as Heads of NMEs

14. *veekamaaka uNavu uN-T-a kaNNan*

fast food eat-PAST-ADJP Kannan

‘Kannan who ate the food fast’

15. *kaNNan veekamaaka ilaiyil uNavu uNTaan* (possible source of 14)

Kannan fast leaf-LOC food eat-PAST-HE

‘Kannan ate food in the leaf fast’

Objects as Heads of NMEs

16. *veekamaaka kaNNan uN-T-a uNavu*

fast Knnan eat-PAST-ADJ food

‘the food Kannan ate fast’

Locatives as Heads of NMEs

17. *veekamaaka kaNNan uN-T-a ilai*

fast Kannan eat-PAST-ADJP leaf

‘the leaf in which Kannan ate the food fast’

18. *avan vaci-kkiR-a viiTTu*

he live-PRES-ADJP house

‘the house where he lives’

Dative-experiencers as Heads of NMEs

19. *paci-tt-a kuzandtai*

be-hungry-PAST-ADJP child

‘the child which was hungry’

20. *kuzandtai-kkup paci-tt-atu* (possible source of 19)

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

S. Rajendran, Ph.D.

Noun Modifying Expressions in Tamil

Child-DAT be-hungry-PRES-IT
'The child was hungry'

21. *peNN-ai piTittiru-kkiR-a en-akku*
bride-ACC like-PRES-ADJP I-DAT
'for me who like the bride'

22. *en-akkup peNN-ai piTittiru-kkiR-atu*
I-dat bride-ACC like-PRES-IT
'I like the bride'

Dative Destinations as Heads of NMEs

23. *avan poo-n-a iTam*
he go-PAST place
'the place where he went'

24. *avan andta iTattiR-kup poo-n-aan* (possible source of 23)
he that place-DAT go-PAST-HE
'he went to that place'

Indirect Objects (Recipient) as Heads of NMEs

25. *cooRu koTu-tt-a ndaay*
cooked-rice give-PAST-ADJP dog
'the dog to which X gave cooked-rice'

26. *avan ndaay-kkuc cooRu koTu-tt-aan* (possible source of 25)
He dog-DAT cooked-rice give-PAST-HE
'He gave cooked rice to the dog'

As the head in 25 could be interpreted both as subject and indirect object in the above relative clause, it is ambiguous; whereas the one given below is free from ambiguity as the subject is explicitly mentioned in the relative clause.

27. *kaNNan aataravu koTu-tt-a andaatai*

Kannan support give-PAST-ADJP orphan

‘The orphan to whom Kannan gave support’

Instruments as Heads of NMEs

28. *cooRu koTu-tt-a karaNTi*

cooked-rice give-PAST-ADJP

‘The spoon with which X gave Y rice’

29. *avaL karaNTiy-aal cooRu koTu-tt-aaL* (possible source of 28)

she spoon-INST cooked-rice give-PAST-SHE

‘She gave cooked rice by (using) a spoon’

30. *iRaicci veTT-iy-a katti*

meat cut-PAST-ADJP knife

‘the knife with which X cut meat’

31. *avan iRaicciy-ai kattiyaal veTT-in-aan* (possible source of 30)

He meat-ACC knife-INST cut-PAST-HE

‘He cut the meat with knife’

Possessors (alienable or inalienable) as heads of NMEs

32. *ndaan kaal-ai oTi-tt-a paiyan*

I leg-ACC broke-PAST boy

‘The boy whose leg I broke’

33. *paiyan ndaay-in kaal-ai oTi-tt-aan* (possible source of 32)

boy dog-GEN leg-ACC break-PAST-HE

‘the boy broke the dog’s leg’

34. *komp-oo kaal-oo oTi-ndt-a oru aaTu*

horn-OR leg-OR break-PAST-ADJP one goat
'a goat whose horn or leg is broken'

35. *oru aaTT-in komp-oo kaal-oo oTi-ndt-atu*
one Goat-GEN horn-OR leg-OR break-PAST-IT
'The horn or leg of a goat broke'

36. *viiTT-il taNNiir nduzai-ndt-a en-akku*
House-LOC water enter-PAST-ADJP I-DAT
'for me into whose house the water entered'

37. *en-atu viiTT-il taNNiir nduzai-ndt-atu*
I-GEN house-LOC enter-PAST-IT
'The water entered into my house'

Ablative arguments as heads of NMEs

38. *avan paNam eTu-tt-a vangki*
he money take-PAST-ADJP bank
'the bank form where he took the money'

39. *avan vangkiy-ilirundtu paNam eTu-tt-aan* (possible source of 38)
He bank-ABL money take-PAST-he
'He took the money from the bank'

40. *ndaan paNam vaangk-iy-a kaNNan*
I money get-PAST-ADJP Kannan
'Kannan from whom I got money'

41. *ndaan kaNNan-iTamirundtu paNam vaangk-in-een* (possible source of 40)
I Kannan-ABA money get-PAST-I
'I got money from Kannan'

Possessors of Adjuncts as Heads of NMEs

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

S. Rajendran, Ph.D.

Noun Modifying Expressions in Tamil

42. *viiTT-iRkuL paampu nduzai-ndt-a enakku*

House- INSIDE snake enter-PAST-ADJP I-DAT

‘for me into whose house water entered’

43. *en viiTTiRkuL paampu nduzai-ndt-atu* (possible source of 42)

my house-inside snake enter-PAST-IT

‘The snake entered into my house’.

Time Arguments as the Heads of NMEs

44. *ndaan puunaav-il iru-ndt-a iraNTu ndaaTkaL*

I Poona-LOC be-PAST-ADJP two days

‘The two days I was in Pune’

45. *ndaan puunaav-il iraNTu ndaaTkaL iru-nt-een* (possible source of 44)

I Pune-LOC two days be-PAST-I

‘I was in Pune for two days’

Adverbs as Heads of NMEs

Even the adverbial *veekamaaka* ‘fast’ can be moved to the head position, but only in its nominal form.

46. *kaNNan illaiy-il uNavu uN-T-a veekam*

Kannab leaf-LOC food eat-PAST-ADJP speed’

‘the speed with which Kannan ate the food in the leaf’

2.2.2. Pronouns as Head of NMEs

Even pronouns can head NMEs.

47. *ingkee veelai cey-kiR-a ndaan*

here work do-PRES-ADJP I

‘I who is work here’

48. *ingkee veelai cey-kiR-a ndii*

here work do-PRES-ADJP you

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S. Rajendran, Ph.D.

Noun Modifying Expressions in Tamil

‘you who work here’

49. *ingkee veelai cey-kiRa avan*

here work do-PRES-ADJ he

‘he who works here’

Lehman (1993:295) considers 49 as wrong. He opines that the head should be in bound form as given below:

50. *ingkee veelai cey-kiR-avan*

here work do-PRES-HE

‘he who works here’

But in the Tamil corpus collected from internet has instances of 49.

2.2.3. Verbalizers of Compound Verbs as Heads of NMEs

Tamil forms a number of compound verbs by adding a set of verbalizers (i.e. the verbs which are used in the formation of compound verbs from nouns) with a set of nouns (Rajendran 2000).

51. *araTTai* 'chat (N)' + *aTi* (beat)> *araTTaiyaTi* 'chat'

52. *uRuti* 'firmness' + *aLi* (give)> *uRutiyaLi* 'confirm'

53. *cuuRai* 'scattering' + *aaTu* (play)> *cuuRaiyaaTu* 'plunder'

54. *vazakku* 'case; suit' + *aaTu* (play)> *vazakkaaTu* 'argue a case'

The verbalizers of the compound verbs can be adjectivalized as noun modifiers and the nouns of the compound verbs can occupy the head position.

55. *aTi-tt-a araTTai*

perform-PAST-ADJ chatting

‘the chatting that was performed’

56. *aLi-tt-a uRuti*

give-PAST-ADJ confirmation

‘the conformation that was given’

But certain verbalizers of compound verbs which are very cohesive with the constituent nouns cannot be adjectivalized as modifiers. For example, *viLaiy-aaTu* ‘play’ cannot be relativized as *aaTiya viLai* ‘the ground where X played’. Similarly *vazakk- aaTu* ‘argue a case’ cannot be relativized as *aaT-iy-a vazakku* ‘the case that was argued’, *payam-uRuttu* ‘threaten’ cannot be relativized as *uRuttiya payam* ‘the threat which was caused’ and *aRiv-uRuttu* ‘emphasize’ cannot be re relativized as *uRuttiya aRivu* ‘the knowledge which was caused’.

2.2.4. Cognate Object Nouns as Heads of NMEs

There are NMEs with cognate nouns as their heads. The following relative clauses can be said to be derived from their respective source sentence given below.

57. *avan piTi-tt-a piTi*

he catch-PAST-ADJP catch (N)

‘the hold which he caught’

58. *avan oru piTi piTi-tt-aan* (Possible source of 57)

he one catch catch-PAST-HE

‘He caught a hold’

59. *avan aTi-tt-a aTi*

he beat-PAST-a beat

‘the beating which he beat’

60. *avan oru aTi aTittaan* (Possible Source of 59)

he one beating beat-PAST-HE

‘HE beat a beat’

But it is difficult to say that 61 is derived from the possible source sentence 62 which is not a valid one.

61. *avan ndaTungk-iy-a ndaTukkam*

he shiver-PAST-ADJP shiver

‘the shiver he shivered’

62. *avan ndaTukkam ndTungk-in-aan*

he shiver shiver-PAST-HE

Similarly it is difficult say that 63 is derived from the possible source sentence 64 which is not a valid one.

63. *avaL vaLar-tt-a vaLarppu*

she bring-up-PAST-ADJP brought up

‘the way she brought up X’

64. *avaL vaLarppu vaLar-tt-aaL*

She brought-up (N) bring-up-PAST-SHE

In the relative clauses 61 and 63, the head nouns appear to be from outside the adjectival clause.

2.2.5. Constraints on the Heads of NMEs

There are constraints on the heads of the NMEs. Not all NPs belonging to the relative participle clause can occupy the head position after adjectivalization of the concerned verb. This has been explicated in Annamalai (1969, 1997), Steever (1981) and Lehman (1993). At the outset the embedding of a clause as adjectival clause or non-finite verb clause in general shows constraints. These constraints will not allow an NP occurring in the clause to move to the head position. Apart from this, the semantic role of the NP to be moved to head position and its case marking too show constraints.

NPs marked for sociative case (*ooTu/uTan*) cannot head the concerned NMEs.

65. *raatai kaNNan-ooTu/uTan va-ndt-aaL*

Radha Kannan-SOC come-PAST-SHE

‘Rdha came along with Kannan’

66. **raatai va-ndt-a kaNNan*

Radha come-PAST-ADJP Kannan

NPs marked by goal *iTam* cannot head the concerned NMEs.

67. *kuzandtai ammaav-iTam ooT-iy-atu*

child mother-TO run-PAST-IT

‘the child ran to its mother’

68. **kuzndtai ooT-iy-a ammaa*

child run-PAST-ADJP mother

But the NPs marked by receiver *iTam* can head the concerned NMEs.

69. *kaNNan raataiy-iTam paNam koTu-tt-aan*

Kannan Radha-TO money give-PAST-HE

‘Kannan gave money to Radha’

70. *kaNNan paNam koTu-tt-a raatai*

Kannan money give-PAST-ADJP Radha

‘Radha who was given money by Kannan’

Ablative NPs marked by source *il-iruntu* cannot head the concerned NMEs.

71. *avan cennaiy-ilirundtu va-ndt-aan*

he Chennai-ABL come-PAST-HE

‘he came from Chennai’

72. **avan va-ndt-a cennai*

he come-PAST-ADJP Chennai

Chennai in 72 gives target meaning and not the source meaning. Similarly in the following sentence also NP marked by source *iTamirundtu* cannot head the concerned NME.

73. *raataiy-iTamiruntu kaNNan-ukkuk kaTitam va-ndt-atu*

Radha-ABL Kannan-DAT letter come-PAST-IT

‘A letter came from Radha to Kannan’

74. **kaNNan-ukku kaTitam va-ndt-a raatai*

Kannan-DAT letter come-PAST-ADJP Radha

But as we have noted, the following relative clause is correct though the head was in the ablative form.

75. *avan paNam eTu-tt-a vangki*

he money take-PAST-ADJP bank

‘the bank from where he drew money’

76. *avan vangkiy-ilirundtu paNam eTu-tt-aan* (possible source of 75)

He bank-ABLA money take-PAST-HE

‘He drew money from the bank’

Genitive NPs (both inalienable and alienable) marked by the concerned case suffix cannot head the concerned NME in certain instances.

77. *kaNNan raataiy-in kaar-ai vaangk-in-aan*

kaNNan Radha-GEN car-ACC buy-PAST-HE

‘Kannan bought Radha’s car’

78. **Kannan kaar-ai vaangky-iy-a raatai*

Kannan car-ACC buy-PAST-ADJP Radha

Here the possible interpretation could be the ‘Radha who bought Kannan’s car’ rather than ‘Radha from whom Kannan bought the car’. But if we drop the accusative marker with car, the resulting

construction can also mean ‘Radha from whom Kannan bought the car’ apart from another interpretation ‘Radha who bought Kannan’s car’.

79. *kaNNan kaar vaangk-iy-a raatai*

Kannan car buy-PAST-ADJP Radha

‘Radha from whom Kannan bought the car’

In 81, the alienable genitive NP heads the concerned NME. There could be two interpretations: ‘Kannan who bit the dog’s hand’ and ‘Kannan whose hand the dog bite’. One always gets the first interpretation rather than the second one.

80. *ndaay kaNNan-in kai-yaik kaTi-tt-atu*

dog Kannan-GEN hand-ACC bite-PAST-IT

‘The dog bite Kannan’s hand’

81. *ndaay kaiy-aik kaTi-tt-a KaNNan*

Dog hand-ACC bite-PAST-ADJP Kannan

‘Kannan who bit the dog’s hand/‘Kannan whose hand the dog bite’

The NPs marked for object of comparison cannot head the concerned NMEs.

82. *avan enn-ai viTa atika paNam vaittiru-kkiR-aan*

he I-ACC than more money keep-PRES-HE

‘He has money more than I’

83. **avan atikam paNam vaittiru-kkiR-a ndaan*

He more money keep-PRES-ADJP I

Annamalai (1969, 1997) is of the opinion that the NPs marked for purpose by dative case cannot head the concerned NMEs. But such instances are possible in the corpus available in the internet.

84. *kumaar teervu-kkup paTi-kkiR-aan*
Kumar examination-DAT study-PRES-HE
'Kumar studies for the examination'

85. *kumaar paTi-kkiR-a teervu-kku ndaan-um paTi-kkiR-een*
Kumar study-PRES examination-DAT I-TOO study-PRES-I
'I too study for the examination for which Kumar studies'

We have seen that the NPs marked for instrumental case cannot head the concerned NMEs. But in the following instance, the semantic role of the NP obstructs the NP heading the concerned NME (Annamalai 1969, 1997).

86. *kaNNan ndooy-aal iRandtuviT-T-aan*
Raju disease-INST die-PAST-HE
'Kannan died because of disease'

87. **kaNNan iRandtuviT-T-a ndooy'*
Kannan die-PAST-ADJP disease'

As observed by Lehman (1993:292), the NPs of postpositional phrases cannot head NMEs.

88. *kaNNan raataiy-aip paRRi peec-in-aan*
Kannan Radha-ACC about talk-PAST-He
'Kannan talked about Radha'

89. **kaNNan paRRi peec-iy-a raatai*
Kannan about talk-PAST-ADJP Radha

90. *kannan raataiy-in pinnaal ndiR-kiR-aan*
Kannan Radha-GEN back stand-PRES-HE

‘Kannan is standing behind Radha’

91. **kannan pinnaal ndiR-kiR-a raatai*

Kannan behind stand-PRES-ADJP Radha

91 gives the interpretation that ‘Radha who is standing behind Kannan’.

2.2.6 Non-argument Nouns as Heads of the NMEs

So far we have seen that the heads of relative clauses belonging to the arguments of the relativized verbs. But there are relative clauses which are headed by nouns or NPs that do not belong to the arguments of the relativized verbs.

92. *avan varu-kiR-a ceysi*

He come-PRES-ADJP news

‘the news that he comes’

Following Teramura (1969) we can distinguish two broad types of noun modification. In the first type, the modifying element is derived from a sentence which contains the modified noun. The relationship between the modifying element and the modified noun in such constructions may be called an ‘inner relationship’. In the second type, the modifying element is derived from a sentence which does not contain the modified noun. The relationship between the two elements in this latter instance may be called an ‘outer relationship’. Rajendran (2001) refers the first type of derivation as nominalization by argument nouns and the latter as nominalization by non-argument nouns.

Thus, there are two types of nominal heads to the relative clause. In one case the head noun is one of the arguments of the adjectivalized verb and in another case the head noun is not one of arguments of the adjectivalized verb. To put it differently, in the first case the head noun can be plugged back into the preceding modifying expression (or in Chomsky’s term to the gap or trace vacated after NP movement) and in the second case the head nouns cannot be plugged

back into the preceding modifying expression. We refer the first type of nouns as argument nouns and the second type as non-argument nouns.

Not all the non-argument nouns can head the NMEs. Only a set of nouns which is capable of expressing or abstracting or objectivizing the information contained in the relative participle clause can head the NMEs. These nouns include abstract nouns like *ceyti* 'news', *viSayam* 'matter', *karuttu* 'opinion', *uNmai* 'truth', *ndikazcci* 'event', *campavam* 'event', etc. The relative clause of this type is traditionally called appositive clause as opposed to relative clause proper. Lehman (1993:293) refers them as appositive adjectival clause. Following (Teramura (1969) Peter and Pardeshi) we can classify the head nouns into a few classes or clusters of nouns.

“News” Nouns as Heads of NMEs

The nouns which can objectivize or abstract the content of the adjectival clause such as *ceyti* 'news', *uNmai* 'fact', *ndikazcci* 'event', *campavam* 'event' etc. can function as heads of NMEs.

93. *avan iRa-ndt-a ceyti*

he die-PAST-ADJP news

'the news that he died'

94. *avan va-ndt-a viSayam*

he come-PAST-ADJP matter

'the matter that he came'

95. *muyal cingkatt-aik ko-nR-a katai*

rabbit lion-ACC kill-PAST-ADJP story

'the story that the rabbit killed the lion'

“Thought” Nouns as Heads of NMEs

Nouns of thought such as *eNNam* ‘thought’, *ndinaippu* ‘idea’, *cindtanai* ‘thought’ etc. which can objectivize or abstract the content of the adjectival clause can function as heads of NMEs.

96. *avan-ukku ankee poo-kiR-a eNNam illai*
he-DAT there go-PRES-ADKP thought is-not
‘He does not have the mind to go there’

“Reason” Nouns as Heads of NMEs

The abstract nouns such as *kaaraNam* ‘reason’, *ndookkam* ‘purpose’, *kuRikkooL* ‘aim’, etc., also can function as heads of NMEs.

97. *avaL va-ndt-a kaaraNam*
she came-PAST-ADJP reason
‘the reason for her coming’

“Sensory” Nouns as Heads of NMEs

The nouns which can be grouped as sensory nouns such as *cattam* ‘sound’, *tooRRam* ‘sight’ or *vaacanai* ‘smell’, etc. can function as heads of NMEs.

98. *avan kuRaTTaiviTu-kiR-a cattam*
he snore-PRES-ADJP sound
‘the sound of his snoring’

99. *avaL camai-kkiR-a vaacanai*
she cook-PRES-ADJP smell
‘the smell of her cooking’

Nouns of Emotions and Feelings as Heads of NMEs

Certain nouns which denote emotions and feelings such as *makizcci* ‘happiness’, *koopam* ‘angriness’, *cangkaTam/tunpam* ‘sorrow/unhappiness’, *vali* ‘pain’, *veetanai* ‘pain’,

uNarcci ‘feeling’, *mayakkam* ‘unconsciousness’ etc. can function as heads of NMEs denoting the cause of such emotions or feelings.

100. *avan ciikkiram viiTT-ukku var-aat-a koopam*
avan early house-DAT come-NEG-ADJP angriness
‘angriness that he did not come home early’

101. *teervil veRRipeR-R-a makizcci*
examination succeed-PAST-ADJP happiness
‘happiness that x passed the examination’

102. *teertalil tooR-R-a cangkaTam*
election fail-PAST-ADJP sorrow
‘the sorrow that x lost the election’

“Picture” Nouns as Heads of NMEs

“Picture” nouns such as *pukaipaTam* ‘photo’, *ooviyam/cittiram* ‘drawing’, *tooRRam* ‘image’, etc can function as heads of NMEs.

103. *avaL ciri-ttukkoNTiru-kkiR-a pukaippaTam*
she laugh-CON-PRES-ADJP photo
‘the photo in which she is (seen) laughing’

Nouns Like "State" or "Condition" as Heads of NMEs

The nouns denoting a state or condition can head certain NMEs.

104. *ndaan kuzamp-iy-a ndlaiy-il iru-ndt-een*
confuse-PAST-ADJP state-LOC be-PAST-I
‘I was in a confused state.’

The head nouns which are not in argument relation with the adjectivalized verbs can be replaced by the gerundive nominalizer *atu* as shown in the following examples:

105. *avan angkee poo-n-a ceyti*

he there go-PAST-ADJP news
'the news that he went there'

106. *avan angkee poo-n-a-tu*
he go-PAST-ADJP-NOM
'that he went there'

107. *avan cettuppoo-n-a viSayam*
he die-PAST-ADJP matter
'the matter that he died'

108. *avan cettuppoo-n-a-tu*
he die-PAST-ADJP-NOM
'that he died'

Nouns Like “Habit” as the Heads of NMEs

Nouns like “habit” (*pazakkam* ‘habit’, *vazakkam* ‘custom’, *pazakkavazakkam* ‘customs and habits’) can function as heads of NMEs when preceded by a relative participle clause denoting a habit.

109. *avanu-kku kuTi-kkiR-a pazakkam illai*
he-DAT drink-PRES-ADJP habit not
'He does not have the habit of drinking'

110. *avan tinamum koovil-ukkup poo-kiR-a vazakkam uLLa-van*
'he daily temple-DAT go-PRES-ADJP habit be-HE
'He has the habit of going to temple daily'

Nouns Like *aLavu* ‘amount’, *vitam* ‘manner’, etc., as Heads of NMEs

The nouns such as *aLavu* ‘amount’, *vitam* ‘manner’, etc. can function as heads of NMEs

111. *avaL con-n-a vitam*
she say-PAST-ADJP manner

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S. Rajendran, Ph.D.

Noun Modifying Expressions in Tamil

‘the manner by which she said X’

112. *avan makiz-ndt-a aLavu*

He be-happy-PAST-ADJP amount’

‘the amount by which he felt happy’

Nouns Indirectly Related to the Relativized Verb as the Heads of NMEs

The non-argument nouns which are indirectly related to the relativized verb can head the concerned NMEs. Lehman (1993:293) refers some of them as modality nouns. The example 124 is quoted by Lehman (1993:294) from Annamalai (1969) as an example of appositive clause headed by non-abstract noun. The list of non-argument heads may increase when we explore more data.

113. *angkee poo-kiR-a tavaRu*

there go-PRES-ADJP mistake

‘the mistake of going there’

114. *avaL-aik kon-R-a paavam*

she-ACC kill-PAST-ADJP sin

‘the sin of killing her’

115. *avan-ait tooRkaTi-tt-a veRRi*

he-ACC defeat-PAST-ADJP

‘the success of defeating him’

116. *avaL ndin-R-a koolam*

she stand-PAST-ADJ appearance

‘the way she stood’

117. *avaL iru-ndt-a iruppu*

she sit-PAST-ADJP state

'the way she sat'

118. *angkee poo-kiR-a aacai/viruppam*

there go-PRES-ADJP desire

'the desire to go there'

119. *veelai-kkup poo-kiR-a tiRamai*

work-DAT go-PRES-ADJ capacity

'the capacity to go to work'

120. *veelai cey-kiR-a vaayppu*

work do-PRES-ADJP opportunity

'the opportunity to work'

121. *veLi ndaaTu cel-kiR-a tiTTam*

foreign country go-PRES-ADJP plan

'the plan to go to foreign country'

122. *avaL poo-kiR-a pookku*

she go-PRES-ADJ manner

'the manner of her going'

123. *kuzandtaiy-ai vaLar-kkiR-a kaTamai*

child-ACC bring-up-PRES-ADJP duty

'the duty of bringing up the child'

124. *ndaan kiizee vizu-ndt-a kaayam*

I down fall-PAST-ADJP wound

'the wound caused by falling down'

2.2.7. Compressed NMEs

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

S. Rajendran, Ph.D.

Noun Modifying Expressions in Tamil

We can infer that the NMEs headed by certain nouns require more information for the proper understanding of them.

125. *talaivaliy-aik kuRaikk-um maattirai*

headache reduce-FUT-ADJP pills

‘the pills which reduces the head ache’

126. *mayakkam tar-um matu*

intoxication give-FUT-ADJP liquor

‘the liquor which gives intoxication’

127. *aRiv-ai vaLarkk-um puttakam*

knowledge-ACC grow-FUT-ADJP book

‘the book which grows knowledge’

128. *irav-il kazivaRai-kkup pook-ap payappaT-um katai*

night-LOC toilet-DAT go-INF be-afraid-FUT-ADJP story

‘the story which scare one to go to bathroom at night’

The heads of the NMEs require that they need to be expanded as given below:

129. *caappiTt-aal talaivaliyaik kuRaikkum maattirai*

eat-CON headache reduce-FUT-ADJP pills

‘the pills which reduces the head ache if one consumes it’

130. *kuTitt-aal mayakkam tarum matu*

drink-CON intoxication give-FUT-ADJP liquor

‘the liquor which gives intoxication if one consumes it’

131. *paTi-ttaal aRiv-ai vaLarkk-um puttakam*

read-COND knowledge-ACC grow-FUT-ADJP book

‘the book which makes the knowledge grow if one reads it’

132. *keeTT-aal irav-il kazivaRai-kkup pook-ap payappaT-ac ceyy-um katai*

hear-CON night-LOC toilet-DAT go-INF be-afraid-INF make-FUT-ADJP story

‘the story which makes one to become afraid to go to toilet in the night’

Biber and Clark (2002) who studied noun phrase modification in English historically document compression as a historical trend by ranking nominal modifiers along a cline of compression as follows:

COMPRESSED – pre-modifiers < phrasal < non-finite < relative – EXPANDED
(PHRASAL) post- clauses clauses (CLAUSAL)
EXPRESSION modifiers EXPRESSION

Matsumoto (1997) who studied these kinds of NMEs in Japanese points out the part played by pragmatics and hearer in the interpretation of these expressions. A parallel process of compression takes place in the formation of nominal compounds (Noun+ Noun compounds such as *kaaRR-aalai* ‘wind mill’ and *arici aalai* ‘rice mill’) as pointed out by traditional Sanskrit and Tamil grammarians. They point out the deletion of certain information in the formation of these compounds and the need for reconstructing this information for the proper interpretation of these compounds. This is true for the interpretation of NMEs headed by nouns or NPs too. More or less a parallel observation is made in Drowning (1977) and Levi (1978).

Hook and Pardeshi (2013, 2015a, 2015b) while discussing about Edward Keenan and Bernard Comrie’s notion of the “noun phrase accessibility hierarchy” (hereafter NPAH) as a way of bringing order to disparate cross-linguistic data on the scope of relativization constructions, talks about “three kinds of syntactic-semantic mismatches in Marathi’s prenominal participial phrases”. The first mismatch is due to the need for the interpolation of [+cause]; the second mismatch is by “nouns that by their very anaphoric nature require the hearer or reader to listen or look elsewhere in the context for antecedents in order for them to be properly understood”. The third mismatch is “something to do with the ambiguous nature of picture nouns like *photo* which can refer to entities in their own right or can behave as anaphors that require the listener or reader to search for antecedents”.

Nominalization normally leads to loss of information. So it is not strange that nominalization on adjectivalized clauses by non-argument nouns needs pragmatics and hearers' knowledge to interpret the meaning of the resultant NPs. We can find the 'pakoda-type' of examples (Hook Pardeshi, 2015b) in Tamil too.

133. *vaayil eccil uuRu-kiR-a pakkooTa*

Mouth-LOC saliva secrete-PRES-ADJP *pakoda*

'the *pakoda* which makes the saliva to get secreted'

The literary meaning of 133 is 'the *pakoda* which secretes saliva in the mouth'. All the testable food items can replace *pakkooTa* in the above example. Let us look at the following example:

134. *ellaikkooTTai taaNT-iy-a maTTai aTi*

boundary-ACC cross-PAST-ADJP bat strike

'the bat strike which made the ball to cross boundary'

The literary meaning of the above example is "the strike which crossed the boundary". It appears that many such instances of NMEs headed by non-argument nouns can be found in Tamil. Even NMEs headed by argument nouns need interpretation by expansion.

2.2.8. Lexicalization of NMEs

A number of NMEs are lexicalized as adjectives. Following are the few examples: the adjectivalized form *keTTa* 'bad' (from verb *keTu* 'become bad'), *iruNTa* 'dark' (from the verb *iruL* 'become dark', *varaLNTa* 'dry' (from verb *varaL* 'become dry').

2.2.9. Difficulty in deciding the head as argument-noun or not

There are NME + N combinations it is difficult to decide whether the head nouns are argument heads or non-argument heads.

135. *co-nn-a peccu*

say-PAST-ADJP talk

'what has been said/instructed'

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

S. Rajendran, Ph.D.

Noun Modifying Expressions in Tamil

It is difficult to say that 135 is derived from the following possible source sentence.

136. *avan peecc-aic co-nn-aan*

he talke-ACC say-PAST-He

Literally mean: 'he said a speech/talk'

2.2.10. NMEs Headed by Spatio-temporal and Manner Nouns

Lehman (1993:340-347) notes down (as observed by Paramasivam 1983:203-8) that there are certain complex noun phrases in which the noun modifying expressions are adjectival clauses or relative participle clauses and the heads are temporal and manner nouns such as *pootu* 'time/at the time', *piRaku/ appuRam/pin/pinnar* 'posteriority/after', *mun/munnar* 'anteriority/before', *uTan* 'immediacy/immediately', *varai* 'end/limit/up to/until', and *maatiri paTi/aaRu* 'manner,way/'; they together function as adverbs. *piRaku*, *appuRam*, *pinnar*, *pin*, *mun*, *munnar* and *uTan* function as postpositions after nouns and alone as adverbs.

137. *kaNNan viiTTu-kku va-nt-a pootu ndaan viiTT-il illai*

Kannan house come-PAST-ADJP time I house-LOC not

'At the time/When Kannan came to (my) house, I was not in the house'

138. *avaL kaNNan va-ndt-a pinnar/piRaku va-ndt-aaL*

she Kannan come-PAST-ADJP after come-PAST-SHE

'She came after Kannan came'

139. *avaL kaNNan var-um mun/munnar viiTTiR-ku va-ndt-aaL*

she Kannan come-FUT-ADJP before house-DAT come-PAST-SHE

'She came to house before Kannan came'

140. *avaL kaNNan va-ndt-a uTan veLiyee poo-n-aaL*

she Kannan come-PAST-ADJP immediately out-side go-PAST-SHE

'She went out as soon as Kannan came'

141. *kaNNan veelaiy-ai muTikkiRa varai avaL kaattiru-ndt-aaL*
 Kannan work-ACC finish-PRES-ADJP up-to she wait-PAST-SHE
 ‘She waited as long as Kannan finished his work’
142. *kaNNan varu-kiR-a varai avaL kaattiru-pp-aaL*
 Kannan come-PRES-ADJP she wait-FUT-SHE
 ‘She will wait until Kannan comes’
143. *ndaan con-n-a paTi/maatiri avaL keeT-T-aaL*
 I say-PAST-ADJP way she listen-PAST-SHE
 ‘She obeyed me as I said’
144. *mazai varu-kiR-a maatiri terikiR-atu*
 rain come-PRES-ADJP way appear-PRES-IT
 ‘It appears that it is going to rain’
145. *avaL avan-aip pookum paTi/aaRu kuuR-in-aaL*
 she he-ACC go-FUT-ADJP way ask-PAST-SHE
 ‘She asked him to go’

2.3 NMEs with Finite Clauses

A finite clause when complemented by the complementing verb *en* ‘say’ in adjectival forms *enRa*, *enkiRa*, *ennum* can function as NMEs. *enRa* (< *en-R-a* ‘say-PAST-ADJP’), *enkiRa* (< *en-kiR-a* ‘say-PRES-ADJP’) and *ennum* (< *enn-um* ‘say-FUT-ADJP’) can modify a noun which flows it. *enRa*, *enkiRa* and *ennum* can be replaced by each other without imparting meaning difference among the sentences which take *enRa*, *enkiRa* and *ennum* as their respective complementizers. The complement clause consisting of the embedded S and the complementizer *enRa/enkiRa/ennum* has the categorical status of an adjectival clause. These complementizers require a noun to complete the nominalization process. These nouns include abstract nouns like *ceyti* ‘news’, *viSayam* ‘matter’, *karuttu* ‘opinion’, *uNmai* ‘truth’ etc. As the adjectival clause with *enRa*, *enkiRa* and *ennum* occur as a complement to a noun, it can be interpreted either as a

relative clause proper or appositive clause. If the nominalizing noun is not an argument of the relativized verb, then, the relative clause can be interpreted as appositive clause.

146. *kaNNan pooTTi-yil ve-nR-aan enRa/enkiRa/ennum ceyti uNmai*

Kannan contest_LOC win_PAST_he COMP news true

'The news that Kannan won the contest is true.'

147. *kaNNan kaTitam var-a-villai enRa ceytiy-aic con-n-aan*

Kumar letter come-INF-not COMP news-ACC tell-PAST-HE

'Kannan told the news that no letter was received'

If the nominalizing/head noun is an argument of the adjectivalized verb, then *enRa*-clause can be interpreted as a relative clause proper. This happens when the embedded clause contains the modal auxiliary verb form *-aam* (which occurs only in one finite form) (Lehman 1993: 328) and the whole clause can be interpreted as a relative clause proper.

148. *kaNNan vaangk-al-aam enRa ndilatt-ai ndaan paar-tt-een*

Kannan buy-NOM-may COMP land-ACC I see-PAST-I

'I saw the land which Kannan may buy.'

Abstract nouns such as *keeLvi* 'question', *aiyam/candteekam* 'doubt', etc can head *enRa*-complement clause. In this context the S (finite clause) of the complement clause takes an interrogative clitic *aa*. The resultant relative clause in turn can function as the subject to the be-verbs such as *iru* 'be', *uL* 'be', *il* 'be not', *kiTaaatu* 'be not', *uNTu* 'be' (Lehman 1993:329).

149. *kaNNan ndaaLai varu-v-aan-aa enRa aiyam en-akku iru-kkiR-atu*

Kannan tomorrow come-FUT-HE-Q doubt I-DAT be-PRES-IT

'I have doubt whether Kannan will come tomorrow'

enRa-clause complemented by abstract nouns is sometimes synonymous with appositive clause (relativized clause) without *enRa*.

150. *puli varu-kiR-atu enRa payatt-il avan ooTivi-T-aan*
tiger come-PRES-IT COMP fear-LOC he run away-PAST-HE
'He ran away due to the fear that tiger is coming'

151. *puli varu-kiR-a payatt-il avan ooTivi-T-aan*
tiger come-PRES-ADJP fear-LOC he run away-PAST-HE
'He ran away due to the fear that tiger is coming'

The nouns of perception such as *cattam* 'sound', *maNam* 'smell', *uNarcci* 'feeling', etc. can head only the adjectival clause and not the *enRa*-complement clause (Lehman 1993:329).

152. *aRaiy-il yaaroo iru-kkiR-a cattam keeT-T-atu*
room-LOC who be-PRES-ADJP sound hear-PAST-IT
'The sound that someone was in the room was heard'.

153. **aRaiyil yaaroo iru-kkiR-aarkaL enRa cattam keeT-T-atu*
room_LOC who be_PRES_they COMP sound hear_PAST_it

2.4. NMEs with *enRatu*, *enkiRatu*, and *enpatu* as Heads

The complementizers *enRatu*, *enkiRatu* and *enpatu* are tense inflected abstract nouns of the verb *en* 'say'. They too embed an S in finite clause; that is the verb of the embedded S is in finite form. Only *enkiRatu* and *enpatu* are used as complementizers in Modern Tamil; *enRatu* is not in use; *enpatu* is more commonly used than *enkiRatu*. *enpatu* can embed a verbal as well as non-verbal predicate clauses.

154. *kaNNan ceennai poo-y-viT-T-aan enkiRatu/enpatu en-akkut teriy-um*
Kannan Chennai go-ADVP-leave-PAST-he COMP I-DAT know-FUT
'I know that Kannan has gone to Chennai'

155. *kannan oru paaTTukkaaran enkiRatu/enpatu en-akkut teriy-um*
Kannan a singer COMP I-DAT know know-FUT
'I know that Kannan is a singer'.

156. *kaNNan oru kolaikaaran enkiRatu/enpatu uNmai*

Kannan a murderer COMP true

'It is true that Kannan is a murderer'

157. *kaNNan va-ndtu-viT-T-aan enkiRatu/enaptu uNmai*

Kannan come-ADVP-leave-PAST-HE COMP true

'It is true that Kannan has come'

The complements of the *enpatu*-clauses of the 154 and 157 have verbal predicates whereas the 155 and 156 have nominal predicates. In 154 and 155 the matrix predicates are verbal whereas in 156 and 157 the matrix predicates are nominal.

The construction consisting of the embedded S and complementizer *enpatu* has the categorical status of a nominalized clause. So an *enpatu*-clause can be inflected for cases which in turn function as subject, object etc of a predicate. It occurs in all NP positions except the predicate position.

1. *enpatu*-clause in subject relation

158. *oru kaNippoRi vaangk-a-veeNT-um enpatu enatu aacai*

one computer buy-INF-want-FUT COMP my desire

'My desire is to buy a computer'

2. *enpatu*-clause in object relation

159. *ndaaLai paLLi illai enpat-aik keeLvippaT-T-eeen*

Tomorrow school not COMP-ACC learn-PAST-I

'I learned that there is no school tomorrow'.

3. *enpatu*-clause in sociative relation

160. *KaNNan aparaatam kaT-T-in-aan enpatooTu ciRaikkum cen-R-aan*

Kannan fine remit-PAST- he COMP-SOCI jail go-PAST-HE

'Kannan not only remitted the fine but also went to Jail'

enpatu-clause is synonymous with *atu*-clause as can be inferred from the following examples.

161. *raatai inRu varu-v-aaL enpatu en-akkut teriy-um*

Radha today come-FUT-SHE COMP I-DAT know-FUT

'I know that Radha will come today'

162. *raatai inRu varu-v-atu en-akkut teriy-um*

Radha today come-FUT-IT I-DAT know-FUT

'I know that Radha will come today'

enpatu-clause is synonymous with *enRu*-clause in certain contexts.

163. *kaNNan var-a-maaTT-aan enpatu en-akkut teriy-um*

Kannan come_INF-not-HE COMP I-DAT know-FUT

'I know that Kannan will not come'

164. *kaNNan var-a-maaTT-aan enRu en-akkut teriy-um*

Kannan come-INF-not-HE COMP I-DAT know-FUT

'I know that Kannan will not come'

Larkin (1972:49) feels that object complement clauses of *enRu* and *enpatu* are not semantically identical as exemplified by the following examples. If the speaker feels that he is giving information that is new to us he uses *enRu*-clause; on the other hand, if the speaker wants to remind or point out a known fact he uses *enpatu*-clause.

165. *maRupaTiyum avar teertal-il tooRRuviT-T-aar enRu con-n-aaL*

again he election-LOC fail-PAST-HE COMP say-PAST-she

'She told that he lost the election again'

166. *maRupaTiyum avar teertail tooRRuviTTaar enpataic connaaL*

again he election_LOC fail-PAST-HE COMP say_PAST_she

'She told that he lost the election again'

167. *vinai vitaittavan vinaiyai aRuppaan enRa pazamozi*

bad-act sow-PAST-HE bad-result reap-FUT-He say-ARJP old-saying
'the old saying that One who sowed bad act will reap bad results'

168. *vaazaikkaay utal-ukku ndallatu alla enRa karuttu*

unripe-plantain-fruit body-DAT good not COM opinion
'the opinion that the unripe plantain fruit is not good for health'

169. *amaiicar kollap-paT-T-aar enpat-an viLaivaaka kalavaram eeRpaTTatu*

minister kill-INF-PASS-PAST-He COMP-that result riot happen-PAST-IT
'the riot broke as a result of minister being killed,'

2.5. Infinitive Clause as NME

Rarely, as in the following instance, infinite clause (i.e. verb without tense and marked by *a*) can function as NME.

170. *avan cuT-ac cuT-a toocai caappiTTaan*

He heat-INF heat-INF dosa eat-PAST-HE
'He ate hot dosa'

3. Conclusion

We have seen different instances of NMEs in Tamil. There are at least three types of NMEs. One type of NMEs is headed by nouns which are the arguments of the relativized verbs. Here we have seen some constraints on the heads of NMEs. The second type of NMEs is headed by nouns which are not the arguments of the relativized verbs. Here we have noticed that not all the non-argument nouns can head the NMEs and there are semantic constraints on the heads of the NMEs. Even the tense (past, present and future) also puts constraints on the heads of NMEs. There are only selective sets of abstract nouns which can head the NMEs of the second type. The third type of NMEs has a finite clause with an adjectival *en*-complementizer. The third type of NMEs with a finite verb and adjectival *en*-complementizer can be headed by non-argument

abstract nouns and those with the model verb *aam* and adjectival *en*-complementizer can be headed by argument nouns. We have noticed a tendency in which some of the NME + N combinations have been compressed and they need expansion for proper interpretation. The NMEs headed by non-argument nouns need further exploration.

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Different Types of Free Variation in the Writing of Sri Lankan ESL Learners

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Abstract

Interlanguage is a concept that denotes the developmental stages of second language learning that occurs when a learner starts to acquire a target language after he/she has started acquiring his/her first language. Teachers of ESL need to be aware of these developmental stages of the learners as he/she deals with the learner-errors in the process of teaching. This article analyses the developmental stages of Sri Lankan ESL learners' interlanguage (errors) adopting qualitative method of inquiry. An undergraduate student has been chosen as a sample, and systematic and free variations (errors) in her writings are analyzed in the light of interlanguage. The study reports some structural errors in detail and enlists some common errors. Though the particular learner conforms to the theory of interlanguage by displaying features of different stages of interlanguage, where the learners are generally considered to be mastering each stage and pass on to the next, she displays a unique phenomena i.e. she is at different stages of the interlanguage continuum at the same time.

Key words: learner errors, free variation, interlanguage, interlanguage continuum, second language learning.

1. Introduction

In the field of second language acquisition learner-errors, learners' developmental stages and the variations in their developmental stages are important concerns. The concept of "interlanguage" is perceived as a continuum between the first language and the target language of the learner. At any point along the continuum of interlanguage, the learners' language is systematic and any difference could be explained by differences in their experience (Larsen Freeman and Michael, 1991). Ellis (1999, p.464) reported that free variation can be held to exist when two or more variants of the same linguistic variable are seen to be used randomly by individuals with regard to all of the following:

1. The same situational context(s).
2. The same illocutionary meanings.
3. The same linguistic context(s).
4. The same discourse context(s) and
5. The same planning conditions.

The objective of the study is to identify and analyze the structural errors commonly occurring among the writing of Sri Lankan ESL learners in the light of the stages of interlanguage as posited by Ellis (1999). The research involves qualitative methodology via documentary evidence and the necessary data were gathered from the specific writing of a particular undergraduate of the University of Jaffna, Sri Lanka. The learner considered for analysis is a female student following Bachelor of Business Administration degree programme in her second year of studies at the University of Jaffna, Sri Lanka. She was informed that the collected texts would be used for analysis and her consent was obtained. Selected errors (interlanguage) are to be analyzed based on Ellis's (1999, p.475) proposition on the five stages of learning in detail with relevant theoretical grounding.

Tarone (1994) reported that "Increasing evidence seems to show that learners can produce a significantly more fluent, grammatical, and transfer-free interlanguage in some social contexts than in others" (p.136). Three essays taken for analyses from the student are to be studied in this light. The essays entitled as 'Advantages and disadvantages of using mobile phones' (transcribed as text I) and 'The opportunities for the course of AAT' (transcribed as text II) were written by the student as learner-initiated topics and she felt that she had first-hand experience with regard to themes of these articles. Transcribed text III, i.e. the article on 'The leadership training for the university students is important', which was written by her based on the information gathered from her friends who attended the leadership training for the university freshmen as she could not attend it, has more errors than the other two. This proves that the lack of first hand social experiences leads to more interlanguage characteristics than the social contexts in which she had her direct experience in relation to the texts I and II (she is a regular user of mobile phones and she follows a professional course in accounting called AAT). All the essays were take-home assignments.

2. Data Analysis of the Learner's Errors

Ellis (1999, 475) modified the four sequential stages in the acquisition of grammatical rules proposed by Towell, et al. (1993) (cited in Ellis, 1999) into five stages. They are non-linguistic stage, acquisition stage, replacement stage, interlanguage stage and completion stage. Four stages of the particular learner's acquisition of ESL are analyzed with theoretical grounding. The particular student could not be seen as having reached the completion stage, as she is still making mistakes.

2.1. Acquisition Stage (Free Variation 1)

The learner used –er as the suffix of the following words; calenderer, calculater (refer to highlight number 1 in text I). At the same time, she used the correct spelling for the word 'reminder'. This shows that the learner is over-generalizing the spelling for these words. This belongs to the Acquisition Stage in the development of a grammatical sub-system. Ellis (1999) posited "Learners operate an overgeneralization strategy, selecting one form and using it in contexts that in target-language use would require two forms" (p.475). Reason for this overgeneralization strategy is that the learner transcribes the sounds of those words she heard without considering the different forms of spelling in English (-ar and –or). This stage is prior to the "Replacement" stage which is characterized by free variation.

Another similar and significant free feature variable of the particular learner is the usage of simple present tense for third person plural. The learner writes "Every year about three lakhs students sits..." (refer to highlight number 2 in text III) once and in another context she writes correctly as " But approximately twenty three thousand students get university..." (refer to highlight number 3 in text III). This is also an example of over generalization strategy. This strategy may have been used due to two reasons; the learner has noticed that she makes mistakes for the present tense form of third person singular in her usual writing and because of her psychological processing of L2 in which she intended to avoid such mistakes. Therefore, this is an instance of interplay of language processing, psychological and meta-linguistic processing at the acquisition stage.

2.2. Replacement Stage (Free Variation 2)

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

K. L. Ramanan

Different Types of Free Variation in the Writing of Sri Lankan ESL Learners

Ellis posited, by referring to Towell, et al. (1993), that the replacement stage is where “learners allow an alternate form into their interlanguage but are unable to determine the functional differences between the two forms”. According to Ellis (1999) this phase is “characterized by free variation” (p.475). Earlier he had defined free variation as “the variation apparent in the haphazard use of two or more alternate forms which exist within the learner’s interlanguage” (Ellis, 1985, p.75). The unpredictability of variants at the same context would characterize the free variation stage. The learner has haphazardly used inanimate third person singular subject with its verb -it is- and the possessive form of inanimate third person singular ‘its’. She wrote “Its help to communicate...” (highlight number 4) in an instance and in another she wrote “It is help to...” (highlight number 5) in the same article about the mobile phones and in another article about the leadership training she wrote “Its helps to...” (number 6) . This learner has not stabilized her understanding of different forms like (it is), (its) and (it’s) which mean different things in English. This free variation in the writing is due to the non systematicity in English; possessive forms get apostrophe (belonging to father= father’s) but ‘belonging to it’ loses its apostrophe (Its). Though this seems to be a haphazard use of items, this phenomenon belongs to “the sources other than the linguistic environment that govern variation, such as social factors relating to the Native Language” (Gass and Selinker, 2001, p.227). As possessives are not expressed in a similar fashion in her L1 (Tamil in the case of the particular learner) it is very difficult to master the new linguistic item from English. In Tamil, the possessive would be expressed not by an apostrophe but by adding the suffixes /athu/ or /udaiya/ in written language and /intai/ in spoken Jaffna Tamil to the particular word. Thus, she struggles to use the new linguistic item according to the system of the target language. This is because the “(...) learners first internalize new linguistic items, they do not know precisely what functions they realize in the target language” (Ellis, 1985, p.81).

Similarly at the syntax level, Tamil learners have difficulty in using the passive forms. In Tamil the word that indicates passive voice /paddathu/ immediately follows the main verb and there is no helping verb in Tamil. In English, where the learner tries to express the new syntactical item, the learner has to add a ‘be’ verb, which is an indicator of passive form, in front of the main verb and has to use the past participle form of the main verb. Corder (1978b), as cited by Ellis (1985), suggested that “when learners experience difficulty in communicating an

idea because they lack the necessary target language resources, they will resort to their L1 to make up the insufficiency” (p.37). Thus, the mistakes of the learner have to be understood in this light. Since the forwarding the ‘be’ verb and the usage of past participle for passive voice are not found in the learner’s L1, she tries to simplify her TL output. She wrote “The Association of Accounting Technicians of Sri Lanka established in December 1987.” (highlight number 7) in one instance and in another she correctly wrote as “AAT-SL was admitted as an Associate member...” (highlight number 8). This alternate usage of syntactic structure for passive voice exemplifies the free variation where the L1 has an impact on the TL output.

2.3. Interlanguage Stage (Systematic Variation)

This phenomenon has been exemplified by the particular learner’s alternate usage of main verb in different illocutionary contexts. In an instance, she wrote “Students must to wake up at 5 a.m. and participate in exercises” (highlight 9) where she meant students have to wake up or are compelled to wake up at 5 a.m. The illocutionary meaning here is that the students are compelled to get up early in the morning as there is somebody imposing the rule. In another sentence, (though the linguistic context is the same) where the illocutionary context is different, she wrote “So every university students must participate this leadership training” (highlight 10). This sentence is a concluding statement of the writer where she recommends the leadership training programme to every university student and it is not imposed by someone else but recommended by the writer. This illustrates that this particular Sri Lankan learner exemplifies being at the systematic variation stage since she conforms to the claim of Ellis (1985) which reads as “systematic variation is due to different linguistic contexts which induces different forms even though in the target language they require the same form”(p.83). Though Ellis insisted the different *linguistic* contexts, I have applied his ideas with a slight difference, i.e. in illocutionary contexts, to analyze the writing. This proves the existence of the learner’s systematicity of IL variations. When a TL usage requires the same form in different contexts, illocutionary contexts in this case, the learner uses a different form instead.

2.4 Common Errors

Some more errors of the learner are enlisted here for better understanding of the interlanguage of the learners. They could be categorized in the following manners. These errors are usually observed in the writing of the other ESL learners in the University of Jaffna.

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

K. L. Ramanan

Different Types of Free Variation in the Writing of Sri Lankan ESL Learners

a) Writing the words separately instead of single word.

Example: Now a days, Everywhere, Every one, Some one

b) Avoiding the auxiliary verb 'be'.

Examples: This certificate essential for university admission...
students out of the university

This training important to university students in many ways.

c) Errors - singular plural.

Example: many student like this

One of the technological gift is...

d) influence of L1 prepositions.

Example: phones help to us

e) Confusion in spelling silent letters.

Example: Psysical exercises

phychological

3. Findings and Recommendations

The particular learner makes the common errors usually made by many other learners in the same university. The errors could be perceived as systematic variation and free variation and they could be of spelling, vocabulary, and structural.

The learners and teachers of ESL have to be aware of the mistakes made to be able to rectify them. As a teacher of ESL the researcher realized the need to teach the grammatical rules explicitly as well as the need to give sufficient practices to internalize them. This could be implemented through deductive or inductive grammar teaching or like what Ellis (2002) argued as conscious raising practice which is a supplement to communication activities (pp.173-174).

4. Conclusion

It has been established that this particular Sri Lankan learner too behaves in conformity to the interlanguage principles. But there is also a small difference noticed. The particular learner displays that she is at different stages of development of grammatical subsystem simultaneously

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

K. L. Ramanan

Different Types of Free Variation in the Writing of Sri Lankan ESL Learners

160

instead of mastering each stage and progressing to the next. This is because she learns English as a second language and her interlanguage is characterized by linguistic, illocutionary, psycholinguistic and social contexts of her writing. More data from many similar learners are necessary to generalize this proposition on the interlanguage of Sri Lankan learners. The ESL teachers in Sri Lanka have to offer remedial grammar teaching in order to raise the grammar consciousness of the learners to expedite the passage from the interlanguage stage to completion stage of the interlanguage continuum.

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Appendices

Transcript of Text I

Advantages and disadvantages of using mobile phones.

In the 21st century technology is increasing day by day. One of the technological gift is mobile phone. Now a days mobile phones are every where. Most of people have mobile phones. It is one equipment but we get lots of uses. Mobile phones are having great influence in our life.

We get many advantages and disadvantages of using mobile phones. First we see advantages of using mobile phones. Communication is our major part in our life. Communication with other people is the main use of mobile phones. **Its help to communicate** (4) our relations, friends and co-workers. Through the mobile phones we build up our relationship. Now a days we can use mobile phones not only for just a calls, messages, video games, conference calls, chat, **calender, reminder, calculater** (1) radio, mp3 player ~~and~~ internet facilities and etc.

Majority people have their phone on hand at all times. In our emergency time mobile phones help to us. We can play games, chatting with friends, listen songs, download pictures or films when we are bored. **It is help to us** (5) for keep in touch with a modern world. In economical point of view mobile phones sales take a major part.

~~At the same time~~

Next we see disadvantages of using mobile phones. using mobile phones gives advantages even though at the same time it causes many

Text II

The opportunities for the professional course of AAT

This is the competitive and challenging world. Every one wants to join a good job. But it is not easy to possible. Some one get good results in Advanced level and they go to the university. After finishing their studies they become a graduates. But many students out of the university. Professional courses helps them to get jobs.

There are many different types of professionals. Every field have varities of professional courses such as computer related courses, engineer related courses accounting related courses,

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

K. L. Ramanan

Different Types of Free Variation in the Writing of Sri Lankan ESL Learners

management related courses and etc. CIMA, CA, ACCA are some accounting related professional courses.

The Association of **Accounting Technicians of Sri Lanka** established in December 1987 (7). Association of Accounting Technicians of Sri Lanka (AAT-SL) is produce middle level professional Accountants. AAT-SL qualification is the easiest way to get jobs in accounting or management field. After AAT-SL we can enter into chartered accounting. **AAT-SL was admitted as an Associate member** (8) of the International Federation of Accountants (IFAC). AAT – SL was also admitted as the First Associate member of the Confederation of Asian and Pacific Accountants, the leading organization of the accounting bodies in the region.

The examination structure at present consists of three levels namely Foundation, Intermediate and Final Examinations. Examinations are held twice a year in July and January in Sinhala, Tamil and English medium. Many examination centres are in Sri Lanka. Registered Students who have passed the G.C.E A/L...

Text III

The leadership training for the university student is important

Every year about three lakshs students sits for (2) the Advanced level examination. **But approximately twenty three thousands students get university** (3) admission. They are lucky students in the Sri Lanka. In Sri Lanka gives Free education for the students. This is a greatest gift for students.

Since 2010 the government started leadership training programme who have qualified to enter university. This leadership training programme aim is to develop leadership skills and change the undergraduate attitudes. It is develop leadership qualities and positive thinking. The university leadership training programme is not necessary but it is very important training to students. Anyone has medical problem they can avoid the training programme but they should send a request letter to the higher education ministry.

The Higher Education Ministry has spend over Rs.100 million to provide to food, transport, books, caps and T-Shirts to the university entrance students who take part in this programme. A cost of a student is around Rs.50,000. In Starting days training period is tow weeks but now expand to three weeks.

This leadership training program include The Future vision of Sri Lanka, Global Changes, Achieving long term developments, Psysical exercises, First aid, leadership qualities and leadership, team work and presentation skills. The training consists theory and practical discussion including indoor and outdoor activities. The leadership training programme was organized by a special committee university lectures. There was a very positive response from the students because many student like this valuable training programme.

A certificate will be give to every university students participated to the programme. This certificate essential for university admission and Future interviews. This programme provides training to youth in phychological, health, sports, fitness training exercises. **Its helps to** (6) youth solving problem and improving mental and physical conditions.

Students must to wake up at 5 am (9) and participate in exercises. After lectures are followed this. The students should be trained in a team work, presentation skills and creative thinking. Students have to learn about wake up on time, how to do exercises, how to working on time, how to do team work, how to do study well and how to respect others. This training important to university students in many ways. So **every university students** (10) must participate this leadership training.

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Problems Faced by the Teachers of a Large Class in Imparting Writing Skills at the Tertiary Level

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Abstract

In India, the greatest challenge in the field of English language teaching remains the teaching of language skills. It is indeed surprising that after studying English for 12-15 years, the students fail to correctly express themselves in writing. This paper discusses the role of classroom size in second language teaching, problems confronted by a language teacher in imparting writing skills and possible solutions.

Key words: writing skill, large classes, tertiary level competence, teaching skills

Classroom - Definition

Classroom is the place where organized teaching and learning takes place. In ESL (English as a second language) it is especially important as the learning of a second language demands more “comprehensible input” (Krashen1975), error treatment and language interaction.

As soon as the word 'classroom' is mentioned, the immediate thought comes to mind is about the size and strength of the classroom i.e. (how many students are there in the class?). This is because of the reason that second language learning is a skill subject where the skills of language have to be actively practiced by the learner, if they are to be mastered and effectively used. He must ensure that the learners understand what they are asked to do, providing at times even the necessary linguistic items they need for various activities. While the students are engaged in various communicative activities, he can monitor their strengths and weaknesses. This enables him to determine the area of their weakness which he must cater for later.

At this point the 'largeness' of a class size poses seemingly unsurmountable problems.

Large Class

A study on the effect of class size on teaching in a second language classroom has been carried out for a very long time (Fleming 1959; Siegel et al. 1960; Ryan, Greenfield and Barr 1975; Lindbloom 1977; Glass et al. 1978, Smith and Glass 1980; Shapson et al. 1980; Fieldman 1984; McGeel 1986, 1991; Mckeachie 1986; Bolton 1988; Gibbs and Jenkins 1992).

A major part of research done on the issue of class size and second language learning and teaching (Forrester 1968; Long 1977; Coleman 1989; Nolasco and Arthur 1986, 1988; Duppenhaler 1991; Gaudart 1991; George 1991; Safnil 1991; Sarwar 1991) aimed at helping teachers teach effectively in a large class.

'Large' is of course a relative term, and what a 'large class' is will vary from a teacher to teacher. Some think 15 as large and 20 as unteachable. Some teachers think 60 as an ideal size and teachable. A study done by the team of the Lancaster-Leeds "Language learning in large classes research project" (project no.4 of Coleman et al., 1989) indicates that an average perception of the large class may be around 50 learners. Probably, however, the exact number does not really matter: what matters is how the teacher sees the class size in his own specific situation.

The following are some of the problems faced by a teacher in a second language large classroom:

Pedagogical problems

- The practice in language skills of speaking and writing would be difficult to carry out.
- It would be difficult for a class teacher to monitor and give feedback on the learners' performance.
- There could be problems for providing individual learning.

Management problems

- Correcting and returning assignments.
- Maintaining discipline problems.
- Difficulty in attending to all students during class time.

Affective problems

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

B. Ramya Devi, M.A. (English), PGDTE, (M.Phil.)

Problems Faced by the Teachers of a Large Class in Imparting Writing Skills at the Tertiary Level

- Difficulty in learning learners' names.
- Impossibility of establishing good rapport with learners.
- Inability to pay special attention to disadvantaged learners.

A Preview on teaching writing:

Writing is the representation of language in a textual medium through the use of a set of signs or symbols. Written communicational skills are central to learning though speech has been placed above writing. They require more individual effort than speaking. Whether in academic life, in the workplace or in personal life, they offer a powerful advantage in a world in which people must constantly absorb new information.

By putting together concepts and solving problems, the writer engages in “ a two-way interaction between continuously developing knowledge and continuously developing text” (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987:12). Indeed academic writing requires conscious effort and practice in composing, developing, and analysing ideas. Writing in second language requires a more complex mental effort: the learners have to concentrate on both the meaning as well as production of ideas.

Some common practices of writing

The sub skills of writing that are relevant to English in higher studies are:

- Note making.
- Note taking.
- Narrating personal experiences
- Dialogue writing
- Paragraph writing and
- Writing a news paper report

These skills are largely role-based. The teacher should provide the learner with ample opportunities for writing. The teacher should explain the tasks and allow the learners to work on similar tasks either in groups or individually. These tasks which produce letters or paragraphs or reports or essays help the learner to improve his writing.

In recent years two different views on the nature of writing have emerged:

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B. Ramya Devi, M.A. (English), PGDTE, (M.Phil.)

Problems Faced by the Teachers of a Large Classin Imparting Writing Skills at the Tertiary Level

- Product approach
- Process approach

David Nunan (1989:36) very clearly defines what approach is, when he says, ‘The product approach to writing focuses on the end result of the act of composition-i.e., the letter, essay, story and so on’. The writing teacher who subscribes to the product approach will be concerned to see that the end product is readable grammatically correct and obeys discourse conventions relating to main points and supporting details. The focus in class will be on copying and imitation carrying out sentences expansions from cue words and developing sentences and paragraphs from models of various sorts.

A process approach on the other hand is whole class activity, where the teacher is a facilitator, a friend, and a guide, who provides supportive atmosphere throughout the whole act of writing, right from the generating of ideas stage through the different drafts till the preparation of the final draft. A teacher can impart writing skills to his learners by using both the product and process approach.

Objectives of the study

In India, the greatest challenge in the field of English language teaching remains the teaching of writing skills. It is indeed surprising that after studying English for 12-15 years, the students fail to correctly express themselves in writing. The errors though marked in red, are not discussed at length with the learners or if the teacher do discuss the errors, they often give the correct answers without any reason, because of the constraints placed on the teachers due to lack of time and the large class size.

Students are given topics for letter writing, report writing, precis writing, paraphrasing and are asked to write without first providing adequate guidance. The only guidance they get is on format. The teacher fails to focus on purpose or reader awareness which is a part of process approach.

Giving feedback on a learner’s piece of writing is another problem faced by a teacher in a large class. He has to focus both on meaning related aspects and code related aspects while evaluating a script. So, the objectives of the study are as follows:

- To find out the problems confront by a language teacher in imparting writing skills.

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

B. Ramya Devi, M.A. (English), PGDTE, (M.Phil.)

Problems Faced by the Teachers of a Large Classin Imparting Writing Skills at the Tertiary Level

- To suggest the ideal class room size for teaching writing skills in English.

Based on the objective, the following questions are answered:

1. What are the problems a language teacher face in large classrooms?
2. What is the ideal class room size for teaching writing skills in second language?

Methodology

In the study the researcher used two tools to collect the data. The type of the tools and the purposes of using them are given below:

- Teacher's questionnaire.
- Informal interviews with teachers.

Selection of samples

The college teachers (n=6) were selected on the basis of their experience of teaching English to the tertiary level classes.

Preparation of questionnaires and interviews

The questions in all the questionnaire were set in such a way that the information sought should be specific, unambiguous and accurate. Hence, objective type questions like Yes/No, marking the preference, and provision for free responses at the end of each important section was made in the questionnaire. We did not include many open-ended questions because we assumed that respondents need appropriate clues to clarify their thoughts and attitudes towards a particular issue. Therefore, we provided clues through forced choice questions.

Similarly interviews were used keeping in mind the important reference points of our study.

Objectives of the Teacher's questionnaire and interviews

The teacher questionnaire consists of 7 questions out of which 4 are close ended questions and 3 are open ended questions. The purpose behind administering the questionnaire to the teacher is as follows:

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

B. Ramya Devi, M.A. (English), PGDTE, (M.Phil.)

Problems Faced by the Teachers of a Large Classin Imparting Writing Skills at the Tertiary Level

- To understand the teacher's profile.
- To get the teacher's opinion on the size of the classroom and its effects on second language teaching.

A detailed description of the objectives of formulating specific questions in teacher's questionnaire follows:

Question 1-3 of part I aim at building the profile of the teachers in terms of name, teaching experience and educational qualification. Question 4-6 of part II deals with collecting data about the teacher's opinions on the classroom size. Question 7-9 of part III based on questions related to the impact of a large class on writing skills. Question 10 of part IV aims at collecting data about some possible ways of dealing writing skills in large classes.

Similarly personal interviews with our identified subjects were combined with the administration of questionnaires. The purpose was to get their affective reactions to the issue of large classes, and also to fill in the 'gaps' deliberately felt in the questionnaire, so as to seek elaborate comments of the teachers on particular aspects of language learning large classes.

Analysis of the teacher's questionnaire

The analysis is carried out on the questionnaires that were administered to 6 teachers of English in 2 colleges under study.

Part I of the teacher's questionnaire comprises 3 questions which discuss about the profile of teachers. The profile includes names, teaching experience and educational qualification. All the 6 teachers are post graduates. All the teachers have English teaching experience for more than 2 years.

Part II has 3 questions out of which first two questions are close-ended and last question is open-ended.

Question 1 of this part attempts to collect information from the teachers whether the size of the class affects teaching English or not. All the 6 teachers responded that, the size of the classroom does affect teaching English.

Question 2 of this part tries to collect information from the teachers whether a large classroom affects the teaching of English or a small classroom affects the teaching of English. All the teachers responded that a large classroom affects teaching of English.

Question 3 of this part attempts to get responses from the teachers regarding the problems they face in a large class. The response to this question from all the teachers can be summed up as –they find that it is difficult for a single teacher to handle students of different educational, social and economic backgrounds. He/she cannot take care of a child and feedback cannot be given. One to one interaction is not possible.

Part III-This part has 3 questions out of which two questions are close-ended and one question is open-ended. All questions are based on the impact of a large class on writing skill.

Question 1 of this part enquires to know from the teachers whether writing skill gets less attention in the large class or not. All the teachers said that writing skill receive less attention in a large class.

Question 2 attempts to get the response from the teachers that ‘why writing skill needs more attention in large class?’ The response to this question from all the sections can be summed up as- they said that English is a second language which has restricted atmosphere to use the language. So, the role of feedback plays a vital role. In a large class, a teacher cannot handle all the students equally. It impacts students’ learning. Even that is important stage of learning. So, the role of a teacher and feedback play crucial role in order to improve students’ proficiency.

Question 3 attempts to get the response from the teachers that at which level they face difficulty in handling writing in a large class either at conducting assessment or at giving instructions. The response to this question from all the six teachers can be summed up as- They find difficulty both at the level of assessment and giving instructions.

Part IV- This part has one question which is open ended. The question in this part attempts to gather information from the teachers regarding the reasonable ways of teaching writing skills in a large class. The response to this question from all the six teachers can be summed up as follows-They find that few strategies like peer/group discussions, brain storming will be helpful. Proper feedback and comprehension should be given to learner.

Though they are difficult to handle in large class, if a teacher is creative and come up with proper planning and handouts(supplementary material) then large class will become a boon to both the learner and teacher.

Findings of the study

It has been found from the present study that classroom size plays a key role in second language teaching. If the classroom size increases it will create more problems to a language teacher. He/she cannot give or pay more attention to writing skill which indeed needs more attention because of its complexity. A learner always expects proper feedback from his/her teacher which a teacher fails to give because of the largeness of the class size.

Suggestions

Group work/pair work can be introduced in large classes. Interactive writing allows students to share the pen with the teacher.

Peer-correction can be a time saving and useful technique, students can work on their first drafts, giving each other feedback on content, language and organization; they then rewrite and give in the final draft to the teacher.

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Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

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Problems Faced by the Teachers of a Large Class in Imparting Writing Skills at the Tertiary Level

**Azizah Abd Allah's *Taif Walia (Phantom of Walia)*:
A Critical Reading**

Dr. Redhwan Qasem Ghaleb Al-hilali

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Abstract

Most of Arab women novelists, if not all, have been addressing feminist issues for ages. Interestingly enough, Azizah Abd Allah reverses the norms in *Taif Wilaia* (Taif) giving priority to the homeland issues. The narrative tackles expatriation, a long standing issue that has been monopolized by Arab male works. Besides being treated from the female prospective point of view, the expatriate exterminates his life and youth in quest for an alternative homeland. The treatment of the encounter between Arab and the west is different from that of Arab writers both in characterization and theme. It concentrates on the topic of the colonizer and colonized and the possibility of reconciliation. Through the narrative, the novelist raises questions of an immigrant dilemma inside and abroad, social problems, ignorance, illusion and class within the Yemen context. The choice of this narrative stems from the fact that it deals with unflinching epidemic on the displacement and dispossession of people who turn to emigration as their only venue of hope. The current situation of Yemen has recently witnessed a tremendous uprooting that has surfaced to the foreground, as well as the premonition of the writer about Yemen impel me to investigate this castle abandoned, if not forgotten by readers and researchers not only at the local context, but also on both contemporary Arabic and world literature using an elective theoretical frame. The narrative is a cry against the permanence of regressive situations that fragmentize the country, emigration and a call to encounter reality and to liberate ourselves from the past and to instill patriotism.

Keywords: immigration, homeland, encounter between east and west, past.

1. Introduction

A reader or a witness of the Yemeni history, its political and economical events through different historical stages comes out with the impression that the history of Yemen is a record of immigration and immigrant. In fact, Yemen is primarily known as “a sending country” (Regt 2), as history has never witnessed immigration in a huge abundance as it happens in Yemen: “the Yemeni immigration has surpassed that of any other country” (Alzouebi 53). The phenomenon of expatriation or immigration is not newly born, but a long standing and persisting problem that has become synonymous with Yemen. Wahab Romea states: “Emigration is past and present issue of Yemen, an issue suffered by each Yemeni home and every family especially in the country side ...from almost every home, the village, strongest youth have been taken away by emigration” (qtd. in Khasback 21). It is dated back to the 5th B.C. while the modern Yemeni immigration is dated back to the 18th century with the occupation of Aden by the British colonization, and it increases after WWII. The biggest immigration took place in the 20th century to Saudi Arabia and other Gulf countries.

Such phenomenon is not a random movement or an absurd issue in so far it is a social phenomenon that reflects to somehow the reality out of which immigration is born out and imposes its permanence. Wahab Romea says: “immigration is not an eternal penalty ruled by God on the Arab man in Yemen. But, it is a historical and social phenomenon whose underlying cause lies in Yemeni society. If these reasons no longer exist, immigration also ceases to exist” (qtd. in Khisbak 22). In the modern age, it was an unknown trip to an unknown world and the destination is not determined in most cases. An expatriate has nothing, but his hope and desire to change the reality of his life.

Curiously enough, Yemen in classical times was known as Arabia Felix (a happy land of beauty and wealth). However, with the dawn of the 20th century, Yemen lost its beauty and wealth to become one of the poorest and most backward places on earth (Al-Jumly et al 39). Due to the turbulent events Yemen witnessed in the 20th century, people start seeking for a safe and secure place to settle. The matter goes farther to the extent that immigration grants one a favorable regard. Al-Magaleh

comments “He who does not emigrate dies, he loses his prestige. He is considered as an unrespectable person. Emigration is like life for him” (qtd. in Khisbak 24). In fact, to live in a homeland as a stranger is of no use. The country where one lives, loves and is loved is his home, even if it is not his hometown that deprives him of his humanity since the first moment. Unlike some immigrants of other countries who immigrate to achieve a particular goal and as soon as the goal is achieved, he is back home to continue his career.

The hesitation of Yemeni immigrant to return home may be attributed to the fact that the homeland becomes exile. Abdullah Al-Baradoni, the conscience of his society???, adds that saying:

My country grieves.
In its own boundaries
And even on its own soil
Suffers the alienation of exile. (Jalyyusi 158)

Yemen before Unification (1990)

Having a look at the history of Yemen before unification (1990) is significant for the study. Yemen before 1990 was divided into two parts: the north and the south. The former was ruled by the Turkish (Othman) (1511-1918), while the south was occupied by the British occupation (1839-1969). As the Turkish quitted leaving Yemen a waste land, the throne was assumed by the imamate regime (1904-1962) known as The Mutwakala kingdom. Yemen during Mutwakala was referred as an “isolated country” (Regt 3).

In this regard, Al-Baradoni, in *From exile to Exile*, expresses his frustration at homeland dominated by the theocratic regime as follows:

My country is handed over from one tyrant,
to the next a worse tyrant;
From prison to another,
From one exile to another (Jalyyusi 157)

Both imams (Yahiya & Ahmad) “intentionally isolated Yemen from the rest of the world, particularly from western countries to preserve their own position” (Regt 3-4) turning Yemen to a world that has been vividly portrayed by Burrowes’s words in *Introduction: Historical Background* as:

On the eve of 1962 revolution, North Yemen was one of the world’s last extant conservative Islamic societies...devoid of piped water surfaced roads, motor vehicles and engine, electricity, telephones or radio-matchless the modern ideas and institutions that go with these things, at the down of the space age. (Burrowes 2)

They ruled the country in the name of religion and that the selection of the rulers is a divine duty which means the citizens have no right to object. It is God’s duty to remove the ruler. The right of primogeniture was introduced for the first time by Imam Yahiya. Thus, Ahmad succeeded his father, Yahiya after his death. Out of this agony, a liberation movement is created and was successfully accomplished only in 1962 to overthrow the regime. The turbulent life and anarchy prevailed at that period led people latent with melancholy and fear to immigration as their last hope. Through Aden, the only gate to the outer world, they immigrate carrying with them the ordeal of their homeland.

Immigration – A Major Concern

Immigration has become the concern of the writers, the scholars, the intellectuals and the artists who know well what immigration does mean. Abdul-Aziz Al-Magaleh, a great modern poet feels that immigration is “the problem of all problems” (qtd.in Khisbak 21). He adds: “Emigration is the central –issue of each novelistic work that appeared in Yemen” (21). Amongst of the outstanding literary figures who address immigration in their work is Muhammad Abdulwali, a well known novelist born in (Ethiopia). It is stated that “Many of his works deal with Yemeni immigrants and exiles and the fate of Yemeni–African marriages”

(Wikipedia). Like other writers, he expresses the bitterness of immigration and how Yemeni citizens are being burnt of injustice and oppression at their homeland.

Azizah Abd Allah and Her Writings

Azizah Abd Allah is not different from the rest of the novelists who find immigration as the last shelter of their protagonists. Yet, her protagonist is introduced distinctively from the point of view of a female writer (Khisbak 23). Like some Arab novelists who have been concerned with the encounter with the west, Azizah places her protagonist in the west, but the treatment has a different color and flavor, for “All the representations of the west that have been considered so far have been creations of male writers” (El-Enany -185).

The protagonist of Azizah is not educated as those protagonists of other Arab writers sent for study and his top priority is to make money rather than the topics of scientific superiority of the progress of the west in the sense that the civilization has nothing to do with Naji, the protagonist. The novelist shifts from addressing traditional topics based on clashes between materialism and spirituality, cultural shock, sex desire etc to topics born out of the historical, social and political evolution, topics of the colonizer and the colonized. An ideal relationship between a man and a woman based on marriage and not out of wedlock is introduced. Such relationship implies reconciliation between the east and west. In this regard, Khisbak adds: “We haven’t found an oriental protagonist married a western girl because that means reconciliation between the two societies except Mustafa Saeed in *Season of Migration to the North* (1967) who ended his marriage in killing his English wife” (Khisbak 43).

1.1 Azizah Abd Allah Abu-Lahum

Abu-Lahum (1945), a spouse of H. E. Mr Mohsen Al-Aini, who assumed the post of prime minister in the Yemen Arab Republic (YAR) for three times (1967-1972), is one of pioneering women of contemporary Yemeni novelists and an active feminist who has played a great role in women’s right movement. She is the first Yemeni woman who was enrolled in school (traditional school) and the first Yemeni

novelist from Bakil, a second largest tribe in Yemen. She was brought up in “a culturally aware environment” and lived abroad and experienced foreign cultures (en.wikipedia.org). However, the welfare and conraindication of power and prestige don’t eclipse her from the image of popular life in the villages and neighborhoods and the underprivileged concerns (Taif 8). She wrote poetry and later turned to novel. Abdul-Aziz Al-Magalih, in his article *Wamazat: Azizah Abd Allah in Her New Novels*, says: she realized that she could not assert herself only through novel.

2. Analysis

A brief synopsis seems to be of great significance as it introduces an idea of what is going to take place in the narrative space. The narrative delivered from the third point of view portrays the dilemma of Naji, the protagonist and his inclination to his beloved, Walia whose phantom haunts him and has proved to cause his downfall. It is a quest for identity: “Naji grows up and his dream to become a man of character grows up with him” (Taif 31). He lost life and humanity in his homeland that provides nothing except shroud a symbol of death.

Amana and her only child Naji left no stone unturned to regain their house and land robbed by the imam’s agents, but in vain as whoever she meets to complain the agents has a relation with the agents. “It was coincidences of bad fate that all those I met have a kinship with agent either a relative or an uncle, or a husband of a sister, etc.” (17).

To survive and to support her son, Amana, Naji’s mother, works with Walia’s mother, a sales woman of bread. At the age of fifteen, Naji immigrates without informing his mother about his destination. He travelled carrying with him nothing except his love for Walia who is older than him and his box that carries his memories. Apparently, Naji travels to collect money to take revenge upon the imam’s agents whose robbery of their house and property causes his father’s death. Yet, in a minute, Naji recalls that his journey is not for money, but to search for his Turkish grandfather. Then, he quits searching and thinks of collecting money.

Naji's journey is a series of agony and conflict as he could not find what his unconscious mind is looking for and whose phantom haunts him. He couldn't settle and work in one place as the phantom doesn't leave him. To escape the ghost of Walia, he marries many times, but he divorces them after discovering that no one resembles his beloved Walia till he met Emily. His condition of marriage is that he doesn't want to get children from his wives. He prefers to marry only those who are older than him. "The odd thing about Naji is that he is inclined to those who are older than him" (48).

As Naji hears about the revolution in Yemen, he decides to come back turning his deaf ear to the advice that warns him of coming back as things are not secure in Yemen and Yemen's future is unknown and risky. As he was paying his last visit to Liverpool, his eyes caught a sight of Emily who seems to be similar to the phantom his unconscious mind is looking for. "God willing" Naji says, "She may be the hope for stability and to desist searching". (73). Spell-bound by Emily, he marries her without knowing or asking even about her name. He puts his neck in her hand as in his dream he seeks for long comes true. However, his loyalty is not returned. He finds himself stripped of all his wealth, disposed of his dignity and honor. Despite this calamity, Naji doesn't give it up and comes to life tirelessly, earning enormous wealth. Finally, he comes back to his homeland where he finds his real phantom and not that one, the mirage, a fake, authoritarian, and the exploiter he meets in the west.

A Local Flavor and Color

One of the features that distinguish the Yemeni novel is that it has a local flavor and color. This trend is not a flaw. On the contrary, it makes the novel more real and enriches the cultural landscape—locally or internationally, as "locality is neither contradictory with nationalism nor the universal" (Al -Sheikh 102). This is true with *Taif Walia* which reflects a wonderful image of the Yemeni society. It portrays the ordeal of uprooted individuals, the problems of immigrants, their dilemma, their alienation and their psychological conflict in their expatriation. This

has been elucidated through Naji, the protagonist who represents Yemen in various symbols. He wastes his youth and life searching for a new homeland where he can find his humanity. His journey of agony and conflict depicted in the narrative appears to be no less than that of Prufrock in T. S. Eliot's *The Love Song of Alfred Prufrock*. Both the characters are psychologically torn, aware of nothing and unable to assert themselves—just escaping into illusion hoping to find a psychological balance.

Coercive Alienation

The story exposes the torment of Naji in his coercive alienation which is his only way to stay alive. Immigration is not optional for work or study, but it has become an actual uprooting as home land is no longer fit for life or provides any future option—politically or socially. The plot is cautionary and didactic as it condemns the political subjugation, regressive situations and oppressive actions that fritter the country making Yemen lag behind. It also criticizes those immigrants who go astray degrading themselves and their country and who still live in the past and illusion.

3. Amana's World and Her Quest

Amana's journey for her son is an extended metaphor of millions of Yemeni people scattered all over the world searching primarily for livelihood, their lost identity, violated humanity and usurped land since the dawn of history. "You are not a lone oppressed." (Taif 41). It embodies the events that took place during the theocratic regimes and the attendant downsides at the individual and community level of which the state of ignorance and epidemic that prevailed in Yemen and the deep wounds which are still bleeding in the body of Yemen. Naji whose name means survivor, Amana's only surviving and deformed son is an image of life Yemen experienced through the theocratic regimes. Naji survived smallpox that plagued the country claiming lives of thousands and causing deformity for the survivors—deformity is nothing but a symbol of the wounds and ailing regime that reminds people of the achievement of the dark and extinct regimes that turn people into servants. Naji's face infected with the blister reminds people of the dark age that disfigures the beautiful

face of Yemen classically well-known as Arabia Felix. People whose rights and property are robbed and their lives are endangered find themselves homeless and displaced and this has been shown through Amana who “began passing on the houses hoping to find those who accept her as a handmaid” (19). Amana here symbolizes millions of Yemeni people (despoiled by the forces of injustice) who are hanging out from one country to another humiliated working in menial jobs to support their family in Yemen. Moreover, education had no place as it was seen as “something harmful not necessary” (294). The writer depicts the policy of isolation adopted intentionally by the regime to as not to disclose the ugly face and backwardness of the ruling family so people remain slaves to them. The regime did not only deprive people of enlightenment and civilization, but also deluded people that there is no world beyond Yemen.

A Cut Off Tree

Amana, seen as “A cut off tree who has neither relative nor friend” (21), is nothing but a touching image of the isolation policy that amputated Yemen from the world. The government becomes a private property ruled by the ruling family while the common people are enough for them to be servants of the imam. Losing hope in theocratic regime, people turn to jugglers and astrologists who took advantages of people’s ignorance, hoping to find solutions to their problems as happens with Amana who leaves no jugglers or wizards unvisited with a hope to find news about Naji.

Society - Sadat class

The narrative raises the topic of Sadat class whose men are called Sayyed (master) while their women are called Sharefa (honorable). This means the lady who doesn’t belong to that class is not honorable. Marriage takes place only within the class. The power of Imam Yahiya, Sayyed himself gave many Sayyed families a state in a state while common people, like Amana, have no rights even to have shoes and clean clothes as this reflects the awareness of people, the matter that threatens the imam throne. The imam’s agent accuses Amana of theft as her clothes are always clean and she is not bare-footed like those who frequent his house (Taif 29).

Amana's journey of search for Naji who represents her legal right as a citizen comes to a dead end. Though the reality doesn't bode well, she doesn't lose hope or care for what others say about her, accusing her of insanity. She is sure that her son would come back to her one day (43) which means rights would return to their owners sooner or later. This is a call to all people to remember "if winter comes can spring be far behind". Amana whose name means tranquility assures people of regaining rights, but this demands determination, struggle and facing the reality.

What has been mentioned above shows that Aum Naji (Mother of Naji), Amana represents a positive image of the crushed mother who does not escape from the ghost of imam and faces it boldly. She rejects to surrender to the compelling circumstances and faces them by all values of work, knowledge and social women's participation. Going beyond the limitations imposed by the society, carries symbolic implications of change, revolution and the awareness of female writer of her role.

Also, Ghalia, Amana's mother whose name means expensive, is of great significance. Her name suggests that homeland is priceless and irreplaceable. This is clear when she refuses categorically to travel with her Turkish husband and clutches on the land as she arrives at the port (21-22). She "puts her hand on her forehead in order to protect her eyes from the glare of the sun" (22). This represents women's power to resist and endure all types of predicaments comparing to men who find shelter in immigration.

The novelist depicts Yemen encapsulating homeland in the image of Ghalia who struggles to assert herself whereas the political regime is compared to the scorching sun that burns all causes of life and civilization. It seems that the novelist who expresses her contempt of immigration inspires people to follow the footsteps of women and to encounter the reality courageously.

4. Naji's Quest for Walia

Naji's seeking for Walia represents the Yemeni youth whose dream of immigration dominates their illusion and seems to be a panacea for changing their lives. His quest is a metaphor of the uprooting youth who escape reluctantly from the ghost of autocratic regimes to expatriation hoping to find a new homeland that preserves their humanity and dignity and their readiness to sacrifice anything in return for alternative homeland. Apparently Naji's search for his Turkish grandfather stands for Turkish Empire that quit Yemen after its defeat in the WW1. This implies Yemeni's desire for the return of the Turkish that was lesser evil than Imamate regime. Yet, the quest is for immortal glory that is over and has no place except in history books. Losing hope in finding his grandfather, he concentrates on collecting money, while his unconscious mind searches for Walia.

Under the psychological, social and political pressure, Naji resorts to dream hoping to achieve a psychological balance with his unquiet reality. Monologues, flashback, daydreams are employed a lot, so the depth of suffering and anxieties are disclosed which concern all Yemeni people as Naji is Yemen in various symbols.

During his alienation, the phantom of Walia haunts him. On the contrary, "The phantom of Walia no longer visits him after he stepped his foot on homeland" (Taif 162). This implies that Naji's unconscious search is not for Walia, but for a homeland and Walia whose name means state is merely a cover employed by the writer in a way that entertains the reader. The novelist intentionally uses the name to show the love of a person to his beloved, homeland. Thus, Naji and Walia embody the strong relationship between the homeland and a citizen.

The title of the narrative is apt and significant. It has a spatial implication. Walia means state or place while phantom is an image or illusion that longs for a place. Walia may be an original homeland the writer craves for wherever she goes and the phantom is of homesickness, repressed desire that appears on the surface as a result of deprivation. Thus, the title recaps the whole novel and the essential idea of the novel.

When Naji immigrates, he travels with the agony of his homeland carrying with him "torhah" (a piece of cloth from Walia), the only thing that reminds him of his homeland, just painful memories and a box. The Torhah may suggest shroud, as

immigration (that can keep one alive but without soul) for the Yemeni immigrant is as eternal as death. The box stands for stereotypical thinking and to get out of it one has to change the way of thinking, the assumption and postulates that dwell in the mind. Abass Al-dialmy, in his introduction to the narrative, refers to this matter saying it deals with the most important feature that characterizes Yemen society represented by alienation blended with residue of ignorance and backwardness (Taif 8- 9). Changing mentality requires thinking outside the box. Sticking to the past that doesn't deserve to be remembered leads to downfall and this is what happens with Naji who doesn't change.

The writer, through Naji, wanders though we are in the world of modernism, but history says nothing has changed in Yemen. Naji's favorite for old women can be inferred as he couldn't get rid of his past and wants to repeat his past with all its details, his past love story for Walia. Through Naji, the novelist sends a timeless message to revolutionaries all over the world to get rid of the mental reprisal that destroys nations rather than builds.

Naji's concern to collect money to take revenge upon the children of the agents (52) who seized his house will be a dagger in the body of the nation as vengeance establishes the principle of malice and hatred while adopting the philosophy of tolerance and forgiveness constructs civilizations.

Through the plot, the novelist introduces an image of immigrants who are involved in menial work and how their income sent back to Yemen is wasted in the court over trivial disagreement, or misused in Qat, etc. The writer wants to say why people don't start from zero in their homeland as they do abroad as many people face difficulties and problems in their livelihoods and intellectual beliefs, but they manage to face these and get their goal without escaping to immigration. Azizah indirectly expresses her contempt of emigration and aims at inspiring patriotism. It is also a cry against the sustained conditions that fragmentize the state.

5. Encounter between East and West

Hopelessness of the goodness of Yemen as "Yemen's future is unknown" and it "will encounter problems and long wars" (67) and that the reality doesn't bring good

news, has made Naji “accepted a humiliated life and deludes himself” (126). He travels in quest of an alternative homeland till he meets Emily, an English lady whose name suggests hope. Naji who stands for the West finds himself infatuated by Emily who stands for the West that appears to be his last hope and the savior. Immediately, he marries Emily and wants to get children from her, while he refuses to get children from his former wives. This means Naji becomes sure that the situation in Yemen is not propitious. He married her despite all her flaws and becomes a slave for her “I will do everything and you only pay attention to the accounts” (88). In fact, his sense of the strength of the West to make the impossible possible and that he is inferior to her makes him leave his fate in her hands sacrificing all his inherited culture, traditions, customs, and reputation to satisfy her. Yet, he “found himself facing the same destiny encountered by his mother in Zabid” (14) which hints that the colonizer and the theocratic regimes are two faces of the same ugly face of injustice.

Emily represents the West that implants illusion for immigrants who dream of a new life, but it eats them brutally and that the slogan of humanity and freedom advocated by the West is just bubbles. She embodies the colonial vision as she imposes her conditions on Naji regarding his relations with others. This colonial vision intervenes and shapes the West relationship with the others. The colonialism looks at the East as a means to achieve its wishes, then “threw him on the road such like a black trash bag” (14). Through Emily, the narrative discloses the relationship based on little respect and too much superiority and prides “you know nothing about this matter” (99). It records the colonial face of the West represented by France and Britain and the impact they left in the conscious and sub-consciousness of the Arabs. Emily’s mockery of Naji’s pockmarked face and his colorless eyes (126) reflects her deeply rooted feeling of superiority over everything Eastern, seen inferior and backward. Melting in Western identity and Naji’s attempt to reincarnate the Western figure terminate with the end of profit and this means that Naji is merely Eastern.

The novel space is a symbol of technology that burns the Arab countries. It suggests that colonization is still present in one way or the other despite the

revolutions and impossibility of living together with the west that mounts on the treachery and betrayal, even if one treats them with all love and esteem. The possibility of co-existence could be, only if the other is sincere. The novelist shatters the idealism of the western civilization and urbanization.

Through Naji, Azizah portrays the nature of the Arab as if they are good by nature, especially when they are treated kindly. Naji's marriage shows the good intention and deep desire for reconciliation with the West. The novelist through marriage may want to say it is time for the West and the East to look for the point that establishes a strong relationship between them and this can be achieved through getting rid of the transmitted impression and to turn a new leaf. It is also a call for both the Western and Eastern writers and researchers to search for things that set up coexistence.

5. Civilization Shock

The shock doesn't occupy a large space in *Taif Walia* as compared to the work of other Arab writers. This is one of the features of Yemeni novel (Khisbak 33). As already mentioned, western prosperity and civilization have nothing to do with the uneducated Naji whose top priority is collecting money. However, this marks the beginning of the change in the opinion of the Arab writers who were spellbound by anything western. After the stages of infatuation and shock that expose Naji to humiliation and degradation, Naji comes back to look for his identity, the East which is his refuge after the West discards him. He realizes later that the alternative homeland is devil (Taif 127). This means the homeland which is irreplaceable is not a place, but a soul that lives within us.

6. Conclusion

The narrative abounds with hot and haunting questions such as question of identity, war and its consequence, policy, illusion, homeland, passion, but it is primarily concerned with immigration, a long standing problem that almost has taken away the youth from every house in Yemen and nostalgia for homeland. The character

of Naji portrays the reality of Yemen as a whole. The traumatic experience of bereavement and oppression a Yemeni emigrant faces in Yemen makes him stop thinking about return and accept the alienation with all its shortcomings. The dilemma and the case of contradiction experienced by Naji, his escape to illusion, his nostalgia to homeland, desire to take revenge on those who abused him and on those who did good to him, show the psychological state of the immigrant. Naji's quest for Walia and the strong relationship between Naji and Walia embody the relationship between a citizen and his homeland. The narrative is a cry against the permanence of the regressive situations that fragmentizes the country and a call to face the reality boldly and this can be done through release from the past that causes downfall and to think outside the box. The novel tackles a timeless message addressing the revolutionaries all over the world to get rid of the precept of reprisal that rends the country and expatriates and displaces citizen and to adopt a philosophy of tolerance and forgiveness that instills patriotism. The future doesn't abode well and escaping into alienation will not provide one with life. The study illustrates the illusion of immigration that dominates the youth who are victimized by the propaganda of freedom, dignity, humanity advocated by the West and how Abu Lahum dashes down the ideal face of the West that hides the masked exploitation for the others. The ideal relationship based on marriage is a message to all that it is time to search for things that join and this can be achieved through turning a new leaf, getting rid of the sediment that lives at the back of the mind and through sincerity. The multiplicity of the themes shows the awareness of the Yemeni female novelist of her homeland issues and her role in addressing them.

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Aziza Abdullah’s *Taif Walia (Phantom of Walia)*: A Critical Reading

A Comparative Study of Lexical Cohesive Devices Used by L1 and L2 Urdu Speakers

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Abstract

The study reports a comparative study of use of lexical cohesive devices by L1 (Urdu as a first language) and L2 (Urdu as a second language) speakers through detailed analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data. The data is obtained from 11 Urdu television programmes based on current affairs. The duration of the conversations is 120 minutes per conversation. The study reveals the differences between the use of cohesive devices in terms of type and degree by L1 and L2 speakers of the Urdu language. Results show that L1 speaker is a proficient user of cohesive devices such as, collocation and synonym to build up the conversation in an effective way while repetition is the most utilized category by L2 speaker.

Key words: Cohesion, lexical cohesive devices, EFL/ESL learning.

Introduction

Almost all language users practice different cohesive ties in their verbal or written discourse. However, the degree of the use of these cohesive devices depends upon the proficiency of the speaker of the particular language. Cohesion analysis can provide the ratio for the usage of lexical cohesive devices. This study aims to analyze lexical cohesion in the conversation of two speakers of Urdu. Two case studies are used, in the first, the speaker's first language is Urdu as (L1) and in the second, the speaker utilizes Urdu as a second language (L2). In this study, two conversations, each of 120 minutes, are observed to evaluate the process of textualization in speech by comparing the use of lexical cohesive terms. The study explores the

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Saadia Rasheed, M.Phil. Applied Linguistics and TESOL, M.Sc. Applied Linguistics

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A Comparative Study of Lexical Cohesive Devices Used by L1 and L2 Urdu Speakers

types of lexical cohesive devices in both speaker's data such as; collocations, synonyms and repetition, it also analyses the difference in occurrences of each term. In both sets of data the most recurrent sub-types are repetition, collocation and synonymy.

Research Question

The research questions are as follows:

What are the differences between the use of cohesive devices in terms of type and degree by L1 and L2 speakers of the Urdu language?

How important is the use of cohesive devices to gain native like proficiency?

Literature Review

As this study examines the differences in the use of lexical cohesive devices used by L1 and L2 speakers, the literature review illustrates the basic concepts related to cohesion and cohesive devices.

To understand a language and how it works has been main concern of many linguists. The consideration of the functional organisation of a language enables people to comprehend the language. Words have been used to talk, listen, write, and read and, to understand one another. This does not occur by just one mental representation of the language but it happens with the help of different ties (Gavins, 2007). Multiple vocabulary items have been used to form cohesive, coherent and meaningful whole in a variety of ways, to respond to and evaluate individual language features differently (ibid). This is the cohesion which makes discourse fabricated and knitted, and "what gives a text texture" Halliday and Hassan (1976) cited in Carter (2008, p.144). Halliday and Hassan (1989, p.10) define the text as "language that is functional and functional means language that is doing some job in some context, as opposed to isolated words or sentences". It means language can be understood by the study of texts which may be either spoken or written, or any other medium of expression.

Though, the text looks as it comprises of words and sentences but, Halliday and Hassan (1989) stress that it is made of meanings and these meanings have to be expressed in sounds or symbols. This means text works as a semantic unit when it is coded in something in order to be

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A Comparative Study of Lexical Cohesive Devices Used by L1 and L2 Urdu Speakers

communicated. From this notion it can be implied that text is not only the grammatical set up, but it can be considered from two perspectives, both as a product and as a process (ibid). Text can serve as a product when it is recorded and studied and have constructive representational systematic terms. Text is called process when it gives a continuous process of semantic choice (ibid). Hughes and McCarthy (1998) have also claimed that traditional explanations of grammar do not apprehend real-world texts grammatically. That is why in recent years debates on grammar have moved from sentence-based perception to a discourse-based perception. To comprehend the text, Halliday and Hassan (1989) have studied patterns of grammar and vocabulary that combine to tie meanings in the text together as well as connect the text to the social context in which it occurs; that is, items that combine together to make the text cohesive and give it unity of texture. The grammatical cohesion probes the grammatical features in a sentence and lexical cohesion looks at different vocabulary links of text (Carter, 2008). The patterns of cohesion in texts show the integration of grammar and discourse in a language (Paltridge, 2012). The main patterns of cohesion are reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion. These are the semantic relations that enable one part of the text to function as the context for another (Halliday and Hassan, 1989). To apprehend the theme of the research, lexical cohesion and its sub-types will be described in the next section.

Lexical Cohesion

“Lexical cohesion refers to the relationships in meaning between lexical items in a text and, in particular, content words and the relationship between them” (Paltridge, 2012, p.117). Lexical cohesion reveals the meaning in a text through its lexical cohesive devices. “It concerns the way in which lexical items relate to each other and to other cohesive devices so that textual continuity is created” (Flowerdew & Mahlberg, 2009, p.1). Lexical cohesive devices are categorised into reiteration, antonymy, synonymy, hyponymy, meronymy and collocation. In this paper repetition, synonymy and collocation and, sub-types of collocation; typical co-occurrences (typ.co-oc), metaphors and idioms will be described only since these will be analysed in the study.

Repetition refers to the words that are repeated in a text. “This includes words which are inflected for tense or number and words which are derived from particular items” (Paltridge,

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Faiza Abid, M.Phil. Applied Linguistics

A Comparative Study of Lexical Cohesive Devices Used by L1 and L2 Urdu Speakers

2012, p. 117). For example, I saw a little girl. The girl was happy. The word “girl” is repeated in both sentences. A synonym refers to two or more forms with closely related meanings (Yule, 2006) such as ‘age’ and ‘era’. This is the age of modern technology. Computer is one of the modern inventions of this era. In English it is not decent style to repeat the same word in a text. Both ‘age’ and ‘era’ are referring to the same concept but in a different way. Collocation is the association between lexical items which frequently co-occur with each other (ibid). Collocation may include the relationship between verbs and nouns, noun and noun, noun and adjective such as ‘waste’ and ‘time’, ‘bread’ and ‘butter’ and, ‘fresh’ and fruit’. Collocation is the part of textual knowledge in general and it reflects in spoken or written language of speakers of specific language. The knowledge of collocation is very important for textured text (Paltridge, 2012). Collocation is not limited to a single text but is part of textual knowledge in general (ibid). A writer or speaker of a language draws on this knowledge of collocations as he/she writes and speaks. Idioms, metaphor and typical co-occurrences in the text relish the text and show the in-depth knowledge of a speaker or a writer of a particular language.

Methodology and Procedure

Qualitative and quantitative research methodologies have been used to analyse data. The data for this study is obtained from 11 Urdu television programmes based on current affairs. The duration of the conversations is 120 minutes per conversation.

The data for this study consists of two anchor persons’ programme in which the number of cohesive ties uttered by each host has been detected. These are the talk shows of current affairs, each hosted by one anchor person. One speaker’s first language is Urdu and other uses Urdu as a second language. Some instances of lexical cohesive devices are given in the tables and the results are shown in the main body of the essay. The raw data is presented in the tables (see appendices). The instances of each cohesive device are given in the tables 5.1a to 5.2e. Each table has Urdu words with English translations. Examination of the data reveals the frequency of use of types of lexical cohesive devices such as collocation, repetition and synonyms, as presented in the tables. The subtypes of collocation such as typical co-occurrences (typ-co-oc), metaphors and idioms are also illustrated in the tables. The percentages that summarize the results of lexical cohesive devices of both L1 and L2 speakers are presented in tables 5.3a to 5.4a.

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Saadia Rasheed, M.Phil. Applied Linguistics and TESOL, M.Sc. Applied Linguistics

Faiza Abid, M.Phil. Applied Linguistics

A Comparative Study of Lexical Cohesive Devices Used by L1 and L2 Urdu Speakers

Result and Data

The results analysed from the two case studies are shown in the following tables.

Cohesive devices used by speaker of Urdu as L1

Table 1a Collocation

<u>Urdu words</u>	<u>English translation</u>
Bhata Khori	Money extortions
Aboori Hakoomat	Transitional government
Badnazmi – Badintazami	Unorganized – mismanaged
UmoorTa'epaana	To agree on affairs
Murawajah Asool	Established rules

There are total 30 instances of collocation in L1 speaker's conversation, rest of the examples are presented in appendix.

**Table 1b
Collocation (Metaphors)**

<u>Urdu words</u>	<u>English translation</u>
Farig	Suspend
Bus nakerna	Not finished
Afwahain Garam	Spread of rumors
Gher bhejna	To suspend
Hichkola e khana	Weakening

There are 13 examples of metaphors found in the L1 speaker's data.

Table 1c***Collocation (Idioms)***

<u>Urdu words</u>	<u>English translation</u>
Palda Bhaari	Balance tilted in favour
Takhta ulatna	To take over government
Afwahoon main jan	To make rumors true
Haq main wazan dala	To give favour
Naqsha badelna	To make the drastic change (positive sense)

There are 11 samples of idioms found in the L1 speaker's data.

Table 1d Synonyms

<u>Urdu words</u>	<u>English translation</u>
Hatana – Tabdeeli	Remove – change
Khatam-Kardia	Complete – stop – finish
Shandar – Zabardast	Stupendous – very good
DotokeAndaz,bermela	To the point tone
Badnazmi – Badintazami	Mismanagement – unorganized

Total of 43 synonyms are analyzed in the L1 speaker's data.

Table 1e***Repetition***

<u>Urdu words</u>	<u>English translation</u>
Yaksar Tabdeel	Change all together

Faisla	Decision
Yaksar Mustarad	Reject all together
Sab say Aham Kirdar	Most important of all
Hawalae	Reference

Total of 30 instances of repetition are studied in the L1 speaker's data.

Cohesive devices used by speaker of Urdu as L2

Table 2a Repetition

<u>Urdu words</u>	<u>English translation</u>
Rabta	Contact
Riyasti	State
Wafaq	Federal
Sabeq	Lesson
Siyasi	Political

115 instances of repetition are observed in the L2 speaker's data.

**Table 2b
Collocation**

<u>Urdu Words</u>	<u>English Translation</u>
Afwahenphelana	Spread news
Isharaedena	To give hint
Ageeb o greeb	Strange
Gupshup	Talk
Baligunnazar	Mature

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A Comparative Study of Lexical Cohesive Devices Used by L1 and L2 Urdu Speakers

Total number of 10 typical co-occurrences is analyzed in the L2 speaker's data.

Table 2c

Idioms (Collocation)

<u>Urdu words</u>	<u>English translation</u>
Denka baja dia	To beat the drum (to be famous)
Hewa chal peri	Trend
Turep ka patta	Trump card
Mored e ilzam therana	To blame
Such ugelna	To tell truth

9 idioms are explored in the L2 speaker's data.

Table 2d

Metaphors (Collocation)

<u>Urdu Words</u>	<u>English Translation</u>
Syasi Qad	Political image
Tor nikala	To solve the problem
Azmoodaghorae	Experienced horse for experienced person
Isharaedena	To give hint

4 instances of metaphors are studied in L2 speaker's data.

Table 2e

Synonyms

<u>Urdu words</u>	<u>English translation</u>
negative ansar- rokawat	Hindrances
Lamhafikriya –tabdelikalamha	Thought provoking moment
Hikmat –door undeshi	Strategies
Rwayat –reet -	Tradition
Jamatbadalna – wafdaribadalna	To change loyalty

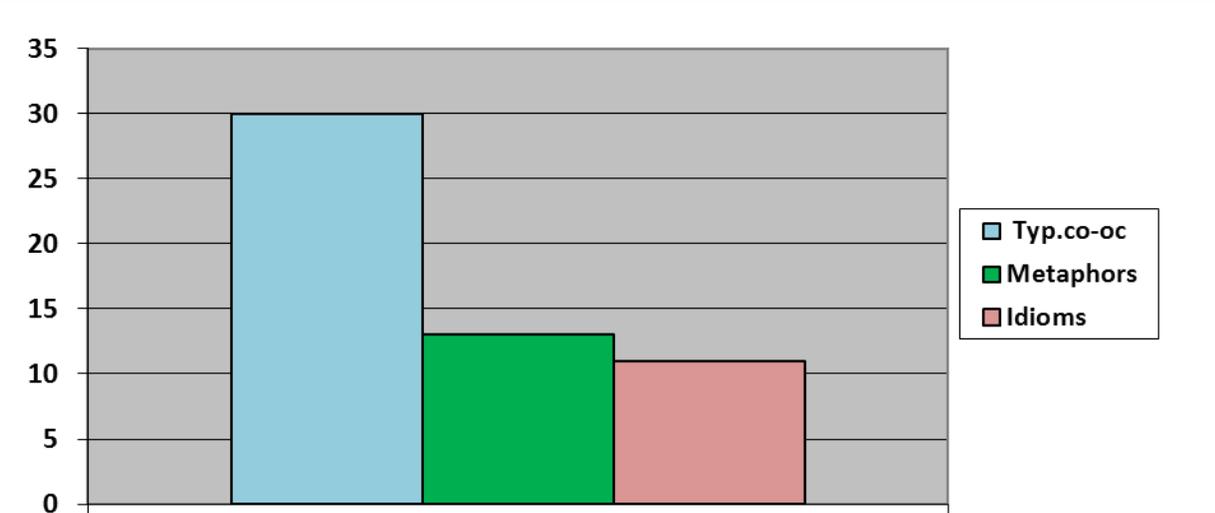
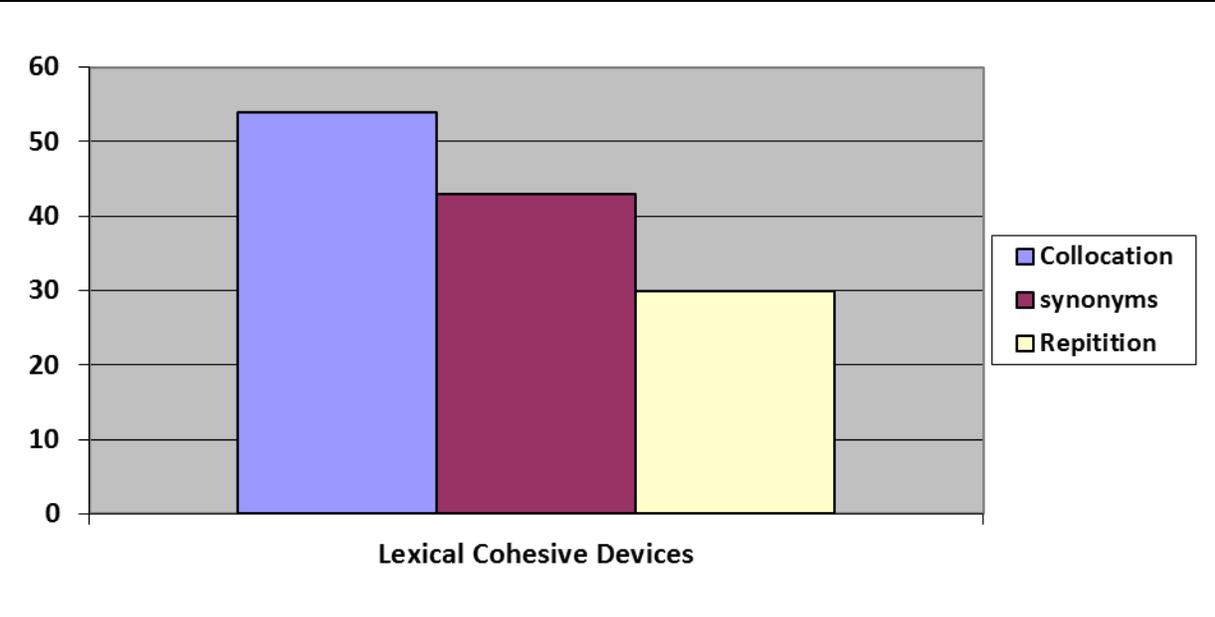
15 occurrences of metaphors are studied in L2 speaker's data.

5.3 Data Analysis of L1 Speaker (Talk time 120 minutes)

Table 5.3a
Frequencies of Lexical Cohesion Devices

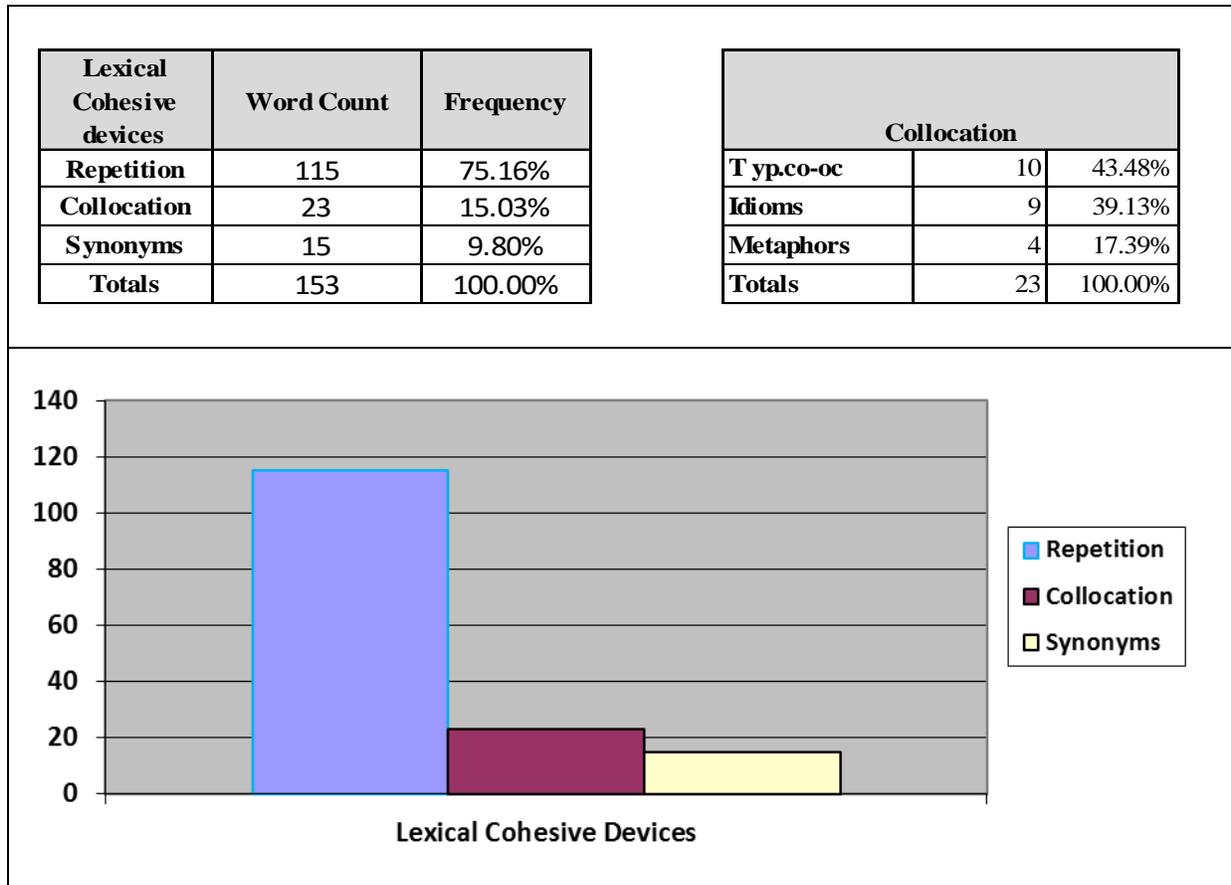
Lexical Cohesive devices	Word Count	Frequency
Collocation	54	34.62%
synonyms	43	27.56%
Repetition	30	19.23%
Totals	127	100.00%

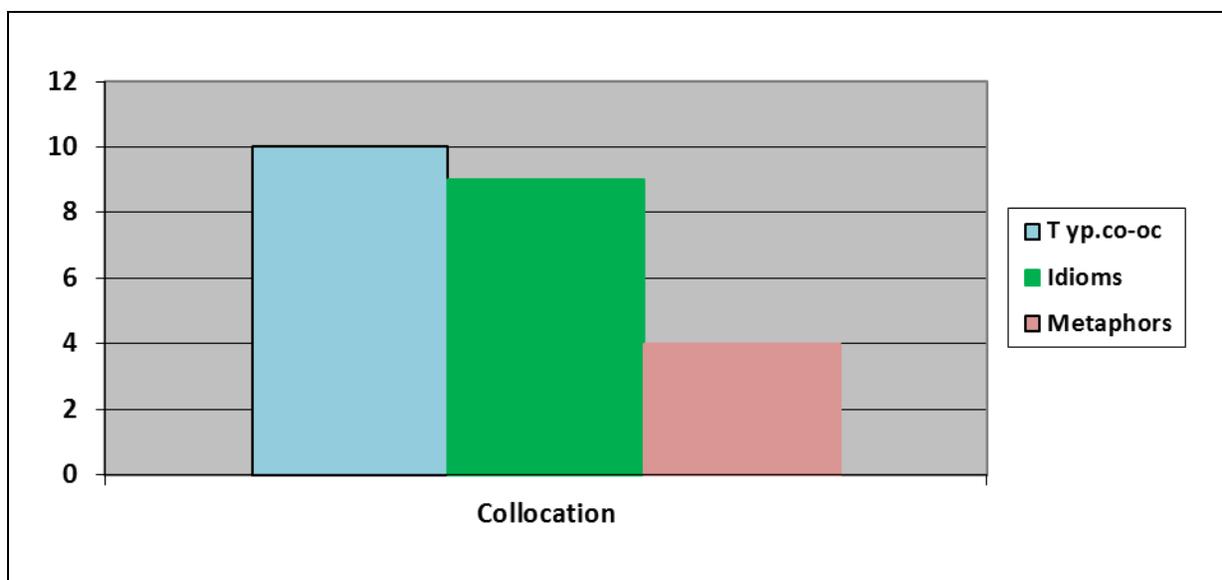
Collocation		
Typ.co-oc	30	55.56%
Metaphors	13	24.07%
Idioms	11	20.37%
Totals	54	100.00%



5.4 Data Analysis L2 Speaker: (Talk time 120 minutes)

Table 5.4a
Frequencies of Lexical Cohesion Devices





Results

The total number of lexical cohesion in Urdu as L1 speaker's data is 127 of which 54 are collocation, 43 synonyms and 30 are repetition. There are 30 instances of typical co-occurrences of collocation, 13 metaphors and 11 idioms.

The total number of lexical cohesion in Urdu as L2 speaker's data is 153 of which 115 are repetition, 23 are collocation and 15 are synonyms. There are 10 occurrences of typical co-occurrences of collocation, 9 metaphors and 4 idioms.

Following is the conclusion from the analysis of lexical cohesion data from the two speakers.

1. In L1 speaker's data, the occurrence of lexical cohesion sub-types is collocation, synonyms, and repetitions shown in table 5.3a. In L1 speaker's data the relative frequency of collocation is 34.62%. Among collocations 55.56% is the frequency of typical co-occurrences. 24.07% is the relative frequency of metaphors and the relative frequency of idioms is 20.37%.

2. While in L2 speaker's data, the occurrence of lexical cohesion sub-types is repetition, collocation and synonyms as shown in table 5.4a. The L2 speaker's data shows the relative frequency of repetition 75%, the relative frequency of collocation 15.03%. The relative frequencies of typical co-occurrences, idioms and metaphors are 43.48%, 39.13% and 17.39%

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Saadia Rasheed, M.Phil. Applied Linguistics and TESOL, M.Sc. Applied Linguistics

Faiza Abid, M.Phil. Applied Linguistics

A Comparative Study of Lexical Cohesive Devices Used by L1 and L2 Urdu Speakers

respectively.

In L1 speaker's data the most frequent lexical cohesion sub-types are collocation, synonymy and repetition and, in L2 speaker's data the most frequent lexical cohesion sub-types are repetition, collocation and synonyms.

Discussion

This study may suggest that the teaching of lexical cohesion to the students of English as a foreign or a second language (EFL) OR (ESL), improves the quality of their verbal and written discourses. The use of lexical cohesive devices gives the text a textual competence which helps in the comprehension and production of cohesive text in discourse (Littlemore and Low, 2006). This supports the idea of practicing these devices to create and maintain conversational exchanges (ibid). In this perspective a wide range of collocations can help to give native like competence in a foreign language. As observed in the data from the two speakers, L1 speaker's conversation contains twice as many collocations as L2 speaker's conversation. O'Dell and McCarthy (2008) emphasize that second language learners need to learn collocation because it helps learners to speak and write English in a more accurate and natural way. People who probably understand what a person means what he or she talks about 'making homework' or someone says his brother is a very high man but the language will sound unnatural and confusing. It does not tell what is meant by high, whether it is his height, or his status within a governmental or corporate organization. Similarly, in Urdu, for a well-known lawyer, a phrase 'choti ka wakeel' (lawyer of peak) is used but *choti ka darzi* (well-known tailor) is not collocated. It follows that learning collocation also helps to increase the range of vocabulary and enable learners to choose the words that fits the context better and have more precise meaning. Learning collocation is an important part of learning the vocabulary of a language because it gives natural way of saying something which may be more colourful, expressive or precise.

Similarly, metaphors are important to learn for EFL learners because the learners are unaware of standard meanings and senses of the metaphors and feel difficult to process them (Kecskes, 2001 cited). As metaphors are spoken in specific culture and context of the target language (TL) so they reflect the culture of that language. To understand their special connotative meaning the EFL learners should know the context metaphors. For example in Urdu

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Saadia Rasheed, M.Phil. Applied Linguistics and TESOL, M.Sc. Applied Linguistics

Faiza Abid, M.Phil. Applied Linguistics

A Comparative Study of Lexical Cohesive Devices Used by L1 and L2 Urdu Speakers

‘afwahian garem hain’ (table 1.1) literally means ‘rumors are hot’, but the contextual meaning is ‘spreading of rumors’. For non-native speaker it is difficult to comprehend it. Similarly, ‘Gher bhijwana’ literally means ‘to send home’ while its connotative meaning is ‘to suspend someone from work’. It means that metaphors help the EFL learners to reveal that knowledge which is not exposed literally by the words. Consequently, metaphors lead to deeper understanding of text. It is easy for L1 speaker to understand and use the metaphors, as shown by his data.

Idioms are equally important in language learning and can be defined as expressions that do not always mean what the words in idiom suggest. Learning idioms may be difficult for students because they are often fixed and not easy to understand. Thornbury (2002.p.127) states about idioms, “They are not easily unpacked and they sound more comical than an even slightly muddled idiom (e.g. I do not want to blow my horn; instead of I do not want to blow my own trumpet)”. Idioms are commonly used and students of English language are bound to come across idioms when listening and reading. Due to the wide spread use of idioms, students must be encouraged to recognize and learn idioms. Most languages have idioms; however, idioms from one language cannot always be translated into another language, literal translation of an idiom may result in misrepresentation of intended meaning. For example, in Urdu, an idiom ‘naqsha badalna’ is commonly used to indicate ‘a drastic change’, however it literally translates to ‘change the map’, which does not convey the intended meaning. Therefore, idioms should be introduced as a complete phrase to the ESL students (Mc Lay, 1987). A good speaker of English language may fail to give a personal touch without use of idioms and may sound too formal. To create a comfortable atmosphere, use of idioms can be vital, and it also indicates that the speaker has a good command of the English language.

Alongside collocation, synonyms are equally important part of any language as they are necessary to make a language coherent, contextual and expressive. Researchers have found that including synonyms in vocabulary instruction is very beneficial for second language learners. Stahl and Nagy (2006) concur with the view that teaching synonyms helps students to grasp a word’s meaning, as it is easy to learn a new word about which learners already have some background knowledge. Synonyms also help to present one’s view in proper context and make conversation more effective. It comes naturally to native speakers to use synonyms based on

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Saadia Rasheed, M.Phil. Applied Linguistics and TESOL, M.Sc. Applied Linguistics

Faiza Abid, M.Phil. Applied Linguistics

A Comparative Study of Lexical Cohesive Devices Used by L1 and L2 Urdu Speakers

context, whereas learners of a new language use a single word repeatedly. For example the L1 speaker's conversation uses three different words (izzat, toqeer, mertaba) for "respect" whereas the L2 speaker uses only one word. The low frequency of use of synonyms by the L2 speaker suggests the need of learning of synonyms for the EFL or ESL learners.

Another important aspect of lexical cohesive devices is that of repetition. According to Johnstone (1987) repetition seems to be one of the first learned techniques of cohesive devices, to keep conversation and monologue glued together. Perhaps for this reason, Hoey(1991, p.51) uses the word "link" instead of "tie" for repetition. In contrast, Crowhurst (1987,cited in Knoch, 2009) argues that high use of lexical repetition in speech reflects the immature repetitiveness of their lexical choices. The L2 speaker's data (see table 2.1) may support this view, where 75.16% simple lexical repetition is observed with no great alteration such as the L2 speaker repeats same word 'sazishi' for 'controversy' more than three times, perhaps due to lack of vocabulary. In addition, 'asraat' for 'affects', 'reng'for 'colour' and 'deabo' for 'pressure' are some of the examples which have been repeatedly used. The importance of repetition cannot be denied in linking words together, but recurrence of words in the L2 speaker's data indicates deficiency of vocabulary and ineptness in use of lexical cohesive ties.

Implications

These results may implicate that due to the lack of vocabulary and ineptness in use of lexical cohesive ties lead to the fragmented text. So these results may be applied for in EFL and ESL learning situations such as, in Pakistan where learners have limited English vocabulary and they are not able to integrate their text as a unified whole. As a result, their verbal or written discourse appears incomprehensive and isolated. Learning a wide range of vocabulary items and the lexical cohesive devices will not only empower learners' writing ability but also help them to communicate verbally in real life situations.

Conclusion

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

Saadia Rasheed, M.Phil. Applied Linguistics and TESOL, M.Sc. Applied Linguistics

Faiza Abid, M.Phil. Applied Linguistics

A Comparative Study of Lexical Cohesive Devices Used by L1 and L2 Urdu Speakers

To summarize, comprehension of discourse, is a process of interaction between the reader or listener in which persons who reads or listens infers meaning from the whole text but not from the separate units. So the cohesive text is necessary for understanding and contribution of meaning (Flowerdew & Mahlberg, 2009). The difference between both speakers' data demonstrates that there is a natural inclination to use the collocations and synonyms by the L1 speaker, whereas the L2 speaker finds it difficult to integrate the text with a variety of collocation and synonyms. In addition, the L2 speaker frequently repeats the same words perhaps due to lack of vocabulary. To develop a native-like competence in the production and reception of any text, the appropriate use of lexical cohesive devices in different order and, with different degree of utilization is vital, as it makes the text intangible and comprehensive. Likewise, it is necessary for the EFL learners to perceive relations of the types of lexical cohesive devices within different texts to make their text tangible and comprehensive.

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Saadia Rasheed, M.Phil. Applied Linguistics and TESOL, M.Sc. Applied Linguistics

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Appendix: 1

2. Cohesive devices used by speaker of Urdu as L2

Table 1a
Collocation

<u>Urdu words</u>	<u>English translation</u>
Ghor o Ghoze	To focus and make effort to understand something
Kaan per Joon na Raingna	To turn a deaf ear
Babang Dhal	Declare openly
Nadir Mo' aqa	Golden chance
Chaan Been	Filtering information
FaislaSazi	Decision making
Firaqwarana	Sectarian

Naqabil e talafi	Irreparable loss
Turah e Imtiaz	Trademark
Man o a'nTasleem	To accept as it is
Geramkhabren	Important news
DilkharaashHaqeeqat	Heart breaking truth
Sangemeel	Milestone
Itmenanbuksh	Satisfactory
Germutanaza	Undisputed
Hikmeteamli	Plan

Table 1b

Collocation (Metaphors):

<u>Urdu words</u>	<u>English translation</u>
Majra	Story
Khawabdikhana	To show false hopes
Masned e iqtardar	Government, power
Faislaekirooh	Theme of decision
Mote kayghaat	Valley of death
UmeedkiKiran	Light of hope
Rukhsat lain gae-gherjaegae	To retire

Table 1c
Collocation (Idioms)

<u>Urdu words</u>	<u>English translation</u>
Doodhkadoodhpanikapani	Black and white
RongtayKhadayhona	To get goose bumps
Hawa main Udana	To ignore the order
Tabar tor	Frequent
Khushi say Phoolayna	So feel over the moon
Ghatlagana	To pursue

Table 1d
Synonyms

<u>Urdu words</u>	<u>English Translation</u>
Sab say AhamKirdar, Sab say kaleediKirdar	Most important role
Tasfia-faisala	Decision
Azad – KhudMukhtar	Independent
Karachi mairehnaewalae – Karachi walae	The people who live in the Karachi, people of Karachi
Hawanahithi-idraknahitha	Have no perception
Asani – Itmenan	Easily – contentedly
Ibtada – Shuru	Start – Initiate
Badamansoobah – Qabil e Zikermansoobah	Major plan – significant plan
Qatal – Mot kayGhaat	To Kill – to murder

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A Comparative Study of Lexical Cohesive Devices Used by L1 and L2 Urdu Speakers

Mutehida – Mushtarika	Collaborative
Aish-taiush	Luxury
Wardaat – Hamla	Attack
Jawabi war – JawabiJhatka	Reply
Ra’ay – Moaqif	Opinion
Falsafa – Khial	Philosophy – thought
Wadae – Khawabdikhana	To Promise – to paint rosy picture
Baychain – Tashweesh	Anxious
Sabr o Tahmul	Patience
Aamlog – Ghareeb log	Masses – common people
SochayShamjay	Thought out – understood
Qatl o Gharat	Killing - raiding
Baatki – Izharkia	To talk – to express
Ma’amool per – Waqt per	As Usual – on time
SaafSuthra	Clean -tidy
Chand Din Kuch Din	Few days – some days
Salah – Mashwarah	Consult – seek for Advice
Ma’aroor – Naamwar	Popular – famous
Itmenan – Khushi -	Content - happiness
Ghalat – Jhoot	Wrong - false
Nishana banana-halakkerna	To kill
AfwahainGaram-afwahingerdish	Spread of rumors
Wadae-khawab	To promise
Pehchana-shenakht	To identify

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Sehra bandhta(as a metaphor)	Credit
Noiyat-kisam	Kind, type
Pata-tawaq	Known
Izzat-toqeer	Respect
Majra-qissa-kehani	story

Table 5.1e

Repetition

<u>Urdu words</u>	<u>English translation</u>
Quaid hizb e ikhtalf	Leader of opposition
Masoomtajir	Innocent businessman
Ferahem	To provide
Mekhsoos	Specific
Ishtehar	To advertise
Jhetka	Jerk
Arkan, Arakeen	Member
Siyasi-siyasat	Political-politics
Ahmiat	Importance
Faida, faidae	Benefits
Sermayakari	Investment
Khawab	Dream

Pehchan	Identification
Mutaref	To introduce
Mansooba	Plan
Muashi	Economy
Intakabat	Election
Heq-haqooq	Right-rights
Germutanaza	Undisputed
Muft	Free
Intakhabat	Election
Jamatain	Parties
hawala	Reference
Khawab	Dream
Karachi mairehnewalae	People living in Karachi

Appendix 2

5.2 Cohesive devices used by speaker of Urdu as L2

Table 5.2a

Repetition

<u>Urdu words</u>	<u>English Translation</u>
Rabta	Contact
Riyasti	State

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A Comparative Study of Lexical Cohesive Devices Used by L1 and L2 Urdu Speakers

Wafaq	Federal
Sabeq	Lesson
Siyasi	Political
Sarbraah	Leader
Mukhalif	Opponent
Lekin	But
Asrat	Effects
Dobara	Again
Shehroon	Cities
Tareekh	History
Faisla, faisla kun	Decision, decisive
Sergram,	Active, activate
Wafat	Death
Sabiq	Former
Qarar	Peace
Muqabla	Competition
Daerker di	Delayed
Faida	Benefits

Table 5.2b

Collocation (Typical co-occurrences)

<u>Urdu words</u>	<u>English translation</u>
Afwahenphelana	Spread news

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A Comparative Study of Lexical Cohesive Devices Used by L1 and L2 Urdu Speakers

Isharaedena	To give hint
Ageeb o greeb	Strange
Gupshup	Talk
Baligunnazar	Mature
Cholidamen	Close relation
Nuktaurooj	Melting point
IskaeSamrat	Its fruits (good results)
Mafadprest	Selfish
Paishkush	offer

Table 5.2c

Idioms (Collocation)

Urdu words English translation

Denka bajadia	To beat the drum (to be famous)
Hewachalperi	Trend
Turepkapatta	Trump card
Such ugelna	To tell truth
Moredeilzamtherana	To blame
Hewakarukhdekhna- kushboosoonghlana	To guess
Serperaaperi	Have to face
Awane sder ki deewaroon sae pata chela	From the walls of president house (revealing some secret)
Aenkasathmazaq	Joke with constitution (breaking

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Saadia Rasheed, M.Phil. Applied Linguistics and TESOL, M.Sc. Applied Linguistics

Faiza Abid, M.Phil. Applied Linguistics

A Comparative Study of Lexical Cohesive Devices Used by L1 and L2 Urdu Speakers

Table 5.2e

Synonyms

<u>Urdu words</u>	<u>English translation</u>
negative ansar- rokawat	Hindrances
Lamhafikriya –tabdelikalamba	Thought provoking moment
Hikmat –door undeshi	Strategies
Rwayat –reet -	Tradition
Jamatbadalna – wafdaribadalna	To change loyalty
Hwaakarukhdekhna khushbosonghlena	– To guess
Mazahemet-lerrai	Fight
Achi tarah guar, soch ker	Well considered
Braanazuq –bare ghambeer	Critical
Khawateen, auretoon	Women
Itmenan,khushi	Contented
Munazzim, Ziada merboo	More organized
Josh - jazba	Passion

Appendix: 3

Abbreviations

First language	L1
Second language	L2
English as a foreign language	EFL

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Pitch Range Comparison between Trained Singers, Amateur Singers and Non-Singers

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Abstract

The study aims to compare the pitch range of trained singers, non-singers and amateur singers in young adults within the age range of 15 to 25 years. 90 participants with equal group and gender divisions were included in the study. Voice samples from each participant were collected and analysed using Praat software. Pitch ranges were analysed and compared statistically and results revealed that trained singers were having higher pitch range followed by amateur singers and lowest range were obtained for non-singers indicative of the effect of singing training and practice in improving the phonatory capabilities.

Keywords: pitch range, singers, professional voice users

Introduction

The human voice is a magical tool which allows people to communicate verbally. Every individual's voice is unique; almost like a fingerprint and can act as an identifier. The human voice is composed of a multitude of different components, making each voice different; explicitly, pitch, loudness and quality. Pitch, in speech, is the relative highness or lowness of a tone as perceived by the ear, which depends on the number of vibrations per second produced by the vocal cords. Pitch is the main acoustic correlate of tone and intonation. The loudness of a wave depends on its energy i.e. greater the energy, louder the sound. Voice quality is that component of speech which gives the primary distinction to a given speaker's voice when pitch and loudness are excluded.

The perception of fundamental frequency and corresponding harmonics is commonly known as voice pitch. The sound of the voice changes as the rate of vibrations varies. Faster rates equate higher pitches.

The vibrations and the speed, at which they vibrate, are dependent on the length and thickness of the vocal cords, as well as the tightening and relaxation of the muscles surrounding them. This explains why women generally have higher voices than men; women tend to have higher voices because they have shorter vocal cords. The length and thickness of the vocal cords, however, are not the only factors that affect one's pitch. The pitch of someone's voice can also be affected by emotions, moods and inflection. Pitch is not only an objective component of voice; research has shown that pitch is associated with attractiveness amongst men and women. A typical adult male will have a fundamental frequency from 85 to 180 Hz, and that of a typical adult female from 165 to 255 Hz. That is, the frequency ranges (of the fundamental frequency) are about an octave apart, for males and females.

Loudness is an perceptual quantity which can only be assessed by an auditory system, including the brain. Perceived 'loudness' varies according to pitch, because the human ear is not uniformly sensitive to all frequencies.

Loudness is the characteristic of a sound that is primarily a psychological correlate of physical strength (amplitude). That attribute of auditory sensation in terms of which sounds can be ordered on a scale extending from quiet to loud.

Voice quality is defined as a production characteristic of voice, and the produced sound as its consequence. Voice quality is often considered from the laryngeal point of view, the radiated sound at the singer's lips does not relate directly to the sound produced by the laryngeal vibration, but results from its filtering through the vocal tract shaped by the action of articulators. Therefore, voice quality is not only influenced by the glottal-source characteristics, but also by the structures of vocal-tract.

Vocal range refers to the full spectrum of notes that a singer's voice is able to produce, starting from the bottommost note and reaching to the uppermost note. In other words, range refers to the distance between the highest and lowest pitches that a singer is able to produce. An untrained singer typically has a more limited range than a well-trained singer, who has learned how to gain access to more notes through correct technique and through regularly exercising and using the vocal instrument for singing tasks. Every individual has their own unique range capabilities, as well, with some individuals being able to develop more extensive ranges than others. In contemporary styles of singing, singers typically

employ amplification (i.e. microphones, speakers, etc.) when performing, which makes more of their range audible and thus usable.

Singers are endowed with an ability which is innate in nature. The quality of ability to sing can be improved with training. Usually, the singers who have undergone training are practised with the pitch control, breath control as well as the loudness control which makes the singing effort more efficient. The parameters of voice are much into consideration while singing, as a minute variation can affect the quality of singing. Especially for professional singers, there cannot be a compromise in the quality of singing as their livelihood depends on it.

An insight into the effect of training in improving the voice characteristics will open more opportunities for a speech pathologist in the area of voice. Research on pitch range as well as the comparison between pitch ranges in different population will clarify the effect of training in improving pitch range. There is a need of comparing the pitch ranges of singers, amateur singers, and non singers, as the research works are limited in this field.

Review of Literature

For singing, especially in the case of trained singers, full appreciation requires pretty much the high quality standard. For the singing voice, a cut-off above 3000 Hz will make it sound numb and impoverished. Estis and Rowell (2011) concluded that trained singers were consistently more accurate than untrained individuals. Howard (2009) proposed that the acoustics of trained singers' voice has differed from untrained singers, the difference is more lies in the breathing technique, larynx position or vocal tract.

The sound of each individual's singing voice is entirely unique not only because of the actual shape and size of an individual's vocal cords but also due to the size and shape of the rest of that person's body. Humans have vocal folds which can loosen, tighten, or change their thickness, and over which breath can be transferred at varying pressures. According to Crea and Watts (2007) conducted a study in relations of singing talent of trained versus untrained female singers and conclude that the onset time for singing talent is different for male and females.

The primary method for singers to accomplish this is through the use of the Singer's Formant, which has been shown to be a resonance added to the normal resonances of the vocal tract above the frequency range of most instruments and so enables the singer's voice to carry better over musical accompaniment.^{[11][12]} Hunter and Titze (2010) his findings reveals that the occupational teachers has more difference in variation of intensity, fundamental frequency and voicing that non occupationals.

According to Hiroya Fujisaki (1984), for speech and singing, the voice fundamental frequency is vital for the quantitative analysis and linguistic interpretation of fundamental contour characterises. Chatterjee and Kumar (2012) they trained and untrained rabindra sangeet singers and they found that fundamental frequency is to be louder in trained group. Acoustic analysis acts as an extension of our ears in identifying changes in voice, and also in assessing amount of change and pattern of change in a more objective way.

Ramakrishnan and Prasanna (2015) conduct a study in voice source characterization using pitch synchronous discrete cosine transform for speakers identification and there results reveals that the characterization has good promise as a feature for speaker identification studies.

Balasubramaniam and Bhat (2015) done a study in cepstral characteristics of voice in Indian female classical carnatic singers and they conclude that there was a higher cepstral parameter among the singers than non singers.

The study carried out by Gunjawade and Bellur (2015) concluded that acoustic analysis showed a statistically significant difference for fundamental measures. The larynx is capable of producing a wide range of fundamental frequency and the vocal folds can be set into vibration at different frequency. This is termed as 'Pitch range'. Pitch range is defined as the difference between the highest F0 and the lowest F0 that an individual can produce. It is a measure of phonatory capabilities of an individual. Though way of measuring differed, many have attempted to study this parameter in singers (Sheela, 74) in dysphonics (Jayaram, 75) and in old age (Suresh, 91).

According to Bhuyan (2015) the vibrato and mordent (styles of singing) in Indian popular singers and found the novel methods of analysis for mordent has proposed.

Voice is one of the most sensitive indicators of human physiological and psychological states (Muller, 1991). With increasing age, 'The human voice undergoes age-related changes affecting Pitch, loudness and quality (Muller, 1991, P.2). Arunachalum and Mahalingam (2014) proposed that singers should need a regular assessment and vocal hygiene education.

Kishore and Bellur (2015) done a study on attitudes of Indian classical singers and he conclude that the SLPs has to gives more attention to promote their role in vocal health awareness management.

Maruthy and Ravibabu (2015) carried out an study in comparison of dyshonia severity index between younger and older Carnatic classical singers and non singers and concluded that DSI vary between singers and non singers.

Methodology

Aim

The aim of the present study is to compare the pitch range between trained, amateur singers and non singers.

Subjects

90 subjects within the age range of 20-30 years were grouped into singers, non singers and amateur singers were selected for the present study. Equal number and gender divisions were assigned in each group. Trained singers with minimum of 5 years experience, Amateur singers who have quality singing but not trained or not professionally voice users and Non Singers were included in the study. Trained singers who have below 5 years of experience and Amateur singers who is not professionally voice users were excluded from the study.

Instrumentation

The following instruments were used in this study

- Praat

- HP B4B09PA Headset with Mic
- Lenovo 100s laptop

Data Recording

The subject was seated comfortably on a chair in a sound treated room and was instructed to be relaxed, take a deep breath and to phonate /a/, /i/ and /u/ in three pitches i.e. the lowest pitch, habitual pitch as well as highest pitch that can be produced. The samples were recorded using a microphone attached to a laptop which was placed at a distance of 4-5 inches from the mouth. All the three samples were analysed using praat software.

Result and Discussion

The present study aimed at comparing the pitch range of non singers, amateur singers as well as trained singers. Figure 1 depicts the habitual pitch, low pitch and high pitch obtained from the voice samples collected from non singers, amateur singers as well as trained singers. The habitual pitch obtained was $222.10 \text{ Hz} \pm 5 \text{ SD}$ for females and $151.52 \text{ Hz} \pm 3 \text{ SD}$ for males. Pitch range obtained for each group are summarized in Figure 2, showed that the highest pitch range was observed for trained female singers followed by trained male singers with the pitch range of 349.6Hz and 332.4Hz. Amateur singers showed higher pitch range than non singers. In all the groups females showed higher pitch range than male. The lowest pitch range among the participants was observed for non-singers.

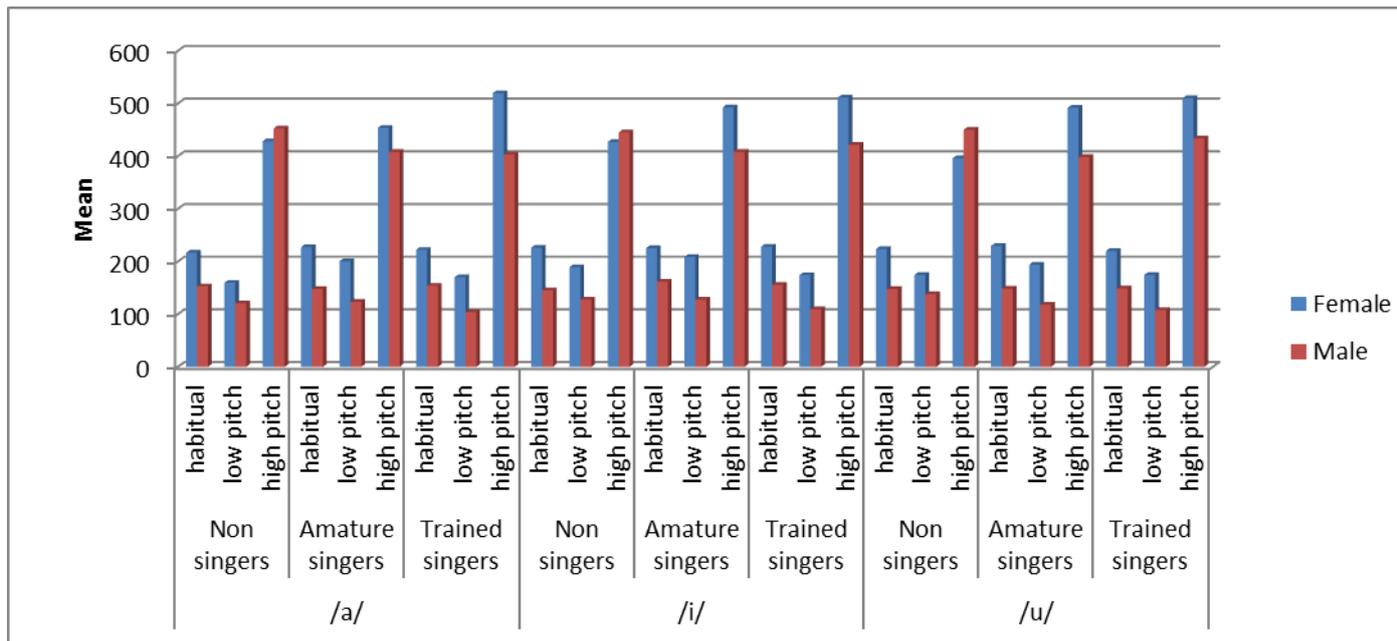


Figure 1. Habitual pitch, low pitch and high pitch of non singers, trained singers, amateur singers.

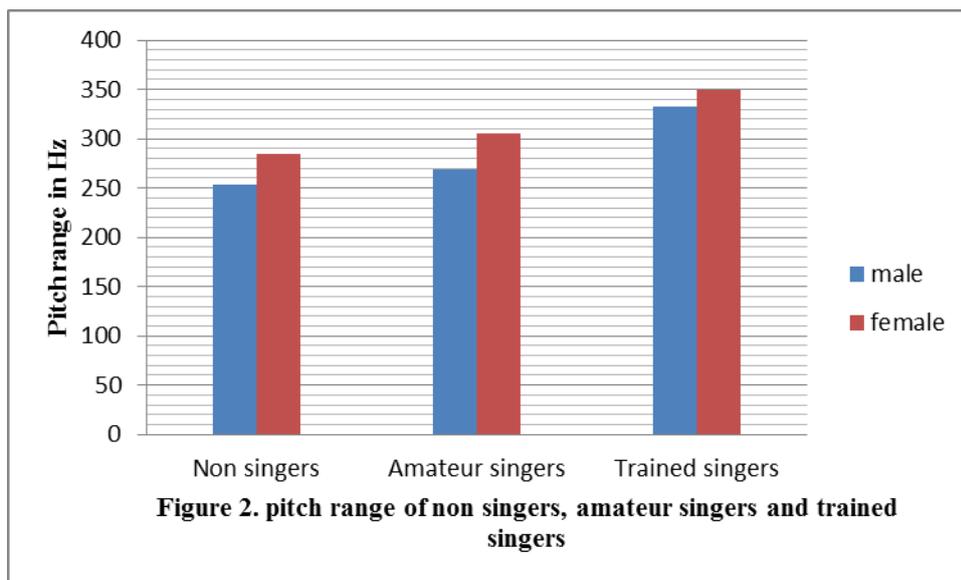


Figure 2. pitch range of non singers, amateur singers and trained singers

Summary And Conclusion

Pitch range is the difference between the highest F0 and the lowest F0 that can be produced by an individual, which is one of the measure of phonatory capabilities of an individual.

The present study aimed at comparing the pitch range of trained singers, non singers and amateur singers in of 15 to 25 years old young adults. The results revealed that trained

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Salimsha Nazer, MASLP and Vishnu, V. K., BASLP

Pitch Range Comparison between Trained Singers, Amateur Singers and Non-Singers

singers obtained higher pitch range followed by amateur singers and lowest by non singers. The above study gives an idea that training can improve the pitch range of an individual. This study opens new insight for voice pathologist to coach singers as well as other professional voice users to improve their phonatory capabilities, and also provide Speech language pathologists to refer traditional singing training techniques and to incorporate into voice therapy for professional vice users.

Limitations

- Sample size were limited
- Age range was limited
- Only a particular group of singers (carnatic singers) were included in the study.
- There were no specific criteria for the selection of amateur singers.

Further Recommendations

- Include more number of samples
- Incorporate different types of singers
- Include different age range.

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The Socio-Cultural Contexts of Recent Loan Substitutions in Kokborok

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Abstract

Kokborok is a Tibeto-Burman language spoken in Tripura and parts of Bangladesh. The basic vocabulary is Tibeto-Burman, descended from a common Sino-Tibetan stock. Additionally the language has acquired a substantial stock of Indo-Aryan loans adopted through several centuries of cultural contact with the Bengali speaking population of the region. Several terms denoting new ideas and objects have been borrowed from Indo-Aryan, with modifications coming through native speech habits. Some words from foreign sources have also been acquired through Bengali. Historically this tendency has been part of the older process of cultural assimilation. However, in recent times there has been a tendency to find native equivalent for borrowed terms and the substitution of those terms in literary usage. The present paper shall endeavour to analyse the processes and also relate them to changing socio-cultural relations and altered paradigms.

Key words: Tibeto-Burman, Indo-Aryan, Bengali, Cultural Assimilation, Loan words, Coinages

Kokborok Language and Community

Since long North East India has been a place of diverse cultural amalgamation. It includes several states, popularly known as the “Seven sisters”. They are Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland and Tripura. These states consist of native tribes, each having their distinct traditions, such as, art, food, dress, culture, dance, music and life styles. Roughly, these states speak 220 languages, belonging mainly to three language families, namely Indo Aryan, Sino-Tibetan and Austric.

Kokborok is spoken by the major ethnic community of Tripura. The official identities of the Kokborok speaking communities are

- The Debbarma and some Tripuri communities using the surname Tripura,
- The Reang community which speaks the Kaubru dialect,
- The Jamatias,
- The Rupini and the Koloï, though allied with the Halam's also use distinct varieties of Kokborok, and
- The Uchoi.

The language is genetically related to Boro, Dimasa, Tiwa, Garo, Rabha, Koch and Deuri; together these sister languages constitute the Bodo-Garo-Koch sub-branch of the Bodo-Jingpho-Northern Naga branch of the Tibeto-Burman sub-family of Sino-Tibetan Language. Outside Tripura, there is also a sizable population residing in Khagrachari Hills District of the Chittagong Hill Tracts in Bangladesh.

Grierson mentions in his *Linguistics Survey of India* (1927) about the richness of Kokborok language. But with the passage of time, the language has acquired a large number of loans from Bangla, Arabic, Persian, Austric and English in the process of cultural contact and assimilation. No doubt, these loans have enriched the Kokborok vocabulary but, at the same time, several old terms have also been lost. This paper shall attempt to discuss the nature of loan words in Kokborok, their nativisation and also the recent tendency to substitute several of these loans with native equivalents.

Indo-Aryan Loans

Through several centuries of cultural contact with the Indo-Aryan/Bengali speakers, Kokborok has acquired many words which have been nativised according to the features of the language. Many old words have been lost altogether. The following is a brief list of Indic loans that are now a part of the Kokborok lexicon.

Bengali	IPA	Loan Words in SSD	Gloss
মামা	ma.ma	ma.ma	'mother's younger brother'
কলম	ko.lom	ko.lom	'pen'
কুয়া	ku.a	ku.a	'well'
দলিল	do.lil̥ do.lil	do.lil	'deed'
কাকা	ka.ka	ka.ka	'father's younger brother'

Table 1

In Traditional Tripuri society, i.e, at the time when the community subsisted by jhuming, the notion of landed property did not exist. The term /do.lil/ entered into the Kokborok language sometime after the Tripuris began to settle down in permanent villages and became familiar with the ownership of the land on which the homestead stood, as well as the land which could be calculated annually or seasonally to grow wet rice in the manner of the plains dwelling Bengalis. The term for ‘pen’ too became popular when the awareness of literacy grew. Mention must also be made of the fact that the native term for ‘father’s younger brother’ is /khrà/, but it has been replaced by the Bengali equivalent /ka.ka/; today, Kokborok /khrà/ is almost obsolete and its use is restricted to a generation that has only a few very old individuals alive.

One of the processes of nativisation is the substitution of the phonemes.

Substitution of Phonemes

Bengali	IPA	Loan Word inSSD	Gloss
পশ্চিম	poʃ.cʃim	po.sim	‘west’
পয়সা	poe.ʃa	pui.sa	‘coin’
জুতা	ʃu.to	dzu.ta	‘shoe’
ছাতা	cʃha.ta	sa.ti	‘umbrella’
কড়াই	ka.ɽai	ka.raï	‘frying pan’

Table 2

The Indo-Aryan term /poʃ.cʃim/ is pronounced as /po.sim/ in KB. The intervocalic consonant sequence /ʃcʃ/ is simplified to /s/. Among other changes, we notice the modification of Indo-Aryan /ʃ/ and /cʃh/ to Kokborok /s/ as in the correspondences for ‘coin’ and ‘umbrella’. The stop consonants are retained but Kokborok /dz/ is more fronted than Bengali /ʃ/. Palatal retroflexes or the so called cerebral articulations of Indo-Aryan are simplified to pre-palatal or alveolar consonants, as in the case of the equivalents for ‘frying pan’.

The next instance of nativisation is compounding.

Compounding

As compounding of words is a significant feature of the language, monosyllabic words are clustered together to form new compounds. Thus, along with the loan word a native word is added to give a different meaning to the word loaned into Kokborok. For instance,

muí.lok (n)

/ \

muí (n) + lok (v)

(vegetable) + (long) = ‘a vegetable having a long structure’ (etymological meaning)

The term /muí/ in Kokborok can be used to convey two meanings – ‘curry’ and ‘vegetable’. In words like /muí.ku.thúŋ/ ‘a raw vegetable’, /muí.mo.róŋ/ ‘a variety of wild yam’, the initial syllable refers to a vegetable. But in instances like /a.muí/ ‘fish curry’, /wá.han.muí/ ‘pork curry’ are used to refer to a curry.

Here, *muí.lok* is a bisyllabic word where /muí/ ‘vegetable’ is compounded with /lok/ ‘long’ nativised from the Bengali term /lao/ ‘gourd’. /lok/ is conceived by native users to be related to /kò.lòk/ ‘that is to be long’; however the form /lok/, which has a parallel form, seems to have being derived from /lao/. In this the KB class term for vegetable, that is /muí/ is added to form a hybrid compounding in /muí.lok/. This feature of compounding in KB will be detailed in a subsequent section.

Foreign Loans through Education and Cultural contact

Apart from Bengali, during the 19th century, many non-native words were introduced through education and cultural contact. The following instances show the nativisation of certain English terms.

English	IPA	SSD
‘table’	ʈei.bl	te.bil
‘blackboard’	blæk, bɔ:d	be.lek.but
‘duster’	dʌstə	das.tar

'rubber'	rʌ.bə	ra.bar
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Table 3

In the first instance, the second syllable of the word/tei.bl/ shows the case of epenthesis where the vowel /i/ is inserted between the consonant cluster /b/ and /l/. At the same time the palatal retroflex /tʃ/ becomes the unaspirated dental /t/. In case of the second instance, the bisyllabic compound /blæk.bɔ:d/ becomes trisyllabic /be.lek.but/, wherein again an epenthesis intrusion of the vowel /e/ between the consonant cluster /b/ and /l/ occurs in the first syllable. Along with the substitution of the phoneme /ɔ:/ with back rounded /u/ in the second syllable, and replacement of the stop consonant voiced pre-palatal /d/ with the voiceless dental /t/. Finally, the first syllable of the next two instances shows the substitution of the back vowel /a/ with the central vowel /ʌ/. Here the final /r/ is rarely articulated in British English, but in KB / das.tar/ and / ra.bar/, final /r/ is prominently pronounced.

Loan Replacements

But from second half of 20th century, Kokborok writers and Literatures have made commendable attempts to find parallel Kokborok terms that could be used to substitute several loans, especially those borrowed earlier from Indo-Aryan and other foreign sources. A representative list of recent replacements is given in the table below.

English	Coinages
'office'	táŋ.nòk
'telephone'	kòk.dùk
'poem'	kòk.lòp
'teacher'	phù.ruŋ.nai
'pen'	sui.kóŋ
'school'	ruŋ.nòk

Table 4

The above compounds in SSD words are nouns and they consist of a combination of a verb and a noun. For instance,

táŋ.nòk (n)

/ \

táj (v) + nòk (n)

(work) + (house) = 'a house of work'

Here, *táj.nòk* 'office' is a combination of *táj* 'work' and *nòk* 'house', two root words which give a new meaning i.e, 'a house of work'. Similarly,

kòk.dùk (n)

/ \

kòk (v) + dùk (n)

(speech) + (string) = 'a speech delivered through a string/wire'

kòk.dùk 'telephone' again consists of two words having their individual meanings, *kòk* meaning 'speech' while *dùk* denoting 'something related to string/wire'. But when these two terms are combined together it gives a different meaning 'a speech delivered through a string/wire'.

kòk.lòp (n)

/ \

kòk (v) + lòp (n)

(speech) + (to adore) = 'a speech delivered to adore someone or something'

In the same way, the new substitution *kòk.lòp* again is a combination of a verb and a noun. Literally, *kòk.lòp* consists of *kòk* meaning 'speech' and *lòp* means 'to adore or in memory of'.

sui.kóη (n)

/ \

sui (v) + kóη (n)

(write) + (straight and long stick)

'Pen' is coined as *sui.kóη*, *sui* means 'to write' while *kóη* means 'a straight long stick'. So, the word *sui.kóη* is coined to convey the utility and the structure of the object.

ruŋ.nòk (n)

/ \

ruŋ (v) + nòk (n)

(learn) + (house) = ‘a house to learn’

Again, *ruŋ.nòk*, the combination of *ruŋ* and *nòk* gives a new term. Here *ruŋ* means ‘to learn’ and *nòk* ‘house’ are two individual words which can stand on their own, but when combined gives out a new word with a new meaning, i.e, *ruŋ.nòk* - ‘a house where we learn’.

Another interesting coinage is the term for ‘teacher’:

phù. ruŋ. nai (n)

/ | \

phù- + ruŋ (v) + -nai

Teacher is coined as */phù. ruŋ. nai/*, means ‘a person who teaches’; a trisyllabic word where a root word */ruŋ/* ‘learn’ is combined with the causative prefix */phù-/* and the dubitative future suffix */-nai/*.

Conclusion

To conclude, Kokborok has acquired many loans from foreign languages in the process of cultural assimilation. This assimilation introduced new words in the lexicons which resulted in the enrichment of the Kokborok vocabulary. At the same time, the process of nativisation also brought out specific features of Kokborok, such as, tones, compounding and presence of certain phonemes which are absent in the Indo-Aryan and in other foreign languages. For instance, there are three fricatives */s/*, */ʃ/* and */h/* in Indo-Aryan. But the fricative */ʃ/* is absent in Kokborok, the same fricative when found in Indo-Aryan words, is replaced with the voiceless fricative */s/* in Kokborok thus nativising it. Such change is observed in the word */rik.ʃaw/* loaned as */rik.sa/*. And based on these features the Kokborok writers attempted to find parallel terms to the loans which resulted in the new coinages.

Thus, we find that the study of loan words in a language is important as it points towards cultural exchange and assimilation of communities living in close contact with each other.

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VHI & VRQOL in Temple Priests

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Abstract

As preachers are risk of developing voice problems, and there is relatively little research found in literature about self-evaluation of voice in this group. Hence the present study aimed to determine the VHI and VRQOL scores in priests. 50 priests in the age of 20 - 60 years were randomly selected for the study. And subjects were asked to fill the VHI and VRQOL questionnaires. Result showed that there was highly significant difference between 4 groups (20-30yrs, 30-40yrs, 40-50yrs, 50-60yrs) for VHI domain scores, and there is no significant difference between 4 groups (20-30yrs, 30-40yrs, 40-50yrs, 50-60yrs) for VRQOL total scores. And also there is no significant difference between 2 groups (>2 & <2 duration of preaching) for VHI domain scores, and there is no significant difference between 2 groups (>2 & <2 duration of preaching) for VRQOL scores. And for year of preaching group there was highly significant difference seen between 2 groups (>10 & <10 years off preaching) for VHI domain scores, and is no significant difference between 2 groups (>10 & <10 years off preaching) for VRQOL scores. Thus, self-evaluation is the best tool to know each subjects perceptions about their voice and its effect on daily life.

Key words: Preacher, VHI, VRQOL, Self-evaluation, Voice

Introduction

Human voice is remarkable instrument. Each individual's voice is unique voice plays in musical accompaniment to speech rendering it tuneful pleasing, audible and coherent, being the

spoken word (Green 1964). Any change in any of the parameters (pitch, loudness & quality) of voice can lead to voice disorder.

Voice is the laryngeal modification of pulmonary airstream which is further modified by the configuration of vocal tract anyone who needs their voice to carry out their job is considered as professional voice users. Professional voice users are also considered athletic voice users because their voice use is more extensive and strenuous than that of non professional voice users “professional voice users are those who directly depend vocal communication for their livelihood. (Stemple, 1995)

Since voice plays a major role in speech & communication it needs to be assessed. There are multiple approaches to evaluate voice disorders. Evaluation of voice disorder can be performed by using laryngoscopic techniques such as stroboscopic, electromyography, imaging technique aerodynamic measurement, acoustic analysis, subjective listener’s evaluation and measures of functional disability that are self evaluated by speaker. In some situation the examiner has to depend more on subjective means rather than objective means. Also studies suggest that objective and instrumental measures fail to assess the level of disability experienced by the speaker as a function of voice disorder. The subjective evaluation of voice problem made by the patient is dependent on wide range of parameter such as individual overall daily function, occupation social and psychological states. Examples of subjective rating scales are, GRABS, Buffalo rating scale and voice handicap index.

VHI was proposed by Jacobson et.al in 1997 VHI provides non standardized index of the subject self rating degree of his/ her voice related problem in three domains emotional, physical, functional. The item was developed from patients statement taken from case history or interview in which three domains using five point rating scale from (0 - never) to (4 -always). The higher the score greater the voice problem (Jacobson 1997)

VRQOL measure is a validated outcome instrument specific for voice disorder. VRQOL is a question and answer tool that has been developed to help the patient and clinician to assess the amount of disability that a voice disorder is causing. Patients are requested to note the

frequency and severity of a variable on a five point rating scale from 1 to 5. (Hogikyan& sethuram1999)

Cohen, Noordzij, Garrett and Ossoff (2008) investigated the factors that influence the self-perceived handicap associated with singing voice problems. Duration of symptoms, being an amateur singer or singing teacher, benign vocal fold lesions, and neurologic voice disorders were associated with increased SVHI scores. Age greater than 50 years and gospel singing were predictive of increased SVHI scores. Singers experience significant handicap as a consequence of their singing problems with certain issues associated with greater impairment.

Spina, Maunsell, Sandalo, Gusmão, & Crespo (2009) correlated quality of live and voice with the level of dysphonia and professional activity. Result showed there was no statistically significant difference between the groups - professional users and non-users of their voices, and they concluded that dysphonia affected the quality of life of all subjects regardless of their voice use.

Tutya, Zambon, Oliveira,& Behlau (2011) investigated that how the impact of a dysphonia on teachers' lives is characterized by the V-RQOL, VHI and VAPP and to analyze the relationship among the information they provide. And result revealed that physical functioning (V-RQOL) and physical (VHI) domains provide similar results, however social-emotional domain of the V-RQOL exhibited more evidently the impact of the voice disorder in dysphonic teachers than the VHI.

Morawska, Niebudek-Bogusz, Zaborowski, Wiktorowicz & Śliwińska-Kowalska. (2015) performed the Polish V-RQOL version in voice professionals suffering from dysphonia and compared with the commonly used voice self-assessment tool – VHI. The V-RQOL results showed that quality of life in dysphonic subjects was lower than in control group (62.4 vs 88.8 points). And they suggested that the Polish V-RQOL measure seems to be a promising quality of life assessment screening tool to detect occupational voice disorders.

Need: Relatively less research has been done on priests regarding voice analysis, especially in the field of self-evaluation of voice using rating scales. Few studies in Indian population with respect to quality of life measures of professional voice users such as types of

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VHI & VRQOL in Temple Priests

singers, teachers etc have been done, but in case of priests this is the first attempt to know their perception about voice affecting daily life.

Aim of the Study

- a). Determine the VHI domain scores and VRQOL scores within 4 groups of priests (20 - 30 yrs, 30 - 40 yrs, 40 - 50 yrs, & 50 - 60 yrs)
- b). Determinethe VHI domain scores and VRQOL scores between 2 groups of priests(>2 &< 2 duration of experience)
- c). Determinethe VHI domain scores and VRQOL scores between 2 groups of priests (>10 &< 10 years of experience)

Methodology

Subjects

50 priests in the age of 20 - 60 years were randomly selected from different temples in Kerala. The groups were divided according to the selected variable such as

- Duration of preaching (>2 &<2)
- Years of preaching (>10 &<10)
- Age (20 - 30 yrs, 30 - 40 yrs, 40 - 50 yrs, & 50 - 60 yrs)

Procedure

The study was done in temples in Kerala. Both the scales were translated to Malayalam language. All patients were asked to fill the Voice Handicap Index and Voice Related Quality Of Life scales.

VHI is a patient-based self-assessment tool that consists of 30 items distributed over three domains: functional, physical, and emotional. The VHI total score ranges between 0 and 120 a high number indicates greater severity of voice problem. The VHI overall score is then categorized as a minimal amount of handicap when the score is from 0 to 30, a moderate amount

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of handicap with score between 31 to 60 and finally a serious amount of handicap when the score is more than 60.

The V-RQOL questionnaires are a self-administered short form patient report instrument that measures the subjective burden elicited by a voice disorder. It consists of only ten statements on voice related aspects across emotional, physical and functional domains. Each patient responds according to the suitability or closeness of each item (ranging from 1= not a problem to 5= the problem is “as bad as it can be”) to his situation. The overall VR-QOL score ranges from 10 to 15 (excellent), 16 to 20 (very good), 21 to 25 (good), 26-30 (fair) and scores more than 30 and up to 50 is poor.

Statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) software was employed for statistical analyses. In order to verify if there was a statistically significant difference among the VHI domain and VRQOL scores with the social-demographic variables such as age, the Kruskal-Wallis Test was conducted. In order to verify if there was a statistically significant difference among the VHI domain and VRQOL scores with year and duration of experience, the Mannwhitney test was conducted.

Results and Discussions

The present study was conducted with the aim to study VHI & VRQOL in temple priests. The obtained data was statistically analyzed and results were discussed below.

- a) VHI domain scores and VRQOL scores within 4 age groups (20- 30yrs , 30- 40yrs, 40- 50yrs, 50- 60yrs)**

Groups: AGE

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Median(IQR)			
					Kruskal wallis test value	p value	
EMOTIONAL	20 - 30	12	1.00	1.651	0(0-2.5)	19.720	p<0.001 HS
	30 -40	12	1.83	2.167	1(0-3.75)		
	40 - 50	13	1.31	2.250	0(0-2)		
	50 - 60	13	6.38	3.305	7(4.5-9)		
PHISICAL	20 - 30	12	1.500	2.5406	0(0-4)	11.355	.010 sig
	30 -40	12	1.833	2.2088	1(0-3.75)		
	40 - 50	13	1.154	1.9936	0(0-2.5)		
	50 - 60	13	4.385	2.5670	4(3.5-6.5)		
FUNCTION	20 - 30	12	1.42	2.678	0(0-1.75)	8.157	.043 sig
	30 -40	12	1.58	2.109	0.5(0-3.75)		
	40 - 50	13	1.31	1.974	0(0-3)		
	50 - 60	13	3.77	2.682	5(1-5)		
VHI TOTAL	20 - 30	12	3.17	4.303	1(0-8.5)	14.364	.002 HS
	30 -40	12	4.92	5.334	2.5(1-9.75)		
	40 - 50	13	4.23	4.640	1(0-10)		
	50 - 60	13	12.46	7.102	10(10-17)		
VRQL	20 - 30	12	10.00	.000	10(10-10)	.000	1.000 NS
	30 -40	12	10.00	.000	10(10-10)		
	40 - 50	13	10.00	.000	10(10-10)		
	50 - 60	13	10.00	.000	10(10-10)		
TOTAL	20 - 30	12	10.00	.000	10(10-10)	.000	1.000 NS
	30 -40	12	10.00	.000	10(10-10)		
	40 - 50	13	10.00	.000	10(10-10)		
	50 - 60	13	10.00	.000	10(10-10)		

Table 1: showing the mean, standard deviation and significant value of VHI domain scores and VRQOL scores in 4 age groups.

As is evident from the table 1, lower scores (1.00, 1.83, 1.31) were obtained for emotional domain in 3 age groups (20-30 yrs, 30-40 yrs& 40 -50 yrs), were comparatively higher scores (6.38) were obtained for 50-60 years group. Similar results were found for physical and functional domain scores, lower scores (1.500, 1.833, 1.154) obtained for physical domain in 3 age groups (20-30 yrs, 30-40 yrs& 40 -50 yrs), were comparatively higher scores (4.385) were obtained for 50-60 years group. And also lower scores (1.42, 1.58, 1.31) obtained for

physical domain in 3 age groups(20-30 yrs, 30-40 yrs& 40 -50 yrs), were comparatively higher scores (3.77) were obtained for 50-60 years group.

And also from table 1. It clearly shows VRQOL scores for 4 groups with no significant difference between the groups ($p = 1.000$).

b). VHI domain scores and VRQOL scores between 2 groups (>2 &< 2 duration of experience)

Groups: DURATION OF PREACHING

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Median(IQR)	Mannwhitney test value	p value
EMOTIONAL >2	25	1.40	1.958	0(0-3)	5.027	.025 sig
< 2	25	3.76	3.811	2(0-7)		
PHISICAL >2	25	1.560	2.1424	0(0-3)	2.146	.143 NS
< 2	25	2.800	2.8577	3(0-5)		
FUNCTION >2	25	1.36	1.800	0(0-3)	2.522	.112 NS
< 2	25	2.84	3.023	2(0-5)		
VHI TOTAL >2	25	4.32	4.598	3(0-7)	2.755	.097 NS
< 2	25	9.40	8.784	11(0-17)		
VRQL >2	25	10.00	.000	10(10-10)	.000	1.000 NS
< 2	25	10.00	.000	10(10-10)		
TOTAL >2	25	10.00	.000	10(10-10)	.000	1.000 NS
< 2	25	10.00	.000	10(10-10)		

Table 2: showing mean, standard deviation and significant value of VHI domain scores and VRQOL scores between 2 groups.

The above table showing, lower mean scores (1.40) in emotional domain for >2 group, and relatively higher mean scores (3.76) were found for <2 group. And there was significant difference ($p=.025$) between 2 groups (<2&>2 groups)for emotional domain. Similar findings were seen in physical and functional domains, lower mean scores (1.560, 1.36) were obtained in physical and functional domain of > 2 group but relatively higher mean scores (2.800, 2.84) obtained for physical and functional domain of <2 group. There was no significant difference

between >2 &<2 groups of physical and functional domain. And VRQOL scores reveals, no significant difference between 2 groups(p = 1.000).

c). VHI domain scores and VRQOL scores between 2 groups (>10 &< 10 years of experience)

Groups: YEAR OF PREACHING

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Median(IQR)	Mannwhitney test value	p value
EMOTIONAL >10	25	.76	1.332	0(0-1)	15.940	p<0.001 HS
< 10	25	4.32	3.625	4(1-7)		
PHISICAL >10	25	.880	1.9000	0(0-0.5)	13.620	p<0.001 HS
< 10	25	3.600	2.5495	4(1-5.5)		
FUNCTION >10	25	1.12	2.128	0(0-1)	4.910	.027 sig
< 10	25	2.84	2.672	3(0-5)		
VHI TOTAL >10	25	2.76	4.428	1(0-3.5)	12.914	p<0.001 HS
< 10	25	10.76	7.764	13(3-17)		
VRQL >10	25	10.00	.000	10(10-10)	.000	1.000 NS
< 10	25	10.00	.000	10(10-10)		
TOTAL >10	25	10.00	.000	10(10-10)	.000	1.000 NS
< 10	25	10.00	.000	10(10-10)		

Table 3: showing mean, standard deviation and significant value of VHI domain scores and VRQOL scores between 2 groups.

The above table showing, lower mean scores (0.76) in emotional domain for >10 group, and relatively higher mean scores (4.32) were found for <10 group. And there was highly significant difference (p=.001) between 2 groups (<10 &>10 groups)for emotional domain was seen. Similar findings were seen in physical domain, lower mean scores (0.880) obtained in > 10 group but relatively higher mean scores (3.600) obtained for <10 group. And p value reveals there was a highly significant difference between the 2 groups. But for functional domain, the p value (p = 0.27) revealed that there as a significant difference between groups, that is lower scores were seen in >10 group (1.12) and higher scores were seen in <10 group (2.84). There was no significant difference between >10 &<10 groups of physical and functional domain. And VRQOL scores reveals, no significant difference between 2 groups (p = 1.000).

From the above 3 tables it is evident that, there was a significant difference for VHI scores between the 3 variables: Duration of preaching (>2 &<2), Years of preaching (>10 &<10) & Age (20-30 yrs, 30-40 yrs, 40-50 yrs, & 50-60 yrs). And for VRQOL scores, there was no difference was seen among groups for all 3 variables.

Summary and Conclusions

Relatively less studies have been done on professional voice users especially in priests in the field of perception self evaluation of voice by using rating scales. The present study aimed to investigate the VHI domain scores and VRQOL scores in priests. 50 priests in the age of 20-60 years were taken in the study. 3 groups were done based on 3 variables: age, duration and years of preaching. Subjects were asked to fill the VHI and VRQOL questionnaires.

The result obtained revealed that there was a highly significant difference between VHI domain score in age and year of experience variables, and no significant difference in VHI domains in duration of preaching variable was seen. And also there was no significant difference was seen in all 3 variables such as age, duration of preaching and years of preaching in VRQOL scores between the groups. Present study also reveals that increased duration and years of preaching group has more impaired physical, emotional and functional domain scores than other groups. VRQOL scores were also found to be more in increased duration and years of preaching group than other group.

Thus to conclude that subtle changes in the voice of the priests occurs due to long term effects of preaching and is possible to quantify the parameters in the professional voice users from that of the nonprofessional voice users, using self-evaluation measurements. Thus, self-evaluation is the best tool to know each subjects perceptions about their voice and its effect on daily life. And also it has shown that VHI scale is best to evaluate subjects emotional, Physical and functional perceptions about their voice. It is also widely accepted tool and it is reliable.

Clinical Implications

This information will be helpful for speech language pathologists to understand emotional, physical and functional domains of voice in priests.

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Silpa P., BASLP, Ananya P C., BASLP, Noorul Huda Kasim, BASLP and Jenny Mevis

D'souza, Lecturer

VHI & VRQOL in Temple Priests

Limitations and Future Directions

The limitations of the study was that the small population. Study was not compared with controlled group and only focused on one group (priests).

Future studies should:

- Focus on other professional voice user group with more variables as criteria
- Comparison between different voice users can be done.
- Using other self rating scales such as vioss, VHI- 10, DSI etc.

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VHI & VRQOL in Temple Priests

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Where the Mind Is Without Fear: Tracing Elements of Psychological Realism in Selected Works of Tagore

Srija Sanyal

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Abstract

An eminent literary figure who reshaped the Bengali literature, Rabindranath Tagore (1861-1941) was probably the first literary persona to have used the psychological realism in his works in a most fascinating yet intellectual way. The products of such an experiment were some of the most beautiful and memorable characters such as Fatik from *The Homecoming* (*Chooti*), Uma from *The Exercise Book* (*Khaata*), Charulata from his novella *The Broken Nest* (*Nashtanirh*) and most notably, Binodini, from *Eyesore* (*Chokher Bali*). Be it that of children's psychology or the complexities of a woman's mind, Tagore has been successful in recognizing, analyzing and portraying them in the most apt yet subtle manner. Consequently, what is conceived is a beautiful array of characters that stand with fearless mind and with their head held high. The paper seeks to analyze such a journey in Tagore's works where psychological realism has been used in a most naive yet concrete manner thus giving a new meaning to the term altogether. Four characters from Tagore's selected works: Fatik from *Chooti*, Uma from *Khaata*, Charulata from *Nashtanirh* and Binodini from *Chokher Bali*, will be analyzed in this context tracing the significance of their individual psyche in the respective stories.

Keywords: psychological realism, Renaissance, Indian literature, realism, individuality, psyche

1. Introduction

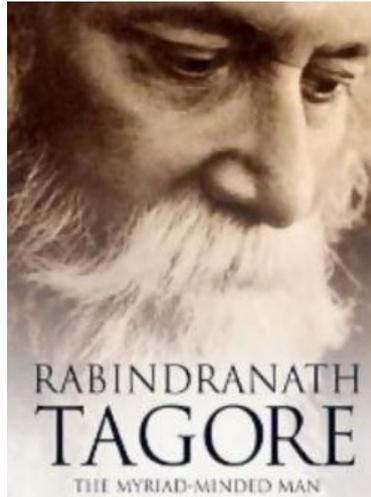
Psychological realism in simple terms can be put as literature of inward human thoughts, emotions, feelings and personality. Starting arbitrarily somewhere in late 19th century the first use of psychological realism is credited to the works of Henry James (1843-1946). Considered as a faithful and consistent depiction of human thoughts and feelings, psychological realism is mainly concerned with the analysis and characterization of the

psyche of the characters in the story rather than the development of plot. Known as psychological novels, texts having elements of psychological realism often have less or no plot development at all; rather all the focus is bestowed upon what is going on within - within the mind of the characters. Since it is a departure from the previous traits of a story or a novel psychological realism is widely associated with the era of Modernism with a number of texts coming up during the time having elements of or completely dealing with the theme. Seeking deep and precise truths about human condition writers from Henry James to Virginia Woolf (1882-1941) reflected the extensive use of psychological realism in their works.

Henry James is considered the father of the realistic psychological novel. His characters are defined by the world in which they live and the social requirements of their society. James's brand of realism explores the psyches of characters grappling with complex social and ethical situations (Realism and Henry James).

While James's characters were portrayed in all their glories and flaws in real life including their psychological and moral flaws, it is Virginia Woolf's Mrs. Dalloway (1925) that stands as one of the pioneering texts in psychological novels defining all the traits of James's works in a more contemporary manner. While with these works of 19th century Europe was digressing from the romantic overtones, a digression was also taking place here in India that opened up new dimensions to the depiction of realism in Indian literary arena. Realism was gaining its momentum as a pioneering theme in literature with an eagle-eye focus on social realism. Yet the element of psychological realism was also initiating its journey at the same time around with its small but steady steps holding the fingers of an emerging shining star of late 19th century Bengal who was to change the history of Indian literature and the perspective from which it was to be seen.

2. Tagore and Psychological Realism



Capturing an entire era all by himself Rabindranath Tagore (1861-1941) had an extremely spellbound influence on his readers even though he has always been subject to criticism for being a way too elite in his writings. Tagore was a departure in lot many ways from his predecessors. Usually written in *sadhubhasha* the Bengali literary texts of prior Tagore were filled with subtle use of literary words and phrases that complimented the impeccability of the literary texts of the times. It was Tagore, who for the first time dared to use colloquial speech in his writing which was indeed a stark departure. His works are more of a conversation between the author and his avid audience hindered by nothing. His songs were pleasing to the ears of both the minstrel and the elite, his stories appealing to the youth of all class of then Bengal for a more rationalistic approach to the freedom movement. Tagore's writings were like the flames of rebel igniting the fuel of vibrancy of the ongoing freedom movement; at the same time it was like a balm awaiting its application to free the nation of not only foreign rule but also of societal malice that has engulfed it within its clutches.

Tagore's short stories or even the novels may not be the ideal examples of psychological novels yet Tagore stand out in the context in the regard as he was probably the first to use the elements of psychological realism into his works. His stories and novels are all filled with man, nature, mysteries of supernatural bizarre, and the mystery of life in general which reflects the mysterious wanderings of the mind. Having a lot of rural backgrounds as the setting of the story, especially the short stories, Tagore may not have the actual experience of it yet it was his imagination of such backgrounds/situations which are practical yet create an escapade for the reader and thus making him successful in his writings.

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Srija Sanyal

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Compared to pioneers such as Tolstoy and Maupassant, Bandopadhyay says about Tagore and the psychological elements in his works,

“Tolstoy is didactic; Maupassant is erotic. Rabindranath combines the good qualities of both without their excesses. He delved deep into the psychology of man and riddle of existence in his short stories which are universal in their appeal” (Bandopadhyay, 2004).

Dominick K V says *“as a short fiction writer, Tagore was a practitioner of psychological and social realism. His stories depict poignant human relationships within a simple, relatively uneventful plot”* (Dominic, *The Magic Charm of Rabindranath Tagore’s Short Stories: An Evaluation*).

The same can be said for the novels of Tagore which definitely cannot be categorized as psychological novels yet carry ample elements of the same. Tagore in this regard has primarily used the psychological realism as a tool to penetrate into the mind of the characters bringing out so many different pictures of one single individual; it is like a platter of psyches residing within one single mind. Another aspect of modernism that Tagore highly reflects in his writings is the Renaissance ideology of man as the center of everything. The characters in his stories were devoid of any exaggeration, they prefer to raise voice, sometimes aggressively sometimes mutely, yet they are not ready to succumb to their fate even if that leads to their ruin, as Dominick puts it *“no character depends too much on God and there is no divine miracle narrated in the stories”* (Dominic, *The Magic Charm of Rabindranath Tagore’s Short Stories: An Evaluation*).

Instead of making a character either good or bad, Tagore skillfully plays upon the shaded areas or emotional flaws of his characters and draws his canvas of words on the passions of his characters. What emerges appearing on the canvas is then a single character with various layers to him/her like various shades of one single color. His characters stand out as eventful in their own existence as they always find themselves in a conflicting point of goodness and evil, depth and shallowness, hope and despair reflecting innumerable meanings about themselves. They are cruel yet at the same time they are kind, they are opportunist yet realistic.

Another element that highlights the psychological wanderings of Tagore's characters is the indispensable presence of Mother Nature in almost all of his writings. The descriptions of lush greens are not just the saga of natural beauty that Tagore narrates but is reflective of the natures of his characters as well. *"Unlike Wordsworth, Tagore never tries to make nature poetic or takes it as a shelter from worldly ailments"* (Dominic, *The Magic Charm of Rebindranath Tagore's Short Stories: An Evaluation*) Rather he presents her in all her unpredictable glory which is fierce yet therapeutic. He creates nature and (man) his characters as the mirror reflection of one another - strong yet vulnerable, kind yet evil. His characters are filled with love, hope, despair, vulnerability, excitement, agony, anxiety - all the abstracts of life collectively representing the essential void of life as well as life at its fullest. The elements of psychological realism are best captured in Tagore's women and children who reserve a special and significant space in most of his works.

The paper from here on will discuss the female and child characters in Tagore's works and try to trace the elements of psychological realism therein.

3. Women's Psychology in Tagore

"From the day when man, refusing to recognize the efflorescence of life and establishing ideals to his own convenience instead, and following those ideals tried to create the woman, seeds of rebellion were sown in the heart of woman since the... since that day when she is denied true potential of woman hood she has also been denying man his complete manhood, as a form of revenge."
(Roy, 2015)

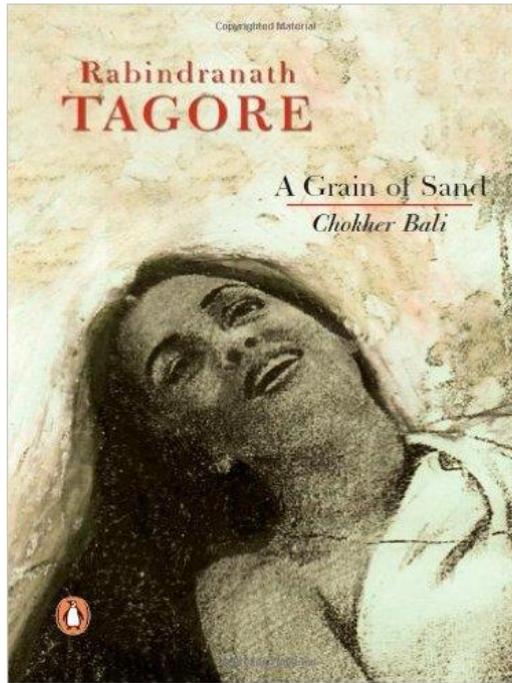
Women have served a great deal in almost all of Tagore's works. Be it the role of that of a wife, daughter, mother, sister or in-laws, women has always been captured in all their domesticity in Tagore's works. Yet, what emerges as the most fascinating fact that Tagore, though confining his women within a societal identity, explores their individual psyche thus successfully bringing the individual identity of his women to the surface.



Representation of widows is probably the most explored and discussed area of Tagore's work in terms of gender. Yet the portrayal of married women is also equally exquisite in their own way. Perhaps Charulata in *Nashtanirh* (1901) serves as the best example of Tagore's understanding of a woman's mind that is trapped within the societal conditions of marriage and duties as a wife. In *Nashtanirh*, Tagore places Charulata at the heart of all the possible happiness that a woman can ask for - she has a loving husband, Bhupati, with a liberal attitude and an open mind, and absence of any in-laws member to play cruel domestic tricks on her. Yet Churalata's portrayal seems to show a woman trapped in an unhappy marriage. As Satyajit Ray subtitled his film Charulata - The Lonely Wife (1964), Tagore skillfully captured the loneliness of a woman's mind within the conditioned framework of marriage. Here Tagore emerges as humanist visionary who is capable of identifying the errors of a mismatched marriage and how severely it can damage the relationship between individuals. The elements of psychological realism can be traced in the entire novel altogether though scattered in bits and pieces. With *Nashtanirh*, Tagore exposes the need of individual recognition in a conjugal bond which is often overshadowed. Though a loving husband, Bhupati seriously lacks the companionship that Charu craves for. With Amal's arrival Charulata's life seems to blossom to its fullest only to end on a note of despair and betrayal. It's not only the man-woman relationship that Tagore's explores in *Nashtanirh* but also the need of love and nothing but absolute love for the sustenance of any relationship that Tagore strongly emphasizes upon.

“In this affluent household, Charu did not have to do anything for anyone, barring Amal, who never rested without making her do something for him. The small labours of love kept her alive and fulfilled”. (Sinha, 2010)

Conceived in alienation, Charu’s love for Amal flounders with the arrival of public space in between them with Amal becoming more engaged with his public life as singer and songwriter. “Their romance is doomed - not, as one would expect, because of its impossibility, but because neither can accommodate the other’s passion for a world outside the one they have created (Anam, 2011).” Though a love triangle, *Nashtanirh* majorly and primarily focuses on Charulata and her emotions. It is a tale of Charu, *bouthan* of an affluent house and of her emotions that reside within the psyche of her mind - something that Tagore captures in the entire novella. *Nashtanirh* comes across a journey of an individual who is “*jubilant, disco-ball of emotions as she passes from infatuation*” (Sinha, 2010), to love and finally arrives at the path of renunciation. Not only her helplessness but Tagore successfully captures Charu’s strength of mind with her denial of togetherness after *anagnorsis* at the end of the tale. She refuses Bhupati’s offer of togetherness with one simple word “*thak*” essentially emphasizing her absence of any guilt or regret in loving a person other than her husband. This one step emerges as bold and revolutionary in a society standing somewhere in between the bygone era and the upcoming era of modernity. Tagore not only captures the psyche but also recognizes every minute details of what goes on within the mind of such an individual who belongs to the rather repressed gender of the society but craves for a just recognition of her existence. By the end of the tale Charulata becomes an individual persona to her readers instead of Charulata, the wife of Bhupati confined within the four walls of an affluent household. Tagore provides Charu with a stand of her own; despite being dependent on either of her two male counterparts Tagore provides Charu with a voice of her own. Charu is not dependent on her husband’s love. Rather she feels the self-reliance on the discovery the true love within herself for her *moner manush*. Though that love is unrecognized yet it gives her the recognition that she could never achieve and realize within the conjugal bond with Bhupati. Unlike a typical wife’s role and duty Tagore’s Charu does not crave for Bhupati’s forgiveness as she does not feel any regret to have fallen for another man, though she definitely feels betrayal from Amal. Rather, she finds strength in her own love for Amal despite rejection.



Same is with Binodini, Tagore's one of the most celebrated, bold, forward and complex character from *Chokher Bali* (1903). A young widow, Tagore's Binodini emerges as an epitome of rebel and unusual courage in the 20th century Bengal unwilling to succumb to any societal stigma prepared for her and many others like her. What strikes a chord of fascination and intrigues the reader's interest is the depiction of Binodini's character, is not only in physical terms but also what is going on within her mind. It is through such depiction itself Binodini comes across as quite a manipulative woman who manipulates the societal norms in her own way to avenge the grave injustice that she feels is done to her. An educated girl Binodini was chosen by her distant relative Rajlakshmi for her son, Mahendra, who rejects her even without seeing her. Consequently, Binodini is married off to an ailing man which all culminates into Binodini achieving the status of a young widow in the society, thus, subjected to the treatment of less than human being and more of a curse. On the other hand, Mahendra is married to Ashalata, the naïve young bride and a contrast to Binodini. Behari, Mahendra's friend, was actually to get married to Asha but steps aside when Mahendra takes a liking towards her. Responding to an invitation by Rajlakshmi, Binodini enters the same house where she was supposed to be married off only to discover her own lone identity as an individual within the marital bliss and companionship of Mahendra and Asha. From here on Tagore moves the plot completely around Binodini filling her with the mixed feelings of hatred and jealousy as she pins Mahendra as the sole responsible person for her own

deplorable condition in the society. This latent anguish makes its way within her igniting the feelings of deprivation, denial and consequently an unquenched thirst for avenging the unjust done to her.

“this happiness, this passionate ardour of the husband was my due and should have been mine. I could have ruled this house like a queen, could have made the husband into a slave and transformed both the husband and the household into something wonderful from the present shabby, silly state. What I was denied and deprived of now belongs to this slip of a girl, this little playdoll.”

(Rabindranath Tagore, 2003)

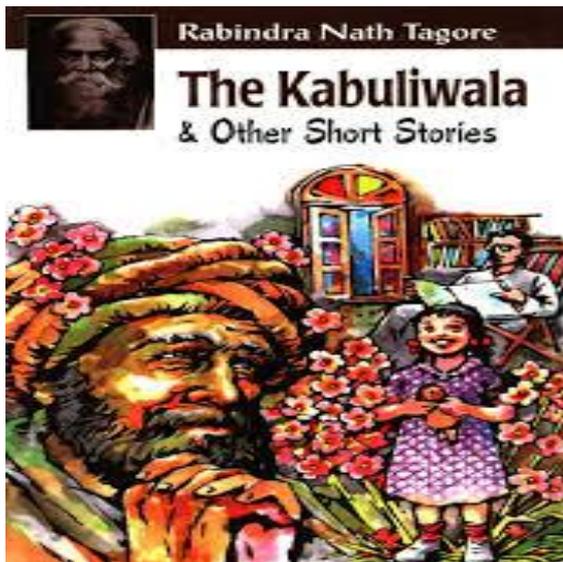
Unaware of the real emotions within her Binodini sways herself to the tides of hatred and jealousy towards Mahendra and Asha’s conjugal bliss. She deliberately manipulates and meddle with their affairs flooding Mahendra and Asha away from the shore, thus away from each other, with her sharp mind, tender feminine skills, and above all, her appropriate display of sensuality. But soon she discovers her own self yearning for not Mahendra’s love but a true dignified recognition of her existence as an individual and not as a widow of the early 20th century Bengal society. Her mastery of manipulation and shrewdness goes hand in hand with her search for own identity amidst the socio-cultural complications of early 20th century Bengal society. Though Tagore leaves his Binodini on a note of uncertainty at the end of the novel yet he succeeds in echoing the voice of Binodini loud and clear into the conscience of others societal beings of not only 20th century Bengal but also for the ages to come. With *Chokher Bali*, Tagore sets the stage for the first psychological novel; for the most fascinating performance of complexities of human mind, the portrayal of which is largely depicted through Binodini, partially by Behari and Mahendra as well. Within the socio-cultural dilemma coupled with Binodini’s own struggle with her anguish and passion, Tagore retains Binodini with her dignity as she conceives a true and respectful love towards Behari which is reciprocated, though not in the understandable societal manner but expressed and blossoms on a transcendental level altogether. With her mind at the centre, Tagore draws *Chokher Bali* around the activities going on within the Binodini’s psyche and its impact on the surroundings within which Binodini lies. Yet Tagore does not let Binodini get lost in the whirlpool of psychological complexities, rather glorifies her on a metaphysical level beyond the mere understandings of the society standing on the verge of a transition from modern to new, thus confuse what to leave behind in order to what new to accept.

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

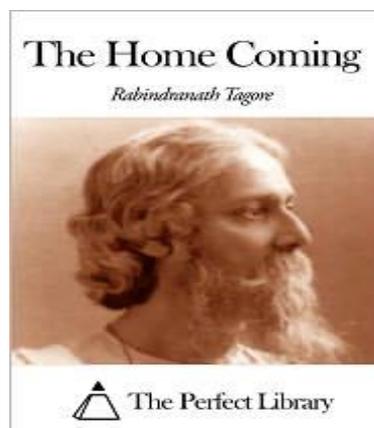
Srija Sanyal

Where the Mind Is Without Fear: Tracing Elements of Psychological Realism in Selected Works of Tagore

4. Child Psychology in Tagore



Apart from women, children occupy a great deal in Tagore's writings, most notably, in his short stories. As a child Tagore himself felt trapped within the world created for him by the adults. Therefore, he preferred creating a world of his own as a child as depicted in *Chelebela* (Tagore, Chelebela, 1940) where the portrayal of the surrounding world is realistic but the colorful imaginative power of a child's fantasy is beautifully juxtaposed in the narration. Tagore's perception of children gets reflected in his works where he would often create child characters with an ever active and ever enthusiastic mind and soul. All the child characters in Tagore's works have been supported with a clear mind which deviates sharply from that of the world of adults. Fatik from *The Homecoming* (*Chooti*, 1892), Uma from *The Exercise Book* (*Khaata*, 1894), Mini from *Kabuliwallah* (1892) are some of the most memorable child characters of Tagore.



Tagore's expertise and exquisite ability to penetrate deep into the psyche of the child is truly remarkable and provides for a different journey altogether through the story. Tagore is always credited with voicing gender issues and the need for woman emancipation. Yet the issues related to children, their world, their joy and their sorrow are the issues which Tagore is equally concerned about and reflects in his writings. The psychology of the child emerges as a crystal clear glass in his works along with deeper meanings of life in general penetrating into the readers' minds. In *Chooti*, Tagore creates Fatik as the central figure who loves to live the life in its free and wild spirited ways. Having a younger brother Makhan, the entire attention that the mother has is towards the youngest child of the house, thus providing Fatik an escapades from both the love and rigidity of parental guidance. This comes as quite normal in an Indian family setup where the youngest child of the house is showered with all the affections and attention of the family while the elder child is bestowed upon with the role of responsibility bearer.

"Parents are expecting an adult's maturity from a three year old child because he is elder. This story could not have been a tragedy if Fatik's mother hadn't been prejudiced." (Naik, 2015)

With the father figure absent from the scene Fatik is thus the male guardian of the family despite having a mother as she being a female is not fit to take decisions. Rather, Fatik, though after a considerable age of guidance received from the woman of the house itself, is supposed to be and will be the *karta* of the house. This societal setup demands the elder sibling to be more responsible in terms of following the rigidity of the conventions wholeheartedly from a young age. It is sort of a practice that a child is supposed to undertake in order to be the responsible *karta* of the house in future. But what gets missed in the atmosphere is the essence of childish innocence that children like Fatik harbors naturally and find it difficult to abandon them.

Fatik is more of a lively child who takes pride in and loves to bully his younger brother Makhan, along with many other village boys, to pebble down mangoes from trees and spend long hours in the village pond while bathing. Though his intentions are never wrong yet he always ends up being the "responsible" person for Makhan's wailings and neighbors' loss of valuable assets like mangoes and other fruits from the gardens. The scene witnesses a shift when Fatik's uncle from Kolkata pays a visit and proposes to take Fatik to Kolkata with

him for his better upbringing and education. Though hesitant at first because of motherly affection Fatik is finally allowed by his mother to arrive at Kolkata with his uncle only to receive a cold welcome from his aunt and his cousins.

But Fatik remains aloof with all these as his eyes were then shining with a vibrancy of knowing the world outside his village. For him the entire world and presently the city, Kolkata, its people and the hustle-bustle on the roads all of which are so different from his village life was wrapped in a sheet of wonder, which he felt excited about and brims with joy whenever he lays his eyes upon. Yet the fate of Fatik meets with a tragic end as he could not find the love and affection that he everyday was welcomed with in his village. Even those scolding of his mother seemed to be wrapped with a blanket of warmth which was substituted by the cold and harsh behavior of his aunt, who is the mother figure of the city house.

The trace of psychological realism is found in its most apt way in the diary or rather the letter that Fatik sits to write to his mother expressing the wish of home-coming away from this loveless life of Calcutta. It is in this letter that we as readers witness the psyche of Fatik opening up in its true self revealing the deep admiration and devotion that he harbors for his mother, for Makhan, for his home, and for his village. It also reveals the innocence of a child confessing the guilt in bullying the younger brother and promising not to do so or any other exuberated activities which troubles others, only at the condition that he is allowed to return back to his home, his own abode where life is as free as the free spirit of nature.

The home coming of Fatik does takes place but only through his death as he falls ill in the course of isolation, alienation and everyday ruthless behavior of his aunt and cousins. Though Tagore presents the agony of the mother in a well-mannered way but the contrast that he draws upon between the aunt and the mother is well suggested. Child is normal to commit mischief and the adults should be able to tolerate that; else one has to pay a price like Fatik's mother did by losing her child probably to a world of eternal liberty and peace.

Every child is equal to the parents and should be bestowed upon with equal affection. Every child is unique and inclined towards the free spirit that they usually and should always have. Burdening one child with societal responsibility to save another for the same is something that is bound to be a meddling affair ending on a tragic note. The portrayal of Fatik and his surroundings are well suggested and represented in the sense that Fatik's

simplicity and innocence are the essentialities that was getting reflected on the simple village life but is what lacked in the complex life of the city.

Till the point his own nature and the Mother Nature was correlated Fatik was lively and vibrant as a child should be but was reduced to ashes when this correlation was broken down with all the mechanical and materialistic life of the city. This presence and absence of life itself is what Tagore beautifully suggests in the character of Fatik who with his death leaves a hollow space in the lives of others around him, which is quite similar to that of the hollowness of city lives. Another feature that Tagore marks in *The Homecoming* is the fact that a child needs to essentially set free of all the bindings of society in order to ensure his/her fullest bloom; else it cuts short in the middle as the life of Fatik does with so many societal interventions into it.

“Children are living beings, more living than the grown-up people who have built shells of habit around themselves. Therefore it is absolutely necessary for their mental health and development that they should not have mere schools for their lessons but a world whose guiding spirit is personal love.”

(Tagore, 1933)

Exactly for this belief, Tagore places Fatik at the heart of Mother Nature bereft of any scolding or spanking. Whenever he was being thrashed by his own mother he took solace in the laps of Mother Nature where he was gladly welcomed and embraced with wide arms. On the other hand, in Kolkata, he is literally trapped within the boundary walls of “schools” promising fine and quality education which gives a claustrophobic picture of Fatik. The same can be said for the bathroom in his uncle’s home which stands in a complete contrast to the open air bathing in the village pond that he rejoices and longs for. Here he lacks that “guiding spirit of personal love” which chokes him from within resulting in his death which is more psychological than physical.

The Exercise Book is yet another short story by Tagore where he finely sketches the psychology of Uma, a child bride, with equal and appropriate fine lines of innocence and childish gestures. The story explores the impact of a prejudiced patriarchal society on the little girl Uma and how it burdens her innocent childhood. Captivating the element of psychological realism with an utterly simple third person narration with appropriate mix of childish innocence Tagore successfully exhibits Uma’s joys, sorrows, innocence and

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

Srija Sanyal

Where the Mind Is Without Fear: Tracing Elements of Psychological Realism in Selected Works of Tagore

justifiable aspirations. Apart from the patriarchal overtones and women subjugation, The Exercise Book echoes the very definite psychological picture of a child more than a woman. A way of reading this story is from the children's perspective for whom Tagore's heart overflowed with pity and affection. *"These children are sketched in outline: they gather color with maturity; but the sympathy they evoke in their helplessness and dependence they forfeit in later life"* (Sidhanta, 1961). Uma here strike the cord of pathos in readers' mind with her childish innocence and justifications for the entire nuisance she created once she learned to write. Gifted with an exercise book by her brother Gobindlal after storms of scolding and punishment Uma found an actual companion to herself in the exercise book. All the scribbling was now done upon its pages instead on the walls which was a great relief to her family.

"At her in-laws house the exercise book becomes the sole witness to her fundamental desire to return to her mother. It becomes an intensely personal space outside social gaze where she can inscribe her purest desires in singular expression". (Chattopadhyay, 2014)

The Exercise book became more of a mirror to her character rather than a mere inanimate object. It became the medium of all requests that she craved for in her husband's house but which remained within the covers of the exercise book; it was like a river which embraced all the outpouring of Uma when she received humiliations at the hands of her husband and in-laws: *"Pathos of a little girl is well portrayed in this story. Tagore brings out the agonies of a little girl who is prey to the evil practice of child marriage"* (Dominic, Conflict between Innocence and Evil: Child Protagonists in Rabindranath Tagore's Short Stories).

Most of the interpretations and studies so far of this story has focused heavily upon the social criticism that Tagore makes through Uma and her consequent suffering. But it is the glimpses of the psyche of a child rather than a girl peeping through the narration time and again what catches the attention. This psyche is as childish as the character itself and is filled with innocence. Here the central character is robbed of her freedom not only as a girl but as a child whose ever active mind is capsized within the societal rigidity and conditions of adult world. Uma is always at a loss of her naïve understanding of why her fond of writing is considered a nuisance in the house or why her in-laws or even for her husband humiliates her

for her love of writing. An eager student from the core of her heart Uma finds her exercise book as the only companion amidst the muzzled affairs of her surroundings. She was a trouble in her maiden home and no less in her in-laws house – Uma here emerges as not only as a girl but also a child who is denied the freedom of self-expression by pushed within the shackles of social prejudices. Throughout the story the psychology of Uma reflects itself via the voice of an unknown narrator who simply narrates the events yet the pain and anguish of the girl child clearly gets reflected itself time and again.

“The Exercise Book highlights emotions, thoughts, feelings, hurts and pains of a child caught in the shackles of social prejudices. The exercise book became a source of expression of the little girl’s individual views and freedom of writing. As Tagore traces the longings, fears, disappointments and anguish of a girl-child less than the age of ten, he eloquently portrays a situation that he deplors, even though he has not personally suffered it”.

(English)

The storm of nuisance that Uma creates outside herself is parallel to the turmoil of agony that she herself goes through when her rendezvous with the consequences takes place, which is, a way beyond the understanding of the little Uma. In this story the pathos is heightened by the fact that the sufferer is not only a girl who is finely clutched within the rigidity of a conditioned society but also a child who is deprived of her natural self-expression. Neither Uma nor her surroundings are able to understand each other standing awestruck with each other’s reactions.

Conclusion

Psychological realism may still be a new dimension in Indian literature considering the pinnacle that the West achieved in it yet it was with Tagore that Indian literary texts witnessed the first glimpses of psychological realism in its sphere. While social realism was pretty common as a feature in literary texts with works such as Premchand’s *Godan* (1936) and Bibhutibhushan Bandopadhyay’s *Pather Panchali* (1929), literary texts surely lacked in the psychological portrayal of the characters in the story. Though it can surely be said that social realism was constructed by the consciousness itself but it was more of a collective consciousness of the characters that shaped the social realism in literature than individual

psychology. Yet the psychological realism was in a way a singular product of renaissance idealism that was awaiting its response from the Indian literature.

While novels like *Gora* by Tagore explored the social realism in its truest form, his other works such as *Chokher Bali*, novella *Nashtanirh* and short stories such as *The Homecoming*, *Guest*, *The Exercise Book*, all were more focused on the individual characters and their psychological development in the course of action. And what seems magnificent is the fact that the issues related to gender, patriarchy et al goes hand in hand with the psychological development of individual characters. It is as if the overtones are channelized in single stream through which the character gains its shape though his/her psyche remains open ended till the end. With the introduction of colloquial speech Tagore marked a lot new impressions that have influenced in lot many ways the society of not only his times but the society of the upcoming generations with a global yet a universal approach.

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Where the Mind Is Without Fear: Tracing Elements of Psychological Realism in Selected Works of Tagore

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Alternatives to Corporate Social Responsibility in Rural Development

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Abstract

While Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) spending remains one of the most effective ways companies can involve themselves in Rural Development, there is a need for many corporates to think of going beyond CSR in their attempt to engage with rural customers.

This paper examines some of the more successful models that have managed to incorporate the essence of “bottom of the pyramid”, “inclusion” and “co-creation”, and suggests a model that companies can look at to increase their development impact. The paper also looks at some of the tensions that must be balanced to make such models work.

Key words: CSR, bottom of the pyramid, co-creation, inclusive growth

Introduction

There is little doubt that a clear link exists between the ability of a community to achieve its basic development needs and that community’s economic prosperity.

Only if a community prospers economically and has enough resources to direct towards development, then and only then can it make rapid progress in this area. Both, the public and the private corporate sector, play a huge role in stimulating economic activity, and this will be enhanced in rural areas if they also embody the concepts of “bottom of the pyramid”, “shared value”, inclusive growth and “co-creation”.

There is an almost symbiotic relationship between rural markets and Indian corporations. In order to run their businesses in a sustainable manner, such that they will endure over long periods of time, companies need the explicit sanction of the communities within which they carry out their business. In order to gain this goodwill, companies need to involve the local communities and co-opt them into some parts of their business processes.

So also, the largest growth in demand is coming from the rural markets. It is estimated that all other things being equal, rural demand could hit US\$ 100 billion by 2017. A full one-third to one-half of the consumers of products and services of Indian companies come from rural areas, and therefore it is absolutely vital for companies to make a positive impression on the rural population.

All companies are able to conduct their business only with the implicit sanction of communities within which they exist. In order to carry out their business processes successfully, all companies need the active co-operation and participation of their communities. Therefore, in order to gain this goodwill, companies have also to address the needs of society. Given that in India, Rural populations make up such a large part of society, it is only fitting that companies also focus on the developmental needs of this predominant segment.

Present Scenario

One of the obvious ways that companies can contribute to Rural Development is through their CSR spending, and increasingly many Indian companies are now doing so. In fact, since the new Companies Act 2013 has been legislated by Parliament, India has been reported to be the country with the highest growth in CSR spending (27%) in 2015 from amongst 45 countries surveyed by the international audit firm KPMG. Of the Rs. 6,490 Crore expected to be spent by companies in 2015, an amount of Rs. 5,115 Crore was actually reported spent during that year (Shivakumar, 2016).

However, there is scope for much improvement. A study done on 147 companies regarding their CSR spending in 2013-14 revealed that only 18% of the companies met the 2% or more criteria on spending on CSR, with the average spend for the 147 companies included in the study being 1.28% (Majumdar, Rana & Sanan, 2015). The same study reports that 61% of the companies surveyed spend on Rural Development, so it is clear that of the companies that are serious about CSR, a significant proportion are making investments in Rural Development initiatives.

It is estimated that very quickly, companies will spend up to Rs.20, 000 Crores annually on CSR (Accenture - FICCI, 2014). This will supplement and support Government spending already ear-marked for development work.

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Vivek Rajapadmanabhan, M.Sc. (Agriculture), Ph.D. Candidate

Alternatives to Corporate Social Responsibility in Rural Development

Some of the Rural Development initiatives undertaken by companies include activities that spur economic growth like improving agricultural productivity, promoting Rural industry, providing Rural employment, providing productive resources and credit to individual Rural families and self-help groups (SHGs). Other projects corporates focus on include providing basic infrastructure like schools, health centers, roads, electrification, drinking water and sanitation.

Going Beyond CSR

However, besides focusing only on CSR to spur Rural Development, there are other means by which corporates can intervene in this area. In order to do this, companies will have to focus on the bottom of the pyramid, on inclusion, and on the concept of co-creation.

C.K. Prahalad, Distinguished University Professor at University of Michigan's Ross Business School and author of the seminal book "The Fortune at the Bottom of the Pyramid: Eradicating Poverty with Profits" (2004), argues that the poor should be looked at as value-conscious stake holders, and not as a burden on the economy, or as victims. Viewing the poor in this manner would re-structure paradigms, and this would result in opening up a new world of opportunities. Similarly, "inclusive growth" by implication essentially means growth that is pro-poor, or at least growth that is shared. Inclusive growth serves the purpose of involving the people in the process of growth more directly, and at the same time, it serves to stem poverty. "Co-creation" is essentially a strategy that involves the stake-holder or customer in the process of unlocking mutually beneficial value – both for the stake-holder, as well as for the firm. For this to be put into action, common platforms that the stake-holder and the firm can share need to be formed; it is through these platforms that a new form of interaction can emerge that can create value through sharing, combining and renewing each other's innate capabilities and resources.

Concepts

Prahalad (2012) has identified the "bottom of the pyramid" (BOP) markets as an emerging source of innovation that is challenging present business models. He makes the case that by turning their attention to the 4 A's (awareness, access, affordability and availability), businesses can find new ways of innovating for such markets. In his paper he mentions such innovations as the \$ 2000 car (Tata Nano), the \$ 50 cataract surgery (Aravind

Eye Care System), and a modern, well appointed \$ 20 hotel room (Ginger) as examples of this type of innovation.

Porter and Kramer (2011) espouse the concept of “shared value”, which they define to be “policies and operating practices that enhance the competitiveness of a company while simultaneously advancing the economic and social conditions in the communities in which it operates”. They argue that this type of thinking has given rise to many hybrid enterprises, and the concept of shared value is blurring the Profit / Non-profit boundary. According to them, shared value can be created by “reconceiving products and markets, redefining productivity in the value chain, and building supportive industry clusters”

CAFOD (2014) identifies the most important requirements that need to be met by inclusive growth: reduce poverty and inequality and benefit the most marginalised; it goes beyond just income - it is more about participation, not just outcomes; it requires sustainable growth. It necessarily includes investment in human capital, job creation, structural transformation and broad-based growth, social protection, non-discrimination, social inclusion and participation, and strong institutions.

Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2000) first brought forth the concept of co-creation. Basically, co-creation provides a means for people to unleash their creative energy by engaging them in the entire process of value creation in a business.

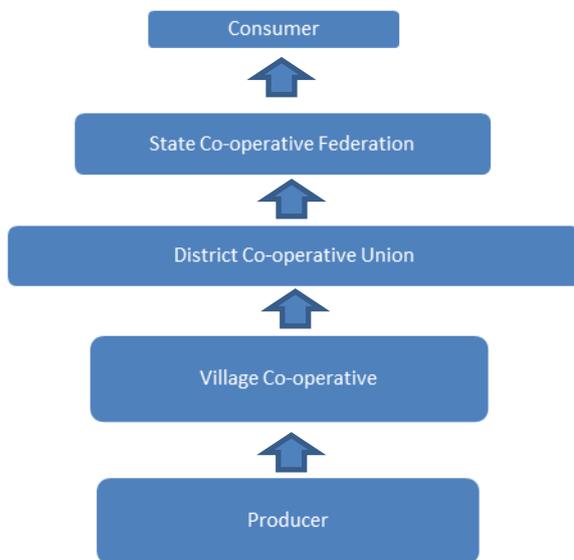
Existing Business Models Incorporating Inclusive Elements

Various business models are available in the Indian business space. Some of them are:

(1) The Federated Co-operative as a Model

The schematic of the model is given below:

Fig. 1. The Co-operative Model



The Co-operative Model is best illustrated by the State Milk Marketing Federations which are all modeled after the Gujarat Milk Marketing Federation (or Amul) Model.

The Producers at the village aggregate the produce at the Village Co-operative level, which then dove-tails into the District Union, and the State Federation.

At each level more and more complex and technology intensive value additions are made.

The producers have the responsibility of only production, whereas other functions such as marketing and production are left to specialists

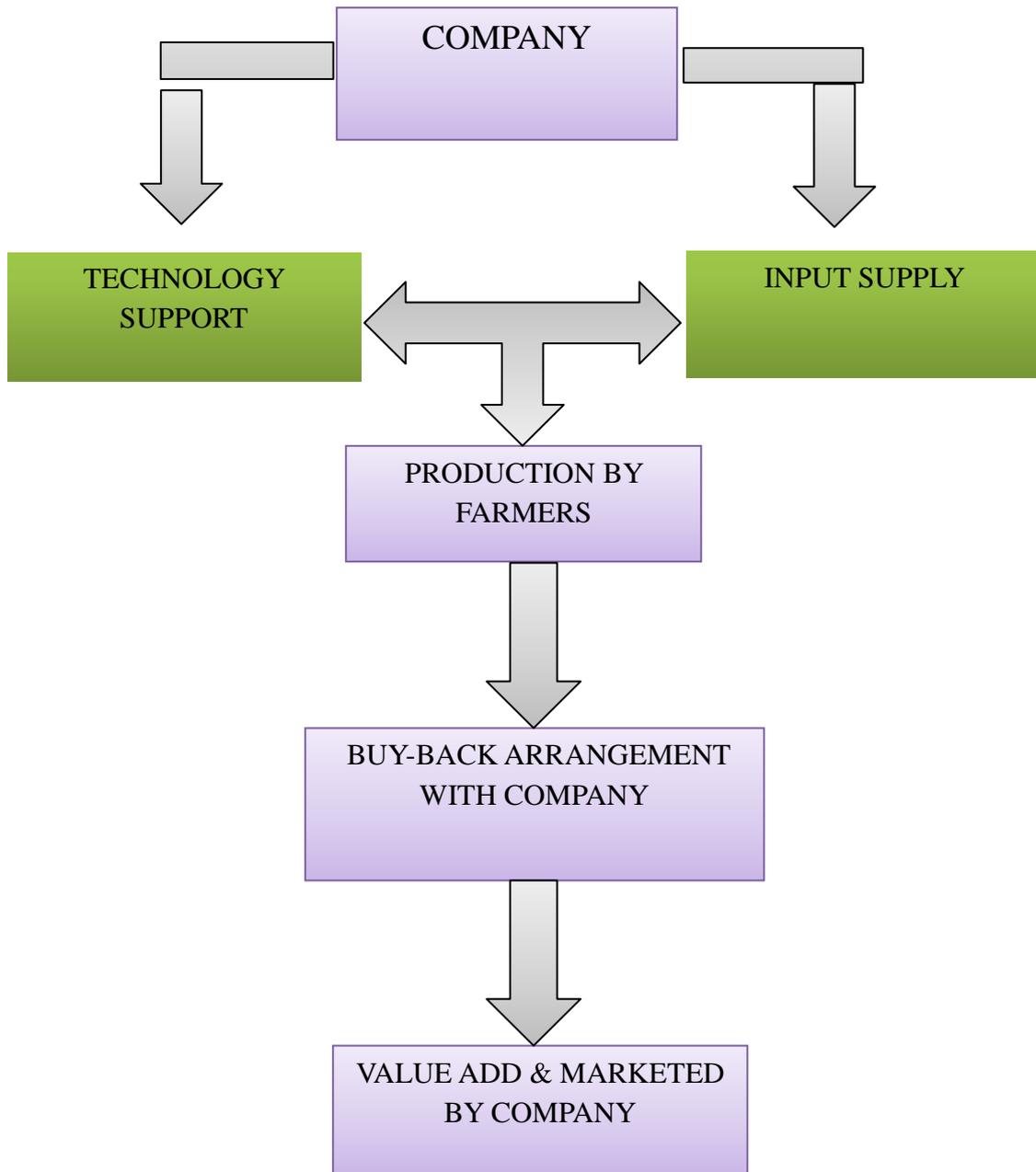
Some of the key elements that made this model successful (based on the Amul experience) were the following:

1. The producers (farmers) were the “owners” of the co-operatives.
2. While it was clear that producers / farmers would take care of the production aspects, the marketing federation at the state level took on complete marketing responsibility, ensuring that all that was produced was sold
3. Technology had a big role to play. State-of –the art processing plants ensured that all products were of world class quality, and modern technology and management practices ensured that the brand would be truly world-class. (Kurien, 2005)

(2) Incorporating Inclusiveness using the Contract Farming Model

The contract farming model can be represented by the following schematic:

Fig.2 The Contract Farming Business Model



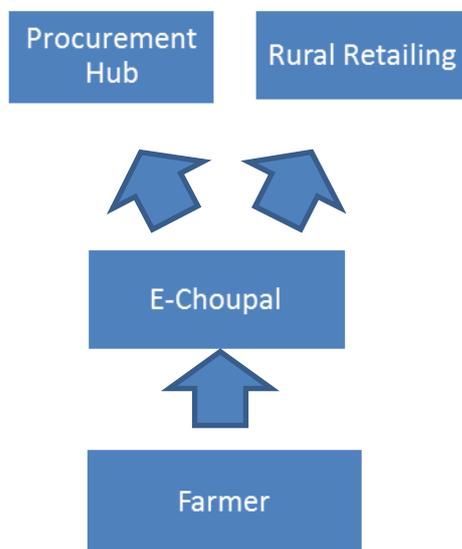
In this model, the company enters into a contract with farmers with pre-defined prices and quantities of produce to be delivered. The company supplies all inputs at cost, and deducts this from the final payment for the produce. A key element in this model is a genuine desire by the company to better the lot of the farmers, and keeping their interests at the forefront. The company clearly sees itself as a value-adding link between the Indian farmer and the markets, which otherwise the farmers would simply have no hope of accessing.

The producers / farmers are responsible for the quality and quantity of the raw material produced and supplied. The company and its managers take care of the production and marketing aspects. The producer / farmer is ensured of a fair return for his efforts, and a large part of his risk is mitigated by the company providing all the inputs. (Surendranath, n.d)

(3) The IT as Enabler Model – ITCs e-choupal

The following is a schematic representation of the e-choupal model:

Fig. 3 ITC's e-Choupal Model



In this model, technology is used to give the farmer the latest information about prices and quantities of produce available world-wide.

Fair and transparent procurement practices ensured that the farmer got a fair price for the produce, which he could then sell at his choice. Payment was immediate. This largely eliminated the unfair practices indulged in by the middlemen, and freed the farmer from exploitation

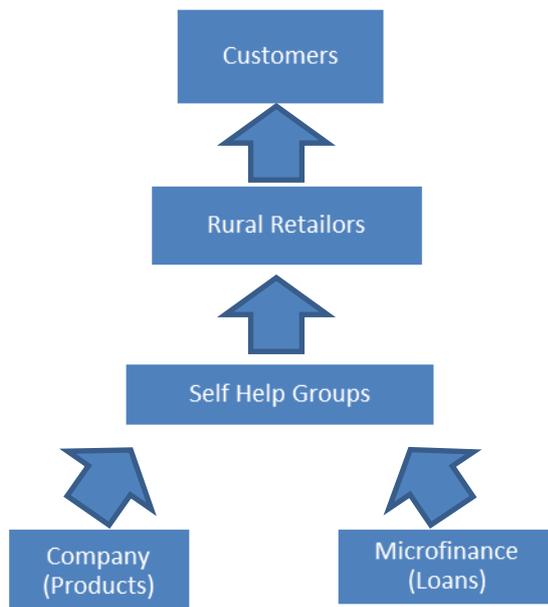
A rural retail outlet was also available where he could purchase his requirements. Thus, the farmer had a hub at which he could transact all his business, whether it was selling his produce, or buying his requirements at an outlet that assured quality and fair price. (Bowonder, Gupta and Singh, n.d.)

This was a win-win situation, as the company also stood to gain in terms of sourcing its materials, and entering into rural retail.

(4) The Co-created Rural Distribution Model

The schematic of the above can be represented as follows:

Fig.4 The Co-Created Rural Distribution Model



In this model, the company provides self-help groups with products and co-opts microfinance companies to enable purchase of its goods.

The self-help group members take up village level retail, going from door to door with the product.

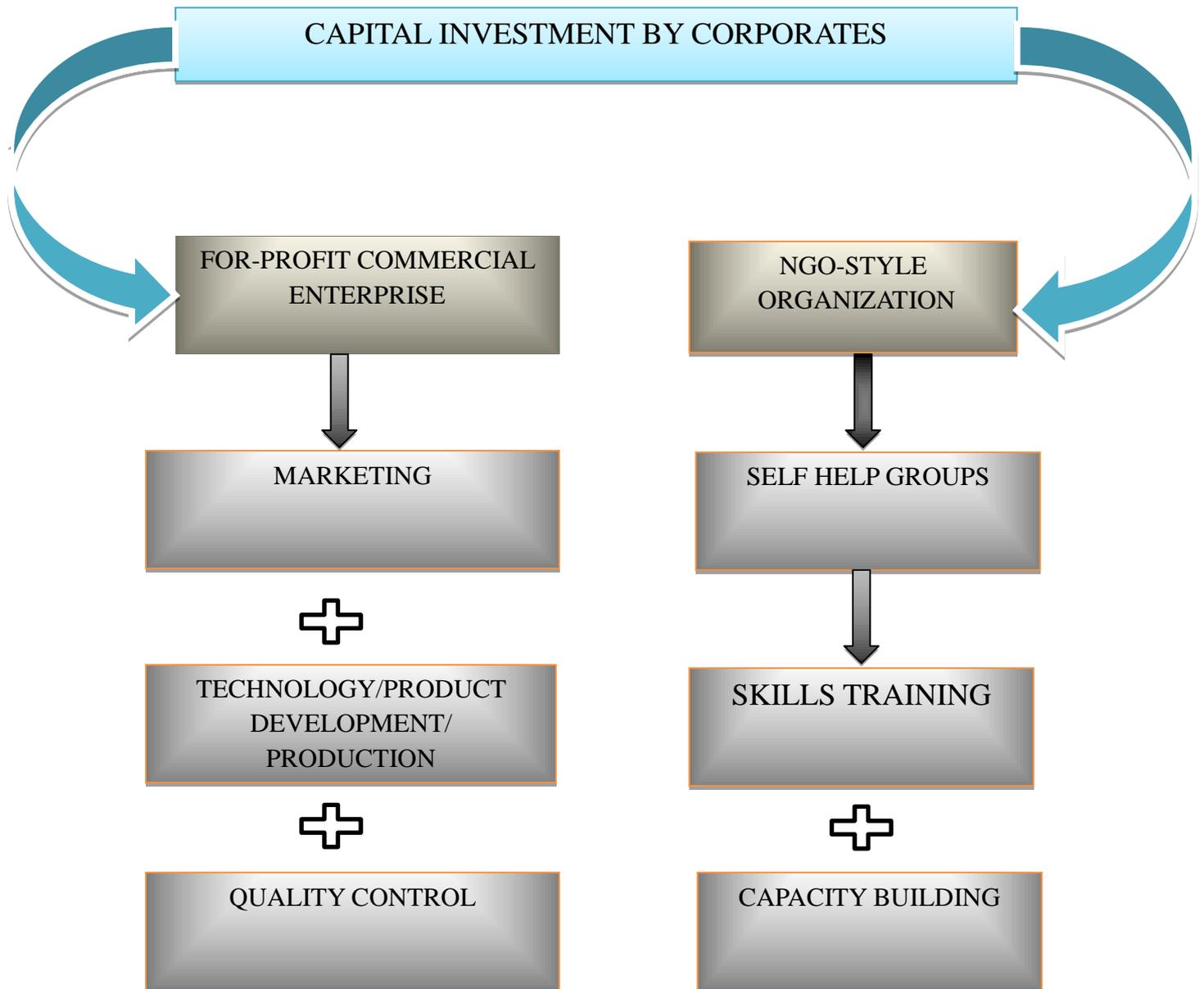
The product company also gives additional incentives to rural retailers for sales targets and volumes achieved.

The company targeted small villages, where due to small populations, setting up a formal distribution network was not feasible. For the rural men and women who took up this retailing work, it was an additional source of income and a revenue stream for the family, which was otherwise not available. (Sarvani and Mukund, 2002)

Designing a Business Model Integrating Wealth Creation and Social Value Creation

Taking the common elements out of all of the models studied above, and integrating them into a simple generic model required the synthesis of the “Integrated Wealth Creation and Social Value Creation Model”, represented by the schematic below:

Fig. 7 Integrated Wealth Creation & Social Value Creation Model



Implicit in this model is the premise that the firm will have two clearly distinct investment channels. On the one hand, there is the investment into the business value chain, which is the hard-core business part; on the other hand, there is the investment into the

“social value creation chain” which will integrate into the business value chain wherever it can do so in a profitable and sustainable manner.

Balancing the Core Issues

However, managing such an enterprise will call for special skills, as there will be multiple and often conflicting demands on the system. This will require focus on maintain the balance of the enterprise, which can be done by paying heed to the following core issues.

Fig. 8 Balancing the Core Issues



Upliftment - Core Corporate Value

For the model to work effectively, one of the deeply held corporate values must be upliftment. If the senior management of the company does not hold this value dear, merely paying lip service, or going through the motions will not suffice. Investments made in this effort have to be seen by the companies as an investment for the future, both in terms of growing the market, as well as giving the participants of this market the wherewithal to participate meaningfully in these markets. All of the models examined in this study points to this deep and abiding belief as being fundamental to the success of all such models.

Integrated Social Value-cum-Wealth Creation

This is the single, most important element of the model, where the company goes much beyond CSR prescriptions, and looks for creative ways in which to advance society. Managing such companies calls for superior management skills and a lot of out of the box thinking, as it is essential that the social value creation process and the economic wealth creation process go hand in hand in a sustainable manner.

Engagement of All Stakeholders

The task of creating economic wealth along with social value is a complex one, and both of these objectives are not necessarily complementary. It thus goes without saying that unless all the stakeholders of the company are fully engaged in this process, the model has little chance of succeeding. It is the task of the management to create an environment that is conducive to this kind of an engagement. Such an environment will be created only if all the stakeholders are completely aligned to the vision, mission, goals and objectives of the organization.

Resource Use Efficiency

Given that there will be competing needs for resources, it is essential that all critical elements are identified and adequately supported, even if there is no immediate prospect of an economic return. Investments in organising, training and capacity building should be seen for what it is – investments for the future success of the enterprise, and should not be seen merely as costs.

Cultural Change Adaptability

Integration of the economic model with the social model will create significant tension between the various stakeholders. It is important that a culture of flexibility and adaptability is established such that common ground can be identified, and the enterprise can move forward and grow (Dawans and Alter, 2009)

Summary and Conclusions

The attempt made in this paper is to conceptualise a workable model for businesses that would incorporate both, elements from conventional profit making businesses, as well as more social enterprises. This is done by examining some such business models which are working successfully today, taking the basic elements and values that are at the core of these models, and then recasting the same into a generic model. By incorporating and including those segments of the rural population into their business models where they can meaningfully create value (as producers, retailers, or as factory workers), companies create a win-win situation for themselves vis-à-vis one of their largest consumers – the rural population. This will go much beyond the good will earned merely from CSR activities, and the rural population will be more absorbed into the business process, and feel included in the wealth creation cycle.

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Alternatives to Corporate Social Responsibility in Rural Development

A Contrastive Approach to Materials Adaptation for the Teaching of Grammar to ESL Students

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Sadaf Zarrin, M.A. (ELT), Senior Research Fellow

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Abstract

English is considered today as a pre-requisite for the success and advancement of learners as well as of nation. The rising importance of English has created an immense demand for the development of quality resource materials. As materials provide the very foundation for the teaching of the target language, their efficacy should be considered an important factor in influencing the success or failure of the learners. Various government and non-government bodies as NCERT, SCERT, and CBSE regularly produce materials for learners of each level and age group on the basis of their needs analysis. Still, for many situations teachers may have to adapt the materials to make them more suitable for particular groups of learners. Our paper suggests ways of adapting materials for Indian ESL students, utilizing the resources of L1 as Hindi/Urdu. The use of L1 can prove useful for the teaching of different aspects of language, as the learners' L1 comprises a part of the background knowledge that they bring to the learning task. In this paper certain ways have been suggested to demonstrate how L1 can be utilised for adapting materials for the teaching of tenses to ESL students.

Key words: contrastive analysis needs analysis, adaptation, and use of L1.

Introduction

Materials occupy a central position especially in the ELT curriculum. They serve as stimulus for effective learning by providing opportunities to learners to learn through interesting input such as stories, poems, articles as well as different types of activities. However, despite the current rich array of ELT materials which are commercially produced by various government and non-government bodies as NCERT, SCERT, and CBSE in the light of the needs analysis of learners, sometimes we find these materials as lacking as far as L1 medium or regional medium learners are concerned. These materials can be adapted for

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Prof. Kausar Husain, M.A., M.Phil., Ph.D. and Sadaf Zarrin, M.A., Ph.D.

A Contrastive Approach to Materials Adaptation for the Teaching of Grammar to ESL Students

such students using a contrastive approach, that is, by using the resources of the mother tongue in designing the materials. The paper suggests a few ways of applying a contrastive approach to materials adaptation which can be beneficial for Indian ESL students whose mother tongue is Hindi. The researchers have picked up adaptation of materials for the teaching of a few tenses to learners to tertiary level learners of ESL for this purpose.

Literature Review

The use of L1 in L2 classrooms has long been a matter of debate among language teachers, researchers and material producers. With the advent of communicative language teaching (CLT), the assumption that languages are best taught and learned monolingually, without the involvement of learners' L1, has prevailed. But, recently this assumption has been increasingly questioned by language experts. A number of researchers justify the presence and optimal and judicious use of L1 in L2 classrooms for attaining higher proficiency. Piasecka (cited in Auerbach, 1993) states:

Teaching bilingually does not mean a return to the GT method, but rather a stand point which accepts that the thinking, feeling and artistic life of a person is very much rooted in their M.T....at the initial stage of learning a new language, students' repertoire is limited to those few utterances already learnt and they must constantly think before speaking. (p 20)

Coelho (2007) claims three reasons in favour of L1 use in L2 classrooms.

- i) A strong foundation in the L1 supports the acquisition of English.
- ii) Continued development of L1 contributes to academic success, and
- iii) Students' language supports their sense of identity and helps maintain effective communication within the family and community.

Husain (1996:15) remarks, "... the comparison between the learners' L1 and L2 can provide greater insight in the subtle distinctions between the two languages and can eliminate rather than cause interference." She also advocates the advantages of L1 model as translation activities in production task.

According to Konig & Gast (2009), direct comparison of learners' first language in the learning process of second language, can profit advanced learners. A number of researchers such as Atkinson (1993), Cook (2005), Grim (2010), James (2005), Macaro (2001, 2005), and Mair (2005) also justify the presence and optimal use of L1 in the teaching of an L2.

Thus, it is found that a large number of researchers and language teaching practitioners acknowledge the importance and beneficial results of using L1 in the teaching of a second or foreign language.

Materials Adaptation for the Teaching of Tenses

This section demonstrates how a contrastive approach to the teaching of grammar, specifically to the teaching of tenses, can be used for the adaptation of materials for Hindi speaking learners. It includes examples of materials making use of bilingual glossary in a given English lesson for helping the students in learning the meaning and use of target verbs in the given tenses. The use of partial translation and complete translation is also given as examples of ways of materials adaptation for Hindi speaking ESL learners.

The following extracts, **Text I** and **Text II** have been given respectively as examples to teach simple present and present perfect and; simple past and past perfect tenses. The verbs are underlined aiming to highlight their tenses. Bilingual glossaries have been given to make students more comfortable with these tenses. Along with explanation of grammatical rules in English, examples are given in English and also in L1. Students are then required to do the exercises which consist of a complete translation of the given English passage into L1, using the provided bilingual glossaries; and secondly, producing a short paragraph in L2 using the target tenses and translating it into L1.

Text I. Simple present and present perfect

A frail young woman is cooking the evening meal for the whole family. Through eyes filled with smoke she smiles. She is the wife of Mukesh's elder brother. Not much older in years, she has begun to command respect as the bahu, the daughter-in-law of the house already in charge of three men – her husband, Mukesh and their father. When the older man enters, she gently withdraws behind the broken wall and brings her veil closer to her face. As

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A Contrastive Approach to Materials Adaptation for the Teaching of Grammar to ESL Students

custom demands, daughters-in-law must veil their faces before male elders. In this case the elder is an impoverished bangle maker. Despite long years of hard labour, first as tailor, then a bangle maker, he has failed to renovate a house, send his two sons to school. All he has managed to do is teach them what he knows: the art of making bangles. (Class XII- textbook Flamingo p.15)

Bilingual Glossary

Smiles: muskurati hai

Has begun: hone laga hai

Enters: pravesh karta hai

Withdraws: hat jati hai

Brings: laati hai

Demands: agrah krta hai

Has failed: asafal ho gaya

Has managed: uplabdh kiya

Knows: jaanta hai

Explanation of rules:

Simple present

e.g. She smiles. (Woh muskurati hai.)

Use: for expressing habitual action.

Present perfect

e.g. He has failed. (Woh asafal ho gaya hai.)

Use: to indicate completed activities in the immediate past.

Exercise:

- Translate the above passage completely into Hindi, using the provided bilingual glossary.
- Write a paragraph of 100 words describing your own daily routine in English. Translate it into Hindi.

Text II. Simple past and past perfect

But this eating by formula was not the hardest trial in that first day. Late in the morning, my friend Judewin gave me a terrible warning. Judewin knew few words of English; and she had overheard the paleface woman talk about cutting our long, heavy hair. Our mother had taught us that only unskilled warriors who were captured had their own hair shingled by the enemy. Among our people, short hair was worn by mourners, and shingled hair by cowards. We

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Prof. Kausar Husain, M.A., M.Phil., Ph.D. and Sadaf Zarrin, M.A., Ph.D.

A Contrastive Approach to Materials Adaptation for the Teaching of Grammar to ESL Students

discussed our fate some moments, and when Judewin said, “We have to submit, because they are strong.” I repelled. (Class XII- supplementary reader Vistas ,p.95)

Bilingual Glossary:

Gave: diya

Discussed: charcha ki

Knew: jaana

Said: kaha

Had overheard: sun liya tha

Rebelled: vidroh kiya

Had taught: samjhaya tha

Explanation of rules:

Simple Past

Example: Judewin gave me. (Judewin ne mujhe diya.)

Use: to indicate an action completed in the past.

Past Prefect

Example: Our mother had taught us. (Hamari maa ne hame samjhaya tha.)

Use: to describe an action completed before a certain moment in the past.

Exercise:

- Supply a complete translation of the above passage in Hindi.
- Narrate an interesting incident of your life in English underlining the verbs, and give their translation equivalents in Hindi.

Here, **Text III** and **Text IV**, two unseen passages have been given to facilitate students' learning of tenses through a partial translation exercise and a collocational cloze. Partial translation is a sort of exercise in which learners are expected to translate only the target parts of the text from L1 to L2 or vice versa, whereas in collocational cloze the target elements of the text are replaced by their L1 equivalents and the students are required to provide their L2 forms. Text III is a passage in Hindi using simple past and past perfect, and students are required to translate the verb form into English. Text IV highlights simple future tense focusing L1 and L2 contrast.

Text III. Simple past and past perfect

Gandhi ne apne aap ko kabhi bhi bade rajnitik aur arthik samadhamo se santust nahi kiya. Unhone Champaran ke gaon me sanskritik aur samajik pichhdapan dekh tha, aur woh is bare me jald hi kuch karna chahte the. Unhone apne do shishyon, Mahadev Desai aur **Language in India** www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016 Prof. Kausar Husain, M.A., M.Phil., Ph.D. and Sadaf Zarrin, M.A., Ph.D. A Contrastive Approach to Materials Adaptation for the Teaching of Grammar to ESL Students

Narhari Parikh, ko is kam me lagaya. Aur unki patniyon ne bhi is kam me apni khushi se hissa liya. Gandiji ke chote bête, Devdas aur shrimati Gandhi bhi ne bhi sahayta ki. Chhey (6) gaon me prathmic vidyalaya khole gaye.

Exercise:

- Translate all the underlined verb forms in the above Hindi passage into English.
- Give a complete translation of the above passage in English.

Text IV. Simple present and simple future

Now suppose you ___1___ a scientist that you ___2___ in certain superstition – let us say, that the howling of a dog is a sign of death. The scientist ___3___ evidence before he can accept your belief. He ___4___ figures to prove it. It ___5___ useless to quote two or three cases; he will need hundreds. He ___6___ to know (a) if it ever ___7___ that the howling of dogs is not followed by a death, (b) if ever a person’s death is predicted by the howling of dogs.

Explanation of rules:

Simple present: as explained above.

Simple future

e.g. He will go. (Who jayega .)

Use: to indicate future actions.

Exercise:

- Supply the appropriate English equivalents for all the verbs underlined in the above text. The first one is done as an example.

Hindi verb	English equivalent
Kahte hain	<i>say</i>
Yaquin karte hain	
Mangega	
Zarurat hogi	
Hoga	
Jaanna chahega	
Hota hai	

- Give a complete translation of the above passage in Hindi.

Conclusion

To sum up, the paper presents some ideas for applying a contrastive approach to materials adaptation for ESL/EFL learners. Examples have been given here to show how L1 input can be introduced into regular monolingual English texts for the teaching of tenses for Hindi speaking students. The researchers are of the view that the resources of the mother tongue can be utilized not only for the teaching of tenses but for a number of other elements and skills of language. Such materials are specially recommended for students who come from L1 medium schools in India. Such adapted materials can be used in remedial courses, or they can be prepared in an ad-hoc manner by the teachers according to the needs of the learners, or this contrastive approach can be used for the production of regular materials by such bodies as NCERT, SCERT and, CBSE.

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Prof. Kausar Husain, M.A., M.Phil., Ph.D. and Sadaf Zarrin, M.A., Ph.D.

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**Causes for the Failure of Students in Developing Writing Skills at the HSC
Level in Bangladesh**

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**THIS DISSERTATION IS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR
THE DEGREE OF MASTERS OF ARTS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING (ELT)**

Abstract

This dissertation presents the actual causes of students' failure in developing writing skill at the higher secondary level. To perform this research, the researcher selected four institutions to observe classes, interviewed students and teachers and to collect sample writings. In relation to this, the researcher has analyzed HSC question paper and syllabus. The researcher discovered a contradictory picture between the statements of students and teachers and the real scenario in classrooms. Guidelines given in the text-book are hardly followed. Many teachers are still unable to come out of their traditional outlook of teaching-learning process. The researcher observed no writing tasks or activities which match Communicative Language Teaching Approach and it results in students' poor writing competence. Lack of motivation, inadequate training facility, poor socio-economic set up and large classrooms – all these deteriorate the condition further. Nevertheless, the researcher concludes this dissertation with an optimistic view regarding writing skill, provided that proper initiatives are taken by authorities concerned.

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Table of Contents

Topics

Chapter 1: Introduction -----	
Chapter 2: Literature Review -----	
Chapter 3: Research Methodology -----	
Chapter 4: Data Analysis & Presentation -----	
Chapter 5: Findings -----	
Chapter 6: Discussion -----	
Chapter 7: Conclusion -----	
Works Cited-----	
Appendix A -----	
Appendix B-----	
Appendix C-----	
Appendix D-----	
Appendix E-----	

Chapter: 1

Introduction

1. Introduction:

English is more than a language: it is a technology which we must master to compete in the present globalised world and ‘writing’ plays an important role here. Besides, among the four skills, writing is the most difficult and most important skill not only in the academic sector but also in a professional field which requires accuracy and a standard level of writing.

1.1 Why Writing is Difficult:

Writing is the most difficult skill because it takes continuous effort along with rigorous practice to reach a standard level. It involves a lot of techniques and skills which one acquires with conscious effort. As writing is a productive skill, one has to be familiar with many things such as different genres, formal or informal language, etc. So developing writing skill involves some more sub skills which make it more difficult to acquire. Bell and Burnaby (1984) point out that writing is an extremely complex cognitive activity in which the writer is required to demonstrate control of a number of variables simultaneously. A writer has to take care so that his sentences express intended meaning clearly, correctly and effectively. For this reason, the knowledge of probable errors in writing and their causes are essential. So learning to write fluently and expressively is the most difficult of the skills for all language users regardless of first, second or foreign.

1.2 Why Writing is Important:

Writing is important because usually in examinations, the examinees are evaluated on the basis of their writing performance. So, students exhibit their depth of knowledge through writing and they are assessed by their competence in writing rather than speaking. Apart from this, writing has a far reaching impact on practical life as it is required in real life situations. Therefore, it is really important for learners of any language to learn how to write.

1.3 Why the researcher has chosen this topic and level:

The researcher has chosen this topic because one of the greatest problems lies in writing skills in academic fields. Many students are fluent in speaking, but they are not fluent in writing. Here it is mentionable that English is introduced in Bangladesh at the primary level and its teaching continues till the tertiary level. Even then, learners in Bangladesh still find formal writing troublesome. The same common errors which they make during early school reoccur even at college level. Therefore it requires further investigation why after ten years of formal instruction in English learners fail to

develop their writing skill. Here the researcher has chosen students of XII class as his sample because he is currently involved in teaching at this level.

1.4 Importance of writing in the present HSC Syllabus:

In the present HSC syllabus writing is emphasized to a great extent. Our students take an exam of 200 marks in English. (English 1st paper 100, English 2nd-100) In English First Paper, Part “C” is the writing part containing 40 marks and in English Second Paper, writing comprises 60 marks. So, in total, students at the H.S.C level take an exam of 100 marks of writing which is 50% of total English marks. (i.e. 200)

1.5 How far writing matters in the Success or Failure at the HSC level:

Writing matters a lot in the success or failure at the HSC level, because 50% of the total English marks are allocated to writing. As a result, students who are not competent in writing skill do not get good marks in English or they fail in English. Similarly, students having a good command in writing skill usually get higher marks or can face the challenge of writing on any topic in the examination. Apart from the assigned 50% marks, a student’s overall performance greatly depends on his/her writing performance as students are mostly tested on writing skill.

1.6 Importance of writing skill in real life situations:

Apart from the academic importance, writing skill has a great significance in real life situations. Lack of competence in this skill leads to communication problems in real life as writing is sometimes extremely important or the only media to communicate. Since many students enter higher study after the HSC, they need to have a good command English particularly in writing skill as they have to take examinations in English. A sound competence in writing skill is sometimes mandatory in some professions. Therefore, students should be given opportunities in class to practise those types of writing that they need in the real world beyond the boundary of the classroom. Hammond (1989 in Nunan, 1991) opines that young writers and readers should have orientation towards different types of texts.

1.7 How writing should have been taught at the HSC level:

Writing should have been taught communicatively. In this connection it is relevant to mention that in 1996 the communicative approach was introduced in classes six, seven and eight and in 2001 the communicative approach was introduced from class six to class twelve. The communicative approach is basically concerned with the development of communicative competence of students in English through the practice of the four skills, listening, speaking, reading and writing. So, writing should be taught in a communicative way. Teachers should encourage and help students to overcome fear and anxiety in writing. Students should be encouraged to write in pairs or groups, so that they can correct each other and hence learn better.

1.8 How writing is taught at the HSC level:

Even today, writing is taught in a very traditional way at the HSC level. Almost all the teachers want writing from students as a product. They hardly go through the process oriented way. In fact writing is mysteriously neglected at the higher secondary level. Sultana (2007-2008) remarks that teachers

usually make students write on a given topic and correct the product, i.e. the compositions, identifying errors in grammar, spelling, sentence structures and vocabulary selection. However, this does not necessarily help students to develop the writing skill and ultimately this system fails to lead students to a higher level of competence.

1.9 Writing should no more be neglected:

Writing, at the HSC level, should no more be neglected as this is the last level after which students enter into specialized branches of education. Therefore, competence in writing should be developed at this level. The researcher, in this dissertation, takes an initiative to discover the actual causes of students' failure in developing writing skill at the HSC level.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

1. WRITING:

Writing is one of the most important productive skills. For a second language learner, it is so important to learn how to write in the target language that without knowing it learning that language is an incomplete effort. According to Anita Pincas, the author of “Writing English” (1982), writing is an instrument of both communication and self-expression. Most people, however, especially when writing in a foreign language or second language use it primarily to communicate with other members of their own community or the wider world.

2. THE IMPORTANCE OF TEACHING WRITING:

It is really important to teach writing as it is generally more difficult to learn how to write than how to speak. As we see that children in every language automatically learn to speak gradually as they are exposed to the particular linguistic environment, but learning to write takes a more conscious effort. To be proficient in writing in a second language is a matter of long practice. International Teacher Trainer Jeremy Harmer in his book “How to Teach English”(1998: 79) opines that the reasons for teaching writing to the students English as a foreign language include reinforcement, language development, learning style and most importantly development of writing as a skill in its own right.

Reinforcement:

Some students acquire languages in a purely oral/aural way, but most of us benefit greatly seeing the language written down. The visual demonstration of language construction is invaluable for both our understanding and how it all fits together and as an aid to committing the new language to memory. Students often find it useful to write sentences using new language shortly after they have studied it. (Harmer 1998:79)

Language Development:

We cannot be sure, but it seems that the actual process of writing helps us to learn as we go along. The mental activity we have to go through in order to construct proper written texts is all part of the ongoing learning experience. (Harmer 1998:79)

Learning Style:

Some students are fantastically quick at picking up language just by looking and listening. For the rest of us, it may take a little longer. For many learners, the time to think things through, to produce language in a slower way, is invaluable. Writing is appropriate for such learners. It can also be quiet reflective activity instead of the rush and bother of interpersonal face to face communication. (Harmer 1998:79)

Writing as a skill:

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 16:4 April 2016

Sukanto Roy, M.A. in ELT

Causes for the Failure of Students in Developing Writing Skills at the HSC Level in Bangladesh – Masters Dissertation 293

By far the most important reason for teaching writing, of course, is that it is a basic language skill, just as important as speaking, listening and reading. Students need to know how to write letters, how to put written reports together, how to reply advertisements and increasingly, how to write using electronic media. They need to know some of writing's especial conventions (punctuation, paragraph construction etc.) just as they need to know how to pronounce spoken English appropriately. Part of our job is to give them that skill. (Harmer 1998:79-80)

3. TYPES OF WRITING / CLASSIFICATION OF WRITING:

There are many types of writing. Initially writing can be classified into two kinds. Formal writing and Informal writing. (Here our main focus is on formal and academic writing.) Examples of formal writing are writing essays, official letters, job applications, answers to question in exam papers etc and examples of informal writing are personal writing, diary, personal notes etc. Again formal writing can be classified into different genres (different types of literary discourse) such as:

- (i) Narrative
- (ii) Descriptive
- (iii) Procedural/Process
- (iv) Argumentative

Let us discuss each of them with examples.

Narrative Genre:

Evelyan Hatch in his book *Discourse ad Language Education* (1992:165) says that narration is thought to be the most universal Genre, because all cultures have storytelling traditions. Storytelling episodes have been collected in many languages and based on such data researchers claim that there is some basic universal template for the narrative. In order to inform listeners or readers about the world of the story, Narratives usually begin with an orientation. This includes the **time** of the story (e.g., “Once upon a time...”) and its spatial **setting** (e.g., “in the kingdom by the sea...”). In addition to the setting of the story world, the **characters** and there roles must be set up (e.g., “there lived an old, old woman named Omi...”)

Descriptive Genre:

Hatch (1992:175) says that description does not appear to have a set template. Components could be described for certain types of descriptions – for example, descriptions of objects are usually in terms of their parts and the functions and appearance of these parts. Linde and Labov (1975) analysed apartment descriptions and found that many of their subjects gave listeners a walking tour, pointing out their own likes and dislikes in terms of layout and furnishing as they went along. In descriptions, we expect to find certain types of syntactic structures. For examples we expect to see many copula (be link) sentences, relative clauses and prepositional and adverbial phrases. Presentatives (there is /there are sentences) and descriptive adjectives of shape, size, colour, and number are also common in this genre. Example: There are two pictures on the left wall of the classroom.

The differences between narrative and descriptive genre are given below:

tive	ptive
tive in style	ptive in style
ine is mentioned	he line is mentioned

line is mentioned	ice line is mentioned
acter line is mentioned	aracter line is mentioned
y in past tense	y in present tense

(Evelyn Hatch, 1994)

Procedural/Process Genre:

The main features of process genre are given bellow:

- Deals with ‘**how to**’ do things
- Imperative sentence
- Passive construction
- No tense marking
- The actors are neutral
- There is a high frequency of linking words used as connective for sequencing
- Modals are used to indicate what should or should not be done and to what extent

Example:

Open the box first. Then bring out the cartridge. It should be placed in the middle of the printer. You should not touch the drum and ...

Argumentative Genre:

Argumentation has often been defined as the process of supporting or weakening another statement whose validity is questionable or contentious. The structure of argumentative text is even more flexible than the rhetorical modes presented thus far. However, there is a classical description of the structure of this genre that includes introduction, explanation of the case under consideration, outline of the argument, proof, refutation and conclusion.

Structure of argumentative genre:

Introduction--→Explanation of the case under the consideration→ Outline of the arguments→Proof of refutation→Conclusion

(Evelyn Hatch, 1994)

Example:

“Do you think money is the only motivating factor for the teachers to teach well? Show logic in favour of your argument.”

4. WHAT KIND OF WRITING SHOULD STUDENTS DO AT H.S.C LEVEL IN BANGLADESH.

At the H.S.C level our students take exam of 200 marks in English. (English 1st paper 100, English 2nd -100) In English First Paper, Part – “C” is the writing part containing 40 marks and in English Second Paper, writing comprises 60 marks. So, in total students at the H.S.C level take an exam of 100 marks of writing which is 50% of total English marks. (i.e. 200)

4. APPROACHES TO WRITING /WRITING AS A PRODUCT OR PROCESS:

There are several ways to approach writing in the classroom. According to Vanessa Steele it should be said that there is not necessarily any right or best way to teach the writing skill. The best practice in any situation will depend on the type of student, the text type being studied, the academic system and many other factors.

A PRODUCT APPROACH:

This is a traditional approach in which students are encouraged to mimic a model text. This is usually presented and analysed at an early stage. A model for such an approach is outlined below:

Stage 1:

Model texts are read and then features of the genre are highlighted. For example, if studying a formal letter, students' attention may be drawn to the importance of paragraphing and the language used to make formal requests.

Stage: 2

This consists of controlled practice of the highlighted features, usually in isolation. So if students are studying a formal letter, they may be asked to practice the language used to a make formal request, practicing the structures.

Stage3:

Organization of ideas. This stage is very important. Those who favour this approach believe that the organization of ideas is more important than the ideas themselves and as important as the control of language.

Stage 4:

The end result of the learning process. Students choose from a choice of comparable writing tasks. Individually, they use the skills, structures and vocabulary they have been taught to produce the product: to show what they can do as fluent and competent users of the language.

A PROCESS APPROACH:

Process approaches to writing tend to focus more on the varied classroom activities which promote the development of language use: brain storming, group discussion, rewriting. Such an approach can have any number of stages, though typical sequence of activities could proceed as follows:

Stage1:

Generating ideas by brain storming and discussion. Students could be discussing qualities needed to do a certain job, or giving reasons as to why people take drugs or gamble. The teacher remains in the background during this phase, only providing language support if required, so as not to inhibit students in the production of ideas.

Stage 2:

Students jot down ideas into note form, and judge quality and usefulness of ideas.

Stage 3:

Students organize ideas into a mind map, spidergram, or linear form. This stage helps to make the (hierarchical) relationship of ideas more immediately obvious, which helps students with the structure of their texts.

Stage 4:

The students write the first draft. This is done in class and frequently in pairs or groups.

Stage 5:

Drafts are exchanged, so that students become the readers of each others work. By responding as readers, students develop an awareness of the fact that a writer is producing something to be read by someone else, and thus can improve their own drafts.

Stage 6:

Drafts are returned and improvements are made based upon peer feedback.

Stage 7:

A final draft is written.

Stage 8:

Students once again, exchange and read each others' work and perhaps even write a response or reply.

A summary of differences:

Process driven approaches show some differences with task based learning, in that students are given considerable freedom within the task. These are not curbed by pre-emptive teaching of lexical or grammatical items. However, process approaches do not repudiate all interest in the product, (i.e. the final draft). The aim is to achieve the best product possible. What differentiates the process approach from a product centered one is that the outcome of the writing, the product, is not preconceived.

5. WHAT ARE CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD WRITTEN TASK:-

When we speak to somebody, the listener can express his/her reactions to us but when anybody reads a piece of writing the speaker is not in front of him/her. That is why a piece of writing should be such that a reader can get the message. So a good written task should be explicit and it has to make clear the context and all references – says Penny Ur in *A Course in English Teaching* (1996:160)

Penny Ur (1996:161) also opines that a good written task should be wellorganized and carefully formulated. A written text should conform more to conventional rules of formal than oral text. Writing should usually use a generally acceptable standard variety of the language.

Here mainly our focus is on the formal academic which the students perform in the examination. So in the context of the criteria of a good written task it can be said that it a student presents his theme in a reasonable, intelligible logical manner and if he writes with complete accuracy except for slips, and in the appropriate style, it will be considered as a good written task. In a good piece of writing the writer demonstrates a sense of mastery of the language and of the ability to handle the topic with complete competence.

At the Higher Secondary level, a good written task refers to a well- ordered, well supported details of the concerned topic. It is to be admitted that the performance of the students at the Higher Secondary level in writing is not quite up to the mark in accordance with the standard of a good written task.

6. HOW TO TEACH WRITING:

Harmer (2004:2) says that English writing has changed considerably over the centuries. Spoken language for a child is acquired naturally as a result of being exposed to it, whereas the ability to write has to be consciously learned. Since writing is used for a variety of purposes, it is produced in many different forms. Generally, writing process has four main elements:

- i. Planning
- II. Drafting
- III. Editing
- IV. Final version

The elements are discussed in details bellow:

Planning:

When planning, writers have to think about three main issues. In the first place they have to consider the purpose of their writing since this will influence (amongst other things) not only the type of text they wish to produce, but also the language they use, and the information they choose to include. Secondly, experienced writers think of the audience they are writing for, since this will influence not only the shape of the writing (how it is laid out, how the paragraphs are structured, etc) but also the choice of language whether, for example, it is formal or informal in tone. Thirdly, writers have to consider the content structure of the piece – that is, how best to sequence the facts, ideas, or arguments which they have decided to include.

Drafting:

We can refer to the first version of a piece of writing as a draft. This first go at a text is often done on the assumption that it will be amended later. As the writing process proceeds into editing, a number of drafts may be produced on the way to the final version.

Editing:

Once writers have produced a draft they then, usually, read through what they have written to see where it works and where it does not. Perhaps the order of the information is not clear. Perhaps the way something is written is ambiguous or confusing. They may then move paragraphs around or write a new introduction. They may use a different from of words for a particular sentence. More skilled writers tend to look at issues of general meaning and overall structure before concentrating on detailed features such as individual words and grammatical accuracy. The latter two are, of course, important and are often dealt with later in the process.

Final version:

Once writers have edited their draft, making the changes they consider to be necessary, they produce their final version. This may look considerably different from both the original plan and the first draft, because things have changed in the editing process. But the writer is now ready to send the written text to its intended audience.

Stages in teaching writing:

CONTROLLED WRITING → GUIDED WRITING → FREE WRITING

Types of Controlled and Guided Writing Exercise:

Activity 1:

i. Coping from substation table

Example:

dow cream s esta		ide. made of leather. with a red circle. old. ong with small heads.
---------------------------	--	---

shi flag		pf glass.
----------	--	-----------

This is a copying exercise, but the students have a choice of words to copy and therefore have to think about which is the correct choice for each sentence they write. They will not be able to do this exercise if they do not understand what they are copying from the table

ii. Writing from a Model (with pictures)

In this kind of exercise, the students are given a model text to guide them and a set of picture prompts to provide the new information. The prompts need not necessarily be in the form of pictures rather they could be in the form of a table of notes.

iii. Gap Filling

Gap-filling writing exercises are useful for focusing on particular points of grammar or vocabulary which have recently been taught.

iv. Writing from Notes

In this kind of exercise, the students are given information in the form of notes which they have to expand and link together to make a paragraph or a series of paragraphs

v. Reordering a text

The main purpose of this type of exercise is to increase the students' awareness of the importance of cohesion in writing.

Implications for learning and teaching:

A consideration of the writing process, and of how speaking and writing are related to each other – especially in a world of changing communication media – is not only of academic interest. It also has implications for the way we teach writing. Many traditional approaches, for example, failed to incorporate the kinds of insight into the writing process that we have been discussing. In some teaching, for example, students write a composition in the classroom which the teacher corrects and hands back the next day covered in red ink. The students put the corrected pieces of work in their folders and rarely look at them again. For many years the teaching of writing focused on the written product rather than on the writing process. In other words, the students' attention was directed to *what* rather than the *how* of text construction. Product approaches expected the student to only analyse texts in terms of what language they used and how they were constructed. Such a focus can be highly beneficial for many students. However, we also need to concentrate on the process of writing, and in this regard, there are a number of strategies we need to consider. (Harmer 2004:11)

The way we get students to plan:

Before getting students to write we can encourage them to think about what they are going to write – by planning the content and sequence of what they will put down on paper (or type into the computer). There are various ways of doing this including, at one end of the scale, **brainstorming** (where students in pairs or groups come up with as many ideas as they can through discussion) to more guided tasks where the teacher or the course book includes a number of activities which lead

students to plan for a forthcoming task. When students are planning we can encourage them to think not just about the content of what they want to say but also about what the purpose of their writing is, and who the audience is they are writing for.

The way we encourage them to draft, reflect, and revise:

Students who are unused to process writing lessons will need to be encouraged to reflect on what they have written, learning how to treat first drafts as first attempts and not as finished products. We may want to train them in using and responding to correction symbols. We may offer them revision checklists to use when looking through what they have written with a view to making revisions.

One way of encouraging drafting, reflection, and revision is to have students involved in collaborative writing. A pair or group of students working together on a piece of writing can respond to each other's ideas (both in terms of language and content) making suggestions for changes, and so contributing to the success of the finished product. (Harmer 2004:11)

The task of the teacher in writing:

When helping students to become better writers, teachers have a number of crucial tasks to perform. This is especially true when students are doing writing for writing activities where they may be reluctant to express themselves or have difficulty finding ways and means of expressing themselves to their satisfaction.

Among the tasks which teachers have to perform before, during, and after student writing are the following: (Harmer 2004:41)

Demonstrating:

Since, as we have said, students need to be aware of writing conventions and genre constraints in specific types of writing, teachers have to be able to draw these features to their attention. In whatever way students are made aware of layout issues or the language used to perform certain written functions, for example the important issue is that they are made aware of these things – that these things are drawn to their attention. (Harmer 2004:41)

Motivating and provoking:

Student writers often find themselves lost for words especially in creative writing tasks. This is where the teacher can help provoking the students into having ideas enthusing them with the value of the task and persuading them what fun it can be. It helps for example if teachers go into class with prepared suggestions so that when students get stuck they can immediately get help rather than having themselves to think of ideas on the spot. Time spent preparing amusing and engaging ways of getting students involved in a particular writing task will not be wasted. Students can be asked to complete tasks on the board or reassemble jumbled texts as a prelude to writing. They can be asked to exchange virtual e- mails or discuss ideas before the writing activity starts. Sometimes teachers can give them the words they need to start a writing task as a way of getting them going. (Harmer 2004:41)

Supporting:

To be closely allied to the teacher's role as motivator and provoker is that of supporting. Students need a lot of help and reassurance once they get going, both with ideas and with the means to carry them out. Teachers need to be extremely supportive when students are writing in class, always

available (except during exam writing), and prepared to help students overcome difficulties. (Harmer 2004:42)

Responding:

The way we react to students' written work can be divided into two main categories, that of responding and that of evaluating. When responding, we react to the content and construction of a piece supportively and (but not always) make suggestions for its improvement. When we respond to a student's work at various draft stages, we will not be grading the work or judging it as a finished product. (Harmer 2004:42)

7. HOW TO GIVE FEEDBACK:

No matter what kind of writing students undertake students will need feedback regarding its acceptability, quality and accuracy (Jordan, 1997). The product approach to writing which is the traditional approach to writing sees writing as a polished product. It sees writing as a liner and a one-shot approach. The focus is on error correction and the awarding of a final grade/ number on the written work. On the other hand, the process approach to writing which has been around since the 1970s sees writing as a process of discovery and a multi-draft approach. "Feedback is a fundamental element of the process approach to writing. Feedback can be defined as input from the reader to the writer with the effect of providing information to the writer for revision" (Keh, 1996: 295)

Generally, in traditional approaches to teaching and learning (as well as writing) the teacher is supposed to be the ultimate source of all knowledge and authority. The teacher performs two roles. "The first is that of knower: the teacher is a source of knowledge in terms of both the target language and the choice of methodology. The second role is that of activity organizer: the teacher sets up and steers learning activities in the right direction... and provides authoritative feedback on students 'performance'" (Tudor, 1996: 273-274).

In traditional writing classrooms the role of the teacher has been very limited, namely to set the task, maybe with a brief discussion, and then to examine the work (written task) handed in as product. The teacher's role has primarily been to evaluate learner performance (Little wood, 1981). Over the last two decades teachers' roles have been redefined, broadened and made more flexible to accommodate new changes. Littlewood (1981), Harmer (1983) and Richards, (1990) have classified teacher roles in terms of motivator, controller, assessor, organizer, prompter, participant, resource, tutor, manager, instructor, researcher, learner, counsellor and friend and provider of accurate models. Some of these are traditional and well established e.g. controller and organizer and assessor. Some, however, are reflective of the changes in recent methodology e.g. participant, counsellor, and tutor.

Various Forms of Feedback:

Feedback in general is a response or reaction from another person to something one does. This information can be used to help one assess and improve his/her performance. Feedback is an indispensable tool for improving the teaching and learning of writing, by providing information to students on the performance of their written work. "Through feedback, the writer learns where he or she has misled or confused the reader by not supplying enough information, illogical organization, lack of development of ideas or something like inappropriate word-choice or tense" (Khe, 1996: 295). Some major forms of feedback are discussed below:

Table 1: Major Forms of Feedback

Forms of Feedback
Or Correction
Written Correction
References
Formulation
Edited Commentary
Text Approximation
Written Comments
Codes and Numbers

Error Correction (Allwright, 1975; Norrish; 1983; Hendrickson, 1984; Chaudron, 1988):

Feedback on errors is perhaps one of the oldest and most widely reported forms of feedback (Chaudron 1977, 1988; Celce Murcia, 1993) Oral or written correction or both may be provided. In written work, typical ways used by the teacher are either to underline, indicate and correct the errors in the text or simply to indicate them by means of a code in the margin about the kind of error. Sometimes teachers correct everything; sometimes they underline errors and do not correct them; sometimes they tell the students the kind of error they have made but they do not correct it and sometimes they do all three.

For feedback and evaluation purposes, the teacher may in advance give correcting codes (a typed sheet of paper i.e. a key to students consisting of symbols and abbreviations along with their meaning which will be used to indicate the type of error made).

Table 2: Symbols for Correction of Written Work

violation	ng
	tense, i.e. the wrong tense has been used
	form e.g. active /passive, singular/plural
	e usage, i.e. wrong usage of articles
	sition, i.e. wrong usage
	ellaneous grammatical errors, e.g. countable/uncountable
	class
	formation, i.e. wrongly formed word
	ropriate use of word/phrase

	order, i.e. word/phrase in wrong position in sentence
	omatic expression, i.e. not 'English'
	ice structure, e.g. no verb, two verbs without connective
	ng
	tation
	ion
	ng unclear, rewrite
	i.e. word phrase may be unnecessary

(White & Arndt, 1991; Jordan, R, 1997)

The above chart is only an example. Teachers can test the existing chart by trying it in the classroom and make further modifications as necessary. Based on their students' level, teachers may devise their own code of abbreviations or set of symbols for drawing attention to grammatical features. The teacher while correcting students work may underline or cross out the errors. The above symbols and abbreviations may be used to indicate the type of error made and will appear in the margin. This method helps the students to develop an awareness of their particular areas of weakness. The student may also use the chart for peer correction. Most importantly, this correcting code technique may also assist students to engage in self-correction. In general it helps them to improve accuracy in writing and is effective for grammatical errors.

(Fathman and Whalley, 1990; Makino, 1993 and Jordan, 1997).

The feedback arising from the above method may consist of any of the following: locating errors, coding errors, treatment of errors (Norrish, 1983).

With regard to treatment of errors an important distinction is made between local and global errors (Burt & Kiparsky, 1992; Heaton, 1988). Those which do not hinder the readers' comprehension of the sentence (e.g. misuse of articles, omission of prepositions) are considered local errors. Those which affect overall sentence organization and result in failure to understand the message are referred to as global errors (e.g. order, misuse of connectives). This distinction between local and global errors seem most useful to teachers for deciding which errors to prioritize for correction and also suggests different treatments for each kind. For example, local errors, if often repeated, may well be the result of carelessness and thus may sometimes be ignored by teachers. Global errors require more fundamental treatment by teachers. In line with this argument, Hendrickson (1984) and Bryne (1988) recommend that errors should be corrected selectively. Hendrickson further suggests that three kinds of errors should be dealt with a) errors that impair understanding b) errors that have negative effect on the reader c) errors that occur frequently. This reinforces the importance of attending to global errors more than local errors.

Peer Feedback (Lynch, 1988; Robinson, 1991; Arndt, 1993; Keh, 1996):

Peer feedback is referred to by different names e.g. peer response, peer editing and peer evaluation. In this method students read each others writing in pairs and groups and offer comments and do corrections. Students may use a similar list for correction as the one given above. Peer feedback takes place in the classroom under the guidance of a teacher. This activity is a good exercise for the students as it involves them in communicating with their classmates. The opportunity to discuss each other's essay and writing gives valuable feedback. Students write with more specific focus because

they know that their peers will also be reading their paper. Keh (1996:305) feels that “peer feedback is versatile, with regard to focus and implementation along the ‘process’ writing continuum”. Peer evaluation is helpful because it can raise the analytical power of students. For example, when students read their classmates’ essays they can find their mistakes and at the same time, this helps to remind them to correct and avoid similar mistakes in their own work. It also helps to provide a wider sense of audience and saves teachers’ time (Mendonca and Johnson, 1994)

Conferences (Freedman & Sperling, 1985; Hedge, 1988; Keh, 1996; Arndt, 1993):

Conferences are one to one or face to face meetings between teacher and students which can be arranged individually or in groups. “Conferences can be used at the pre-writing stage, in process stage, evaluation stage or post product stage.” (Keh, 1996:305)

Some student responses to the advantages of conferences are given below:

- i. Students can ask questions
- ii. Students can have a chance to talk more in

8. ASSESSING WRITING:

Assessing is to measure or evaluate something with some certain standard. According to Oxford Advanced Dictionary, to assess means to make an opinion or to judge the nature or quality of something. Khan (1999) says that the teaching and assessment of writing are inextricably linked. Whenever we teach writing we almost always have to assess it. Hence the issue of evaluating students’ writing is an important factor in teaching writing. Especially, at the HSC level assessing writing is extremely important as this level is regarded as a preparatory stage for entrance into the university and at the end of the two year period a public examination is held.

SCORING PROCEDURE FOR WRITING ASSESSMENT:

There are two major approaches to scoring writing samples. One is the familiar holistic scoring in which a global score based on the overall impression of a work is assigned to the scripts. Another main approach to assessing writing is analytic scoring which involves isolating one or more characteristics of writing and scoring them individually. Let us discuss these matters in detail.

Holistic scoring:

In a typical holistic scoring session, each script is read quickly and then judged against a rating scale, or scoring rubric, that outlines the scoring criteria. The existence of a scoring rubric distinguishes holistic scoring from its earlier, less reliable predecessor, general impression marking, in which criteria are never explicitly stated. The rubric is complemented by a set of anchor or benchmark scripts at each level that are intended to exemplify the criteria for that level, and raters are carefully trained to adhere to the rubric, benchmark scripts, and rater training is not limited to holistic scoring, on the contrary, these features are recognized as good practice in writing assessment, regardless of the type of scale used.

Holistic scoring has become widely used in writing assessment over the past 25 years and has a number of positive features. From a practical standpoint, it is faster (and therefore less expensive) to read script once and assign a single score than to read it several times, each time focusing on a different aspect of the writing. However, as White (1984, 1985), one of the leading proponents of holistic scoring, notes, there are also other advantages to holistic scoring. White maintains that

holistic scoring is intended to focus the readers' attention on the strengths of the writing, not on its deficiencies, so that writers are rewarded for what they do well. Holistic scoring rubrics can be designed to focus readers' attention on certain aspects of writing, depending on what is deemed most essential in the context, and thus can provide important information about those aspects in an efficient manner. White also argues that holistic scoring is more valid than analytic scoring methods because it reflects most closely the authentic, personal reaction of a reader to a text, and that, in analytic scoring methods, too much attention to the parts is likely to obscure the meaning of the whole (White, 1984:409)

On the other hand, holistic scoring has several disadvantages, particularly in second language contexts. One drawback of holistic scoring is that a single score does not provide useful diagnostic information about a person's writing ability, as a single score does not allow raters to distinguish between various aspects of writing such as control of syntax, depth of vocabulary, organization and so on. This is especially problematic for second language writers, since different aspects of writing ability develop at different rates for different writers: some writers have excellent writing skills in terms of content and organization but may have lower grammatical control, while others may have an excellent grasp of sentence structure but may not know their writing in a logical way.

Another disadvantage of holistic scoring is that holistic scores are not always easy to interpret as raters do not usually use the same criteria to arrive at the same scores.

Analytic Scoring:

In analytic scoring, scripts are rated on several aspects of writing or criteria rather than given a single score. Depending on the purpose of the assessment, scripts might be rated on such features as content, organization, cohesion, register, vocabulary, grammar or mechanics. Analytic scoring schemes thus provide more detailed information about a test taker's performance in different aspects of writing and for this reason preferred over holistic schemes by many specialists.

One of the best known and most widely used analytic scales in ESL was created by Jacobs et al (1981). In the Jacobs et al. scale, scripts are rated on five aspects of writing: content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanics. The five aspects are differentially weighed to emphasize first content and next language use with organization and vocabulary weighed equally and mechanics receiving very little emphasis. This scale has been adopted by numerous college levels writing programme, and is accompanied by training materials and sample compositions so that users can fairly quickly learn to apply the scale. A slightly different approach to analytic scoring for second language writing assessment is a set of scales developed for the Test in English for Educational purposes (TEEP) by Cyril Weir (1988). A third example of an analytic scoring system is the Michigan Writing Assessment Scoring Guide (Hamp-Lyons, 1990; 1991a) for grading an entry level university writing examination. Hamp Lyons (1991b) states that the assessment has had a positive reception among students, faculty, advisors and other community members because it reflects the concerns of and is easily interpreted by these varied constituencies.

The major disadvantage of analytic scoring is that it takes longer than holistic scoring, since readers are required to make more than one decision for every script. An additional problem with some analytic scoring schemes is that, if scores on the different scales are combined to make a composite score, a good deal of information provided by the analytic scale is lost. It may also be the case that raters who are experienced at using a particular analytic scoring system may actually rate more holistically than analytically if scores are combined into a single score: experienced raters may target

their ratings towards what they expect the total score to come out to be, and revise their analytic scores accordingly (Charlene Polio, 1998)

The choice about the kind of rating scale to use is not always clear-cut. A useful approach to making a decision is to appeal to the Bachman and Palmer (1996) framework of test usefulness presents a comparison of holistic and analytic scoring based on the six qualities of test usefulness: reliability, construct validity, practicality, impact, authenticity and interactiveness. As Bachman and Palmer notice, the choice of testing procedures involves finding the best possible combination of these qualities and deciding which qualities are most relevant in a given situation. For example, if large numbers of students need to be placed into writing courses with limited resources, a holistic scale may be the most appropriate based on considerations of practicality. In this case, issues of reliability, validity and impact can be ameliorated by the possibility of adjusting placements within the first week of the class. On the other hand, a test of writing used for research purposes may have reliability and construct validity as central concerns, and practicality and impact may be of lesser significance. These issues must be resolved by the test users in considering all aspects of the situation.

PROBLEMS OF TEACHING AND LEARNING WRITING AT THE HSC LEVEL:

There are a lot of problems in teaching and learning writing at the HSC level. Almost all the classrooms are unusually large where it is really very difficult to teach writing. Even if some teachers give some writing tasks, they cannot check and give an effective feedback to students. The duration of a class is very limited, so it is not possible to conduct a writing class in such a short time. Particularly class on writing is not usually arranged. Moreover the classes consist of multi-level of learners, as a result the teaching of writing is little effective. Many students especially in the rural areas are unable to learn how to write English properly due to poverty as it hampers their overall progress. Sometimes the teachers try to escape writing as it takes much time and labour. In some cases the teachers cannot teach writing effectively as they do not know how to apply an effective technique for teaching writing. In fact, very few teachers are trained to teach writing. Even the teachers having training cannot implement their knowledge due to the lack of environmental support. Some students come to the college with a very poor level of English knowledge particularly in writing. Even many students having a good academic record in English are very weak in writing. This is of course due to our defective testing system where there is no proper testing of writing ability.

CONCLUSION:

As a skill writing is extremely important not only in the examinations but also in practical life. So, proper care should be taken to improve writing skill at the HSC level as this level plays a vital role in a learner's life. If the learners at the HSC level can develop their writing skill, they will be able to do well in all walks of life.

Chapter: 3

Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This research tries to discover the causes of HSC students' failure in developing writing skill. So, logically it requires empirical investigation of the present condition of teaching writing and the effectiveness and suitability of the current testing system used at the HSC level in Bangladesh. The researcher is interested in making a thorough investigation of the present teaching method of writing and testing system of English at the HSC level. The design and construction of the research instruments, the sampling plan of the empirical analysis, the process of administration of the empirical study and the method of processing and analyzing the collected data have been described in details in this chapter.

3.2 Purpose of the Empirical Investigation

The aims and objectives of the empirical investigation of this dissertation are to study and discover the actual causes of the students' failure in developing writing skill at the higher secondary level with a view to bringing about some effective solutions. For this purpose, an empirical investigation of the likings and dislikings of students, beliefs, mentalities, experiences, achievements of teachers, teaching learning environments and teaching techniques were considered as all these factors are related to both the language teaching and language learning situation. The results of the discovery can bring a positive change by removing the unnecessary fear in writing.

3.3 Research Question:

This research had the following research question:

What are major factors associated with students' failing to develop the writing skill at the HSC level?

3.4 Research Hypotheses

This research had four hypotheses which are as follows:

1. Lack of motivation and opportunities on the part of learners to improve their writing ability.
2. Lack of expertise and opportunities on the part of teachers to impart this skill effectively.
3. Testing system of HSC Examination is not conducive to the development of writing skill and it leads to memorization.
4. Students in general are not able to write English freely and correctly.

3.5.1 Reasons for these hypotheses:

Students at the higher secondary level fail to develop the writing skill because of their lack of motivation. At the same time, the learners get fewer opportunities than they deserve. More over lack of expertise is another main reason of our students' failure in developing writing skill. In many cases teachers do not get enough opportunity to impart this skill effectively. Even the testing system of HSC examination does not compel the learners to be creative in the writing rather it paves the way of memorization. This research was based on hypotheses that if students are taught the techniques of writing, they will be able to develop their writing skill.

3.6 Methodology of the Empirical Investigation:

The nature and purpose of this study matches basically with those at a descriptive study. Considering this fact the survey method was chosen for the empirical study. Three main techniques of the survey method-questionnaire survey, interview and observation were adopted for the study. Therefore, the methods for data collection employed for the study were – 1) Students` Questionnaire Survey, 2) Students` Interview, 3) Teachers` Questionnaire, 4) Teachers` Interview and 5) Classroom Observation. These methods being kept in mind, instruments for the dissertation were designed and administered with care.

In this research, data were collected from different sources through the use of different methods for corroborating the findings. Particularly, the questionnaire survey, interview and observation methods were used for the survey to ensure triangulation and to enhance the accuracy, authenticity, validity and reliability of the data collected.

3.7 Instruments Used for the Empirical Investigation:

The instruments used in this study included: 1) Questionnaire for students, 2) Questionnaire for Teachers and 3) A classroom Observation Schedule. However, interviews of students and teachers were taken on the basis of their opinions and reflections on the subject matter. Hence the interviews of the teachers and the students were semi-guided.

3.8 Construction of the Instruments Used for the Empirical Investigation:

The instruments used in the research were constructed in accordance with the purposes of the study. As the main objectives of this dissertation are to reveal the causes of failure of the writing skill, the empirical study attempted to investigate the factors related to the teaching-learning system of writing skill in different institutions. In this regard, several books on research methodology in English language teaching, education, sociology and psychology were modelled on previous instruments used by other researches in similar kinds of research. In constructing the questionnaires, the intelligibility of the statements used in the questionnaires was taken into consideration because the students were to answer them. Questionnaires for teachers were prepared in such a way that they would not cause any confusion or misunderstanding. Sometimes, questions in both the questionnaires – the students` and the teachers` - were the same and sometimes different depending on their relevance. However, difficult words and technical terms were avoided and if used, they were

explained before administering the questionnaires, the instruments were piloted and necessary changes were made.

3.9 Detailed Description and Discussion of the Students` Questionnaire:

The students` Questionnaire included two sections. There were 12 questions. Description of the two sections is given here.

3.9.1 Section – I: Personal Information:

It is a brief section for collection the personal details of respondents. The personal details included the name of the institutions, place and class status of the respondents. The date of the survey was also included in this section. The option for participants` name was willingly omitted so that they do not feel embarrassed to express their genuine feelings.

3.9.2 Section-II: Students` Beliefs, Choices, Opinions, Achievements, Experiences and Expectations Regarding Learning English:

This section includes 12 questions. They were set to gather information about students` beliefs, choices, opinions- achievements, experiences and expectations regarding the learning of English and various factors related to them.

Of the 12 questions, questions 2,3,4,7,8,10, and 11 were concerned with the students, personal beliefs, choices, experiences, opinions and expectations. Questions 1, 5, 6,8,11, and 12 are set regarding the role of the teacher in the classroom. However all the questions were close ended to avoid any sort of confusion and misunderstanding and the interview was a complementary to the questionnaire.

Questions were constructed on the basis of the research topic and the aims of the research. The questionnaire was constructed to investigate the actual practical situation of teaching writing skill at the higher secondary level.

3.10 Detailed Description and Discussion of the Teachers` Questionnaire:

The teachers` questionnaire includes two sections. There are 15 questions in this questionnaire. Description of the two sections is given here.

3.10.1 Section-I Personal Information:

It is a brief section which describes the personal details of the respondents. The personal details included the name of the institutions, teaching experience, designation, and place. The date of the survey is also included in this section. The option for participants` name was willingly omitted so that they did not feel embarrassed to express their genuine feelings.

3.10.2 Section – II:

This section included 15 questions. Questions were set to gather information about the teachers` beliefs, opinions, choices, achievements, experiences, expectations and activities regarding the

teaching-learning of writing skill and various factors related to them. Of the 15 questions, question # 6 revealed the teachers' training. Questions 1,2, and 3 were concerned with classroom activities of teachers. Questions 5,8,10 and 13 are concerned with teachers techniques applied in the classroom. Question # 4 and 15 were about the timing of the class. Question # 7 was about the environment of the classroom. Question # 9 was about the relationship of the teacher with students. Question #12 is concerned with the teachers' opinion about the prevailing exam system. Question # 14 was about students' attitude towards writing.

3.11 Detailed Description and Discussion of the Instrument for teachers' Interview:

There were fourteen questions for teachers' interview. Of them eleven questions were close ended and three were open ended. The open ended questions were constructed to obtain the opinion of teachers rather than confining them to any presumed opinions. The interviews were semi-guided.

3.12 Detailed Description and Discussion of the Instrument for students' interview:

Ten open ended questions were set to obtain a complete picture of teaching – learning of writing skill. Most of the cases group interviews of the students' were conducted.

3.13 Instruments for classroom observation:

A classroom observation schedule (see Appendix E) was made for observing classrooms. It included statements on various aspects of teaching writing skill in the classroom. It also included statements on teacher's role and students' participation. The main points considered for classroom observation were the number of students, size and condition of the classroom, medium of interactions of students, method of teaching used in the classroom, classroom activities, teaching of the writing techniques.

3.14 Sampling Plan:

In this study, the cluster sampling method was used because the same curriculum, syllabus, textbooks and teaching methods were followed in all secondary schools except English medium schools. However, in all districts, the number of the government schools is less than the number of non-government schools. Hence, any district of the country can be considered a microcosm of the whole country.

In this study, Dhaka was chosen only because it was convenient for the researcher to conduct the research there. Two Missionary colleges and two private colleges were visited. The English medium schools were not included in this study as they are not representative of the mainstream of the secondary educational system of Bangladesh.

For the questionnaire survey and interview of the students, students of class twelve were particularly chosen because they were at the final stage of the higher secondary level and they were matured enough to express their problems more specifically. However, these respondents were chosen from the Science, Arts Commerce background to get an overall idea about their writing performance. As for teachers, an attempt was made to choose two teachers from each college one, experienced and the other young.

3.14.1 Sampling Plan for Students' Interview:

For interview, a different survey questionnaire was used. Discussion with the same students took place. In this section, they gave some more information, not thought of earlier. However, sometimes, they tried to give answers in English and many of them were good at speaking.

3.14.2 Sampling Plan for Teachers' Questionnaire Survey:

The teachers' questionnaire survey was conducted on 8 teachers selected from the four colleges. As mentioned earlier, teachers were selected randomly only on the basis of experience. One from the young teachers and one from the experienced teachers were chosen.

3.14.3 Sampling Plan for Teacher's Interview:

The same teachers were interviewed on the basis of the same questions. But in the interview some newer information came out. Interestingly, sometimes, other English teachers, who were not respondents of the survey questionnaire, gave their opinions.

3.14.4 Sampling Plan for Classroom Observation:

Classroom observation was done in all the four colleges. Four lessons by the four responding teachers were observed. The same observation schedule was used in every observation.

3.15 Administration of the Empirical Work:

The empirical investigation was conducted according to the sampling plan of this study. Brief accounts of the administration process of the empirical investigation i.e. administration of the students' questionnaire survey and their interviews, those of the teachers, and finally classroom observations are presented here.

3.15.1 Administration of the Students' Questionnaire Survey and Interview:

After taking the permissions of the concerned English language teachers and the Principals of selected colleges, the date and time of the survey and interview were fixed. Following the schedule, colleges were visited and an introductory speech on this study was given. Questionnaires were given to the students and classified and explained for their convenience in Bangla. Questionnaires were collected after the answers were given. Then some questionnaires were read and the students were asked for further clarification. Some more information came out and the researcher took notes. The interview section began and proceeded thus.

3.15.2 Administration of the Teachers' Questionnaire Survey and Interview:

The teachers' questionnaire survey was conducted through personal contact with them. Most of the questionnaires were handed to them and collected on the spot. At the time of collection some

questions were asked to them again, and they gave some more information that the researcher noted down. Sometimes, the Principals of the institutions were interested in English and hence their responses were taken. During the interview some other interested teachers made their valuable comments as well.

3.15.3 Process of Classroom Observation:

Classroom observation was done in four lessons of four different teachers who were the respondents of the survey. For this, their permission and the permission of the Principals of the colleges were taken. The researcher sat at the back of the classroom and filled in the classroom observation schedule and checked list and took important notes.

3.16 Processing and Analyzing Data:

Most of the questions set in the questionnaires were administered to collect qualitative data as the paper basically attempts to analyse opinions and views of the people involved; the number of respondents is not considered to be important. However, some closed questions were asked and the results are presented qualitatively. Qualitative data are discussed and analyzed elaborately.

3.17 Limitations:

While conducting the research, the researcher personally faced many problems. The institutions did not want to allow the researcher even though the researcher tried his best to make them understand. When the survey needed for the research was conducted, students were busy with their preparations for the first semester examination. Despite these difficulties, the researcher tried his best to maintain the validity and reliability of the research and hence, every detail is provided. However, some more colleges could be visited because the four colleges which were visited are not typical.

3.18 Conclusion:

This chapter presents the design and administration of the research work. It provides the details of the sampling plan, questionnaire construction, questionnaire administration and survey, interviews, classroom observation and the method of data collection and analysis. Research questions and hypothesis are also mentioned to show the relevance of the activities of the research to its objectives.

Chapter 4

Data Analysis & Presentation

This chapter presents the analysis of the data collected through questionnaire, interview, observation checklist and sample writing. The analysis of the data is presented chronologically which is as follows:

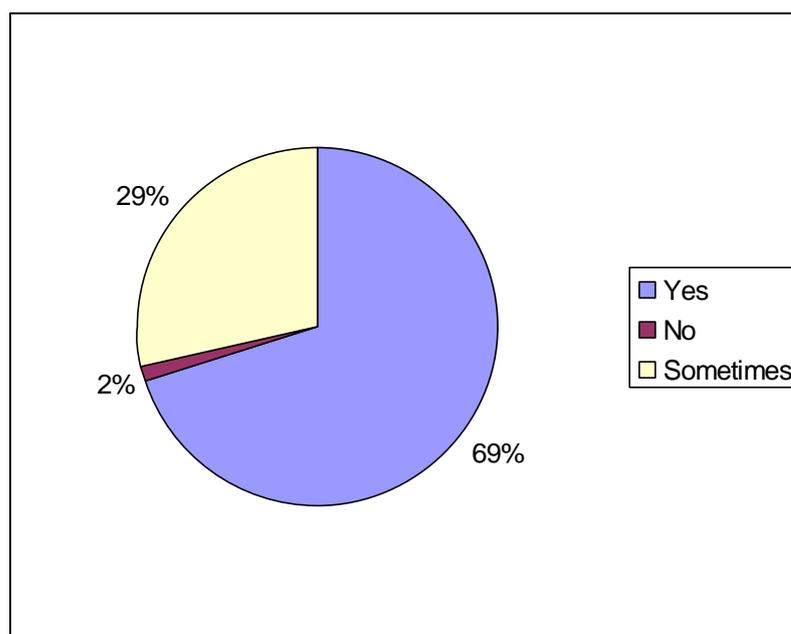
1. Result of the Survey of Questionnaire for Students
2. Result of Students' Interview
3. Result of the Survey of Questionnaire for Teachers
4. Result of the Survey of Teachers' Interview
5. Result of Observation Checklist
6. Analysis of Sample Writings

Result of the Survey of Questionnaire for Students

The first question was “Do you practise writing in your classroom?” Out of two hundred students one hundred and forty said “yes”, only three students said “no” and fifty seven students said “sometimes”. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie chart:

name of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
Sheswari Girls’ College	36.36%	10.90%	52.72%
Notre Dame College	88.33%	1.66%	10%
Holy Cross College	77.77%	22.22%	0%
Parunnisa Noon College	80.26%	0%	19.74%
Average	70%	1.5%	28.5%

Table: 1.1



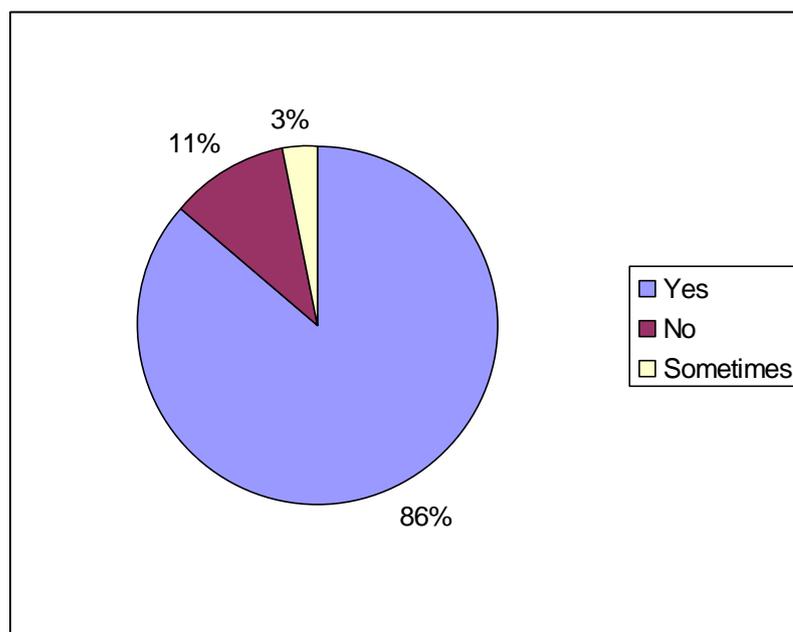
Pie chart: 2.1

The pie chart shows students’ practice of writing in the classroom. According to the chart most students do writing activities in the classroom. However, during the observation the researcher did not find that.

The second question was “Do you think writing in English is interesting?” Out of two hundred students, one hundred seventy three said “yes” and twenty one said “no” but only six students said “sometimes”. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie chart:

Name of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
dhesawari Girls’ College	72.72%	7.27%	20%
re Dame College	95%	1.66%	3.33%
ly Cross College	77.77%	0%	22.22%
quarunnisa Noon College	89.47%	1.32%	9.21%
Average	86.5%	10.5%	3%

Table: 1.2



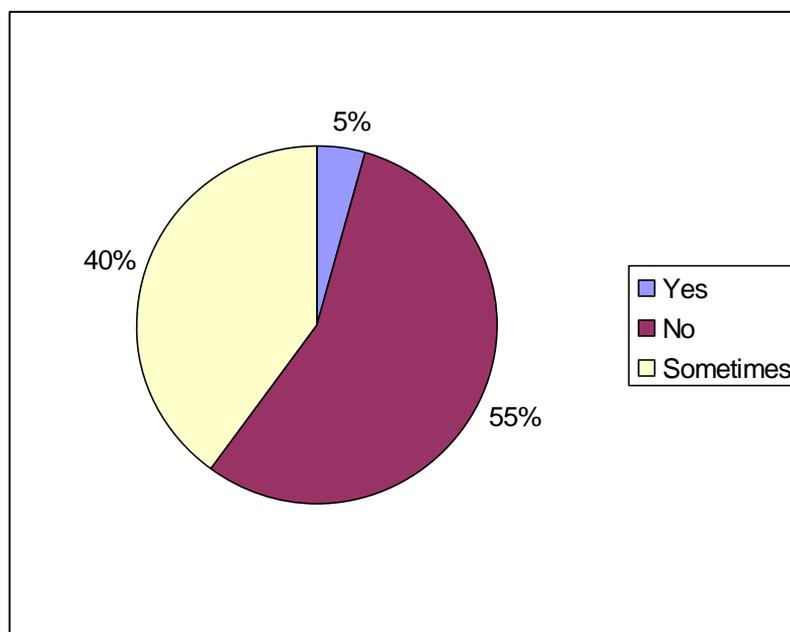
Pie chart: 2.2

The pie chart gives us statistics related to students’ opinion whether they enjoy writing in English or not. According to the chart majority of students enjoy writing in English. However, during the interview with teachers the researcher was reported that students did not enjoy writing in English that much.

Question no. 3 was “Do you fear writing activities in English?” Out of two hundred students, only nine said: yes”, eighty students said “sometimes” but one hundred eleven said that they did not fear writing activities. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie chart:

of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
dheshawari Girls’ College	3.63%	38.18%	60%
re Dame College	6.66%	65%	28.33%
ly Cross College	0%	88.88%	11.11%
quarunnisa Noon College	3.95%	56.58%	39.47%
Average	5%	55%	40%

Table: 1.3



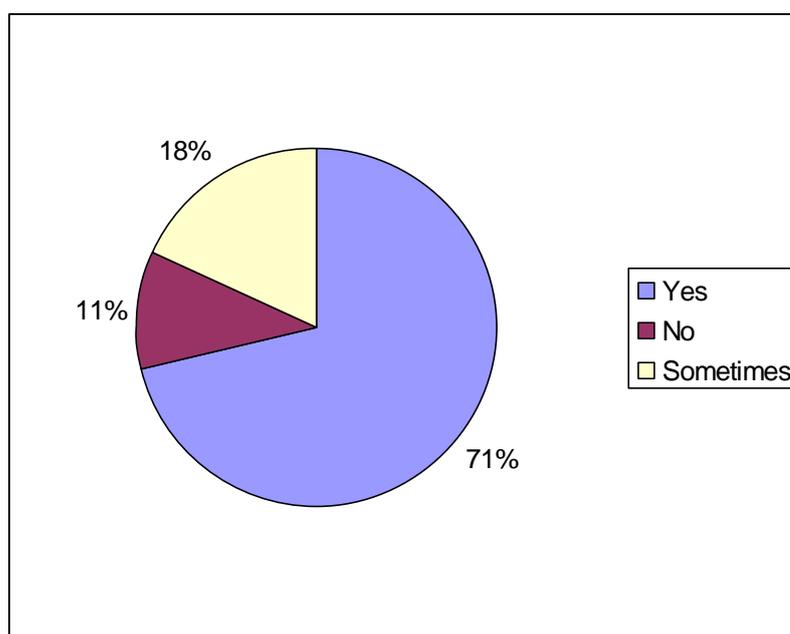
Pie chart: 2.3

The pie chart shows students’ attitude towards writing activities. According to the chart the students are not afraid of writing activities in English. However, during the interview with teachers, they said that many students were afraid of writing activities in English.

Question no 4 was “Do you like the way in which you are taught writing in the classroom?” Out of two hundred students one hundred forty two said “yes”, twenty two students said “no” and thirty six students said “sometimes”. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie chart:

of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
dhesawari Girls' College	29.09%	36.36%	34.54%
re Dame College	90%	3.33%	6.66%
ly Cross College	88.88%	0%	11.11%
quarunnisa Noon College	81.58%	3.95%	14.47%
Average	71%	11%	18%

Table: 1.4



Pie chart: 2.4

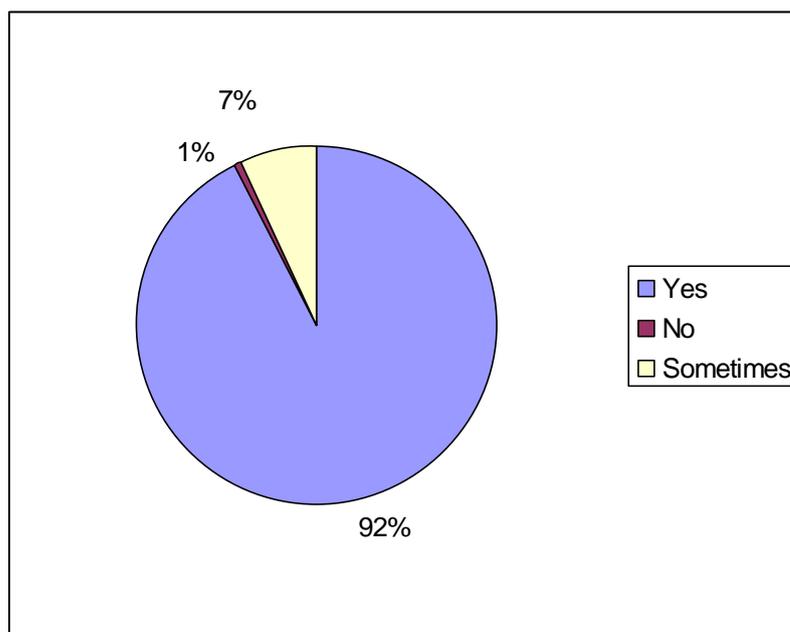
The pie chart presents students' opinion about the procedure of teaching writing in the classroom. According to the chart, most of students like the way in which they are taught writing in the classroom. However, during an open discussion with students many of them said that they did not like teachers' way of teaching writing in the classroom.

Question no. 5 was "Does your teacher encourage you to practise writing in classroom?" Out of two hundred students, one hundred eighty five said "yes", fourteen students said "sometimes" and only one student said "no". The percentages are shown in the following table and pie chart:

of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
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dhesawari Girls' College	83.63%	0%	16.36%
re Dame College	95%	0%	5%
ly Cross College	100%	0%	0%
quarunnisa Noon College	96.05%	0%	3.95%
Average	92.5%	0.5%	7%

Table: 1.5



Pie chart: 2.5

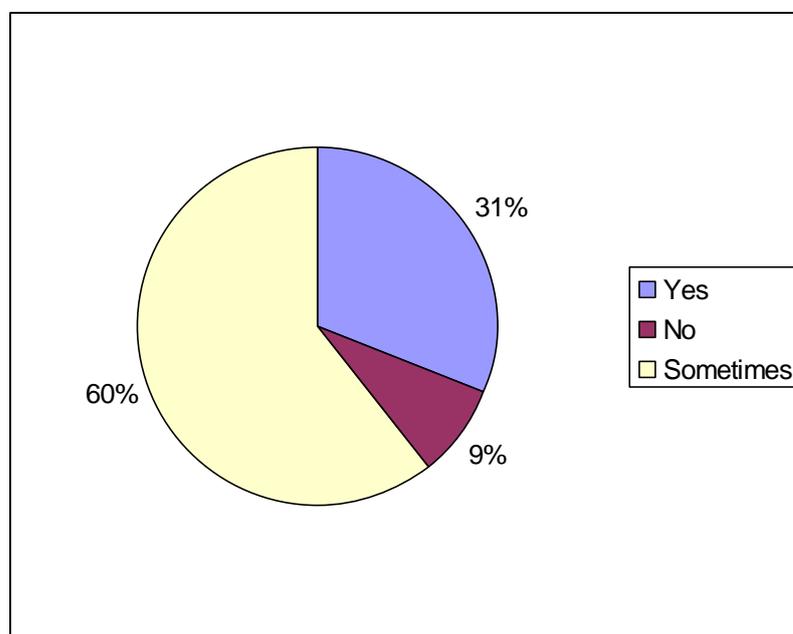
The pie chart gives us statistics related to teachers' encouragement in writing practice in classroom. According to the chart, although majority of students supported teachers' encouragement in writing practice in classroom, in reality the researcher found a different picture during his classroom observation.

Question no. 6 was "Does your teacher correct your error individually in the classroom? Out of two hundred students, sixty two said "yes", One hundred twenty one students said "sometimes" and seventeen students said "no". The percentages are shown in the following table and pie chart:

of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
dhesawari Girls' College	29.09%	16.36%	54.54%
re Dame College	36.66%	3.33%	60%
ly Cross College	0%	22.22%	77.77%

quarunnisa Noon College	35.52%	13.16%	51.32%
Average	31%	8.5%	60.5%

Table: 1.6



Pie chart: 2.6

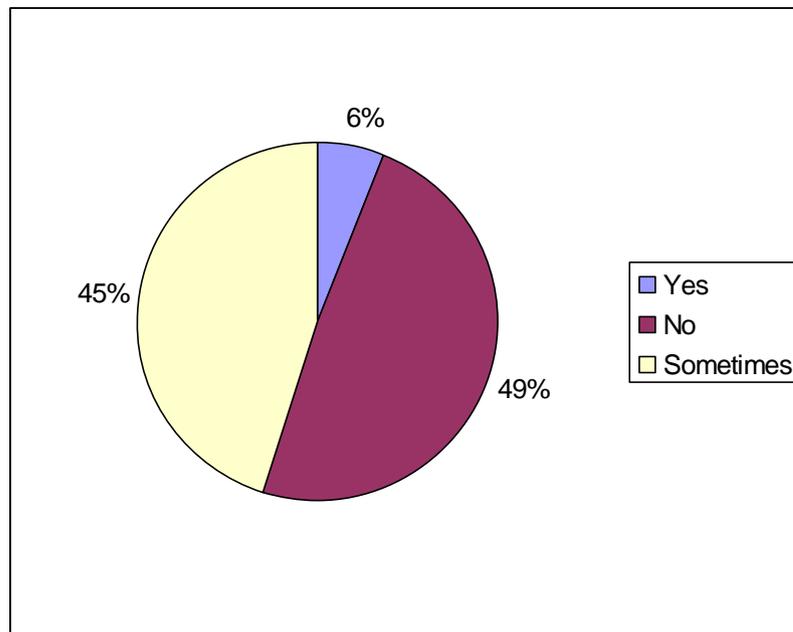
The pie chart shows teachers' correction procedure in the classroom. According to the chart, teachers sometimes correct students' error individually in the classroom. Similar opinions came from teachers also and they said that it was not possible to correct error individually in an unusually large classroom.

Question no. 7 was "Do you depend on memorization to pass your writing examination? Out of one hundred and ninety four students, twelve said "yes", eighty eight students said "sometimes" and ninety four students said "no". The percentages are shown in the following table and pie chart:

of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
dheshawari Girls' College	3.70%	40.74%	55.55%
re Dame College	3.44%	44.82%	51.72%
ly Cross College	0%	83.33%	16.66%
quarunnisa Noon College	9.21%	55.26%	35.53%

Average	6.18%	48.45%	45.36%
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Table: 1.7



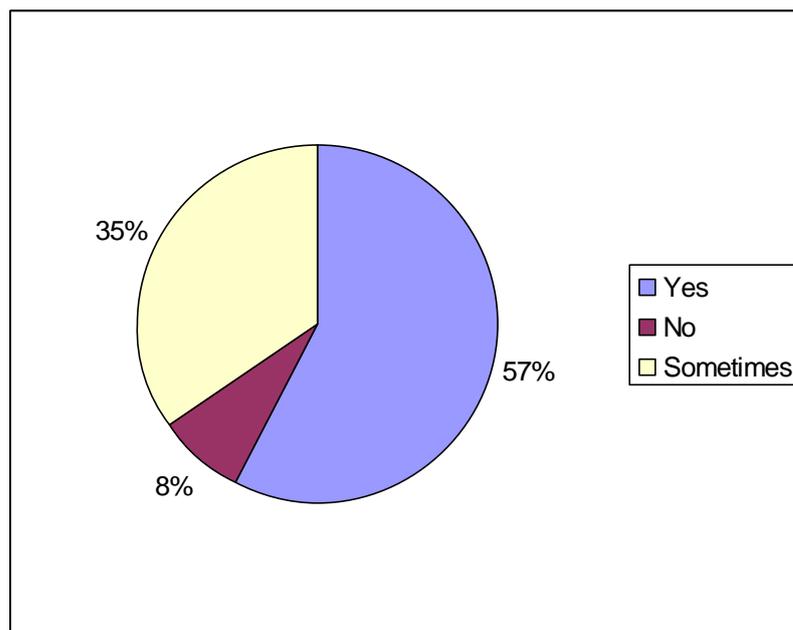
Pie chart: 2.7

The pie chart gives us statistics related to students' dependency on memorization to pass writing examination. According to the chart, very few students depend on memorization. However, teachers said that students were dependent on memorization to a great extent.

Question no. 8 was "Can you write freely on any topic?" Out of one hundred and eighty students, one hundred four said "yes", sixty two students said "sometimes" and fourteen students said "no". The percentages are shown in the following table and pie chart:

of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
dheshawari Girls' College	16.66%	25.92%	57.40%
re Dame College	10.34%	29.31%	60.34%
ly Cross College	16.66%	16.66%	66.66%
quarunnisa Noon College	31.58%	9.21%	59.21%
Average	57.7%	7.77%	34.4%

Table: 1.8



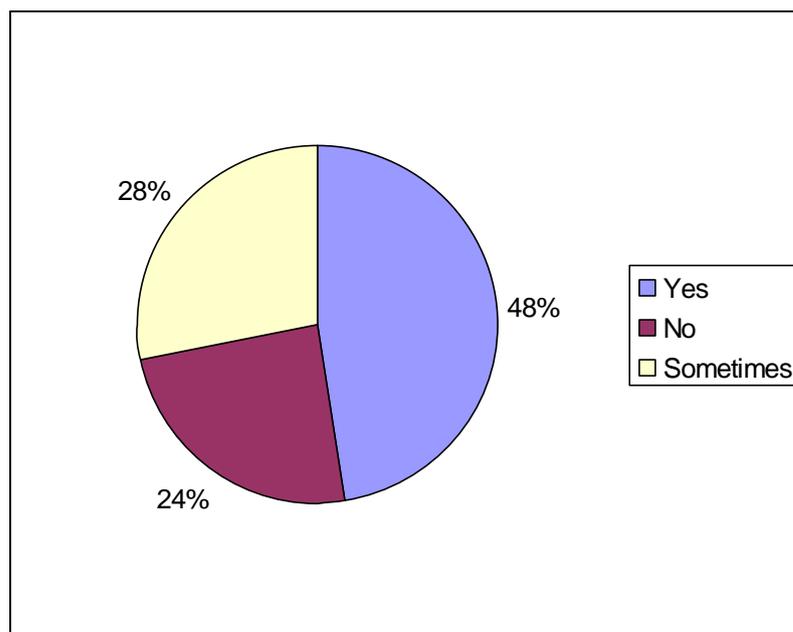
Pie chart: 2.8

The pie chart presents students' ability to write freely on any topic. According to the chart, majority of students have the ability. However, in the sample writing (See Appendix F), the researcher found a different picture as a large number of students could not perform well.

Question no. 9 was "Does your teacher discourage you to memorize?" Out of one hundred and ninety four students, ninety two said "yes", fifty five students said "sometimes" and forty seven students said "no". The percentages are shown in the following table and pie chart:

of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
dheshawari Girls' College	61.11%	16.66%	22.22%
re Dame College	74.13%	20.68%	5.17%
ly Cross College	83.33%	16.66%	0%
quarunnisa Noon College	25%	21.05%	53.95%
Average	47.42%	24.22%	28.35%

Table: 1.9



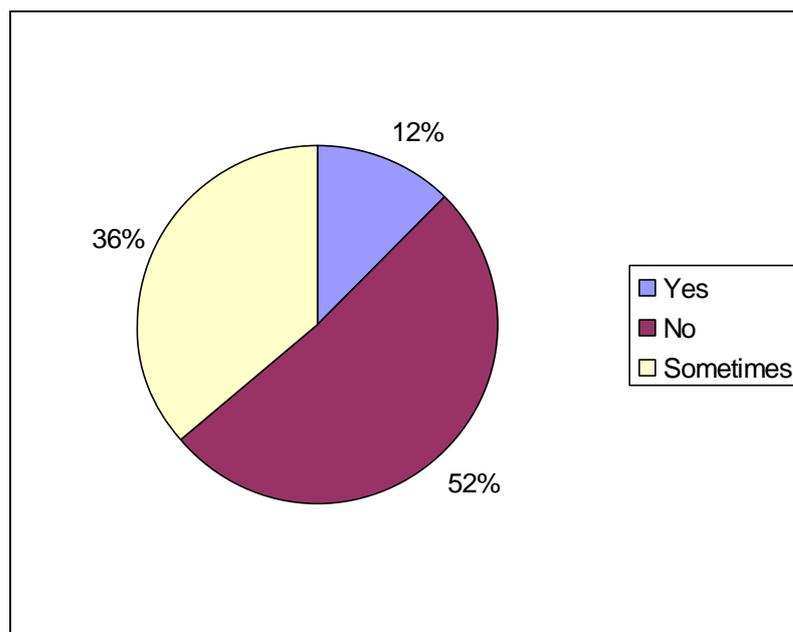
Pie chart: 2.9

The pie chart shows the teachers' role in discouraging students to memorize. According to the chart a large number of students said that teachers discourage them to memorize. However, during an open discussion with students, many of them said that the teachers gave them some selected topics to memorize for the examination.

Question no. 10 was "Do you think you have enough scope to improve writing skill in your class?" Out of one hundred and ninety-six students, one hundred and twelve said "yes", thirty five students said "sometimes" and forty nine students said "no". The percentages are shown in the following table and pie chart:

of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
dheshawari Girls' College	20.37%	55.55%	24.07%
re Dame College	91.37%	5.17%	3.44%
ly Cross College	83.33%	0%	16.66%
quarunnisa Noon College	57.89%	22.37%	19.74%
Average	57.15%	25%	17.85%

Table: 1.10



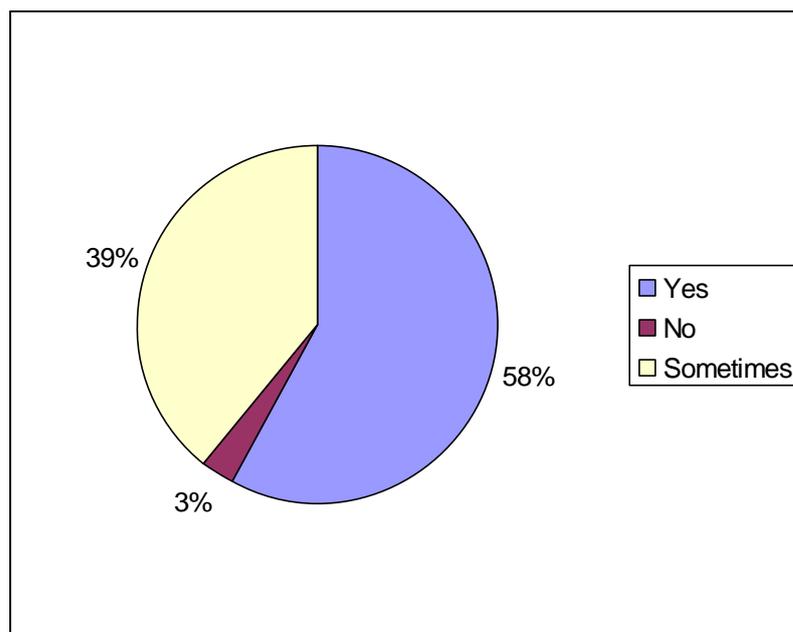
Pie chart: 2.10

The pie chart gives us statistics related to how far students have congenial atmosphere to improve writing skill in there class. According to the chart, most students agree that they have sufficient scope to improve writing skill. However, during the classroom observation the researcher discovered that it was not true.

Question no. 11 was “While writing do you ever feel that you do not have enough vocabulary for writing?” Out of one hundred and ninety-four students, one hundred twelve said “yes”, seventy six students said “sometimes” and six students said “no”. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie chart:

of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
dhesawari Girls’ College	79.62%	1.85%	18.51%
re Dame College	65.51%	5.17%	29.31%
ly Cross College	16.66%	16.66%	66.66%
quarunnisa Noon College	32.89%	1.32%	65.79%
Average	57.73%	3.09%	39.17%

Table: 1.11



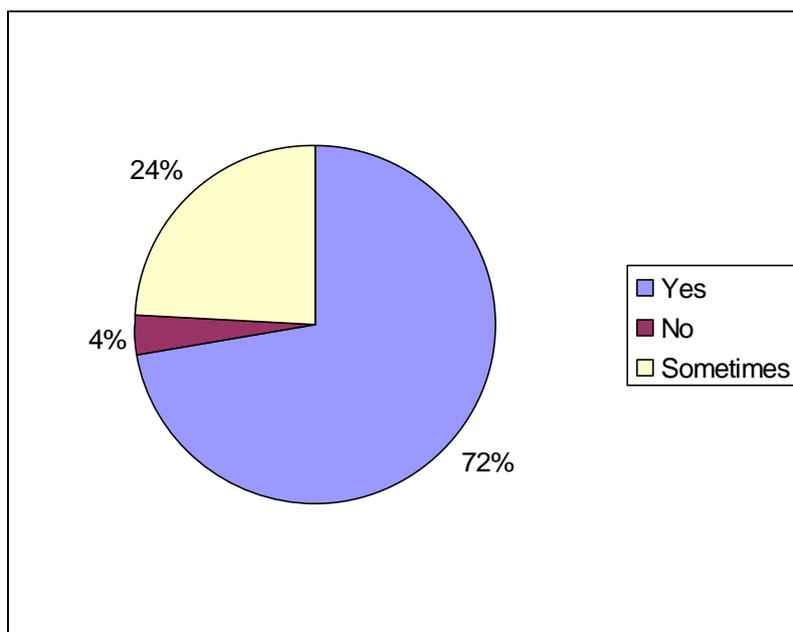
Pie chart: 2.11

The pie chart indicates students' feeling about their adequacy of word stock for writing. According to the chart, very few students think their word stock is sufficient. However, in the sample writing the researcher did not find remarkable use of standard vocabulary.

Question no. 12 was "Does your teacher help you in doing your writing task?" Out of one hundred and ninety-four students, one hundred and forty said "yes", forty seven students said "sometimes" and seven students said "no". The percentages are shown in the following table and pie chart:

of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
Adhesawari Girls' College	40.74%	5.55%	53.70%
Immaculate Conception College	91.37%	0%	8.621%
St. Mary's Cross College	66.66%	0%	33.33%
Shaharunnisa Noon College	82.89%	5.27%	11.84%
Average	72.16%	3.60%	24.22%

Table: 1.12



Pie chart: 2.12

The chart gives us statistics related to teachers' help in doing students' writing task. According to the chart most students admitted teachers' help in writing task. However, during an open discussion with teachers, they said that it was not always possible for them to help students in doing the writing task due to time constraint.

Interview

There were ten close-ended questions for students' interview. About four hundred students were interviewed on the basis of random selection. It was a group interview. The questions were asked by the researcher and the answers were noted down by an average estimation.

The first question was "Do you do any writing activity in your class? What types of writing tasks do you do? How often?" In response to the question, all students replied in affirmative. They said that they write short essays, stories, paragraphs, dialogues, reports, compositions, applications and summaries. However, they said that they did not have any fixed particular class for writing.

The second question was "How do you do your writing task?" Individually or in pairs/groups? In response to this question, most students said that they do the writing task individually. They have very little idea about pair work or group work.

The third question was "Does the teachers discuss the topic of writing with you in class before asking you to write? What does the teacher do?" In response to the question, majority of students said that the teacher discusses the topic of writing with them in class before asking them to write. However, during the observation, the researcher did not find that.

The fourth question was "Do you know how to write a paragraph or an essay? What do you know?" In response to the question, all students replied in the affirmative. They said that they knew the procedure and technique of writing paragraph or an essay. However, when the researcher asked them if they knew about topic sentence of a paragraph, most students replied in the negative.

The fifth question was "Do you have any problems with grammar and vocabulary?" In response to the question, about 50% students said that they had problems with grammar and vocabulary while the rest of students were confident about their competence and vocabulary.

The sixth question was "Does the teacher give you feedback on your writing? How does he do that?" In response to the question, about 60% students said that the teacher gives them feedback on their writing, and another 40% remarked that the teacher cannot give them feedback on their writing due to time constraint. They also said that teachers were reluctant in giving them feedback.

The seventh question was "Do you memorize paragraphs or essays for your exam? Why do you do that?" In response to the question, majority students said that they do not memorize paragraphs or essays for their examination. However, some students said that they memorize paragraphs or essays for their examination and they do so because they cannot write freely in their own words and teachers give them some selected topics to memorize.

The eighth question was "What other problems do you have with the development of your writing skill?" In response to the question, students said that they do not know how to start writing and how to conclude. One student said, "I do not know how to organize my thought." While another student said, "I feel problem with spelling and choosing the appropriate word." An interesting comment came from another student who said, "If I write wrong, my teacher scolds and that is why I do not write."

The ninth question was “What would you like to do in a writing class? What would you like your tasks to do?” In response to the question, students said that they like story writing and dialogue in a writing class. They also said that they can write well if the teacher gives them some pre-writing activities. However, the researcher found pre writing activities only in one institution out of four institutions.

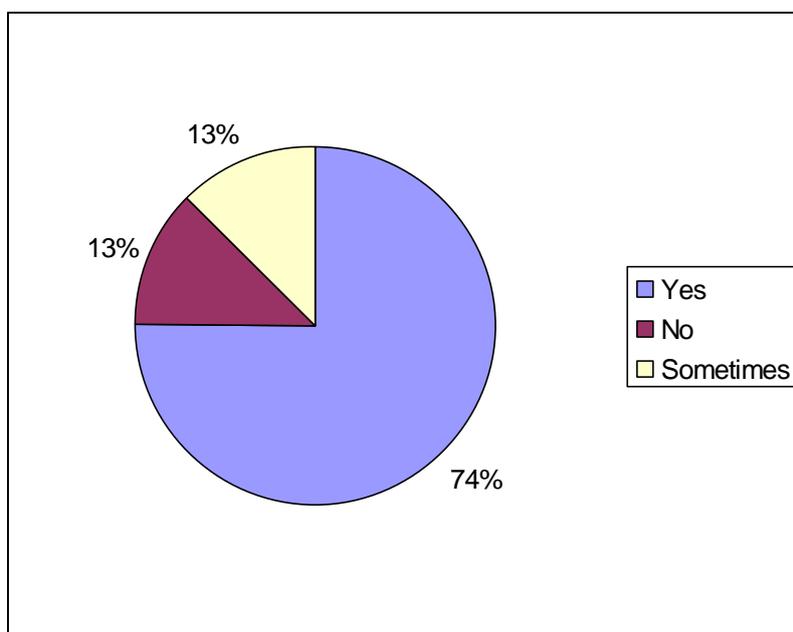
The tenth question was “Do you feel that you cannot write because of your inability to write sentences correctly?” In response to the question, about 50% students replied in the affirmative whereas rest of students said that their sentences are correct but sometimes they do not have any idea about the given topic.

Result of the Survey of Questionnaire for Teachers

Question no. 1 was “Do you emphasize writing activities in your class?” Out of eight teachers, six answered ‘yes’, one answered ‘no’ and one answered ‘sometimes’. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie-chart:

Name of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
Madheswari Girls' College	100%	0%	0%
Sacred Heart College	50%	0%	50%
St. Mary's Cross College	50%	50%	0%
Shaharunnisa Noon College	100%	0%	0%
Average	75%	12.5%	12.5%

Table: 1.1



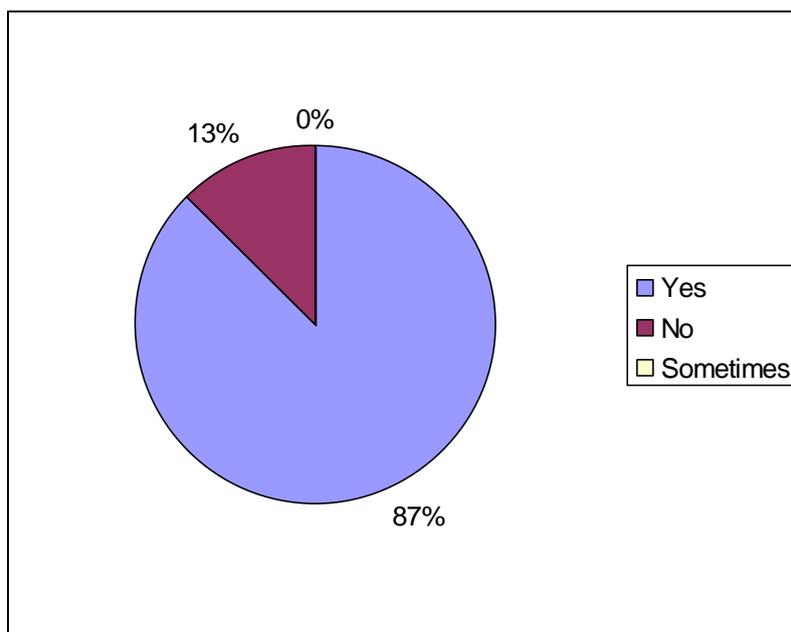
Pie Chart: 2.1

The pie chart shows teachers' emphasis on writing activities in class. According to the chart, most teachers emphasize writing activities in class. However, during an informal interview with guardians, they said that teachers were more careful in their coaching centers than in class.

Question no. 2 was “Do you have your own lesson plan for classroom activities?” Out of eight teachers, seven answered ‘yes’, one answered ‘no’ and none answered ‘sometimes’. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie-chart:

Name of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
Madheswari Girls' College	100%	0%	0%
Sacred Heart College	100%	0%	0%
Saintly Cross College	50%	50%	0%
St. Ignace's College	100%	0%	0%
Average	87.5%	12.5%	0%

Table: 1.2



Pie chart: 2.2

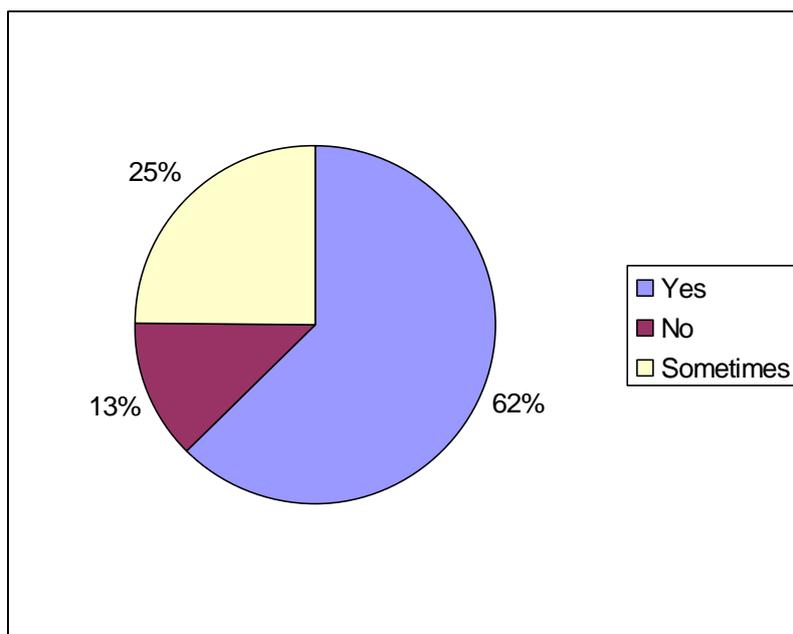
The pie chart gives us statistics related to teachers' own lesson plan for classroom activities. According to the chart, majority of teachers have their own lesson plan.

However, during classroom observation, the researcher found none of the teachers using their own lesson plan.

Question no. 3 was “. Do your students get feedback on their classroom writing activities?” Out of eight teachers, five answered ‘yes’, one answered ‘no’ and two answered ‘sometimes’. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie-chart:

Name of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
Madheswari Girls' College	100%	0%	0%
Sacred Heart College	50%	0%	50%
St. John's College	50%	50%	0%
Shaharunnisa Noon College	50%	0%	50%
Average	62.5%	12.5%	25%

Table: 1.3



Pie chart: 2.3

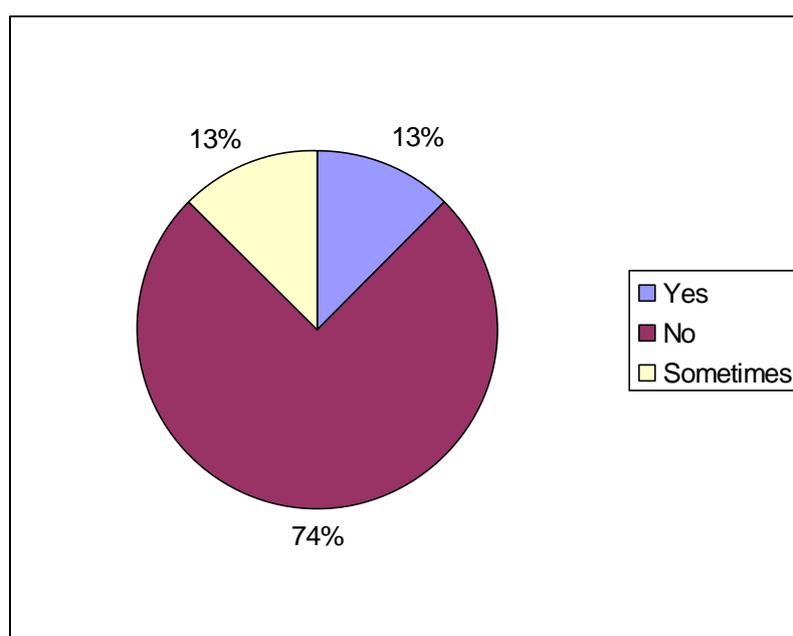
The pie chart shows the percentage of feedback received by students on their classroom writing activities. According to the chart, 62% teachers give students feedback on their

classroom activities. However, in the interview, most teachers said that the duration of class was not sufficient enough to provide students with feedback.

Question no. 4 was “.Do you think the duration of class time is enough for practising writing?” Out of eight teachers, one answered ‘yes’, six answered ‘no’ and one answered ‘sometimes’. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie-chart:

of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
ldhesawari Girls’ College	50%	50%	0%
tre Dame College	0%	100%	0%
oly Cross College	0%	50%	50%
quarunnisa Noon College	0%	100%	0%
Average	12.5%	75%	12.5%

Table: 1.4



Pie chart: 2.4

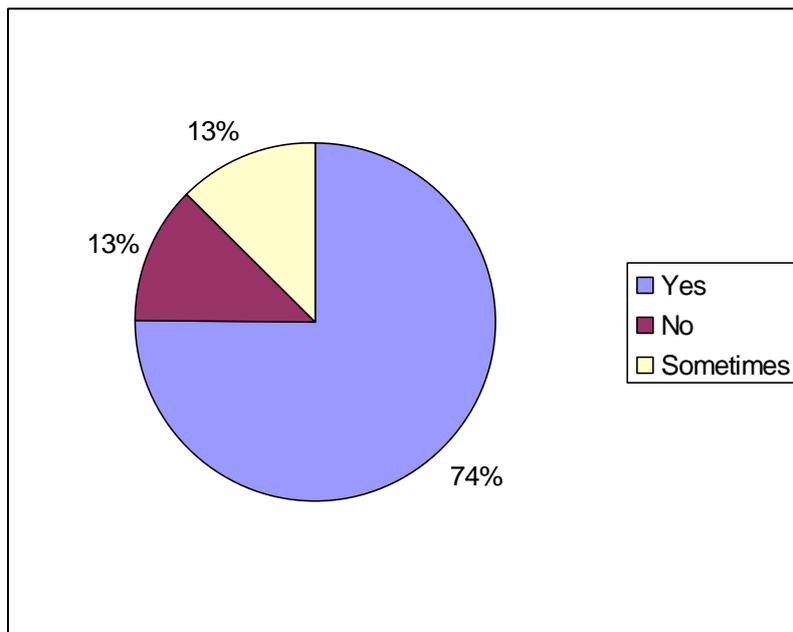
The pie chart gives us statistics related to teachers’ opinion about the adequacy of the duration of class time for practising of writing. According to the chart, most teachers think

the duration of class time is no enough. Similar opinions came from students during an open discussion with the researcher.

Question no. 5 was “.In your teaching do you follow the communicative approach which is suggested in the text book?” Out of eight teachers, six answered ‘yes’, one answered ‘no’ and one answered ‘sometimes’. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie-chart:

of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
ldhesawari Girls’ College	100%	0%	0%
tre Dame College	100%	0%	0%
oly Cross College	0%	50%	50%
quarunnisa Noon College	100%	0%	0%
Average	75%	12.5%	12.5%

Table: 1.5



Pie chart: 2.5

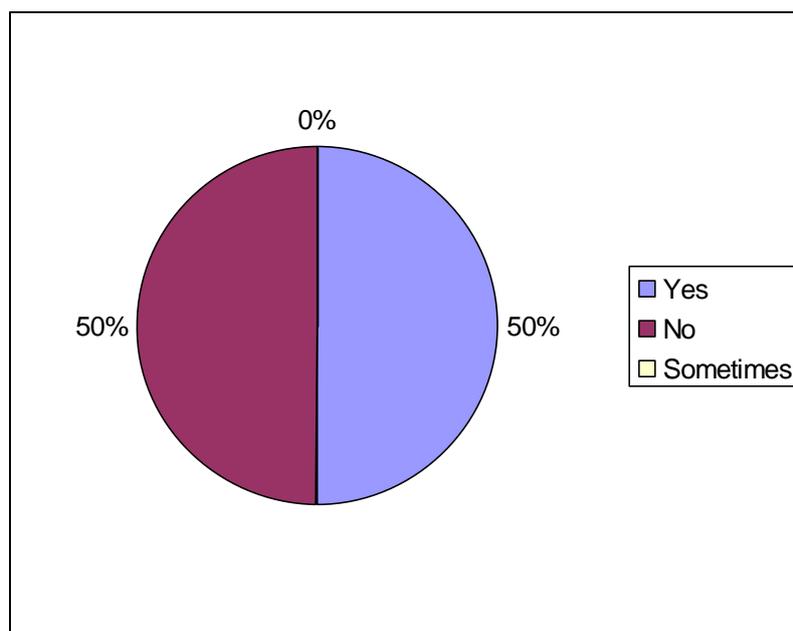
The pie chart is related to whether teachers follow communicative approach or not. According to the chart, majority of teachers said that they follow communicative approach

which is suggested in the textbook. However, during the classroom observation, the researcher found the real picture to be quite opposite. Surprisingly, some teachers raised questions about the appropriateness of communicative approach in the context of Bangladesh.

Question no. 6 was “Did you have any special training on English language teaching?” Out of eight teachers, four answered ‘yes’, four answered ‘no’ and none answered ‘sometimes’. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie-chart:

of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
Idhesawari Girls’ College	50%	50%	0%
tre Dame College	100%	0%	0%
oly Cross College	0%	100%	0%
quarunnisa Noon College	50%	50%	0%
Average	50%	50%	0%

Table: 1.6



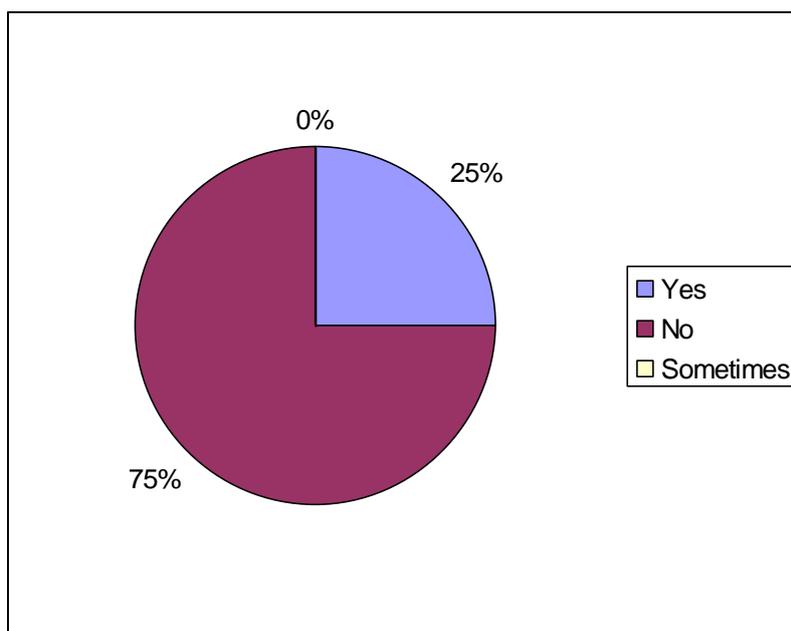
Pie chart: 2.6

The pie chart shows teachers' involvement with training program on English language teaching. According to the chart, 50% teachers had training while the rest did not have any training. However, during the classroom observation, the researcher did not find any major difference between the trained and untrained teachers' conduction of class.

Question no. 7 was “.Did you have any special training on English language teaching?” Out of eight teachers, two answered ‘yes’, six answered ‘no’ and none answered ‘sometimes’. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie-chart:

of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
Idhesawari Girls' College	0%	100%	0%
tre Dame College	0%	100%	0%
oly Cross College	50%	50%	0%
quarunnisa Noon College	50%	50%	0%
Average	25%	75%	0%

Table: 1.7



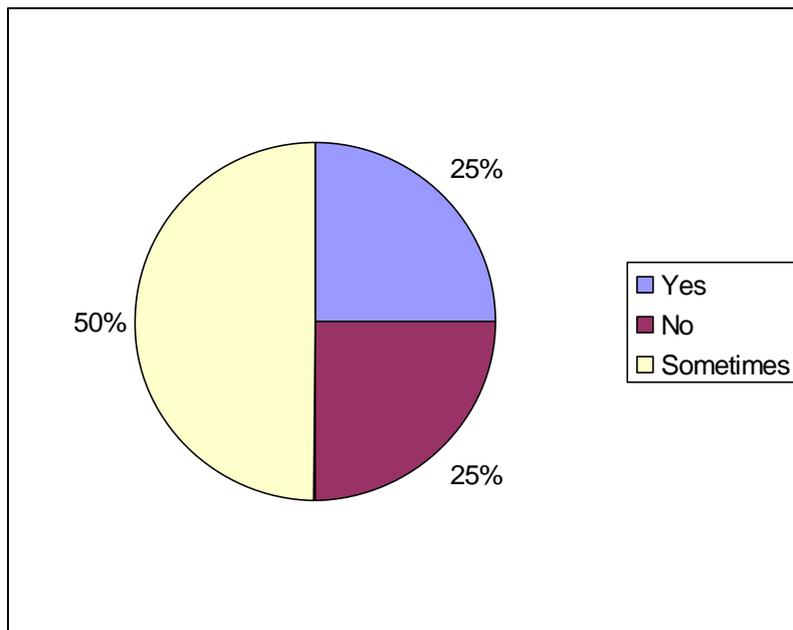
Pie chart: 2.7

The pie chart gives us statistics related to teachers' opinion about the suitability of the classroom environment for teaching English. According to the chart most teachers think that classroom environment is not suitable for teaching English. This is true to a large extent; however, the researcher did not find any initiative taken by teachers to improve the classroom environment.

Question no. 8 was “.Do you do pair/group work with your students?” Out of eight teachers, two answered ‘yes’, two answered ‘no’ and four answered ‘sometimes’. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie-chart:

of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
Idhesawari Girls' College	100%	0%	0%
tre Dame College	0%	0%	100%
oly Cross College	0%	100%	0%
quarunnisa Noon College	0%	0%	100%
Average	25%	25%	50%

Table: 1.8



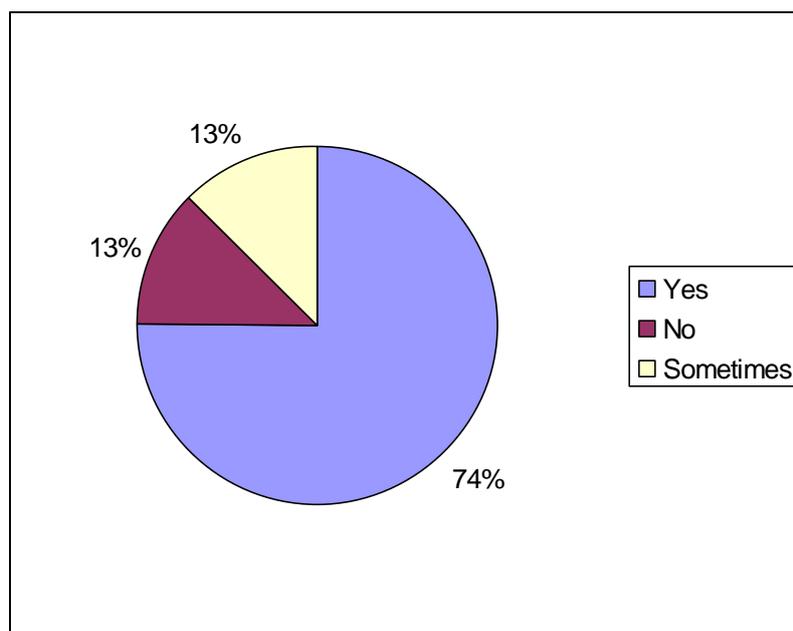
Pie chart: 2.8

The pie chart presents statistics related to teachers' arrangement of group or pair work with their students. According to the chart, 50% teachers do pair or group work with their students. However, in none of the institutions the researcher found group or pair work. Interestingly, during the interview with teachers they said that due to the unusually large classroom, it was not possible for them to arrange group or pair work.

Question no. 9 was “.Do you have friendly relationship with your students?” Out of eight teachers, six answered ‘yes’, one answered ‘no’ and one answered ‘sometimes’. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie-chart:

of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
Idhesawari Girls' College	100%	0%	0%
tre Dame College	50%	0%	50%
oly Cross College	50%	50%	0%
quarunnisa Noon College	100%	0%	0%
Average	75%	12.5%	12.5%

Table: 1.9



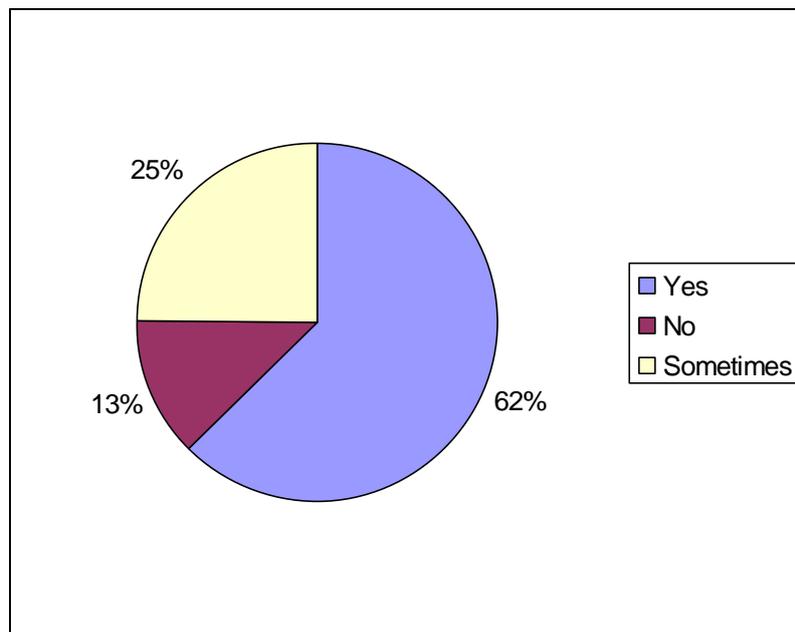
Pie chart: 2.9

The pie chart shows teachers' relationship with their students. According to the chart, majority of teachers said that they have friendly relationship with their students. However, during an open discussion with students, they said that few teachers were friendly while many teachers were extremely authoritative.

Question no. 10 was “.Do you try to apply any technique of your own to make writing skill interesting to your students?” Out of eight teachers, five answered ‘yes’, one answered ‘no’ and two answered ‘sometimes’. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie-chart:

of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
ldhesawari Girls' College	50%	0%	50%
tre Dame College	50%	0%	50%
oly Cross College	50%	50%	0%
quarunnisa Noon College	100%	0%	0%
Average	62.5%	12.5%	25%

Table: 1.10



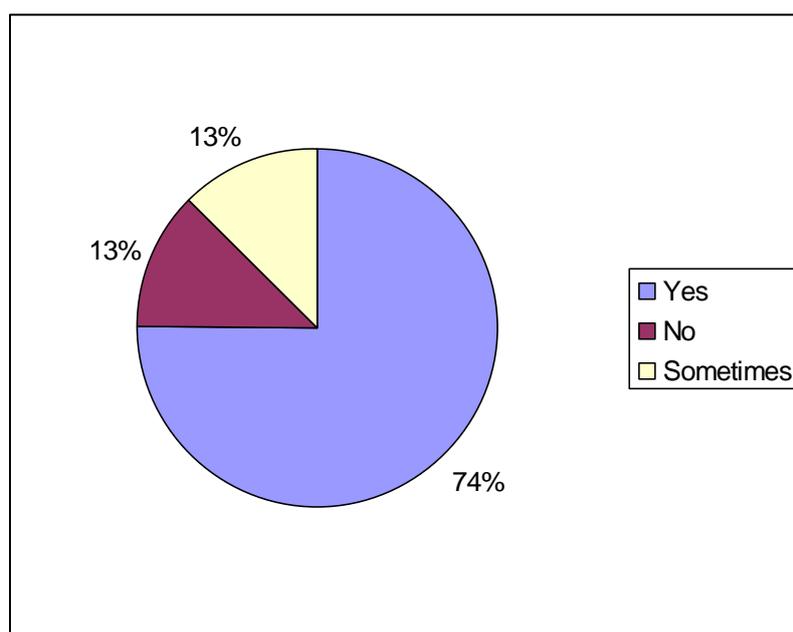
Pie chart: 2.10

The pie chart gives us statistics related to teachers' innovation of own techniques in making writing class interesting to students. According to the chart, most teachers try to apply their own techniques to make writing class interesting. However, the researcher got the opposite idea from students during the interview as they said writing class was not interesting to them. Moreover, the researcher did not find any innovative technique applied by teachers in the class during classroom observation.

Question no. 11 was “.Do you try to apply any technique of your own to make writing skill interesting to your students?” Out of eight teachers, six answered ‘yes’, one answered ‘no’ and one answered ‘sometimes’. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie-chart:

Number of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
St. John's College	100%	0%	0%
St. Mary's College	50%	0%	50%
St. Paul's College	50%	50%	0%
St. Raphael's College	100%	0%	0%
Average	75%	12.5%	12.5%

Table: 1.11



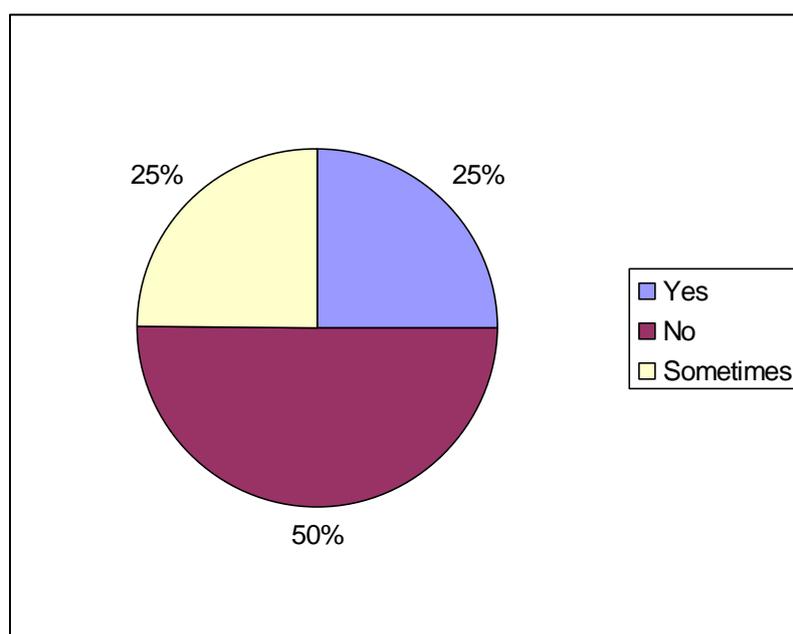
Pie chart: 2.11

The pie chart presents teachers' opinion related to improvement of students writing skill by means of their teaching procedure. According to the chart most teachers think that their teaching procedure is improving students' writing skill. However, the sample writing collected from students provides the opposite evidence.

Question no. 12 was “.Do you think the prevailing exam system is very helpful for improving writing skill of the students?” Out of eight teachers, two answered ‘yes’, four answered ‘no’ and two answered ‘sometimes’. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie-chart:

Name of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
Madhesawari Girls' College	100%	0%	0%
Sainte Dame College	0%	50%	50%
Sydney Cross College	0%	100%	0%
Shaharunnisa Noon College	0%	50%	50%
Average	25%	50%	25%

Table: 1.12



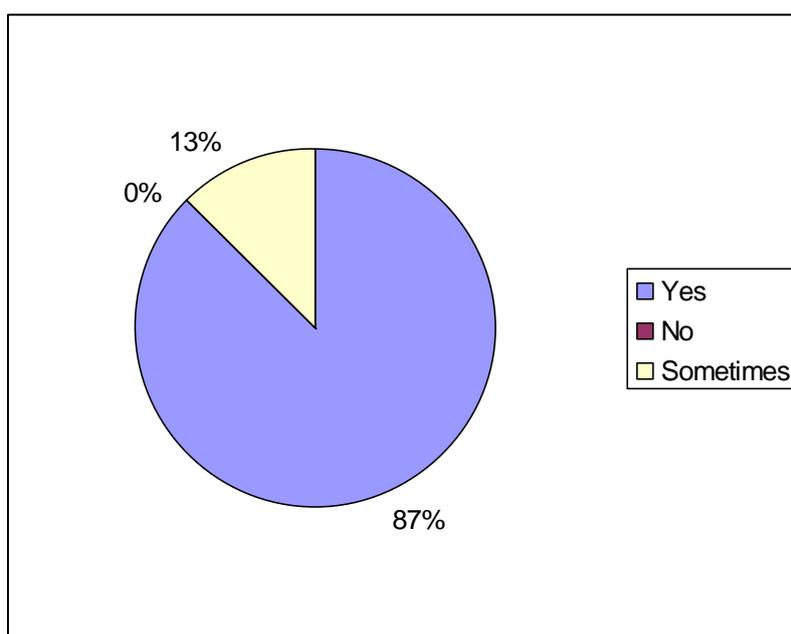
Pie chart: 2.12

The pie chart gives us statistics related to teachers' opinion about the prevailing exam system. According to the chart, 50% teachers believe that the prevailing exam system is not at all helpful for improving the writing skill of students. During the interview with teachers, all of them said that the testing system was not helpful.

Question no. 13 was “Do you encourage your students to practise writing creatively for their examination?” Out of eight teachers, seven answered ‘yes’, none answered ‘no’ and one answered ‘sometimes’. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie-chart:

Name of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
Madheswari Girls' College	100%	0%	0%
Sainte Dame College	100%	0%	0%
St. John's Cross College	50%	0%	50%
Shaharunnisa Noon College	100%	0%	0%
Average	87.5%	0%	12.5%

Table: 1.13

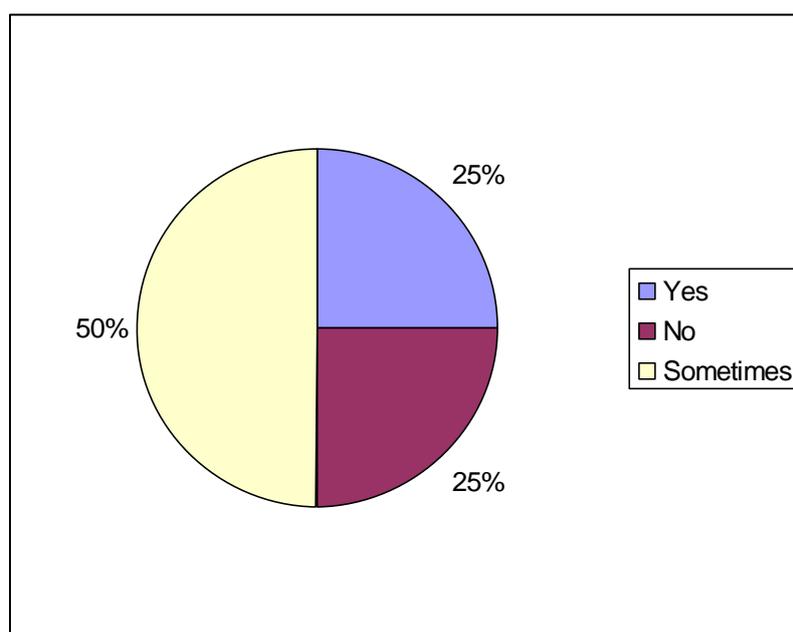


Pie chart: 2.13

The pie chart shows teachers' encouragement regarding students' creative writing. According to the chart most teachers encourage students to practice writing for their examination. However, during and open discussion with students, they said that some teachers give them a short suggestion of selected topics to memorize for the examination. Question no. 14 was "Do your students fear writing activities when it is assigned in the class?" Out of eight teachers, two answered 'yes', two answered 'no' and four answered 'sometimes'. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie-chart:

Name of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
Madheswari Girls' College	0%	50%	50%
Sacred Heart College	0%	50%	50%
St. Mary's Cross College	50%	0%	50%
St. Joseph's College	50%	0%	50%
Average	25%	25%	50%

Table: 1.14



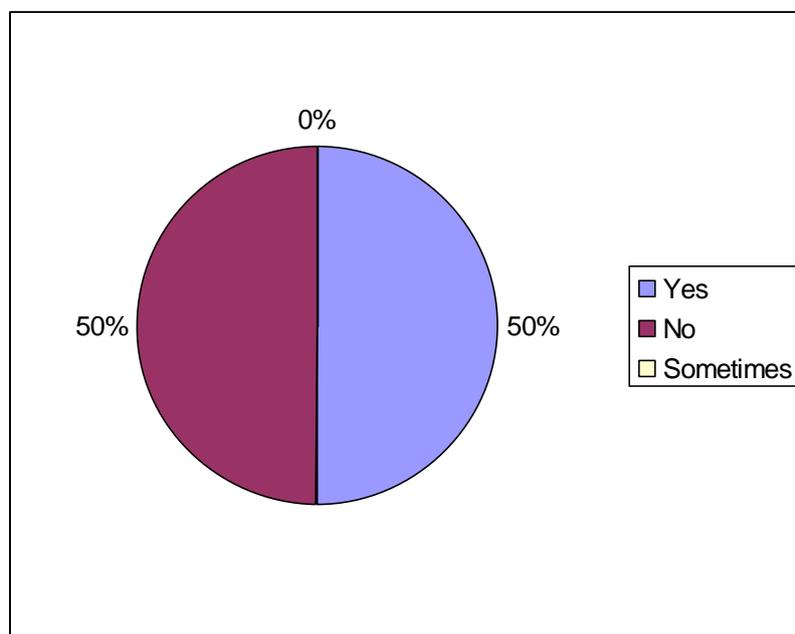
Pie chart: 2.14

The pie chart gives us statistics related to teachers' opinions about students' feelings of writing activities in the class. According to the chart 50% students' fear writing activities when it is assigned in the class.

Question no. 15 was “.Do you have enough time to explain grammatical rules and their applications in writing?” Out of eight teachers, four answered ‘yes’, four answered ‘no’ and none answered ‘sometimes’. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie-chart:

of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
Idhesawari Girls' College	100%	0%	0%
tre Dame College	50%	50%	0%
oly Cross College	0%	100%	0%
quarunnisa Noon College	50%	50%	0%
Average	50%	50%	0%

Table: 1.15



Pie chart: 2.15

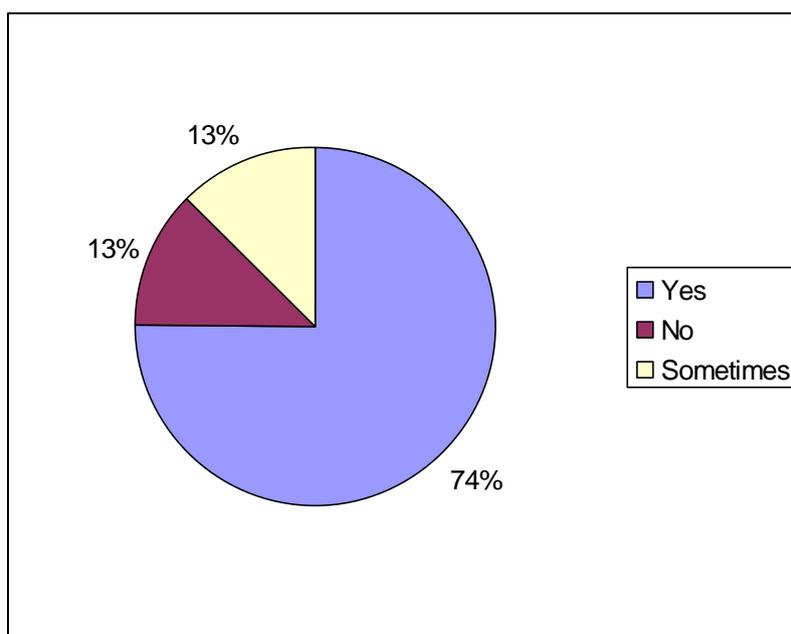
The pie chart shows teachers' notion about time in explaining grammatical rules and their applications in writing. According to the chart 50% teachers find enough time while the rest of teachers do not find. However, according to students' opinions in the interview with the researcher most teachers did not explain grammatical rules and their applications to writing.

Result of the Survey of Teachers' Interview

Question no. 1. Was “Do you teach the controlled, guided and free writing chronologically as suggested in the present syllabus?” Out of eight teachers, six teachers answered ‘Yes’, One teacher answered ‘No’, and one teacher answered ‘Sometimes’. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie chart.

of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
dhesawari Girls' College	100%	0%	0%
re Dame College	100%	0%	0%
ly Cross College	50%	50%	0
quarunnisa Noon College	50%	0%	50%
Average	75%	12.5%	12.5%

Table: 1.1



Pie chart: 2.1

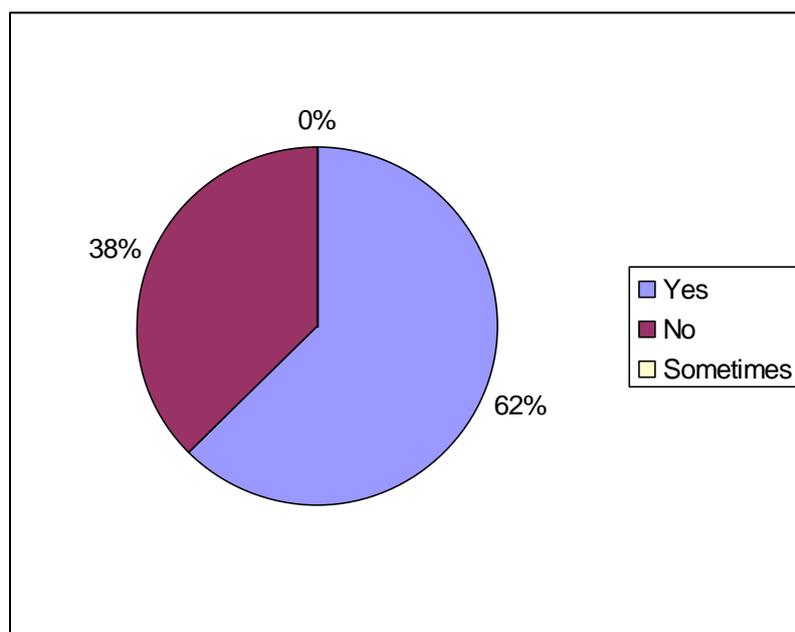
The pie chart gives us statistics related to teachers' way of teaching writing skill. According to the chart most teachers teach controlled, guided and free writing as suggested in the present syllabus. However, during the classroom observation, the

researcher did not find any teacher following the stages of writing as prescribed in the present syllabus.

Question no. 2. Was “Do you use a grammar workbook with the main textbook?” Out of eight teachers, five teachers answered ‘Yes’, three teacher answered ‘No’, and no teacher answered ‘Sometimes’. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie chart:

of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
dhesawari Girls’ College	100%	0%	0%
re Dame College	0%	100%	0%
ly Cross College	50%	50%	0%
quarunnisa Noon College	100%	0%	0%
Average	62.5%	37.5%	0%

Table: 1.2



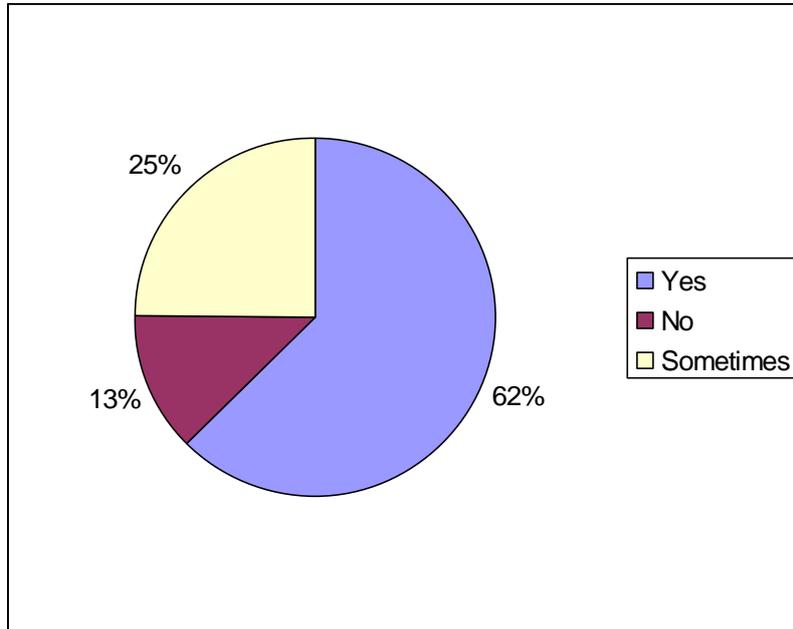
Pie chart: 2.2

The pie chart presents teachers' use of extra grammar book with the main text. According to the chart 62% teachers use a grammar work book with the main text. However, in an informal discussion with teachers they said to the researcher that they cannot use any other work books with the main text as they need to finish the syllabus within stipulated time fixed by the concerned institution.

Question no. 3. Was "Do you use English as a medium of instruction in the classroom?" Out of eight teachers, five teachers answered 'Yes', one teacher answered 'No', and two teachers answered 'Sometimes'. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie chart:

of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
dhesawari Girls' College	50%	0%	50%
re Dame College	50%	0%	50%
ly Cross College	50%	50%	0%
quarunnisa Noon College	100%	0%	0%
Average	62.5%	12.5%	25%

Table: 1.3



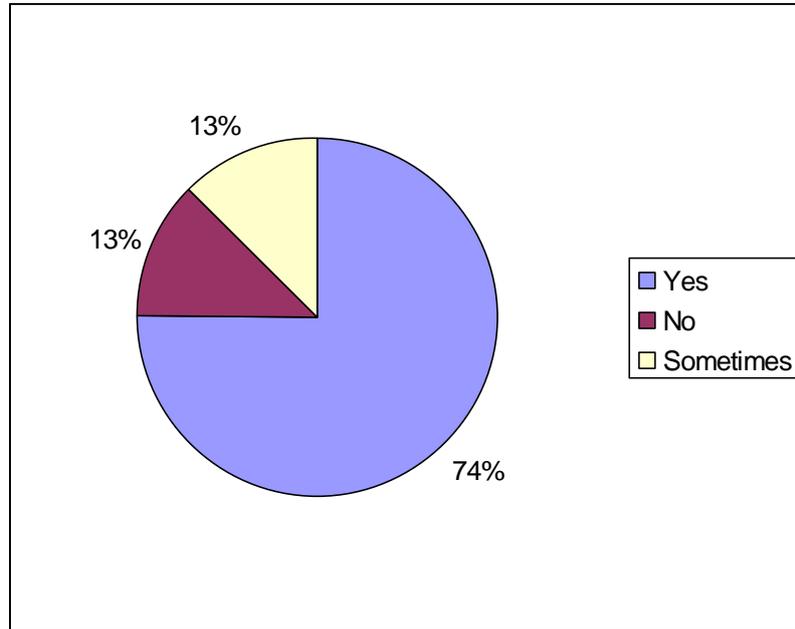
Pie chart: 2.3

The pie chart shows teachers' medium of instruction in the classroom. According to the chart, most teachers use English as a medium of instruction in the classroom. However, during the classroom observation, the researcher found that most teachers use Bengali as a medium of instruction.

Question no. 4 was “Do you think that learning the rules of English is necessary to learn writing skill properly?” Out of eight teachers, six teachers answered ‘Yes’, one teacher answered ‘No’, and one teacher answered ‘Sometimes’. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie chart:

of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
dhesawari Girls’ College	100%	0%	0%
re Dame College	50%	0%	50%
ly Cross College	50%	50%	0%
quarunnisa Noon College	100%	0%	0%
Average	75%	12.5%	12.5%

Table: 1.4



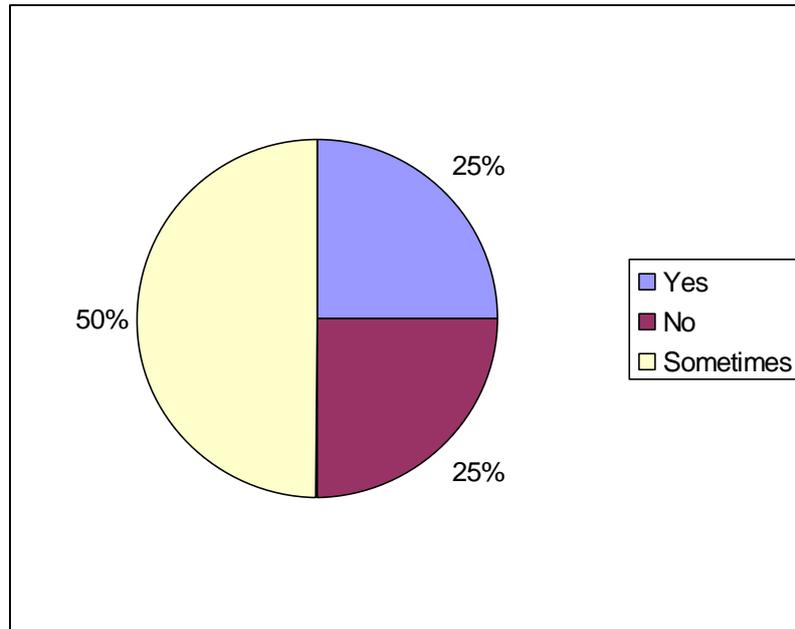
Pie chart: 2.4

The pie chart gives us statistics related to teachers' opinion about the importance of learning the rules in learning writing skill properly. According to the chart, most teachers think that learning the rules of English is necessary.

Question no. 5 was “Do you do pair/group work with your students?” Out of eight teachers, two teachers answered ‘Yes’, two teacher answered ‘No’, and four teachers answered ‘Sometimes’. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie chart:

Name of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
Dheshawari Girls' College	0%	0%	100%
St. Clare's College	50%	0%	50%
St. Mary's Cross College	0%	100%	0%
St. Joseph's College	50%	0%	50%
Average	25%	25%	50%

Table: 1.5



Pie chart: 2.5

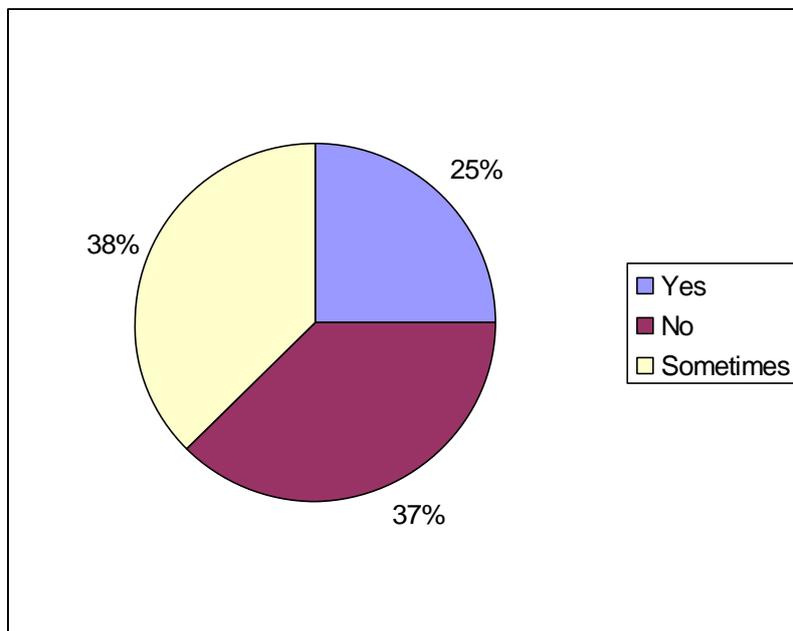
The pie chart presents the statistics related to teachers' arrangement of pair or group work. According to the chart 50% teachers arrange pair or group work with their students. The same statistics is found in the survey of questionnaire for teachers and it has already been said that the researcher did not find any pair or group work in the classroom.

Question no. 6 was "Do you use authentic materials as pictures, charts in your class?" Out of eight teachers, two teachers answered 'Yes', three teacher answered 'No', and three teachers answered 'Sometimes'. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie chart:

Name of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
Dhesawari Girls' College	100%	0%	0%
St. Mary's College	0%	0%	100%
St. Mary's Cross College	0%	100%	0%
Shaharunnisa Noon College	0%	50%	50%
	25%	37.5%	37.5%

Average			
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Table: 1.6



Pie chart: 2.6\

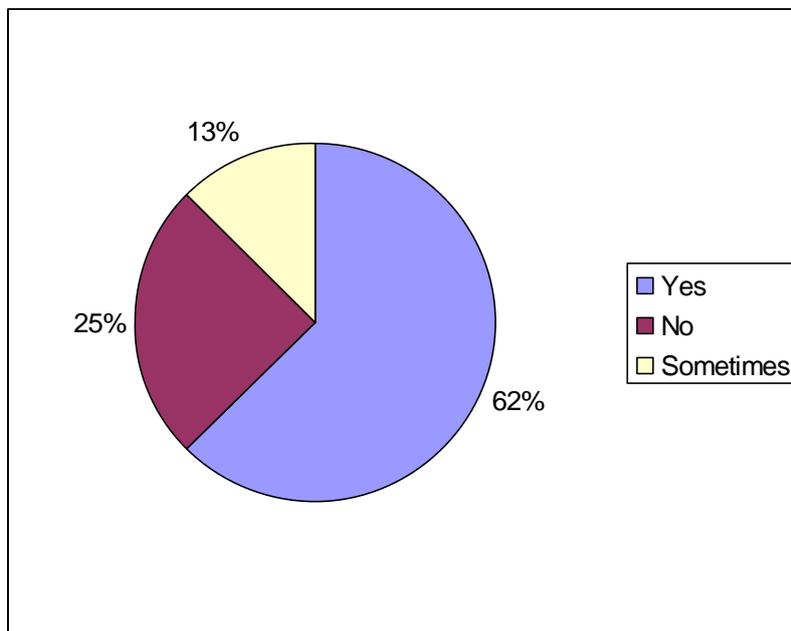
The pie chart shows the percentage of teachers' who use authentic materials in the class. 37% teachers said that they use authentic materials. However, the researcher did not find that during the classroom observation.

Question no. 7 was “Do you teach control and guided writing to improve your students’ writing skill?” Out of eight teachers, five teachers answered ‘Yes’, two teacher answered ‘No’, and one teachers answered ‘Sometimes’. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie chart:

of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
ldhesawari Girls’ College	100%	0%	0%
tre Dame College	50%	0%	50%
oly Cross College	50%	0%	50%
quarunnisa Noon College	50%	0%	50%
	62.5%	25%	12.5%

Average			
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Table: 1.7



Pie chart: 2.7

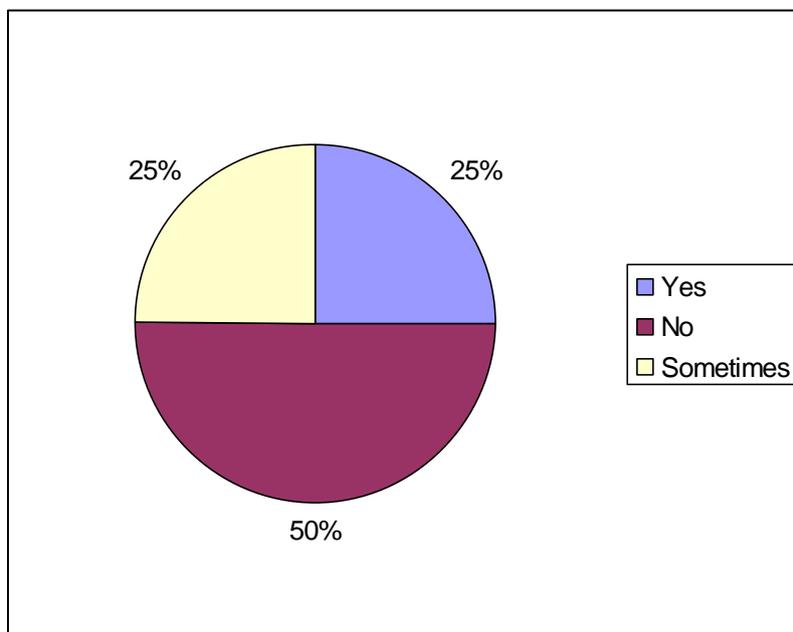
The pie chart gives us statistics related to teachers' teaching of controlled and guided writing to improve students' writing skill. According to the chart, most teachers teach controlled and guided writing. However, no such evidence was found during the classroom observation.

Question no. 8 was "Are you satisfied with what is taught in the writing class?" Out of eight teachers, two teachers answered 'Yes', four teacher answered 'No', and two teachers answered 'Sometimes'. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie chart:

Name of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
Madheswari Girls' College	50%	50%	0%
Sacred Heart College	0%	50%	50%
St. Mary's Cross College	0%	50%	50%
Shamshadunnisa Noon College	50%	50%	0%

Average	25%	50%	25%
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Table: 1.8



Pie chart: 2.8

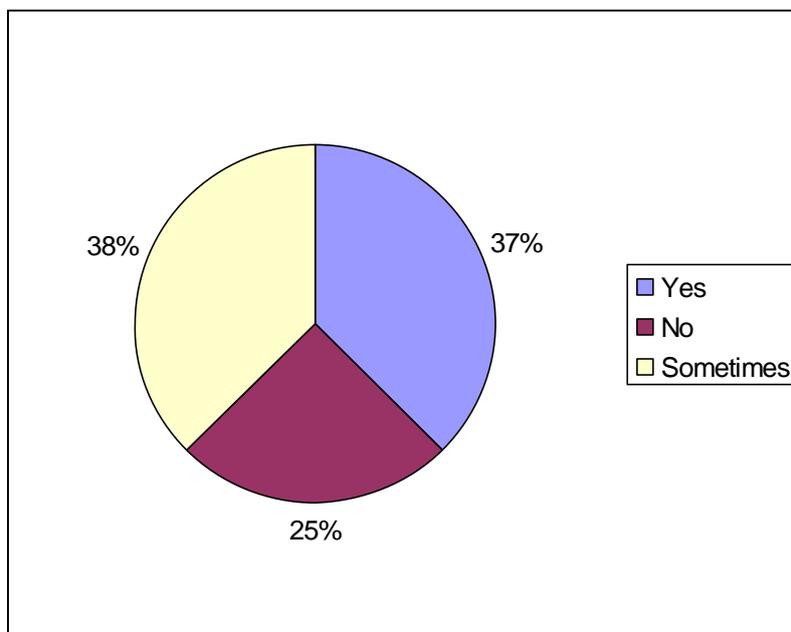
The pie chart presents the percentages regarding teachers' satisfaction with what is taught in the writing class. According to the chart, most teachers are not satisfied.

Question no. 9 was "Do you use Teachers' Guide to teach writing?" Out of eight teachers, three teachers answered 'Yes', two teacher answered 'No', and three teachers answered 'Sometimes'. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie chart:

of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
ldhesawari Girls' College	100%	0%	0%
tre Dame College	0%	0%	100%
oly Cross College	0%	100%	0%

quarunnisa Noon College	50%	0%	50%
Average	37.5%	25%	37.5%

Table: 1.9



Pie chart: 2.9

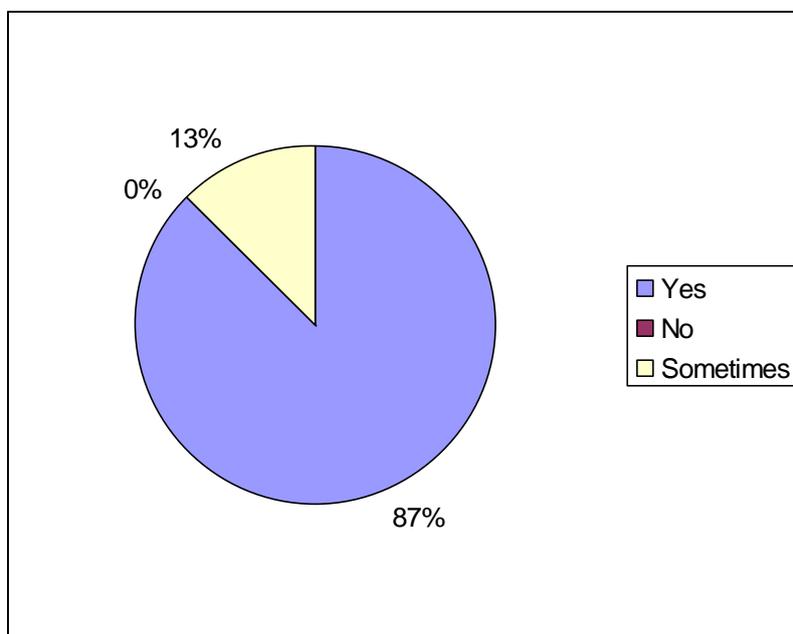
The pie chart shows teachers' use of T G (Teachers' Guide). According to the chart 37% teachers use Teachers' Guide to teach writing. However, in an informal discussion, some teachers said to the researcher that most teachers do not have Teachers' Guide as it is not available in the market, moreover few teachers have training on how to use it.

Question no. 10 was "Do you try to teach the students how to develop writing composition?" Out of eight teachers, seven teachers answered 'Yes', no teacher answered 'No', and one teacher answered 'Sometimes'. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie chart:

of the Institutions	Yes	No	Sometimes
dhdesawari Girls' College	100%	0%	0%
tre Dame College	100%	0%	0%
oly Cross College	50%	0%	50%

quarunnisa Noon College	100%	0%	0%
Average	87.5%	0%	12.5%

Table: 1.10



Pie chart: 2.10

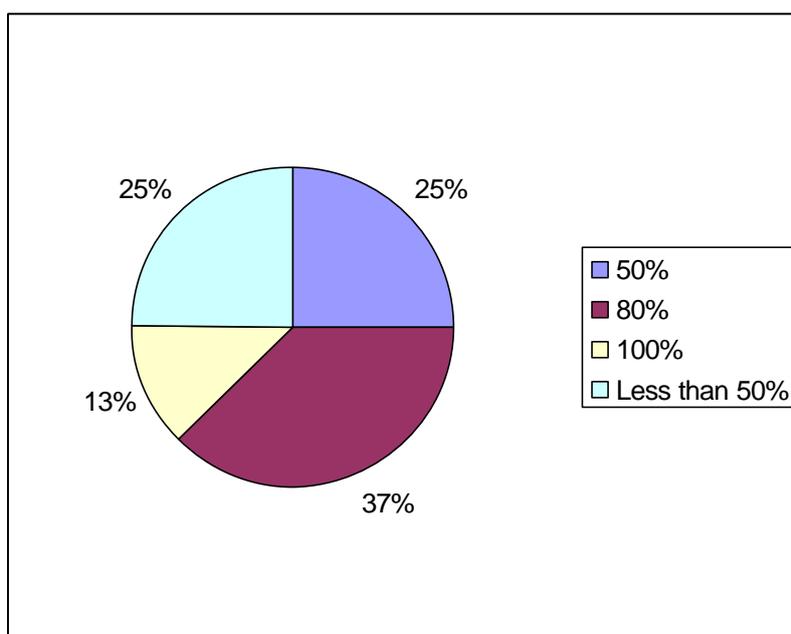
The pie chart gives us statistics related to teachers' effort to teach students how to develop writing composition. According to the chart, most teachers try for that. However, in this case the researcher finds teachers' remarks questionable as he did not find any functional effective strategies undertaken by teachers for that purpose.

Question no. 11 was "Do the students submit their writing work to you after doing the given task?" Out of eight teachers, seven teachers answered 'Yes', no teacher answered 'No', and one teachers answered 'Sometimes'. The percentages are shown in the following table and pie chart:

Name of the Institutions	50%	80%	100%	ss than 50%
Shesawari Girls' College		100%		

Notre Dame College		50%	50%	
Siddheswari College	100%			
Viqarunnisa Noon College				100%
Average	25%	37.5%	12.5%	25%

Table: 1.11



Pie chart: 2.11

The pie chart presents the percentage related to students' submission of the writing task to their teachers. According to the chart, 80% students submit their writing task to teachers after doing the given task. However, the researcher found that most of the time students do not get feedback on their writing task.

Question no **12** was "What do you do in developing students' writing task?" In response to this question from the eight teachers, different opinions came out. For example, One teacher who had been working for about four years at Notre Dame College said, "I encourage the students to write individually of their own through brain storming and give them group assignment for writing task." A teacher who had been working for two years at Siddheswari College said, "I teach writing showing the steps of writing such as (i) Brain storming (ii) Planning (iii) Organizing (iv) Drafting (v) Editing." Another teacher who had been working for six years at Viqarunnisa Noon College said, "For developing writing task, I tell them to write on a topic from their experience. They also write creatively about a particular event." Again, a teacher who had

been teaching for eighteen years at Holy Cross College said, “I emphasize on their writing on various topics which they come across in their daily practical life.”

Question no **13** was “What are the problems according to you that hinders students’ development in writing?” In response to this question, most of the teachers pointed to the lack of practice, reluctance in writing, poor vocabulary, lack of grammatical competence and proper schema, lack of confidence hinder students’ development in writing.

Question no **14** was “Do you think the present testing system is not conducive to the development of writing skill? Why?” In response to this question all the teachers opined that the present testing system was not conducive to the development of writing skill. As for the reasons of their opinions, they pointed that testing system is defective because a students’ creativity and innovativeness can hardly be judged in this system. Moreover, the present testing system provides opportunity for learners to memorize.

Result of Observation Checklist

Four classes were observed with the prior approval of the Principal along with the permission of the Head of the English Department. During the observation the researcher wrote his comments in the observation checklist (see Appendix E). The observation schedule is given below:

of Institution	Observation	of Observation	umber of ts	ts Present	tage of ce
nesawari Girls' College	2-08-08	0.00 am	60	55	92%
Dame College	9-08-08	3.00 am	150	142	95%
Cross College	9-08-08	.00 pm	140	130	93%
arunnisa Noon College	6-08-08	0.00 am	133	125	94%

The result of the Observation Checklist is given in the next page.

Observation Checklist

Teachers activity	Sawari	Girls'	Dame College	Cross College	Arunnisa Noon College
	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No
Is the lesson well-planned and the teacher well-prepared?	Yes		Yes	Yes	Yes
Does the teacher appear relaxed and friendly during the class?	No		Yes	Yes	No
Is the teacher's instruction clear?	Yes		Yes	Yes	No
Does the teacher introduce the lesson clearly and attractively?	No		No	No	No
Does the teacher make the lesson interesting and interactive?	Yes		Yes	No	No

Do the teacher do pairwork the students? Mention the activity.	No	No	No	No
Do the teacher give any writing task to students?	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Do the teacher help the students to do writing task?	Yes	No	Yes	No
Do the teacher correct errors?	No	No	No	No
Do the teacher give feedback?	No	No	No	No

The researcher found that almost all the classrooms were unusually large. In some of the classrooms there was not sufficient light even. In most cases, teacher did not move round the class rather was standing at one place. Interaction among students and interaction between teacher and students was absent. Classes were lecture based and not task based. In two institutions teachers did not use the board at all. So, the researcher did not find any communicative approach in the classrooms. Most teachers conducted the class in a very traditional way. Even some trained teachers also conducted the classes without implementing any communicative approach. The researcher did not find any prewriting activities in the classrooms. Effective feedback was absent totally. In all the institutions, students sitting on the back benches did not pay much attention to teachers' speech and teachers were also not careful about that.

Analysis of Sample Writings

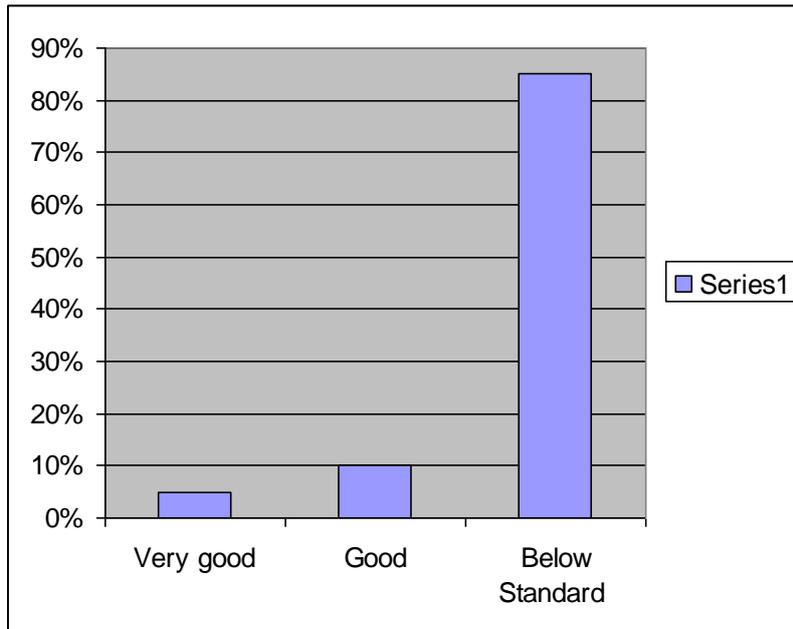
From four institutions total 174 sample writing was collected. Students were given to write on such a topic which they usually do not memorize. The topic was “Write about how you celebrated the last summer vacation.” The word limit was 150. The following chart shows the number of sample writings collected from respective colleges.

Name of Institution	Number of Sample Writing
Siddheswari Girls’ College	37
Notre Dame College	58
Holy Cross College	24
Viquarunnisa Noon College	55
Total	174

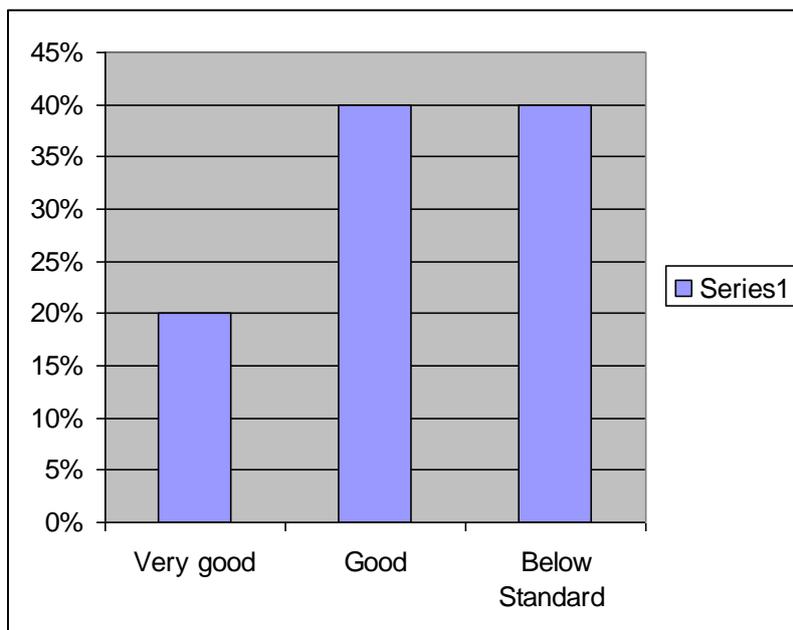
After collecting the sample writings, those scripts were checked and marked. It was found that most students could not do well as they had to write on that topic without any preparation. Only few students’ writing was satisfactory (see Appendix F). So it is clear that students’ writing ability is not developed up to the standard as it is expected at the HSC level. Students’ performance in different colleges is shown through column charts:



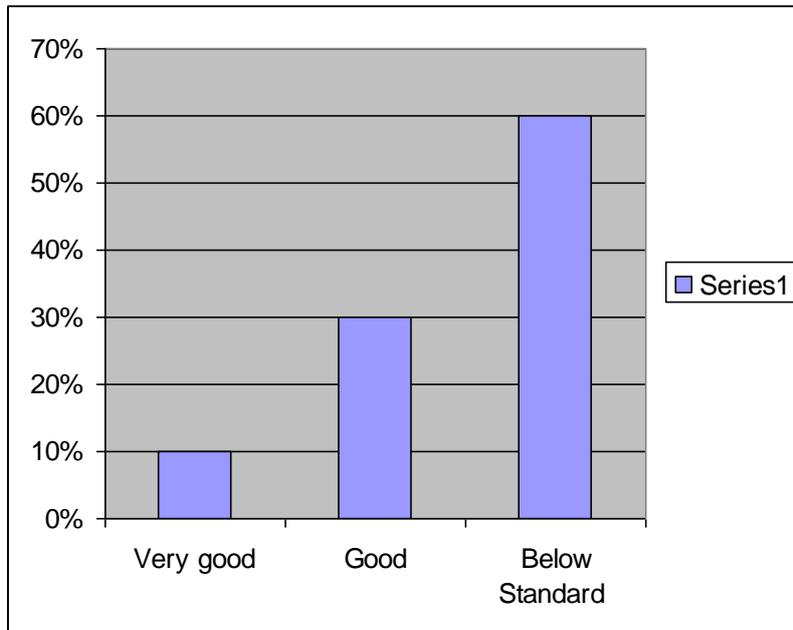
Column Chart: 1 Siddheswari Girls' College



Column Chart: 2 Notre Dame College



Column Chart: 3 Holy Cross College



Column Chart: 3 Viquarunnisa Noon College

Chapter 5

Findings

The data presents an appreciable picture of both teachers' teaching and students' learning the writing skill. However, the real situation is something quite opposite.

The researcher wants to show some similarities as well as incompatibilities among the data collected from different sources. For example, students' and teachers' responses were contradictory. On the other hand, classroom observation shows a different picture. About the strategies of teaching writing, teachers said that they teach students through pair or group work sometimes. On the contrary, majority of students said that they had never worked in pairs or groups. During observation, the researcher did not see any pair or group activity in any of the classes. In some cases, students said one thing in the questionnaire and answered the opposite in the interview.

Though, the present HSC syllabus strongly recommends teaching writing communicatively, and moreover, examples of communicative writing activities are given in the syllabus as students expressing themselves in writing in realistic situations and for realistic purposes, the real situation inside the classroom is totally different. There is no certain relationship among the syllabus, teaching and testing. Students are not taught writing strategies in any of the colleges. They do not have sufficient writing classes in a month. Even there is not any fixed class for teaching writing. They are hardly asked to write something in the class. This happens because of the negligence of the teacher about correcting students' copies.

The researcher found that in none of the colleges pre-writing activities are practised. Majority of students do not know what pair or group work is. There is no discussion among students before starting a writing activity. Students do not have any idea about the stages or process of writing. They also do not know what a topic sentence is. Though some teachers said that they engage their students in pair or group work sometimes, the students did not agree.

Teaching writing in realistic situations and for realistic purposes, as suggested in the syllabus, were absent in all the colleges. The researchers did not find any visual aids in the writing classes to teach writing showing a real context. As a result, they are ignorant about real life situations and purposes. Some of the students even do not know why writing is important in life.

Many of the teachers have expressed their discontentment regarding the textbook published by NCTB. According to their opinions, the textbook does not have enough exercise on writing task, even the ones which it has is not suitable for practice in the classroom. Some of the young teachers' reaction was a bit strong against the textbook. They said that since the Textbook Board has given neither enough exercises nor any separate workbook, indirectly it has helped the so-

called “guide industry” to flourish. Some teachers said that they were given the textbooks according to the new syllabus but they were not given any sort of training. They said that the government does not have any training facility for private college teachers.

While visiting the institutions, the researcher had some opportunities to talk to some of the guardians. In the conversation with those guardians the researcher wanted to know about their children’s writing ability and the teachers’ role in improving that. Many guardians said that teachers do not teach well in the class and they somehow compel students to go to their coaching centres. Some said that teaching has become commercial nowadays. On the contrary, teachers said that since they get very insufficient amount of remuneration from the institution, they have to depend on private tuitions. Some teachers said that they do not enjoy private teaching but the day to day expenses are so high that are compelled to do that.

Many teachers said that students did not want to learn how to write rather they wanted some selected topics which they could memorise for their examination. On the other hand, according to some students, teachers do not teach how to write freely in the class but want them to write. It was found that some teachers have the motivation to teach students how to write but they cannot do that because of time constraint, and institutions’ pressure to finish the syllabus within the stipulated time.

The researcher found that HSC question papers are designed in such way that they create an opportunity for learners to memorize. In this connection, he analyzed the question papers of Dhaka Board (see Appendix G) of last five years which are as follows:

Dhaka Board 2007

English first paper: *A Beggar*

English second paper: *Gender Discrimination*

Dhaka Board 2006

English first paper: *Social Value*

English second paper: *An Ideal Student*

Dhaka Board 2005

English first paper: *Load Shedding*

English second paper: *Road Accident*

Dhaka Board 2004

English first paper: *Good Health*

English second paper: *Physical Exercise*

Dhaka Board 2003

English first paper: *Eid - ul - Fitr*

English second paper: *Good Health*

So, it is seen that the question pattern grows in propensity among students to memorize as there is repetition of the same topics. If the question pattern were designed with a view to developing students’ creativity, it would have been much better.

In the observation it was found that in none of the institutions students were taught the process to write. Teachers expected the writing from students as a product. Therefore students are not or little aware of the writing procedure. The researcher found several factors responsible for the failure in developing the writing skill at the HSC level which are as follows:

- i. Lack of expertise
- ii. Lack of training facilities for teachers
- iii. Unusual large classrooms
- iv. Poor socio-economic set up
- v. Lack of sufficient logistic support
- vi. Lack of motivation on the part of students
- vii. Exam-oriented teaching environment
- viii. Defective testing system
- ix. Teacher centred teaching system
- x. Lack of practice-opportunity in classroom

Chapter 6

Discussion of Findings in Relation to Hypothesis

The researcher tried to find out the causes which hinder students' development in writing skill. The research question focuses on the basic causes of problems in writing. The analysis of data shows that there are some common causes. The questionnaire survey, interview, observation - all these methods give a more or less similar indication regarding the causes of the problem. Even when the researcher conducted an open discussion with the students regarding the causes of their problem they provided similar opinions. From the analyzed data, it becomes clear; though the communicative approach has been introduced in the HSC curriculum most of the teachers do not follow the techniques and procedure of it. Our Bangladeshi learners are in a great problem in learning to write in English.

Concerning error correction, the survey shows, though the teachers sometimes correct errors they are not aware of what kind of feedback the students have received. There prevails no teaching learning atmosphere in the class. There is no scope to practise writing tasks adequately though for learning every skill practice is a must. On the other hand, as the teacher is not properly trained in language teaching, they cannot explain the writing techniques to students in a way which would be helpful for students' writing. Therefore, it is obvious that our learners do not have concrete foundation in the basics of writing skill.

One thing is very clear that our learners do not have sufficient motivation to learn writing effectively. Observation of lessons in classes at colleges confirms the fact that lack of proper teaching and trained teachers are responsible for students' weakness in learning writing. Moreover, the defective testing system contributes to students' failure in developing writing skill at the HSC level.

Therefore, the research hypotheses can be considered to be compatible with the data.

Chapter 7

Conclusion

Teaching writing is extremely neglected at the higher secondary level. Although only writing skill is tested in the HSC examination, there is no congenial atmosphere for the development of writing in the classroom. Students lack motivation and teachers fail to create that in them. On the other hand, some students want to learn how to write but teachers lack the efficiency to teach writing with the necessary techniques. It is because of the lack of training. Since there is no proper guidance for teaching writing, students feel reluctant to write. The ultimate result of this reluctance and negligence is the poor score in English in the HSC examination. Although writing skill is judged in the examination, the system is not conducive enough to help learners in developing their creative faculty to write. The testing system indirectly compels learners to memorize.

Although, it is very essential for learners to grow their creativity to face the challenges of these highly competitive days, neither the board of education nor the institutions take any initiative for that. Our institutions are still following the traditional ways of teaching. Consequently, this results in learners' weakness in the writing skill. Students' low motivation results from teachers' inability to teach effectively. At the same time, lack of training, inadequate remuneration, adverse environment have a negative impact on teachers.

Overall, the researcher thinks that the prevailing poor condition can be changed if necessary steps i.e. providing training for teachers, increasing teachers' salary appointing skilled teachers, reforming the text book and testing system and motivating learners are taken by the concerned authorities. It is optimistic to see that consciousness is rising among both students and teachers regarding the development of writing skill. It can be hoped that a positive change will take place in developing writing skill of students at the HSC level.

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Appendix-A

Questionnaire for Students

Name of the Institution.....

Class status:.....DatePlace.....

Please put tick mark on the appropriate box. You don't need to write your name anywhere in the paper. (This will only be used in the dissertation & your opinions will be kept confidential.)

1. Do you practise writing in your classroom?
Ans: Yes No Sometimes

2. Do you think writing in English is interesting?
Ans: Yes No Sometimes

3. Do you fear writing activities in English?
Ans: Yes No Sometimes

4. Do you like the way in which you are taught writing in the classroom?
Ans: Yes No Sometimes

5. Does your teacher encourage you to practise writing in classroom?
Ans: Yes No Sometimes

6. Does your teacher correct your error individually in the classroom?

Ans:

Yes

No

Sometimes

7. Do you depend much on memorization to pass your writing examination?

Ans:

Yes

No

Sometimes

8. Can you write freely on any topic?

Ans:

Yes

No

Sometimes

9. Does your teacher discourage you to memorize?

Ans:

Yes

No

Sometimes

10. Do you think you have enough scope to improve writing skill in your class?

Ans:

Yes

No

Sometimes

11. While writing, do you ever feel that you do not have enough vocabulary for writing?

Ans:

Yes

No

Sometimes

12. Does your teacher help you in doing your writing task?

Ans:

Yes

No

Sometimes

Thank you for your participation

Appendix-B

Questions for Teachers

Name of the Institution:.....
Designation of the Teacher:.....Teaching Experience.....
Place:..... Date:.....

Please put tick mark on the appropriate box:
(Your opinions are extremely confidential and these will only be used in the dissertation)

1. Do you emphasize writing activities in your class?
Ans: Yes No Sometimes
2. Do you have your own lesson plan for classroom activities?
Ans: Yes No Sometimes
3. Do your students get feedback on their classroom writing activities?
Ans: Yes No Sometimes
4. Do you think the duration of class time is enough for practising writing skill?
Ans: Yes No Sometimes
5. In your teaching do you follow the communicative approach which is suggested in the textbook?

Ans:

Yes

No

Sometimes

6. Did you have any special training on English language teaching?

Ans:

Yes

No

Sometimes

7. Do you think your classroom environment is suitable for teaching English properly?

Ans:

Yes

No

Sometimes

8. Do you do pair/group work with your students?

Ans:

Yes

No

Sometimes

9. Do you have friendly relationship with your students?

Ans:

Yes

No

Sometimes

10. Do you try to apply any technique of your own to make writing skill interesting to your students?

Ans:

Yes

No

Sometimes

11. Do you think your class teaching procedure is improving your students writing?

Ans:

Yes

No

Sometimes

12. Do you think the prevailing exam system is very helpful for improving writing skill of the students?

Ans:

Yes

No

Sometimes

13. Do you encourage your students to practise writing creatively for their examination?

Ans:

Yes

No

Sometimes

14. Do your students fear writing activities when it is assigned in the class?

Ans:

Yes

No

Sometimes

15. Do you have enough time to explain grammatical rules and their applications in writing?

Ans:

Yes

No

Sometimes

Thank you for your participation.

Appendix-C

Questions for Students' Interview

Name of the Institution.....

Class status:.....DatePlace.....

1. Do you do any writing activity in your class? What types of writing tasks do you do? How often?

Ans:

2. How do you do your writing task? Individually or in pairs/groups?

Ans:

3. Does the teacher discuss the topic of writing with your in class before asking you to write? What does the teacher do?

Ans:

4. Do you know how to write paragraph or an essay? What do you know?

Ans:

5. Do you have any problems with grammar and vocabulary?

Ans:

6. Does the teacher give you feedback on your writing? How does he do that?

Ans:

7. Do you memorize paragraphs or essays for your exam? Why do you do that?

Ans:

8. What other problems do you have with the development of your writing skill?

Ans:

9. What would you like to do in a writing class? What would you like your tasks to do?

Ans:

10. Do you feel that you cannot write because of your inability to write sentences correctly?

Ans:

Appendix-D

Questions for Teachers' Interview

Name of the Institution:.....

Designation of the Teacher:.....Teaching Experience.....

Place:..... Date:.....

1. Do you teach the controlled, guided and free writing chronologically as suggested in the present syllabus?

Ans:

Yes	No	Sometimes
-----	----	-----------

2. Do you use a grammar workbook with the main textbook?

Ans:

Yes	No	Sometimes
-----	----	-----------

3. Do you use English as a medium of instruction in the classroom?

Ans:

Yes	No	Sometimes
-----	----	-----------

4. Do you think that the learning the rules of English is necessary to learn writing skill properly?

Ans:

Yes	No	Sometimes
-----	----	-----------

5. Do you do pair/group work with your students?

Ans:

Yes	No	Sometimes
-----	----	-----------

6. Do you use authentic materials as pictures, charts in your class?

Ans:

Yes	No	Sometimes
-----	----	-----------

7. Do you teach the control and guided writing to improve your students' writing skill?

Ans:

Yes	No	Sometimes
-----	----	-----------

8. Are you satisfied with what is taught in the writing class?

Ans:

Yes	No	Sometimes
-----	----	-----------

9. Do you use Teachers' Guide to teach writing?

Ans:

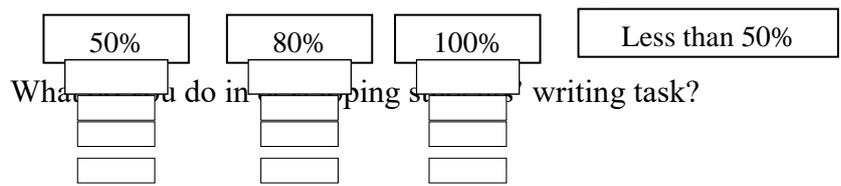
Yes	No	Sometimes
-----	----	-----------

10. Do you try to teach the students how to develop writing composition?

Ans:

Yes	No	Sometimes
-----	----	-----------

11. Do the students submit their writing work to you after doing the given task?



12. What do you do in helping students in writing task?

Ans:

13. What are the problems, according to you, that hinder students' development in writing?

Ans:

14. Do you think that the present testing system is not conducive to the development of writing skill? Why?

Ans:

Thank you very much for your participation.

Appendix-E

Observation Checklist

Record details of lesson observed below.

Aims of the lesson:

- 1.
- 2.

Skill focus:

Language focus:

Materials used:

Observer:..... Teacher Observed.....

Date:_____ Time:_____ Institution:.....

Unit:___ Lessons:_____ Class:_____ Total No. Of students:

.....
 Title of lesson:_____ Ss present:___ Boys:___ Girls:

.....

Activity	Yes	No	Examples
Lesson well-planned and the teacher well-			
appear relaxed and friendly during the			
teacher's instruction clear?			
Teacher introduce the lesson clearly and			

Teacher make the lesson interesting and		
Teacher do pairwork the students? Mention		
Teacher do group-work with the students? Activity		
Teacher give any writing task to the		
Teacher help the students to do the writing		
Teacher correct errors?		
Teacher give feedback?		

Draw a diagram of the main stages of the lesson (tasks and activities, time spent on each):

Your general comments on the strengths and weaknesses on the teaching of writing Skill:

Write about the techniques that the teacher followed in teaching writing skill. Make an assessment about the teaching style:

Semio-Communicative Aspects of Urdu-Hindi Loan Words in English

Ambreen Sherwani, Ph.D. Scholar

Abstract

Semio-communication deals with the selection and application of linguistic structures and, how the decision to speak in language, the human formal, abstract system of communication, is inextricably bound up with the physical, psychological, functional, pragmatic, cultural universe in essence, the semiotic world. The present study tries to focus upon the semio-communicative aspect of Urdu-Hindi loan words in English, showing their relevance in fulfilling the communication need and their impact on the listeners or readers.

Key words: Semio-communication, Borrowing, Code-switching, linguistic and referential gaps, Urdu-Hindi loan words in English

Introduction

Communication could be a bipolar development played chiefly by senders and receivers. Apart from these two, a third agent that plays a crucial role in communication is 'Semiotics'. Semiotics is basically the study of signs and symbols that persons use to represent reality, how these signs and symbols are understood within the world of experience, particularly, globally and universally and the way persons then make use of those signs and symbols to deal with and make sense of their reality and experience. Semiotics, the science of signs and of the codes to grasp them, has nice relevance to several areas of life.

This results in the notion of 'Semio-communication'. It pertains deliberately with regard to the selection and application of linguistic structures and, how the decision to speak in language, the human formal, abstract system of communication is inextricably bound up with the

physical, psychological, functional, pragmatic, cultural universe in essence, the semiotic world. Therefore we can say that the meaning of an expression doesn't solely lie within the word however it's within the minds of the users. It's the communicative pact between the speakers (or writers) and hearers (or readers) that shapes the meaning of an expression. Hence different words have different communicative effects when utilized by different individuals of various cultures.

1. Borrowing

The words taken from one language and transferred into another are known as 'loanwords' or 'borrowings'. Borrowing refers to "the process of importing linguistic items from one linguistic system into another, a process that occurs any time two cultures are in contact over a period of time" (Hoffer 2002). Borrowing is a common linguistic phenomenon, and almost all languages contain borrowed items. Items affected by it are called 'borrowings', 'loans', or 'transfers', and the languages involved are frequently labeled, according to their roles, 'donor' and 'recipient' (Weinreich, 1953). The employment of such a term is quite figurative, because the language that imports foreign words doesn't also return them. Once one language takes lexemes from another, the new items are typically known as loanwords or borrowings – although neither term is actually appropriate, because the receiving language doesn't offer them back.

1.1. Borrowing and Code-switching

For many decades several attempts are made to seek out diagnostic criterion which is able to distinguish borrowing, code-switching and code mixing. One approach in distinguishing code-switching from borrowing (Scotton, 1988) uses the amount of social significance of the item. If the nonnative item carries social significance, it is a code-switched. The criterion may not be useful where the form and meaning are identical however the label is completely different. Poplack (1988) appears to suggest that the employment of a borrowed item is code-switching until enough speakers use it and it is accepted by native speakers into the dictionary. A more precise delimitation appears troublesome at this point within the study of borrowing and code-switching.

1.2. Recent Approach to Loan Words

The most recent approach to deal with “loan words” is a communicative (C) approach. The approach tries to eliminate the shortcomings of the previous approaches and pay more attention to those aspects overlooked by the earlier approaches. According to the communicative approach, in every communication the following aspects should be taken into consideration:

- i. Communication is a socio-cultural behavior.
- ii. Communication involves sending and receiving messages.
- iii. Messages are encoded by senders and intend to be decoded by receivers.
- iv. Senders and receivers of messages are participants in the process.
- v. Participants are socio-cultural beings and share a common code.
- vi. Messages are sent and received to achieve certain purposes.

2. Need of Borrowing

2.1. Gap

The existence of lexical gaps is very common in all languages. In a situation where speakers are confronted with the lack of lexical item which can be coordinated with a given communicative situation, a surrogate word is created by borrowing it from a donor language. Dagut (1981) believes that lexical gaps might be motivated either on linguistic grounds or on extra-linguistic grounds. A linguistic gap occurs when a given referent is known to the speakers of both languages but lexicalized in only one of the languages. To put it in other words, the meaning of the item exists in both languages but only one of the languages lexicalizes it. Such a lexical gap which has some linguistic reasons is called linguistic gap.

2.1.1. Referential Gap

There are also some cases where the speakers of one of the languages are familiar with a given referent and their language has a word to refer to it, but the speakers of the other language are not familiar with the referent and consequently their language has no word to refer to it. Such a lexical gap which has some extra-linguistic motivations is called referential gap. One way to fill in the possible blanks is employing loan words.

2.2. Language Contact

Languages which stay in contact for many centuries also tend to influence the structure of one another. In the same manner, lexical items also are borrowed into the other. Same case is with the English spoken in India. India got the exposure of the many languages like Persian due to invasion and other contacts. The last foreign language to carry its sway in India is English, that even now continues to play an outstanding role in Indian life. English is spoken by less than ten percent of the Indian population. Though this is a small percentage, it is perhaps the most elite and important language in India nowadays.

As English has been in contact with other Indian languages, there has been a lot of influence on one another. English has borrowed items from other Indian languages and vice-versa. In the same way, Urdu-Hindi too has influenced English and enriched it with its vocabulary. The words which are borrowed into Indian English have a different impact on its users as compared to the native English equivalents. There is some socio-cultural relevance of these loan words that we will be discussing in this paper.

3. The Present Study

The present study tries to focus upon the semio-communicative aspect of Urdu-Hindi loan words in English, showing their relevance in fulfilling the communication and their impact on the listeners or readers.

For instance, Indian media use the term ‘lathi charge’ for dispersing the crowd using cane or baton by the police or military. The term is a ‘loan blend’, as ‘lathi’ is borrowed from Urdu-Hindi and ‘charge’ is an English word. The communicative value that the term has is not supposed to be in any other equivalent term. Even if the loan is substituted by an equivalent English expression ‘baton charge’, the impact on the reader changes. This illustrates how the communication takes place and what role do the signs play in communication.

The study discusses the need of borrowing also, which is relevant to the present research. For the study, the data of Hindi-Urdu loan words has been taken from Indian English newspapers like *The Hindu*, *Times of India* and *Hindustan Times*.

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Ambreen Sherwani, Ph.D. Scholar

Semio-Communicative Aspects of Urdu-Hindi Loan Words in English

The selection of such words by the decoder is based on certain socio-cultural factors. Following are some of the words along with their occurrence found in the Indian English newspapers:

i. Avtar ‘*Farhan Akhtar’s different avtars*’

In Hinduism, an avatar is a deliberate descent of a deity to Earth, or a descent of the Supreme Being (e.g. Vishnu), and is mostly translated into English as "incarnation", but more accurately as "appearance" or "manifestation" (Wikipedia®, 2015).

Hence, this word has entirely a different communicative effect on its readers than any of its English equivalents. It is a culturally loaded term. Such terms are deliberately chosen by the media to gain the attention of the readers. ‘Avtar’ is not only a new style or form that a person has taken but it represents a physical manifestation of a spiritual being.

ii. Guru ‘*Golf Guru: The number One*’

‘Guru’ is also not simply a teacher but it has too many cultural connotations attached to it. The term is particularly attached to ancient Indian ‘guru-shishya’ tradition. The importance of finding a guru who can impart transcendental knowledge (vidyā) is emphasized in Hinduism. One of the main Hindu texts, the *Bhagavad Gita*, is a dialogue between God in the form of Krishna and his friend Arjuna, a Kshatriya prince who accepts Krishna as his *guru* on the battlefield, prior to a large battle. Not only does this dialogue outline many of the ideals of Hinduism, but their relationship is considered an ideal one of Guru-Shishya. In the *Gita*, Krishna speaks to Arjuna of the importance of finding a guru. Hence, no equivalent can play the same role as it plays.

iii. Jungle ‘*Leopard found in bathroom of house; trapped, released in jungle*’

Forest cannot play that role which jungle plays. Jungle is not simply a land overgrown with dense vegetation but it represents a lawless area. That’s why we call people ‘jungle’ if they behave uncivilized.

iv. Khaki *'Cop in Jhabua village sheds khaki to serve as a sarpanch.'*

Here, 'khaki' is a metonymical expression which refers to 'the police service'. The color of the uniform of police in India is 'khaki'; therefore, this word is used. Again this is showing the cultural aspect of the selection of the words. The khaki color has become also the symbol of Indian military.

v. Karma *'Raima Sen: I believe in God and Karma'*

This is again a beautiful example to show that words are loaded with meanings. They are typically meant for their typical decoder. The beauty of this word can only be understood by Indian readers. Karma cannot be translated exactly into English. It is not only deeds but it includes in itself the intentions also that affect the future of a person. Karma in Hinduism is related to the concept of rebirth also and the socio-economic status individual is bestowed upon at birth, and beyond.

vi. Loot: *'.....they looted a businessman and shot dead a goldsmith'*

Similarly, 'loot' originally meant the indiscriminate taking of goods by force as part of a military or political victory such as war, natural disaster, or rioting. As 'loot' is done on large scale hence is weightier than robbery or stealing.

vii. Pajama *'.....dressed in a cream kurta pajama that was embroidered in the same colour'*

Pajama is a typical dress having Indian cultural value. Hence no other word can serve the purpose.

viii. Yoga *'Hot yoga is passe, 'snowga' is new cool craze'*

Similarly, 'yoga' is also a culturally loaded term which typically represents a special type of meditation practiced in India including breath control and the adoption of specific bodily postures.

ix. Maharaja *'The maharaja he couldn't be.....'*

Similarly, ‘maharaja’ represents Indian culture, whose equivalent in English is ‘great king’.

x. Mantra ‘*Chanting of mantras, gural signal for fun*’

“Mantra” means a sacred utterance, numinous sound, or a syllable, word, phonemes, or group of words believed by some to have psychological and spiritual power. Mantra may or may not be syntactic or have literal meaning; the spiritual value of mantra comes when it is audible, visible, or present in thought.’ (Wikipedia®, 2015).

The word is heavily loaded with religious connotations. It typically represents Hindu way of repeating words and sounds to aid concentration in meditation. Such words have a powerful influence on the readers which cannot be achieved by any other English equivalent.

xi. Jihad *Jihad* refers mainly to a religious/spiritual duty of Muslims. In Arabic, the word *jihād* is a noun meaning "struggle" or "resisting". A person engaged in jihad is called a mujahid, the plural of which is mujahideen. The word *jihad* appears frequently in the Quran, often in the idiomatic expression "striving in the way of God (al-jihad fi sabil Allah)" with focus on spiritual struggle to obey and reform from within oneself and to follow God’s dictum (Wikipedia®, 2015)

Jihad is not a violent concept but now is being used by some groups of people in a wrong way to justify their own interests. As a result of this, the term has become so sensitive that it is now used typically for Muslim terrorists only. Media also uses it with a definite purpose to provoke the readers. It shows the psychological state of both the encoders and decoders of the word. We can say that the word is so much culturally, religiously and politically loaded.

xii. Dargah ‘*People holding placards as they offer prayers at a Dargah for team India's victory in 2015 cricket World Cup, in Bhopal on Wednesday*’

The term *dargah* has a religious connotation. It doesn’t simply mean tomb or shrine but it particularly refers to Muslim saints’ (spiritual leaders or spiritual visionaries) tombs.

xiii. Moksha *'It happens only in Banaras, where death is not fearful, and dying here means attaining moksha'*

In Hinduism and Jainism, *moksha* means 'release from the cycle of rebirth impelled by the law of karma'. It is heavily religiously and culturally loaded. No other equivalent can serve the same purpose as it is serving.

xiv. Gherao *'Students of a few government hostels in the city and members of the Students Federation of India gheraoed the District Collectorate here on Thursday....'*

Gherao means 'encirclement'. The word was even added to the *Concise Oxford English Dictionary* in 2004. It means a protest in which workers prevent employers leaving a place of work until their demands are met. The term is equally used in the context of students and universities. There is no term in English that can express this exact meaning of the term. The word gives the 'desi tadka' of Indian culture.

xv. Dharna *'Dharna staged demanding better service in mess'*

Dharna is a non-violent sit-in protest. It catches the attention of the reader as the word has a shade of typical Indian culture in it.

4. Conclusion

After analyzing these loan words, we can see that the selection and application of linguistic structures is intentional and it carries not only meaning but also the physical, psychological, functional, pragmatic, cultural universe i.e., the semiotic world with it. So we can say that the meaning of an expression doesn't only lie within the word but it is in the minds of the users. It is the communicative pact between the speakers (or writers) and hearers (or readers) which shapes the meaning of an expression. Hence different words have different communicative effects when used by different people of different cultures.

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Sisters in the Wilderness by Delores Williams

Selvi Bunce



Delores Williams

Courtesy: <https://i.ytimg.com/vi/gLZuyzzhdUA/hqdefault.jpg>

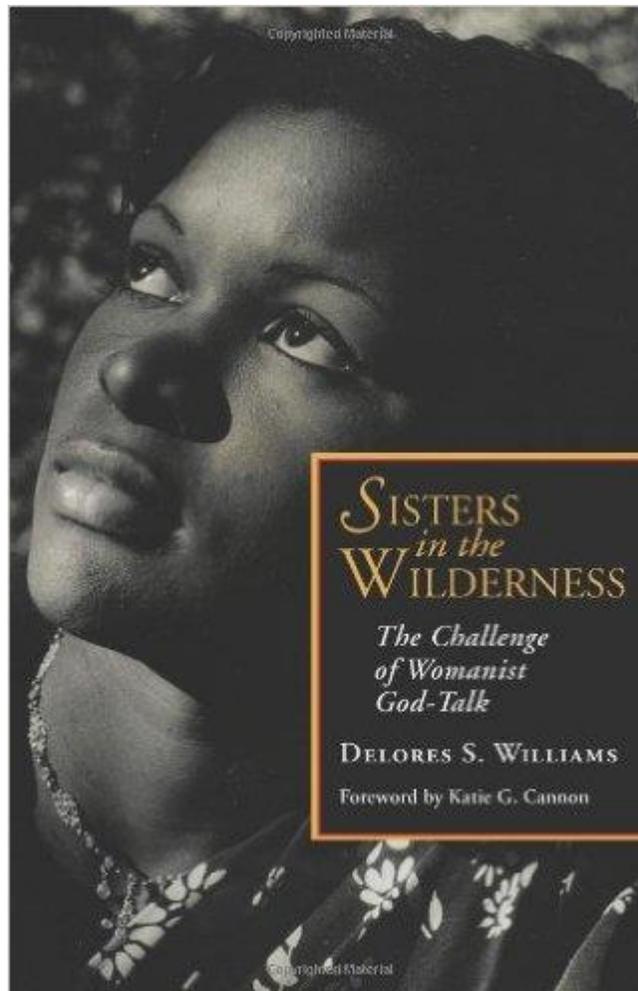
Abstract

As the forerunner of Womanist theology, Delores Williams has offered a theological response to the oppression and defilement of black women. Black women are oppressed by two sides: white mainstream society, and the patriarchal culture of black men. Because of this, neither North American Liberation theology nor Feminist theology is adequate to represent the situation of the black woman in America. Therefore, black women's oppression clearly deepens the analysis of oppression in theology. The main thesis of *Sisters in the Wilderness* is created by using stories from the Bible to trace parallels with the experiences of black women from slavery to the present day.

Key words: Womanist theology, *Sisters in the Wilderness*, oppression of women, Hagar, surrogacy and wilderness.

Williams' Womanism

The past fifty years have seen major growth in the theological realm. Liberation theology and Feminist theology are two new theologies that have been added to the list of concentrations, but the most recent one is Womanist theology. As the forerunner of Womanist theology, Delores Williams has offered a theological response to the oppression and defilement of black women. Williams' womanism is an approach to theology and ethics from the all too often ignored viewpoint of the black woman in America.



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theology is adequate to represent the situation of the black woman in America. Therefore, black women's oppression clearly deepens the analysis of oppression in theology.

Stories from the Bible Tracing Parallels

Since Womanist theology is focused on black women, it must also focus on what makes the black woman different, and how that plays a role in theology. The main thesis of *Sisters in the Wilderness* is created by using stories from the Bible to trace parallels with the experiences of black women from slavery to the present day. Consequently, Womanist theology rises from the interplay of race, sex, and class oppression and focuses on survival and quality of life for the black woman.

The Story of Hagar

Williams uses the story of Hagar to describe the lives of black women and their shared history under oppressive forces in America. Hagar was the Egyptian slave of Abraham and Sarah. Hagar was a slave in every meaning of the word. Even her reproductive organs were not her own. Because Sarah could not have a child, she told Abraham that he may lay with Hagar to produce an heir. Hagar's role in this instance was to be a surrogate. However, after Hagar was impregnated with Abraham's child, she attempted to gain liberation for herself by escaping into the wilderness. It was here, alone and suffering in the wilderness, that Hagar found God. God tells Hagar that she should return to her mistress and submit to her (Genesis 16:9). Williams argues that God is not affirming the validity of slavery and Hagar's identity as a slave, but instead, God is focusing on the survival and quality of life for Hagar and her unborn child.

El-Roi", the God Who Sees Me

In this initial encounter with God, Hagar names God "El-Roi" (the God who sees me). This is significant because she is making God her own personal savior, and not some distant god of her master's. Therefore, this created Hagar's own experience with the divine that was no longer dependent on her owner's experience. This is parallel to the struggle of the black woman in America as she struggles to identify with a God who is so often portrayed as a white male, the same as her main oppressor.

The Wilderness the Second Time

This relationship between God and Hagar continues into Hagar's liberation. God finds Hagar in the wilderness the second time when she is free. Although her body now belongs to herself, she still faces many challenges. She is a single mother, alone, and jobless, as many women were after they were emancipated from slavery in America. God met Hagar where she was and provided for both she and her son, not only at a level of bare survival, but also provided a better quality of life.

Surrogacy and the Wilderness

Throughout the story of Hagar, Williams identifies two key components that become the major theme of Womanist theology. These two themes are surrogacy and the wilderness. The wilderness serves as a major theme because the wilderness can be seen as a parallel to the struggles of black women in America. Although she was a slave, Hagar finds that some of her most immense struggles occur once she is liberated and in the wilderness. A similar situation is that of the black woman after her emancipation from slavery. Many times, she found herself alone and jobless in the face of gender, class, and race oppression, facing a dangerous world or type of "wilderness". In the face of all these challenges of the wilderness, the oppressed woman must remember that God is there to ensure her survival and that she must fight for it with him alongside her. This is different from the mere acceptance of suffering that past theologies have implied.

The other main theme in Womanist theology is surrogacy. Surrogacy has been a major part of the shared history of black women in America and continues to be a part of their present experience as well. Black women faced coerced surrogacy under slavery and voluntary (although still oppressive) surrogacy post-emancipation. Voluntary surrogacy began in the forms of black women filling the role of the white mother for the white children as the mammie of the house. Voluntary surrogacy in its current definition can be seen in the business opportunity that is surrogacy. Wealthy women paying poor black women for their reproductive capabilities, rendering them unable to develop a skill and elongating the cycle of poverty.

Jesus as a Surrogate

Jesus acted as a surrogate just as black women and Hagar did. However, depending on one's view of atonement, it is debated whether Jesus' surrogacy was voluntary or coerced (out of obedience to God the Father). Either way, viewing Christ's surrogacy without Womanist theology creates a problem for the oppressed because it makes surrogacy a divine experience and therefore makes Christianity a sedative to the oppressed.

Suffering and Sin and Womanist Theology

To assuage this problematic view of surrogacy, Williams asserts that redemptive suffering does not exist. Instead, an encounter with suffering is always an encounter with sin, not holiness or God's will. Therefore, according to Womanist theology, we are to emulate Christ's relationship with God and the world, and not Christ's suffering. This gives new importance to the Christ story and takes the emphasis away from the suffering and places it on the relationship. This accentuates the importance of focusing on relationship with God and not individual suffering or works. Therefore, Womanist theology does not look to the veneration of the cross, but instead focuses on the ministerial vision. The ministerial vision is the righting of the relationship between mind, body, and spirit. Furthermore the Christological motivation here is again, not the Cross, but the Resurrection, when Jesus overcame suffering. In this way Womanist theology allows the oppressed black woman to see the faithfulness of God in Him helping her survive and not in the presupposed notion of the need for one to suffer in order to know the revelation of Jesus Christ.

Exclusive Womanist Theology

Although Womanist theology has transformed not only mainstream theology, but Liberation theology as well, it is not perfect. *Sisters in the Wilderness* fails to include other colored people in America and is therefore exclusive as many other theologies ahead of its time have been. Although Womanist theology claims to fight racism, it fails to fight on behalf of other minority groups in America.

In addition, Womanist theology fails to address the problem of psychological oppression for black women in America. Psychological oppression is the result of a white mainstream

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Sisters in the Wilderness by Delores Williams

society that views black woman under a stereotypical Jezebel image, sexualizing black girls. This remains unaddressed throughout *Sisters in the Wilderness*, therefore making Williams' confrontation of oppression incomplete.

Finally, with the use of the Hagar narrative and the connection of black women as Hagar and their children as Hagar's son Ishmael, this makes African American people, not the children of God, but the children of slavery. This brings to question whether or not black women in the contemporary era still consider themselves children of slavery although they have been emancipated for over one and a half centuries. However, this last critique is the most controversial. For are not all children, children of Christ, even if they have not been declared as God's people? In addition, just because one may claim to be the child of slavery, this does not void the fact that one is also a child of God.

Deeper Focus

Overall, Womanist theology made it possible for the black American woman to question whether or not it was really through suffering that God calls his people. Womanist theology also brought to light the question of whether redemptive suffering is real and necessary. Womanist theology allows for a deeper focus on both the ministerial vision and a relationality to God and the resurrection, with less of an emphasis on the Cross and suffering. Although it does have its deficits like any other form of theology, Womanist theology, beginning with *Sisters in the Wilderness*, has definitely left its mark on the theological realm and given black women in America a new place of expression and opportunity.

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