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Speed of Processing in Adults Comparison across Grammatical Category

**Deepa N Devadiga, MASLP, Radish Kumar B, M.Sc.,
Jayashree S. Bhat, Ph.D., and Livingston Sengolraj, UG Student**

Introduction

Lexical items are alienated into different word classes, such as nouns and verbs, as they play different semantic and syntactic roles in language. They are responded to differentially by language users in behavioural tasks. Nouns and verbs are retrieved by different neural networks thereby honouring an organizational principle (Damasio and Tranel, 1993).

Evidences for the Differential Lexical Organizations

A major line of evidence for the differential lexical organization of verbs from nouns has primarily come from the grammatical class - specific impairments resulting from brain damage. Earlier in 1961, Fillenbaum, Jones, and Wepman reported verb production impairments in Broca's aphasia followed by an overwhelming number of case studies reporting either selective noun or verb retrieval deficits (Shapiro, Shelton, & Caramazza, 2000; Laiacona & Caramazza, 2004).

The second evidence for the noun-verb difference comes from developmental studies. For instance, the vocabulary of very young children includes mainly nouns, compared to verbs that are present in a very limited number (Gentner, 1982).

Advantage for Nouns

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The possible interpretation for this advantage for nouns compared to verbs lies in the greater conceptual complexity of verbs compared to nouns. The lesser complexity of nouns leads to the earlier acquisition of the names for nouns than for verbs (Gentner, 1982). The categories for nouns are more natural than those for verb. They often refer to the perceptual properties that tend to cohere and form natural conceptual categories. Though there are conflicting evidences on the anatomical locus of verb retrieval skills in the brain, in general, it is evident that either nouns or verbs could be differentially impaired following brain damage, reflecting the possible differences either in the organization and or processing of these two grammatical classes of words.

Aging – A Major Factor

Numerous cognitive and biological changes occur during healthy aging. Older adults report that one of their most annoying cognitive problems is the inability to produce a well-known word (Rabbitt, Maylor, McInnes, Bent & Moore, 1995). At the cognitive level, these changes include decline in functions such as episodic and working memory, attention and inhibition (Salthouse, 1996). The speed of all components of processing from selective attention to responding declines with aging. It becomes even more apparent as the complexity of the processing demands increases. Bashore et al., (1997) findings suggest that speed of processing differs between young and older adults because they adopt different performance strategies.

Damasio and Tranel (1993) study posited a theory of separate lexical mediation systems for concrete nouns and verbs. This theory was validated after the detailed examinations of the three patients with selective naming deficits. Two patients had lesion localized to left anterior/middle temporal with selective noun retrieval deficits, and third had a lesion in the left frontal region with a selective verb retrieval deficit. All other functions were normal for the three patients. Damasio and Tranel (1993) noting the correspondence between lesion location and overt behaviour, argued that there are separate neuroanatomical systems for noun and verb retrieval. Daniele et al. (1994) summarized the findings of several studies that compared patients on naming performance and lesion location and found converging evidence to implicate the left frontal lobe in verb retrieval and the left temporal lobe in noun retrieval.

Age-related Decline

With advancing age, cognitive functions may remain stable or decline. An average incidence rate of cognitive decline of 12 to 15 per 1000 persons –years has been reported for people 65 years and older (Ganguli *et al.*, 2000) in India. Cognitive functions that decline include selective attention, naming of objects, verbal fluency, complex visuospatial skills and logical analysis. Age related decline in cognitive domains such as memory is well documented (Craik and Salthouse, 1999). In particular, older group often experience more difficulties than younger adults on memory tasks with high demands on control processes (Moscowitch and Winocur, 1995). Adults, who often have more difficulties on tasks with high demands on cognitive control, would show a selective underactivation compared to young adults.

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More studies find evidences for an increase in word finding difficulty with age (Au et al., 1995). Heller and Dobbs (1993) found that older adults were less accurate and exhibited greater uncertainty than young adults. The retrieval of nouns and verbs declines progressively with age (Anna, Lisa, Martin and Loraine, 2002). Evidence from a variety of sources suggests that the language processing system includes at least some components that discriminate between nouns and verbs at the cortical level. Researchers studying healthy aging populations (Barresi et al ., 2000) have noted a dissociation between performance on the Action Naming Test (ANT) and the Boston Naming Test (BNT) in their examinations of lexical retrieval failures in older adults. But, confrontation naming for objects and actions differs based on the comparison of performance on these two instruments.

Neural Correlates

Electrophysiological studies in humans reveal neural correlates of the processing speed deficit hypothesis and its impact on cognition. These studies have focussed on changes in the peak latency of the P300 component of the Event Related Potential. Event Related Potential is thought to reflect processing which is involved in attention and memory operations; it is typically evoked by random and infrequent targets (Sutton, Baren, Zubin, & John, 1965). Neurological substratum related to executive functioning (prefrontal cortex and its circuitry) has been proposed as the neuropsychological base of cognitive flexibility. Kumar et al., (2010) investigated the cognitive flexibility in children with learning disability and found that they require more time to shift their cognitive set in response to changing stimuli when compared to typically developing children. There is an extensive evidence that the P300 latency is delayed in older adults, thereby providing an evidence of neural slowing during cognitive operations (Kok, 2000). EEG studies have also shown that earlier Event Related Potential markers of visual processing exhibit slowing in older adults. In these studies, hypothesis is that there is significant latency difference with respect to normal aging.

From the review of literature, it is clear that geriatrics is slower to process information compared to young adults. This slowing affects processing in all cognitive domains, not just language. If language difficulties are the result of slow processing speed, then individual differences in reaction time (RT) measures across the grammatical category should be predictive of variation within language ability. Hence the aim of our study was to assess the word retrieval for nouns and verbs in young adults and geriatric population.

Method

Research Participants

Participants for the study were 20 young adults (10 males, M=19.3years, SD=1.2, range= 18-22; 10 females, M = 19.8 years, SD = 1.7, range= 18-22) and 20 geriatric (10 males, M = 74.4 years, SD = 5.1, range = 69-80) native Kannada speakers. All the participants were right-handed and did not have existing speech, language, hearing, neurological or psychiatric illness. All the participants were having normal or corrected-to-normal vision. Informed consent was obtained from all the participants before the commencement of study.

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Experimental Procedure

Experimental stimuli consisted of ten nouns and ten verbs in Kannada. All the words [nouns (cat, elephant, hen, eye, ear, apple, chair, broom, key, book) and verbs (writing, sleeping, standing, sitting, crying, dancing, bathing, running, sweeping, laughing)] were selected and incorporated only after obtaining familiarity rating by three native Kannada Speakers. These stimuli images were set in black outline on a white background and were presented through the laptop. A specially programmed DMDX software was used for the purpose. All the stimuli were inserted in a single list, and were randomly presented to the participants.

The software was programmed so that all the ten written word stimuli were automatically displayed on the screen one by one for 3500 msec. RT (the time interval between application of a stimulus and detection of a response) for each stimulus was measured. Only the vocal responses from the participants were recorded through Check Vocal software. The software automatically re-triggered to calculate the RT on the basis of an adjustable threshold. Participants were instructed to name the pictures immediately after it appears on the laptop screen as best and as short as they could. They were also told to avoid making a mistake, and also to avoid false starts, hesitation, articles or any other additional words.

Results

The current study was carried out to assess the word retrieval for nouns and verbs in young adults and geriatric population.

Group	Gender	Category	Mean	Standard Deviation
Younger Group	Male	Noun	8.46	154.77
Younger Group	Male	Verbs	1.03	403.00
Younger Group	Female	Noun	9.40	99.13
Younger Group	Female	Verbs	1.04	111.35
Geriatric Group	Male	Noun	2.45	397.75
Geriatric Group	Male	Verbs	1.94	418.92
Geriatric Group	Female	Noun	1.48	381.14
Geriatric Group	Female	Verbs	1.51	227.18

Table 1 showing average latency time for the retrieval of nouns and verbs

As shown in Table 1, the younger male participants exhibited a mean reaction time of 8.46ms for nouns and 1.03ms for verbs and the younger female participants exhibited a mean reaction time of 9.4ms for nouns and 99.13ms for verbs whereas the geriatric male participants exhibited a mean reaction time of 2.45ms for nouns and 1.94ms for verbs where

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as the geriatric female participants exhibited a mean reaction time of 1.48ms for nouns and 1.51ms for verbs.

The results of the present study revealed significant main effect of the groups ($f= 166.66$, $p< 0.05$) indicating that geriatric participants were slower in processing both verbs and nouns in comparison to the young adults.

In terms of gender, among both the groups, the female participants processed faster for both the categories compared to males. The study revealed significant difference statistically ($F= 22.196$, $p< 0.05$)

No significant main effect for verb and noun categories ($F=0.462$, $p>0.05$) was observed although nouns were processed faster than verbs in young adults and verbs were processed faster than nouns in the geriatric group.

It was also observed that the group gender interaction ($F=30.9$, $p<0.05$) was statistically significant. But there was no significant differences group and category interaction and gender and category interaction.

Discussion

In the present study there were differences observed in the retrieval speed for the nouns and verbs. Differences in naming latencies reflect differences in cognitive processing during action and object naming. Longer reaction times in one of two similar tasks are believed to result from an additional cognitive step or demand needed for the slower task (Glaser, 1992).

This study indicated that geriatric individuals were slower to process both the nouns and verbs than the young adults. This could be attributed to regions in the brain showing differential recruitment for young adults and geriatrics when the requirements for selection of semantic information are high. These regions include left and right inferior frontal gyrus, left inferior temporal gyrus, and the angular cingulate cortex. Verbs have been described as more “relational” in their semantics than nouns (Genter, 1981; Langacker, 1987). Persson et al., (2004) have also opined that decreased processing speed during high selection verb generation is associated with increases in left inferior frontal gyrus activation in young participants but it decreases in older participants.

In language acquisition as well as psycholinguistic research, there is a long-standing debate on the so-called ‘noun bias’. Proponents of the noun-bias hypothesis assume that nouns are privileged in acquisition and processing of language, because they form ‘cohesive packages’ which are easily mapped onto words. Therefore, nouns should be processed faster than verbs as well as acquired before verbs. The nouns were processed faster than verbs in younger adult group in the current study which is in line with Marshall et al.,(1998) observation that the production of nouns is less impaired than the understanding and production of verbs.

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On the other hand, verbs were processed faster than nouns in geriatric group. Similar observations have been reported by Berndt et al., in 1997. This is also supported by the experimental observations on adults with selective disturbances of language which showed double dissociations between the impairment of one grammatical class with the other being spared, in both comprehension and production tasks, and in some, a selective impairment in verb processing only occurred (Caramazza & Hillis 1991; Daniele et al. 1994). However, some researchers have reported the opposite trend, with a selective deficit in noun processing (Daniele et al. 1994; Zingeser & Berndt 1990).

Positive correlations between reaction time and cortical activity in young adults and negative correlations between reaction time and cortical activity in senior adults in dorsolateral pre frontal cortex is reported (Rypma and D'Esposito, 2000; DLPFC, Reuter-Lorenz, 2001).

Older adults often experience more difficulties than younger adults on memory tasks with high demands on control processes (Moscovitch and Winocur, 1995). There is a growing consensus that the prefrontal cortex (PFC) undergoes anatomical and functional deterioration as a function of normal aging, and it has been proposed that dysfunction of frontal systems may underlie age-related cognitive decline (West, 1996; Raz, 1997).

The Anteriorcingulate cortex would be more involved in the verb generation task with high selection demands (multiple potential responses) than with low selection demands (one or few potential responses). In addition, age-related differences in activation in the Anterior Cingulate Cortex may reflect the failure of geriatrics to appropriately engage these cognitive control mechanisms. Additional activation was found in left anterior Pre Frontal Cortex for both young and senior adults and in the basal ganglia for senior adults.

Decreased speed may be related to less effective memory-scanning processes (Sternberg, 1966). The findings would suggest that senior adults may compensate for declining performance by the use of additional right homologous brain regions. The idea of compensation is supported by several neuroimaging studies in which right prefrontal recruitment in senior adults is associated with faster response times (Reuter-Lorenz et al., 2000, 2001) and higher memory performance (Cabeza et al., 2002).

Also, neuropsychological studies have shown that recovery of cognitive and motor functions after unilateral brain lesions may involve recruitment of homologous regions in the unaffected contralateral hemisphere (e.g., Buckner et al., 1996; Honda et al., 1997; Thulborn et al., 1999).

It was also observed in the current study that the female participants processed faster for both the grammatical categories compared to males. Various independent research studies have yielded controversial results as regards the effect of gender on reaction time. Noble (1964) noted that the males showed a shorter reaction time than females in every age group except 10 – 14 years and the oldest age group. In general, research seems to suggest that females have a higher regional cerebral blood flow than males (Kastrup et al., 1999). In females, it is up to 20% larger than in males, giving females better decision making and sensory processing skills. Females have demonstrated more frontal activation, compared to more parietal

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activation in males, during a mental rotation task (Weiss et al., 2003), and males have demonstrated a greater bias towards right hemisphere activation (and females to left hemisphere activation) during a task requiring a judgement of a whole object from its parts (Georgopoulos et al., 2001). Skandhan, Mehta, Mehta and Gaur (1980) reported that girls from the age of eight years and above have mental alertness superior to the boys of comparable age. The girls seem to have intellectual abilities, which are at least one to two years ahead of the boys. Venkatesh, Ramachandra, Suresh, Rajan (2002) observed that females had a longer reaction time when compared to males. Finally, females have also demonstrated a greater bilateral regional cerebral blood flow in temporal regions during performance of the Wechsler Memory Scale for memory recall (Ragland et al., 2000).

Conclusion

The current study demonstrates that processing for nouns and verbs declines with age. The young adults had better reaction time for nouns compared to verbs, whereas for the geriatric group opposite trend was observed. Moreover the processing was faster among female participants compared to the male participants. The neural underpinnings of this behavior remain largely unknown. This study would advance our understanding of cognitive impairments among the healthy aging and the pathology with implications for the clinical practice. The findings can be strengthened by expanding on different lexical categories.

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Are Tonal and Non-Tonal Languages Lateralized Differently in Bilingual Tonal Language Speakers?

Sudeshna Goswami, Intern (B.Sc. Speech & Hearing)

Suma Raju, MASLP

Abstract

Introduction

All languages use intonation to express emphasis, emotions but not every language uses tone to distinguish meaning. When this occurs, tones are equally important, as phonemes and they are referred to as “tonemes”. Languages that make use of tonemes are called as “tonal languages”. Research indicates varied results for the laterality effect using tonal stimuli compared to consistent right ear advantage (REA) for the non-tonal verbal stimuli. These findings cannot be generalized to tonal languages which are spoken in India which varies in many aspects compared to other tonal languages studied, hence an attempt has been done to study the laterality effects for Indian tonal language (Manipuri).

Aim

To investigate the lateralization of tonal and non-tonal languages in bilingual tonal language speakers using dichotic listening task.

Method

Test materials

72 English and 96 Manipuri words served as stimuli. Dichotic stimulus was prepared using

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adobe audition software version-3. A total of 4 Manipuri dichotic tracks (first track was for practice) and 3 English tracks were prepared where each track had 12 pairs of monosyllabic words.

Procedure

30 female subjects with mean age of 25 years participated in the study with normal speech-language and hearing ability with right handedness. Two tasks were carried out dichotic listening and free recall task of auditory capacity. The number of correct responses was scored and percentage was calculated.

Results

The scores obtained were subjected to statistical analysis using SPSS version 10 software. Multiple paired sample 't' test was used to compare mean scores of both the ears for English and Manipuri languages. Results of 't' test in dichotic task showed that there was a significant difference between the scores of right and left ears for English with p value 0.02 ($p < 0.05$), but for the Manipuri language this difference was not appreciated with a significance value 0.495 ($p < 0.05$). The results for the free recall task clearly indicated high scores for stimuli presented through right ear ($p = 0.000$) for English and in Manipuri there was no significant difference obtained for scores between both ears ($p = 0.604$).

Conclusion

Results of the present study clearly indicated REA for English and no specific ear advantage for Manipuri in both dichotic and free recall tasks. Findings support that language processing in left hemisphere especially for non-tonal languages. Equal scores for both ears for tonal language (Manipuri) can be attributed to participation of both hemispheres in processing tonal stimuli, which can be contributed to the participation of right hemisphere for processing the tonal aspects (contrast variations in pitch, durations and stress) of the language.

Key Words: Right ear advantage, dichotic listening task, auditory capacity.

Introduction

Tone refers to the use of pitch in language to distinguish words. All languages use intonation to express emphasis, emotions but not every language uses tone to distinguish meaning. When this occurs, tones are equally important, as phonemes and they are referred to as "tonemes." Languages that make use of tonemes are called as "Tonal Languages". In tonal language each syllable has an inherent pitch contour thus minimal pairs exist between syllables with the same segmental features but different tones, thus in a tonal language contrastive variations in pitch at the syllable or word level are used to distinguish the lexical meaning of words, and it is the distinguishing feature from a non-tonal language.

The tonal language is an important category of languages, which includes varied kinds of Chinese languages (such as Mandarin, Cantonese, Taiwanese), South-East Asia languages (such as Thai, Vietnamese), Swedish, and Norwegian. Most of the languages of South-East Asia and Africa are tonal languages. Compared with English and some other European languages, tonal languages have a unique but important property, tone information. Speech Recognition of tonal languages

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depends not only on the phonetic composition but also on the lexical tone pattern (Moen, I 1993). For example, in Chinese language, words with same syllable sequences but different tones have different meanings. So without tone information, the speech recognition accuracy will not be good, especially where tones are the only distinguishing features.

Specific language-related tasks like word production and comprehension always involve some portions of the human brain. Earlier accepted hypothesis was that only two classical parts of brain Broca's and Wernicke's areas deal with language. This was discarded with the evidence of involvement of other brain parts in language related tasks. The other hypothesis is that only left hemisphere is responsible for language. It is true that left hemisphere is dominating but the right hemisphere also finds role in language (Mundhra 2005).

Dichotic listening is an effective and non-invasive means to study hemispheric laterality for speech perception. Several researchers documented the existence of a cerebral dominance effect in dichotic listening, indicating a pre-existing ear asymmetry in normal right-handed listeners in which the scores for Right ear were consistently higher than the scores for the Left ear (Broadbent 1954, Kimura and Bryden 1961., Zenker. et al, 1972, Linda mood, et al. 1979). Dichotic listening has been a component of many auditory processing assessment protocols following the introduction of dichotic digits by Broadbent in 1954.

In Dichotic speech tests two different auditory stimuli will be presented to the two ears simultaneously. Right-handed subjects typically have a better response to stimuli presented to their right ear than to those presented to their left ear (Zenker. et al, 1972). This response pattern is called the Right Ear Advantage (REA) and is dependent upon the difficulty of the listening task. Dichotic speech tests can include a variety of stimuli such as: nonsense syllables, digits, monosyllabic words, spondaic words or sentences. Dichotic listening experiments have shown that different sorts of input show different ear preferences. Subjects with left-hemispheric language lateralization, which possibly constitute more than 95 percent of the population are more accurate in reporting items arriving at the right ear than items arriving at the left ear when the input is verbal (Linda mood, et al. 1979).

There are two explanations of these ear advantages in dichotic listening:

(1) The structural theory describes the advantages to anatomic properties of the auditory system. Kimura (1961) explains the right ear advantage for verbal stimulus by the fact that the right ear is connected to the language dominant left hemisphere of the brain and the left ear to the right hemisphere through the contra lateral pathways. She claims that the contralateral pathways are more preponderant than the ipsilateral pathways which constitute the link between the ear and the hemisphere on the same side.

(2) According to attentional theory by Kinsbourne (1970) laterality effect is due to lateralized cortical functions, but it also emphasizes the influence of attention in priming a particular hemisphere. An expectation of verbal stimuli, for instance serves to prime the language dominant hemisphere and make it extra sensitivity.

Current evidence indicates that neither of these two views, in their most extreme forms, is entirely correct. If attentional mechanisms were all that was relevant, then one would predict that it would not be possible to activate both the left and the right hemisphere simultaneously. According

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to Bryden (1963), however, one can obtain right ear advantages for verbal material and left ear advantages for non-verbal material at the same time. On the other hand, it is proven that attentional factors do make some difference; the same dichotic stimuli that produce an left ear advantage when one expects non-verbal stimuli, can produce a right ear advantage when one expect stimuli (Blumstein and Spellacy, 1970). It, therefore, seems that both structural and attentional components are relevant to the production of dichotic laterality effects.

Gandour (1956) reported that right hemisphere is engaged when prosodic functions span larger temporal domains such as clauses or sentences. In case of spoken language users, auditory speech processing activates right hemisphere. Moreuxcaux (1981) demonstrated electrophysiologic correlates of perceptual asymmetries for dichotic tasks using tonal stimuli in subjects who demonstrated the right ear advantage for verbal non-tonal dichotic stimuli but clear left ear advantage was observed for dichotically presented tonal stimuli. Similar study done by Best (1985), to evaluate the processing of tonal and non-tonal language syllables on perceptual laterality in speakers of Mandarin and English, and it was found that significant responses were more in right ear than left ear across both languages but right ear was significant for the English test and only marginally significant for Mandarin test.

In case of bilinguals, it was believed that all the languages (more than two languages also) are localized in the same cerebral areas (Mundhra, 2005). But this had a controversy. It is proved by some experiments that brain areas recruited for language 1 (primary language or the mother tongue) learning and processing are different from those recruited for language 2 (second language acquired). The anatomical separation of grammar and phonology in bilinguals varies according to age and manner of language acquisition. In early bilinguals (who adopted language 1 and language 2 from childhood) no exhibition of different areas for different languages was shown, while in late bilinguals (who adopted language 2 in adult age) language 1's grammar and phonology motor maps.

Evans, et al. (2002) found that for participants from a dual language environment, both early and late acquisition of a second language resulted in a left hemispheric localization of language 2. Their data revealed increased right hemispheric involvement for later learned language 2 in a single language environment Francis, Desmond (1992) examined brain activation of bilinguals of English and Spanish language users. They found that the semantic activation for both the languages occurred in the same cortical location. They inferred that learning a new language, even after a decade, does not require the addition of a new semantic processing system or the recruitment of a new cortical region. Such evidences suggest a common cortical representation for language 1 and language 2 when levels of proficiency in both languages are comparable.

Need For the Study

Research indicates varied results for the laterality effect using tonal stimuli compared to consistent right ear advantage for the non-tonal verbal stimuli. These findings cannot be generalized to tonal languages which are spoken in India which varies in many aspects compared to other tonal languages studied. Hence an attempt has been done to study the laterality effects for Indian tonal language (Manipuri).

Aim of the Study

To investigate the lateralization of tonal and non tonal languages in bilingual tonal language
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speakers using dichotic listening task.

Objectives

1. To test the lateralization of tonal language (Manipuri).
2. To test the lateralization of non tonal language (English).

Method

Test Materials

For both Manipuri (tonal) and English stimuli a total of hundred (100 for each language) monosyllabic words were chosen from text books of 2nd-5th grade children. All the words were given for familiarity checking by native Manipuri speakers and a final list of seventy two (72) English and ninety-six (96) Manipuri words were made.

Dichotic Stimulus

All the words were recorded in sound treated room. A microphone SSD-HP 202 dynamic stereo mic 105dB/mV was mounted on a stand, the height of which was adjusted for the speaker, the mic was connected to a personal computer for recording. The recording was done using PRAAT software version 5.04 with a sampling frequency of 16 kHz. A native Manipuri female speaker was instructed to read the list of words as they could naturally speak.

Dichotic stimulus was prepared using adobe audition software version-3. The stimulus was edited so that the onset of the stimulus coincided; silent interval was given to the end of stimuli so as to equalize the duration. The stimulus was prepared with inter-stimulus duration of 500 ms (Strouse, C. et al., 2006). A total of 4 Manipuri dichotic tracks (first track was for practice) and 3 English tracks were prepared where each track had 12 pairs of monosyllabic words.

Subjects

A total of thirty (30) subjects were evaluated ranging in age from 20-25 years. Subject inclusion criteria are given below.

Inclusion criteria:

Normal hearing sensitivity (PTA less than or equal to 15 dB HL)
Native Manipuri speakers and using English as second language.
Fluent speakers of both Manipuri and English language.
Normal speech and language skills
No history of any neurological or motor deficits.
Right handedness

Instrumentation

The stimuli were stored and played using a computer. Stimuli were presented through Moser Baer headphone MB-390, which had a frequency response of 20Hz-20 kHz.

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Procedure

A. Dichotic listening test

Instruction: Participants were instructed that they are going to listen to the stimulus presented in both ears simultaneously. In the first task they were asked to attend to the stimulus heard in the right ear while ignoring the stimulus heard in the left ear to find the scores of the right ear. Similarly after an interval (two days), again the stimulus were presented and the subjects were asked to concentrate to the stimulus heard in the left ear while ignoring the stimulus heard in the right ear and left ear responses were obtained. This was carried out for both English and Manipuri stimuli. Participants were asked to respond by repeating it back.

Scoring: Responses were audio taped and analyzed for correct responses of each ear in both conditions. The total number of correct responses was scored and percentage of correct responses was also calculated for each ear.

B. Auditory capacity

Instruction: This was a free recall task, in this first Manipuri stimuli were presented and the subjects were instructed to listen to the stimulus presented to both the ears simultaneously and they were asked to repeat back the words without any ear or sequence specifications. Similarly English stimuli were also presented and responses were recorded.

Scoring: The audio taped responses were analyzed for number of correct responses. The right and left ear responses were obtained from the total scores.

Results

The scores obtained were subjected to statistical analysis using SPSS version10 software. Mean and standard deviation was calculated for the scores obtained. Multiple paired sample 't' test was used to compare mean scores of right and left ears for both English and Manipuri languages.

Table 1: Scores of dichotic listening task

	Right ear		Left ear		p(significance)P<0.05
	Mean scores	SD	Mean scores	SD	
English	10.23	1.65	9.20	1.83	0.02
Manipuri	7.21	1.71	7.38	1.37	0.495

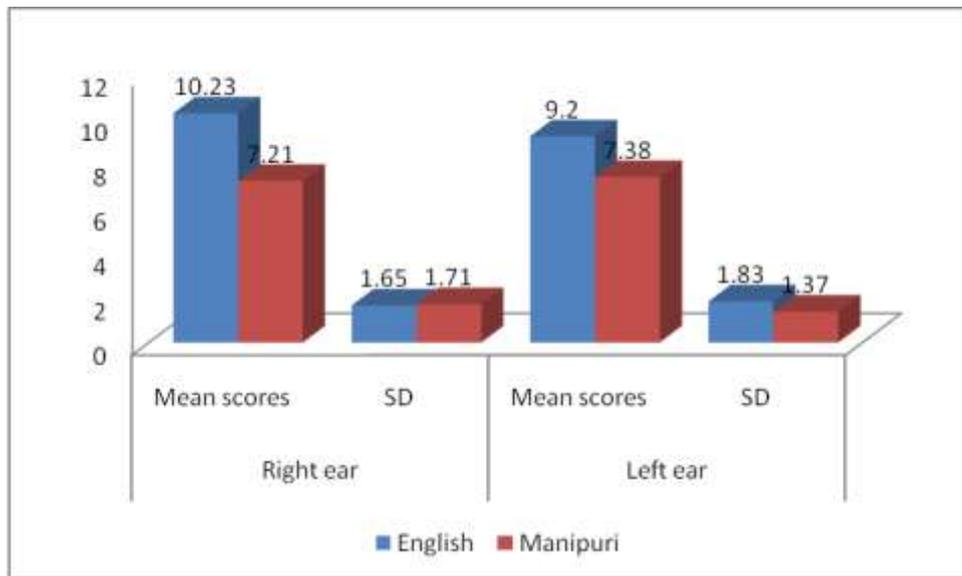
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Table 1 gives the mean scores of correct responses and standard deviation (SD) for the dichotic listening task for both Manipuri and English language where the maximum mean score that could be obtained was 12. Results of 't' test in showed that there was a significant difference between the scores of right and left ears for English with p value 0.02 ($p < 0.05$), but for the Manipuri language this difference was not appreciated with a significance value 0.495 ($p < 0.05$). These values have been depicted in graph 1.



Graph1: Scores of dichotic listening task

The total correct score was obtained for auditory free recall task (auditory capacity), these scores were again analyzed for the responses given from the stimuli presented to left ear and right ear separately. Finally a list of right and left ear scores was obtained. Table 2 gives the mean and standard deviation for scores of the each ear from the results of the auditory capacity task. The results clearly indicated high scores for stimuli presented through right ear ($p = 0.000$) for English and in Manipuri there was no significant difference obtained for scores between both ears ($p = 0.604$). These values have been depicted in graph 2.

Table2: Scores of auditory capacity

	Right ear		Left ear		p(significance) P<0.05
	Mean scores	SD	Mean scores	SD	
English	6.7	1.91	4.08	1.49	0.000

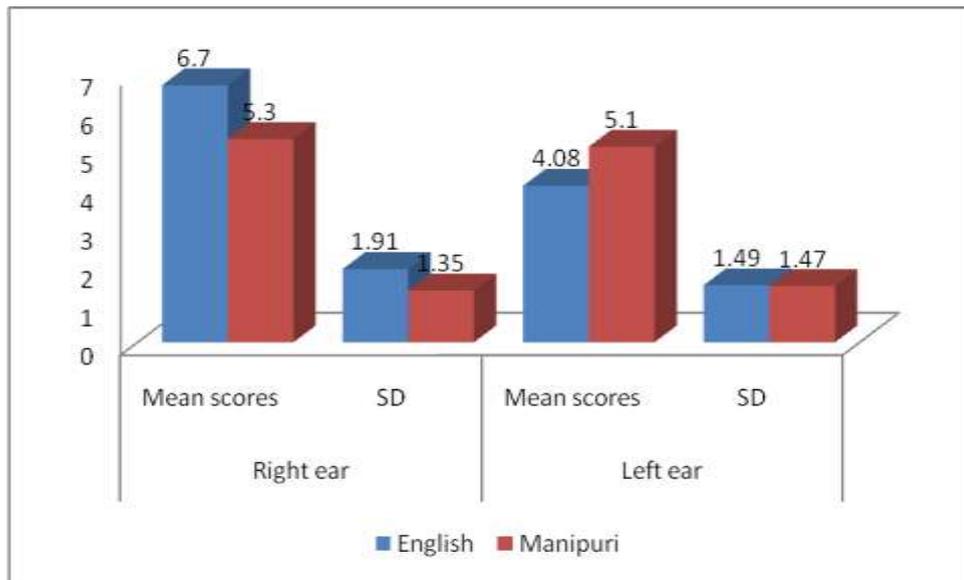
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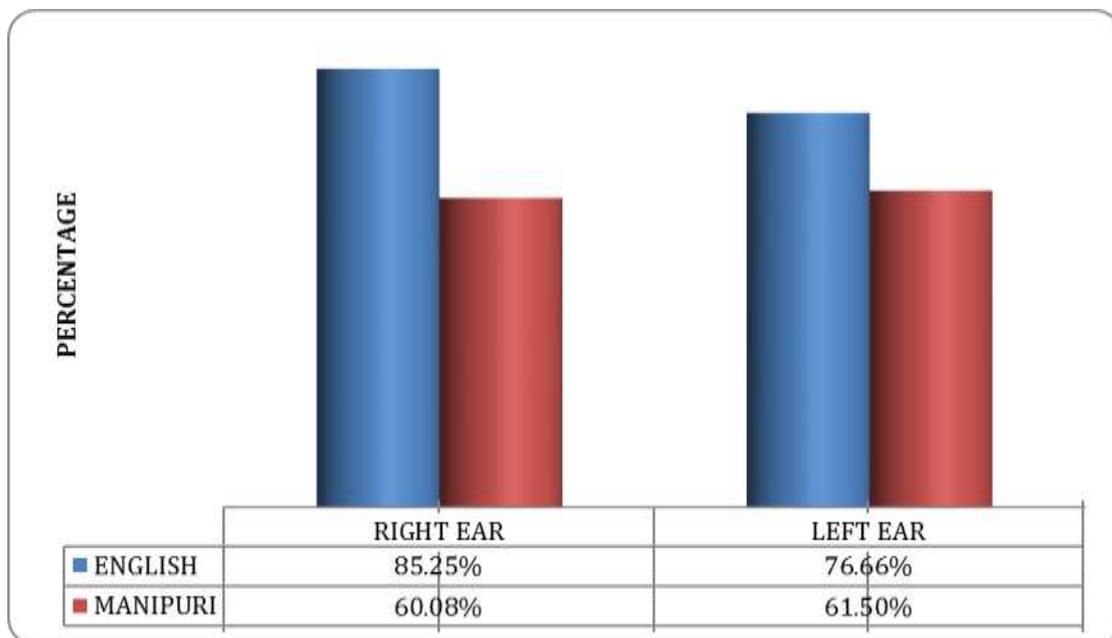
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Manipuri	5.3	1.35	5.1	1.47	0.604
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Graph2: Scores of auditory capacity

The percentage of correct responses was obtained for dichotic listening and auditory free recall task and the results have been depicted in the graph 3.



Graph3: Percentage scores of dichotic listening task

Discussion

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Results of the present study clearly indicated right ear advantages for English indicating the processing of the presented stimuli in the left hemisphere. This finding is in consonance with the previous findings by several researchers who documented the existence of a cerebral dominance effect in dichotic listening, indicating ear asymmetry in normal right-handed listeners in which the scores for right ear were consistently higher than the scores for the Left ear (Broadbent 1954, Kimura and Bryden 1961., Zenker. et al, 1972, Linda mood, et al. 1979).

No specific ear advantage was found for Manipuri which was a tonal language in both dichotic and free recall tasks. Equal scores for both ears for tonal language can be attributed to participation of both hemispheres in processing tonal stimuli. Similar results has been obtained by Gandour (1956) who stated that hemispheric lateralization depends on the relationship between the control of F0 and timing also the size of temporal domain over which prosodic patterns extend crucially which determines the way the signal is processed in the brain ,hence accounting the role of right hemisphere in language processing.

Although the results of the present study showed higher scores for the left ear for the tonal language stimuli, these differences were not statistically significant. These findings does not clearly support the notion that right hemisphere is dominant for processing for the tonal stimuli and hence does not completely support the precious findings of Morexcaux (1981), who demonstrated electrophysiologic correlates of perceptual asymmetries for dichotic tasks using tonal stimuli in subjects who demonstrated the right ear advantage for verbal non-tonal dichotic stimuli but clear left ear advantage for dichotically presented tonal stimuli. These differences in the results could be attributed to methodological differences, the acoustic properties of the tonal stimuli of different tonal languages. Future studies are indicated to understand these factors in Indian tonal languages.

Conclusion

The equal participation of both ears thus indicating equal participation of both hemispheres and lack of left hemisphere dominance for processing tonal language can be contributed to the participation of right hemisphere for processing the tonal aspects (contrast variations in pitch, durations and stress) of the language. Further research is indicated to study laterality effects in tonal language processing utilizing more sophisticated methods and correlating with the acoustic properties of tonal stimuli which calls the participation of right hemisphere.

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A Case Study of Dyslexia Child at the Primary Education Level in Pakistan

Shazia Naureen, Ph.D.

Nosheen Sultana, M.A.

Abou Bakar Idrees Awan, M.Phil.

Abstract

This research was a case study and only one primary school female student was taken as the sample of the study, i.e., a 5th class student of Islamabad Model College for Girls F-6/2, Islamabad. Tests and a questionnaire were adapted. The instrument consisted of seven different tests regarding the problem of the child.

These tests were i) Reading Test; ii) Writing Test; iii) Mathematical Test; iv) Memory Test; v) Intelligence Test; vi) Performance Test; and vii) Visio-Attention Test. These were used as tool for the collection of data from the girl child and her teachers.

The questionnaire for teachers had 16 questions regarding the girl student's problems, her study progress and behavior in school and classroom.

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Results indicated that the dyslectic child was facing problems in almost every area of study at the primary level in Pakistan, specifically reading. The problems faced by the dyslectic child can be removed, to some extent, with the help of positive and cooperating attitude of parents and teachers. Speech therapy and psychiatrist sessions were also recommended.

Key Words: *Dyslexia*

Introduction

Dyslexia is a chronological neurological disorder due to which difficulty occurs in reading, learning and spelling. Noteworthy indicators are poor learning, tendency to write words or letters in reversal order and scribbled handwriting. According to Psicologia (2001) comparative analysis of several definitions of dyslexia revealed that reading discrepancy was the only common and major symptom of dyslexia. Among all the signs of dyslexia, reading incompetency is the most significant. Dyslectic children have a great tendency and inclination towards letter-reversal. Dyslexia affects a child's ability to read, write and understand the basic language. Some of the symptoms of dyslexia are: Letter or word reversals when reading, such as was/saw, b/d, p/q), Letter or word reversals when writing, Difficulty in repeating what is said to them, Poor handwriting or printing ability, Poor drawing ability, Reversing letters or words when spelling words that are presented orally, Difficulty comprehending written or spoken directions, Difficulty with right - left directionality, Difficulty understanding or remembering what is said to them, and Difficulty understanding or remembering what they have just read (Fischer, Liberman, and Shankweiler, 1978).

It is very important for teachers to present an early evaluation and identification of dyslectic children (Christo, Catherine, Davis and Brock, 2009). Communication with the dyslectic child is also significant (Marshall, Abigail, and Vincent, 2009). It is important for a dyslectic adult to gain control over his or her own life (Mc Loughlin, Leather and Stringer, 2002). The needs of dyslexia students are not the responsibility of one individual rather the responsibility rests with school staff, subject professionals and school administration (Peer, 2001). If the problems and needs of dyslectic students are not addressed properly, learning ability is drastically affected because of being labeled as dyslectic even at the university level (Pollak, 2005). Good counseling is the basic source to manage dyslexia. Effective counseling combined with effective teaching skills makes dyslexia manageable (Scott, 2005).

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The present study explores the issues, problems and difficulties faced by the dyslectic individual girl child at the primary education level in Pakistan. Research was conducted as a case study of this dyslexia child at the primary level in Pakistan.

Objective of the Study

- To analyzed the general and specific problems of the dyslexia in children at the primary education level.
- To give measures for the improvement of the facilities for the dyslectic children.
- To create awareness about the significant signs of dyslexia.

Rationale of the Study

Rationale of the study is as follow:

- The study will provide valid guidelines for teachers, parents, and policy makers and Government.
- Conducting this study will create awareness about the general and specific problems of dyslectic children.
- Researchers' aim is to make others aware about how to deal with dyslectic children.
- The study will explore the ways through which teachers will be able to cure the disease through their behavior.

Methods and Procedures

The nature of the research is a case study. As it was a case study, only one primary girl student was taken as the sample of study. Tests and a questionnaire were adapted, modified and used as a tool for the collection of data from the girl child and her teachers. The instrument consisted of seven different tests regarding the problem of the child. These tests are; i) Reading Test; ii) Writing Test; iii) Mathematical Test; iv) Memory Test; v) Intelligence Test; vi) Performance Test; and vii) Visio-Attention Test. The questionnaire for teachers consisted of almost 16 questions regarding the girl student's problems, her study progress and behavior in school and classroom. Data was collected through questionnaire and tests, from the student and teachers. The data was collected from the 5th class student of Islamabad Model College for Girls F-6/2. Self-data collection

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technique was applied. The data was analyzed and interpreted in the light of the objectives of the study.

Presentation and Analysis of Data

Analysis of Tests

1. Reading Test

The reading test consisted of four paragraphs entitled as “The Independence Day”. In the test the girl student made 194 mistakes and read 31 words correctly.

2. Writing Test

The Writing test consisted of 20 items out of which the fifth grade girl student made 14 mistakes.

3. Mathematical Test

In the Mathematical Test the girl child was asked to write backward counting from 100-50. In this test she made 38 mistakes.

4. Ascending Order in Math

In the Ascending Order test, the subject was asked to write the figures in ascending order. Five items were presented in which she made 3 mistakes.

5. Descending Order in Mathematics

In the Descending Order Test, the girl student was asked to write the figures in descending order. Five items were presented and she made mistakes in all of them.

6. Memory Test

In the Memory Test, forms of verbs were asked to memorize. Five items were presented. She learned only three of five items.

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7. Word Opposite in English

Five items were asked regarding word-opposites. Ten items were presented and the girl student was able to answer only four correctly.

8. Intelligence Test

In the Intelligence test 5 shapes were presented. The subject was asked to identify them. She identified two correctly.

9. Identification of Occupation Pictures

In this test ten occupation pictures were presented and the girl was asked to identify by the subject. She identified five out of five.

10. Visio-Attention Test

In Visio-attention test, five items were presented and the subject was asked to response. The girl student of fifth grade answered three correctly out of five.

11. Participle Test

In this test, five items were presented. The girl answered three correctly out of four.

12. Prepositions of English

In this test, six items were presented. The girl child was asked to fill in the blanks with suitable preposition. She answered three correctly out of six.

13. Performance Test

In this test, the subject was asked to arrange the sentences in logical order by looking at the given picture. Five items were presented. She arranged two correctly.

14. Picture Description

In this test, the subject was asked to write 8-10 lines in the description of the given picture. The girl student was able to write 3 lines only.

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Data Analysis of Teachers' Questionnaire

15. Teacher Qualification

Teachers' qualification shows that 62.5 percent were with M.Phil. degree, 25 percent of the teachers had M.A degree and 12.5 percent had M.Sc degree.

16. Handwriting

The result shows that dyslectic girl student's handwriting was sloppy with poor letter formation as 87.5 percent of the teachers agreed that the handwriting of the student was sloppy and 12.5 percent disagreed.

16. Difficulty in Math

The result shows that dyslectic child had difficulty with keeping numbers lined up when adding, subtracting, multiplying or dividing. 87.5 percent of the teachers said that the fifth grade girl student had difficulty in math and 12.5 percent disagreed.

17. Different from Other Children

The result shows that there was a history of letter reversals in the dyslectic child and it was greater than what was noticed in non-dyslectic children of the same age. 100 percent of the teachers agreed that the dyslexia student had a history of letter reversals and this was different from the non-dyslectic children of the same age.

18. Spelling Words

The result illustrates that 62.5 percent of the teachers agreed that the dyslectic fifth grade girl student forgets spelling of the words they just had learned and 37.5 percent disagreed.

19. Attitude of a Dyslexia Student

The results indicate that 75 of the teachers' opinion was that the girl dyslexia student's attitude was not appropriate in relation to non-dyslectic children and 25 percent agreed.

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20. Study Progress

The results represents that 100 percent teachers were not satisfied with dyslexia student's study progress.

21. Parents Cooperation

The results signify that 62.5 percent of the teachers agreed that parents of dyslexia student of fifth grade were cooperative and 37.5 percent disagreed.

22. Confusion of Speaking

The results illustrate that 50 percent of the teachers agreed that the girl dyslexia student gets confused speaking in front of the class and 50 percent disagreed.

23. Difficulties with spelling

The result demonstrates 87.5 percent of the teacher's responses agreed that the girl dyslexia student had difficulty in spelling and 12.5 percent negative response.

24. Reading words

The results show 75 percent the positive response of the teachers that the girl dyslexia student missed out the words and 25 percent negative response.

25. Difficulty Reading Aloud

The results explain that 87.5 percent of the teachers agreed that the fifth grade dyslexia student had difficulty in reading aloud and 12.5 percent disagreed.

26. Difficulty to Copy from Board

The results indicate that 87.5 percent of the teachers agreed that the girl dyslexia student had difficulty to copy from board and 12.5 percent disagreed.

27. Skip Lines

The results show 75 percent negative responses of the teachers as the fifth grade dyslexia student skipped lines while reading and 25 percent response were positive.

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28. Special Guidance and Attention

The result shows 50 percent of the teachers agreed that they were giving special guidance and attention to the girl dyslexia student whereas 50 percent disagreed.

29. Positive Behavior of Teacher

The result indicates that 63% of teachers agreed to the opinion that their positive attitude can play a significant role in removing dyslexia student's problem whereas 37% disagreed.

Discussion

Dyslectic child encountered problems with a large margin as compared to the non-dyslectic students. The child also used more time and effort to fulfill a task than other non-dyslectic children. Dyslectic individual needed five times more effort than that of non-dyslectic individual. The responses of teachers indicated that the dyslectic child faced problems in writing clearly, solving mathematics problems, had problem of letter reversal, forgot spellings that were learned recently, there was confusion in speaking, missing words while reading, difficulty in reading aloud and difficulty to copy material from the board. The research indicated that positive and encouraging behavior of parents as well as teachers played a significant role in solving dyslectic children's problems. The study explored the general and specific problems a of dyslectic child at the primary level of education. The study offers some guidelines for measures that may be taken to facilitate better performance of dyslectic children in schools at the primary level of education. Awareness has also been created about the problems of dyslectic children.

Conclusions

Following are the conclusions:

1. There are many problems faced by the fifth grade girl dyslectic student during reading, writing, identifying things and understanding multiple questions.
2. Dyslectic children need extra time, guidance and attention in the completion of their given task by the teachers and their parents.

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3. Dyslectic children face problems while attempting mathematical sums and learning things, as their memory needs improvement. They also encounter hurdles in learning spellings.
4. The inability to read the words in text accurately and frequently is the primary impediment to reading comprehension in children with dyslexia. It is also concluded that difficulties in the phonological domain may be primarily responsible for the difficulties that these children experience in mastering the alphabetic principle. More observation is needed here.
5. The study concludes that letter or word reversal is a very significant symptom of dyslexia.

Recommendations

1. Teachers may provide guidance to the students and communicate to their parents in order to improve their performance.
2. Proper counseling from specialists in psychology and speech/language pathology should be made available. Dyslexia students need more attention and consideration than the non-dyslectic students.
3. Speech therapy should also be conducted for dyslexia students.
4. Parents should provide extra time or special attention to them in order to provide academic assistance.
5. The focus should be on capabilities rather than deficiencies of dyslectic students.

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Language Choice and Naming of Businesses as a Marketing Strategy: Focus on Malaysia and the Philippines

Francisco Perlas Dumanig, Ph.D., & Maya Khemlani David, Ph.D.

Abstract

English has become a popular language for business specifically in countries like Malaysia and the Philippines. Such popularity shows that the economic value of English in Southeast Asia continues to rise as compared to the local languages. Consequently, the use of English as a marketing strategy and the naming of retail establishments has flourished and attracted both big and small businesses. This paper examines the names used and the reasons for using English as a marketing strategy and naming of businesses notwithstanding the fact that most customers do not have English as their first language. Thirty participants including the shop owners and consumers in Malaysia and the Philippines were interviewed. Prospective customers were asked if the use of English has affected the choice of the retail unit that they use. A qualitative approach was used in the data gathering and analysis.

Keywords: Marketing, business naming, Malaysian English, Philippine English

1. Introduction

Language plays an important role in business naming and marketing. It serves as a tool to market the product or service to potential consumers. Business names provide information about the business or establishment and may eventually influence the consumers to purchase the products and services. Names of businesses give the consumers an idea about the products and services offered. In other words, it can be a marketing strategy in promoting the products and services offered. This means that business naming can be a form of advertising.

Business naming requires an appropriate and specific language to describe the business. Catchy

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and trendy names help to market a business. Appropriate choice of a language in naming a business may benefit the business in the long run. Some examples are the use of names that are easy to remember, and reflect the business' mission and vision. Inappropriate choice of words may eventually adversely affect the marketability of a business.

Language cannot be separated from business because it is used to name businesses. In fact, in multilingual countries, business naming can be complex. Selecting the language to be used is important as potential consumers speak two or more languages. Some names in other languages may result in negative perceptions of the products or services being offered. It is important to choose a suitable language in naming a business because this could affect the success of the business. The name must be easy for customers to remember and must attract the attention of consumers. In fact, some businesses become popular because of their names. Currently, brandable business names are names that are simple, easy, and at times include nonsense words which are easy to remember. Some examples are Amazon, Google, and Microsoft.

With globalization, marketing has become an important business strategy. One common strategy is to advertise the products or services to provide people an idea what the business is. Advertising is essential because it has a major function which is to persuade the consumers (Cook, 1992; Gass, 1999; Geis, 1998). Therefore in advertising, a language is needed in order to achieve the advertisers' goal to promote a business (Goddard, 1998; Geis, 1998; Han, 1991; Vestergaard & Schoder, 1985; Zhang, 2001).

In societies where English is used as a second language and the local language as the first language, the use of English language is preferred to name business. Bhatia (1987, 1992, 2001) argues that English is used, among other things, to produce a favorable psychological effect upon targeted audiences. This is evident particularly in countries which had been colonized by the West and where a colonial mentality at times exists. Such a mindset suggests that whatever is foreign is considered better as compared to any local products or services. In the Japanese context, Haarmann (1984, 1989) and Takashi (1990, 1992) explain that the use of the English language satisfies the Japanese people's desire to associate with a modern and cosmopolitan identity. The English language carries a modernized identity. This means business names can help consumers to portray a specific identity.

Masavisut, Sukwiwat, and Wongmontha (1986) examine the cultural power that English expressions have in Thai advertising messages. The English language does not only attract consumers but it has become a strong and powerful language in the business context. In fact, English in French advertising is generally considered a symbol of modernization, efficiency, and/or reliability (Martin, 1998; Martin, 2002). If a business is named in English then it immediately creates an impression that it is modern, efficient and reliable. The use of the English language carries influential cultural images because the language is used in powerful countries like the United States. Such linguistic stereotypes have greatly influenced businesses particularly in the Asian region.

The powerful influence of English in business has been studied widely by many scholars such as Alm (2003) who has examined English use in Ecuadorian commercial context, Friedrich (2002) examines English use in Brazilian advertising, Jung (2001) studies English use in Korean advertising, Larson (1990) looks at English use in Swedish advertising, and Piller (2001) investigates English use in German advertising. These researchers conclude that the use of English is a marker of modernity, internationalization, and/or superiority. These studies provide

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helpful insights into the ever-increasing penetration of English in the media throughout the world. They also highlight the phenomenal symbolic value of the English language.

With the emergence of bilingual societies, the use of either local or foreign languages to name a business so as to advertise has become a trend. The media today has recognized the importance of catering the bilinguals. Consequently, language options are being provided for people who belong to other linguistic groups (Holland & Gentry, 1999; Lee & Tse, 1994). Business owners today are more creative in naming their businesses in ways that will attract consumers from different linguistic backgrounds. The use of code switching has become a trend in marketing particularly in advertisement which includes the insertion of foreign and local words resulting in a mixed-language message (Grosjean, 1982).

The issues of language choice in business naming and marketing have become a major concern of many businesses in multilingual countries like Malaysia and the Philippines. As a result, this paper examines the language choice and naming of businesses as a marketing strategy in Malaysia and the Philippines.

1.1 Language Background of Malaysia and the Philippines

Malaysia is a multilingual and multicultural society consisting of various ethnic groups such as Malays, Chinese, Indians and other minority groups. Due to linguistic diversity, English plays a crucial role among Malaysians. English is the second most important language in the country and is taught as a subject from the first year of primary school. Although, it has been superseded by Bahasa Malaysia as the country's national language particularly in the administrative and educational purposes, the use of English is widely used in some public sectors, such as diplomatic services and courts (Asmah, 1992 as cited in Venugopal, 2000).

Currently, Malaysian English is nativized and shares certain linguistic features with Singaporean English (David & Dumanig, 2008). The separate educational system and language policies of the two countries have contributed to linguistic differences and have resulted in the creation of a Malaysian sociolect or speech variety. Venugopal (2000) explains that Malaysian English displays some distinguishing features of simplification and reduction of a non-native variety, as well as the effects of localization of an acculturated variety. It can be said that Malaysia has started developing its own variety of English. The outer circle is norm developing (see Kachru's 1992 three-circled model of Englishes).

Similarly, the Philippines is also a multilingual country in which Filipino is the national language and English is another official language. These two official languages are used in education and government. Having two official languages makes the Filipinos bilingual or multilingual. Most Filipinos speak at least two languages and people in the provinces speak three or more languages. Aside from their own local language, they also speak Filipino and English. Due to the high demand for English in the Philippines it has become the native language of some Filipinos (Crystal, 2003) particularly those families that stay in highly urbanized areas like Manila and other big cities in the Philippines. English in the Philippines is widely used in various domains such as education, print and broadcast media, and business and has become the country's lingua franca in urban areas.

English functions as a second language and plays an important role in education and employment. Proficiency in English counts in achieving a good academic record because English

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is used as a medium of instruction in private institutions. Proficient speakers of English enjoy more benefits and in contrast less proficient speakers are somewhat disadvantaged.

2. Methodology

This paper used the qualitative approach in collecting and analyzing the data. Thirty (30) participants including shop owners and consumers in Malaysia and the Philippines were interviewed. The participants were working adults whose age ranges from 23 to 40 years old. The interviews focus on the issue of language choice, business naming and marketing. All interviews were transcribed and the reasons for the choice of language used for naming a business was analysed.

3. Results and Discussion

The findings show that shop owners and consumers in Malaysia and the Philippines prefer English as the language for naming a business.

3.1 Language Choice in Business Naming

In Malaysia, naming the shops in English is preferred by shop owners and consumers. The findings show that out of 15 participants, 13 prefer an English name, 1 prefers the local language and 2 prefer the use of mixed languages i.e. English and other local languages. In the Philippines, out of 15 shop owners and consumers interviewed, 11 participants prefer English business names. However, 2 Filipinos prefer local business names and another 2 prefer mixed languages like English and Filipino or other local languages.

The findings reveal that both shop owners and consumers in Malaysia and the Philippines prefer English as compared to any other languages. It is observed that the use of English for multilingual speakers is more attractive. Two participants mentioned:

“for me, English business name does matter.”

“for me English,,,,, *kasi hindi lahat ng buyers ay naka intindi ng Filipino....(because not all buyers understand Filipino)*”

The preference for English is perhaps understood as it is widely spoken in these two countries. However, it can be a complex issue as not all Malaysians and Filipinos can speak and understand the English language. It can be said that the multilingual setting of these two countries can be a reason why shop owners choose English to name their business.

3.2 Reasons for language choice

Malaysia and the Philippines reveal similar reasons for choosing English in business naming and marketing. Business owners and consumers prefer the English language because it is easy to understand and remember, social status marker, product of colonial mentality and reflects quality.

English is easy to understand and English is widely spoken in Malaysia and the Philippines. In the interviews conducted, the participants explained their reasons for choosing English.

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“Kun Bisaya ang imo business name, di makasabot an mga tagalog or foreigner (If you use Bisaya (language spoken in the Philippines) as your business name, Tagalog speakers and foreigners could not understand)”

“Mas dali masabtan (easier to understand).”

“English is an international language and understood by many.”

Apart from being easy to understand, English words can be easily remembered as the language has many short words as compared to Filipino, Malay and other local languages in Malaysia and the Philippines. Memory recall is essential in business naming. The easier the name to remember, there is a possibility that consumers will remember the name and eventually purchase the goods of that particular business. The participants mentioned;

“Pero dali masulti ug mahinomduman (easy to say and remember)”

“Sama sa dali ra litokon-pila ra ka syllables (easy to say – only a few syllables)”

“English has shorter words to recall than in Malay”

The use of English in business naming may reflect the social status of the speaker. In Malaysia and the Philippines, English is widely spoken by most people who underwent proper education and most of them are in the middle or upper class. In some societies where English is not widely spoken, it has become the language of educated people. The participants emphasize that;

“Higher income bracket man an target market (Higher income earners are the target market)”

“English is spoken by educated people”

English in Malaysia and the Philippines was brought by the colonial masters such as the British and Americans. This means that the English language is a legacy from the West and has become the common language in business in these two countries. The use of English is attributed to the British and American influence in Malaysia and the Philippines which also leads to the development of colonial mentality. Such a mentality dictates that anything that is labeled in English or anything that is foreign is perceived to be the best. As a result, any English brand, product or business is perceived to be the best as compared to other products. Certain stereotypes are linked to the use of English in business naming. Consequently, the use of English in business naming in Asia has increased.

The participants view of using English in business naming might be due to an impact created because of the colonial mentality. This mentality infers that what is foreign is much better as compared to what is local.

“Maybe because of influence of the Americans...”

“Filipinos are influenced by the Americans and feel that American products are better than the Philippine products.”

“I think the colonial mentality exists in business naming.”

“A feeling that anything that sounds foreign particularly in English is much better”

“It can be in Greek or Latin... would still make the same amount of impression an English name would do..”

People’s colonial mentality leads to the association of English with quality. This means that if English is used to name a business, quality products or services are expected. Consumers will immediately perceive that establishments with English names may have more chances of

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offering better services and products than others. This is evident from the participants' views of using English in business naming.

"It has high quality rather than naming it locally."

"Quality maybe yes."

"There is quality in the name."

"*Mas may quality ang dating ng English (English name has a quality in it)*"

Since quality and English go together, consumers are attracted with businesses that have English names. When English is used to name a business it is associated with being modern and trendy.

"Of course.... especially *kung English ang name ng store ay maganda pakinggan.*.,(if the store is named in English, it sounds pleasing)"

"English is more catchy and trendy."

"English names have more appeal than the local names"

"It sounds more attractive than the local."

"It's not healthy but unfortunately that's how society works here in Malaysia.."

The findings reveal that English dominates in Malaysia and the Philippines. It has become a powerful language in the business sector. Consequently, it is labelled as the business language.

3.3 English Language Hegemony in Business

English possesses certain power and authority and this is also essential in business. In order to compete and excel in the local market, English is in marketing. The hegemonic power of the English language has attracted businessmen to name their businesses in English. This would mean that if businesses are named in English then they have the control, authority and superiority. This is evident when the participants mentioned that "English equates quality and businesses named in English sound reliable than the locally named businesses."

The power of English has created certain stereotypes about businesses that are locally named. The mindset of consumers has been controlled by the stereotype that English business names provide better quality, standard, and reliability. Locally named businesses are perceived to be of low quality, standard, and reliability. Such stereotypes have made English even more powerful in the business sector.

4. Conclusion

The findings reveal that English business names are preferred by Filipino and Malaysian business owners and consumers. They choose English because it is easy to understand, easy to remember and reflects the social status of the consumers. English is also identified as a product of colonial mentality, reflects quality, appeals to consumers, more reliable, known all over the world and is more attractive to local owners and consumers. Consequently, the use of English in business naming has benefited several businesses in Malaysia and the Philippines. It is therefore expected that the use of English in business naming will continue to flourish in these two Southeast Asian countries.

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An Analysis of the Readability of the Essays of First Year Students of Ghanaian Universities - The Case of University of Cape Coast

William Kodom Gyasi, M.Phil. (English), B.Ed. (Arts)

Abstract

In view of the constant complaints of teachers of communicative skills (English for academic purposes) in Ghanaian universities about the unreadable nature of the essays of first year students of Ghanaian universities, an analyses of the readability of the essays of first year students of Ghanaian universities was conducted using University of Cape Coast as a case study. Two hundred and eighty students were selected across four (4) programmes of study namely Business, Arts, Science and Education.

The selected students were made to write an easy on the topic, "Ways of Conserving Electric Energy in the Various Halls of residence of the University of Cape Coast". Electronic forms of the essays were collected and fed to a computer. Using Microsoft word (2007) version, A Flesch-Kincaid Reading Ease analyses of the essays were run. With the aid of SPSS (version 16) frequencies and percentages of the Flesch-Kincaid readability scores were obtained. Other statistical tools like levene's test of equality of variance, a One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and t-test were used.

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The study revealed that essays of first year level hundred students of Ghanaian universities are largely difficult to comprehend. Also gender and programmes of study do not significantly influence the readability of essays of first year Ghanaian university students. Several recommendations were made to improve the readability of first year students' essay.

Introduction

Studies into the English language proficiency of university students have generally centered on the ability of students to effectively apply the rules of grammar to enhance their linguist competence. In most of these studies, students' inability or the extent of their ability to apply certain rules of grammar is given prominence. For instance, Gyasi, Nartey and Coker (2011) investigated first year student of University of cape coast knowledge of parts of speech. In this study, it was reviewed that first year students knowledge of parts of speech is shallow, hence their poor performance in language courses.

Yankson, (1994) also mentioned students difficulty in handling tense, spelling and concord. To others, students' writings are characterized by lack of coherence, weak thematic progression leading to flat paragraph and undeveloped themes (Dako, 1997; Appiah, 2002; Adika, 2003). Interestingly, similar concerns are echoed by teachers of communicative skill (known elsewhere as English for academic purposes) in some Ghanaian tertiary institution. However, a few studies, if any, have gone into the readability of the writings of these students whose linguistic competence is so much criticized.

This study sought to investigate the level of readability of essays of first year students of Ghanaian universities using University of Cape Coast (UCC) students as a case study. Readability indexes are tools that are used to estimate the level of comprehensibility of written texts. They also estimate the number of years of education one needs to have to read and understand a text (Kincaid, Fishburne, Rogers and Chissom, 1975).

Some common readability indexes are: Gunning Fog Index, Flesch-Kincaid grade level, Fry Readability Graph and Flesch-Kincaid Reading Ease. They all estimate the readability of a text using factors like number of syllabus per word, number of words per sentence and sentence length. It is important to note that the readability formulas are not absolutely reliable in the determination of the level of comprehensibility of a written text. Davison and Bolt (1996) concedes, "Researchers have found that there are many aspects of readability which the formulas overlook or distort" (p.4).

However the importance of readability formulas in estimating the level of difficulty of a written text cannot be ignored. Ambuster, Osborn and Davison (1985) state that "readability formulas exert a powerful influence on American text books" (p.8). James Chall (1981) confirmed the point when he said, "a vocabulary and a sentence factor together predict comprehension difficult of a written text to a higher degree of accuracy" (p.2). Thus the results of formulas only predict level of comprehensibility of a written text. They do not state facts.

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In this study, the Flesch-Kincaid Reading Ease was used. It was chosen because it is one of the most widely used readability formulas (Doak and Doak, 2010. p 151). The formula is based on the average number of syllables per word and word per sentence (DuBay 2007 p.57.). The Flesch-Kincaid Reading Ease was founded by Rudolph Flesch. The Flesch-Kincaid Reading Ease is a number usually between 0-100 indicating how difficult the text is to read. The higher the number the less difficult it is to read the text. This implies that a document that scores a Flesch-Kincaid Reading Ease of say, 95, is easier to read and comprehend than another that scores 60 or less.

Table 1 shows a Flesch-Kincaid Reading Ease scores and their concomitant grade levels.

Table 1: Flesch-Kincaid Reading Ease scores and accompanying Grade Levels.

Flesch-Kincaid Reading Ease	Grade Level
90-100	5 th
81-90	6 th
71-80	7 th
66-70	8 th
61-65	9 th
51-60	High school Student
31-50	College student
0-30	College graduate
Less than zero	Law School graduate

Adapted from Flesch (1949).

The Flesch-Kincaid Reading Ease can be calculated manually using the following formula:

$$\text{Index} = 206.835 - 84.6(\text{syllabus/words}) - 1.015(\text{words/sentences})$$

The study therefore sought to answer the following two research questions:

1. How readable are the essays of first year University students measured in terms of readability indexes?
2. To what extent do sex and programme of study influence the readability of first year University students' essays?

It is generally perceived in Ghana that Arts students are better placed in terms of English Language proficiency. Additionally, research findings suggest that females are inherently verbally superior to males in the language acquisition process (Macobby and Jacklin, 1974; Quansah, 2002). These were the bases for investigating the influence of gender and programme on readability.

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Methodology

A case study to determine the level of readability of essays of first year level hundred students' of Ghanaian universities was conducted. Two hundred and eighty essays were collected from two hundred students across four programmes namely Arts, Business, Education and Science. A non-proportionate stratified random sample was used to select 280 students, 70 from each programme. The student wrote on the topic, "Ways of Conserving Electric Energy in the Various Halls of residence of the University of Cape Coast".

Using Microsoft Word 2007 edition, a Flesh-Kincaid Reading Ease (FRE) analysis of the two hundred and eight essays was run to determine their reading comprehension levels. With the aid of SPSS (version16), frequency and percentages of the FRE scores of the two hundred and eighty essays were obtained. A one Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was run to ascertain the differences in the FRE mean scores among the various programmes of study. Also, a Levene's test of equality of variance was run to determine whether there is equality of variance between the male and female respondents. Finally, an independent sample t-test was conducted to determine whether there existed a statistically significant difference between the FRE mean scores of the male and female respondents and 0.05 significant level was set as a priori for the study.

Results

Flesch-Kincaid Reading Ease

Table 2 shows the FRE scores of the 280 students' essays collected for the study. The analysis showed that majority of the essays (55%) scored a FRE scores of 30-49. This indicates a fairly difficult level of readability. It implies that one has to be a college student to comprehend these essays (Flesch (1949)). Exactly 36% of the essays scored 60-69 FRE which indicates a fairly difficult level of readability. One requires 8th grade to high school education to comprehend these essays.

Table 2: FRE Frequency and Percentage scores of student essays.

FRE	F	Percentage	Interpretation
90-100	0	0	Very Easy
80-90	0	0	Easy
70-79	2	0.7	Fairly Easy
60-69	20	7.1	Standard
50-59	100	36	Fairly Difficult

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30-49	154	55	Difficult
Less than 30	6	1.4	Very Difficult
Total	280	100	

n=280 Mean FRE=48.7
Source: Field Data, 2010.

None of the essays fell into easy and very easy levels of readability. Levels meant for 6th and 5th grades respectively. The mean FRE (48.7) indicates a difficult readability level which is meant for college students. Thus averagely first year university students write at college grade level.

Equal Variance Test

Table 3 shows the result of a Levene's test of equality of variance run to determine whether there was equality of variance between the male and female respondents that will warrant a t-test without any correction factors.

Table 3: Levene's test for equality of variance of male and female respondents.

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
	F	Sig.
Equal variances assumed	0.001	0.974

n=280. p<0.05 Female n(162), Male n(118)
Source: Field Data, 2010.

The result showed that there was no significant variance (sig=0.974) at 0.05 alpha level between male and female in the population hence equal variance was assumed and therefore the male and female FRE could be compared without any correction factor.

Independent t-test of males and females FRE

Table 4 shows means, standard deviation and independent sample t-test between males and females FRE scores

Table 4: t-test result of the FRE mean scores of male and female respondent.

Sex	N	Mean	Std. D.	Mean difference	t-ratio	Sig.
Male	162	48.1393	8.56	1.868	1.241	0.217
Female	118	50.0077	8.49			

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n=280 p<0.05

Source: Field Data, 2010.

The result showed that the female respondents scored a FRE mean of 50 (SD. 8.49) which indicates a fairly difficult readability level and the male respondents scored a little above 48 FRE mean (SD. 8.56) indicating difficult readability level. Both readability levels, are however, meant for college students. Although the female FRE mean score was slightly above that of the male, there was no statistically significant (sig.=0.217) differences between the male and female FRE mean scores at 0.05 alpha level.

Differences in the FRE Mean Scores among the Various Students' Program of Study

The Table 5 shows means, standard deviation and One-Way Analyses of Variance (ANOVA) of FRE among the various program of study.

Table 5: One Way ANOVA showing differences in the FRE mean scores among the various programmes of study.

Programme of study	n	Mean (FRE)	Std. Deviation	F-ratio	Sig
Education	70	51.4	8.33776	1.851	0.141
Business	70	50.8	5.92867		
Sciences	70	49.3	8.37918		
Arts	70	47.1	8.75912		
Total	280	48.6730	8.47420		

n=280 p<0.05

The result showed that education had the highest FRE mean scores of 51.4 (SD= 8.3) indicating a fairly difficult readability level. Business followed closely with a FRE mean of 50.8 (SD= 5.9) also indicating a fairly difficult level of readability. However, whereas education students write at high school grade level business students write at college grade level. Science and Arts scored 49.3 (SD=8.4) and 47.1(SD=5.8) respectively. Both indicated a fairly difficult level of readability. Thus science and Arts students write at college grade level.

A One-Way Analyses of Variance (ANOVA) was run to determine whether there existed a statistically significant difference in the FRE mean scores across the various programs of study. There was, however, no statistically significant difference (sig=0.14) among the FRE mean scores across the various programmes at 0.05 alpha level.

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Discussions

Essays of first year students were generally difficult to read and understand. This was seen in the fact that fifty five percent (55%) of the two hundred and eighty (280) essays was difficult to read and understand when measured in terms of Flesch-Kincaid Reading Ease formula and thirty six percent (36%) was fairly difficult to read and understand. Thus, ninety one percent (91%) of the essays were generally difficult to read and understand when measured in terms of Flesch-Kincaid Reading Ease formula. Interpreted in terms of grade level, one has to be a college students or college graduate to comprehend the essays of first year students (Flesch 1949, p.149).

The second major finding of the study was that gender does not significantly influence the readability of essays of first year university students. In the study, the female FRE mean score (50) was slightly above that of the male (48.14). The difference in the mean scores was not significant. Both male and female students write at the college grade level. This finding is contrary to existing findings that suggest that females have a better linguistic competence compared to their male counterpart (Macobby and Jacklin, 1974; Quansah, 2002).

The study further revealed that program of study does not significantly influence the readability of essays of first year students of Ghanaian universities. Education students recorded the highest FRE mean scores of 51.4 indicating a fairly difficult readability level. Business followed closely with a FRE mean of 50.8 also indicating a fairly difficult level of readability. However, whereas education students write at high school grade level business students write at college grade level. Science and Arts scored 49.3 (SD=8.4) and 47.1 (SD= 5.8) respectively. Both indicate a fairly difficult level of readability. Thus science and Arts students write at college grade level.

Although the difference across these programmes is not statistically significant, it is not surprising that Arts students produced the most difficult essays in terms of readability the since in Ghana, they are not only generally perceived to be better placed in terms of linguistic competence compared to students of other programmes but are also identified with habitual use of poly syllabic words, a factor that contributes to difficult text comprehension.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The study concluded that not only are essays of first year students of Ghanaian universities difficult to read and understand but also gender and program of study do not significantly influence the readability of the essays of first years level hundred students of Ghanaian universities.

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It is therefore recommended that first year students of Ghanaian universities should be taken through courses in plain language to equip them with the skills of writing readable essays. Furthermore, Readability laboratories and clubs should be established in all Ghanaian universities and equipped with the needed logistics. It must be made compulsory for all first year students to use these laboratories and join these clubs which would eventually improve their writing skill.

Interestingly, Rudolf Flesch who had a major role in readability gaining importance and popularity became interested in the subject when he was the assistant in a college readability lab. No wonder he wrote his P.HD in educational research and his dissertation focused on readability (DuBay 2007, p.96). Thus students would highly benefit when they join readability labs and clubs.

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to the newly created Department of Communication Skills.

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**From Theory to Praxis -
A Study of the Syllabus of *Communication Skills and
Technical Seminar I (GE 1202)* Anna University of Technology,
Tirunelveli)**

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Current Preference for Technical Majors

Education has entered new avenues in this century. Even though every discipline has its own merits, technical education has gained a little bit more importance than other branches of higher education. Throughout the world, students prefer technical branches to other courses. In growing countries such as India, both the students and the parents rush towards technical education believing that employment and career opportunities are bright for engineering graduates. Due to this reason even students who are selected for medical college enrollment prefer to matriculate themselves in engineering colleges.

Ever Increasing Number of Engineering Colleges in South India

The southern States of India have more number of engineering colleges and technical institutions when compared to other parts of India. According to All India Council for Technical Education, this distribution is uneven.

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From Theory to Praxis - A Study of the Syllabus of Communication Skills and Technical Seminar I (GE 1202) Anna University of Technology, Tirunelveli

Students do not find it difficult to secure admission to an engineering college. Abolition of entrance examination and introduction of supplementary examination have further eased the situation.

Tamil Nadu has more than four hundred institutions which offer technical courses at the under-graduate level. Apart from a few private/deemed Universities, all engineering colleges are regulated by Anna University. The University was re-structured in 2007 into separate institutions in-charge of Chennai, Coimbatore, Tiruchi, Madurai and Tirunelveli regions. This arrangement may not continue for long as the newly elected government in Tamilnadu has indicated that this arrangement will be changed soon.

Are Jobs Easy to Secure?

In spite of all the above factors, the question which haunts the mind of educationalists is whether technical education has been faithful in improving the living standards of our people? Unlike basic education, the mere award of a B.E. / B.Tech. Degree would not improve the situation. The discipline, being a part of professional education, should ensure availability of suitable jobs and thereby secure a justifiable income to the engineering graduates. This is where the problem comes in.

It is evident that the percentage of students who get employed is much lower than the percentage of students who pass out of engineering colleges every year. Even though in some urban institutions, the bright students are offered handsome salary in the process of campus interview by Multinational Companies, the fate of rural students is not that bright. Agencies such as NASSCOM and Human Resource Development Ministry have done extensive research on this and have come out with various reasons responsible for this huge gap.

Gap between Syllabus and Industry Needs

Two important reasons among them are the difference between the syllabus and industry and the lack of soft skills. Among the above mentioned problems, first one can be easily solved. Students can be introduced to new technical skills in accordance to the needs of the industry through summer internships or brief finishing school training. But soft skill is something different. The students cannot acquire this in very short span of time. Only sharpening of soft skills is possible through crash courses. Students from rural background and students who are first generation learners find it very difficult to cope up with the soft skills standards of their prospective employers.

Bridging the Gap by Providing English Communication Skills

In this situation, Anna University, Tirunelveli has introduced a new paper named, GE1202-Communication Skills and Technical Seminar I. At this point, we should remember that the engineering colleges in Anna University, Tirunelveli receive students mostly from rural

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areas. Hence there is no doubt that the introduction of this paper would surely be an essential step taken by the authorities to ensure employment to all the students from these colleges or at least to improve the employability level.

The Focus of This Research Paper

The objective of this research paper is to study and evaluate the syllabus of above mentioned GE1202-Communication Skills and Technical Seminar I. This study is not based on any field data collection. It is a critical analysis and evaluation of the syllabus as the syllabus is presented to all of us. A sincere attempt is made to study the syllabus, taking information from the syllabus itself.

Elements of a Well Organized Syllabus

Michael P. Breen defines syllabus “as a plan of what is to be achieved through teaching and learning” (151). Breen adds that the four important aspects of the syllabus are aims, content, methodology and evaluation. He points out:

The syllabus identifies what will be worked upon by the teacher and students in terms of content selected to be appropriate in overall aims. Methodology refers to how teachers and learners work upon the content while evaluation is a process of accessing outcomes from the learning and judging appropriateness of other elements of the curriculum (51).

This being an analytical paper, I try to analyze the aims, contents, teaching methodology and the evaluation system provided in the syllabus.

The Syllabus of General English GE1202-Communication Skills and Technical Seminar I

This course, Communication Skills and Technical Seminar I (GE 1202), is for all the third semester students irrespective of their branches. Totally 37 hours are allotted for this course. It is supposed to be conducted by the Department of English for 3 hours per week.

The syllabus states that its objectives are:

- To improve the learners’ oral fluency in English
- To help the learners acquire the readiness to speak in English
- To develop the sub-skills required for paper presentations and group discussions
- To help the learners improve their vocabulary related to specific fields of technology
- To facilitate the development of the learners’ proficiency in meaningful interaction
- To provide them linguistic support for managing vital sub-functions of communication (www.annauni.edu.in, further references to the syllabus are from the same source).

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Item A: Preoccupation with Transcription and Symbols

The first unit of the syllabus recommends the teaching of diphthongs and phonetics in general. While teaching phonetics, it is essential to teach phonetic symbols to the students. A problem arises here. The syllabus does not specify whether to teach IPA symbols or use a broad transcription method. For example, the word ‘hideout’ can be transcribed broadly as /haIdaVt/ or with the help of IPA symbols as /haidaut/. Teaching of IPA symbols would be an additional burden to both the teachers and students. In spite of the fact that the speech sounds can be effectively taught only with the IPA symbols, studying dozens of phonetic symbols would not be an easy task for the students. Considering the fact that they are not going to enter English language teaching, teaching of IPA symbols would be unnecessary. Further the students would try to polish their pronunciation only after getting familiar with the symbols. Hence there is little chance for them to seek the assistance of dictionary in near future.

Further only seven hours are allotted to teach phonemes and stress patterns. Hence it can be concluded that broad transcription is more than enough while teaching the speech sounds.

Item B: Speech Practice

The next part of the syllabus is speech practice. Twenty topics, ranging from Cloning to Gas Turbines, are listed in the syllabus. Eight hours are allotted for this part. As for the procedure for teaching, the syllabus says that, “Every student should be allowed to choose one theme to specialize in” (www.annauni.edu.in). Time allotted for each student is five minutes. Assuming that a class contains sixty students which is less than the maximum strength, one student would get only eight minutes for this topic as the total allotted time is only 480 minutes (8 hrs). Within eight minutes, a student should present the paper (for 5 minutes), his classmates should ask him or her questions and the students should note down new words. This does not seem to be possible. Furthermore, in the above mentioned, eight minutes, the time utilized by the teacher for introducing the concept and explaining it, giving feedback, etc., is not included. Hence there is little chance that all the students would get time to speak.

Item C

Item (C) in the syllabus is ‘group quiz on technical aspects related to the themes’. The time allotted is four hours. There are twenty themes. Logically there should be twenty groups. Each group will get only twelve minutes as the total allotted time is only 240 minutes (4 hours). Hence this part of the syllabus has time constraints.

Item D

Item (D) of the syllabus is ‘Language functions’ which is supposed to teach the skills required for seminar presentation. It includes activities such as “comparing and contrast”, reporting the conversation, defending the point of view, etc. No doubt this part would help the

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students to perform well in the Seminar presentation. But once again the time constraint mars the attempt. Only eight hours are assigned to teach the thirteen language functions. As a result of this the teacher would be unable to reinforce the skills.

Item E

Item (E) is a seminar presentation where each student should present a paper for ten minutes. The topics should be selected from the list provided earlier. After the presentation there should be an open house discussion, according to the syllabus. Totally eighteen hours (1080 minutes) are allotted for this important activity. In a class of sixty students, a student would get only eighteen minutes. Within these eighteen minutes, ten minutes would go for the presentation. The open house discussion and the teacher's feedback or remark should be finished within the remaining eight minutes. This will be possible only if the entire exercise is done in a mechanical way. Further asking the students to prepare a record would lead only to another mundane function. Few students would make use of library or other resources in the expected manner as their primary objective will be to finish the record work.

Problems with the Evaluation System

The mode of evaluation puzzles any teacher. The evaluation is shared by internal and external examiners. The internal examiner can award twenty marks altogether (ten marks for the record and ten marks for the presentation). The job of awarding the remaining eighty marks is entrusted in the hands of the external examiner. The external practical consists of four segments.

- 1) Pronouncing sentences containing target words.
- 2) Deploying linguistic elements for language function.
- 3) Speaking on the hints
- 4) A conversation with examiner on the special theme as worked out in the Record.

Till this point the researcher has been calculating time allotted for a student in each exercise. However in the mode of evaluation the syllabus itself says that the time taken for evaluating a student should be approximately seven minutes. An individual is forced to test all the above mentioned skills within seven or eight minutes. He/She has to award marks against eighty within eight minutes. In such a case evaluation would be difficult to get done. If the external examiners are either blessed with extraordinary powers or assisted by some sort of super computer, some real evaluation may become a possibility. Otherwise the entire evaluation would be a mockery. It would lack the standards such as reliability, consistency, etc.

Factors to Consider while Designing TESOL Syllabus

Nageswara Rao says that the following six factors should be taken into consideration while designing a TESOL syllabus. They are:

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- i) The level of proficiency of the student at entry point
- ii) The purpose for which they need English.
- iii) The skills which they wish to learn or improve
- iv) The level of proficiency expected or desired at the end of the course.
- v) The available materials, administrative and man power resources and
- vi) the duration of the course (53)

The designers of GE 1202 have ignored certain factors such as purpose, level of proficiency and availability of materials mentioned in Rao's list. This negligence has led to the shortcomings discussed earlier in the paper.

Soft Skills Acquisition or Acquisition of English Skills – What is the Role of Majors?

The attempt to construct a syllabus to enhance soft skills should be lauded. However one cannot be restrained from concluding that it carries serious defects. To begin with the sole purpose of the syllabus seems to convert English classes into a panacea for improving soft skills. It is not a desirable goal. A bulk of the responsibility should be shared with the parent departments. For example, the parent departments or major departments could conduct the seminars and technical quizzes. Thus the time constraint would be broken. Similarly encouraging the students to take part in co-curricular and extracurricular activities would improve their leadership skills and communicative competence. This move would save lecture hours too. Let not language skills be treated an island, especially an island with no contact with or usefulness for the major subjects. Success with language skills should be seen as helping steps to succeed in mastering the major subjects.

No texts are prescribed in the syllabus. Unit D of the syllabus directs the lecturers to build 'micro-activities'. But no micro activity manual is prescribed. As a result there would be variation in the class room activities from one institution to another.

Some Suggestions

Finally, the evaluation system should be revamped. Only then the course would be effective. The evaluation system should be remodeled in the light of International English Language Tests such as IELTS. Otherwise the gap between theory and praxis cannot be bridged

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<www.annauni.edu.in/syllabus>.

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Philosophies of Education: Origin of Concept Formation

Aamna Saleem Khan, Ph. D. Scholar

Introduction

Discussion relating to concept formation is as old as education itself. Different philosophers define concepts in different ways and they recommended different theories and schools of thought to form and strengthen the concepts. The following schools of thoughts give the information about how to form concepts and what are the responsibilities of teachers to make concepts more clear and sound.

1.1 SCHOOL OF THOUGHTS

1.1.1 Idealism

Idealism's proponents are Berkeley, Butler, Froebel, Hegel and Plato. They say that knowing is the rethinking of latent ideas. Idealist knowledge is based on the recognition or reminiscence of latent ideas that are already present in the mind. Such ideas are a priori; that is, they concern knowledge or concepts that exist prior to and independent of human experience about them. The teacher's task is to bring this latent knowledge to consciousness. The idealist educator refers the order and pattern of a subject-matter curriculum that relates ideas and concept to each other (Ornstein and Levine, 1985).

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The teacher should act as a guide to develop critical thinkers and should deal with broad concepts rather than specific skills. This is a content-centred approach in which emphasis is given on universal truths and values (Conti, 2007).

Idealists are of the view that teacher should be a skilful questioner, who should be a model for children to promote self realization and self education. While teachers cannot always be present when learning occurs, they must attempt to stimulate students so that learning occurs even in their absence. Project based learning is recommended by idealists which is self directed learning activity where learning can occur without a teacher's presence (Martinez, n.d.).

To form the concept, classroom management leads to transference of few discipline problems to student. With the involvement of students, the teacher handles any problem about their behaviour. Teaching method focuses on handling ideas through lecture, discussion and Socratic dialogue, introspection, intuition, insight and whole part logic to bring ideas into consciousness that are latent in the mind (Cohen and Gelbrich, 1999).

1.1.2 Realism

Realism's proponents are Aquinas, Aristotle, Broudy, Martin and Pestalozzi. They say that knowing is the process that involves two stages: sensation and abstraction. First, the knower sees an object and records the sensory data about it such as colour, size, weight, smell or sound. These sensory data are sorted out in the mind into those qualities that are always present in the object and those qualities that are sometimes present in the object. Upon the abstraction of the necessary qualities of an object, the learner comes to a concept of the object. Conceptualization results when the mind has abstracted the form of an object and has recognized the object as belonging to a class (Ornstein and Levine, 1985).

Realists are in favour of inquiry, verification of ideas in the world of experience, teaching those concepts which are essential and practical and develop the learner's rational powers by teaching fundamentals through scientific method. The teacher has to present material in a systematic way, encourage the use of objective criteria and be effective and accountable (Conti, 2007).

Ideas, like things, always exist and always resist change and seek self-preservation. Some ideas may be driven due to consciousness but the excluded ideas continue to exist in an unconscious form and tend to return spontaneously to consciousness.

The formation of character by the development of an enlightened will, capable of making judgments is the ultimate aim of realists. In the classroom, the aim of the lessons is to introduce new conceptions, to bind them together and to order them.

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Realists stress the accountability. Realists emphasize the concept acquisition as the curriculum. The teacher adopts new technology to develop the concept by emphasizing realistic novel and by stressing precision and accuracy in mathematics, science, social studies and writing.

1.1.3 Existentialism

Existentialism's proponents are Roger, Sartre, Marcel, Morris and Soderquist. They believe that the universe is indifferent to human wishes, desires and plans. Human freedom is total. They also hold that one's responsibility for choice is total. The child has the possibility of being an inner-directed and authentic person. An authentic person is one who is free and aware of his or her freedom. Such a person knows that every choice is really an act of personal value creation. The authentic person is his or her own definer and is aware that self-definition is the personal responsibility (Ornstein and Levine, 1985). They think that concept formation is possible by emphasizing individual choice. For doing this, the teacher stresses individual freedom; empowerment of student to make choices about what and how they will learn.

Existentialists promote self-understanding, involvement in life, an awareness of alternatives and the development of a commitment to choices. Learning is a process of personal development in which options are provided to learners. The instructor's role is to be a facilitator. In this philosophy, trust is developed between the teacher and learner (Conti, 2007)

Existentialism places the highest degree of importance on student perceptions, decisions and actions and individuals themselves are responsible for determining true or false, right or wrong, beautiful or ugly. To sum it up, students make choices and then take the time to evaluate those choices. The teachers help the students to define their own goals and by creating an environment in which they can freely choose their way. In it, students think for themselves and are aware of responsibilities assigned to them. Individual are the focal point in teaching method that have the unique talents. Their learning is self-paced, self directed and includes a great deal of individual contact with the teacher, who relates to each student openly and honestly. The teacher views that each student has an individual identity and each student should learn how to achieve his full potential by trying new concepts (Gibbs, n.d.).

1.1.4 Pragmatism

Pragmatism's proponents are Childs, Dewey, James and Peirce. Another name for this approach is experimentalism. Pragmatists believe that human purposes and plans could be validated only by acting on them and judging them by their consequences. For this, they stress the methodology or the process of problem-solving. They argue that learning occur as the person engages in problem-solving. The learner, as an individual or

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as a member of a group, utilizes the scientific methods to solve both personal and social problems. The problem-solving method can be developed into a habit that is transferable to a wide variety of situations (Ornstein and Levine, 1985).

They are of the view that education is the necessity of life so its aims are to seek understanding, coordinate all environments into a whole, teach a process of inquiry and promote personal growth and democracy. As every individual is different so the instructional process should be flexible for problem solving and discovery. In this learner-centred approach, the role of teacher is as a resource person who identifies the needs of the learner. The role of the teacher is to educate the child successfully by capturing the child's interest and build on the natural motivation. Teachers should use different teaching methods to accommodate each individual learning style. Due to individual difference, the teacher must vary his/her teaching style. They believe that knowledge should be organized and relate to current experiences (Woodson, 2007). They apply democratic methods for concept formation by considering classroom as a community of learner. Teacher encourages students to test ideas by corruption and competition.

1.1.5 Perennialism

Perennialism's proponents are Adler, Hutchins and Maritain. It is rooted in realism. Perennialists say that human nature never changes; hence there should be uniformed education everywhere for each nation of the world. They agree that the fundamental components of the soul are intention, reason and aesthetic sense. These concepts can be taught by arranging such methods that enable the students to settle their affair successfully, when they enter the field of practical life (Amin, 2000). Because of this, the teacher emphasizes searching for the truth and rationalization. They want to make a learner as an avid reader and writer. By using lecture method, didactic learning and Socratic `Method, they form the concepts. They form the concepts by encouraging students to organize, clarify and connect thoughts to make accurate quantitative comparisons.

The focussing area of perennials is to teach everlasting ideas and enduring truths. They are of the view that out-dated and incorrect information should not be taught to students. They recommend that schools should allot more time for teaching and explaining meaningful concepts (Theodore, n.d.).

1.1.6 Essentialism

Essentialism's proponents are Bagley, Bestor, Conant and Morrison. It is rooted in idealism and realism. Essentialists hold that it is the task of school to channel the accumulated experience of human kind into organized, coherent and differentiated disciplines. Only after mastering these basic disciplines can the student is expected to use them to solve personal, social and civic problems. For this, the teacher has the knowledge

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of his own subject and it is his obligation to impart education to the children. It is the duty of the students to benefits from the teachers and collect, as much as possible, the educational facts and hints from them (Amin, 2000).

The teachers can develop the concepts by teaching basic skills (reading, writing and arithmetic) and knowledge. They use previous concepts to develop students' higher thinking skills (Ornstein and Levine, 1985). They are in the favour of traditional methods to sharpen the mind and clarify the concepts. Command over the educational material is gained, comparatively, in better form through the traditional methods (Amin, 2000).

For essentialists, students are required to master information about the people, events, ideas and institutions. Essentialists argue that classrooms should be teacher-oriented and the whole responsibility is of the teacher. The teacher should serve as an intellectual and moral role model for the students. Essentialists hope that when students leave school, they will not only possess basic knowledge and skills but they will also have disciplined, practical minds, capable of applying lessons learned in school in the real world (Theodore, n.d.).

1.1.7 Progressivism

Progressivism's proponents are Dewey, Johnson, Killpatrick, Parker and Washburne. It is rooted in pragmatism. Progressive education focus on the child as the learner rather than on the subject; emphasized activities and experiences rather than verbal and literary skills; and encouraged cooperative group learning activities rather than competitive individualized lesson learning (Ornstein and Levine, 1985). Progressivists say that the teacher should guide and lead the students when ever the need arises. He should not, in person, dominate each thing every time. His right and suitable role is to act as a consultant or advisor (Amin, 2000).

Student-centred teaching methods are recommended by progressivists, in which the teacher is the facilitator of knowledge. For them, the teacher is responsible to get each student's attention and interest on various topics and concepts and then allows the students to learn about each topic and concept through discovery and inquiry. This will help the students to engage in deeper thinking about the material. The classroom environment should be designed in such a way that freedom is given to every student to ask questions without feeling unsure or insecure and feel comfortable to share their interests and concerns about the subject matter (Wagner, n.d.).

So they recommend that the teacher should assist learning by using intrinsic rewards and use students-centered methods to develop concepts by self-directed learning. They hold the view that teacher should be a resource person and a guide to learning activities.

1.1.8 Reconstructionism

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Reconstructionism's proponents are Brameld, Counts and Stanley. It is rooted in pragmatism. Education is designed to awaken the students' consciousness about social problems and to engage them actively in the solving of problems. To awaken social consciousness, students are encouraged to question the status quo and to investigate the controversial issues (Ornstein and Levine, 1985).

Reconstructionists are not in favour of predetermined curriculum. They recommend the subject matter from any or all disciplines when there is a need to solve a problem. They prefer the subject matter of social experience in solving problems. The reconstructionists are in favour of applying the problem-solving method (scientific method) to real-life problems. After one has reached an "intellectual solution" to a problem, he should carefully thought-out social action to remedy the problem (Ozman, n.d.).

By this, teacher develops the concepts by encouraging students to address and attempt to solve social problem. The education should undertake the experimentation of new social system immediately. The teacher may convince about the need of reconstruction. It is obligatory for a teacher to present honestly all aspects of the problems faced by the society and should not hide any one of them. Similarly, he may express, his own point of view to develop and strengthen the concepts, if need be, but should never intentionally try to impose it on them (Amin, 2000).

Reconstructionist teachers are social reformers. They believe that continuous thoughtful change is required for the improvement of society and the best change agent is the educational process. Teachers should focus on critical issues and allow students to have an active discussion about these issues (Goodly, n.d.).

Reconstructionists believe that the teacher should be an educational activist. The teacher should be a person who is aware of what is going on in society and have an opinion and is able to discuss this with the students. Teachers need to be freed from passivity and fear of working for change. They need to focus on critical issues not generally found in textbooks or made a part of the school curriculum. They also need to make students more critical about the knowledge they receive (Bazile and Nauman, 2004). Reconstructionists stress experimentation and problem solving as teaching methods.

Different philosophies have different concepts about knowledge. Idealists see cognition as the recall of latent ideas of mind to strengthen the concepts. For realist knowledge begins with our sensation of objects to form concepts that correspond to the objects in reality. Existentialists state that the individuals choose the knowledge to grasp that they wish to possess. Pragmatist said that we create knowledge by interacting with environment; hence concepts are formed due to this interaction. Perennials are of the view that the mind forms the concepts when they are organized, clarified and connected with one another to form new and complex concepts. They said that concepts can be

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developed into higher thinking skills by clarifying them. Progressivists view that concepts are learnt through discovery and inquiry in which students are engaged in deeper thinking. By reconstructionists, concepts can be developed and strengthened when students address and attempt to solve problems.

All philosophers put emphasis on concept clarification. They have different opinions about the development of concepts. However they recommend different methods and strategies to form concepts. They provide a base to change old and simple concepts into new and complex ones. The focusing area of all schools of thought is concept formation, concept clarification and promotion of conceptual change.

1.2 APPROACHES TO COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT

1.2.1 Piaget's Approach to Cognitive Development

Jean Piaget was a Swiss psychologist whose insightful description of children's thinking changed the way we understand cognitive development. He devised a model describing how humans go about making sense of their world by gathering and organizing information (Woolfolk, 1998).

Piaget's theory of cognitive development is based on the idea that people make a sense of the world and actively create their knowledge through direct experience with objects, people and ideas. Maturation, activity, social transmission and the need for equilibrium, all these influence on the way of thinking and as a result of this process knowledge is developed. In response to the influences, according to Piaget's theory, thinking process and knowledge develop through adaptation (including the process of assimilation and accommodation) and changes in the organization of thought (Woolfolk, 1998).

In Piaget's theory, cognitive development occurs in a series of distinct and universal four stages. Each stage is characterized by increasingly sophisticated and abstract levels of thought. These stages always occur in the same order and each builds on what was learned in the previous stage. They are as follows:

- a) Sensorimotor stage (infancy): In this period, which has six sub-stages, intelligence is demonstrated through motor activity without the use of symbols. Knowledge of the world is limited, but developing, because it is based on physical interactions and experiences. Children acquire object permanence at about seven months of age (memory). Physical development (mobility) allows the child to begin developing new intellectual abilities. Some symbolic (language) abilities are developed at the end of this stage.
- b) Pre-operational stage (toddler-hood and early childhood): In this period, which has two sub stages, intelligence is demonstrated through the use of symbols, language use matures, and memory and imagination are developed,

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but thinking is done in a non-logical, non-reversible manner. Egocentric thinking predominates.

- c) Concrete operational stage (elementary and early adolescence): In this stage, characterized by seven types of conservation (number, length, liquid, mass, weight, area and volume), intelligence is demonstrated through logical and systematic manipulation of symbols related to concrete objects. Operational thinking develops (mental actions that are reversible). Egocentric thought diminishes.
- d) Formal operational stage (adolescence and adulthood): In this stage, intelligence is demonstrated through the logical use of symbols related to abstract concepts. Early in the period there is a return to egocentric thought. (Huit and Hummel, 2003).

At heart, his theory is:

- a) a genetic one, in that higher processes are seen to evolve from biological mechanism which are rooted in the development of an individual's nervous system;
- b) a maturational one, because he believes that the processes of concept formation follow an invariant pattern through several clearly definable stages which emerge during specific age ranges;
- c) a hierarchical one, in that the stages he proposes must be experienced and passed through in a given order before any subsequent stages if development are possible (Child, 1995).

1.2.2 Vygotsky's Approach to Cognitive Development

Lev Semenovich Vygotsky was a pioneering Russian cognitive psychologist who made an enormous contribution to our understanding of language and thinking (Crowl, Kaminsky and Podell, 1997).

In Vygotsky's theory, language is the most important symbol system for learning. Language is critical for cognitive development. It provides a means for expressing ideas and asking questions, the categories and concept for thinking and the links between the past and the future. When we consider a problem, we generally think words and partial sentences. He places much more emphasis on the role of language in cognitive development. He viewed that language in the form of private speech (talking to yourself) guides cognitive development (Woolfolk, 1998).

Three stages of concept formation were proposed by Vygotsky: first, there is *vague syncretic* ('syncretic' in this context means random rather than reasoned grouping of objects, in which the child sort out a shapeless, disorganized heap of objects, designated by a word, often without any internal relation between them (Child, 1995).

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The second stage is *thinking in complexes*. These are a kind of primitive concept in which a child groups attributes by criteria which are not the recognized properties which could be used for the classification of concepts (Child, 1995). At this stage complexes are formed. Groups and families of objects are classified on the basis of their objective, common features and immediate image.

The third stage identified by Vygotsky is called the *potential concept* stage in which children can cope with one attribute at a time but is not yet able to manipulate all the attributes at ones. Maturity in concept attainment is reached when the child can do this (Child, 1995).

Vygotsky distinguishes three stages in the development of concept formation in children:

- 1) Sorting out a shapeless, disorganized heap of objects, designated by a word, often without any internal relation between them;
 - 2) Formation of complexes, groups and families of objects on the basis of their objective, common features and immediate images;
 - 3) Formulation of true fully developed concepts (Duric, 1989).
- An indispensable role in concept formation is played by the word, the language.

The word represents a means of uniting the psychic experience into a concept.

With concept attainment, the situation is different from that of concept formation. The process of concept attainment in the guided learning of pupils means that the pupils purposefully acquire the concept used by adults, formed in the long process of social development. In this way the results of human cognition and activity are transmitted to pupils. Therefore it is said that conceptual learning has two aspects. One aspect represents the concept formation by the subject themselves (with the adults help), while the other is composed of the attainment of ready-made concepts formed by the society. The concept acquired by purposeful, systemic learning and study is called scientific concepts and the ones formed by the child himself are called experiential concepts (Duric, 1989).

Vygotsky (1978) believed that two levels of mental functions exist in every individual i.e. elementary and higher mental functions. The individuals are born with elementary mental functions i.e., no learning is required for their use. Thinking is not required for such functions and they occur naturally such as hunger and sensing. But in higher mental functions, the creation and use of self-generated stimulation such as memory, attention, thinking and language are involved (Galant, 1998).

Vygotsky emphasized the development of higher level thinking and problem solving in education. If opportunities are provided to students to utilize critical thinking skills, their thought processes will be challenged and new knowledge will be gained.

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Behaviour modification of every individual depends upon the knowledge achieved through experience (Dahms, *et al*, 2008).

1.2.3 Taba's Strategy to Cognitive Development

Hilda Taba and associates (1964) have focussed their intensive research largely on the development of a strategy for the generation and the enhancement of independent thought process (Woods, 2002).

Taba built her approach around three assumptions:

1. Thinking can be taught (through engaging students in practice, in particular inductive reasoning).
2. Thinking is an active transaction between the individual and data. This relies on earlier theories.
3. Processes of thought evolve by mastery learning (Joyce, Weil and Calhoun, 2000).

Taba identified three categories of thought processes or cognitive tasks: (a) concept formation, (b) interpretation of data and the making of inferences, and (c) the application of known principles and facts to explain new phenomena, to predict consequences from known conditions and events or to develop hypotheses by using known generalizations and facts.

a) Concept Formation

Since concept formation is considered the basic form of cognition on which all cognitive processes depend, Taba utilized basic concept formation and defined it as consisting of three different processes or operations: i) the differentiation of the specific properties of objects or events (this differentiation involves the process of analysis in the sense of breaking down the global complexes representing objects and events into specified properties); ii) grouping or a process of assembling specified properties across many objects and events; and iii) labelling or categorizing, i.e. explicitly identifying the basis for grouping and subsuming the items under some label or category (Woods, 2002).

b) Interpretation of Data

Interpreting data and making inferences from them is essentially an inductive process of developing generalizations, although never accomplished without some application of what is previously known. This task involves four basic operations. One is that of assembling concrete information, either by instigating a process of recall and retrieval of previously learned information or by being presented new information and identifying the specific points in this set of data. Second is that of explaining or giving reasons for certain events. The third operation consists of relating different point of processed information and relating the information thus obtained to its possible

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connection with standards. The fourth operation is that of formulating generalizations or inferences (Woods, 2002).

c) Application of Principles

A third cognitive task has to do with applying previous knowledge, principles, generalizations or facts to explain new phenomena and to predict consequences from known conditions.

Essentially, two different operations are involved: that of predicting and that of establishing the parameters either of logical relationships or of information with which to test the validity of predictions. The level of prediction or a hypothesis can be judged according to the extent of the leap from a given condition. But equally important is the completeness of the parameter, the chain of links which connects the predictions and the conditions (Woods, 2002).

Woods (2002) explains that application of principles invites a greater degree of divergence than either of the preceding cognitive tasks. Each condition presented as data invites a divergent line of predictions. For this reason, this process contains opportunities for creative and divergent use of knowledge).

The operations involved in applying principles are quite crucial to developing productive pattern of thought. This process is the chief vehicle for transfer of knowledge. This process is, therefore, crucial for getting mileage out of the little that student can acquire directly during their schooling. It is a chief means for creating new knowledge by logical processes and a way of acquiring control over wide areas of new phenomena. It is also the process by which models for hypothesizing can be created, freeing the individual from the necessity of being bound to the immediate stimulus (Woods, 2002).

Taba's strategies focus on the teacher as the mediator rather than as the lecturer. When utilizing the Taba approach, the teacher leads the discussion by sharing their opinions and relating their own ideas to their peers' ideas. The teacher should not judge the students by their answers and can neither agree nor disagree with their responses. The teacher should use verbal feedback to strengthen their concepts. The teacher should avoid nonverbal cues during students' responses. Encouragement should be given by the teacher to the students to expand their classmates' ideas or to invite students to clarify their own ideas by discussing them (Wikipedia The Free Encyclopaedia, n.d.).

1.2.4 Bruner's Approach to Cognitive Development

Jerome Bruner is an American psychologist who developed a theory of cognitive development to help teachers to promote student learning and thinking. Jerome Bruner formulated a concept formation theory that involved cognitive processes, i.e. hypothesis

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testing about a concept by making guesses about which attributes are essential for defining the concept.

The Concept Attainment Model (CAM) of teaching has been presented by Bruner, Goodnow and Austin. It is developed by their study of Thinking. The Concept Attainment Strategy as model of teaching is concerned with two separate but related ideas:

- a) nature of the concepts themselves; and
- b) thinking process used by individual to learn concepts
- a) Nature of Concepts

A concept is assumed to be a set of specific objects or events, which share common characteristics and they can be labelled as a particular name. So the identification of generalized concept attributes to newly encountered examples and discriminate examples from non-examples is concept learning.

b) Thinking Strategies of Concept Attainment

Bruner analyses any concept as having five elements.

- i) Name-It is a term given to the category.
- ii) Examples-They refer to the instances of the concept. Examples of a concept may be positive or negative.
- iii) Attributes-The basic characteristics of the concepts are called attributes. Each attribute has an attribute value.
- iv) Attribute Value-This refers to the specific content of that category of concept. Most attributes have a range of accepted value.
- v) The rule is a definition or statement of specifying the essential attributes of a concept (A. I. O. U., 2002).

His approach was characterised by three stages which he calls enactive, iconic and symbolic for the formation of concepts. The first, the enactive level, is where the child directly manipulates the matter. The second is the iconic level, where he deals with mental images of objects but still he is not able to manipulate them directly. The third is the symbolic level, where he is strictly manipulating symbols and mental images or objects are no longer in use. The optimum learning process takes place by these stages.

1. Enactive Stage. Infants are in the enactive stage and acquire knowledge by actively engaging in activities. Young children need lots of opportunities to engage in “hands-on” activities with a variety of objects if they are to learn effectively.

2. Iconic Stage. In the iconic stage, children learn through visual stimuli (the word icon means “picture”). At this stage, children rely on visual representations to aid their thinking. Students’ visual representations determine how they understand the world.

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Teachers of students in the early grades should use many pictures and visual aids to promote learning.

3. Symbolic Stage. In the symbolic stage, children can understand symbols, including words and mathematical and scientific notations. Once students have reached the symbolic stage, they are able to take in large amounts and varied types of information. Symbolic material includes written passages, scientific and mathematical formulas and abstract charts (Crowl, Kaminsky and Podell, 1997).

Bruner advocates the use of guided discovery in which the teacher guides students to induce the underlying structure of the material that they are studying (Crowl, Kaminsky and Podell, 1997).

According to Hollyman (2009), Bruner suggested that people remember things “due to meaning and signification, not toward the end of somehow ‘preserving’ the facts themselves.” A constant theme in Bruner’s work is that education is a process of discovery. Bruner believes that personal discovery is involved in effective learning. Bruner advocated that if opportunities are provided to the students to pursue concepts on their own pace, then a chance of better understanding will be increased. Within the education system, a teacher should engage students in discussion and guide them so that students become able to think independently rather than be taught. He argued that the study materials, activities and tools that are matched to and capitalise their developing cognitive capabilities should be provided to the students for maximum learning.

Summary

All the philosophers, thinkers and psychologists argue that concept formation is better for clarification and formation of ideas. Teachers should use it to improve the academic achievement of students. It may be used for changing the old and useless conceptions to new and plausible conceptions. When the goal of instruction is meaningful learning, one of the powerful tool to use may be concept formation. This model facilitates the integration of the existing and new knowledge. The integration would result in meaning learning if the cognitive structure of the learner’s pre-existing knowledge is relevant.

Concept formation is better to change the traditional classroom environment in which students use their knowledge for solving their problems. When students know how to use their existing knowledge, they are able to solve the real life problems and develop complex skills and concepts. Science teaching should favor procedural knowledge. Although the declarative knowledge is also very important, it is not enough.

It is very useful for conceptual change. Conceptual change is important for developing and strengthening the concepts. By this model, teachers can easily teach

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complex concepts. Because of this, teacher education should place emphasis on conceptual change.

By this, teachers should be trained to develop and assess effective concepts. Effective concepts are considered as an important tool of instruction, but it also requires some training for teachers. Teachers should also be trained in the techniques of demonstration. Demonstrations should never be replaced by hands-on activities; they should not be longer than 5 minutes in a class period. So, it is important for teacher to know the idea behind using demonstration and how to integrate them with their teaching. Teachers should conduct experiments in the laboratory as required or even in the classroom if possible. Teachers should have practice to handle the apparatus.

The important area of concept formation is to avoid the traditional ways of assigning home work. Home task should be assigned in such a way by which the teacher evaluates the students' understanding of concepts. By this, if the students have any inquiry or confusion, the teachers should clear it in the beginning of the next day lecture. Different styles should be used for assigning the home task.

Concept formation put emphasis on the training of teachers in test construction techniques. Teachers should assess knowledge, understanding and application level of the students in one test. Teachers should be aware about the new methods of testing the students.

Concept formation is helpful in better understanding of concepts and helpful to cope with the problematic situations of future life.

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Evaluation of the English Language Teaching (ELT) Textbooks Taught at the Pakistan Military Academy, Kakul

Qamar Khushi

Mubina Talaat, Ph.D.

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Abstract

This paper is an attempt to evaluate the ELT textbooks prescribed for study at the Pakistan Military Academy (PMA), Kakul. The aim of this paper is to determine the overall pedagogical value of the ELT textbooks towards this specific language programme.

The merits and demerits of the textbooks are discussed in detail with reference to 7 common features developed from different evaluation checklists.

The findings reveal that the syllabus is traditional in approach. The choice of any language teaching material must be made with the proper context in which the materials will be used. If the learners can see a close connection between the content of the material and their academic/professional/general needs, then there will be a strong motivating force for the language learners and better results will be achieved. Thus, it is suggested that instead of heavily literature based content, subject specific/general material should be included in the course.

Key Words: Evaluation; Academic/ Professional Language Needs, Checklists, Subject Specific Material; PMA

1. Introduction

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In bilingual/ multilingual situations with different educational systems and different socio-economic background of people in Pakistan, an ELT textbook should be selected judiciously, since it cannot cater equally to the needs of every classroom situation. One way to improve the curriculum is to improve the textbooks and the materials used in the language programme. Nothing is perfect, therefore, the textbooks that are once selected after consideration of many issues can lack many things related to them. However, there is always a room for improvement and refinement. Hence, the evaluation is carried out to overcome the deficiencies in the ELT textbooks taught at the PMA. For the purposes of the present study, evaluation of the literature module only will be done. Teaching methodology and evaluation procedures are not considered at all.

The following textbooks have been prescribed for teaching prose to the military cadets:

- An Anthology of Modern English Prose (compiled by the Department of English in 1989)
- Modern Short Stories (edited by A.J. Emerson)
- Anthology of English Prose and Poetry (compiled by the Department of English in 1998)
- Arms and the Man (Bernard Shaw)
- The Pearl (John Steinberg)

The syllabus under study has been in use for about twenty years with a few minor changes. For example, at different times Austen, Maugham and Hemingway have been taught. The prose and poetry selections have also been different at different times. However, the structure and pattern of the syllabus have, more or less, remained unchanged. The only significant addition in the syllabus has been the inclusion of the Phonetics module and Audio-Visual Aids Packages.

Like the syllabus of most courses taught at the graduate level, the syllabus under study is also a fixed syllabus. The syllabus is handed over to the instructors before they start their teaching assignments. It tells them what is to be taught and in what order, and which teaching methodology is to be used. The syllabus (with the exception of public speaking module) is based on the teacher-centered approach. Generally, the instructor is the sole authority in the class and the concept of learner-centeredness is ignored.

2. Literature Review

Evaluation is universally acknowledged as a crucial part of any educational endeavour. No curriculum is complete without the evaluation component. For Flowerdew and Peacock (2001:193), 'programme evaluation means evaluating or re-evaluating the course design --- the syllabus, materials, tasks and methods as they were originally planned -- to see if the course is meeting its stated objectives'.

According to Nunan (1988:118),

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The data resulting from evaluation assist us in deciding whether a course needs to be modified or altered in any way so that objectives may be achieved more effectively. If certain learners are not achieving the goals and objectives set for a course, it is necessary to determine why this is so. We would also wish, as a result of evaluating a course, to have some idea about what measures might be taken to remedy any shortcomings. Evaluation, then, is not simply a process of obtaining information; it is also a decision –making process.

It emerges from the above definition that evaluation performs two functions: firstly, it makes value judgments and secondly, it involves action.

Evaluation of textbooks is not done haphazardly; there exist some specific criteria suggested by various authors and researchers in the form of checklists. Sheldon (1988) argues that no general list of criteria can ever really be applied to all teaching and learning contexts without considerable modification. He believes, most of the standardized evaluation checklists can be used as helpful starting points for English language teachers in a wide variety of situations only after some modification, as they contain similar components.

There are different checklists proposed by eminent authors such as Rivers (1981), Williams (1983), Grant (1989), Brown (1995), Cunningsworth (1995) and Ur (1996), for evaluating ELT textbooks. They all agree that evaluation checklists should have some criteria related to the physical characteristics of textbooks such as layout, organizational, and logistical characteristics.

Other important criteria that should be included are those that assess methodology of a textbook, aims, and approaches and the degree to which a set of materials is not only teachable but also fits the needs of the individual teacher's approach as well as the overall curriculum of the organization. Moreover, criteria should analyze the specific language, functions, grammar, and skills content that are covered by a particular textbook as well as the relevance of linguistic items to the prevailing socio-cultural environment.

Cunningsworth (1995) and Ellis (1997) have discussed three types of material evaluation; the 'predictive' or 'pre-use' evaluation that is designed to examine the future or potential performance of a textbook; the 'in-use' evaluation designed to examine the existing material being used; and the 'retrospective' or 'post-use' (reflective) evaluation of a textbook that has been used in any respective institution.

The evaluation used in the present study can be termed as the 'retrospective' type of evaluation in which an attempt has been made to check the characteristics of the textbooks under study against a collection of criteria proposed by various authors.

3. Method / Procedure

For evaluating the poetry and prose textbooks, an eclectic checklist was prepared based on different checklists suggested by Celci-Murcia (1979), Rivers (1981), Williams (1983), Grant (1989), Cunningsworth (1995), Ur (1996), along with the evaluative items added on the basis of our study for the present work. After a close examination of the Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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checklists, the following criteria were found to be common to all the schemes proposed by the above mentioned materials:

1. Objectives of the syllabus in relation to the objectives and contents of the course books
2. Subject matter
3. Vocabulary and Structure
4. Clear attractive layout, print easy to read
5. Illustrations
6. Tips for Teaching
7. Potential for Adaptability

4. Results and Discussion

In this section, first the three textbooks prescribed for study are evaluated against each one of the features in the checklist one by one. The results of the scrutiny of all the three textbooks on every feature are combined under common headings to save space and time. Next, a general evaluation of the novel and play is presented, based on our study of relevant literature on evaluation and ELT.

The very inclusion of the component of literature can be called into question since the military cadets are more in need of functional English rather than the acquaintance with the emphatic poetry and personal reflections of different authors. Before the students are linguistically competent, they cannot be expected to benefit from the study of literature. Although, carefully selected texts can serve as a tool to reinforce language teaching points, the current syllabus does not seem to consider this crucial factor. It seems that the selection of textbooks has been made in haste and with a lack of systematically applied criteria. This requires a detailed evaluation of the contents of the syllabus.

4.1. (i) Objectives of the Syllabus in Relation to the Objectives and Contents of the Textbooks

Objectives should be in the form of appropriate and specific statements which serve as a base for the curriculum developer to devise an appropriate content (Print, 1993). Curriculum serves as a tool in the hands of teacher. It is the duty of the teacher to realize the objectives of the content or material through it (Kelly, 2004).

From the above definitions and statements on content and objectives, it becomes evident that clear objectives are very essential for a curriculum because they are the unifying force which unites all the elements of curriculum.

The most important objective of teaching a language course to students of professional institutions is to enable them to meet the academic needs as well as the Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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communicative needs of their professional life effectively. It seems that the three textbooks have been compiled without taking into consideration the objectives of the syllabus of English prescribed by the PMA authorities. Moreover, the language used for defining these objectives is not in accordance with the language required for stating objectives under the domain of education.

Objectives should be precise, specific and measurable (Print, 1993). Most of the objectives do not conform to these requirements. The PMA authorities have not clearly specified the objectives of the syllabus in vivid words so that the learners know what they are expected to have learnt at the end of the course. We do not know what the learners should be able to demonstrate that they have achieved the intended objectives at the end of each term.

(a) Book 1: An Anthology of Modern English Prose

In the foreword to ‘An Anthology of Modern English Prose’, Malik (General Ghulam Muhammad Malik served as the Commandant of the PMA from 1988-1990) (1989: i) states:

The department of English was assigned the task to compile a book that should, on the one hand, fulfill our cultural and ideological needs and, on the other, meet our linguistic and professional requirements.

Cadets of the PMA have a special purpose to serve; they have to dedicate themselves to the service of Islam and Pakistan...All training gadgets and course books have to be designed in such a manner that along with professional excellence they go on imbibing, imperceptibly, the eternal spirit of religion and the abiding love of their motherland. A graduate of this Academy must be imbued with the character and professional qualities of the true Muslim soldier.

It is obvious from the above statements that one of the major aims of the PMA authorities is to promote religious and nationalistic ideology among the cadets through the teaching of English textbooks. Another important aim of teaching English is to fulfill the linguistic and professional requirements. On the contrary, the above mentioned aims do not directly match with the objectives of teaching the prescribed “Anthology”. The objective of teaching the Anthology of Modern English Prose, as provided in the syllabus document is:

To raise and broaden the base of intellectual and mental horizon, through the teaching of Prose lessons.

The language used for defining this objective does not seem appropriate. Moreover, this objective is quite unrealistic; it is neither precise nor measurable. It appears that the PMA authorities are not really clear about their objectives. Perhaps, that is why they fail to achieve any objective mentioned above. The linguistic and communicative needs were not specified while formulating the objectives. In the Preface to this textbook the compiler states:

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This Anthology has been compiled to fulfill the peculiar needs of the Gentleman Cadets of the PMA...the previous books were a representation of western ideas and an alien culture. Their replacement by a fresher, more modern and more purposeful reading material was overdue. The present book is intended to meet all these requirements. It aims at providing an easy and attractive introduction to the modern English prose...

This book ignores the students' objectives of learning English at this level as well as objectives of the syllabus. There is no reference to the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing or to study skills. Even the one aim mentioned is not fulfilled because the textbook is neither easy nor provides modern English language.

The second part of the book contains literary essays,

...which have specifically been included to enable our students to compare the style of the western prose writers with that of the Muslim writers from the east whose essays are included in the first part (Irshad, 1989: iii).

This objective appears to be quite irrelevant as it does not match with the needs of the potential army officers. It should have been suitable for the students of literature but not for the military cadets who need to learn language for practical purposes.

(b) Book 2: Modern Short Stories

The objective of teaching 'Modern Short Stories' as stated in the syllabus document is,

To instill an insight and ability to understand cultural, social and moral values through the teaching of prose and novel.

It is interesting to note that the objective of teaching the novel, 'The Pearl', and the book 'Modern Short Stories' is not stated separately. This objective seems to be unrealistic and difficult to measure.

(c) Book 1: An Anthology of Prose and Poetry

This book is also not different from the other two books. The objectives of teaching prose given in the syllabus document are:

1. To enhance the process of intellectual curiosity and creativity through teaching of prose. This will further develop a deeper insight, wider vision and a suitable observation among the cadets.
2. To augment exposure to rich literary heritage of emotional experience and intellectual insight to read, to ponder and to enjoy.
3. To reinforce the ability to learn form and technique of good writing through extensive and varied menu of good model writing. This will be done through the teaching of selective prose lessons.

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Keeping in view, the educational background of the learners and the teaching methodology of instructors, these objectives again seem quite unrealistic. The methodology for teaching prose lessons is lecture/direct method. According to the instructors, while teaching prose lessons, they usually ask the cadets to read aloud from the book. Most of them usually point out the mistakes in pronunciation, provide meanings of the difficult words and finally discuss the ideas presented in the lessons. There is no effort on the part of instructors to analyze the language and style of the writers. No writing activities are conducted in the class to inculcate creativity among the students. The instructors believe that forty minutes period leaves no time for any writing activity. Thus, it becomes evident that the objectives stated above are quite unrealistic in the present circumstances.

The book aims at literary achievement which should not be the objective of teaching English to the cadets. The ex-cadets also revealed during informal discussions that they desired to have sound knowledge of functional grammar and excellent command over writing and speaking skills. The military cadets would need effective writing skills and reasonable vocabulary, which are ignored while defining the objectives of teaching prose. It appears that those responsible for formulating the syllabus are ignorant of the general principles of ELT.

The objective of teaching poetry as mentioned in the syllabus document is:

To provide poetic touch and develop Gentleman Cadets' literary taste through teaching of poetry.

Most of the Pakistani students do not have any interest in foreign language poetry as they are unable to appreciate the fine nuances of poetry. Same is the case with the military cadets. It is quite inappropriate to teach poetry to cadets who require English language for practical purposes. The requirements of the cadets are not to acquaint themselves with the love poetry of Shakespeare or romantic poetry of Keats but to acquire sufficient linguistic and communicative competence. Poetry with its structural complexity and special use of vocabulary also causes problems to the cadets. It appears as if the objectives have been prepared without considering the future needs of the cadets.

4.1. ii Subject Matter

‘The subject matter which is available to the students must be in harmony with the needs and interests of pupils at that level’ (Sherwani, 2001:82).

Book 1:

‘An Anthology of Modern English Prose’ is divided into three parts. The first part contains essays and articles. Five essays are selected from this section. Out of these five essays, three are written by the Muslim authors and the other two by the British writers. However, the three essays, ‘The Holy Prophet’, ‘Islamic Culture’ and ‘The Rationale of Pakistan’ cannot be termed as essays in the real sense of the term. ‘The Holy Prophet’ and ‘Islamic Culture’ are extracts from two different books written by Syed Amir Ali and Pickthal respectively. The third essay ‘The Rationale of Pakistan’ is an extract from a Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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speech delivered by the Quaid-e-Azam Muhammad Ali Jinnah. It is a formal speech using the language of politics which is neither needed by the cadets nor is graspable by them. The lessons are difficult linguistically for the learners whose reading age is thirteen.

Although these lessons are culturally relevant and acceptable for the learners, “incidentally” these lessons are the most unintelligible for the students. It became evident from informal discussions with the cadets that they did not like the present selection of essays in the section ‘Islam and Pakistan’ because of the difficult language as well as the boring content. In an earlier study, majority of the cadets have not approved the present selection of essays, (see Khushi: 2004). However, they expressed their desire to include more interesting essays related to Islam and Pakistan, perhaps because ‘the Gentlemen Cadets of the Pakistan Military Academy have a special purpose to serve; they have to dedicate themselves to the service of Islam and Pakistan’ (Malik, 1989: i).

Only one essay, entitled ‘On Babies’ is selected for study from the second section. This is a humorous essay written by an English writer, Jerome K. Jerome. The students seem to enjoy this lesson not only because of the story but also because of the easy language.

The third section deals with the subject of war. Again only one lesson, ‘Morale in Battle’ is prescribed for study. This essay is taken from a book written by Field Marshal Montgomery. The selection of this article seems appropriate as morale in battle is an important factor in the army. The theme of the lesson is of interest to the learners.

Home-culture content should be increased because cadets need to know how to talk about it in the future. For this purpose, instead of formal speeches, and lectures by statesmen, stories of Pakistani war heroes may be included in the syllabus. Moreover, authentic material adapted from newspapers and military journals can be used to teach various language points to the cadets. The emphasis should be more on teaching language skills instead of trying to inculcate literary taste among the cadets.

Book 2

The following three short stories are included in the syllabus:

The Refugees
The Open Window
The Last Leaf

These stories may be delightful for readers familiar with a wide range of literary style but they fail to impress the foreign language learners. The socio-cultural background of these stories is Western, and the dialect of English presented in these stories shows a difference of society. There are many culturally alien references e.g.: “brownness in October wood or in beer”.

Literature and language are closely linked to each other and literature can be used to illustrate different language points and various authentic uses of language. Moreover, it encourages critical and creative thinking, but if literature-based texts are to form part of Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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compulsory English syllabus then the students have to be linguistically equipped before being able to understand a literary piece. The students' basic need is to learn functional English, which is not catered through the present literary selection.

Book 3

'The Anthology of Prose and Poetry' comprises two separate sections: prose and poetry. The prose selections, written by English writers are linguistically and conceptually quite difficult for the cadets. The lessons also contain a number of culturally alien references. For example, the following extract from 'A Piece of Chalk':

"...they blazoned the shields of their paladins with the purple and gold of many heraldic sunsets. The greenness of a thousand green leaves clustered into the live green figure of Robin Hood. The blueness of a score of forgotten skies became the blue robes of the virgin. The inspiration went in like sunbeams and came out like Apollo" (p, 185).

The selection of these articles seems inappropriate. The cadets with no literary background find these articles quite difficult and boring as was revealed during interviews with the cadets. These literary selections may be enjoyable for students familiar with a wide range of literary style but they fail to impress the foreign language learners. It was found during informal discussions with the instructors that the existing syllabus is not organized around any established linguistic criteria and the selection of content is non-purposive. The presentation of texts, which represent different areas of human activity, is a good prospect but the focus seems to be on "covering large area" not on the selection of texts, which present functional English.

The textbook does not make an attempt in making the students feel that they are studying an up-to-date text. They know that for the last 20-25 years this syllabus has been in use with a few minor changes. This sense of oldness and out-dated ideas creates in them a sense of disliking, as they do not become active participants and good receptors for this text. Hence, this book as such has no contribution in making the cadets proficient in English.

The poems included in the syllabus are written by Shakespeare, Milton, Shelley, Wordsworth, Keats, and Robert Frost. The ideas expressed by these poets are intricate as they sound the various trends, political and social movements of their ages. Without understanding the historicity of the poems, the cadets would not be able to understand and enjoy them. The instructors also admitted during discussions that they could not develop interest among the students for appreciating poetry due to time constraints. Besides, the selection of poems seems to be inappropriate. The poems like 'Ode to the West Wind' and 'Ode to the Nightingale' are difficult for most of the cadets who have inadequate language proficiency. It seems that these odes have been selected without any regard to learners' linguistic level and proficiency in language. The noticeable point is that if it is really essential to teach poetry to the cadets then it should be of their interest. As Littlewood (1986) points out, that students' interest and appreciation of the experiences described will be enhanced if the content of the poems makes contact with their experience. Unfortunately, this is not valid for the present textbook. The poems like 'Ode to the West

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Wind' and others are not of any interest for cadets. Moreover, the way poetry is taught also contributes to the lack of students' interest in poetry.

4.1. iii Vocabulary and Structure

The vocabulary load depicted in all the three textbooks seems to be unreasonable for the cadets. The vocabulary items are such that are not likely to be of use in everyday language by the cadets. Words like 'capercaillie', 'Repudiator,' sanguinary', 'abstention', 'primeval', 'heraldic', 'concourse', and 'paladins'- these are just a few examples- are not only difficult but also irrelevant to and absent from common language. Moreover, the vocabulary used in the textbooks is not repeated in subsequent lessons for reinforcement and therefore these and other such words remain alien for the learners. Such words are difficult even for the instructors who are handling these books.

The textbooks are also difficult syntactically as there are complex structures of lengthy sentences. For example,

In the Quran, men are bidden to observe the Phenomena of nature, alternation of day and night, the properties of earth and air and fire and water, the mysteries of birth and death, growth and decay – evidences of a law and order which man can never bend or alter by a hair's breadth – as proof of that man is not the sovereign of this world: his province of free will, research and fruitful efforts is but a delegated power within an absolute sovereignty, which absolute sovereignty belongs to Allah the Creator and Sustainer of the Universe, the Lord of all the worlds.

This single sentence from the lesson 'Islamic Culture' comprises 106 words. Similarly, the following sentence from the lesson "The Rationale of Pakistan" (An Anthology of Modern English Prose) comprises 59 words:

On the other hand, the rivalry and the natural desire and efforts on the part of one to dominate the social order and establish political supremacy over the other in the government of the country will disappear and will lead more towards natural goodwill by international pacts between them, and they can live in complete harmony with their neighbors (p. 50).

These two sentences are just a few examples of difficult sentence structures in the textbooks. Such sentences are problematic for the students who are not provided with any reading skill. Moreover, lengthy and difficult sentences lead to emotional fatigue and boredom.

The lessons are also difficult conceptually. For instance, the lessons 'Lenin', and 'The Rationale of Pakistan' use the language and ideas of politics which is neither required by the cadets, nor is according to their proficiency level. The fact that 'The Rationale of Pakistan' is a formal speech renders it unintelligible for the cadets despite the fact that it is culturally relevant. Furthermore, the language of these books is not completely authentic as there are outdated and unfamiliar phrases and idioms in the lessons. The language used in the various essays, stories is that of eighteenth or nineteenth century.

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As far as the poetry section is concerned, an average B.A./B.Sc. student is not competent enough to appreciate nuances of poetry. The student usually gets confused in managing various literary devices, ideas and mental state of the poet at this level. It is pointless to expose them to uninteresting literary text as they can appreciate neither the language nor the mood, tone, or special intent of the literary material. They generally read the poems only to pass the examination rather than to gain something.

The vocabulary load in some poems is too heavy for the students. Words like ‘stubble’, ‘suckled’, ‘crofts’, ‘swath’, ‘treble’, ‘drayd’ are ambiguous for students as well as for the teachers. These words do not belong to current everyday language in the Standard English.

4.1. iv Clear Attractive Layout, Print Easy to Read

The quality of paper used for the books (I, II and III) is not very good. The books are acceptable regarding the clarity. However, it would be more appealing if orthographic beauty is considered. All the three textbooks under study lack orthographic beauty.

4.1. v Appropriate Visual Materials Available

Visual materials can be defined as the facilities that can be employed by teachers and learners to enhance language learning in classrooms. They may range from simple hand-made realia, charts and pictures, to electronic and digital materials. Visual images can play an important role in conceptual clarity of different things and can also help in understanding written text. Through visual images the teacher can also exploit the text for various language activities. None of the three books have any illustration or visual to help learners’ comprehension ability.

4.1. vi Tips for Teaching

The prescribed syllabus should explicitly state what kind of methodology is amenable to the achievement of its objectives. The teaching methodology to be used for teaching a specific module has been provided in the syllabus document but it has not proved useful as various tips/techniques for teaching are not given. There is no teachers’ manual accompanying the textbooks. It was found during discussions with the instructors that they adopt the teaching methodology they feel comfortable with. Most of the instructors are not ELT trained so they generally teach through the lecture method.

The present textbooks do not offer any exercises that can develop any reading sub-skills like skimming, scanning, reading for main idea, etc. The teaching methodology is such that the teacher reads out from the text in the class and the students are not given any exposure to the text. It appears as if the textbooks are compiled in such a manner that the teaching points are not taken into consideration. Moreover, the compilers are not aware of modern concepts of syllabus designing and communicative teaching methodology. We do not see anything that can help students and teachers because the lessons end abruptly without offering any teaching exercise. Only in ‘An Anthology to Modern English Prose’ some comprehension type questions are given at the end of each lesson but these are also not helpful for teaching purposes. The cadets usually cram the notes prepared by their seniors and reproduce them in the examination.

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Although, in the present situation 80 percent marks are allocated for the written examination but there are no exercises in the textbooks to give cadets practice in writing skills. There is a great need for including exercises like sentence completion, spelling, guided and free writing.

The ability to speak English is a clearly perceived need of the cadets in the academic as well as in the professional life. Keeping in view the importance of spoken English in the armed forces, the Public Speaking Module is taught to the PMA cadets. However, public speaking is taught separately; the textbooks do not offer any exercises to students in the development of this skill. Listening is as important as speaking, as Rivers (1981:151) puts it:

Speaking does not of itself constitute communication unless what is being said is comprehended by the other person...teaching the comprehension of spoken language is of primary importance if the communication aim is to be achieved.

But the textbooks do not provide any exercises for the learning and practice of the skill. There are no communicative activities for listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. Subsidiary skills like grammar, vocabulary and punctuation have also not been given any importance (grammar and vocabulary are taught as separate modules). There are no structured exercises in the textbooks with which these skills can be taught either in a traditional manner or through communicative teaching methodology. The general impression, which one gets after evaluating the textbooks, is that these books do not offer any teaching points either for linguistic competence or for communicative competence.

4.1. vii Potential for Adaptability

Though the textbooks do not offer activities to teach the students with communicative methodology and they do have a number of other flaws as well, but a trained teacher can adapt the texts to make them communicative by picking out certain points from the texts which could be exploited for teaching purposes by designing various activities for the learners to give them practice in the main/subsidiary skills of language. Moreover, after adapting them, the books could be used for teaching with communicative methodology.

4. 2. Drama

Shaw's play, 'Arms and the Man' has been prescribed for teaching in the third term. The present selection does not seem to be the right choice. At the superficial level it is a simple, romantic love story. Ordinary readers can not comprehend the serious views propagated by Shaw through his plays. Initially, even the sophisticated audience of Shaw's own age could not discern the serious purpose of his play. The objective of teaching drama as stated in the syllabus document is, 'to create a craving for literature and develop imaginative inquisitiveness'. Keeping in view, the language background of the cadets and the methodology used at the PMA, the above stated objective seems unrealistic and unachievable.

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This fact is supported by the responses of the cadets in an earlier study by Khushi (Khushi, 2004). A vast majority of them reported that the teaching of drama has not developed imaginative inquisitiveness among them. Reading a drama or novel requires high level of reading skills such as analyzing, interpreting and inferring, which the students clearly lack. Such heavy literary texts like drama or novel can be suitable for literature students but not for students learning language for specific purposes.

4.3 Novel

The novel, 'The Pearl' by Steinbeck has been prescribed for study during the second term. It is a short novel comprising only 104 pages. The stated objective of teaching the novel is, 'To instill an insight and ability to understand cultural, social and moral values through the teaching of novel'. However, the cultural values presented in the novel are quite alien in our socio-cultural context.

Again it seems quite inappropriate to teach novel to military cadets who study English language to cater the demands of their professional life. The cadets do not need to study English for developing aesthetic abilities and understanding cultural values. 'The Pearl' is an allegorical novel. Majority of the cadets do not have a background of literature. The novel contains a number of images and symbols which are not at all explored while teaching. The students do not enjoy reading the novel mainly because they are unable to understand the deeper meanings.

5. Conclusion

In this paper, we have attempted to evaluate the current textbooks taught at the PMA. This evaluation reveals that the syllabus is traditional in approach. It is expected that the cadets will learn the language and acquire proficiency in language skills through the study of literature. Whereas literature is the best exposition of language, it is doubtful that the study of literature can be very effective as a vehicle for teaching and learning of the language in the case of military cadets.

The choice of any language teaching materials must be made with the proper context in which the materials will be used. If the learners can see a close connection between the content of the material and their academic/professional/general needs, then there will be a strong motivating force for the language learners and better results will be achieved. Therefore, instead of heavily literature based content, subject specific/general material should be included in the course.

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Female Circumcision: Myth and Fact in Alice Walker's *Possessing the Secret of Joy*

Gulab Singh, Ph D.



Alice Walker

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Alice_Walker

One of the targets of Alice Walker's critical exposure has been the taboo territory of female circumcision being practiced in a number of African communities. Alice Walker is a crusader against this inhuman practice and uses all her means as an artist to attack this custom with a view to freeing the society from this scourge. This is evident from the way she lays bare the horrors of this brutal sexist practice in her fiction, prose writings and in a documentary which she prepared in collaboration with London-based Indian film maker, Pratibha Parmar. This film, *Warrior* Language in India www.languageinindia.com

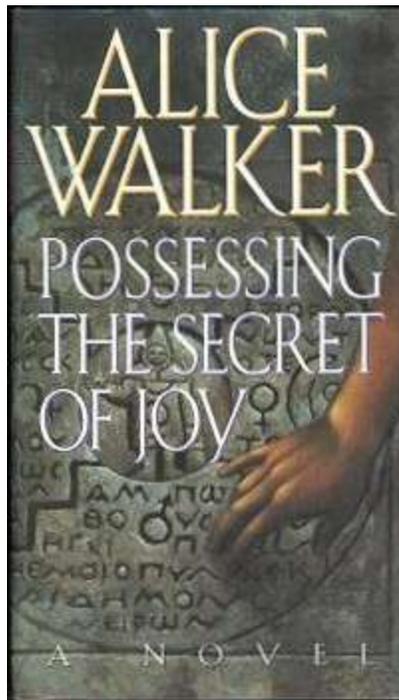
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Marks, shown in the United States, created a stir in American society, especially in the Afro-American community. Drawing attention to the magnitude of this problem, she estimates in her book, entitled *Warrior Marks: Female Genital Mutilation and the Sexual Blinding of Women* that “one hundred million women in African, Asian and Middle-Eastern countries have been genitally mutilated causing unimaginable physical pain and suffering.”(Walker:55)

Possessing the Secret of Joy



Walker has been in the front line of those writers, journalists and women organizations who have led a campaign for the last two decades against this practice. In her novel, *Possessing the Secret of Joy* she has dealt with this theme in depth and detail providing flashes of insight into the causes of the prevalence of this custom as well as its consequences on the life of its victims like Tashi.

The story of the novel revolves round the character of Tashi, caught up in the cross-currents of her Olinkan traditions on the one hand, and the influences of Western culture on the other. She is an African woman who comes under the influence of Christianity and falls in love with Adam, the adopted son of a black American missionary. Their love is passionate and they defy even the strongest taboo of her community against love making in the fields. But, neither the influence of the missionaries nor her love for Adam can liberate her mind from the hold, the customs and traditions of her Olinkan community have on her mind and soul. She, as a girl, can neither understand the sexist politics behind these traditions constructed by men nor can she visualise the consequences of their practice on the content and quality of the life of a woman like herself. This leads her to submit her freedom of mind as a girl to the authority of her patriarchal community

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and is drawn to live her life in strict “conformity with the norm of her Olinkan culture.”(Gruenbaum:13)

Responding to the Pressures

Tashi seems to find in her society an effective way of responding to the pressures besetting the political and cultural life of her people. They are faced with the all important question of the very survival of their identity as a distinct race. Tashi's conformity to her culture seems to hold out a solution even to the problems she faces as an Olinkan girl. She as an uncircumcised maiden has to face the jeers and sneers of her own friends as her uncircumcised vagina is “thought of as a monstrosity” (*PSJ*: 121).

Leadership Guidance

Tashi's desire to be liked and to be right impels her to follow the instructions sent by the leader of the community from prison, he is particularly strong in his assertions: “We must return to the purity of our own culture and traditions. That we must not neglect our ancient customs” (*PSJ*: 117). The Olinkan “thought him a god” (*PSJ*: 117) and they “believed everything he said” (*PSJ*: 118). They thought that “he knew best...about everything” (*PSJ*: 118). He bore Olinka tribal markings on his face and he was obviously proud of it.

It was, therefore, difficult for Tashi and her people to hear objections of missionaries who had made a big campaign against the Olinkan tradition of scarring their faces. He was also very particular in his emphasis on the Olinkan tradition of female initiation into womanhood through circumcision : “From prison Our Leader said we must keep ourselves clean and pure as we had been since time immemorial-- by cutting out unclean parts of our bodies” (*PSJ*: 121).

The Hold of the Terrifying Myth

Every Olinkan “knew that if a woman was not circumcised her unclean parts would grow so long they'd soon touch her thighs; she'd become masculine and arouse herself. No man could enter her because her own erection would be in his way” (*PSJ*: 121).

Tashi, too, like everyone else in the community believed it “even though no one had ever seen it... And yet the elders, particularly, acted as if everyone had witnessed this evil, and not nearly a long enough time ago” (*PSJ*: 121).

Tashi had experienced the pleasure of love-making, but even then she gave it up in order to “be accepted as a real woman by the Olinka people, “to stop the jeering” (*PSJ*: 122). Otherwise she feared she would be “considered a potential traitor,” and would not be trusted “besides, Our Leader, [who is]our Jesus Christ, said we must keep all our old ways and that no Olinka man--in this he echoed the great liberator Kenyatta--would even think of marrying a woman who was not circumcised” (*PSJ*: 122).

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Forced Volunteering

Tashi's ignorance of the consequences of circumcision, the naive credence she gives to the myths about the elongated vagina of uncircumcised woman and her urge for being accepted by her community lead her to volunteer herself for clitoridectomy. The aura of sacredness surrounding the ritual of this female initiation influences her with a kind of religious fervour to undergo this painful operation. She is carried away by her keenness to show loyalty to her Olinkan leader who was leading a "struggle for political freedom and cultural survival of his people in the face of cultural invasion of the Western world"(Hernton:68) backed by its power of technology, industry and material wealth.

Preserving Cultural Identity through Adherence to the Dicta of the Myth

Walker clearly brings out that it is Tashi's keenness to preserve her Olinkan identity as well as her fears of her culture being destroyed by the white that motivate her to get herself circumcised. She becomes so much obsessed with the idea that neither the influence of Christian missionaries nor the love of Adam and the friendship of Olivia can dissuade her from submitting her body to the knife of *tsunga*, the circumciser. In fact, when Olivia pleads with her not to get herself genitally mutilated, Tashi fails to control her feelings of indignation and accuses Olivia and her family of being "the white people's wedge" (*PJS*:22). She spits with contempt and snubs Olivia and the missionaries of trying to convert Olinkans. She exudes the feeling of cultural pride which makes her insensitive to the feelings of even her best friend and well-wisher, Olivia. She hurts Olivia's heart when she looks at her and her people with pity and scorn: "You don't even know what you've lost! And the nerve of you, to bring us a God someone else chose for you! He is the same as those two stupid braids you wear, and that long hot dress with its stupid high collar!" (*PSJ*: 23).

Misplaced Loyalty to Culture

As a mark of loyalty to her culture, she takes off her "gingham Mother Hubbard"(PSJ: 22) and what is left of her dress now rides negligently about her loins. She does not have a rifle or a spear, but she has found a long stick with this she jabs at the ground near Olivia's feet. Tashi, then declares, "all I care about now is the struggle for our people" (*PSJ*: 22).

Imbued with a feeling of glory in her Olinkan identity, Tashi mounted the donkey, dug her heels into its flanks and trotted out of the encampment like a heroine with a stick in her hand. Thus, Tashi went to *tsunga* wanting "the operation because she recognized it as the only remaining definitive stamp of Olinkan tradition"(PSJ: 64). She felt that the operation would join her to the women warriors of her community, "whom she envisioned as strong, invincible. Completely woman. Completely African. Completely Olinka" (*PSJ*: 64).

Tashi, in this way, tries to find an answer to the crisis of identity she has to confront as an individual as well as an Olinkan woman. She seeks it by conforming to the tradition of her community. She submits her body for female initiation and *tsunga* performs the painful

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operation, her clitoris is excised and only a very tiny aperture is left by tsunga “after fastening together the raw sides of Tashi's vagina with a couple of thorns and inserting a straw so that in healing, the traumatized flesh might not grow together, shutting the opening completely” (*PSJ*: 65).

Tashi, in this way, subordinates herself to the will of community embedded in its traditions. Like millions of Olinkan girls, she undergoes genital mutilation done, as Walker tells, with “shards of unwashed glass, tin-can tops, rusty razors and dull knives of traditional circumcisers” (*PSJ*: 284). This was performed with all the sacredness of a ritual, the accomplishment of which is celebrated by women by preparing special foods and cleaning house, by washing, oiling and perfuming the body of the circumcised. The attraction of affirming her Olinkan identity is so overwhelming for Tashi that she not only fails to exercise her faculty of reasoning and the independence of her mind, but also sacrifices the claims of her body for a natural life of fulfillment and wholeness.

Effect on the Physical and Psychic Life

Walker's main purpose in this novel does not seem to be limited only to a description of the practice of female circumcision, however. Her main concern, it appears, is to expose fully the terrible consequences of this ritual on the physical and psychic life of its victims. She brings out with great courage and candour how this operation cripples women, bodily and emotionally, rendering them incapable of leading a normal human life. She reveals clearly the limitations inherent in conformism as a strategy of negotiating with the problems encountered by her characters, both as individuals and as members of their community.

Against Blind Commitment to Any External Authority

It is evident from the novel that blind commitment to any external authority, be it an idea, traditions ritual or instruction, creates more problems than it seems to solve. It may offer a temporary solution to some of the problems at a particular juncture, but it may lead one deeper into a serious state of crisis. The way Walker underlines the anti-human forces demanding conformity makes it amply clear that she has no patience with anything that impedes the individual's quest for wholeness. Walker alerts her reader to the dangers implicit in the attitude of conformism by dramatizing powerfully the consequences Tashi has to suffer for her uncritical acceptance of the tradition of female circumcision.

The writer's intentions to attack this inhuman practice become obvious when she describes the appalling effects of genital mutilation on the life and personality of Tashi. Before the operation, she was a girl full of vitality, love and life. She exuded cheerfulness and a feeling of peace, both with herself and her friends, Adam and Olivia. Her easy and playful manner underlined the confidence and self-assurance with which she seemed poised to take of life. But when one meets her in the Mbele camp after the operation, she looks utterly broken and devastated.

Effects of Mutilation

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Adam, on his return from England, tears across the country to find Tashi in the Mbele camp, lying on a mat in the most unhygienic conditions, he does not know whether to laugh or cry at her sight. Tashi also feels the same. Her eyes do see Adam “*but they do not register his being*” (PSJ: 45). She has to battle with the flies “*eager to eat at the feast*” (PSJ: 45) provided by her wounds.

After the operation, Tashi presents sharp contrast to her former self. It is painful to see how passive Tashi has become: “No longer cheerful or impish. Her movements, which had always been graceful, and quick with the liveliness of her personality, now became merely graceful. Slow. Studied” (PSJ: 66). Her cheerful smiles no longer played freely on her face and “that her soul had been dealt a mortal blow was plain to anyone who dared look into her eyes” (PSJ: 66). Her “own proud walk had become a shuffle” (PSJ: 65).

Circumcision gives Tashi untold pain, physical and mental. Her entire physiological system as a woman was disturbed and it now took her a quarter of an hour to pee. Her menstrual periods lasted ten days. She was incapacitated by cramps nearly half the month”(PSJ: 65). She suffered cramps because the aperture left by tsunga after sewing her vagina is so narrow that residual flow “could not find its way out...”(PSJ: 65). There was the odor, too, of soured blood which no amount of scrubbing could ever wash off. She appears totally broken and battered by this experience, her cheerful spirit, her self-possession and self- assurance seem to desert her forever.

Walker, through this depiction of the havoc done to Tashi's body and mind underlines in no uncertain terms the hazards all Olinkan women run by their conformity to the tradition of circumcision. The uncritical acceptance of what the elders of the community lay down for these women dooms them to pain and misery for the rest of their life. They are to internalize the belief that a woman can enjoy real pleasure when she subjects her body to the experiences of pains. An Olinkan woman is conditioned to associate her pleasures with pain which she is destined to receive each time her vagina is sewn. In fact, this pain becomes for her synonymous with love-making and, thus, an integral and inescapable part of her existence.

Possibility of Death

Walker, thus, shows that genital mutilation not only renders a woman incapable of normal human life, but it also becomes too painful for the victim to endure. Crude methods and primitive tools such as “unwashed, unsterilized sharp stones, tin tops, bits of glass, rusty razors and gringy knives used by the tsunga” (PSJ: 251) can infect and kill the innocent little girls and women. The incident of Dura's death, presented poignantly in the novel, serves as an illustration of the ritual of circumcision as an instrument of torture and destruction. The reader learns about the incident of Dura's death mainly, through the memories of Tashi, who recalls vividly how Dura, her sister had “bled and bled and bled and then there was death”(PSJ: 83).

Tashi remembers the day she “had crept, hidden in the elephant grass, to the isolated hut from which came howls of pain and terror” (PSJ: 75). She saw a row of dazed girls of Dura's age lying underneath a tree on the bare ground near the hut. Dura, however, was not among them and

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Tashi “knew instinctively that it was Dura being held down and tortured inside the hut” (*PSJ*: 75). These, “inhuman shrieks that rent the air”(*PSJ*: 75) chilled Tashi's heart. Suddenly, the shrieks stopped and there was silence. And then came tsunga carrying something insignificant and unclean between her toes which she flung in the direction of a waiting hen. The bird gobbled down the tiny object in one quick movement of beak and neck. The practice of female initiation thus results in “Dura's *murder*”(*PSJ*: 83).

What makes the nightmare of Dura's shrieks and pain more ghastly and inhuman is the way it is just buried away into silence even by women of her village. Tashi could not believe that these were the same women whom she had known all her life, the same women who had known Dura and whom Dura had known, Dura had often gone to buy matches or snuff for them nearly every day. She had carried their water jugs on her head but even then these women were tight lipped about her death. Like Tashi, the reader, too, feels intrigued and disturbed by the silence of women. In fact, this is what the writer is probably seeking to do in order to expose the repressive nature of the taboos imposed by the elders of the Olinkan community. Nobody talks about Dura's death; nobody can even jerk a tear because it might bring bad luck to the community.

Dumb Victims, Dumb Cattle

This compliance with the prescribed norms of behaviour tends to reduce these women to the level of dumb driven cattle. They can neither feel nor think independently nor can they act in accordance with their natural human impulses. The way they have to stifle their grief and act as if nothing has happened only indicates their slave-like position in their own society governed by superstitions and taboos. This subservience to external authority may give them some sense of identity and a feeling of freedom from the responsibility of the consequences of their actions, but it certainly perpetuates the tyranny of conventions.

Crippling Consequences on the Psyche

The novel, thus, underlines how conformity to the practice of genital mutilation inflicts pain and death on its innocent victims. Walker's disapproval of the attitude of acceptance of this cruel practice is further evident when she depicts its “crippling consequences on the psychic life of the circumcised women”(Sanderson:24). She candidly brings out how it undermines the rights of women for a natural life of wholeness and fulfillment. She provides insights into the damage done to the psyche of the woman when she is forced to pass through the traumatic experiences of circumcision. She shows that the operation not only scraps away some of the most valuable parts of the body of a woman but also leaves a permanent scar on her psyche.

The pain of circumcision traumatizes her so acutely that she is hardly ever able to come out of the rest of her life. It goes so deep into her psyche that she tends to associate her sexual experiences with this pain. As her vagina is sewn tightly and the passage left is so narrow that every act of love making means fresh pain to her. This makes it impossible for a woman to lead a normal and natural life. She can no longer experience the moments of consummation in love and, thus, the demands of her body and soul remain unfulfilled. This results in the repression of her

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natural sexual urges and energies, throwing her health and personality out of gears. This repression of her natural self creates tension, sickness and problems of maladjustment.

The disruptive effects on Tashi's psyche begin to surface when Adam, her lover, brings her home. Even as Adam marries her, she protests that "in America, he would grow ashamed of her because of the scars on her face" (*PSJ*: 66). Though nobody speaks of the hidden scars between her thin legs and of the smell, her embarrassment at it is so complete that she takes to "spending half the month completely hidden from human contact, virtually buried" (*PSJ*: 67). Her embarrassment and her tendency to avoid human company indicate the beginning of her feelings of alienation from the springs of life, health and happiness. Her consciousness of being an odd figure in a society of normal human individuals haunts her so acutely that she begins to sink into a state of mental tension and depression.

The trauma of circumcision turns her into a nervous wreck. She suffers frequent fits of melancholy and depression. Her grip on life becomes so tenuous that she tries desperately to get some hold on it. The way she clutches her pillow shaking with fear at night, indicates very clearly how her life has been turned into a terror by the excision of her vulva. It has completely dispossessed her of her right to fulfillment as a woman. The possibility of sexual pleasure, the satisfaction that flows from procreation, and the feeling of self-worth and love as a whole woman become painfully alien to Tashi. The frustration of her sexual instinct is evident when she dreams of a tower, a tall tower and she is inside it:

It is cool at first, and as you descend lower and lower to where I'm kept, it becomes dank and cold, as well. It's dark. There is an endless repetitive sound that is like the faint scratch of a baby's fingernails on paper. And there are millions of things moving about me in the dark. I cannot see them. And they've broken my wings I see them lying crossed in a corner like discarded oars. Oh, and they're forcing something in one end of me, and from the other they are busy pulling something out (*PSJ*: 27).

Guilt and Fear

The passage is a revealing account of how clitoridectomy has knocked her out of the rhythms of natural life. The description of the inside of tower as cold is suggestive of the loss of her ability and capacity to experience the warmth and pleasures of sex. The "endless repetitive sound that is like the faint scratch of baby's fingernails on paper" (*PSJ*: 26) indicates that her natural urge and energy, seeking expression in motherhood, have been stifled, causing dislocation and disharmony in her life. This alienation from her natural self fills her with weird feelings of guilt and fear. The acceptance of genital circumcision is an act that amounts to violation of the very principle of life the consequences of which she cannot escape. The life-force symbolized by millions of things moving around her in the dark seems to take a revenge on her for divorcing herself from a woman's natural course of fulfillment.

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This tends to devitalize her and she feels like a bird whose wings have been broken. Tashi loses her sense of self-worth and begins to have feeling of self-disdain: "I am long and fat and the color of tobacco spit. Gross! And I cannot move" (PSJ: 27). She speaks about "*the strange compulsion*" she sometimes experiences "*of wanting to mutilate herself*" (PSJ: 51). One morning, Adam, much to his horror, wakes to find the foot of their bed red with blood. Completely unaware and feeling nothing, she had hurt and smeared herself with blood (PSJ: 51). Circumcision and the resultant frustration unsettle her mind so much that she cannot respond to any situation of stress in a balanced manner. Her behaviour in the face of pressures is marked by fits of depression and violence. For example, when she learns about Lisette's pregnancy by Adam, she flies into a rage that subsides "into a yearlong deterioration and rancorous depression"(PSJ: 127). She feels upset so deeply that she tries to kill herself and speaks of even murdering Benny, their retarded son--a legacy of the brutal practice of genital mutilation. She is in such a depressed and unbalanced state of mind that she loses self-control completely and runs to assault Pierre when he comes to see his father in America. The moment he gets out of taxi, she, like a dark specter moves to the steps of her house "picks up a large jagged stone, grey as grief" and strikes, "him just above the teeth"(PSJ: 145). She had begun to collect stones the day she had learnt of Pierre's birth"(PSJ: 145). She throws stones incessantly at Pierre as if, "like Kali," she has "a dozen of arms"(PSJ: 145).

Tendency to Become Violent and Catharsis

It is clear from the analysis of her behaviour that Tashi's psychological compulsions to indulge in violence against herself and others are rooted in her circumcision as well as her repressed grief over the death of her sister, Dura. This emerges further particularly when Tashi is under the treatment of Mzee, a "doctor of the soul"(PSJ: 49). The doctor subjects her to psycho-drama and shows her grainy black and white films. It is during the screening of these films that something peculiar happens to her. The doctor explains a scene screening several small children being prepared for adulthood. The film then shows a large fighting cock "walking freely and crowing mightily"(PSJ: 73). The scene fills Tashi with such an overwhelming fear that she faints: "It was exactly as if I had been hit over the head. Except there was no pain" (PSJ: 73).

As a compulsive act of catharsis, Tashi begins to paint what becomes "a rather extended series of ever larger and more fearsome fighting cocks"(PSJ: 73). Then one day she draws a foot "sweating and shivering" (PSJ: 73). She feels "terribly sick"(PSJ: 73) as she paints the foot and the cock which grow larger and larger in size. Then suddenly one day, she realizes that the foot she painted was the foot of a woman, the foot of tsunga. This lifts the lid off her brain and she clearly remembers the death of her sister, Dura. She now vividly recalls how tsunga after circumcising Dura came out of the hut holding the circumcised flesh between her toes and throwing it to waiting cocks. The mystery surrounding Dura's fate suddenly disappears and Tashi realizes that it was not death but a murder. The causes of disorder in Tashi's physical and psychic life also become clear to the reader with this incident it was her repressed grief over the death of her sister, Dura, and the trauma of her own circumcision which have combined to throw her off the hinges.

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Imparting Realism to the Story

The way Walker narrates the social and cultural issues imparts an element of realism to her handling of this theme. Her fiction gains in depth and complexity when she deals with the tendency of individuals like Tashi to conform to the pattern of thought and behaviour treated as sacred in their socio-cultural milieu. It also underlines Walker's critical attitude towards her own African culture. As an enlightened woman championing the cause of freedom, equality and dignity, regardless of race, colour and gender, she holds the customs and traditions of her community to rigorous critical scrutiny and denounces them strongly wherever they seem to undermine basic human values. This, however, does not mean that Walker has no love for her people and their culture. She only exposes all that is unnatural and anti-human in the customs of her people. In this, she seems to be motivated by her commitment to the democratic principles of freedom, dignity and to a life of wholeness.

Walker's Love for African People

Walker's sympathies for the people of Africa are reflected very clearly in a number of ways in her fiction. The very fact that she delivers a scathing attack on all that weakens and destroys African people and their culture is a sure evidence of the deep love she cherishes for them. She feels deeply disturbed at the sight of poverty, hunger and disease afflicting the people who once used to be an embodiment of strength and stamina. Her agony is seen when she describes the sick and destitute. She ascribes the spread of AIDS in Africa to such practices as clitoridectomy which tend to destroy "their country's future doctors, dentists, carpenters and engineers. Their country's fathers and mothers. Teachers. Dancers, singers, rebels, hellraisers, poets" (*PSJ*: 250-51). What seems to disturb Walker the most is people's ignorance and incomprehension of the causes responsible for their doom.

Tashi appears to express the sentiments of her creator when she feels angered by the "animal-like ignorance and acceptance" (*PSJ*: 250) of her countrymen waiting for death. She, scornfully calls it "the assigned role of the African: to suffer, to die, and not know why" (*PSJ*: 250).

Walker regrets deeply the loss of power and prosperity which African people once possessed proudly. They owned hectares and hectares of land but now they own nothing. They have been "reduced to the position of beggars-except that there was no one near enough to beg from, in the desert" (*PSJ*: 22) they were in. Her love for African people and their culture is not sentimental and irrational. Her fiction indeed provides a critical insight into the strength as well as weaknesses of the cultural practices prevalent in African community. The way she seeks to demolish the myth that a woman is basically lascivious and her genital parts are unclean bears testimony to her impassioned rejection of all that is irrational and baseless in the beliefs of African people.

Walker suggests that uncritical acceptance of such beliefs and traditions has done terrible damage to the life of the Africans and has even threatened their survival. The spread of AIDS due to the genital mutilation jeopardizes the very existence of these people. As a major artist,

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Walker goes deeper and tries to bring out some of the factors responsible for the construction and prevalence of such myths. She suggests that it is man's desire to weaken and cripple woman in order to be in full possession and control of her life that is behind the conventions like initiation. Her angry rejection of this irrational male strategy to enslave and degrade woman is evident when we hear a woman like tsunga, the circumciser, coming out against it frankly and strongly.

The Confession of the Circumciser, Tsunga

Tsunga is a professional circumciser, and she has been doing this assigned role only for compliance to the traditions constructed by men in her community. Though she performs operations, she questions the validity and justice of the practice. She is indignant when she asks: "Did Our Leader not keep his penis? Is there evidence that even one testicle was removed? The man had eleven children by three different wives. I think this means the fellow's private parts were intact" (*PSJ*: 244). She sneers at women for being "too cowardly to look behind a smiling face. A man smiles and tells them they will look beautiful weeping, and they send for the knife" (*PSJ*: 244).

Walker is indeed bitter when she accuses women of accepting the man-made myth that women get pleasure from the pain men inflict by breaking into their body. "The bitches are used to it," she says (*PSJ*: 245). This practice has been invented by males to have control over women and to assure them of their manliness: "It is only because a woman is made into a woman that a man becomes a man" (*PSJ*: 246). This tendency of man to control woman, Walker suggests, is an evidence of his selfishness as well as his lack of tolerance and respect for the individual identity of a woman. At the same time, her criticism of women, too, is also demonstrated when she brings out their naiveté in conforming to base and degenerate inhuman practices that dispossess them completely of their right to a life of wholeness and fulfillment as women.

To Conclude

Walker's fiction is a plea for resistance to any authority outside one's self. She underlines the necessity of resisting all oppressive forces that impair one's attempts to realize one's humanity. Reasoned resistance is necessary in order to cure one's society of various ills such as oppression and exploitation based on racism and sexism. According to Walker, uncritical acceptance of false beliefs, ideas and conventions created and propagated craftily by forces with vetted interests only serves to perpetuate the discrimination and oppression in various forms. When ideas and customs constructed cleverly to legitimize the dominance of one sex over the other are internalized by the victim, the possibility of establishing a just social order becomes bleaker and remoter. This only serves to maintain status quo and perpetuates inequality and injustice.

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Distress among Flood Affected Students: Effects and Intervention

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Abstract

The present paper discusses the findings of a study conducted to examine effects of distress among flood students in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province of Pakistan. The study used mixed method approach. Sample included 150 students whose homes were partially or completely destroyed by flood. The study used Child's Reaction to Traumatic Events Scale-Revised (CRTES-Revised) by Jones, Fletch, & Ribbe (2002) as instrument.

It was found that students felt a sense of uncertainty about their ability to continue future education. It was found that students' distress score was high on CRTES-Revised (mean score=64.5, standard deviation=13.1) for students of all the ages ranging from 11-18 years.

Students' distress score was also high for students living in various types of residence including own homes, tents, living with relatives, in rental houses, and in other places. Further focus group discussion revealed that family and peer-group structure of many students was changed. Attendance was especially as many students were involved

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in getting material supplies for their families and due eruption of communal diseases. The study recommended counseling therapy for flood affected students with some special arrangement for organizing co-curricular activities to reduce distress level of students.

Key words: Posttraumatic Stress Disorder; Flood effects, flood affects student, stress intervention strategy

Introduction



Sometimes a tragic event happens that touches every member of a community. People experience shock, fear, and anxiety. Children are affected by their parents' response to such events, and by what they see and hear. The closer children and youth are to the tragedy, the greater is its impact. It can also affect their emotional well being. This impact can be immediate or can come at a later stage (Government of South Australia, 2005, p.4).

Natural disasters result in economic loss, relocation, health problems, and mental health issues. Children comprise a significant percentage of the victims of such disasters and they are more vulnerable to its effects (Evans & Oehler-Stinnett, 2006, p.34).

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Recent Floods in Pakistan



Same is the case with recent floods in August 2010 in Pakistan, which are termed as the country's worst humanitarian disaster. About 14 million people were affected. People were left homeless as the floods destroyed their homes, villages and livelihood. Many were left without proper food, shelter and medical care. People have taken refuge in schools, on the highways and other high ground (Tausif, 2010).

The floods affected communities in Pakistan and especially in the province of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. District Charsadda was one of the worst hit areas of the province. Waters reached heights of more than 10 feet that uprooted trees, and destroyed property, buildings and bridges. The floodwaters were contaminated with mud and gravel that was deposited in flood affected areas causing further problems.

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Problems after the Floods



Various problems after the floods included loss of life and property, damage to infrastructure, impact on livelihoods, feeling of uncertainty, variation in response and recovery efforts, inequities in relief aid, tents and temporary shelters, and long-term rehabilitation planning. The damage estimates were in billions of dollars. The floods resulting in many social, emotional, and educational problems also affected schools and students.

Many emotional reactions of affected people begin from problems of living caused by the disaster. Children's symptoms can differ depending upon the time passed after the disaster and the nature of the intervening events. The symptoms become less severe over time, but can be present for many months. Survivors respond to active interest

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and concern, and support systems are very important to recovery. “Disaster stress and grief reactions are normal responses to an abnormal situation” (Feinberg, n.d., pp.1- 3).



Mental Health of the Community

Floods have a major impact on the mental health of a community. The impact is related to the severity and loss, and is greater in lower socio-economic and minority religious sub-groups (Assanangkornchai, Tangboonngam, & Edwards, 2004). After a disaster, the psychological well-being of children suffer when they observe scenes of destruction, experience a life threatening event, there is damage to their home and community, and they are separated from their family members (Picou & Marshall, 2007, p.770).

The impact of floods is recognized as complex and many-sided. Economic impacts are featured more prominently than social impacts. There is a growing awareness that social impacts are under-

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represented in post-flood assessment (Werritty, Houston, Ball, Tavendale & Black, 2007, p.1). Help and support from community and school can moderate the effects of such stress.



Relevance of Schools

Schools can support and help students during and after a crisis. These can effectively serve as the place where students can go for help. School staff can provide them with support, counseling, and other services during and after a crisis. Schools can also reach out to parents and to the community after a crisis.

School-based intervention is an effective, logical, and practical way to help the affected people. It is more effective when such efforts are coordinated and supported with outside agencies and resources, as affected people will receive a warm, personal, supportive, and effective response. It can meet the needs of students, parents, and staff during and after a crisis. It strengthens the idea that, in a community, Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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schools should be a focal point for the development of young people (Schonfeld & Newgass, 2003, pp.1-2).

Schools should understand natural disaster effects, for example economic loss, relocation and physical and mental health issues. While most children are able to cope, a significant number of students develop severe symptoms and Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (Evans & Oehler-Stinnett, 2006).

It is important to create a learning environment in schools that is responsive to the needs of flood-affected students. Students spend a significant portion of each day in schools and schools are second only to home. Schools are, therefore, important in the recovery process for such students.

The Present Study

The present study provides preliminary information about issues and problems of flood-affected students. It assesses the impacts of recent floods on elementary and secondary school students. The researchers were directly engaged with students affected by floods. The findings of the study will help to flood related problems in the affected areas and might be applicable to similar situations.

Many studies are conducted on natural disasters and their impact on schools, students, communities, and the general population.

Effects of Natural Disasters

Burke & Moccia, et al. (1986) studied the emotional distress in fifth-grade children ten months after a flood disaster. 19 5th-grade children wrote stories about the coming winter. Stories were also written by 28 5th grade children from a nearby but non-flooded town. These were assessed for signs of distress, including fear, depression, and anxiety.

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Children from the flooded area demonstrated more distress than those from the non-flooded area. Only girls showed this effect; for boys, there was no difference between flooded and non-flooded groups. The results suggested that distress could persist as long as 10 months after a natural disaster.

Canino, Bravo, Rubio-Stipec & Woodbury (1990) studied the 1985 Puerto Rico floods on mental health symptoms and diagnoses. They measured the extent to which this effect was influenced by either demographic characteristics or previous symptoms. Depression, generalized anxiety, and PTSD were significantly more common among those exposed to a disaster. The increase in stress-related disorders in the exposed sample indicated that disaster stress increased the mental morbidity of the population.

Similarly, Lima, Pai, Santacruz & Lozano (1991) evaluated 102 adult victims of low socioeconomic status living in tent camps 8 months after the Armero disaster in Colombia to ascertain the level of psychiatric morbidity. The screening instrument identified 91% of the subjects as emotionally distressed and they met DSM-III criteria for a psychiatric disorder. The most frequent diagnoses were PTSD and major depression.

Study of Children's Behavior

On the other hand, Durkin & Khan, et al. (1993) studied the effects of a natural disaster on children behavior. They examined 162 children (aged 2-9 years) both before and after a flood disaster to establish whether stressful events played a causal role in the development of behavioral disorders in children. Subjects were reevaluated five months after the flood disaster. They found that the prevalence of aggressive behavior and enuresis in children rose sharply after the disaster.

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Jeney-Gammon & Daugherty, et al. (1993) examined the relationship between children's coping styles and self-reported levels of depressive symptoms after a hurricane. 257 3rd to 5th grade children participated in the study, five months after the disaster. The Children's Depression Inventory and Kidcope (a checklist to assess children's coping styles) were used for the study. Social withdrawal, self-blaming, and emotional regulation were found to be associated with more severe depressive symptoms.

Also Bahrlick & Parker, et al. (1998) studied the effects of stress on children's long-term memory following a major hurricane. Stress was objectively defined as low, moderate, or high according to the severity of damage to the child's home. One hundred 3 and 4-year-old children received a structured interview 2-6 months after the hurricane. Older children recalled and elaborated more than younger children. Prompted recall was greater than spontaneous recall. These findings could be applied to the effects of stress on the amount recalled by children giving retrospective accounts of temporally extended, naturalistic events.

Trauma in Adolescence

Bolton & O'Ryan, et al. (2000) examined the long-term course of general psychopathology following trauma in adolescence. Sample consisted of 216 people (11-17 years olds) who survived the sinking of the ship "Jupiter" in Greek waters. The survivors showed increased rates of diagnosis in a range of anxiety and affective disorders during the follow-up period. The highest rates were among the survivors who had developed Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD), Onset of anxiety and affective disorders varied between the survivor and control groups had decreased by the time of follow-up but were still obvious.

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Jones, Frary, Cunningham, Weddle & Kaiser (2001, p.103) examined the predictive utility of several hypothesized mediators of children's reactions to disaster. They found higher levels of intrusive symptomatology for girls and for elementary school students as compared with their middle school counterparts.



Rothe, Lewis, Castillo-Matos, Martinez, Busquets & Martinez (2002) studied Posttraumatic stress disorder among Cuban children and adolescents after release from a refugee camp. Majority of the children reported moderate to severe PTSD symptoms. 86% of the children reported that the refugee experience had severely affected most of their peers. A significant dose-effect relationship was found between the number of stressors and the severity of self-reported PTSD symptoms. A modest relationship was found between withdrawn behavior and children's feelings that they would die at sea and witnessing violence at the camps. Age and witnessing violence in the camps were moderately associated with PTSD.

Mental Health Problem

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Assanangkornchai, Tangboonngam & Edwards (2004) found that 40% respondents had a mental health problem. These were significantly associated with respondents' perception of the severity of loss, the ability to collect possessions, and showing a negative response to the flood. High Impact Event Scale scores were found to be associated with the severity of loss, lower socio-economic status and minority religion.

Norris, Murphy, Baker & Perilla (2004) studied PTSD over four waves of a panel study of Mexico's 1999 flood. Samples of adults were interviewed 6, 12, 18, and 24 months after the floods and mudslides. PTSD was prevalent in areas where mass casualties and displacement had occurred. Both linear and quadratic effects of time emerged, as PTSD symptoms initially declined but then stabilized. Differences between cities decreased as time passed. There was substantial Co morbidity between PTSD and Major Depressive Disorder.

Otto, Boos, Dalbert, Schoops, & Hoyer (2005) investigated the influence of the belief in a just world (BJW) on important dimensions of mental health and psychopathology (e.g., depression). It was hypothesized that belief in just world was able to buffer psychopathological symptoms after a natural disaster. Regression analyses showed that personal but not general BJW was negatively associated with anxiety, depression and general psychological distress. BJW did not reveal an association with posttraumatic symptomatology. The results supported the assertion that Belief in just world buffers mental health.

Social Support: Mobilization and Deterioration

Norris, Baker, Murphy & Kaniasty (2005) examined the social support mobilization and deterioration after Mexico's 1999 flood. 561
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randomly selected adults were interviewed. They found that Perceived social support and social embeddedness were lower than normal. Displaced women were likely to experience deterioration in social functioning. Gender disparities in social support increased as time passed.

Picou & Marshall (2007, pp.777-8) studied the impact of hurricane Katrina and suggested that a significant proportion of the displaced students continued to suffer from stress, depression, anxiety, and uncertainty about their future. It resulted in poor academic performance, discipline problems, and irregular school attendance. These negative social, psychological, Social and educational impacts might continue for some students well into the future.

Werritty, Houston, Ball, Tavendale & Black (2007) found with respect to floods in Scotland that intangible impacts of floods (non-material and/or emotional losses) registered markedly higher values than tangible impacts (material loss), and immediate impacts were generally higher than lasting impacts. Intangible immediate impacts included the stress of the flood, the anxiety of being out of one's home, the discomfort of living in temporary accommodation and the time and effort in dealing with insurers and builders to return home as soon as possible. Intangible lasting impacts (focusing on the time and effort to return to normal life) were more sustained. These included fear of future flooding, strains within the family and loss of sentimental/irreplaceable items.

Tsunami Effect

Math, Tandon, Girimaji, Benegal, Kumar, Hamza, Jangam, & Nagaraja (2007) while studying the psychological impact of tsunami on children and adolescents from the Andaman and Nicobar islands found that the most common psychiatric morbidities among the primary and secondary survivors were adjustment disorders,

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depression, panic disorder, posttraumatic stress disorder, Schizophrenia, and other disorders.

Raj & Subramony (2008) studied the effect of 2004 tsunami on the residents of the coastal town of Nagapattinam, India. The study was conducted on 134 adolescents (mean age, 16) one month after the disaster. The affected group of adolescents (who experienced loss of life of family member(s), and/or destruction of house) with a group of unaffected adolescents (living 12 km from the affected area and had no loss of life of family member(s), and/or destruction of house). The groups differed significantly on perceived stress while differences were not significant for avoidance, intrusion, hyper arousal symptoms of PTSD. While gender differences were significant for perceived stress, intrusion, hyper arousal, and impact of events were noticed.

Impact on Adults

Further, Mason, Andrews & Upton (2010) examined the psychological symptoms associated with the aftermath of the flood amongst adults living in the affected communities in the UK. They found that 27.9% participants met criteria for symptoms associated with PTSD, 24.5% for anxiety and 35.1% for depression.

Females had higher mean scores on PTSD, anxiety and depression as compared to males. Vacating homes after flood, previous experience of flooding and poor health were associated with greater psychological distress. Although it was not possible to determine if the symptoms were a direct consequence of the flood, symptoms of distress were significant issues amongst affected communities affected deserving attention to prevent chronic distress.

The British Red Cross (2010, p.16), while studying the impact of recent flooding in Greater Belfast, found that the emotional and practical consequences could be devastating and that support needs
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could be immense. Social impact included lack of confidence in response agencies. Older people were hesitant to leave homes. There was strong community resilience where neighbors helped each other in floods and in family separation. Physical and psychological impact included increased anxiety and fear, loss of weight, lack of appetite, disturbed sleep, fatigue and depression etc.

Objectives of the Study

The objective of the study was to examine post effects of the flood among elementary and secondary school students. The study particularly investigated the distress level of the affected students.

Methodology

The study was descriptive in nature. The study was delimited to the schools of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province of Pakistan that were badly affected by the flood.

Participants of the Study

The sample of the study comprised of 150 students. These students were directly affected by floods as their homes were completely destroyed or damaged. Their age ranged from 11 to 18 years (Mean=14.9, SD=2.1). Average number of family members of these students was 9 with standard deviation of 3.7.

Instrumentation

The Child's Reaction to Traumatic Events Scale-Revised (CRTES-Revised) by Jones, Fletcher & Ribbe (2002) was used for the purpose of study. The scale is a revision of the Horowitz Impact of Events Scale (Horowitz, Wilner & Alvaraz, 1979) and is used to quantify psychological responses to stressful life events. It is developed on a 4 Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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point rating scale i.e. not at all (0), rarely (1), sometimes (3), and often (5); and consists of 23 items. For CRTES a low distress total score is 0-14, moderate distress score is 15-27, and high distress score is 28 and higher. A score of 28 or higher is suggested for diagnosis of Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD).

The scale was translated in the national language, Urdu, to make it understandable to students. Questions regarding general information about students were also asked. In the end of the scale an open-ended question was added to get further information about any other problems faced by students.

Two focus groups discussions were held with the school principal and 12 teachers. The discussions were of 40 minutes. In each of the discussions the school principal and six teachers participated. The discussions were led by the researcher. The participants belonged to the same school, so they felt comfortable speaking in the group. Focus group discussions provided a means to explicate detailed and in depth information about flood affected students.

These discussions focused on the teachers' perceptions of issues and problems related to flood affected students. It helped reveal the impact of floods on students more clearly. Participants were given the opportunity to directly involve in the research process through their own words and experiences. Participants were informed that they could leave at any time, and were told about the research purposes. A discussion guide was used and the discussions were recorded for transcription and analysis.

Focus group discussion questions included opinion questions (What is your opinion about effects of the flood on students? What do you think about the school environment after flood? What is the most serious problem for the students?); Questions surrounding their experience with the flood affected students (Did you see any change

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in the attendance of the students after flood? Did you see any effect of floods on students, school environment and discipline?); Questions regarding students attendance (What is the present situation of drop out students and what trend do you see in the future? and questions for improvement (As a teacher/principal, what betterment you can bring in the present situation? What other measures can be taken to address the situation?)

A pilot test was held with 25 students to refine statements on the scale.

The pilot test provided feedback on the understandability of translated items. The statements were reviewed for improvement on the basis of the pilot test. The scale was personally administered in groups. It was administered in the second week of October; 75 days after the floods. Out of the 150 copies distributed 149 were returned and analyzed for the study. The return rate was 99%. Data were analyzed using features in Microsoft Excel 2002 and SPSS 13.0 for windows.

Data Analysis

Percentages might not add up to 100 because of rounding off. All quoted statements came from the group participants and were translation of their own views and feelings. Data analysis is presented in below tables.

Table 1: information about flood damages

Statement	Option	Frequency	Percentage
Home damage due to floods	Completely destroyed	77	52%
	Partially damaged	72	48%
Damage to school bag, books, &	Completely destroyed	89	60%

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stationary items	Partially damaged	37	25%
	No damage	23	15%
Threat to life during floods	Yes	76	51%
	To some extent	32	21%
	No	41	28%
Pocket money after floods	Increased	1	1%
	Unchanged	14	9%
	Reduced	135	90%
Ability to continue	Yes	110	73%
Future education	Not sure	13	9%
after floods	No	27	18%

Data in Table 1 presented that homes of 52% respondents were completely destroyed by floods while homes of 48% respondents were partially damaged. Similarly 60% respondents reported that their school bags, books, & stationary items were completely destroyed; 25% reported them to be partially damaged, while 15% reported no damage to their school bags, books, & stationary items. Similarly 51% respondents considered that their life was in danger during floods, while 28% respondents did not feel such danger. 90% respondents reported that their pocket money was reduced after floods. Although 73% respondents were optimistic about their ability to continue future education, 9% were not sure and 18% considered that they might not be able to continue future education.

Table 2: Age wise students distress score on CRTES-Revised

Age	N	Mean score	SD
18 years	19	65.0	13.6
17 years	27	64.4	12.1
16 years	20	63.6	13.3
15years	20	66.7	14.0
14years	20	61.4	18.2
13 years	21	66.1	12.3

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12 years	16	62.9	8.1
11 years	07	69	8.2
Total	150	64.5	13.1

Data in table 2 showed age wise distress score of respondents on CRTES-Revised. It showed that respondents distress score was high on the scale (Mean Score=64.5, Standard Deviation=13.1). The trend was prevalent in respondents of all the ages ranging from 11-18 years.

Table 3: Students' residence and distress score on CRTES-Revised

Present residence	N	Percentage	Mean score	SD
Own home	63	42%	63.8	13.1
Living in tents	47	32%	63.8	13.2
With relatives	25	17%	65.6	13.5
Rental house	11	7%	65.6	13.3
Other places	3	2%	77.3	14.2

Data in table 3 presented students' residence and their distress score on CRTES-Revised. It showed that 42% of respondents were living in own home, 32% were living in tents, 17% were living with relatives, 7% in rental houses, and 2% in other places. It showed that respondents distress score was high for all types of residence. The distress score for respondents living with relatives and rental houses was slightly higher than for those living in own residence or in tents. While the distress scores for respondents living in other places was the highest with a mean score of 77.3 and standard deviation of 14.2.

Table 4: Further problems experienced by students

Problems identified by students	Frequency	Percentage
School uniform and stationary	32	21%
Health related problems, (Malaria, typhoid, itching, mal digestion)	21	14%
Our land and crops are damaged, hard to Language in India www.languageinindia.com	19	13%

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feed animals		
we have no money for every day expenses and for education	17	11%
Floods have damaged our bicycles, we have to come to school on foot	15	10%
Our diet is not balanced	15	10%
We have to reconstruct our home on the earliest, as the winter will set in soon. Tents cannot keep us warm in winter	12	8%
I cannot complete home work because we have lost our home	10	7%
Parents are asking us to quit school and work to get some money	5	3%
We have to work to earn a living; can't concentrate on education any more	4	3%
Life is not the same as before	3	2%

Entries in table 4 presented further problems experienced by students. Most prevalent problems reported by students was school uniform and stationary (21%), health related problems (14%), damage to land and crops (13%), lack of money for every day expenses (11%), damage to bicycles and as a result walking long distances on foot (10%), imbalanced diet (10%), reconstructing homes before start of winter (8%), inability to complete home work due to loss of home (7%), parental pressure to quit education (3%), work to support family (3%). 2% students stated that life was not the same for them any more.

Results

It was found that more than half of the respondents considered that their life was in danger during floods. 85% of such students had completely or partially lost their school bags, books and uniforms; causing problems in school work. 27% students felt a sense of

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uncertainty about their ability to continue future education. Pocket money of 90% respondents was reduced after floods. Although most of the students were optimistic about their ability to continue future education, 9% were not sure about it, and 18% considered that they might not be able to continue future education.

Students' distress score was found high on CRTES-Revised (mean score=65.0, standard deviation=13.1) for students of all the ages ranging from 11-18 years. Students' distress score was also high for students living in all types of residence including tents, living with relatives, in rental houses, and in other places. The distress score for respondents living with relatives and rental houses was found to be slightly higher than for those living in own residence or in tents. It was found that the distress score for respondents living in other places was the highest with a mean score of 77.3 and standard deviation of 14.2.

Focus Group Discussion

There were several overall perceptions that continued to be mentioned during focus group discussion. These related to concern for the flood affected students. A significant challenge was to provide students with facilities and resources for learning.

“Students absenteeism is a big problem”, remarked a participant. Classroom attendance was irregular for students displaced by floods. Many students are involved in home rebuilding/repair with their parents, which also was a cause of students absenteeism. Attendance was especially low on the days when aid is distributed among the affected people. It is because many students are involved in getting material supplies for their families. Another reason for students' absenteeism was “increase in flood related diseases like malaria and typhoid”.

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School discipline was also affected. Students faced problems of uniforms, note books, and stationary. It negatively affected their academic performance and participation in other school activities. It was found that 23 students had dropped out of school after floods. Many of them were flood affected students. Some had taken School leaving certificates as they had shifted to other localities.

Participants were of the opinion that the family and peer-group structure of flood affected students was changed as they had to move to other types of residence or areas. “Students major problem is accommodation”. Many students had unstable housing that resulted in attendance problems and was negatively affecting their academic performance. Family relationships were also affected due to living in such environment. Teachers were of the opinion that the environment in which students resided was not conducive to learning. Students had problems in completing homework and in participating in co-curricular activities of the school. It made it difficult for teachers to cover course work in time.

Focus group discussions revealed that many of the flood affected students could not concentrate on school work and appeared depressed. “Students are distressed and dissatisfied, and cannot concentrate on studies”. Another participant added, “School requires them to work, while parents involve them in home reconstruction/repair”. “Parents cannot give much attention to students’ educational needs”. “Every one is in the race to get something from somewhere”. Still no delinquent behavior was reported. Students generally talked about floods, getting aid, and involvement in home repair etc.

Students faced social, economic, health, psychological and educational problems. Overall the floods affected students’ classroom behavior, attendance, and academic performances. Participants believed that community and parent involvement could help solve

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some of the problems of such students. The solution lied in teachers' commitment, allocation of resources, and community involvement. For instance, one participant remarked, "What is needed is share of work; teachers have to work collectively to solve school related problems?" It was concluded that the health, social, educational consequences of floods were overwhelming and that support was needed for flood-affected students. Participants regarded the flood and its aftermath as quite traumatic.

Teachers should make personal efforts to focus on the psychological, social, and educational needs of flood affected students. There is need to provide encouragement for academic success, and to create a conducive school environment for them. Teachers stated that focusing on co curricular activities could contribute in reducing distress level of students.

Discussion

Keeping in view the limited amount of information on the impacts of floods on students, the findings are presented as a preliminary assessment of problems and issues of secondary school students in the aftermath of the worst floods in the history of Pakistan. The effects of floods on students are difficult to measure for a number of reasons. The effects are slower to unfold because of the structure of education system. As statistical indicators for the education sector are generally monitored annually; long term effects of floods will start to surface in the academic year 2010–11. Therefore, these effects would be assessed fully after one or two years. There is a need to look at the context in which of floods keeping in view the role of family, friends, and the environment.

Cooperation between the local authorities and the affected population plays a key role in flood hazard. Effective management of floods requires approaches that incorporate an integrated view of policies,

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plans, strategies, and other social and institutional measures (Dewi, 2007).

The effects of the flood on students are wide-ranging and complex. Detailed study is needed to understand long-term social and psychological impacts of floods on families, students, and teachers. There is need to collect systematic data on the educational impacts of these floods from students, families, teachers, administrators, and other stake holders.

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Presentation of Women in the Gujarati Novel

Kadambarini Maa by Dhiruben Patel

Rajesh Basiya, Ph.D.



Dhiruben Patel

Women in Indian Tradition

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Woman is honoured as goddess among the Hindus in India. She is also respected and worshipped as *Shakti* (goddess of power) and *Laxmi* (goddess of wealth). She is considered an idol of love and sacrifice. But she is also exploited in the name of *tyagmurti* (idol of sacrifice). She takes care of her home as *Annapurna* (Cooking and providing food to full satisfaction). But many times she has to live a life of a captive in the four walls of her home. She has to suppress her aspirations and desires in the name of *maryada* or traditions.

Human life has changed from time to time. With the scientific developments and spread of education many things are changed. Even the old traditions and beliefs have to face many alterations. The life style has many incredible modifications. Even as this process of change is continuous, some of the age-old traditions and conventions continue to have intense impact on the mindset of people.

Patriarchy is still a tradition in rural India. There is an equal contribution of men and women in society. Both are inevitable wheels to run the chariot of life. But man has not yet completely freed himself from some age-old concepts of superiority. Man takes a woman as a useful addition to his life, an object of enjoyment and a possession – *upabhoga*. He has all freedom in life. He decides everything about social, economic, and other aspects of life. Simone de Beauvoir's well-known statement in *The Second Sex* (1997), “one is not born a woman, one becomes one” has a special relevance to India where conventions, religious and social taboos dictate and inhibit woman's individuality. Meena Shiwadkar in *The Image of Indian Woman in the Indo-Anglian Novel* (1979) writes:

The behavioural patterns for the Indian women are predetermined by the family and caste into which one is born and values and traditions of a culture that upholds archetypical images of women. Ancient Indian literature and mythology have internalized the concept of the sacrificing mother and the devoted, enduring wife through the 'image of Sati, Savitri and Shakuntala.

Beauvoir exhorts women to achieve autonomy, to discover and nurture their authentic self through lived experience for self realization. This argument may apply in case of Kadambari, the protagonist in the novel *Kadambarini Maa*, as she negotiates many opposed discourses and moves forward in a quest to know who and what she is.

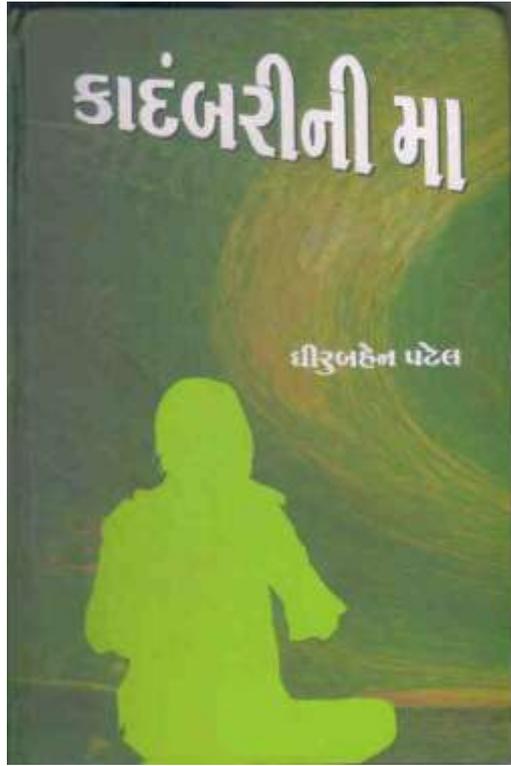
***Kadambari Maa* – A Unique Gujarati Novel**

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Presentation of Women in the Gujarati Novel *Kadambarini Maa* by Dhiruben Patel



Kadambarini Maa, published in 1988, is a unique novel in Gujarati by Dhiruben Patel. It presents the story of a woman who fights for dignity and who struggles against all odds to retain her self-esteem.

Kadambarini Maa is one of the most popular novels in Gujarati literature. The novel deals with social perspectives. It is a fine example of the exposition of a woman who achieves independent status after a severe conflict in married life. She is Kadambari, the central character of the novel. Her mother-in-law Vijaya plays a very important role in it. We learn regarding the social customs through Aruna, the heroine Kadambari's mother.

The Name *Kadambari*

The name *Kadambari* has several meanings: it may refer to Goddess Saraswati, Goddess Parvati and also a cute female cuckoo. It is derived possibly from the name of a tree, Kadamba, known to be the *stala vriksha* or chosen temple tree associated with selected Siva temples in Tamilnadu, but all the meanings seem to carry with them a sense of delicacy, beauty and all the features ancient Sanskrit and Tamil grammars ascribe to women. In some modern Indian languages such as Kannada and Marathi, the term *kadambari* is used to refer to the genre of romantic fiction. There is a medieval Sanskrit text *The Kadambari of Bana*. This prose work is perhaps the first ever written novel in human civilization. So, in more than one sense, the name of our protagonist in this novel, Kadambari, is chosen deliberately by the novelist, to remind us about the Kadambari of classic Sanskrit fiction.

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The Protagonist Kadambari

Kadambari is a typical timid Indian wife, feeling safe among a lot of tyrannies of a drunkard husband. She has been married into a rich household. Kadambari has been brought up by Aruna in such a way that her self consciousness, self respect and healthy relation have been blunted.

Kadambari's husband is extremely rich but her life is not happy. Dhiruben writes:

Parantu Kadambarinun ghar kai ghar nahotun. Var- e var pan nahoto. E hato keval ek kruar malik. Je manma moj aave tyare ghadibhar gel karto, pampalto, bolavato ane bheju chaske ke tarat marto, janvarthiye haddhoot karto, mari nakhvani dhamkio aapto. (KM 25)

(But Kadambari's house was not a real house and even the husband was not a husband in the real sense of the term. He was a cruel master. Sometimes, if in proper mood, he loved, soothed, chatted and, if he has lost his temper, he beat and treated her worse than an animal and even threatened to murder her.) (Translation by the researcher.)

This was the condition of Kadambari. Kadambari is very unhappy but she remains silent as she has been taught so by her mother. When she is unable to bear the cruel behaviour and tyranny of her husband she runs away to her mother, Aruna.

The Flip-flop between the Traditional Roles of Mother and Mother-in-law

But Aruna believes that her daughter is very happy because of ample money and ornaments. According to her, Kadambari's husband is a perfect one. Her mother Aruna advises Kadambari to bear all the cruelties of her husband in the name of *sanskaras* (traditional practices). Therefore she sends her back to her father-in-law's house. As Aruna sees only the material wealth of Anil, she can not realize the pathetic condition of Kadambari. She advises her daughter to connive at:

Ane e hammersha evu j shikhavati ke 'e to hoy ! chalya kare! Aankh ada kan karvana!

Ane Kadambari evu samji bethi hati ke aankh ada kan karva e j strina jivanni saphaltano payo chhe. (KM 31)

(And she always taught her that 'it's a common phenomenon! Connive at such things.

And Kadambari also believed that this is the key to be successful for a woman)

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At last, Vijaya, Kadambari's mother-in-law, decides to do justice to her innocent daughter-in-law, an unusual turn in the story. Of course, this is not easy. Her husband is crippled, her son Anil is out of control, her relatives are indifferent and Kadambari is soft and simple. Moreover Anil threatens her of dire consequences now and then. Still Vijaya does not give up. She teaches very important lessons to Kadambari, i.e. spirit of abandon and self respect. She says:

Khulasa na karish, kadamb! Marathi nahi sahevay. Tare koine kasho khulaso nathi karvano. Jivvanu chhe, khumarithi jivvanu chhe. Anil kahe em nahi, Arunabahen kahe em nahi- tari jate, tane potane game tem jivvanu chhe.... (KM 100)

(‘Do not explain anything Kadamb. I can’t tolerate. You don’t have to give any explanation to anybody. You have to live, live with self-respect. Don’t obey to Anil or Arunaben. You are to live as per your choice.)

Thus, Vijaya proves herself to be the first unique mother-in-law in Gujarati novel. But Kadambari lacks determination. Vijaya gives her courage and explains the importance of having a right goal in life:

Aa duniya ghani moti chhe....Ghana badha manaso chhe. Ema ghanu badhu thay chhe. Navun navun, vichitra, chmatkarik, aahladak! E haji tare jovanu chhe, janvanun che. Janmayano aanand manvano chhe, jivyano utsav ujavvanochhe. (KM 101)

(This world is very big. There are many people. A plenty of things happen there. It is strange, miraculous, and magnificent. You have yet to see and know that world. You have to enjoy life. You have to rejoice your birth.)

The reputation of a mother-in-law in Indian society has been bad for centuries. She is looked upon as a cruel ‘animal’. Folklore presents many stories about the behavior and conduct of mothers-in-law. Even a sister-in-law is considered to be dangerous. This social belief has been exposed in many literary works in Gujarati literature. In this novel Aruna, the mother of Kadambari also criticizes Vijaya, the mother-in-law of Kadambari. She tells Kadambari that her mother-in-law is very cunning. Of course, this is far from truth. On the contrary Vijaya, the mother-in-law, helps Kadambari to be free from the evil condition she is in. Aruna represents the old beliefs of the society. She advises Kadambari to be calm, dumb and obedient to elders and to her husband. Owing to such beliefs she is unsympathetic to Kadambari, though she knows Kadambari is not happy. Of course, the novelist tries to break these social beliefs.

Kadambari's Character

Kadambari's character is a complex character full of contradictory factors. Dhiruben makes a satire:

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Ene navai lagti hati ke Kadambari patino aavo vyavahar sha mate sahan kari le chhe? Sha mate kadi kasho pratikar nathi karti? Salamatin shodh ane samruddhino lobh shun strine aatli badhi pamar banavi de chhe? (KM 18)

(She was surprised to observe that why Kadambari tolerates such a cruel behaviour of her husband. Why does she not protest? Is it the sense of safekeeping and greediness for affluence that make the woman so timorous?)

Aruna's Character

Aruna on the other side is a different kind of character. She is mother of five children. Three daughters have been married off. Kadambari is the last one for whom she has found out the boy from a very rich family. Aruna is greedy. She gives more importance to money. She ignores the unhappy life of her daughter. Still we find the change in her attitude at the end of the novel.

Aruna thinks that she has found out a rich husband for her daughter. But in reality, Kadambari is not happy with him. He is a drunkard and lacks good virtues. Kadambari is just a sex-satisfying toy for him. Her pathetic condition is described as under:

Anil sathe parnine te jane potano ek manav tarikeno darajjo khoi bethi hati. Matra ek sadhan bani gai hati. Anilna manma vare vare uthta krodhna, ghrunana ane kamnana jabardasta tofanona pragtyanu. (KM 62)

(After her marriage with Anil she had lost her status as a human being. She had just become the means...the means satisfying the anger, hatred and lust of Anil.)

Aruna is a typical woman giving more importance to money ignoring human values. She marries off her daughter Kadambari to Anil only because he has ample money, ornaments and a car. When Kadambari complains about the vices of her husband, Aruna advises her to overlook them. "Anil is a wealthy man and some vices are but natural for him"-this type of advice is given to Kadambari by Aruna. Aruna is never worried about the sufferings of her daughter. She is so foolish that she cannot know the wicked schemes of her son-in-law Anil. Not only that but she has sympathy for him and supports him. When Vijaya tries to help Kadambari Aruna doubts her sincerity.

Positive Mother-in-law

The novel mainly focuses on the married life of Anil and Kadambari. In between, the novelist has touched the married life of Vijaya and Girdharilal. Girdharilal is bed-ridden due to paralysis. Vijaya gives up the luxury of their big mansion 'Ratanmenor,' and lives with her husband in a single room. She constantly serves her husband and takes care of him. In such a testing period, she

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is loyal to her husband. Her love and sympathy for him knows no bounds. She boldly faces the circumstances.

Though she lives in her room, she is not unaware of the ‘happenings of ‘*Ratanmenor*’. In the beginning, she just witnesses the tyranny, injustice and exploitation done to Kadambari by Anil. When the plight of Kadambari reaches the climax, Kadambari goes to her parent’s house. Vijaya likes this gesture of Kadambari and she advises Aruna not to send her back to her own house. Vijaya wants to teach lessons to Anil. But Aruna doubts Vijaya.

Vijaya’s character is very appealing, she represents a strong woman. Her life is full of struggles but she does not give in. When Kadambari is unable to tolerate the cruelty of her husband and runs away to her parents’ house, Vijaya takes her side and guides her properly to become an independent lady. In this way Vijaya proves to be a very bold character of this novel. Of course Panna’s role appeals to the reader. The character of Panna is minor. Yet she represents a self-esteemed lady. Though she is happy with her husband in Australia, she leaves him when he is interested in other woman. She is the reflection of her mother Vijaya. She becomes angry with Kadambari for her fearful nature:

aamey jivati rahiney shun karvani chhun?’
Pannane khoob gusso avyo. Potana deshni lakho-karodo strio
jevunj aa bhabhi bolti hati. (KM 144)
(What is use of my life?
Panna got angry. Her sister-in-law was speaking in the same way
as the other lacks of women of her country.)

She saves Kadambari’s life when she tries to commit suicide. Through the character of Vijaya, the author gives an optimistic message that life is a wonderful thing, we must live it in full:

Aa duniya ghani moti chhe.... Ghana badha manaso chhe. Ema
ghanu badhu thay chhe. Navun navun, vichitra, chmatkarik,
aahladak! E haji tare jovanu chhe, janvanun che. Janmayano
aanand manvano chhe, jivyano utsav ujavvanochhe. (KM 100)
(This world is very big. There are many people. A plenty of things
happen there. It is strange, miraculous, and magnificent. You have
yet to see and know that world. You have to enjoy life. You have
to rejoice your birth.)

Kadambari’s Husband Anil

In normal circumstances he hates and detests her. Kadambari suffers the ill-treatment of her husband as she is timid and immature due to her mother’s improper upbringing. Therefore she bears the insults and injustices done to her by Anil, when she sees the bundles of currency notes or she is in an air-conditioned car of Anil. Ultimately Kadambari tries to commit suicide but she is saved by the

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attempts of Vijaya and Panna. At last, she gains her self-confidence. She becomes a changed lady, a new lady having freedom and her own individuality.

Anil symbolizes all the vices of a wealthy man's uncontrolled son. Anil is intelligent but he prostitutes his talent. He marries Kadambari but he is not a loyal husband. He is very cruel to her. He also cheats his parents. He can't manage the property and business he has inherited. Hence he becomes as good as bankrupt. He therefore tries to entrap Kalindi, a rich lady Shakuntala's daughter, by marrying her. Kadambari's sorrows and sufferings know no bounds because of such a bad husband:

.. *Nahi ba.. – Anil kahe emaj karya karvanun. Annane ej game chhe.*
'*Ane Kadambarine?*'
'*Kone- mane?*'
'*han.*'
'*Mare shun gamva na gamvanun? Mare to aa loko jivade em jivvanun. Mar kahe to mari javanun, bijo rasto j kya chhe mari pase?*' (KM 98)
(No...mother -I have to obey Anil completely. Anna also likes it.)
'*And what about you ?*'
'*Who? - me?*'
'*yes.*'
'*I am not supposed to have likes or dislikes. I have to live my life as per their wishes. I have to die if they so desire. I do not have any alternative.*)

Change in the Life Posturing of Kadambari

There is a sea-change in the life of Kadambari. We find the rays of self – faith in her. Now she is timid no more. She gains confidence. Now she becomes independent in the real sense of the term. She gains self pride. Vijaya takes the place of her real mother. Her rebirth is due to Vijaya. In the end Kadambari is awakened and she is determined to live her own life. She becomes a new woman. Kadambari says:

..... *Aa maro nirnay chhe. Havethi hun ahin j rahevani chhun. Mari rite rahevani chhun.*
'*Maa pase nathi rahevun?*'
'*Maa pase j rahevu chhe, Anna! Aa mari maa pase! Kahi Kadambari Vijya pase jai ubhi, ane boli, 'Rat-dahado fafdatman mare have nathi jivavu. Oshiyali thaine nathi rahevun. Mare jovu chhe-shodhavu chhe-'*
'*shun?*'
'*ke bhagvane mane sha mate janma aapyo chhe?*' Kadambarina *chahera par ek smit pragatyun.*' (KM 155)

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(This is my decision. Now I will live here. I will live in my own way.

Don't you want to live with mother?

I will live with mother, Anna, but with this mother, so saying, she went to Vijaya and said, 'I don't want to live in a panic for twenty four hours. I don't want to be dependent, I want to find-

'What?'

.-'that.... why God has given me birth'

A bright smile shone on the face of Kadambari.)

A Well-structured Plot

Dhiruben Patel is an excellent novelist. She has a knack of creating interesting characters. In this novel, Aruna, Vijaya, Kadambari and Panna are the very interesting female characters.

Dhiruben shows the conflict of a woman and how she passes successfully through all the buffets of life. The novel has a nice and well structured plot. Thus, the novelist raises questions against the age-old pathetic condition of women and male dominance in Indian families. The creation of the character of Vijaya, the mother-in-law of Kadambari, is extra ordinary. She behaves as the real mother and well-wisher of Kadambari.

Kadambarini Maa is a novel narrating an artistic exertion of the establishment of a female personality. This is the story of a helpless lady turning into a lady of independent nature supported by another lady. But ultimately Vijaya, her mother-in-law, comes to her rescue and Kadambari gains her freedom.

Kadambarini Maa is a story of a new birth of a woman. There is no force of revolt but a woman firmly and mutely opposes another suppressing woman. Kadambari's real mother is Aruna who has given her birth but her true mother is her mother-in-law, Vijaya who inspires the spirit of self respect in Kadambari. Aruna, her mother is a typical timid woman. She finds happiness in money and jewels. Anyhow she wants to send back Kadambari to her husband's home. But it is Vijaya who desperately struggles and even takes a great risk to make her daughter-in-law happy in the real sense of the term. She tells to Kadambari:

Kadamb! Ane have ek vat yad rakhje- ghar chhodi daine nahin, gharma rahinej aapne aapni rite jivvanu chhe. Aapne potane mate jivvanun chhe. (KM 102)

(Kadamb! Now remember one thing- We do not have to leave this house. We have to live in this house and that too in our own way.

We have to live for ourselves.)

Thus Dhiruben is nowhere presenting the pathetic condition of a woman in the male dominated family of Anil in any extreme manner. Yet she revolts against such a society where an innocent bride like Kadambari has to suffer. Through the Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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character of Vijaya, Dhiruben has presented her message regarding women awareness and her philosophical vision. She considers self-respect as the only speculation. *Kadambarini Maa* deserves a creditable position in the history of Gujarati novel.

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Interrogating Apartheid: An Analysis of J M Coetzee's *Waiting for the Barbarians* and *Life and Times of Michael K*

Imran Ahmad, M. A., M. Phil.



John Maxwell (formerly Michael) Coetzee

John Maxwell (formerly Michael) Coetzee, a novelist, essayist, academic of great repute, literary critic and above all a Nobel laureate, was born in Cape Town, South Africa, in 1940. He was the first novelist to be awarded the Booker Prize twice. In 2003 he was awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature in recognition of his work in which, according to Westberg, Coetzee has frequently “given voice to those outside the hierarchies of the mighty. With intellectual honesty

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and density of feeling, in a prose of icy precision, [he has] unveiled the masks of our civilization and uncovered the topography of evil” (Gregory O’Dea, 2004: 2).

The Strength of the African Novel – the Reciprocal Nature of Art and Society

Commitment to the socio-politico-historical reality has been, and continues to be, the forte of African novel in general, and South African novel in particular, since the 1950s. In the face of social exigencies and the gravity and intensity of socio-political vicissitudes emerges the writers’ commitment to address the problems faced by their society and seek solutions thereby.

A piece of literature is a social phenomenon in the sense that it does not grow from a vacuum; rather it is conditioned by the socio-economic and politico-historical circumstances of the time. The relationship between the two – art and society – is a reciprocal one: art influences society and vice versa. Events in the history of a society, therefore, cannot but be a source of inspiration to its writers. Literature in this sense is considered to be an effective means of chronicling and analyzing societal problems and aspirations.

John Maxwell Coetzee

Most of the South African writers, black as well as white, use their works to address the issues and virulent policies of the apartheid period. John Maxwell Coetzee is one of them who in his novels, focused more or less on the South African situation, partakes of the business of exposing the evils of apartheid as well as their detrimental effects.

In his fictional oeuvre Coetzee has, although implicitly, always tried “to denounce injustice, to unmask fears and express uncertainties about South Africa, giving voice to those social, political and racial elements that in South African apartheid era were for a long time silenced and deprived of any form of expression” (Michela Canepari-Labib, 2005: 23).

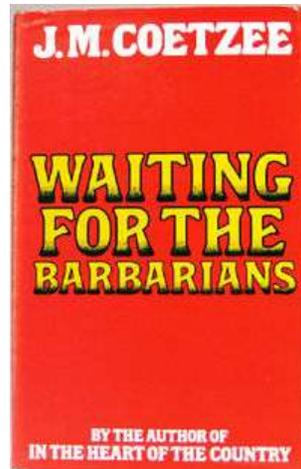
Waiting for the Barbarians

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Interrogating Apartheid: An Analysis of J. M. Coetzee’s *Waiting for the Barbarians* and *Life and Times of Michael K*



J M Coetzee's third novel, *Waiting for the Barbarians* (henceforth referred to as WFB) was published at a time when the socio-political situation in South Africa seemed to be "degenerating towards a general holocaust" (Michela Canepari-Labib, 2005: 86). Protest against apartheid and its virulent and evil off-shoots had already resulted into Sharpeville Massacre (1960) and Soweto School Rising (1976). The passive resistance initiated by African National Congress (ANC) in the year 1952 had by the time gained in momentum with the emergence of militant organizations like Pan African Congress (PAC), and culminated into a pure and violent protest in the face of socio-political exigencies of the time.

Fearing a threat to the white minority rule in South Africa, the white Nationalist Party in power resolved to maintain the status quo at all costs. The crisis resulted in increasing militarization, mass arrests, violence, torture, military despotism and denial of natural human rights. Torture, one of the burning issues of South African socio-political history, became rampant in the state.

Deaths in Prison

The cruelties and violence inflicted upon the prisoners during detention and deaths in mysterious circumstances including that of the popular leader associated with Black Consciousness Movement, Stephen Biko in 1977 stand a testimony to this fact. The gravity and intensity of the issue attracted the attention of world community as is evident from the fact that the year 1978 was proclaimed as International anti-apartheid year by the United States and the report *Political Imprisonments in South Africa* by Amnesty International dates to the same year (Michela Canepari-Labib, 2005: 87).

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An investigation report by Amnesty reads: “all the evidence indicates that torture is extensively inflicted on political detainees, and the government sanctions its use” (Terence Dowdall, 1992: 458). The common forms of torture reported by Amnesty International include physical assault, electric shock to different parts of body, psychological tortures including death threats to the victims and their families and sleep deprivation. Torture, besides being an instrument of oppression and annihilation, is an instrument of power and can be understood fully in the context of power relations in any country (Terence Dowdall, 1992: 452). In the South African context, after engineering and legalizing the malevolent policy of apartheid, the chief architect of the policy, H F Verwoerd had said in the House of Assembly in 1963:

Reduced to its simplest form the problem is nothing else than this: we want to keep South Africa white. Keeping it white can only mean one thing, namely white domination. Not leadership, not guidance, but control, supremacy (Terence Dowdall, 1992: 453).

To fulfill this desire – “to keep South Africa white” and to assert its “supremacy” over the black majority – the state needed instruments of power to crush any voice of protest and, torture was one of the means to achieve this end.

The Writers on the Scene

Given the dilemmas of South African reality, the writer could not remain disinterested to the ruthlessness of the monolithic and authoritarian regime especially when the genesis of art is governed by the desire to engage, analyse and interrogate burning issues like torture. As Coetzee, in an interview with Richard Begam, confesses:

Yes, art is born out of burning issues, issues felt deeply, whether these issues are specific (political issues, for instance) or general (questions of life and birth, for instance) or internal to the medium... (J M Coetzee, www.jstor.org).

The Theme of the Novel *Waiting for the Barbarians*

Written “as part of a growing international debate on torture,” (Michela Canepari-Labib, 2005: 87) WFB deals with the issue of torture in its varied manifestations: physical, psychological, racial and sexual. The novel deals, though obliquely, with the past horrors, racial dissonance, police brutality and the impact of such evil and detrimental off-shoots of apartheid policy on the psychological make-up of both the oppressor and the oppressed. Judged against the backdrop of South African socio-political reality, WFB “investigates Coetzee’s idiosyncratic presentation of an allegorical picture of the tortured contours of South African reality during the painful era of apartheid” (Ayobami Kehinde, 68).

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J M Coetzee represents one of the seminal voices in postcolonial literature in English and writing from the position of post-colonialism in terms of growing up in an erstwhile colony, it is always germane to see how colonialism forms a backdrop for Coetzee's fictional oeuvre. The colonial mission in its myriad designs has to a large extent silenced or given a new voice to the *Other*, a voice which has not been theirs. Or, one could say, it has imposed a set identity on the *Other*. In order to validate and legitimize its imperial rule, the Empire resorted to all sorts of means – *mission civilisatrice*, constructing and *energizing myths*, etc. – available to it.

Justification for Colonization and Intervention

Sometimes mission civilisatrice (a rationale for intervention and colonization) was used as a mask to conceal the bankruptcy and brutality of imperial projects and sometimes violence exacted to serve the expansionist projects to justify their search for a state of security. Among other important weapons, devised and manipulated by the Empire to justify its occupation and expansion, was the creation and rendering of myth regarding the “Other” in terms of binary oppositions. Through the creation of such myths, the Empire not only justifies its incursion into another's territory and the brutal acts of violence on the “Other” but also its imperial projects backed by expansionist ambitions. As Elleke Boehmer points out:

In its attempt to comprehend other lands, and also in its need to propagate itself and, importantly, legitimize its presence, colonial authority depended on imaginative backing, what have usefully been called *energizing myths*... (Elleke Boehmer, 2005: 23).

The colonial mission of silencing the “Other” and then reconstruct it at pleasure and rewrite it according to its own whims “necessarily meant *un-forming* or *re-forming* the communities that existed there already...” (Ania Loomba, 2005: 8). Even the term “colonialism” itself as defined in OED, according to Ania Loomba, participates in the colonial act of silencing the *Other*. The term “colonialism,” defined as “a settlement in a new country” which maintains its “connection with the parent state”, according to Loomba “evacuates the word ‘colonialism’ of any implication of an encounter between peoples, or of conquest and domination”. It “avoids any reference to people other than the colonizers, people who might have been living in those places where colonies were established” (Ania Loomba, 7).

Ideology of the White Writing

In the domain of issues related to the imposition of a set identity onto the “Other,” the concept of “ideology,” central to Gramsci's theory of hegemony, according to Loomba, finds its place and comes to the rescue of the colonizer and the beholder of power. In *White Writing*, Coetzee shows how an ideology of hardwork and labour – which considered idleness as “ungodly” – brought by the Europeans provided an impetus to the construction of the

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“Hottentot” as lazy and idle, helping thereby in the construction of the other (Sigrid Solhaug, 2008: 15).

Coetzee is fully aware of the fact that it is the colonial discourse that constructs the binary structures and then the myth of the “Other”. In an interview with Richard Begam, Coetzee says, “...who are these blacks and whites? Surely it is colonial discourse (of which the Discourse of Cape is only a variety) that creates blacks and whites....The black are black as long as the white constructs himself as white” (J. M. Coetzee, www.jstor.org).

Deconstructing the Myth of the Other

In his works, Coetzee not only exposes and deconstructs the myth of the “Other” but also unmasks the ulterior motives of the colonizers in constructing such myths. In his fictional oeuvre, among other things, Coetzee deals with various aspects of colonialism and, one of the aspects that receives the most extensive treatment is that of “power and powerlessness: the relation between master and servant, overlord and slave” (Stephen Watson, 1996: 14).

The desire and need of the colonizer to construct another individual as “Other” in order to achieve purpose and power has been Coetzee’s subject of interest since his very first fictional work, *Dusklands*. “The promise, so brilliantly fulfilled in his later work, is clear in this earliest novel” (Daily Telegraph). In both the novellas, *The Vietnam Project* and *The Narrative of Jacobus Coetzee* that together form the *Dusklands*, the natives (Vietnamese as well as the Bushmen and Hottentot) are identified as inferiors – the “other”. In *The Narrative of Jacobus Coetzee*, Jacobus describes the natives as sub-humans, identified not by the essence which characterizes “higher humanity” (J M Coetzee (a), 2004: 85) but by their “animal soul”. The narrator goes to the extent of comparing the natives to dogs (J M Coetzee (a), 2004: 58) and suggests some means to catch, tame and breed them as if they were cattle (J M Coetzee (a), 2004: 60). Thus, by portraying Hottentots and Bushmen as inferior and denying them humanity, the narrator relegates them to the position of the subhuman “Other”.

Quietism and Reluctance

Although Coetzee is labelled by several critics and fellow South African Writers with “quietism and rarified aestheticism” and accused of his reluctance to deal with the politico-historical events of his country directly, Coetzee has confounded his critics by approaching “the South African situation more allegorically, as an embodiment of a more universal phenomenon of imperialism and the crisis of civilized values” (Paul Rich, www.jstor.org).

Exposé as the Main Goal

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From a postcolonial perspective, Coetzee's fiction offers an exposé of the systems of denigration, subjugation and exploitation and resistance to such systems. And it often takes the figure of Empire as an historical embodiment of such systems (Gregory O' Dea, 2). All this fits squarely with Coetzee's novel WFB with which we are concerned here. In the words of Stephen Watson, it is "Coetzee's finest novel to date", "a novel of an imaginary empire, of an imperialism which is merely an extension of colonialism" (Stephen Watson, 14).

Coetzee in his novel *Waiting for the Barbarians*, and for that matter in almost all of his novels, makes explicit the game of deceit, denigration and exploitation innate in a colonial discourse constructed by colonizers in order to justify their occupation and expansion. The narrative while touching upon and mentioning in passing issues like land grabbing – "the all-too-material reason for the very existence of the empire" (Stephen Watson, 19) – and the impact of colonialism that the settlement brings on the native environment, deals at length with issues that the Empire takes recourse to in justifying its oppression and exploitation, maintaining its supremacy and legitimizing its expansionist project. The issue of torture, so central to the politico-historical reality of apartheid South Africa that it cannot be simply glossed over, also forms one of the dominant themes of the novel. Coetzee shows how torture becomes both an instrument of oppression as well as power at the hands of the beholders of power.

The Issue of Torture

The issue of torture is a complex one and has been analyzed from multiple standpoints in both the truly realistic (e.g., Human Rights Publications) as well as in imaginative literature. Whether it is in the fictional works like André Brink's *A Dry White Season* (1984); Sipho Sepamala's *A Ride on the Whirlwind* (1984); and Mongane Serote's *To Every Birth Its Blood* (1986) or, in the non-fictional works like Metin Basoglu's *Torture and its Consequences* and Elaine Scarry's *The Body in Pain: The Making and Unmaking of the World*, to name a few, torture with its social, political and psychological dimensions remains central and the most intriguing issue.

The issue poses a number of questions to both the writer and the reader. Coetzee himself has tackled the issue in his essay "Into the Dark Chamber". The dilemmas it poses for the writer are whether or not to depict torture and "how to treat something that, in truth, ... is offered... to terrorize the populace and paralyse resistance, deserves to be ignored" (J M Coetzee, 1992: 363). Coetzee obviously cannot and does not ignore torture, but the question it raises is "how not to play the game by the rules of the state, how to establish one's own authority, how to imagine torture and death on one's own terms" (J.M. Coetzee, 363). In WFB, Coetzee is, however, not only concerned with the problematic questions the issue of torture raises, but also with social, political and psychological dimensions of torture. In "Into the Dark Chamber," Coetzee writes:

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[The] relations in the torture room provide a metaphor, bare and extreme, for relations between authoritarianism and its victims. In the torture room unlimited force is exerted upon the physical being of an individual...with the purpose of, if not of destroying him, then at least of destroying the kernel of resistance within him (J. M. Coetzee, 1992: 363).

With the unmaking of the voice, the prisoners are left only with their mutilated bodies, lacking one of the essential components that supposedly distinguish human beings from animals. Furthermore, torture becomes a weapon of annihilation and destruction. It destroys both the physical as well as the psychological being of an individual and, thus, becomes a “mimetic of death” (Barbara Eckstein, www.jstor.org).

Form and Function of Torture in the Novel *Waiting for the Barbarians*

The theme of torture is introduced at the very outset of the novel. As soon as the reader turns the first page of the book, s/he comes across what Coetzee calls, with reference to Hawthorne’s *The Scarlet Letter*, the “black flowers of civilized society,” i.e., the prison (J M Coetzee, 1992: 361). The prison is “simply a storeroom attached to the granary” without any windows and the “two prisoners lie bound on the floor” giving “smell of old urine” (WFB, p.2). “One is an old man, the other a boy”. “The boy’s face is puffy and bruised, one eye is swollen shut” (WFB, p.3). The description of the prison and the deplorable condition of the prisoners with their stink of sweat and urine alerts the reader that the narrative deals with some gloomy episode. As anticipated, after a few pages, the reader comes across the description of torture:

The grey beard is caked with blood. The lips are crushed and drawn back, the teeth are broken. One eye is rolled back, the other socket is a bloody hole (WFB, p.7).

Though a detailed description of how an old prisoner is tortured to death is not given, the sentences are potent and forceful enough to drive home the brutality of the torture.

Colonialist Truth

The Empire, as represented by Colonel Joll and Mandel, in WFB believes itself to be the questor and upholder of truth. It runs the business of constructing its own version of truth by manipulating its written code and power. The report that the interrogator (Joll) submits to Magistrate regarding the death of an old prisoner during interrogation throws ample light on the manipulation of power and the written code. The report reads as:

During the course of the interrogation contradictions became apparent in the prisoner’s testimony. Confronted with these contradictions, the prisoner became enraged and attacked the investigating officer. A scuffle ensued during which the prisoner fell heavily against the wall. Efforts to revive him were unsuccessful (WFB, p.7).

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The report is simply a blatant and barefaced lie as is evident from the statement the guard makes to Magistrate. Colonel Joll sees “torture” as an inevitable means to seek truth or, to be more precise, he views the torture of prisoners and the quest for truth with the same lens. “Pain is truth; all else is subject to doubt” (WFB, p.5). His queer method of eliciting the truth is shocking and reminiscent of third degree torture. As he says, “First I get lies, you see – this is what happens – first lies, then pressure, then more lies, then more pressure, then the break, then more pressure, then the truth. This is how you get the truth” (WFB, p.5).

In yet another shocking episode, the reader comes across a naked description of torture that sends shivers down one’s spine. The prisoner’s are “stark naked” and are “tied neck to neck” like a “file of men”. “A simple loop of wire runs through the flesh of each man’s hands and through holes pierced in his cheeks” (WFB, p.113). A soldier slowly pulls the cord till the prisoner’s faces touch the ground. Before thrashing them heavily, Colonel Joll “rubs a handful of dust” on the naked backs of the prisoners and inscribes “with a stick of charcoal” the word “ENEMY”. After this begins the “game” of heavy thrashing, “raising red welts on the prisoners’ backs and buttocks” till the “black charcoal and ochre dust begin to run with sweat and blood...and till their backs are washed clean” (WFB, p.115). The painful and miserable state of the prisoner’s is turned into a game by the men of Empire like Colonel Joll who even invites the spectators to join the soldiers in thrashing. Through this scene of torture it becomes clear how the Empire creates its own version of truth. The so called barbarians or prisoners are constructed as enemies because such a status is being written, on a part of their body (their backs) they cannot see and in a code (English) they cannot decipher (Laura Wright, 2006: 77).

Thus, torture in the context of the novel becomes, above all, a means of writing what the Empire wants to write or engrave on its subjects. And this power of the Empire to write establishes its supremacy over those who lack this skill. “The power and skill of the Empire, its art, lie in its capacity to generate and then interpret its own signs” (Michael Valdez Moses, 121). Thus, by creating the notions of the “Other”, “powerless”, “unlettered”, and so on, the Empire achieves power and identity. And in the context of the novel, Joll, Mandel and Magistrate, as emissaries of the Empire are in the same business to achieve power and identity for themselves and the Empire they represent.

The Issue of Sexuality

The issue of sexuality or sexploitation, like the theme of torture, receives an extensive treatment at the hands of the novelist in WFB. The issue has attracted divergent critical opinions from different critics. Whereas some critics like Wang Jinghui see “sex and violence” as “complex and intricate texture of truth” (Kailash C Baral, 2008: 58), some like Wang Ayni see it as a negative trait. Ayni maintains that “in Coetzee’s novels, no matter political ones, why does he always sum up the ultimate meaning with sex? How many resources are there in sex itself?

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How much meaning is there in it? ... Why do people stick only to this?"(Kailash C Baral, 2008: 52). Although Ayni's opinion that Coetzee's novels are infused with sex and violence cannot be rejected altogether, the motive behind her view is not tenable. She fails to take into consideration the fact that "class conflict, sexism, racism and other forms of dissonance are ubiquitous and perennial traits of postcolonial society" (Ayobami Kehinde, 71).

Sex in the context of the novel is neither a means of procreation nor a means to mutual satisfaction. It becomes a power relationship and a discursive practice similar to that of torture. The Magistrate's sexuality becomes a medium through which he gains power over the "Other" and exhibits his allegiance to the Empire. Although he feigns to be a liberal man with a patronizing and benevolent attitude towards the "barbarian girl", he betrays his complicity with the Empire in a number of ways. Working within the framework of a colonial ideology and under the complete sway of a "national narrative", the Magistrate's sexuality becomes a mechanism to cope or deal with his powerlessness, as he loses his political power with the coming of the new men of Empire, represented by Colonel Joll.

Colonial Justice

Through his cleansing ritual of washing the girl and his painstaking expedition to return the barbarian girl to her own tribal people, the Magistrate seems to declare his attitude as a benevolent and patronizing one. But "it so often characterises the colonizers' *mission civilisatrice*, and thus simply corresponds to mastery masquerading as charity" (Michela Canepai- Labib, 96).

For the magistrate, the woman symbolizes "the conquered land" (Ania Loomba, 129) and in his objectification of the barbarian girl, he reduces her to a mere "text" or, a "wooden slip", the engravings of which he wants to decode. Similarly, in his sexual encounter with the woman named "The Star", the Magistrate reveals his colonial mentality of occupation, subjugation and destruction of the colonized. He confesses, "to desire her has meant to unfold her and enter her, to pierce her surface and stir the quiet of her interior into an ecstatic storm; then to retreat, to subside, to wait for desire to reconstitute itself" (WFB, p.46). This act clearly displays the power-relationship where the Magistrate, as if on an imperial offensive possesses ("enter"), destroys ("pierce") and disturbs ("stir the quiet") the conquered land ("The Star").

The Magistrate's attitude towards the barbarian girl is also not free from imperialistic designs. His objectification of the barbarian girl reduces her to a "blank slip" (Michael Valdez Moses, 120) or "a text" (Rosemary Jane Jolly, 1996: 127) which in the words of Lucia Folena becomes "an object of the violence of interpretation, a mere text to be read by the hermeneutics of inquisitor" (Rosemary Jane Jolly, 128). Despite the Magistrate's claims, "There is nothing to link me with torturers" (WFB, p.48) and "my alliance with the guardians of the Empire is over, I have set myself in opposition, the bond is broken, I am a free man" (WFB, p.85) after he is

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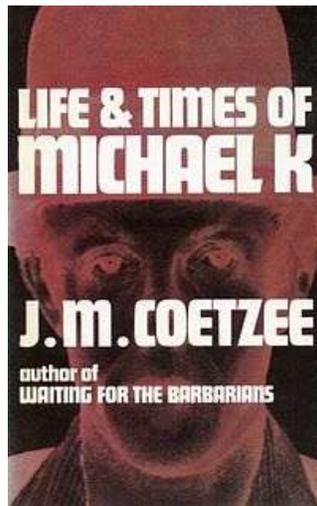
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imprisoned for “treasonously consorting” with the enemy, he continues to work under the imperial ideology. His “faith in the civilization of the empire has not entirely vanished” (Paul Rich, 383) and what he “assumes to be benevolent colonialism” is an “insidiously oppressive paternalism” (Laura Wright, 78).

The men of Empire (Joll and Magistrate) differ in their approach towards the barbarian girl, however, both “violate the girl” (Rosemary Jane Jolly, 128): one by engraving the marks of torture upon her and the other by trying to decode those engravings. The Magistrate, by means of objectification and sexuality, claims his superiority and authority over the women he sleeps with and thus asserts his masculine power. By perpetuating the objectification of the barbarian girl, the Magistrate “becomes an accomplice of the system’s discriminatory policy” (Michela Canepari-Labib, 96). The influence of the “national narrative” on Magistrate is so complete that even his language and sexuality has not remained personal but has become the “machinations of hegemony” (Kailash C Baral, 51). The Magistrate reduces the barbarian girl to an inferior entity by equating her to animals on a number of occasions. On one occasion, he says, “people will say I keep two wild animals in my rooms, a fox and a girl” (WFB, p.37). The Magistrate also admits of the pain that he inflicts upon the barbarian girl and “instead of giving her a good time”, he “oppressed her with gloom” (WFB, p.68). The magistrate’s attitude towards the barbarian girl is not different from the method of torture that the Empire indulges in: “with this woman it is as if there is no interior, only a surface across which I hunt back and forth seeking entry” (WFB, p.46). In his washing, oiling, massaging and tracing the torture marks of the barbarian girl, the Magistrate is not guided by a selfless service but by a selfish motive of “seeking oblivion and sleep for himself” (Sigrid Solhaug, 89).

Life and Times of Michael K: The Intellectual Commitment of the Author



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The intellectual commitment to highlight, analyse and interrogate the dilemmas of South African socio-political reality that Coetzee exhibited in WFB makes itself evident again in his fourth novel *Life and Times of Michael K* (henceforth referred to as LTMK). Despite a host of critical accusations against the novel for its lack of focus on the socio-political realities of modern South Africa (the ambiguity in the portrayal of setting and lack of concrete politico-historical reference), it is grounded in the reality of the socio-political turmoil in South Africa of the 1980s. The socio-political turmoil in the South Africa of 1980s was intensely fuelled and conditioned by the malevolent policy of apartheid. Charged with an atmosphere of violence, racial dissonance, political uprisings and guerilla warfare, the situation seemed to move towards an Armageddon of chaos and confusion. Written under such a surcharged atmosphere and ambience, Coetzee's LTMK "reflects and participates in this national unease" (Susan VanZenten Gallagher, 1991: 136).

Set against the backdrop of socio-political turmoil, LTMK not only refers to the South Africa of 1980s but also highlights the oppression that the authoritative and colonial state institutions resort to in order to consolidate and confirm their identity and reality. In this novel, as in WFB, Coetzee's commitment to interrogate and analyse the dilemmas facing South African society in the wake of socio-political vicissitudes find its expression in its very interrogation of colonialism. The narrative not only explicates the motivation that govern the oppression of autocratic and bureaucratic institutions but also raises questions regarding the issue of power, identity, representation and interpretation that often inform such projects.

The issue of colonialism, as Stephen Watson sees it, is at the heart of narrative in LTMK: "while it might appear to treat of something rather different, [it] has to do with colonialism. Its protagonist is a man intent on eluding colonisation, whether it be the colonisation of the body (through labour camps) or the colonisation of the mind (through charity) (Stephen Watson, 14). In its exposition, interrogation and castigation of colonialism that was exacerbated during apartheid, LTMK highlights the struggle of the coloniser to dominate the Other in order to achieve an identity and supremacy, to explore the means and motivations of the colonial enterprise of domination and the problems that follow such a project of exploitation.

Grim, Bitter and Heart-rending

LTMK narrates the grim, bitter and heart-rending experiences of Michael K, a South African who is identified as "CM"—coloured male. Michael K, physically disfigured by a harelip, is a municipal gardener who spent his childhood in a home meant for physically handicapped children. To fulfill his mother's wish to return her to Prince Albert in the Karoo where she had spent her childhood, K undertakes a journey in the middle of the civil war. Although the narrative setting is not explicitly and descriptively mentioned, the malevolent, authoritative and repressive institutions refer to the South African society torn by civil war during the era of

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apartheid. The narrative avoids depicting the war scenes directly and the enemies but nonetheless, its “focus on the rhetoric of war and the dehumanizing effects upon individuals of the bureaucracy which keeps the system alive” recurs again and again (Michela Canepari-Labib, 58).

Even though a naked description of war is eschewed, it is very much pronounced in this novel than in WFB as is made clear by the epigraph of the novel. Quoting Heraclitus’s *Cosmic Fragments*, the epigraph reads:

War is the father of all and king of all.
Some he shows as gods, others as men.
Some he makes slaves, and others free.

Whereas in the context of WFB war is a creation or construction of the Empire or, “a mental fiction born of colonial paranoia and a political convenience,” it is a stark reality in LTMK (Kailash C Baral, 45). “Here the state is having to battle with a real enemy, a majority population whom they have thus far controlled and oppressed” (J M Coetzee and T Kai Norris Easton, www.jstor.org).

A Period of Chaos and Confusion

The period of civil war in South Africa was a period of chaos and confusion. Violence was at its worst. South Africa witnessed excessive militarization and police despotism in response to growing uprising and guerrilla warfare. It was a society of curfewed nights and police brutality. Under the vicious police state life was simply unbearable, if not to all, at least to the black majority. Referring explicitly to this situation, the urban landscape in LTMK is almost fragmented and dislocated by bombings and looting.

The “civil war” with its “sirens” announcing the “curfew,” “the checkpoints,” the “guerrillas” and their attacks, and the “permits” people need from police in order to move to, or leave a place form the background to LTMK. The sufferings of the protagonist and his ill mother represent the condition of “the millions of black South Africans who were removed, dumped, set wandering, hiding from Endorsement Out under Group Areas Act” (Nadine Gordimer, 1996: xi).

Michael K’s enslavement at the hands of the state institutions (represented through various camps which try to confine Michael K within the bits of barbed wire, with guards on duty) becomes metaphoric of the victimization and subjugation of black majority by the white minority during the painful era of apartheid. Viewing the narrative as an accurate reflection of this national fragmentation and dislocation, Nadine Gordimer writes: “The harried homelessness of Michael K and his mother is the experience, in 1984, of hundreds of black people in South African squatter towns and ‘resettlement’ camps” (Nadine Gordimer, 1984: n.p).

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Colonialism and Apartheid

The root cause of this situation in South Africa, needless to say, was colonialism or what is loosely called apartheid. It has its damaging and dehumanizing consequences, among other things, on organic relationships. Through its draconian laws and acts, the oppressive government was instrumental in suppressing the human voice and creating an organic divide that ultimately culminated as a setback to familial relationships. The theme of relationships among individuals (in particular familial relationships) and the damage it has received at the altar of colonialism becomes a recurring motif in Coetzee's fiction.

Devastating Effect on Familial Relation

In LTMK the anticipation of what the system of apartheid has done to familial relationships is quite evident, though, it reaches its culmination in *Age of Iron* (Michela Canepari-Labib, 40) The relation between Michael K and his mother, Anna K in LTMK lacks intimacy and emotion and is essentially seen as a duty the son feels towards his mother. Michael K never experiences an intimate bond based on emotions and feelings with either of his parents. Although his father does not make a physical appearance in the novel and is hardly mentioned, Michael K refers to him as “the list of rules on the door of dormitory, the twenty-one rules of which the first was ‘There will be silence in dormitories at all times’” (LTMK, p.105).

Instead of love, Anna K regards her son with disdain simply because he is born with a harelip. In contrast to the joy that a woman experiences on becoming a mother, Anna K “did not like the mouth that would not close and the living pink flesh it bared to her. She shivered to think of what had been growing in her all these months” (LTMK, p.3). Having delivered the child from her womb, Anna K sends him to Huis Norenius – a school meant for physically and mentally handicapped or, otherwise the unfortunate. This lack of emotion in relationships can be considered one of the reasons for Michael K's isolation and solitude that ultimately halts an essentially organic relationship. The death of his mother en route to Prince Albert is not seen in terms of loss rather what we come to know from the narrator is that “he did not miss her” (LTMK, p.34).

Despite Michael K's acceptance of the duty that “he had been brought into the world to look after his mother” (LTMK, p.7), the bond between the two is devoid of emotions and feelings. The reason for this breakdown is the fact that Anna K and his son are the products of an oppressive system where the suppression of human voice is aimed to push individuals into isolation. Michela Canepari-Labib makes an apt comment in this regard: “[I]t is precisely this relationship [familial] which the South African political situation has rendered unnatural, and, in fact, impossible” (Michela Canepari-Labib, 41).

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Relationships: Emotionally Not Balanced and Meaningful?

The failure to establish emotionally balanced and meaningful relationships on part of Coetzee's characters tempts a reviewer identified only as Z. N. to denounce the novel: "The absence of any meaningful relationship between Michael K and anybody else...means that in fact we are dealing not with a human spirit but an amoeba... whose life... is too removed from the norm, unnatural, almost inhuman" (David Attwell, 1993: 92). The reviewer's comment, though apt, fails to take into consideration the socio-political circumstances that condition and determine such relations.

Issues of Domination, Representation and Identity

LTMK not only deals with this aspect of colonialism – the breakdown of human relationships – but also raises the issue of domination, representation and identity. Coetzee interrogates thread-bare the issue of domination and identity and the means through which a colonial enterprise achieves and maintains it. The inevitable desire and need on part of the coloniser/master to construct another individual as "Other" in order to achieve and maintain its supremacy finds expression in LTMK as master-slave opposition. As an aspect of colonialism, "power and powerlessness: the relation between master and servant, overlord and slave" (Stephen Watson, 14) receives an extensive treatment in Coetzee's fiction.

The Manichaeic Allegory

The binary oppositions, or dualism or what Abdul JanMohamed calls the "Manichean allegory" (converting racial difference "into moral and even metaphysical difference") is not unfamiliar in colonial discourse or in traditional western philosophy. Postcolonial theoreticians like Fanon and Said have referred to this duality in terms of "settler/native" and "occident/orient" respectively. These binary oppositions by which "the colonizing project of the West was set in motion" emanate from the "Cartesian project of separating subject from object, self from world in a dualism which privileged the first of the two terms and thereby assured his domination of nature and any other obstacle he might confront". The relationship between the two: self and other, subject and object, coloniser and colonised, master and slave is, in Hegelian terms, a dialectic one in which the master always needs a servant in order to be recognized as Master and thus to achieve a form of identity.

Ceaseless Effort to Achieve Recognition

In LTMK the will to dominate the system in order to achieve recognition and identity is staged through the relations, often seen as master/slave, of Michael K with people like the Medical Officer and Visagie grandson. The enslavement and victimization of Michael K by the oppressive state through its various apparatuses like soldiers, camps, bureaucratic systems and

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the Medical Officer aim at the domination and subjugation that often informs a master-slave discourse. Whether it be during Michael K's imprisonment in various camps or, during the interrogation conducted by Medical Officer on him, Coetzee not only refers to the physical conquest of the suppressed/other but also to the epistemic violence that the Medical Officer indulges in.

As an apparatus of the colonial state or an emissary of the Empire, the Medical Officer's attitude towards Michael K is conditioned by his will to dominate. After having grown physically weak and deranged, Michael K is sent to Kenilworth hospital where the Medical Officer makes every possible effort to revive him. Although the Medical Officer's attitude towards Michael K seems to be benevolent and sympathetic, it is not so. It is conditioned and determined by an ulterior motive: the motive to reduce Michael K to the role of a slave and thus to achieve an identity through the subjugation of that slave. It is simply mastery masquerading as charity as he betrays it in his benevolent nursing: "He [Michael K] needs a gradual diet, gentle exercise, and physiotherapy, so that one day soon he can rejoin camp life and have a chance to march back and forth across the racetrack and shout slogans and salute the flag and practice digging holes and filling them again" (LTMK, p.133). The coloniser that hides behind the Medical Officer's facade is exposed even in his efforts to persuade Michael K to speak or to bring him to the world of words. Contrary to Michael K's wishes to be alone and silent like "a stone" and "a pebble" (LTMK, p.135), the Medical Officer insistently persuades him to express his heart:

Do you want the story to end with you?... 'We give you a nice bed and lots of food...but we expect something in return. It is time to deliver, my friend. You've got a story to tell and we want to hear it... Tell us what we want to know, then we will leave you alone... 'Give yourself some substance, man, otherwise you are going to slide through life absolutely unnoticed...You don't want to be simply one of the perished, do you? You want to live, don't you? Well then, *talk*, (emphasis original) make your voice heard, tell your story! (LTMK, p.140).

Saving Michael K

The Medical Officer believes that he is the only one who can save Michael K (LTMK, p.151), if only he agrees to talk. When the persistent demands of the Medical Officer to make Michael K speak are negated, his persuasive demands turn more urgent and threatening, compelling him to "yield":

The truth is that you are going to perish in obscurity and be buried in a nameless hole in a corner of the racetrack...and no one is going to remember you but me, unless you yield and at last open your mouth. I appeal to you, Michaels: *yield!* (LTMK, p.155).

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The Medical Officer's efforts to break Michael K's silence and incorporate him within the linguistic discourse aims at his will to dominate. Unless he makes him speak or incorporate him within his own discourse, his identity and supremacy cannot be consolidated and confirmed. His efforts of translating Michael K's silence can be seen as a means to "domesticate" him by bringing him into the world of interpretation. The Medical Officer's attitude to Michael K is similar to that of the Magistrate towards the Barbarian girl whom he views as a text to be interpreted and deciphered. Both, the Medical Officer and the Magistrate are in the process of creating the Other – a means or a solution to achieve recognition and identity. Their seemingly paternalistic, benevolent and nursing attitude is colonialism masquerading as charity. By exposing the ulterior motives of the colonizers who claim to be liberal humanists, Coetzee punctures the liberal humanists' claim of serving the humanity.

Miserable Conditions of Living

The depressing lives of the poor, destitute and homeless in prison camps of LTMK serve as a means to highlight the miserable lives of the poor and black South Africans during the tumultuous years of apartheid. The textual reality, replete with scenes of horror, oppression and violence, correspond to the reality of the South African state during 1980s. A slice from this reality in which the "prisons, 'those black flowers of civilized society,' burgeon all over the face of South Africa" (J M Coetzee, 1992: 361) is incorporated into and analyzed in LTMK. The society in the novel (though it can hardly be called a society) is a society of camps and prisons where the destitute, poor and homeless, symbolizing impurity and a threat to the authority are dumped, oppressed and exploited under the garb of charity.

The Jakkalsdrif Camp, among other camps, gives us a peep into the miserable lives of hundreds of poor and destitute people; those sub-human others who need to be excluded and forgotten. The camp is a site of diseases without any doctor and nurse (LTMK, p.88). Brandy and aspirin is the only medicine for the prisoners who are "shut up like animals in a cage" (LTMK, p.88). Confined to the barbed wires of the camp, the prisoners are not allowed to move outside "except on labour calls" (LTMK, p.92). The camps or "prisons are used as dumping-places for people who smell wrong and look unsightly and do not have the decency to hide themselves away" (LTMK, 92). By doing this the state is able to put out of sight the sub-human Others who both reproach and threaten it.

The Jakkalsdrif camp is "a place where people [a]re deposited to be forgotten" and its location is "out of sight of the town on a road that led nowhere else" (LTMK, p.94) for "[i]n South Africa the law sees to it as far as it can that not only such people but also the prisons in which they are held become invisible" (J M Coetzee, 362). Behind the mask of charity and the seemingly "nice life" (LTMK, p.78), as it appears to one of the prisoners, hides a colonizer whose sole aim is the exploitation, subjugation and dehumanization of the Other.

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Vijay Tendulkar's Play *Kamla* is a Symbol of Slavery

Pramila Pandey, M.A. (Eng. Lit.), Ph.D.



Based on Real News

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Vijay Tendulkar's Play *Kamla* is a Symbol of Slavery

Kamla by Vijay Tendulkar is a naturalistic play. It focuses on the changed role of women in society. It was inspired by a real life incident - the *Indian Express* exposure by Ashwin Sarin, who actually bought a girl from a rural flesh market and presented her at a press conference. But using this incident as a launching pad, Tendulkar raises certain cardinal questions regarding the value system of a modern success-oriented generation who are ready to sacrifice human value in the name of humanity itself. The playwright exposes the innate self-deception of this standpoint. It is the story of an unfortunate woman sold away in the flesh market and a so-called happy housewife married to a daring journalist, both having a revelation of finding themselves on the common platform of sexual slavery in this male-dominated world.

Investigating Flesh Trade for Gaining Popularity

Ashwin Sarin, a journalist, investigated into flesh trade in Madhya Pradesh and purchased a woman 'Kamla' for Rs. 2,300 to establish the trafficking of women, in Shivpuri village. The journalist then wrote a series of articles exposing the prostitution trade and involvement of political bigwigs and police in it on 17th, 20th & 30th April 1981 and 2nd May 1981. Mr. Vijay Tendulkar scripted a play by name 'Kamla' based totally on the *Indian Express* exposure and staged the play for 150 times in 32 cities and in seven languages. Journalist Ashwin Sarin and *Indian Express* newspaper complained that Vijay Tendulkar infringed their copyright. The Bombay High Court held that there could not be any copyright in an event that has actually taken place.

Not Just Characters in a Play

The play expresses Tendulkar's grasp of the harsh realities in our social fabric. In the words of Tendulkar, "Kamla for me is not just a character, she is a living person, and she just doesn't remain on my papers".

The play exposes a flesh trade scoop and its aftermath. It deals with the issue of buying and selling of tribal women. The theme of *Kamla*, a two-act play, is flesh trade, and how well-known young journalists like Jaisingh Jadhav seek to capitalize on it in order to further succeed in their careers without caring, in the least, for the victims of this immoral trade in a democratic society like India. The play offers Tendulkar enough scope to scoff at the kind of trendy journalism practiced by Jadhav, and also to strike a contrast between vernacular and English journalism.

Focus on the Suffering of Indian Women

Tendulkar uses the play also to dwell on the characteristic suffering of the Indian middle class women who are made to suffer by selfish, malicious and hypocritical male chauvinists. The man-woman relationship is also deftly touched upon in the complex relationship between Jadhav and his wife, Sarita.

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Kamla is a female-centered play in the sense that it is built on the metamorphosis of Sarita emerging from being a docile wife to an assertive, mature and strong woman in the end.

Kamla is a satire on the trendy journalism we come across everywhere. Jadhav is indifferent to the humanness. He is capable of sacrificing human values, in the name of humanity itself. The husband-wife relationship between Sarita and Jaisingh is typical of the sort existing in the cities like Delhi, where executive husbands do not find adequate time for their wives who have to content themselves by being mere social beings.

The Dominating Male

At the center of the play is a self-seeking journalist, Jaisingh Jadhav, associated with English daily published by an unscrupulous press baron, Sheth Singhanian. He is an agile, adventurous journalist. He takes risks, exposes scandals and feeds the sophisticated paper with sensational news. His work boosts the circulation of the paper and the owner increases his salary, Jadhav happily moves to a small bungalow in a fashionable locality around New Delhi. Sarita, his wife is well educated and hails from a village called Phaltan. Kaka sahib, Sarita's uncle is currently in Delhi to procure his quota of newsprint with Jadhav's help. Kakasahib runs a newspaper in vernacular. He lives a simple life on Gandhian principles. Jaisingh treats the women he has purchased from flesh market as an object that can buy him a reputation in his professional life and promotion in his job. He is one of those modern individuals, who pursue their goal unquestioningly, with a single-track mind. Jadhav is never bothered of what will happen to *Kamla* after exhibiting her at the Press Conference.

Awakening through a Flesh Trade Girl

Kamla's entry in the household reveals to Sarita the selfish hypocrisy of her husband and the insignificance of her own existence in Jaisingh's life, on realizing that she holds no value in her husband's busy and materialistic lifestyle, she takes a re-birth. And finally a new Sarita emerges. She discards her submissive attitude and decides to convene a Press Conference where she would expose to the whole world the real Jaisingh Jadhav. She is determined to put forth her husband as a great advocate of freedom. She would tell how he bought the slave *Kamla* and used her for his own selfish ends. Sarita, who was asleep to her reality, was awakened by *Kamla*. She has come face to face with her domestic slavery. Frustrated, in anger, she questions her uncle as to why aren't women ever the masters? Why must only men have the right to rule?

But, then, in spite of her awakening she does not have the spirit to rebel at once against her plight. Instead, she whole-heartedly supports her husband who, by the end of the play, falls prey to a selfish conspiracy and loses his job. In the end though, Sarita returns to square one, she does not turn her face from her reality. She just hopes that a day might come when she would break away the chains. She would become a master of her own wishes and would no longer be a use and throw object. And that she would pay whatever price she has to, for it.

Attack on Sensational Journalism

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In the play Tendulkar has made a strong remark against the modern concept of journalism, which stresses on sensationalism. He does it among other things through a comparison of the characteristics of the protagonist with another character Kakasaheb. Kakasaheb is a journalist of the old school, who runs a small paper with his own resources. Kakasaheb provides the true ideals of journalism. And in contrast to these, Jadhav's concept of newspaper reporting is shown in a critical light. To quote Kakasaheb's words:

I'm a back number- a remnant of times past. A dead journalist-who's just about staying alive! Now it is the day of your husband's type of journalism. The High-Speed type! Something catches fire- and there he runs! There is a riot somewhere else and off he flies... (KL5)

That Kakasaheb edits a paper published in vernacular, while Jadhav's medium is English, also helps to highlight the elitist nature of journalism practiced by him. Tendulkar has tried to drive home the fact that it is the dailies in vernacular alone that reach the masses. And that none can affect any meaningful social or political change in India through English dailies, as they reach only a very small section of Indian population.

In the very opening scene Kakasaheb refers to the "high speed"(KL5) journalism practiced by Jaisingh. He pooh-poohs his craze for "eye-witness report" saying "being on the spot that's what is important! Never mind what you write". When Sarita defends her husband, saying "if it is (murder, bloodshed, rape, atrocity, arson) happening shouldn't he observe it?" Kakasaheb says:

Why does he have? My dear, it's not the facts of an occurrence that are important. But the topic is. Discuss that, comment on it. Suggest a way to stop it. After all, any murder, rape, or arson is like any other. What difference can there be? What sort of journalism is it that smacks its lips as it writes blood-thirsty descriptions instead of commentary? Its business isn't news-it is bloodshed! (KL6)

Kakasaheb, himself the proprietor of a small vernacular daily, is quick to discern Jadhav's real intention behind his reckless news reporting. Hence when Jadhav says

There's commitment behind it, there's a social purpose.....the common man.....needs to be shocked into looking at the truth.....We need a force that will raise his consciousness, prepare him to struggle for political and social change.(KL23-24)

Kakasaheb remarks:

... But you're doing all this for the small percent common people who have the good fortune knowing English. And these fortunate people are going to effect a change in the government of this country. The rest of the population the majority

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poor things are going to carry on in their haze. Because they don't know English.....this new journalism of yours if moneymaking is not the object of it then it's a Vandhya- language first. Speak it. Then try and teach them.

Kakasaheb says:

Five years ago you were in the shed outside a house in Karol Bagh. And today you're in a bungalow in Neeti Bagh even it is a small one. You have servants you have a car. You travel by plane all over the country. You stay in five star hotels. You get invitations from foreign embassies. You have access to ministers and Chief Ministers or even the Prime Minister! What's bad about that? The moral is: There's no harm in the game if you know to play it right. (KL24)

The corrupt administration and the hypocrisy inherent in this world of glamorized journalism are well revealed in Jaisingh's words:

... The police know it is true, but don't want to admit it. They say we reporters are sensation seekers and that's why we are digging into. And the government oh they are pure and lily white. They say, shantam papam perishes the thought! Newspaper walas have the bad habit of misusing the freedom of the press. I needed evidence. I didn't have any but I could smell something wrong. The police washed away their hands of it. The Home Minister put his hands over his cars.... I turned the whole world upside down to find this bazaar. I was the first journalist to reach it. Today I've caught them properly... (KL14-15)

Profit Making Journalists and Newspapers

The following words of Jaisingh smell of a typical commercialistic attitude in journalism. Press trade aims at lining the pockets of all those involved in it.

There's a way of doing these things. You have to build them up that way. What's so unusual about the Luhardaga flesh market? Women are sold in many places like that, all over the Country.....that's not the point. The point is how we project Luhardage the technique of it. The art lies in presenting the case-not in the case itself? There will be a high drama at today's press conference. It'll create uproar! (KL15)

Inspiration Comes from the Society – A Lovely Bonded Labourer

For Tendulkar, the inspiration comes from the society around him. In his plays one gets a feeling that there is an underlying current of sympathy towards the women characters created by him. In *Kamla*, Tendulkar has explored the position of women in the society today.

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Sarita is also exploited in her own way as Kamla. Tendulkar exposes the chauvinism intrinsic in the modern Indian male who believes that he is liberal-minded. Like Kamla, Sarita is also an object that merely provides physical enjoyment, social companionship and domestic comfort to Jadhav. She is indeed a "Lovely bonded labourer"(KL17), taking note of all phone calls, attending to Jadhav's physical needs and running about in the house carrying out all his presumptuous instructions, an obedient and loyal wife.

The Turn in the Story and Events

Kamla's unexpected question to Sarita that "How much did he buy you for?"(KL34) enlightens Sarita on her position in the family. Though Jaisingh took a handsome dowry in marrying her, she feels like saying "seven hundred". Kamla proposes that she will do all housework while Sarita will look after accounts and such "sophisticated" things. She adds that they will share their master's bed half a month each.

Kamla's dialogue with Sarita is an eye-opener for all of us, including the characters. Memsahab. If you won't misunderstand, I'll tell you. The master bought you: he bought me, too.....so, memsahab; both of us must stay here like sisters. We'll keep the master happy.....the master will have children. I'll bring them up. You keep the accounts and run the house... Fifteen days of the month, you sleep with the master; the other fifteen, I'll sleep with him. Agreed? (KL35)

Sarita agrees to this. Somehow, she painfully and shockingly realizes that she too, like Kamla, functions as a mere pawn in Jadhav's game of chess. To Jadhav, Kamla is only an object that helps him win instant fame. Sarita is also an object to be paraded as a wife at parties to enhance his status as a successful journalist. Jadhav is referred to by Kakasaheb and Jain as an irresponsible husband whose craze for publicity overwhelms him so much that he totally ignores his wife's existence. To quote Jain's words while he addresses Sarita:

Hi, Bhabhiji, I mean, an English 'he' to him, and a Marathi 'hai' to you. This warrior against exploitation in the country is exploiting you. He's made a drudge out of a horse-riding independent girl from a princely house, 'Hai', 'Hai' (Theatrically to Jaisingh). Shame on you! Hero of anti-exploitation campaign makes slave of his wife. (KL17)

When Sarita opposes Jaisingh's decision of taking Kamla to an orphanage, the dominant male chauvinist in him wakes up and he says, "It is I who take decisions in this house and no one else."(KL42) What Simon de Beauvoir says about the modern men applies aptly to Jaisingh here: "the men of today show a certain duplicity of attitude which is painfully lacerating to women; they are willing on the whole to accept women as a fellow being, an equal but they require her to remain the inessential".

Any Trade between Wife and Flesh Trade Woman?

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On realizing that in her husband's scheme of things, there is not much difference between herself and Kamla, she undergoes a great change, and becomes an entirely independent and assertive woman who has finally discovered her real identity. She comes up with an intention of convening a Press Conference to expose the tyranny of her husband. She would declare before the whole world, the real state of affairs at home:

I am going to present a man who in the year 1982 still keeps a slave, right here in Delhi. Jaisingh Jadhav. I am going to say this man's a great advocate of freedom. And he brings home a slave and exploits her. Listen to the story of how he brought home the slave Kamla and made use of her. The other slave he got free - not just free - the slave's father shelled out the money - a big sum.

These lines indicate that Sarita has come to know the egotistical insincerity of her own husband, and has realized the irrelevance of her being in the following potent and pivotal lines, Sarita reveals that:

I was asleep. Kamla woke me up with a shock. Kamla showed me everything. I saw that the man I thought my partner was the master of a slave. I have no rights in this house. Slaves don't have rights. Dance to their master's whim. Laugh, when he says, laugh. Cry, when he says, cry. When he says pick up the phone, they must pick it up. When he says, lie on the bed-she (she is twisted in pain) why? Why can't men limp behind? Why aren't women ever the masters? Why can't a woman ever ask to live her life the same way as a man? Why must only a man have the right to be a man? Does he have an extra sense? A woman can do everything a man can.

Enlightened Sarita questions the social injustices practiced against a woman in a male dominated society.

Wife to the Rescue

But, then, she somehow overcomes her resentment and lives to console Jadhav when at the close of the play he is dismissed from his job by the proprietor under the pressure of very big people who are involved in this flesh market. Tendulkar here suggests that Sarita cannot unlearn what she has come to realize. At the end of the play she hopes to attain independence sometime in the future. She is determined to come out of the oppression of a slave-like wife:

I'll go on feeling it. But at present I'm going to lock all that up in a corner of my mind and forget about it. But a day will come, Kakasaheb, when I will stop being a slave. I'll do what I wish, and no one will rule over me. That day has to come. And I'll pay whatever price I have to pay for it.

Evaluation of Married Life: Prohibitions of Society and Religion

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Kamla is an evaluation of the role of an Indian woman within the institution called marriage, considered to be the holiest of the holy in our society. The evaluation definitely provides a point of view showing that women are still mere slaves to their male owners in Indian society in the latter half of the twentieth century, in spite of democracy. Women bear and bring up children; do all the housework and some of them do jobs additionally. Yet they are considered a debit to the family. They are ill treated and tortured by their husbands. Ambedkar points out, "a woman under the laws of Manu is subject to corporal punishment and Manu allows the husband the right to beat his wife" Indian society, which has accepted the laws of Manu (Manu is an ancient Hindu Lawgiver and his laws are widely accepted and observed.), denies women education and thus mental growth. Manu says, "Women have no right to study Vedas".

In modern India women are allowed to study so that they become sophisticated slaves. The plight of Hindu women is peculiar. A Hindu woman is honored to bear progeny for her husband and as a partner to him in performing religious rites. But she is feared and loathed as a partner to him in performing religious rites. She cannot thus even think of sex, as she feels completely exhausted by the end of the day. Moreover, as Jandhyala points out: "with woman's sexuality so closely bound with marriage and her role as wife and mother, there was no possibility of considering her sexual needs and desires". Thus women are sexually oppressed. It is reflected in the concept of chastity, a patriarchal value. It is one of the most powerful yet invisible cultural fetters that have enslaved women for ages.

Emerging Feminism

The principal action in *Kamla* revolves around a woman protagonist. Sarita in the play stand for the central consciousness in the respective work of art, and so the play can be called women-centered. In such a play, the feminine ideology finds its complete expression. The character of Sarita consists of a great variety and depth in comparison to her male counterparts. She reacts against social injustices and the subservient position of women in the institution of marriage. In the end, the rebirth of Sarita, who is now independent, and stronger with confidence, and who looks forward to the day when she would break away the shackles of her bondage, shows that Tendulkar, though not a self-acknowledged feminist, treats his women characters with understanding and compassion. So, we see that Sarita is emerging as a capable woman who challenges man. Here Tendulkar commands our admiration as he has attempted at delineating women, who in spite of their supposed inferior status in Indian society, rebel against all odds.

Kamla the play not only scoffs at the hypocrisy of the urban middle class but also darts glancing barbs on power-hungry politicians and unscrupulous press barons who work hand in glove with one another in metropolitan centers like Delhi. For instance, Kakasaheb observes once:

Our houseboy becomes the defence minister; he's got one foot in Delhi and the other in Karad. And finally he's neither one thing nor the other.

Degraded Political System and Values of Democracy

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Towards the close, Jadhav's dismissal results from his proprietor Sheth Singhania's questionable association with some political big wigs of Delhi. The play also attacks the hawkish politicians, political figures who, instead of having the spirit of nationalism and working for the betterment of the nation are busy with their own welfare. The play stands against an allegedly corrupt system. Kamla jibes at the contemporary political set up comprising of petty-minded, mealy-mouthed and opportunistic politicians who believe that running a nation is more of a trade and every business trade is carried on with the aim of making profit. The play points out the mechanization of power at various levels and the degradation of moral values everywhere.

Satire and Sarcasm

There is inimitable satire and sarcasm aimed at the very core of male chauvinists in the Indian middle class society. When the highly domineering and egotistical Jaisingh loses his job in his bid to expose the racket of woman trade, it is no one else but his own ill-treated wife Sarita, who provides him with the required physical and mental support for coping with the situation. The play also offers Tendulkar enough scope to launch his diatribe against the presumptuous and reckless news reporters working for English dailies. It lays a strong stress on ethics.

But we should note here that Tendulkar does not launch any frontal attack on the subject ridiculed. He resorts to the employment of the device of "indirect satire" in which the characters make their opinions ridiculous by what they think, say and do as Jadhav exposes himself to ridicule all around because of his insensible pursuit after worldly fame.

Such a woman-oriented play by Tendulkar is a testimony to his wonderful insight into the inter-relationship between the human minds, psyche and body which the tripods are making up a personality. As Tendulkar puts it himself: "the basic urge has always been to let out my concerns vis-a-vis my reality: the human condition as I perceive it".

So, the overall scanning of the play reveals that the play looks at issues that disturb a sensitive mind, issues that need to be answered by every one of us. And today, also Kamla forcefully raises a voice against violence - violence against women. And to bring out awareness on such a burning issue, in India, theatrical societies like 'Sparsh' 'Abhinava' and institutions like St. Francis College for Women stage a dramatic reading of Tendulkar's Kamla bearing solidarity with the rest of the world in observing the international fortnight for violence against women.

Finally, whether women like Kamla who was bought by Jaisingh, a journalist, from a bazaar in Bihar at a measly two hundred and fifty rupees still exists or not is debatable but what exists as a poignant reality is that till today women in India are exploited, oppressed and dominated by men in varied forms. Be it physical, mental or psychological violence, the psyche of Indian male largely considers women as slaves whose chief duty is to serve him and lead a life as per his whims and fancies.

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Learning English at the B.Sc. Engineering Level in Some Universities of Bangladesh

Forhad Jamila, M.A.

Abstract

This article explores the condition of learning English to the engineering students in some of the universities of Bangladesh. An evaluation of course curricula of English is carried on the basis of the English syllabuses for engineering disciplines of those universities. Discussion on importance of learning English for an engineer, failure of learning English by the engineering students has been included in this paper. A brief review of research efforts aimed at evaluating this construct is made, followed by a consideration of how the language may be more effectively learned. This paper describes the various aspects of learning English and focuses on the effective ways of learning and teaching English at this level.

Introduction

English offers the dimensions that lead a learner to make him efficient and skilled to compete in the competitive world. For that, English courses are offered to the students of different disciplines of B.Sc Engineering. In this paper, I offer a comparative study of the courses of English at the B.Sc. engineering level for different disciplines in five public technical universities in Bangladesh: Bangladesh University of Engineering and Technology, Chittagong University of Engineering and Technology, Khulna University of Engineering and Technology, Dhaka University of Engineering and Technology, and Rajshahi University of Engineering and Technology. Some information from some private universities is also discussed.

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This article focuses on the necessity of learning English for the technical students. Problems faced by the students and their failure in learning English adequately are discussed here. After Murshikul Alam's (2006) article, "English Language Syllabus at BUET: An Evaluation" which discusses the course curricula of Bangladesh University of Engineering and Technology (BUET), to the best of my knowledge, no article has been reported on the issue facing students in learning English, as I do in this study.

Why do Engineers Need to Learn English?

At present English is the *de facto* official language of the world. English is used as the language of global communication. A person skilled in English is in good demand for employment in the world. Larsen-Freeman (1991) writes:

English, a second language for most of the people of the world, has increasingly become the international language for business and commerce, science and technology, and international relation and diplomacy. Other professional intercourse, such as the proceeding of meetings of health practitioners or educators from different parts of the world, is often conducted in English, a second language for many of the participants. (p. 1)

The engineers who graduate from the universities mentioned above usually lack proficiency in English. Generally speaking, engineering graduates from neighboring countries like India and Sri Lanka have better command in English than graduates from Bangladesh. It is true that Bangladesh engineers lag behind the engineers of India, Sri Lanka in the overseas job market because of inadequate proficiency in English. In Bangladesh, local and international companies recruit those engineers who are better skilled in English. There are also many Indian and Sri Lankan experts who work in local or international companies with good command in English. Now Bangladesh graduates need a realization that they will not be able to cope up with the competition unless more importance is given to learn English.

Nunan (2003) points out that English is the dominant medium of communication around the world. It is the language of business, technology, science, the Internet, popular entertainment and sports. In academia over 50% of all research is published in English.

English plays the vital role in our economic activities. In trading with foreign countries people need to communicate in English. The economy of Bangladesh depends to some extent on remittance by Bangladesh workers abroad, export of some items and foreign aid. Remittance is going to be the leading tool of our economy. The skilled manpower like engineers, technologists who are skilled in English can earn a good deal of foreign currency.

A graduate who wants to go for further study in a foreign country or wants to get a scholarship for studying abroad must be skilled in English. They need to sit for different English

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language tests. A good score is demanded in those tests for getting admission in renowned institutions and for getting scholarships.

Syllabuses of English for Engineering Disciplines of Some Universities

The English courses for B.Sc. Engineering level are almost the same in every university of Bangladesh with a few exceptions. In designing the course contents, grammar and writing skill are emphasized. Grammar part contains mainly: Vocabulary, Construction of Sentences, Some Grammatical Problems, Analysis, and Transformation of Sentences and Synthesis of Sentences, Punctuation, Common Errors committed by Bangladesh students in Grammar, etc.

The writing part includes: Paragraph Writing, Amplification, Précis: Definition and Importance, Rules of Précis Writing, Commercial Correspondence, Format and Organization of Letter in general, Various Types of Letters: Letter of Application, Request Letter, Order Letter, Letter of Adjustment, Letter of Complaint, Tender Notice: Definition, Purpose, Types of Tender Notice, Common Forms of Technical Report: Writing for Technical Purposes, Various Elements of Report, Rules of Footnotes and Reference, Key Word Selection, Standard Form of Project Report, Term Paper, Thesis, Research Paper, etc.

In addition to the above, BUET syllabus includes short stories of some famous writers and models of business communication in advanced level of the English courses. Among the private universities, North South University emphasizes different sorts of essay writing, East West University and Stamford University have oriented their courses differently to improve oral and written communication skills. Most of the private universities in Bangladesh just follow the English syllabuses of BUET. Shahjalal University of Science and Technology has the course of English language practical to develop listening and speaking skills.

From the syllabus analysis of these courses, it is observed that the courses are designed on the basis age-old grammar-translation method. The students of this level have already completed their English courses in secondary and higher secondary levels in communicative method and here they are to learn advanced grammatical rules. So, there exists a yawning gap between their previous and present courses. There is little scope for speaking and listening as students' interaction and exposure to the target language is almost absent. In the view of Hutchinson and Waters (1984), language materials should aim at harnessing and enlarging underlying linguistic competence. Students are encouraged to aim for a global integration of the four skills as opposed to the kinds of English for Special Purpose Syllabus. They are encouraged to acquire effective writing skills and are thus given a powerful tool for learning and working in their subjects.

Students' Failure in Learning English

The acquisition of first language is an instinctive process. But second language acquisition is not such a spontaneous process. Schuman (1978) points out the social and psychological factors that help or hamper Second Language Acquisition. In case of our learners

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it is found that social distance is an important factor which hinders the learning process. As we are socially distant from the native speakers of English, our learners do not get sufficient input exposure. So, outside the classroom they do not have any easy access to English. But, for learning a language, easy access to the target language is very essential. Even it is seen that the presence of a foreign student (though a non-native speaker) in classroom enhances the speaking context and the ability of the other students as they have to interact with him in English.

English is learned as a second language in Bangladesh. There is a concerted effort at learning to pass the examination. Though there is a dire need for learning English to meet the global demand, students are not able to apprehend this in their student life. They realize their deficiency when they graduate and join gainful work. They feel that they could have done better in learning English, because it becomes apparent to them at that time that those who have better skills in English are preferred in job situations. For mastering a second language hard work and more concentration must be required. But the students do not concentrate on this.

One of the major problems of learning English at the B.Sc. engineering level is that the students may come with a wrong notion that English is less important than their discipline related courses. As a result they do not give importance to learn English to get proficiency in it. The medium of instruction in this level is English. But English is rarely practiced in other courses while the content subjects are taught in the classroom. Even error in writing English in those courses are generally ignored, which is also another important factor for not improving their skills in English. Greater emphasis on the mastery of engineering content and lack of adequate importance given to the mastery of English go hand in hand. Teachers of engineering courses seem to assume that by actual experience in the jobs students choose after their graduation, their students would improve their English skills. While this may be true, unfortunately, better paying employment opportunities demand entry level effective performance in English.

Also there may be English teachers' failure to make the language learning interesting to the students. The course topics may not be interesting to the students, and the teachers may not also be fully and adequately acquainted with the course contents in English. The appropriate process of learning English is not clear to the both the parties involved in the process of learning-teaching English. The classroom environment may not be attractive to the students. Teachers may not be efficient enough to make the student practice the four skills.

Problems of Teaching as well as the Teaching Methodology in Classroom

Academically speaking, teachers' competence in English at this level may need some better improvement. English language teaching is based on four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. But most of the teachers are neither well acquainted with nor well trained in those four skills very well. Again most of the universities do not provide enough logistic supports to the teachers to help their students to improve their performance in English.

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Teachers focus more on managing the class of students, teaching the day's lesson, and helping students learn the material, hoping that this would result in learning English. The teaching approaches and teacher rationales highlight the social and personal dimensions of classroom pedagogy. Prabhu (1992) has pointed out that a lesson is not merely a curricular event. There is no guarantee that the implementation of a particular method and / or the employment of instruments such as syllabus or textbook would help a lot. Learning is a social event and a forum for interaction on a personal level. In order for the social event to move forward smoothly, expected roles are taken up and routinized events are enacted. Thus, students learn, listen, and warm up while teachers help, check, and stimulate.

But the environment in the universities does not support these basic facts of teaching. It is also found that only one or two English language teachers are engaged in teaching students in the whole university. Here one teacher has to manage a large number of students. The class load for a teacher is generally high. So, there is less chance of teacher-student interaction. The teachers also teach the language with old traditional method where reading and writing are given more importance. But the other skills listening and speaking remain unpracticed due to either classroom facilities or teachers' inactiveness. There are not enough logistic supports, such as, multimedia, overhead projector, TV monitor, audio systems for the teachers to teach effectively. So the teachers have no other choice to take the resort of old traditional method.

Another crucial problem of the teachers is that they usually teach a heterogonous group of students who are psychologically distant from the target language. As it is a foreign language, the students are afraid of English from their childhood. With this same frame of mind they attend their classes at this level. So, it becomes a hard task for a language teacher to make the classes interesting.

There is a global demand for efficient and skilled persons in English. So, an efficient or skilled language teacher at this level does not continue his job as a teacher at this level for a long time as he has opportunity to build his career in well-paying jobs, or he may not enjoy teaching in universities with limited facilities and moves over to other institutions within or outside the country. So the students are deprived of getting trained under the leadership of experienced and talented teachers.

How do Students Improve Their Learning?

For learning anything we must have some purpose. Generally our motivation speeds up our learning. In case of learning a language motivation is very important. Gardener and Lambert (1959) called the concept of identification of Mowrer (1950) as integrative motivation which refers to the wishes of the learners to be integrated to the target language group. It needs to be incorporated with the culture and society of target language group. In contrast to the integrative motivation Gardener and Lambert (1959) introduced the concept of instrumental motivation, in which the learner is motivated to learn a language for utilitarian purposes, such as furthering a career, improving social status or meeting an educational requirement. Teachers should motivate their students through instrumental motivation. Alpetkin (1981) admonishes the language

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teachers to be sensitive to the motivation type of their students. Some teachers may operate under the questionable assumption that students' integrative motivation brings better result than instrumental motivation. Teachers should be discouraged from such practice.

Attitude is another important factor that influences learning English. A positive attitude towards the target language is related to the success of language learning. Teachers' attitude towards learners, also affects the quality and quantity of learning which take place. Spolsky (1969) has mentioned:

In a typical language learning situation, there are a number of people whose attitudes to each other can be significant: the learner, the teacher, the learner's peers and parents and the speakers of the language. Each relationship might well be shown to be a factor controlling the learner's motivation to acquire the knowledge. (p: 237)

Awareness and the will of learners are other crucial factors to learn a second language. Gattengo (1976) gave importance to the development of learner awareness and use of will to acquire second language successfully. There should be awareness among parents as well as teachers.

Having interest in any sort of work presented to a student makes that student more knowledgeable about the task. In the case of learning language, interest in the process plays an important role. Henning (1983) has studied that it is the interest of language learner that leads to successful language learning.

Suggestion to Improve English Language Learning and Teaching in Bangladesh

The English studied at this level is the combination of a large portion of old traditional method and a small portion of communicative method. Giving more importance to grammatical rules enables learners to acquire more accuracy but not much fluency and spontaneity in using the language successfully. The general learners learn English for practical purposes like getting job, operating all kinds of individual, organizational and state affairs more effectively. Under these circumstances, giving exclusive importance communicative skills may mean mostly oral communication. But oral communication alone may not be enough. Written communication is also not less important and it should also be achieved. Accuracy may also be earned. In this method structure and grammar are taught from the context. Teachers need to work a lot for this kind of teaching as they have to innovate the ways to find out grammar patterns and use the structure hidden in the context.

Oral communication of our students can be developed through some controlled and created practice and situation. As we do not have English atmosphere to practice English everywhere, a controlled situation should be created in our classroom to be skilled in it.

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With the severe limitation of classroom facilities mentioned earlier it is really impossible to teach using the communicative method. The communicative skills will not develop in the students unless enough scope is provided to them for their practice outside the classroom or in the language lab. The number of students in a classroom will have to be also drastically reduced. But this may be only a wishful thinking, as existing circumstances and government educational plans focus on encouraging students of various social and economic backgrounds to gain higher education. And this certainly is an important social purpose.

A skilled and well trained teacher with a wide repertoire is optimal for teaching language. Hence, teacher education program is necessary for a potential teaching. Wanden (1985) stresses that teacher should not take teaching language a simple process. Instead, teachers' endeavor to help learners improve their language skills must be complemented by an equally systematic approach to helping them develop and refine their learning skills. Teachers should be well trained as learner's learning is integrated with skilled teaching.

The course contents of this level need to be redesigned. Literature also helps to learn English because it is through literature that one can know the nuances and subtleties of language. For this, some well-known classics and fictions may be included in the English courses. Students who intend to go abroad after their graduation require facing some sort of English language tests like IELTS, GRE and TOEFL, etc. The English courses may be designed by including the format of these tests to help the learners improve their skills in English. In course design there may be separate marking on the four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing.

A language lab with computers, video and TV monitors, audio facilities must be set up. Without a language lab practice of communicative English cannot be performed. One or two teachers will not be able to conduct a language lab smoothly. For this, a couple of language teachers need to be recruited.

Conclusion

Concentrated effort and hard work are essential to learn English. Interest, awareness, and motivation are necessary for the acquisition of English. Successful learning also depends on the quality of teaching and the amount of exposure to the target language. That is, learners must be much more exposed to the target language in classroom and even outside the classroom. This paper discussed the nature and condition of learning English at the B.Sc. Engineering level in Bangladesh. Problems of learning and teaching methodology have been reported in this article. Finally, some suggestions have been given to overcome all those problems. It is hoped that this paper will help to improve the learning and teaching English at this level.

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Perception of Teachers about the Use of Herbert Model of Lesson Planning in Public Sector Secondary Schools in District Attock (Pakistan)

Sajid Rehman, Ph.D., Aijaz Ahmed Gujjar, Naemullah Bajwa, Ph.D., and Ghazala Shaheen, Ph.D.

Abstract

Lesson planning is the first and foremost step in teaching. A good planning for lesson results good teaching and better results. The lesson planning has its roots in the history of teaching. There are so many models available in the literature of education. The foremost model was given by German psychologist and philosopher Herbert. This study was designed to find out the perception of secondary school teachers about the Herbert model of lesson planning.

Objectives of the study were to find out the practice of using Herbert model of the lesson planning in teaching learning process and to find out the practice of using other models of lesson planning in teaching-learning process. 100 teachers from the public secondary schools were considered the sample of the study. A thirteen items questionnaire was developed and data was collected from the teachers who were considered the sample of the study.

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It was found that majority of the teachers were not following the Herbert model of lesson planning.

Introduction

Lesson planning is the first and foremost step in teaching. A good planning for lesson results in good teaching and better student performance. The lesson planning has its roots in the history of teaching. There are so many models available in the literature of education. The foremost model was given by the German psychologist and philosopher Herbert, who is being followed in our teacher training institutions for training and educational institutions for classroom teaching and instruction. In our system these practices are not properly followed in the public sector educational institutions, due to which the teaching is not so effective and the outcomes are not up to the desired level. However, these practices are being followed by our privately managed educational institutions. But the uses of lesson planning practices are very traditional and the outcomes are not measured and evaluated in the context of the objectives. So, the evaluation of these practices is very important for improvement in the existing scenario.

Lesson planning makes the work regular, organized and more systematic. It induces confidence in teachers. It makes the teacher conscious of the objectives and of the attitude he desires to develop in the students. It saves time and helps in making correlation between the concepts with the pupils' environment. It stimulates the teacher to develop striking questions. It provides more freedom in teaching (Shahid, 1999).

Model Plans

Models refer to a set of basic assumption that outline the universe of scientific inquiry specifying both the concept regarded as legitimate and the methods to be used in collecting and interpreting data.

Model of teaching have been developed to help the teachers to improve their capacity to teach children and create a richer and more diverse environment for them. A model of teaching has been defined in various ways by researchers who worked in the field of teaching. Model of teaching can be defined as instructional design which describes the process of specifying, producing particular environmental situations that cause the students' interest in such a way that a specific change occurs in their behavior.

A model of teaching serves a useful purpose of providing in specific terms what the teacher has to do. He has a comprehensive design of instruction with him through which he can achieve the objectives of the course. Teaching becomes a scientifically controlled and goal oriented activity. Thus, a model provides guidance to the teacher as well as to students to reach the goal of instruction.

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A model of teaching helps in the development of curriculum as well for different classes at different levels of education. A model specifies a great instructional material which a teacher can use to bring a desirable change in the personality of a learner. It helps the teacher's learning process and increases effectiveness of teaching. (www.wikipedia.com)

Herbert's Model: Basic Elements

Herbert was a great philosopher and psychologist, who developed an educational psychology based model. The original formal steps of instruction, according to Herbert were only four:

- i) Clearness
- ii) Association
- iii) Assimilation
- iv) Application

(Ahmed and Mumtaz, 2003)

Later on, Herbart's disciple, Ziller, divided the steps of clearness into two steps, namely, preparation and presentation to guide teachers in their efforts. Those who adopted Herbert's model devised a series of instructional steps that became the most widely used aspect of Herbert's teaching method. The most popular form has five steps.

- a) Preparation
- b) Presentation
- c) Association
- d) Assimilation
- e) Application

Application of the Sequence

The first task of teacher in preparation was to stir up in pupil's mind the idea upon which he wished to graft the new material in his lesson. He then presented the material, clearly and attractively, and proceeded to associate. It with the ideas previously in the pupil's mind, knitting it skill gully into the existing pattern.

The most important step is to examine the fresh pattern formed out of new and old ideas which form the meaning of the new appreciation mass that has been formed. The final step is that of fixing the new material in the pupils mind by applying it in a variety of ways in tests, classroom exercise and assignments for home work.

This sequence became a standard approach in the twentieth century for many subjects of the curriculum in primary and secondary schools of many countries. It was systematic, suitable for

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many different kinds of material, and was based on an easily comprehended theory of learning. In the hands of a skillful teacher it could be both thorough and intellectually exciting.

The instructional sequence is associated with the “doctrine of interest”. This method is only applicable to knowledge lesson and not for skill-oriented lesson.

Herbert emphasized more on teaching rather than learning.

In short, Herbert’s approach to lesson planning outlines the following formal steps:

- i) Introduction (or preparation)
- ii) Presentation
- iii) Association (or comparison)
- iv) Generalization
- v) Application
- vi) Recapitulation

Kochar (1992) & Amin (2005)

Objectives of the Study

- To find out the practice of using Herbert model of lesson planning in teaching-learning process.
- To find out the practice of using other models of lesson planning in teaching-learning process.

Methodology

All the teachers of the public sector secondary schools of District Attock were included as the population of the study. The sample was selected randomly which constituted 100 teachers (50 male and female each) from the whole district. A questionnaire was developed as the tool/instrument of the study. The data collected through the questionnaire was tabulated and analyzed by using percentages.

Findings

Table: Showing the analysis of the questionnaire in percentage

S.No.	Statement	N	Yes (%)	No (%)
1	Do you prepare lesson of each period according to lesson planning?	100	22%	78%

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2	Do you know that Herbert model is used for lesson planning?	100	20%	80%
3	Do you know the basis of Herbert's model?	100	18%	82%
4	There are so many models of lesson planning in educational literature, Do you know about any other model?	100	24%	76%
5	Have you over tested any other model of lesson planning?	100	16%	84%
6	Does Herbert's model fulfill all the requirements of teaching?	100	20%	80%
7	Do you start your lesson in connection with the previous knowledge?	100	8%	92%
8	Do you announce your topic first?	100	80%	20%
9	Do you make the students to apply their knowledge.	100	21%	79%
10	Do you plan your lesson for clarity in teaching	100	25%	75%
11	Do you make your lesson attractive with the help of lesson planning.	100	30%	70%
12	Do you associate present knowledge with the previous knowledge	100	36%	64%
13	Do you assimilate your lesson through planning.	100	29%	71%

Above table shows:

22% teachers prepare lesson of each period according to lesson planning,
20% teachers know that Herbert model is used for lesson planning,
18% teachers know the basis of Herbert's model,
24% teachers know about any other models,
16% teachers have tested any other model of lesson planning,
20% teachers are in favor that Herbert's model fulfill all the requirements of teaching,
8% teachers are of the view that they start their lessons in connection with previous knowledge,
80% teachers are of the view that they announce their topics first,
21% teachers make their students to apply their knowledge,
25% plan their lessons for clarity in teaching,
30% teachers make their lessons attractive with the help of lesson planning,
36% teachers associate present knowledge with the previous knowledge and
29% teachers assimilate their lesson through planning.

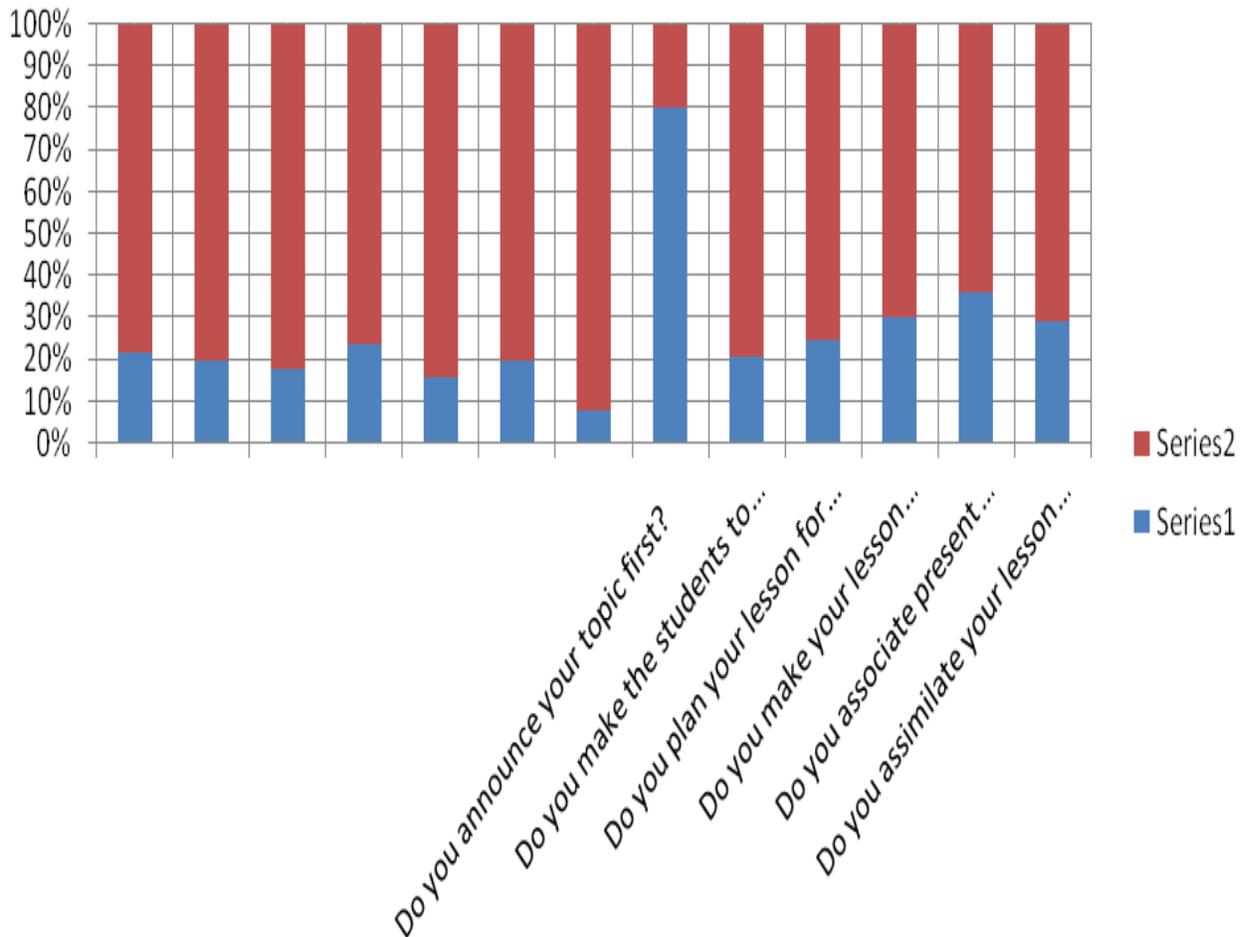
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Showing the Analysis of Questionnaire



Conclusion

Majority of the teachers perceived that they did not prepare their lesson for each period. They did not know Herbert's model and its basis. Majority of the teachers also were not aware about other models of lesson planning. They also perceived that they did not fulfill the requirements of teaching according to Herbert's model. They did not start the lesson making connections with the previous knowledge of the students. They announced the topic of the lesson for teaching, but

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they did not make their students apply their knowledge, and they did not plan their lesson clearly and attractively.

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Matrimonial Discourse in Manju Kapur

B.S. Jadhav, Ph.D.

R.S. Nitonde, Ph.D. Candidate

Indian English and Indian English Literature

Wanted own business, graduate, *manglik* boy, over 1.65, from *kaiyasth* community, own property, for only *manglik* daughter, UP *kaiyasth*, migrated from Lahore, graduate from a prestigious woman's college, extremely fair, beautiful, homely, 1.60, 20 years. Early marriage. Horoscope must. Send details with recent colour returnable photograph (must) to Box ... - The *Hindustan Times*. (Home, 225)

Indian writing in English has now grown up into Indian English Literature. With its new face, it represents in its fullness all major aspects of Indian-ness. 'Now that Indian fiction has become well entrenched within the larger gamut of Indian English literature, feminist fiction has occupied the centre stage as the most powerful and characteristic form of literary expression. Ruth Praver Jhabvala, Shashi Deshpande, Mahashweta Devi, Manju Kapur, Arundhati Roy, Jhumpa Lahiri, et al. have made the Indian novels in English the world's best sellers'. (Prasad and Malik, 226)

Manju Kapur and Her Works

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Matrimonial Discourse in Manju Kapur



Manju Kapur

With thanks to www.independent.co.uk

Manju Kapur is a contemporary Indian novelist in English who has established herself with her first novel *Difficult Daughters* (1998), which won her prestigious Commonwealth Writers' Prize (Urasia Section) in 1998. She has also written best seller novels such as *A Married Woman* (2002), *Home* (2006), *The Immigrant* (2008) and *Custody* (2011). Her books have been translated into many languages both in India and outside.

Feminist Concerns

Though Manju Kapur hates to be called as a feminist writer, through all her fictional works she projects the feminist concerns. The entire scenario in her novels is feminine. Virmati in *Difficult Daughters*; Astha in *A Married Woman*; Nisha in *Home*; Nina in *The Immigrant*; and Shagun and Ishita in *Custody* are all middle-class educated urban Indian women struggling to establish themselves with their own independent identities in the patriarchal setup of which they are part and parcel.

Marriage Concerns

'One of the main problems for educated women is marriage. Most of their problems are related to marriage' (Manohar, xiii). Marriage is one of the tools for a creative writer to depict the cultural ethos representing Indian-ness. Manju Kapur has both opted for it and also cashed it. Marriage is a central theme in all her fictional works. Kapur's every novel opens with a live discussion on marriage - the topmost significant issue in the life of the female protagonist.

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According to Lisa E. J. Lau (2011), Kapur's debut novel *Difficult Daughters* depicts the life of Virmati who got education and a career despite the constraints of being a woman and became the second wife of a Professor.

Kapur's second novel *A Married Woman* has a protagonist, who, despite an initially happy arranged marriage and satisfying sexual life, drifts into a lack of marital and familial contentment; and involves herself in politics where she meets a woman, who ultimately becomes her lover.

Kapur's next novel, *Home* is about Nisha who longs for a meaningful career, but is forced into waiting for marriage.

Kapur's fourth novel, *The Immigrant* has Nina as a protagonist. She goes to Canada in an arranged marriage. She cheats on her husband and engages herself in extra marital relationship with a male classmate.

In Kapur's latest novel *Custody*, Shagun - the protagonist leaves her husband and in due course divorces him. She abandons her family life, marries her love and moves to New York. Then Raman remarries with Ishita, another divorcee and overcomes the difficult situation in his life. Thus all these marriages are in a way different from each other.

The Focus of This Paper

The present paper aims at an in-depth inquiry into the matrimonial discourse that comes in the novels of Manju Kapur.

Discourse 1 - Story of an Exploiter and an Exploited



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Virmati in *Difficult Daughters* learns that in her family there is only marriage for girls. Even she perpetually recalls what her mother taught her to remember that ‘Still, it is the duty of every girl to get married’ (15). Kapur’s women are completely compelled to think of nothing but marriage as ‘It seemed to Virmati that her family could talk of nothing else but her wedding. Every word they said had so little relation to her inner life that she felt fraudulent even listening to them, passively, immorally silent’ (69-70).

In case of Kasturi, the first generation woman in *Difficult Daughters*, marriage was to please one’s in-laws.

During Kasturi’s formal schooling it was never forgotten that marriage was her destiny. After she graduated, her education continued at home. Her mother tried to ensure her future happiness by impeccable nature of her daughter’s qualifications. She was going to please her in-laws. (62)

For Virmati’s family, marriage is for the parental pleasure and family prestige:

Shakuntala Pehnji did not have five sisters waiting to get married either. And do you think it makes her mother happy to have her daughter unmarried? She may say what she likes about jobs and modern women, but I know how hard she still tries to find a husband for Shaku, and how bad she feels. You want to do the same to me? To your father and grandfather? (58).

While commenting on her parental expectations, Virmati says that ‘They want nothing from me but an agreement to marry’ (100). When Virmati succeeds in getting married with her love – the Professor, her feeling is not of joy and happiness but of being relieved of a guilty conscience.

In the evening the wedding ceremony proceeded smoothly. The poet’s parents did the *kanya-daan*, the seven *phas* were taken, the couple pronounced man and wife. As Virmati rubbed her eyes, watering from the smoke, she knew, rather than felt, that the burden of the past five years had lifted. (202)

Manju Verma has aptly pointed out that, “The relationship between the two could have been an ideal between a man and a woman but unfortunately it becomes a story of an exploiter and an exploited, a union of un-equals, and an unusual tale of male chauvinism and woman’s total submission” (171).

Going through the novel, it becomes clear that ‘Virmati had achieved through Harish, education, work, marriage and suffering’ (253). And the lesson is ‘Adjust, compromise, adapt.’ (256)

A Conflict of Woman versus Woman

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It seems a conflict of woman versus woman where a mother is reluctant to educate her daughter. Swarna Lata undergoes such sort of an experience.

‘You look too nice for anybody to be cross with,’ she probed. ‘I wish my mother thought so,’ Swarna licked her fingers. ‘It’s only because of my father I am here. My mother wanted me to marry. She said I had done my BA and that was enough. Where was all this study going to end?’ (117)

Virmati’s daughter is quite different from her. In Chakravarty’s words, “Ida is strong and clear headed. She terminates her marriage when she is denied maternity by her husband. She breaks free of the nuptial ties.” (98)

Discourse 2 – Marriage as Sacred Duty and Miscalculations



In *A Married Woman* (2002) marriage of a daughter is considered as a sacred duty of the parents, and according to the *shastras* performing it will lead them to salvation. We have a typical declaration by the mother:

When you are married, our responsibilities will be over. Do you know the *shastras* say, ‘if parents die without getting their daughter married, they will be condemned to perpetual rebirth?’ (1)

Proper Age

The novel throws some light on the proper age of marriage for girls. Astha’s mother uses fruit image to describe the maturity of her daughter. Here is a brief dialogue between Astha’s parents:

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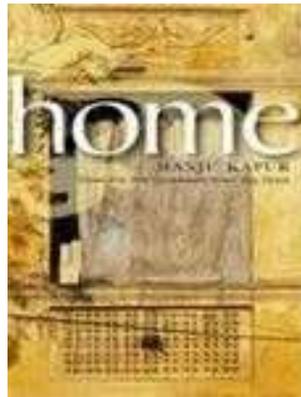
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‘There is a time for everything,’ went on the mother. ‘The girl is blossoming now. When the fruit is ripe it has to be picked. Later she might get into the wrong company and we will be left wringing our hands. If she marries at this age, she will have no problem adjusting. We too are not so young that we can afford to wait. (20)

Thus, when Astha was in final year she was married to Hemant, a MBA son of a bureaucrat family living in Delhi’s Lodhi Colony. Initially she thinks that she is enjoying the bliss of married life as she becomes a mother of two children –Anuradha and Himanshu. But soon her subservient position at home makes her restless and she finds a friend to discover ‘the usual female trap, its all right, you are not alone, we all experience it in one way or another’ (217). When Astha knows ‘A willing body at night, a willing pair of hands and feet in the day’ are the prerequisites of a wife for Hemant, she loses her sense for home, duty, wifehood and motherhood.

Thus, the novel ends up with Astha as a dissatisfied married woman. According to Bhagabat Nayak, “Astha’s marriage to a Pan American and Pan Indian husband in her parents’ choice is a miscalculation”. (225).

Discourse 3 – Arranged and Love Marriages



Manju Kapur’s third novel, *Home* opens with the description of two sisters – Sona and Rupa. Their marriages are simply described as arranged and love marriage. In the succeeding pages it narrates the economics and politics of arranged marriages in joint family.

In order to remain financially secure, and ensure the family harmony that underpinned that security, marriages were arranged with great care. The bride had to bring a dowry, come from the same background, and understand the value of togetherness. (3)

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Initially both the sisters suffer of barrenness which makes them vulnerable. But soon they are blessed with children they desired.

However, *Home* mainly describes the growth of Sona's daughter Nisha as an individual. In her early childhood she is sexually harassed by her own cousin Vicky. When she is in her B.A. final, her parents begin the search for a groom. Then she declares her love for Suresh, her *Paswan* boyfriend. But she is not allowed to follow her senses even though the boy was ready to accept her despite her being a *mangali*. In the *Home* we find that the people believed that a girl's beauty was her fate and a place to live with comfort was the only condition for a girl to marry with someone. Nisha was so pretty and also from a well-to-do family. Her parents also wanted to marry off their daughter into a family where she could live comfortably for the rest of her life. But Nisha who is in love with a poor fellow, becomes restless. The process of marriage is hastened by her family and Nisha becomes the first woman from the Banwari Lal family to be advertised for marriage. Her family's consideration for the prerequisites of caste, community, and like-mindedness becomes evident over here.

Being a *manglik* girl, Nisha's marriage gets delayed. She becomes a business woman by establishing Nisha's Creations. It brightens her future and she is married to Arvind. The purpose of this marriage for him was neither love nor any personal intention but rather a compulsion. "Arvind must marry, the old mother must have someone to look after her, it is not right, the place is so empty, son is busy in the shop, someone should be there to see, notice, care, and where are the children going to come from?" (322). Ten months after marriage, Nisha gives birth to twins accomplishing the purpose behind the marriage. But contrary to it, she loses both her status as a decision maker and also her economic freedom along with her own Nisha's Creations. A. N. Dwivedi, commenting on this marriage, aptly remarks that: "Nisha has to sacrifice her genuine, pure love for false family honours" (68).

Discourse 4 – The Immigrant



The Immigrant opens with the wailing of Nina, a thirty year woman waiting for marriage. Everybody around her and every part of her feminine body- her womb, her ovaries, her uterus, the unfertilized eggs that expelled every month remind her of her unmarried status.

The major topic of conversation in the last eight years had been Nina's marriage – who, when, where, how? The hopes each conversation generated gradually lost their luster as the years went by and nothing changed. From where could fresh possibilities be unearthed on the eve of her thirtieth birthday? (3)

Tired of the task of searching a groom for her daughter, Nina's mother visits an astrologer. She declares that the day Nina gets married, she will pay him one hundred rupees and in addition to it one hundred at the *Katyayani mandir*. When a proposal came from an NRI named Ananda living in Canada, her mother prayed that it would result in a home and happiness for her daughter. 'To see her well settled was her only wish' (61). Because she has learnt from her own experience that it was necessary to have a man to protect one from the vicissitudes of life.

The Wedding Function

The concept of the wedding function in this novel is real and practical one as 'Ananda and Nina wanted a court marriage – less trouble, less expense' (81). Thus, Nina's fantasy of being mistress of her future, her life, her happiness comes to reality. But it proved to be short lived, as she finds her husband asleep before she came out of bathroom for first night of their marital life. And even in the succeeding nights at Canada he continues to take deep sleeps and can not please her. Ananda's impotence is the main cause for Nina's marital agony. Nina becomes lonely at a place 10,000 miles away from her mother and ex-colleagues in Miranda House.

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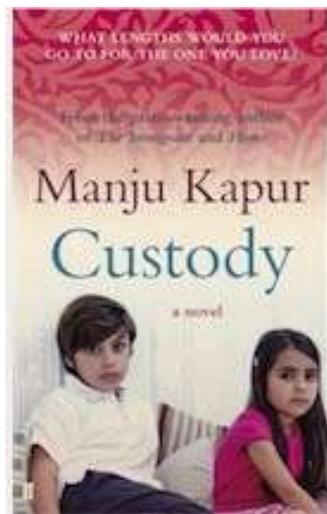
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It suggested that security was not happiness, and that neither depended on fertility or a husband's sexuality. Late, late, she retired to bed, alone with herself, her future still as unclear as on the day she has wed. (227)

Though reluctant at the beginning, Nina finds her carnal bliss with Anton, her Library Science Course classmate in Halifax. This is how she renounces both the Indian institution of family and marriage. In *The Immigrant* Nisha's dream of a happy married life ends with a sour note and she is surging ahead with the hope of establishing herself independently on her own foot in an alien country. (Kumar, 68)

Discourse 5 – Effects of Divorce



Custody presents the devastating effects of divorce on different stakeholders of a family – the wife, husband, children and in-laws. It opens with the description of the arranged marriage between Shagun and Raman: ‘Raman and Shagun’s marriage had been arranged along standard lines, she the beauty, he the one with brilliant prospects’ (14). Raman worked hard to give her a good life. She had two lovely children and everything she wanted. In spite of all this, Raman was denied the central position in his family. She was searching for something like passion. She falls in love with Ashok, Raman’s boss in the beverage company. Only to marry with him she wants divorce from Raman, and when it is denied she kidnaps the children. The battle runs to the court of justice where it is further delayed only to be settled by mutual understanding. Meanwhile, Arjun and Roohi - children of Shagun and Raman, suffer for no fault of theirs. “Roohi’s crying fits, Arjun’s traumas and sleepovers at friends’ houses, Raman coming home late, late, late, this was the norm.” (105)

Problems of Infertility in Married Life

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There is another marriage in *Custody* between Ishita and Suryakanta, which fails because of Ishita's infertility. However the most interesting thing is Kapur's idea of bringing together two divorcees, Ishita and Raman as a successful couple. In this novel we find Kapur's own definition of marriage:

Marriage is when two people decide to live together for ever. Should they change their minds they go to court and get marriage cancelled. Finished. Divorced. They become strangers; sometimes they never see each other again. (341)

According to Mithu Banerji (2011), "Kapur's book reveals the unimagined uncertainties of matrimony. The wife's sense of suffocation, the husband's fear of loneliness and the constant shifting of the children, like commodities, from one home to the other, are evoked with painstaking sincerity."

Discourse 6 – Marriage Reforms and Reasons to Marry

Kapur in her fictional works has caught the flux of a representative group of middle-class Indian women trapped in wed locks in different types of families. Her *Difficult Daughters* presents live discussions on wedding in an Arya Samaji agrarian joint family of Lala Diwan Chand. *A Married Woman* is about the marriage and married life of Astha, a Delhi based middle class Indian woman from a bureaucrat family. The *Home* describes the marriages in Delhi's mercantile family of Banwari Lal. *The Immigrant* is the projection of an NRI arranged marriage. Her most recent novel, *Custody* deals with the theme of failure of arranged marriage resulting into divorce and remarriage among the two divorcees.

Kapur has clearly stated all possible reasons to marry through her protagonists. In *Difficult Daughters*, for Kasturi it is the responsibility, for Virmati it is to love and attachment, and for Ida it is to carry the line. In *A Married Woman*, Astha's parents want to marry her because they consider it as their duty. In *Home*, Nisha is married with Arvind only to serve his family. In *The Immigrant*, Nina's mother wants to marry her daughter so that she can get security and stability. And in *Custody*, for Shagun and Raman it is the standard line of beauty and brain, for Ishita and Suryakanta to be happy, for Shagun and Ashok to follow the passion, lastly to Raman and Ishita it is the adjustment.

Varying Results of Marriage and the Roots of Suffering and Happiness

The results of marriages in Kapur's fiction are not all the same. In *Difficult Daughters*, Kasturi becomes a passive sufferer being exploited in a patriarchal family, Virmati is alienated, and Ida is single and childless. In *A Married Woman*, Astha in her restlessness turns into a lesbian and becomes irresponsible with everything including her children and her husband, and Peepalika a lesbian widow. In *Home* Nisha loses her economic freedom

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and independent identity. In *The Immigrant*, Nina being dishonest to her husband feels alienated in an alien land. In *Custody*, Shagun having everything from first marriage asks for divorce to run after her passion, and Ishita is divorced for her barrenness.

The roots of the sufferings of these difficult lives in the fictional works of Manju Kapur are varied in nature. In *Difficult Daughters*, the problem with Kasturi is the socio-cultural background at her times, Virmati is in the dilemma, and Ida is too radical. In *A Married Woman*, Astha suffers because of her husband's negligence to her, and Peepalika's suffering can be traced back to her psychological weakness of being a single parent child. In *Home*, Nisha suffers of the gender inequality in the patriarchal setup. In *The Immigrant* Nina suffers because of her husband's sexual impotence. In *Custody*, Shagun and Ishita both suffer for biological reasons- one for passion and the other for barrenness.

Thus, Manju Kapur has become the first and foremost Indian English writer to explore the theme of marriage to its fullest extent in the context of contemporary global Indian society and culture.

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A Critical Comment on Shakespeare's *Life and Death of King John*

P.S.R.Ch.L.V. Prasad

Introduction



King John 1166-1216

<http://www.medieval-life-and-times.info/medieval-kings/king-john-biography.htm>

King John begins with King Richard the First being killed by a man called Austria. King Richard's youngest brother ascends to the throne as per King Richard's will but Constance, the widow of King Richard's other brother Geoffrey believes the crown should have gone to her teenage son Arthur. Not letting the issue rest, Constance seeks the help of King Phillip of France

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to replace King John with Arthur as King of England. Phillip, the illegitimate son of King Richard I and called the "Bastard" throughout this play, also makes a claim for the throne, but is generally ignored by Arthur and John. Phillip bears an uncanny resemblance to the late King Richard I.

We learn that Austria is helping the French with Phillip's son, The Dauphin (Prince Lewis) also is siding against the English. A battle ensues between the English and French armies to prove to Hubert, the ruler of Algiers who truly holds the English crown. Hubert suggests that the Dauphin marry the daughter (Blanch) of the late King Richard I, thereby settling the dispute by uniting the two nations in marriage. The dowry is to be peace between the two rulers and some English land. Arthur is made Earl of Richmond and Duke of Britain.

Constance is far from satisfied. Even the Bastard feels Hubert's plan will only end in disaster. Constance agrees to this assessment since the deal robs Arthur of ever holding the crown.

This Shakespearean English history play is in praise of King John. Here he is shown in a better light as the first English monarch to oppose the Pope. For Bale, John was a proto-Protestant hero, although in the end he had to accept the papal demands.

An Autocrat Author of Democratic Rights

In modern times, the most important event in John's life is often thought to be his 'signing' of *Magna Carta* in 1215, which Americans especially seem to consider as the first bill of democratic rights. John here is seen as an autocrat brought to his knees by the forces of democracy represented by the (in fact very undemocratic) barons.

Probably, none of these three portraits of John is very close to historical reality! It is not easy to know why Shakespeare chose to make John the subject of what may well be his first play, his only English history play not part of the two tetralogies. There can be no other play by him so little written about. Critics skate round it, compare it unfavorably with other works, treat it as a mere rewriting of an earlier play. Yet it continues to attract considerable attention in the theater, being often acted.

Many Conflicts

In *King John* there are many conflicts of power, both private and public, but none of them is a clear-cut conflict between right and wrong, as in the story of Robin Hood. Shakespeare's John is no Machiavellian villain skillfully taking advantage of every situation for his own ends. One reason why *King John* is such a tantalizing play is that it constantly slips away from all our frames of reference. *King John* offers a most peculiar choice of episodes from the chronicles, and uses a very condensed time-scheme, so that events separated by several years are brought together, the most notable example being the news of the deaths of Constance and Eleanor (IV.ii), three years united in a single speech! The period's barons' revolts all seem to be explained

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as effects of the death of Arthur. There is no mention of Magna Carta, or of the papal Interdict on England.

History is not the Actual Focus! Where Lies the Central Focus?

This all certainly suggests that Shakespeare was not much interested in dramatizing details of 13th century history! At the same time, there is little or no development of 'character' in the play. We have virtually no moment where someone hesitates, trying to analyze their own motives or emotions. It is never possible to see John in conflict with himself, for example. He is no Macbeth, not even Richard III! Why, then, did Shakespeare write it at all? Where does the central focus of the play lie?

It seems that we should look for some kind of dominating political or philosophical theme, as modern producers usually do, in order to find a unifying element. Critics have often noted that the theme of 'rights' is introduced in the play's very first lines, when Chatillon comes challenging John's right to the throne in the name of France's support for the rights of his nephew Arthur 'so forcibly withheld' (1.18). Shakespeare even changes his historical sources at this point, for in the brief duo between mother and son that follows, when John affirms 'Our strong possession and our right for us' (1.39) Eleanor tells him (and us) that although possession is nine tenths of the law, she too thinks that John is not king of England by legal right. In the chronicles no one seriously questions John's legal right to the English throne. In the play such uncertainties are central.

Right versus Might

In the Arden edition introduction, Honigmann reminds us that the word 'rights' is found in *King John* more often (28 times) than in any other of Shakespeare's plays. He also finds records for the play's use of blood (40), mouth (14), breath (14), arm (27), bosom (10), brow (11) etc (Intr. p.lxii), notes sexual images implying violence and rape, and concludes "The key to the major "imagery of oppression" which we have outlined seems to be the theme of "right versus might" (p.lxiv), and offers as a key to the play's structure the fact that "The story ends when the usurper's vitality has consumed itself, when even his legs fail him, and a child-figure, Arthur resurrected as Prince Henry, triumphs at last in undisputed 'right'" (p.lxv).

Distinct and Exclusive Dramatic Functions of Characters

It is still a gross exaggeration to give John the title 'usurper', as Honigmann does; King John is not Macbeth. And why identify Arthur with Henry? They are utterly different in their dramatic functions. Among his statistics, though, Honigmann fails to note the 20 uses of the word 'faith' which form another very striking record, the next most frequent use being in *Troilus* with only 9. *Richard II* has only 3 uses, the great tragedies virtually none. This large number in *King John* is mainly due to the 12 uses of the word during the confrontation in III.i, when the Papal Legate demands that King Philip of France break his oaths of peace just made to England. The

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word is always used in the sense of 'keep/break faith,' never in its religious sense, and it may be the clue we have been looking for. Honigmann sees Arthur as the key to the play ('The action of the play is held together through Arthur' p. lx n.1) and this leads him to write 'We take IV.i to be the central scene' (p.lx).

The Aborted Blinding Scene

Yet this aborted blinding scene, despite its pathos, is most notable for what does not happen during it! It has no direct effect on the political or military action, which is more affected by false rumours and then by the death of Arthur, which happens in IV.iii, far too early for the key-figure of the play! When we look at the uses of faith, we see how often it is a victim of violence: 'breaks the pate of faith' and 'break faith upon commodity' both occur in the 'Commodity speech' of the Bastard (II.i); in III.i faith 'changes to hollow falsehood', 'dies', 'lives again', 'mounts up', is 'trodden down', then people 'play fast-and-loose' with it, make 'faith an enemy to faith', and in Act V 'discarded faith' is 'welcomed home again', 'mended'.

The Need for Constancy

The best way of integrating these facts, I think, is to see the play as illustrating the need for constancy in a world in which everyone plays fast-and-loose with faith. Arthur is simply a helpless pawn in other people's power-games. By stressing his youth, Shakespeare invites us to see him in passive roles, his only defence is his total innocence, which saves his eyes, but leads to his death, when he fails to realize the height of the wall he jumps from. Meanwhile, the 'real world' goes on its way regardless. In that light the 'central scene' of the play must surely be III.i, in which the action suddenly turns from peace to conflict, in the name of conflicting allegiances to the centers of power represented by the Pope and John.

The Nature of Legitimacy

Behind all that happens in the first Act, looms the question of the nature of legitimacy, of legal rights: do their roots lie in constitutional and legal theory, or in the possession and exercise of power? Eleanor says that John's 'right' to the throne is doubtful, yet he is king. Legally, the younger Faulconbridge could have no claim to the rights of his elder brother, even if it were sure that another man had begotten him, yet he brings his case.

When the judgment comes out in favor of his rights, the 'Bastard' is at once prepared to sacrifice them in favor of bright prospects! Act II transfers the power struggles to Angiers, where the two opposing forces are the royal persons England and France, each with their army, making a claim to rightful possession of the city. Not surprisingly, the city is unable to decide between two claimants of equal power! About to be attacked by the combined armies, it seems, the citizens suddenly, unexpectedly, make a new move, suggesting the diplomatic marriage of Blanche and the Dauphin which is quickly agreed on.

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It is here that we realize that King Philip has been using Arthur, that the French support for his 'rights' was political, opportunistic, not based on any firm moral convictions. When political, national interest (commodity) demands it, France breaks faith with Arthur. The rhetoric of the infuriated Constance at the end of Act II is tragi-comic, powerless to influence political events. France and England have decided on a peace that consolidates John's hold on power, the play seems to be over.

Peace is Shattered

The sudden, unexpected arrival of the Legate Pandulph with his demands in III.i shatters the status quo of peace and harmony, forcing the French to declare war on England, breaking faith, since solemn vows of peace and unity had just been sworn. Violence reappears, thanks to the Church! Faith is broken in the name of Faith.

With the capture of Arthur by John, a new question begins to emerge: will John too break faith with Arthur, as expediency seems to demand (as Pandulph recognizes)? The fragility of the boy-prisoner becomes almost emblematic, and the threat to his eyes is clearly an expression of something more than mere sadism. Yet the question of his right to the throne is never even discussed in the play. What happens between him and Hubert in the blinding scene is a seduction-in-reverse, since Hubert by his decision not to hurt him is breaking faith to John, while the child restores him to his true humanity.

No Great Evil Characters

The play has no great monsters, since not even John is resolutely evil. Indeed, we care so little about John, that his death is little more than a dramatic incident. The whole play has been marked by a series of sudden, unexpected appearances and disappearances. There is no call to be surprized, then, by the totally unannounced introduction of John's son Prince Henry as next king in V.vi, or by the way in which the Bastard becomes actively involved in the national defence, (with rather disastrous consequences), or to object to the sudden final peace mission of Pandulph.

Throughout the play, the text itself has been playing fast-and-loose with the rights of the audience. Our right to know what will happen in the end is a victim of this game.

Now the situation caused by the Papal politics in *King John* is a very evident reflexion of international realities at the time the play was written, when an invasion of England sponsored by nations loyal to Rome was a very real danger. In V.iv, English lords who for the noblest of reasons have gone over to the French (the Pope's!) side learn that the wicked continentals will break faith and kill them if victory is theirs. The island fortress is saved by their return to loyalty, but despite their heroic resistance, the English urgently need a true leader. The end of the play expresses the hope that in Henry at last England has a king who will not simply follow the demands of international political expediency, but be a true English king, surrounded by faithful English lords.

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The Real Enemy: The Foreign Nations

The real enemy in *King John*, as in Shakespeare's England, is not the Pope as such but the foreign nations acting in his name. Almost the whole of Act I of the play is taken up with a debate about the Bastard, and the identity of his dead father; once identified as Richard Coeur de Lion's son, the Bastard is legitimized and enters the circles of power, where he remains present to the very end. Indeed, he becomes more central to the play than John himself! He avenges his dead father, and grows into the play's most reliable character.

The issue of bastardy was a vital one for Queen Elizabeth. The Bull of Pope Pius V, *Regnans in excelsis*, issued in 1570, had denied Elizabeth's legitimacy, and therefore her right to the English throne. Born in 1533 as the child of Henry VIII's second marriage to Anne Boleyn, Elizabeth (with Mary) was declared a bastard in July 1536, two months after her mother's execution and just before the caesarean birth of Edward killed Jane Seymour.

Legitimizing Successions

Less than ten years later, the Third Act of Succession (1546) re-legitimized both daughters by recognizing their right to succeed, a right re-confirmed by Henry VIII's will. Yet when Edward was dying, he named the Lady Jane Grey as the next queen, and Mary and Elizabeth were re-bastardized in June 1553! The 'legitimacy' of Mary depended on the fact that she entered London with an army and was supported by the population; Lady Jane Grey did not live long after that! The other event of the age which has left clear echoes in *King John* is the execution of the Catholic Mary, Queen of Scots in early 1587. The signing of her death warrant by Elizabeth was prompted by rumors that a Spanish army had landed in England and that Mary had escaped from prison. The story of how this warrant then escaped from Elizabeth's control and was used without her knowledge clearly underlies John's initial response to the (false) report of Arthur's death. In 1588, the Armada concretized all these fears, and certainly made it clear that the nation was under threat from foreign powers for reasons that had only superficial links with religion and legal right.

The Idealism of Loyalty

To be loyal, then, was a perfect ideal, only the question was bound to arise as to whom one should be loyal to, and why. Birth rights? Possession? Papal decree? National law? Pragmatic consideration? By the time Shakespeare began to write *King John*, another aspect of the question was arising. Elizabeth was getting old, and was without a clear heir. When she died, what would be the criteria for deciding on the legitimacy, the right, of any claimant or claimants?

Where would loyal Englishmen be asked to give their faith? How should they decide? Whose was the power over England? Royal absolutism never had a chance in England, in such circumstances, since it was so clear that what made the sovereign was the English people's

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consent! Even Bloody Mary had to learn that she could only govern if Parliament passed her laws.

Characters in the Drama

KING JOHN

Prince Henry, son to the king.

ARTHUR, Duke Of Britaine, Nephew To The King.

THE EARL OF PEMBROKE.

THE EARL OF ESSEX.

THE EARL OF SALISBURY.

THE LORD BIGOT.

HUBERT DE BURGH.

ROBERT FAULCONBRIDGE, Son To Sir Robert Falconbridge.

PHILIP THE BASTARD, His Half-Brother.

JAMES GURNET, Servant To Lady Falconbridge.

PETER OF POMPRET, A Prophet.

PHILIP, King Of France.

LEWIS, The Dauphin.

LYMOGES, Duke Of Austria.

CARDINAL PANDULPH, The Pope's Legate.

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MELUN, A French Lord.

CHATILLON, Ambassador From France.

QUEEN ELINOR, Mother To King John.

CONSTANCE, Mother To Arthur.

BLANCH OF SPAIN, Niece To King John.

LADY FAULCONBRIDGE.

Lords, Ladies, Citizens Of Angiers, Sheriff,
Heralds, officers, soldiers, messengers, and
Other attendants.

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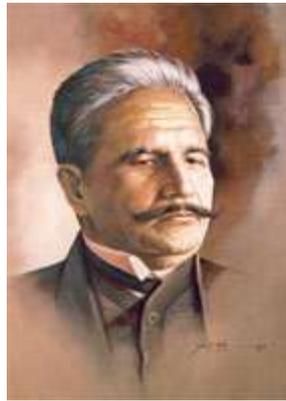
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Iqbal - The Educationist

Abdul Ghaffar, Ph.D. Student

Umar Ali Khan, Ph.D.



Iqbal

Abstract

Allama Muhammad Iqbal (1876-1938) is one of the most prominent and acknowledged poet-philosophers of India-Pakistan. Iqbal stressed that individuality cannot be developed in isolation. The proper nourishment and enrichment of individuality need society and community. Equal importance is given in his philosophical verses to research and creativity achieved by the Western nations. He advised Muslims to follow their model in

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research and science. Female education was equally stressed by Iqbal, and, last but not the least, moral education of man is given due consideration.

Introduction

Much of Allama Iqbal's writings encouraged Muslims to embrace ideals of brotherhood, justice and service. His book *Reconstruction of Religious Thought in Islam* presents his vision in great detail. His masterpiece is *The Song of Eternity* (1932). Similar in theme to Dante's *Divine Comedy*, it relates the poet's ascent through all realms of thought and experience, guided by the 13th-century poet Jalal-UD-Din-Rumi. He also wrote poetry in the Persian language. He tried to free the Muslim mind from the prevailing colonial mentality and from Muslims' own narrow self-interests, which is reflected in his classical work *Toloo-e-Islam* (Rise of Islam).

Prose Works by Iqbal



Iqbal

The Reconstruction of Religious Thought in Islam (1930)

In this book, Iqbal attempts to show a path back to the scientific and intellectual striving that Muslims once excelled in. Refuting the current methods of teaching in traditional schools, Iqbal called for a reconstruction of thought, pointing to the fact that from the first to fourth century, no less than nineteen schools of law appeared in Islam to meet the necessities of a growing civilization. Iqbal thus emphasized creativity, adaptation and new ideas.

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The Development of Metaphysics in Persia (1908)

This was a thesis Iqbal submitted to the University of Munich for his PhD. It was published in London in the same year. The book traces the development of metaphysics in Persia.

Poetry

Bang-e-Dara (1924): First written in Persian, Bang-I-Dara (Caravan Bell) was translated into Urdu later on by Kikab Shadani. It is an anthology of poems written over a period of 20 years and is divided into 3 parts.

Baal-e-Jibraeel (1935): Baal-e-Jibraeel (Gabriel's Wing) continues from Bang-e-Dara. Some of the verses had been written when Iqbal visited Britain, Italy, Egypt, Palestine, France, Spain and Afghanistan. The book contains 15 ghazals (an ancient Persian poetic form which uses a recurring rhyme and thus results in excellent sound arrangement) addressed to God and 61 ghazals and 22 quatrains (a four-line stanza, with rhyme, meter, etc.; there is much variety in the use of this ancient form of verse) dealing with the ego, faith, love, knowledge, the intellect and freedom.

Zerb-e-Kalim (1936): This is Iqbal's third collection of Urdu poems. The volume has been described as his political manifesto. It was published with the subtitle "A Declaration of War against the Present Times." Zerb-e-Kalim (The Blow of Moses' Staff) was meant to rescue Muslims from the ills brought on by modern civilization, just as Moses had rescued the Israelites.

Armaghan-e-Hijaz (1938): This work, published a few months after the poet's death, is a fairly small volume containing verses in both Persian and Urdu. The title means "Gift from the Hijaz." He had long wished to undertake the journey to the Arabian Peninsula to perform the Hajj and to visit the tomb of the Prophet, but was prevented from doing so by continuous illness during the last years of his life.

English Translations

- The Ideal Woman
- The Materialistic Culture
- The shrine of your street is my refuge!
- The ultimate aim of Ego
- The world of Body vs. World of Soul
- Our thought is the product of your teachings
- Profit for one, but Death for many
- Communism and Imperialism
- The Glory of a Woman

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Iqbal - The Educationist

- The Choice is yours

Activity, Research and Originality

Iqbal advised the Muslims to get and aspire for an education which will enable them to compete with other nations of the world. He stressed the point that they should not remain passive but should actively participate in different constructive activities so as to make their individuality sound in order to make their nation strong.

Activity: Great emphasis is laid on activity, because everything in this world is active one way or the other. His philosophy of action declared that this world, paradise and even hell, are all related to action and movement. The man by his nature is neither like light or angels nor like fire or devils, but their actions and deeds make them so (Afridi A.K & Ghaffar S.A, 1999, P.213, 214).

In Zarb-I-Kalim, he presents man as:

Action makes the life either paradise or hell
The man itself is neither light nor fire. (P.83)

Be Practical and Avoid Passivity

Iqbal advised the Muslim youth to work continuously and to put efforts endlessly, so that they may leave their glorious imprints permanently on world history. The necessary condition for such a progress is constant effort, struggle to improve, a desire for learning more, actions and movements. Iqbal was aware of the fact that the Muslims in general and the youth in particular have shunned away action and struggle and so, he gave them the advice that they should become practical and should leave their passivity.

Iqbal, in his masterpiece Zarb-i-kalim, depicts the Muslims' deplorable condition in the following words:

May God confront thee with a stormy situation?
For ye lack struggle and action in your life. (P.82)

Add Technical and Practical Knowledge to Education

Iqbal advised the Muslim youth that only studying and memorizing literature and philosophy should not be taken as the aim of education but equal and greater importance should be given to technical and practical knowledge as well.

Creative Education

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Education, according to Iqbal, should be primarily a dynamic and creative education directed to the releasing and nurturing of the creative spirit in man and equipping him with the desire and capacity to conquer new realms of art and science, knowledge and power and education inspired by an optimistic faith in the destiny of man. It means that if anyone of these branches of knowledge is acquired, it will serve man's purposes and will help man's development.

In different branches of knowledge, science will naturally occupy a prominent place in it, so that man may not only gain sovereignty over nature but also control the scientific method through which he may explore and consciously reconstruct his world.

About creativity, Iqbal says that the world is not something to be seen or known through concepts and ideas only it should be a world which is to be made and remade through continuous action and struggle. He admonishes the young men of his country who have put themselves to resignation and indifference (Stepyants, 1972, P.33).

Emulate the Model of Western Nations in the Development Science, Technology and Research

Iqbal suggested that through continuous action and an unending struggle the Western nations have touched the zenith of glory and have made their name known in the world. The Muslim nations following suit can also attain the same high position and even surpass the Western countries. He further suggested that education should not make the learners only passive listeners or receivers of knowledge but education should be such that it will make and inspire them for action. It should equip the students for a life of action. Passive contemplation is not desirable because it paralyzes the power of action instead of whetting it. Passive contemplation only makes one escape from the realities of life.

Development of Individual as the Goal of Education

The development of individual is the objective of education and it can be realized only in the strenuous life of action.

From the ethical and psychological point of view, the greater importance of action or the deed lies in the fact that while "a wrong concept misleads the understanding, a wrong deed degrades the man and may eventually demolish the structure of the human ego. Concepts which are part of human personality affect life partially; it is the deed or action which is dynamically related to reality. Man is constantly molding and enriching his own individuality when there is active interplay of his powers including forces around him and through the process of ceaseless and never ending reconstruction

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Iqbal asserts that the Muslim youth should not follow Western culture and civilization but instead should make their own efforts to achieve success and greatness. He addresses the Muslims in his *Payam-I-Mashreq* in the following words:

Look into thy own clay for the fire that is lacking
The light of another is not worth striving for. (P.188)

Iqbal saw in the prevailing conditions of the East and in India in particular, that the slavish imitation of the West has warped the development of Eastern peoples and has also repressed their creativity (Abdul Sattar J.Paracha, et.al, 1977).

Be Creative, Not Simply Copy!

Iqbal brings the attention of Muslims towards a serious problem and has drawn a vivid and hauntingly truthful picture of how our youth has become denationalized through an education which neither strengthens their individuality nor stimulates their originality. He then scathingly criticizes those who, without appreciating the true values of Western culture seek to approximate to it by copying its external trappings. It is obvious from his philosophy that he does not narrow-mindedly reject the valuable contributions of the West (in research).

Iqbal readily welcome the West's spirit of research, their sciences, their strenuous striving to gain control of their environment. No doubt he repudiates the merely superficial and sensational aspects of their civilization because he considered that this tends to weaken our self-respect and give us an entirely false sense of being modern and progressive (Saiyidain K.G, 1999 P.20, 21).

Importance of Free Environment

Iqbal believes that a free environment can develop the latent powers of an individual. He further says that life cannot unfold all its possibilities, nor can the individual develop his latent powers, except in an atmosphere of freedom which would allow for experimentation with the environment, for the exercise of choice and discrimination in the use of methods and materials and for learning by direct, personal, first hand experience.

Iqbal significantly points that the development of creativity, which is the highest attribute of man and which links him with God and originality, which is a condition precedent for all progressive change, also postulates freedom. Deprived of such freedom, man becomes a slave whom Iqbal characterizes in happy inspiration as one incapable of original, creative activity.

Trial and Error in Progress

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The environment of man is constantly changing and growing as a result of his own creative activity. It is imperative, in the modern age, to lay special stress on the awakening and cultivation of intelligence. Without it, it would be impossible for him to live a full and adequate life in this complex and challenging environment. He shows a keen awareness of the role of experimentally acquired knowledge in modern life.

Trial and error are very necessary factors for the attainment of knowledge and through fearless exploration into realms of thought, we can make our original and valuable contribution to the enrichment of knowledge and consequently, of life.

Quicken Freedom of Thought

When freedom of thought and originality of action is quickened in individuals and groups, it brings great triumphs in its wake, e.g. in Bal-I-jibril, he is of the view that;

What is originality of thought and action?
An urge to revolution!
What is originality of thought and action?
A renaissance of national life!
It is the source of life's miracles,
Transforming granite into the purest of pearls (P: 202)

“The movement of life, according to Iqbal, is determined by ends, and the presence of ends means that it is permeated by intelligence. Thus ends and purposes, whether they exist consciously or unconsciously, form the warp and woof of our conscious existence”. (Iqbal, Lectures, P.183)

Experimentalists on this point say that man living in this world is a mixture of the regular and the changing, of the fixed and the uncertain, of the stable and the precarious. In short man lives in a world, in which the character of experience is such that intelligent, purposeful activity is demanded if he is to achieve a satisfying experience, and it is done through a purposeful activity (Saiyidain K.G, 1999 P: 28, 29).

Science as an Instrument for Preservation of Life

Iqbal explains the importance of science and scientific pursuit in his famous work Asrar-E-Khudi thus;

Science is an instrument for the preservation of life.
Science is a mean of established the self.
Science and art are servants of life
Slaves born and bred in its house. (PP: 17, 18)

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If knowledge is not related to and acquired through action, it cannot be transformed into power and man can not use it for the reconstruction of his environment.

Need for Trust in Man – Man is Essentially a Creator

Iqbal argues in favor of the creative powers of man. He puts all his trust in man. He sees man as the holder of infinite possibilities, capable of changing the world and even of changing himself, because man is essentially a creator. Iqbal sees in him a kind of demiurge, a rather disquieting rival for God (Maitre L.C, n.d, P.26).

God created this world very beautiful, but man is so impatient that he wanted it to be more beautiful and splendid and it proves him to be a creative being.

Creativity is bound up with man and his inner powers and zest for nourishing it. Man would not have become so glorious if he would have lacked his creativity and a desire for novelty.

Struggle between Ego and Environment

Life consists in an incessant struggle between ego and its environment. The ego invades the environment and the environment invades the ego. If matter were only an illusion, how would struggle be possible? One does not fight with a phantom. The idea behind this assumption is that man lives in the real world but not in an ideal one. And it is an obligation on man that he has to strive in this world of matter (Hamid Mohammad, n.d, P.78).

The universe is not, for Iqbal, a finished product, immutable, created once for all, it is reality in progress.

Iqbal and Sufi Rumi

When we compare Iqbal and the great Sufi poet Rumi we can find a parallelism in their thought. The most remarkable characteristic of Rumi's thought is that he is the greatest upholder of activism and ceaseless endeavors.

Iqbal agrees with Rumi in this completely. According to both, God is the most active being who loves activity. Everyday He is busy with something new. According to both, life is action not contemplation. Both opine that love stands for the principle of dynamic activity, a prima urge to live, and not merely to live but so to live as to enrich, increase, improve and advance life (Ahmad M.Siddique, 1965, P.56).

The best in science, art and religion comes from love. Love or faith not only releases creative energy, it also illuminates the path of future action. Comparing Iqbal with Bergson, we find that for the later the creative force is a mere blind will. He is of the

view that what man does or what progress does he make, is doing blindly and unknowingly. He says that man lacks creativity (Saiyidain K.G, 1999, P.121).

To sum up, Iqbal's conception of man looks at man as an active agent, a doer, a shaper of purpose who is not only engaged in the reconstruction of his world but also in the far more significant experiment of creatively unfolding and perfecting his own individuality. This provides the justification for reaffirmation of our faith in methods of education which stimulates self activity and stimulates the will to courageous effort on behalf of great causes.

Education can play a pivotal role in shaping and re-shaping the destiny of man and his future. Through education only, man can achieve his goals and can become a perfect being. He should be provided with such education as to impart to him those skills and habits with which he may succeed and may have a better and bright future.

Female Education

Iqbal does not criticize female education but, in this respect, he follows the famous proverb that "the hands that move the cradle, rule the world."

This shows that much importance is attached to the guidance and training of the child by the mother. About his own mother Iqbal, in *Bang-e-Dara*, says that only due to her guidance he had achieved the honoured and respected position and great fame and glory.

It's due to your care that I got fame in the world.
My forefather's abode became a place of honour. (P: 239)

Woman, according to him, will be a knower of the realities of life and she is a symbol of nobility. She is also aware of the prevalent trends in the society. The main characteristic of her life is her nobility, softness and a lover of truthfulness. In another place, Iqbal has given her the important place which can cause unity of the whole world. That is why he delegates the responsibility of her protection to the whole nation. He asserts that if she is not given due status and if not protected from the ups and downs of life she can cause destruction to the whole universe (Afridi A.K., and Ghaffar S.A. 1999, p. 210).

Praising the mothers and sisters of the nation, Iqbal has pointed towards their ability of reasoning and power of comprehension. According to him, the fate of the nation and country lies in their hands. When God has given them such a high position, then why we should not give them due respect and deprive them of education. To educate them is a compulsion on the nation and is the responsibility of the government.

Iqbal's views on female education are apparent in his poems such as *The Ideal Woman* and *The Glory of a Woman*. To him the creation of woman and their presence is a great blessing of God since a woman is an inspiration of life. He pays great tributes to

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woman, although she had not produced high intellectual and scientific works. But she can and has given birth to great personalities (Afridi A.K., and Ghaffar S.A. 1999, p. 210). He says in Zarb-i-Kalim:

The whole universe is colourful due to her presence
The life's music is charming due to her tune. (P.94)

Iqbal is in favor of an education for woman that will inculcate in them feminine characteristics, and will enable them to assume the duties and responsibilities in the future. Furthermore, religious education should form an important part of their education, and it is not education, but the protection provided by men that can really give her security and protection.

Iqbal considers the education of woman more important than the establishment of an exemplary Dar-ul-Ulum (Afridi A.K., and Ghaffar S.A. 1999, p. 211). Schools, Colleges and Universities are Institutes for formal education. A child, less than five years of age, cannot take admission in a school and the family has to fulfill the educational needs of the child.

According to Iqbal, the family is the place from where the child learns the norms and trends of the society. The child's parents mould their child's personality. That is why woman occupies a dominant place in its up-bringing. Woman is the true builder of the nation. Education is always given according to the needs, and aspiration of the nation. Women are naturally inclined towards religion with their minds and hearts in their control. Therefore it is necessary that we should provide them such opportunities in which they will receive a true Islamic education, because it is obligatory for the preservation of an Islamic society (Afridi A.K., and Ghaffar S.A. 1999, p. 211).

After getting religious education they should be educated in history, logic, household affairs and health. Then their mental capacities will be developed to such an extent that they will be able to argue with rationality and share various problems with their partners. When they become capable they should educate their children properly which is their first duty. From a man's education, only one man can be benefited but from a woman's education the whole family gets advantage (Bakhtyar H. Siddique. 1983, PP.14, 15).

Conclusion

Iqbal's educational philosophy had no other ulterior motive than to wish the Muslim youth develop his individuality on true Islamic lines. He never ignored, while interpreting the deplorable condition of the Muslim youth, his inner potentials and capacities as well. He used his forceful verses to convey his message to the Muslims in general and the youth in particular. He did not leave out any aspect of the individual as well as his collective life which has bearing on the development of individuals.

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Grammatical Cohesion in the Speeches of His Majesty King Abdullah II of Jordan

**Hatmal O.E. Al Khalidy, Ph.D. Candidate
L. Ramamoorthy, Ph.D.**

Abstract

In full sense of the word the speeches of his majesty, King Abdullah II are not normal speeches. They are eloquent and efficient speeches because the ideas were linked to each other smoothly and they were presented systematically in the speech.

In any discourse, we have two types of cohesion, they are:1) lexical cohesion and 2) grammatical cohesion .The lexical cohesion gives the way in which lexical items are connected and the relation between them namely synonyms, antonyms, meronymy, hyponymy and word repetition. The grammatical cohesion deals with the relations such as substitution, reference, ellipsis, conjunction, etc.

In this article the attempt is made to study the grammatical cohesion of the speeches of the King to study the grammatical cohesion, two of the speeches from each category such

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as local speeches in Jordan, national speeches in any Arab countries and international speeches anywhere in the world are analyzed. The investigator aims to give a statistical analysis of six selected speeches.

Key words: grammatical cohesion, substitution, ellipsis, reference and Conjunction.

1. Introduction

Communication is a process of sending or receiving information, ideas from one person to another. It concerns with the nature of meaning and its integrity through the process of dissemination and reception of a message.

It is the most important device of transferring information from one entity to another by using verbal or non-verbal modes. Verbal communication continues to be the most important type of interaction with other people. It is another type of communication, which does not involve words. Most of the people think that nonverbal speech implies only to facial gesture, but nonverbal communication includes in vocal sounds that are not words such as grunts, sighs, whimpers, etc.

In fact, politicians use the two types of communications (verbal and nonverbal modes) while delivering their speeches in order to attract or persuade the audience.

2. Discourse

In fact, the term discourse is used to refer to a wide range of meanings.

Carter, Goddard, Reah, Sanger, and Bowring, (2005) argue that,

the basic meaning of ‘discourse’, in modern ordinary usage, is ‘talk’. Originally, the term ‘discourse’ came from Latin, *discursus*, meaning ‘to run’, ‘to run on’, ‘to run to and fro’. Historically, it has been applied more to rehearsed forms of spoken language –like speeches, where people ‘run on’ about a topic–than to spontaneous speeches. The modern meaning of ‘discourse’ as encompassing all forms of talk has evolved because conversations, like formal speeches, ‘run’. This means that speakers make an effort to give their interactions shape and coherence- not consciously, but as an integral part of co-operating with another speaker to make meaning. So when people refer to *talk as discourse* they are drawing attention to *the way talk is a crafted medium*. While it has long been understood that this was true for speeches and another aspects of formal oratory, it has only recently been

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recognized that casual conversation is subtly and skillfully fashioned by speakers as they go along, often at rapid speed. Carter, et al. (2005, p. 141)

There is no agreement among linguists as to the use of the term discourse in that some use it in reference to texts, while others claim it denotes speech which is for instance illustrated by the following definitions: (Crystal,1992: 25) "Discourse is a continuous stretch of (especially spoken) language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit such as a sermon, agreement, joke, or narrative." According to Cook (1990), novels, short conversation or groans can be called discourse.

Slembrouck (cited in Alba-Juez, 2009) states that:

The term Discourse analysis is very ambiguous. Roughly speaking, it refers to attempts to study the organization of language above the sentence or above the clause, and therefore to study *larger linguistic units*, such as a conversational exchanges or written texts. It follows that discourse analysis is also concerned with *language use in social contexts*, and in particular with interaction or dialogue between speakers (p.9).

In the book titled An Applied Linguistic Approach to Discourse Analysis. (Das, 2010: V) defines "discourse analysis (DA), or discourse studies, is a general term for a number of approaches to analyze written, spoken or signed language use. Discourse analysis is the branch of linguistics that deals with the study and application of approaches to analyze written, spoken or signed language.

2.1 Cohesion

In the analysis of any discourse scholars generally talks about cohesion and coherence.

Cohesion is what gives a text texture (Halliday and Hasan, 1976).

According to Narasimhaswamy, 2010, cohesion is an essential features of any text which might be lexical or grammatical cohesive that connect the text's parts.

2.1.1Types of Cohesion

There are two different types of cohesion, which enable the reader or listener to understand or interact with the text as follows:-

1-Lexical cohesion

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2-Grammatical cohesion

2.1.1.1 Lexical cohesion

“Lexical cohesion is a guide to the organization of the flow of ideas in the text: Tracing groups of words with related meanings, one sees which semantic domains are used, to what extent and in which patterns... (Klebanov, Diermeier and Beigman:2008:449)”.

We can see that, lexical cohesion can be done by various relations such as:- synonyms, antonyms, meronymy, hyponymy and word repetition.

2.1.1.2 Grammatical cohesion

Grammatical cohesion is the study of grammatical devices, which organize the flow of ideas in a text through substitution, ellipsis, reference and conjunction, etc.

According to McCarthy (1991), both written and spoken discourses show grammatical links between individual clauses and utterances; therefore, he has differentiated grammatical cohesion into three kinds: - reference or (co-reference), ellipsis/ substitution and conjunction.

2.1.1.2.1 Substitution

“Substitutes means the noun (or the verb or clause) in question can be found in the preceding text. Using a substitute thus creates a strong link between one part of a text and an earlier part, and help to make the text cohesive (Salkie 1995:35-36)”. He added that both noun and verb substitutes are used when the writer or speaker aims to contrast between two noun phrases and verb phrases which are identical and different partially (Salkie 1995).

Substitution is a process where a writer or speaker substitutes one item for another in a particular text. This can often involve long phrases, replaced by useful smaller items such as the single words ‘*do*’ or ‘*so*’, and is very characteristic of spontaneous spoken discourse. One important function of this type of substitution is to make texts more economic by avoiding tedious repetition. For example:

A: Has the agent for your house *put it in the local paper*?

B: I think he must have *done*, because Terry saw It advertised around his chips from the chip shop.

A: *That must have been a bit of a shock* if you hadn’t told him.

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B: I think *so*.

Substitution can also involve nouns, and here we often make a substitution in order to redefine the original item. For instance:

He looked at the potatoes, and picked *out the large ones*.

Please read through the contracts, and sign *the duplicate one* (Carter et al 2005).

Salkie (1995) differentiated between two main types of substitution; 1- substitutes (noun substitute), 2- more substitutes (verb and clause substitute). According to Carter, et al (2005), substitution can be categorized as; verb, noun, and clause.

2.1.1.2.2 Ellipsis

Richards, Platt and Weber (1985) defines ellipsis as omitting word or phrase rather than repeat it. Moreover, there are two categories of ellipsis; subject ellipsis and verb ellipsis as in the following example:

The man went to the door and (he) opened it. (subject ellipsis).

Mary ate an apple and Jane (ate) a pear. (verb ellipsis).

Richards et al. (1985) classified ellipsis into two types subject and verb ellipsis. Whereas McCarthy (1991) and Salkie (1995) classified ellipsis into three types Noun, verb and clause ellipsis.

In his book *discourse* (1990, 156) Cook defined “ellipsis as an omission of clauses, phrases, or words which can be recovered from context or form elsewhere in the discourse”. It regards one of the vital aspects, which have its own role in the matter of grammatical cohesion of any text.

Sometimes we do not even need to provide a substitute for a word or phrase which has already been said. We can simply omit it, and know that the missing part can be reconstructed quite successfully. Instead of answering, *would you like a glass of beer?* with *Yes, I would like a glass of beer* we can just say *Yes, I would* knowing that like a glass of beer will be understood. Or if someone says *what are you doing?* We can just answer ‘*Eating a mango*’ instead of ‘*I am eating a mango*’ because we know that ‘*I am*’ is understood and does not have to be said. Omitting Part of sentences on the assumption that an earlier sentence or the context will make the meaning clear is known as ellipsis (Cook, 1990:20).

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By standing on Salkie's (1995, p.56) example on Ellipsis:

“Both Mr. Major and Douglas Hurd, the foreign secretary, are engaged in a damage limitation exercise, eager to ensure that the sanctions question does come to dominate this meeting as it has dominated the last three...”

In the above example, he leaves out the word **meetings**. Which is called ellipsis. Another example:

“To learn a new language you've got two options: either you study grammar, vocabulary and phonetics for months and months, or you can go back to the way you learnt things as a child. A child learns to speak almost 'by chance' He imitates his parents without knowing why.....”

Therefore, there is an ellipsis after **why** (imitates from his parents).

We can sum up that, ellipsis and substitution are similar to each other so, they are referring back to something mentioned earlier in a text, in addition both of them having three categories namely *noun*, *verb*, and *clause*, but a bit distinguish between them that Substitution a specific word refers back, whereas in Ellipsis there is a 'gap' Occur in the text which refers back (salkie 1995).

2.1.1.2.3 Reference

The Penguin *Concise English dictionary* defines 'to refer' as 'to send for information', 'to seek information'. “The principle of **reference** within texts is exactly that: it tells the reader that they can only make a complete sense of the word or structure they are looking at if they look elsewhere in the text to get a fuller picture. (Carter et al, 2005:158)”

Reference is very important branch of cohesive devices, which creates the grammatical cohesion in a text.

Salkie (1995), Carter et al. (2005) classified reference into three kinds as follows:-

- 1-personal pronoun reference
- 2-Demonstrative reference
- 3-Comparative reference

1- Personal pronoun reference

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In fact, all of the personal pronouns, *I, he, she, it, you, they, and we*, as well as their objects forms (*me, him, her, it, them, us, you*), along with their possessive (*my, your, her, its, their, our*) and *mine, him, hers, its, theirs, ours*) known as reference words (Salkie 1995)

Personal pronoun references are words that can substitute for nouns, and are as follows:

I, you (singular), he, she, it, we, you (plural) they and one

When one of these pronouns occurs in a text, the reader expects to have to link it with something-either an item has already been mentioned or something that's coming up. The fact that these pronouns are called personal pronouns gives an indication of their reference function-they will mainly be referring to people; however, the words 'it' and 'they'/'them' can also be used to refer to non-human animates, inanimate objects and abstract ideas.

If the pronoun is referring back to something, this is called anaphoric referring back to something, this called **anaphoric reference**; if the pronoun is referring to something coming later, is called **cataphoric reference**. Here is an example of each:

Tom said that *he* was going home (anaphoric reference).

I could not believe it-the house was a complete wreck (cataphoric reference).
(Carter et al 2005:158-59).

2-Demonstrative reference

The words (*this, that, these* and *those*) are Known demonstratives, generally the use of *this* and *these* is to indicate to a thing which is Closer, whereas *that* and *those* to point to something which is far away (Salkie1995).

Demonstrative reference is another type of reference, which acts as a cohesive tie is carried by the following terms:

the, this, that, these, those, here, there.

These terms demonstrate where something is; they are **deictic** term-they are 'verbal pointer'.

As with personal pronouns, demonstrative reference can work backwards (anaphoric) or forwards (cataphoric). Here is an example of each:

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I went to Italy last year, and I went to go there again soon (anaphoric)
But the problem is this: how can I afford it? (cataphoric).

3-Comparativereference

In fact there are two different types of comparisons which make the text cohesive, one is **General comparison** Which use for comparing two things without details, the other type is **specific comparison** which used to compare two things with respect to a specific property(Salkie, 1995 :68).

According to (Carter, 2005:174) “Comparative reference tells that reader not just to ‘look elsewhere for information’, but to look elsewhere with a particular aim in mind-to *compare* the items that are being linked”.

“The most common way in English to mark grammatically that two items are being compared as to add ‘*er*’ to an adjective: for example, *taller, nicer, healthier* . It’s also possible to suggest comparison with more than item, by adding ‘*est*’: for example, *tallest, nicest, and healthiest*”.

“Comparison can involve ideas about quantity and number: these meanings are carried by words like ‘*more*’, ‘*fewer*’, ‘*another*’,

In many cases, we are given the reference point for the comparison being made, for example:

Annie is taller than Sue.

This sweater is nicer than that one.

Salad is healthier than fried bread”. (Carter et al, 2005:168)

“It is important to grasp the difference between reference and substitution. Reference is a relation between the meaning of a word and its environment, where the environment can be the text or the real world. Substitution is a relation between words: a substitute such as one replaces another word or phrases. This means that there is no such thing as situation substitution or to put it more concretely, a verb substitute like do cannot refer to anything outside the text, but only to words in the text. Also reference words are words looking for meanings, substitutes are words looking for partners” (Salkie, 1995 : 65-66).

2.2.1.2.4 Conjunctions

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Conjunction is joining words use for connecting the sentences or clauses together. According to Salkie, he named conjunction (Connectives) and they are four types:-

- 1-Addition connectives (AC) for example, and
- 2-Opposition connectives (OC) for example, yet
- 3-Cause connectives (CC) for example, therefore
- 4-Time connectives (TC) for example, then.

According to Sharma and Shankaranarayana (2008: P 5-6) conjunctions are ‘joining words. They join words; phrases and clauses, there are two types of conjunctions, first *coordinate conjunctions* which join words or group of words of similar types, second *subordinating conjunction* which joins a subordinate clause to an independent clause. In a sense, all the aspects of cohesion are about joining or linking items together, but conjunction refers specially to words and phrases, which express *how* items should be linked. (Carter, 2005:178)

3. Aim of the study

The speeches of the politicians have a fantastic communicative strategy, which has its own way in attracting and convincing an audience. Therefore, the study of the clauses, sentences and expressions are very important to understand the smooth flow of connected ideas.

The main objective of this study is to analyze the grammatical links in the six selected speeches of His Majesty, King Abdullah II.

4. Method of the study

King Abdullah II is the current king of Jordan since 1999 has delivered 208 speeches of three different types as; local speeches (in Jordan), national speeches (in the Arab countries), and international speeches (in the international platform). Therefore, this paper deals with six speeches of the King in order to observe the range of the usage of grammatical cohesion in these speeches:-

The two local speeches were delivered in **Jordan** in the years (1999- 2006), the two national speeches were delivered in; (**Kuwait** 2008), and (**Bahrain** 2010) whereas the two international speeches were delivered in (**Britain** 2010) and (**United states** 2008).

5. Results and discussions

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King Abdullah used grammatical cohesion in his local, national and international speeches so, there are some examples, which illustrate that as follows:-

As regarding **substitution**, there are three types in kings speech as follows

Noun substitution
 Verb substitution
 Clause substitution

	Speeches	Substitution		
		Noun	Verb	Clause
Local	1	1		1
	2			
National	3			1
	4	2		
International	5		1	
	6	3		

Table (1) *Frequency of substitution*

The above table (1) shows the frequency of substitution; so, his majesty used 2 times in his local speeches as 1 noun and 1 clause substitutions, 3 times in the national speeches as 2 nouns and 1 clause substitutions, and 4 times in his international speeches 3 nouns and 1 verb substitution. So, His Majesty used noun substitution more than the other two types especially in his international speeches. Figure (1) illustrates the frequency of substitution.

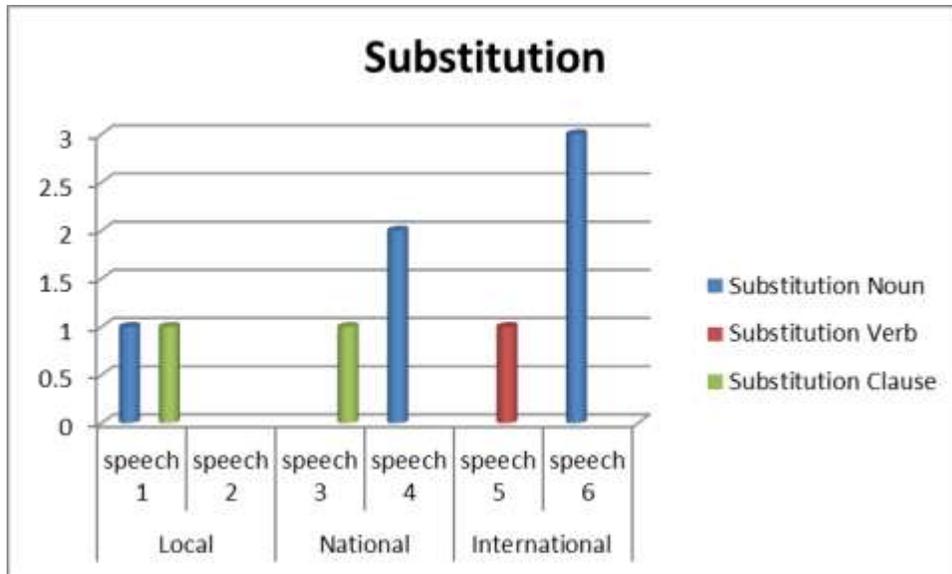


Figure (1) Frequency of substitution

For examples, from the speeches of the king on substitution

1-Noun substitution

In all this work, we seek to advance a **global dialogue**, **one** that can help redirect the course of our future, away from hostilities and towards peace (U.S.A 2008).

The word **one** substitutes for **global dialogue**.

It is you who will create a future of **true global progress** ... **one** that engages all countries and cultures in mutual respect; **one** that opens opportunity to all (Kuwait 2008).

In the above example, the words **one** substitute for **true global progress**.

2-Verb substitution

Frankly, it is time that the anti-terror coalition **works** together as effectively as the terrorists **do** (Britain 2010).

The word **works** substitutes by the verb **do**.

3-Clause substitution

Israel would not extend the moratorium on settlement buildings ... And the Palestinians could not remain engaged in negotiations, while new settlements were changing facts on the ground, and compromising the viability of the future Palestinian state. We can, and must, **end the deadlock. To do so**, we do not need new solutions. We need will, we need commitment, and we need courage to make hard decisions (Bahrain,2010).

The word **to do so** is substituted by the clause **end the deadlock**.

Another example:

This is a blessed day, dear to the heart of every Jordanian, man and woman, the descendants of the founding generation who **sacrificed immensely for the independence of the nation and the liberation of the Jordanian individual's will**. On this day, it is our right and our duty to remember, with pride and appreciation, the founding fathers, all of the pioneers, who contributed to the building of this homeland. They did **so** in the face of many challenges over the past sixty years and persevered in spite of a scarcity of resources and material capabilities, and of the tragedies and wars to which this region was subjected (Jordan 2006).

According to the mentioned example, the word **so** substitutes the clause **sacrificed immensely for the independence of the nation and the liberation of the Jordanian individual's will**.

As regarding ellipsis was not used by the King in His speeches.

As regarding **reference** can be classified into three categories:

Personal pronoun
Demonstrative and
Comparative reference

1-personal pronoun reference

	Speeches	Personal Pronouns				
		They	we	you	he	it
Local	1	4				3

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	2			2	
National	3	3		2	4
	4	1	5	1	
International	5	8	14	1	6
	6		1	1	15

Table (2) Frequency of personal pronouns

The above table (2) shows the occurrences of personal pronoun references, so, in the international speeches His Majesty used personal pronoun 46 times as 8 *they*, 15 *we*, 2 *he* and 21 *it*, in the national speeches 16 times 4 *they*, 5 *we*, 3 *you*, and 4 *it*, and 9 times in the local speeches as 4 *they*, 2 *he* and 3 *it*, the below figure shows the frequency of personal pronoun reference so, the King used the massive portion of personal pronoun references in his international speeches followed by national and local speeches because the international speeches are very important than the other two types of the speeches. The observation is that the international speech number 5, which was delivered in the parliament of the U.K and North Ireland, has the biggest portion of personal pronoun references whereas the less personal pronoun references were in the local speech number 2, which was delivered in the passing of his father King Hussein.

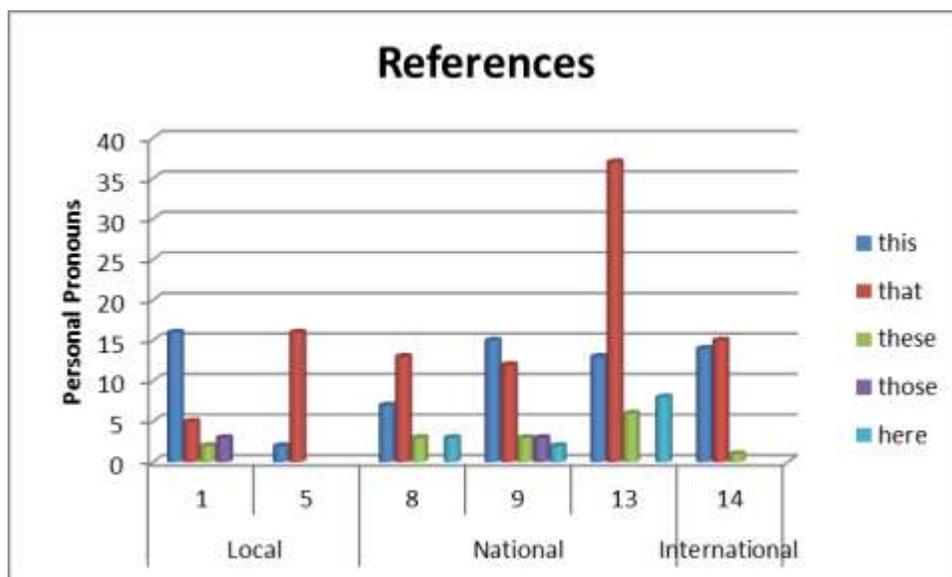


Figure (2) Frequency of personal pronoun reference

For example, from the speeches of His Majesty about personal pronoun reference:

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In return, we have a responsibility towards **youth**, and **they** are entitled to education and training that equips them to face any challenge and build the future we seek; the future with which youth were entrusted (Jordan 2006).

The personal pronoun **they** refers to the word **youth**.

To my one Jordanian family

Hussein was a father and a brother to every one of you, just as **he** was my father (Jordan 1999).

In the mentioned example, the personal pronoun **he** stands for **Hussein**.

2-Demonstrative reference

		Demonstrative reference						
		this	that	these	those	here	there	Such
Local	1	16	5	2	3	0	0	1
	2	2	0	0	1	0	0	0
National	3	7	2			3	0	0
	4	15	2	3	3	2	3	1
International	5	13	12	6		8	6	1
	6	14	3	1		0	1	2

Table (3) *Frequency of Demonstrative reference*

The above table (3) illustrates the occurrences of demonstrative reference; out of 138 times his Majesty used demonstrative reference in the international speeches 67 times as 27 *this*, 15 *that*, 7 *these*, 8 *here*, 7 *there* and 3 *such*. In the national speeches the King used demonstrative reference 41 times as 22 *this*, 4 *that*, 3 *these*, 3 *those*, 5 *here*, 3 *there* and 1 *such*. In the local speeches demonstrative references were 30 times as 18 *this*, 5 *that*, 2 *these*, 4 *those*, and 1 *such*, the observation on the usage of demonstrative reference is that the massive portion was occurred in the international speeches followed by national and local speeches, it is clear that the King used many demonstrative reference in the international speech number 5 which was delivered in the parliament of U.K and North whereas the less concurrencies of demonstrative reference was in the local speech number 2. the below figure (3) shows the frequency of demonstrative references.

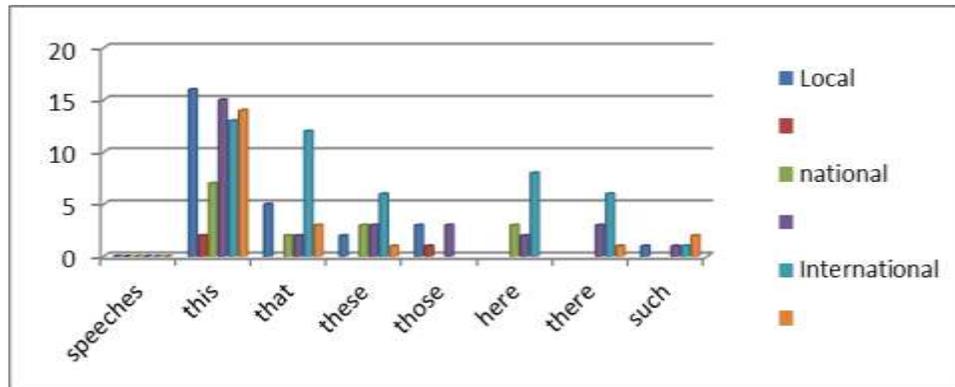


Figure (3) Frequency of demonstrative reference

For example, from the speeches about demonstrative reference:

I would like to start by thanking His Highness the Amir Sheikh Sabah Al Ahmad Al Jaber Al Sabah for his brotherly invitation to me to participate in **this** distinguished conference (Kuwait 2008).

The word **this** is a demonstrative it refers to the word **distinguished conference**

Another example:

I pray that Jordanians, Arabs, Muslims and **those** who loved King Hussein, leaders and peoples alike, will be patient (Jordan 1999).

The word **those** is a demonstrative reference refers to **who loved King Hussein.**
3-comparative reference

	Speeches	Comparative
Local	1	2
	2	
National	3	1
	4	1
International	5	4
	6	4

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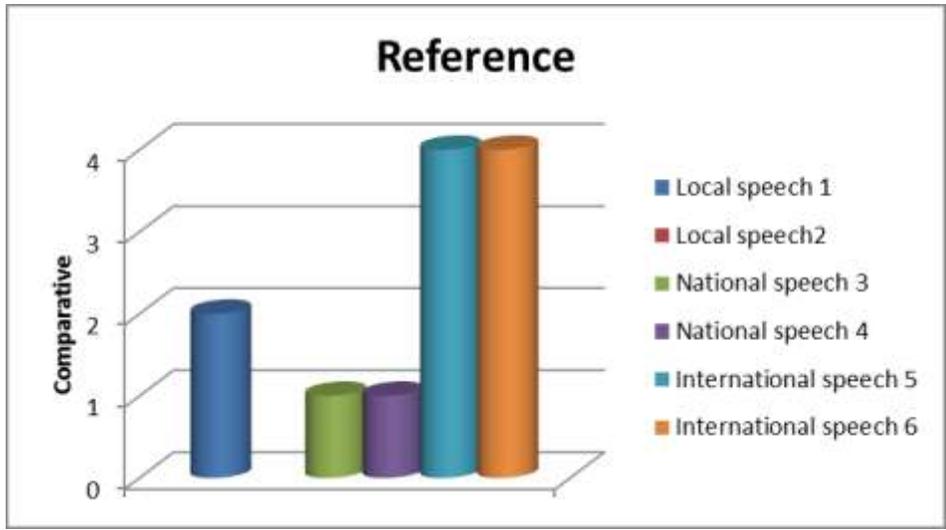
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Table (4).*Frequency of comparative reference*

The above table (4) illustrates the occurrences of comparative reference in his speeches as follows; out of 12 times his Majesty used comparative references in the international speeches 8 times as the massive portion , and 4 times for each the national and the local speeches, so, His Majesty used the biggest portion of comparative reference in His international speeches the below figure (4) shows the



Figure(4).Frequency of comparative reference

For example, from the speeches about comparative reference:-

As for those rumors doubting the soundness of our march and the ability of this homeland to meet the challenges of national and international circumstances, those who do not love the homeland and do not wish it well are the source of such talk. Jordan is stronger than all challenges, and **stronger than** all circumstances, and with your will and resolve it will always be Jordan First, Jordan always, and Jordan the role model (Jordan 2006).The word **stronger than** is a comparative reference.

The Arab Peace Initiative offers **more than** just an end of conflict (Bahrain 2010). The word **more than** is a comparative reference.

Finally, as regarding conjunctions, which were occurred in the speeches of the King:-

Speeches	Conjunction
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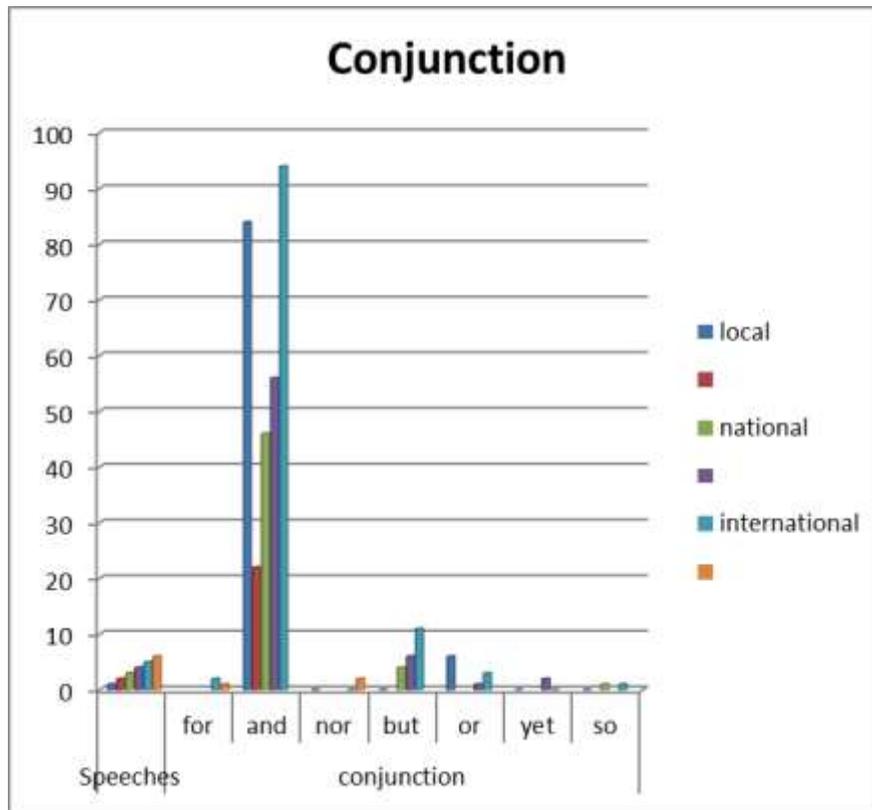
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		For	and	nor	But	or	Yet	so
Local	1	0	84	0	0	6	0	0
	2	0	22	0	0	0	0	0
National	3	0	46	0	4	0	0	1
	4	0	56	0	6	1	2	0
International	5	2	94	0	11	3	0	1
	6	0	57	0	0	0	0	0

Table (5).*Frequency of co-ordinate conjunctions*

As regarding co-ordinate conjunctions the king mentioned; *and* 151times, *but* 11 times, *or* 3 times, *so* 1 time, *for* 2 times, *nor* and *yet* 0 time in his international speeches; whereas, *and* 102, *but* 10, *yet* 2 times, *or* 1, *so* 1 time and *for* , *nor* 0 time in his national speeches, as regarding the local speeches *and* 106, *or* 6, and *but*, *for*, *yet*, *nor* and *so* 0 time. The observation on the co-ordinate conjunctions is that The King used the biggest portion of co-ordinate conjunctions in his international speeches rather than his national or local speeches so, out of 396 co-ordinate conjunctions His Majesty used 168 times in His international speeches followed national speeches 116, and the meager portion was for the local speeches as 112 times. Moreover, among all co-ordinate conjunctions, the conjunction *and* was having the massive concurrencies especially in the international speeches.

Figure (5).*Frequency of co-ordinate conjunctions*



For example, from the speeches of the King on co-ordinate conjunctions (**f a n b o y s**):-

This is a blessed day, dear to the heart of every Jordanian, man **and** woman, the descendants of the founding generation who sacrificed immensely for the independence of the nation **and** the liberation of the Jordanian individual's will (Jordan 2006).

The above conjunction **and** is a co-ordinate conjunction.

Our governments, companies, and development leaders must support innovation, with the same deliberate approach that we apply to building infrastructure or attracting investment (Kuwait 2008).

In the above example, the conjunction **or** is a co-ordinate conjunction.

Most of our economies have seen their GDP rise at rates well above the global average **yet** we all know it: our countries' unmet potential is still far too large (Kuwait 2008).

In the above example, **yet** is a co-ordinate conjunction.

This is what has given me determination and strength to achieve your ambitions and provide **the** conditions for a decent life for you: for you are **the** people of dignity and pride (Jordan 2006).

In the above example, the conjunction **for** is a co-ordinate conjunction.

These Houses led the fight, in defense of freedom, when the world was faced with catastrophe not once, not twice, but many times, and at times, for long years, alone. (Britain 2001).

The conjunction **but** is regarded as a co-ordinate conjunction.

So let me speak for my people:

As a human being, as a father, as a Jordanian, and most of all as a Muslim what happened on that day was evil (Britain 2001).

2.5. Conclusion

In this paper, we described the grammatical cohesion that occurred in the six selected speeches of King Abdullah II (Locally, nationally and internationally). So, the investigator has given some example for each categories of grammatical cohesion if it was occurred in the speeches of the King namely, **substitution**, **reference** and **conjunction**, The following are the findings:

1. The result of substitution has shown that the king used **noun substitution** more than **clause and verb substitution** especially in his international speeches, also verb substitution occurred only in the international speeches, whereas clause substitution where not occurred in the international speeches.
2. The result of ellipsis showed that His Majesty did not use **ellipsis** in his speeches.

3. The result of reference showed that His Majesty used the **reference** in all of its categories (**personal pronoun reference, demonstrative reference and comparative reference**).

The King used the massive portion of personal pronoun references in his international speeches followed by national and local speeches because the international speeches are very important than the other two types of the speeches.

4. The result of co-ordinate conjunctions was that His Majesty used a lot of co-ordinate conjunctions in the three types of His speeches so, The King used the biggest portion of co-ordinate conjunctions in his international speeches rather than his national or local speeches Moreover, among all of co-ordinate conjunctions, the conjunction **and** was having the massive concurrencies especially in the international speeches.

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Contrastive Study of English and Standard Urdu-Hindi Languages

Md. Motiur Rahman, Ph.D.

Abstract

The present paper attempts to present a contrastive analysis of English and Urdu-Hindi Languages. Contrastive analysis plays a very significant role in second language learning and teaching. Language learning involves the “transfer of habits” of the native language. It is necessary for the programme planners, material producers and language instructors to study and understand the similarities and differences between source and target languages.

This study makes a contrastive analysis of English and Urdu-Hindi languages at various levels of Phonological, morphological and syntactic such as sound pattern, allophonic variation, consonant clusters, Syllabic Structure, plural formation of word and morphological processes and also syntactic structures of sentences.

Introduction:

According to *Encyclopedic Dictionary of Applied Linguistics* (1999), a contrastive analysis describes the structural differences and similarities of two or more languages. As an area of enquiry, contrastive Analysis is concerned with the principles and uses of such descriptions (Johnson, K. & Johnson, Helen, 1999:203). Crystal (1992) has defined as Contrastive Analysis or Contrastive Linguistics as the identification of points of structural similarity and difference between two languages (Crystal, 1992:83).

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When the child learns his native language, he develops his native language behaviour. Gradually this becomes stronger and stronger. In learning the second language, the learner is influenced very much by his native language behaviour. Where the structure of two languages is the same, no difficulty is anticipated. Where the structure of the second language differs from the native language, we can expect both difficulties on learning and error in performance.

The bigger the difference between the languages, the greater the difficulties will be in learning a second language. Learning a language then is visualized essentially learning a process to overcome these difficulties. In other words, learning a second language means changing one's native language behaviour to that of the speaking of the target language. Here the contrastive analysis will be useful. It will discover the differences between languages and will predict the difficulties that the learner will have. Teaching will then focus on those points where there are structural differences; this in turn determines what the learner has to learn and what the teacher has to teach.

Comparatives Study of Various Linguistics Levels: Phonological Levels:

Phonology concerns itself with the analysis and description of the meaningful sounds that human beings make. It is the study of pronunciation, the system of spoken sounds in a particular language. Consider the sound /p/ in the case of English language. This sound has at least three manifestations. When it occurs in the initial position of a word, it becomes aspirated [p^h] as in words like *pen, place, pan, pack, pit, peak*, etc. If this sound occurs in the medial position [-p-] as in *span, paper, happy, speak, supper, repel* etc., its manifestation becomes open or released [p=]. If the same sound /p/ occurs in the final position of the word like *cap, tap, map, top, rip, tripe*, etc, it becomes a complete stop. Such differences are not noticeable in Urdu and Hindi languages.

Consonant Sound System

Sound patterns

For a Hindi-Urdu speaker who is learning English, the teacher has to provide contrastive data at all levels. If the teacher is teaching Urdu-Hindi sound he has to provide the following data. These sound patterns are shown below.

The pattern of stop/plosive sounds in English is /p t k / and / b d g/. Here, the contrast is between voiceless and voiced (voicing). Secondly, there are three points of articulation bilabial, alveolar and velar. In Urdu-Hindi the sound pattern of stops is

P t ṭ c k	[प त ट च क]	Voiceless unaspirated stop
ph t ^h ṭ ^h c ^h k ^h	[फ थ ठ छ ख]	Voiceless aspirated stop
b d ḍ j g	[ब द ड ज ग]	Voiced unaspirated stop

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b^h d^h d^h j^h g^h [भ ध ढ झ ञ घ] Voiced aspirated stop

Here the contrast is between (voicing) voiceless and voiced and between aspirated and unaspirated sounds. Secondly, there are five points of articulations Bi-labial, Dental/Alveolar, Retroflex, Palatal and Velar.

In English /p/ and /b/ make a pair. But in Hindi the bilabial sound has four manifestations: /p, p^h, b, b^h/. For instance Phoneme /p/ is voiceless, unaspirated, bi-labial, stop. It occurs in all the three positions (initially, medially and finally) in words. Phoneme /p^h/ is voiceless, aspirated, bi-labial, stop. For example, Phoneme /p^h/ as (फल) [p^hə l] 'fruit'

Phoneme /p/ in (पल) [pəl] 'moment'

In Urdu-Hindi /p/ contrasts with /p^h/ but in English it does not contrast with /p^h/. These two sounds are simply allophonic variations.

In English, /p/, /t/, /k/ are aspirated such as ([p^h], [t^h], [k^h]) when they occur initially in stressed syllables.

A **Phoneme** is minimal significant contrastive units in the phonological system of a language and **Allophones** are positional variants of a phoneme. In other words phoneme is the minimum sound unit that can change one utterance into another in a language.

Phoneme: **Allophones**

/p/ → [p-] voiceless bi-labial stops aspirated, when it occurs initially in stress syllables (not necessary syllable word initial. It may be word- medial, but syllable-initial).
/p/ → [-p] voiceless bi-labial stops un aspirated, when it occurs in medial position.
/p/ → [-p=] voiceless bi-labial stop unreleased, when it occurs in final position (It is not released audibly).

In an allophonic or narrow or phonetic transcription, the symbols used to represent this allophone is

[p^h-] as in pen, pin, paint, please, pure, etc.

[-p-] as in span, spin, space, upper, speech, speak, etc.

[-p=] as in cup, pipe, peep etc.

Hence, in English, the value of phoneme /p/ is different from the phoneme /p/ in Urdu-Hindi languages. Therefore, the systematic distribution in both the languages is different. Similar is the case with phonemes /t/ and /k/.

In English, phoneme /t/ → [t^h] is aspirated when it occurs initially in a stressed syllable as in word like *ten, tin, tie, town, ton, tune, team, term*, etc.

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In English, phoneme /t/ →[-t-] is unaspirated when it occurs in unaccented syllables and in accented syllables preceded by /s/. For example, phoneme /t/ in unaccented syllables: *utter, daughter, latter, water*, etc. Phoneme /t/ preceded by /s/ in *stain, stamp, and steam*.

In English, phoneme /t/ →[-t] is not released audibly if it occurs finally in a word. Such as *neat, net, cut, pocket, bet, heart, late, set, seat*, etc.

Similarly, in English, Phoneme /k/ in such a way [k^h] is aspirated when it occurs initially in a stressed syllable. For example *can, cap, cave, class, coal, cat, cash*, etc.

In English, Phoneme /k/ →[-k-] is unaspirated when it occurs in unaccented syllable (i.e. medial position in a word) e.g. *scan, scale, skin, uncle, particle, weaker, market, lacking* etc.

In English, phoneme /k/ →[-k] is not released audibly when it occurs in word final (final position) e.g. *back, black, bank, lack, weak, work, thick, pick, lake, lock, dock*, etc.

Phonemes in Continuation

Now we come to another aspect, i.e., **Consonant cluster**, a sequence of two or more consonants made without an intervening vowel. Here we study the possible positions of consonant clusters and also the positions where clusters are missing in Urdu.

Clusters are of two types:

- (a) Permissible sequence of phonemes in a given language.
- (b) Non-permissible sequence of phonemes in a given language For example, *sk* /skri:m/ in *scream* is permissible consonant cluster but not a permissible consonant cluster in*/zgri:m/.

In Hindi-Urdu, *sk* → /səkul/ /iskul/ ‘school’

Consonant cluster /sk/ has written the addition of short vowel /i/ before a consonant cluster in standard Urdu. For example, English word ‘school’ is spoken in Urdu language as /iskul/ but Kashmiri Urdu speakers commonly speak /səkul/. In fact, consonant cluster generally breaks in Urdu language; those words borrow from Persian and Arabic. It makes insertion of short vowel /ə/ between consonant clusters. For example, /qədr/ ‘respect’ is spoken as /qədər/ and /sədr/ ‘president’ is spoken as /sədər/.

Syllabic Structure

For a study of the phonetic and phonological structure of the word in Urdu, it is expedient to divide the sentence in segments corresponding to the pulses, i.e., syllables. We propose to take every word under study as used in a sentence in ‘isolative style’. The structure of the syllable as well as that of monosyllabic words may show difference in quick speech. The immediate

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‘auditory basis’ of syllables is ‘relative sonority and duration’ which show marked fluctuations in slow and quick styles of speech.

In general, in phonetics term, the following types of consonant sounds are heard at the beginning of a syllable in Urdu: No initial consonantal cluster is possible in Urdu. All the consonantal clusters of the Sanskrit ‘tatsama’ words are broken up. Reduction of initial consonantal clusters is a special feature of Urdu (Khan, 1999: 38)

<i>Sanskrit</i>	<i>Urdu</i>
brahmen	bəra:hmen
Prečar	pəreča:r

Even the English loan-words are modified according to this pattern:

School	iskul or sikul or səkul
Station	isteshen or sitieshen

There are, however, instances of consonantal clusters with the semi-vowels. The number of such words is very limited but these words form the most important part of the vocabulary:

/kya:/ (what) ; /kyõ/ (why), /xya:l/ (thought) , /zya:da:/ (more)

The palatalization is not well marked with z and x (fricatives) as with the semi-vowels in *kya:*, *pya:r*, etc. In the Devanagari script, these clusters are denoted as syllabic but the Urdu orthography does not to express their original nature and treats them as pIar, kIa.

Following are the consonant sounds which occur at the end of the last syllable of a word in Urdu language:

- a) CVC contains by far the largest number of monosyllabic words and is the backbone of the language. The following observations may be made regarding these:
 - 1) It never begins with /R/ or /R^h/.
 - 2) It does not end in / d̪ /, /d̪^h/ and /p^h/ (with few exceptions and the English loan-words).
- b) VCC structure is possible only in the Arabic, Persian and the Sanskrit (‘tatsamas’) loan-words, and may be treated as one of the criteria of loan-words.

A syllable is a phonological unit consisting of one or more segmental sounds. The basis of the unit is a vowel. There are several different types such as monosyllables, bi-syllables, tri-syllables, poly-syllables, etc.

Monosyllabic Words

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Urdu-Hindi		English
V	आ, ऐ, ओ a: e, o	/a:/ /æ/ /o/ in ah, oh
VC	अब, इस əb, Is	/æt/ /æn/ in at, an
VCC	अबर, इतर əbr, Itr	/ænd/ /a:sk/ in and, ask
CV	का, की, को, से ka: ki: ko, se	/sɔ:/ /si:/ in saw, see
CVC	नाम, काम na:m, ka:m	/kæt/, /mæt/, /kæn/ in cat, mat, can
CVCC	सबर कदर səbr qədr	/tent/ in tent
CCV	कया गया kya gya	/pleɪ/ /kraɪ/ in play, cry
CCVC	पयार, पयाज pyar pyaz	/kri:m/ in cream

Vowel Sound System

There are ten vowel sounds in Hindi-Urdu languages including diphthongs whereas in English language 20 vowel sounds including diphthongs (12 has pure vowels and 8 has diphthong sounds).

A study of the differences in Urdu and English vowel-systems would help in diagnosing problematic sounds for Urdu speaking learners of English.

Differences in Vowel Systems

The English /I/ is pronounced with considerable muscular tension whereas in the Urdu /I/, the tongue is relaxed.

The Urdu /i/ is further back as compared to the English /i/ and /e/ it is a little higher in Urdu than in English. It occurs in all positions in both the two languages.

Morphological Level:

Morphology is the study of the relationship between the structure / shapes of words and their meanings. We need to compare the structure of forms (words). We need to also compare word classes in contrastive analysis, among other things.

Similarities and dissimilarities of English and Urdu-Hindi languages are found in prepositions and postpositions. English language uses preposition whereas Hindi language uses postpositions. But Urdu language has both prepositions and postpositions.

Prepositions in Urdu language include /fi:/ in /fi:səd/ 'percent', /fi:lha:l/ 'present', /bi/ in /bilkul/ 'completely', /bər/ in /bərəkks/ 'on the contrary' /ba:/ 'with', 'alongwith' in /ba:əxla:q/ 'moral', /be/ 'with, by' in /din be din/ 'day by day', and /əz/ 'from', 'of', 'by' in /kəm əz kəm/

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‘lesser’, /əz xud/ ‘of one’s own accord’, etc. These prepositions are adopted from Arabic and Persian languages and they are used less frequently in Urdu.

English preposition	Urdu-Hindi Postposition
/of/	/ka: ki: ke/
/to/	/ko/ [dative construction]
/from/	/se/
/in/	/mei/
/at/	/ pər/ /pe/
/for/	/liye/
/into/	/mei/
/with/	/ke sa:th/ , /se/ etc.

Similarly we need to compare various morphological processes such as affixation, internal change, suppletion, reduplication, zero modification, etc.

In Urdu and Hindi, /-ō/, /- e/ and /-iyā:/ and /a:/ are the usual plural markers in common words. In English we have /-s~ -z ~ -Iz/ as plural markers.

In Urdu-Hindi languages the root word ends with /-a / in masculine. Singular becomes plural if the ending is changed to /-e /. The feminine word ends with /-i / in singular number. It becomes plural /iyā:/, when the terminal vowel is nasalized.

Direct Case		Oblique Case	
Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Masculine			
/ləRka:/	/ləRke/	/ləRke/	/ləRkō/
/a:dmi:/	/a:dmi:/	/a:dmi:/	/a:dmiyō/
/ča:qu:/	/ča:quě:/	/ča:quě:/	/ča:quō/
/ghər/	/ghər/	/ghər/	/ghərō/
Feminine			
/ləRki:/	/ləRkiyā:/	/ləRkiyā:/	/ləRkiyō/
/həwa:/	/həwa:ě:/	/həwa:ě:/	/həwa:ō/
/bəhu:/	/bəhuě:/	/bəhuě:/	/bəhuō/
/kita:b/	/kita:bě:/	/kita:bě:/	/kita:bō/

Terminations

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Masculine Word ends with vowel sound	Direct Case	Direct Case	Oblique Case	Oblique Case
	Singular Number	Plural Number	Singular Number	Plural Number
a:	-a:	-e	-e	-õ
i:	i:	i:	i:	-iyõ
u:	u:	-ě:	-ě:	-õ
Masculine Consonant ending	---	---	---	-õ
Feminine word ends with vowel sound	Singular Number	Plural Number	Singular Number	Plural Number
	i:	iyā:	iyā:	Iyõ
a:	a:	-ě:	-ě:	-õ
u:	u:	-ě:	-ě:	-õ
Feminine Consonant ending	--	-ě:	-ě:	-õ

Here plural formations of vocative case are not discussed.

In English language, we add the suffix /-s/, /-z/, or /-Iz/ to form plurals.

Singular	Plural
boy	boys
girl	girls
dog	dogs
rose	roses

The affixes can be divided into two types: those that are derivational in nature which helps in the formation of new words. The /-t/, in height and the termination of noun word /-er/ in *worker* as well as degree of adjectives /-er/ to form comparative degree in *higher* are derivational, whereas plural morphemes /-s/ in *books* and /-z/ in *dogs*, /Iz/ in *roses* are inflectional. Inflectional affixes are markers of grammatical categories. Concepts like Inflection and Derivation are important for word building or generation of words. For example the word *decipherable* is adjective in usage. It is very important learners to know these rules and internalize them.

N > cipher

V > de+cipher

A > de+cipher+able

N > de+cipher+able+ity

N > N, V, A boy-hood, motor-ise, boy-ish, childish

V > N, V, A actor, re-write, read-able

A > N, V, A mad-ness, shorten, unhappy

Notation used here N for Noun, V for Verb A for Adjective

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Learners may be asked to analyze the words into morphemes and explain their structure in terms of derivation, inflection, compounding, affixation and conversion using words such as *operability, disloyalty, happier, rowing, boats, cats*, etc.

Syntactic Level:

It is generally said that human languages are alike at the level of conception structure and are different at the level of surface structure. Every language has a set of rules which are used by its speakers. These rules differ from language to language. Consider the following examples.

At the level of syntax, sentence structure (pattern) of Urdu or Hindi is SOV whereas in English the structure or pattern is SVO. It is commonly called *Word Order* of a sentence.

Deep Similarities	Realization	Differences among languages (e.g.)
Statements (Assertive)		
Hindi-Urdu	NP ₁ + NP ₂ + Mv+ Aux.	ra:m ne a:m kha:ya: hæ
English	NP ₁ +Aux + Mv+ NP ₂	Ram has eaten mango
Hindi-Urdu	NP ₁ + NP ₂ + Mv+ Aux.	aslam ne roTi: kha:i: hæ
English	NP ₁ +Aux + Mv+ NP ₂	Aslam has eaten bread
Hindi-Urdu	NP ₁ + NP ₂ + Mv+ Aux.	tum ne kha:na: kha:ya: hæ
English	NP ₁ +Aux + Mv+ NP ₂	You have eaten/taken food.
Questions (Yes/No types)		
Hindi	NP ₁ + NP ₂ + Mv+ Aux	Kya: ra:m ne a:m kha:ya: hæ?
English	Aux. + NP ₁ + Mv+ NP ₂	Has Ram eaten mango?
Urdu-Hindi	NP ₁ +NP ₂ +Mv+Aux	Kya: maï a:p ki mädäd/səha:yeta: kər səkta: hũ:?
English	Modal Aux.+NP ₁ +Mv+ NP ₂	Can I help you?

Notation Used:

Here NP is noun phrase.

Aux. is auxiliary verb.

Mv. is main verb.

Comparisons of Verb Agreement

Verb agreement of Urdu-Hindi languages plays a very important role. In Urdu-Hindi languages verb agree with subject as well as object, but it is not common in English language. For example, in Urdu-Hindi

(a) / ra:m ne a:m kha:ya: hæ/ ‘Ram has eaten mango’

(b) / ra:m ne roTi: kha:i: hæ/ ‘Ram has eaten bread’

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Here in sentence (a) verb /kha:na:/ ‘eat’ past participle /kha:ya:/ ‘eaten’ agree with subject /ra:m/ whereas in sentence (b) verb /kha:na:/ ‘eat’ past participle /kha:i:/ agree with object /roTi:/. In fact, Urdu-Hindi verb agree with number, person and gender but in English verb agree with number and person.

Conclusion:

Contrastive analysis is based on the similarities and the differences between two or more languages. At the same time, it takes into account a number of axioms about learning behavior. Contrastive study of English, Urdu or Hindi language systems shows that Hindi-Urdu differs from English in their sound patterns: number and kinds of consonants and vowels; consonant clusters. They also differ from each other at the morphological, lexical and syntactic levels. Urdu and Hindi speakers of English may benefit by an explicit knowledge of these differences between their languages and English. Course designers and materials producers who design course and produce materials for Urdu speakers learning English as a second or a foreign language would also be benefited by the results of this study.

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Defining a Word: Beyond a Dictionary Definition

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Abstract

‘A word is a single unit of language which means something and can be spoken or written’ (*Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary*, 2010, 8th Edition). It seems the above definition is inadequate in global linguistics because it does not give a comprehensive picture of what a word is. It reads like a layman’s description of what a ‘word’ is. Nevertheless, in lexicology, the definition needs to be comprehensive as it should make us look at related fields and at times ambiguous and even controversial issues. Thus, when we look at the dictionary definition more closely, defining ‘word’ turns out to be far from simple which we generally think it to be. This paper discusses the pertinent problems in defining a word in general. It also highlights some fundamental factors in determining the meaning of word which will help us to understand the complex role of words in a language. In conclusion, it is argued that words are governed by social convention and only by going beyond the dictionary definition can lexicologists explore its real meaning.

Lexicology

Lexicology is defined as the study of lexis or the stock of words in a given language, i.e. its vocabulary or lexicon. From the above definition, it becomes clear that the notion of ‘word’ is central to the study of lexicology. Lexicology not only deals with simple words

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in all their aspects, but also with complex and compound words, as the meaningful units of language. Since these units must be analyzed in respect of both their form and their meaning, lexicology relies on information derived from the four related fields of morphology, the study of the forms of words and their components; semantics, the study of their meanings; etymology, the study of the origins of words; and lexicography, the writing or the compilation of dictionaries. Thus, lexicology is a comprehensive field of study and under this 'word' itself needs to be defined and discussed as a technical term.

Problems in Defining 'Word' in General

There is no one straight-forward way of arriving at a comprehensive definition for the term *word*, as different dictionaries take different decisions about defining it. This is understandable because it is not clear where a word begins and where it ends. In other words, we may not be sure of word boundaries. Defining *word* is problematic as it poses a number of questions to anyone who attempts to know what a word is and how to describe it. For example, some of the questions are:

- Is *armchair* one word or two?
- Does a word have two different forms or not?
- Does a word have only one meaning or many?
- Are variants like *speak, speaks, speaking, spoke, spoken* five different words, or is it just one word *speak* with many forms?
- Are *boy* and *boys, beautiful* and *beautifully* one word or two words?

It seems there is no single answer to these questions and the reason for this is because words are not clearly bounded. Another reason could be because many languages do not clearly distinguish what a word is. For instance, writing systems such as Japanese, Thai, Arabic and Hindi do not give a constituent indication of word boundaries (Halliday, et. al, 2004). It seems there is no universal entity, found in every language that we can equate with what in English is called a 'word'. It is because languages are different and have different kinds of writing. Also, all languages may not necessarily be found similar in their approach to identifying words as English does. Moreover, in languages which do not have script it is quite hard to lay down the definition of a 'word'.

Difficulties Involved in Defining Word

Before we try defining of what a word is, it would be sensible to look at the difficulties involved in this definition: '*A word is a single unit of language which means something and can be spoken or written*' (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 2010, 8th Edition). The above definition can be otherwise explained as the word is defined focusing on: its representation, the thought which it expresses, or on purely formal criteria. However, it seems to pose three difficulties for learning the same.

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The first part of the definition relies mainly on writing traditions that separate by space sequences of letters or characters. However, these separations may not always correspond to functional realities. For example, in ‘*a new waste-paper basket*’, the first two spaces do not have the same value as the last two because the group ‘*waste-paper basket*’, although represented by three words, constitutes a semantic unit, while such a unit does not exist for the group ‘*a new waste*’. Consequently, a definition based on writing traditions alone cannot be entirely satisfactory (Jackson and Ze Amvela, 2000).

Alternatives

The second part of the definition considers the indivisible unit of thought as the most essential criterion.

The above type of definition leads to the problem of ‘delimitation’, which offers three following possible alternatives (Jackson and Ze Amvela, 2000):

- a) the word as represented in writing represents a thought unit or a psychological unit: this is the most common case, the easiest to observe and which, unfortunately, may make us forget the others e.g. *eat, sleep, house, table*, etc.
- b) the word forms one block but includes two units of thought: e.g. *teacher*, *spoonful*.
- c) the psychological unit exceeds the limit of the graphological unit and spreads over several words; the word is only element of the real unity, which is then a more complex unit: e.g. *all of a sudden, as usual*, etc.

Reliance on Formal Criteria

The third part of the definition relies on purely formal criteria. Bloomfield was the first to suggest a formal definition of the word. He contrasted the word with other significant units: the morpheme or minimal meaningful unit and the syntagme or structure, consisting potentially of more than one word. A form, which may occur alone, is free and that which cannot occur alone is bound. For example, *cat* and *bottle* are free; *-er*, *d* and *-ing* as in *singer* and *writing* are bound forms. Here a word is viewed as a minimal free form which can occur in isolation and have meaning but which cannot be analyzed into elements. It becomes clear that lexis, which consists of an infinite number of elements, excludes relational words or grammatical morphemes.

Another difficulty in the use of formal criteria is that the word may be defined from the phonological, lexical, and grammatical points of view. For example, the phonological word /ri:dz/ and the orthographic word *reads* correspond to the grammatical word ‘third person singular of *read*’. The word *read* as the base form without any modification is the lexical or content word. The lexical or content word is also referred to as a ‘lexeme’, e.g. *pen, man, student*. It should be noted that lexical or content words are different from

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grammatical or structural words and the difference between them partly lies in the nature of their meaning and partly in the characteristics of their use. Generally, lexical words are nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs and their meanings can be described or represented by a picture. These words have independent meaning and are meaningful in isolation and in sentences. Since they are more in number and form the part of open class i.e. new words are added to this class. On the other hand, grammatical or structural words such as prepositions, articles, conjunctions, forms indicating number or tense do not have meaning on their own. These are few in number and therefore constitute closed set of words.

The Concept of Lexical Item

In order to avoid this confusion, a general concept underlying this diversity referred as the 'lexical item' has been introduced. It is a known fact that every language is built upon words, which is called vocabulary or 'lexicon'. It needs to be understood here that this lexicon is not independent in itself, but it is part of grammar. In other words, a lexical item is one part of its lexicogrammar. (Halliday et. al, 2004: 3). Therefore, the reason 'word' turns out to be such a complicated notion in English. It is said the reason why lexicogrammar is divided into 'grammar' and 'lexicology' is because they require different models – different theories and techniques – for investigating these two kinds of phenomena, lexical items on the one hand and grammatical categories on the other. This is why lexicology forms different sub-discipline within linguistics and why there is a need for an improved definition of a word.

'Word' Defined

To do away with all the confusion it is necessary that we find a definition which will apply to all types of words in English. Jackson and Ze Amvela (2000) propose a definition that can serve as a working tool in lexicology. According to them, 'a word is an uninterruptible unit of structure consisting of one or more morphemes and which typically occur in the structure consisting of one or more morphemes and which typically occurs in the structure of phrases' (p. 50).

Characteristics of a Word

According to Jackson and Ze Amvela (2000), the above definition explicates four characteristics of a word which are essential. These are explained below.

1. First, the word is an uninterruptible unit which means when elements are added to a word to modify its meaning, they are added at the beginning as prefixes of the word (*unaware*) or at the end as suffixes (*drinkable*) or simultaneously with the word as a suprafix [*'export* (noun) and *ex'port* (verb)].

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2. Secondly, the word may consist of one or more morphemes. When a word consists of one morpheme, it cannot be broken down into smaller meaningful units. They are 'minimum free forms' which stand by themselves and yet act as minimally complete utterances (e.g. *dog, work, out, hand*, etc). When words consist of more than one morpheme, they may be either complex (*happi-ly, work-ing*) or compound (*birth-day, candle-stick*).

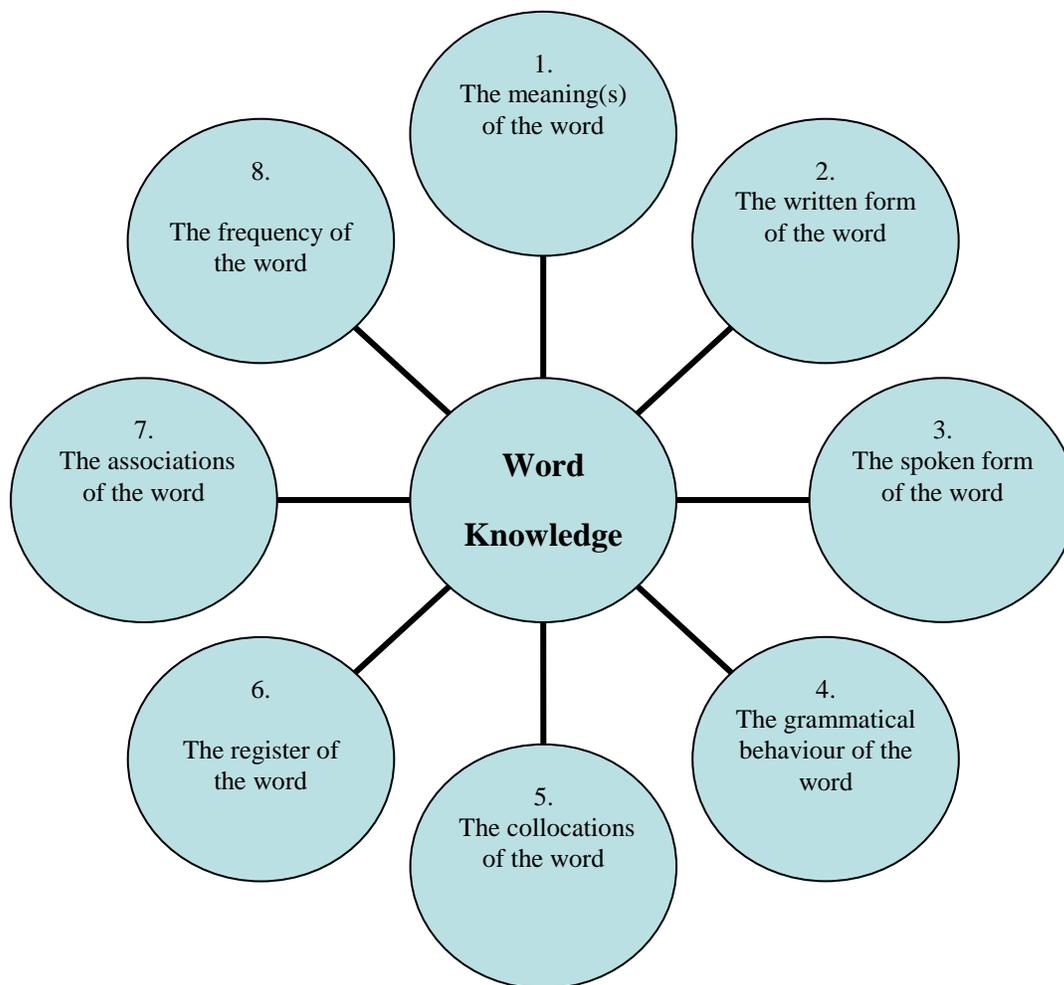
3. Thirdly, the word occurs typically in the structure of phrases. Which means according to the hierarchy, morphemes are used to build words, words to build phrases, phrases to build clauses, and clauses to build sentences.

4. Finally, each word belongs to a specific word class or part of speech. However, if the same form of the word appears in more than one class, e.g. *smoke* (noun), *smoke* (verb), these various occurrences are regarded as separate words.

Aspects of Word Knowledge

Another perspective of looking at the word is from the point of view of Nation (1990) and Wallace (1982), who propose different aspects of word knowledge that a person needs to acquire/know in order to know a word.

Figure 1: Aspects of Word Knowledge



The above aspects of word knowledge entail the overall definition of a word. Although it seems satisfactory, each aspect can be further studied in detail. These aspects fall under the related fields of lexicology such as morphology, phonology, syntax, lexicography and semantics respectively. This implies that it is not enough to view the definition of words given in dictionaries as authentic or final. Therefore, it is obvious that the role of the lexicologists is to go beyond the established definition in dictionaries, as it is debatable whether it constitutes a realistic account of meaning. Dictionaries only provide a paraphrase or explanation of meaning. Therefore, the meaning is not necessarily fully contained or exhaustively captured within such definitions.

Help with Understanding the Role of Words

The following information also adds to the knowledge of lexicologists in understanding the role of words in a language.

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1. It is said that there is no absolute definition of any verbal unit, because a word is only one element within a comprehensive system and because each element must depend on all other elements in the system. To put it in other words, one cannot know the meaning of any item until one knows the meanings of all other items. According to Nida (2008), ‘although the process of defining terms is seemingly circular, it is hopefully spiral and in this way capable of providing increasing breadth of insight’ (p. 397).
2. The meanings of words are largely known from syntagmatic contexts, that is, from accompanying terms that help to define meanings by indicating the types of contexts in which such words may occur. In other words, one should not only understand the meanings of words but one should also know precisely the contexts in which they fit. Although paradigmatic sets are useful in explaining the meaning of a lexical item, they are always secondary to syntagmatic contexts, because they depend upon these syntagmatic contexts to provide a basis for determining similarity and contrast (Sinclair, 2008; Nida, 2008).
3. The referents of lexemes of any language represent primarily the different elements of a culture, which may be defined as the totality of beliefs and practices of a society. In this case defining a word is not quite possible. It can only be inferred from the apparent events.
4. The notion that languages ‘exist’ only in dictionaries and grammar is partly correct because it is believed that such books are mostly limited attempts to describe some of the more obvious features of a language. It should be noted that languages exist only in people’s minds, not as mental images as it was believed in the past.
5. Words that are bound to simple conjunctive definitions will have little value for application in a real world, which presents us with an unlimited range of new and variable objects for description (Labove, 2008). This should give a push to all the lexicologists to say to the world that rather than complain about the variable character of the meanings of words, people should recognize the existence of an extraordinary ability of human beings to apply words to the world in a creative way. It implies that one can use words out of their established meanings or the way they have been defined in dictionaries, assigning creative tone and special value to them.
6. It is quite important to note that a ‘lexical item’ may be a phraseological combination. Here attention should be drawn to the ‘the openness principle’, in which words are used freely in a wide variety of contexts, and the ‘idiom principle,’ in which use of words is normally governed by collocations and other aspects of linguistic context. Studying how words are used in combination with one another is important in lexicology, because there is the possibility, of the meaning being either literal or figurative based on the intention of the speaker or the writer.

7. 'Emotive meaning' or 'attitudinal meaning' of a word, which is used to elicit sympathy, love, happiness, sadness, etc, which commonly serves to signal the speaker's attitude, or serve to make the message sound less authoritative or dogmatic, or as a polite way of telling someone something, is an integral part of discourse. Dictionaries cannot describe this emotive or attitudinal meaning of words. Therefore, we cannot assume that the wording of a dictionary definition is an ideal representation of what a word means in the actual or real discourse.

Conclusion

This paper is an attempt to bring out certain difficulties in defining a word. This is because it is said that no one person ever controls a language completely. It means that language is distinctly shared and is an interactive phenomenon unlike the fixed meanings of words we find in dictionaries. The fact that every language is constantly in the process of change makes the standard meaning essentially tentative.

Secondly, although we have attempted a comprehensive definition of 'word', it cannot be said to be the final one because it is impossible to capture the meaning of 'word' in its true sense. The context actually contributes more to the meaning of a particular lexical unit than the units themselves, because, the meaning of a word is only a minimal contribution to the meaning as a whole. It is much more relevant to think of meaning as always being a combined meaning of the focal element and the context. An elaborate explanation can be found in Sinclair's (2008) 'semantic reversal'.

The enormous variability of human language cannot be categorized or defined in a limited manner. Within the conventions of a particular language, meanings contrast with each other in established and precise ways. Also, speakers of the same language can convey meanings to each other with considerable precision. It simply means that words do not mean whatever people want them to mean, but are governed by social convention. Finally, although the traditional practice of assigning a number of meanings to a word and then leaving the distinguishing features to the contexts seems so easy and natural in view of traditional dictionary practice, it is much more relevant to move up from a focus on the atomic level of individual words to the level of words in combinations. Only by going beyond the notion, that a dictionary definition is an ideal representation of what a word means, can lexicologists explore its real meaning.

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Role of Stylistics in Learning English as a Second Language

Naushad Umarsharif Shaikh, M.A., B.Ed., Ph.D.

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Hain Aur Bhi Duniya Mein Sukhanwar Bahut Achay....
Kehatay Hain Ke Ghalib Ka Andaaz-e-Bayan Aur...
~ Mirza Asadullaa Nkhaan Ghalib

There are many good poets and writers be they ...
Galib is said to have unparalleled style of expression.

Abstract

Stylistics is an area of study that is growing and developing fast. Its central concern is the way cognitive and communicative effects are achieved by means of linguistic choices. It, therefore, covers literary studies and linguistics as well as discourse studies. One of the types of stylistics, Pedagogical Stylistics, has proved to be very fruitful for learners.

The present paper focuses on the pragmatic functions of Stylistics, playing a vital role in learning, teaching and acquisition of English as second language. The paper also focuses on the history, functions and aim of Stylistics in L2 and its role in solving the problems faced in learning L2.

The paper concludes by stating the role of Stylistics in learning English as a second language and how it is practically helpful in acquiring the same.

Keywords: discourse, applied linguistics, second language, literary analysis, rhetoric discourse analysis, lingual problems.

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Introduction

We may learn or acquire English as one of the languages from the same source/s but develop varying individual patterns and different choices of words and phrases. This is what makes a person a poet, novelist, an orator, or a famous literary figure. Ultimately, it is the individual's choice of words in speaking and writing which makes us speakers and writers with different structures of sentences and words.

Stylistics is a field of study that is growing and developing fast. Its inner concern is the way cognitive and communicative effects are achieved by means of linguistic choices. It, therefore, encompasses literary studies and linguistics as well as discourse studies.

History and Recent Trends in Stylistics

At the time when structuralism was at its most influential phase in Czechoslovakia, Denmark and the USA, a school known as *The New Criticism* originated in Cambridge, Great Britain. The main representatives were I. A. Richards and W. Empson, who introduced new terms, mainly the method of structural analysis called *close reading*. They devoted great effort to the study of metaphor and introduced the terms *tenor* and *vehicle* which are still in use. The New Criticism represents progress in stylistic thinking and their theory is applicable even today. They also have followers in the USA (e.g. C. Brooks, R. P. Blackmur, R. P. Warren).

British stylistics is influenced by M. Halliday (1960's) and his structuralist approach to the linguistic analysis of literary texts. British tradition has always been the semiotics of **text-context** relationships and **structural analysis of text**: locating literature into a broader social context and to other texts.

British Stylistics and Linguistic Criticism reached its most influential point at the end of the 70s (Kress, Hodge: *Language as Ideology*, 1979; Fowler, R. et al: *Language and Control*, 1979, Aers, et al.: *Literature, Language and Society in England 1580-1680*, 1981).

Definitions

Definitions of Stylistics

Stylistics is the study of style. Style can be viewed in several ways. Similarly, there are several different stylistic approaches. This variety in stylistics is due to the main influences of Linguistics and Literary Criticism.

The goal of most stylistic studies is not simply to describe *the formal features of texts* for their own sake, but to show their *functional significance* for the interpretation of the text; or to relate literary effects to linguistic causes.

Identifying the formal features of any texts is to read and understand the style of the target text and focus the choice of words, and selection of the phrases.

Stylistics is the study and interpretation of texts from a linguistic perspective. As a discipline it links literary criticism and linguistics, but has no autonomous domain of its own. (Widdowson, 1992, and Simpson, P. 2004)

The preferred object of stylistic studies is literature, but not exclusively "high literature" but also other forms of written texts such as text from the domains of advertising, pop culture, politics or religion. (Simpson, P. 2004)

According to Katie Wales in *A Dictionary of Stylistics*, 2nd ed. (Pearson, 2001), "The goal of most stylistics is not simply to describe the formal features of texts for their own sake, but in order to show their functional significance for the interpretation of the text; or in order to relate literary effects to linguistic 'causes' where these are felt to be relevant."

Types of Stylistics

Stylistics has been classified further under different tags to describe certain analytical procedures in stylistics. They are as follows:

1. General Stylistics or Stylistics

This is stylistics viewed from the broad notion of the linguistic study of all types of linguistic events from different domains of life.

2. Literary Stylistics

This is the type of analysis that focuses on literary texts.

3. Textualist Stylistics (Textlinguistics)

This is the type of stylistics which focuses on the "empty technology" of a text.

4. Interpretative Stylistics

This is the practice engaged in by most stylisticians nowadays. It involves the analysis of the linguistic data in a (literary) text, the unraveling of the content or artistic value of the text and the marrying of these two.

5. Formalist and Functional Stylistics

These terms may be viewed as alternatives for textualist stylistics and interpretative stylistics respectively as discussed above.

6. Evaluative Stylistics

This is a term used by Richard Bradford to designate the type of analysis which uses linguistic tools to assess or measure the worth or merits and demerits of a text.

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7. Discourse Stylistics

This is the stylistic approach which employs the procedures and terminology of discourse analysis in the explication of literary language use.

8. Contextualist Stylistics

This has various factions that are united in their emphasis on the ways in which literary style is formed and influenced by its contexts.

9. Phonostylistics

This has been described by Hartman and Stork as “the study of the expressive function of sounds” (223).

10. Sociostylistics

This is actually a subject which studies, for instance, the language of writers considered as social groups.

11. Feminist Stylistics

According to Sara Mills’, “Feminist Stylistics is the one that uses linguistic or language analysis to examine texts”.

12. Computational Stylistics

This is a sub-discipline of computational linguistics.

13. Expressive Stylistics

This approach emphasizes an identification of how the style, the linguistic elements, reveals the personality or “soul” of the author.

14. Pedagogical Stylistics

This refers to the employment of stylistic analysis for teaching and learning purposes. Literary texts may sometimes be difficult for learners to appreciate.

15. Radical Stylistics

This is a term introduced by D. Burton in 1982 to designate a stylistic approach which tends to go beyond the identification of the artistic effects of language use to analyse how language is used to express different ideologies of world views.

16. New Stylistics

This is a rather vague term used to denote some fresh models of stylistic analysis. Such models cease to be “new” as soon as “newer” models evolve.

Aims of Stylistic Analysis

"Stylistic analysis, unlike more traditional forms of practical criticism, is not interested primarily in coming up with new and startling interpretations of the texts it examines. Rather, its main aim is to explicate how our understanding of a text is achieved, by examining in detail the linguistic organization of the text and how a reader needs to interact with that linguistic organization to make sense of it.

Often, such a detailed examination of a text does reveal new aspects of interpretation or help us to see more clearly how a text achieves what it does.

- Doing stylistics enriches our ways of thinking about language.
- Doing stylistics improves the basic skills of the language.
- It is helpful for both teachers and learners to go for stylistic analysis.
- It is helpful for ESL and EFL learners.
- Stylistics as an independent discipline provides the students with all the necessary material to skim as well as muse deeply into literary texts to decode the native competency of the language.
- To develop the skills and approach of analyzing language to improve receptive skills of the target language.
- To identify the limitations as ESL or EFL learners and acquire the compositions and sentence structures which have less grammatical support.
- To know the limitations and acquire idiomatic expressions as idioms are generally impossible to translate between languages.

Stylistics Today

Modern stylistics is positively flourishing and witnessed in a abundance of sub-disciplines. Today, Stylistic methods are enriched by theories of discourse, culture and society be it feminist, cognitive or discourse stylistics.

Stylistics has also become a much valued method in language teaching and in language learning. Moreover, stylistics often forms a core component of many creative writing courses. Stylistics is a method of textual interpretation in which primacy of place is assigned to language.

Language and Stylistics:

The reason why language is so important to stylisticians is because the various forms, patterns and levels that constitute linguistic structure are an important index of the function of the text. The text's functional significance as discourse acts in turn as a gateway to its interpretation. While linguistic features do not constitute a text's 'meaning', an account of linguistic features nonetheless serves to ground a stylistic interpretation and to help in explaining why certain types of meaning are possible.

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Why should we do stylistics?

1. To do stylistics is to explore language, and, more specifically, to explore creativity in language use.
2. Doing stylistics enriches our ways of thinking about language, whereas exploring language offers a purchase on our understanding of (literary) texts.
3. This method of inquiry sheds light on the 'rules' of language because stylistics shows us how these rules are broken in certain texts . The practice of stylistics conform to the following three basic principles cast mnemonically as three 'Rs':
 - stylistic analysis should be rigorous.
 - stylistic analysis should be retrievable.
 - stylistic analysis should be replicable. (Simpson, P. 2004)

Functions of Stylistics

In today's materialistic and professional world, we need to stress upon the utility and functions of any idea or technique, etc.

What has been the primary interest of stylistics for years is the analysis of the type, fluctuation, or the reason for choosing a given style as in any language a single thought can be expressed in a number of ways depending on connotations, or desired result that the message is to produce. Therefore, stylistics is concerned with the examination of grammar, lexis, semantics, as well as phonological properties and discursive devices. It might seem that the same issues are investigated by sociolinguistics, and, indeed, that is the case. However, sociolinguistics analyses the above mentioned issues seen as dependent on the social class, gender, age, etc., while stylistics is more interested in the significance of function that the style fulfills.

Functions

Learners of different levels can be improved with the help of stylistic analysis as one can put learners to the exercises according to their difficult areas and in the areas where improvements are expected:

- Stylistics examines oral and written texts in order to determine crucial characteristic linguistic properties, structures and patterns influencing perception of the texts.
- Thus, it can be said that this branch of linguistics is related to discourse analysis, in particular critical discourse analysis, and pragmatics.
- Owing to the fact that at the beginning of the development of this study the major part of the stylistic investigation was concerned with the analysis of literary texts, it is sometimes called literary linguistics, or literary stylistics. Nowadays, however, linguists study various kinds of texts, such as manuals, recipes, as well as novels and advertisements.

- In addition to that, in the recent years so called ‘media-discourses’ such as films, news reports, song lyrics and political speeches have all been studied within the scope of stylistics.
- Each text scrutinized by stylistics can be viewed from different angles and as fulfilling at least a few functions.
- Thus, it is said that texts have interpersonal function, ideational function and textual function. When describing a function several issues are taken into consideration. Therefore, **interpersonal function** is all about the relationship that the text is establishing with its recipients, the use of either personal or impersonal pronouns is analyzed, as well as the use of speech acts, together with the tone and mood of the statement and this leads to develop the basic skills of learners.
- The **textual function** is the reference of sentences forwards and backwards which makes the text cohesive and coherent, but also other discursive devices such as ellipsis, repetition, anaphora are studied.
- In addition to the above, effectiveness of chosen stylistic properties of the **texts** is analyzed in order to determine their suitability to the perceived function, or contribution to overall interpretation.
- What is more, it is thought that being acquainted with stylistics makes students more aware of certain features of language and to implement the knowledge in their language production on all levels: phonological, grammatical, lexical and discursive. Also empirical findings support the view that stylistics helps students improve their reading and writing skills.
- Linguists dealing with a sub-branch of stylistics called pedagogical stylistics support the view that this field of study helps learners to develop better foreign language competence.

Second language (L2) Acquisition and Problems

As we all know, the process of the second language acquisition is different from that of the first language acquisition. Learning a second language not from infancy, but at school, or even later is also another different situation. Therefore, the very circumstances of language acquisition are different, and thus the process itself shows certain distinctive features.

In applied linguistics and language methodology various manners of second language learning/acquisition are acknowledged.

There are uncountable factors affecting the process of second language acquisition. Most of the time, a positive transfer doesn’t work at all. Therefore, learners have to know the structure and pattern of the sentences in the second language to achieve fluency, accuracy, appropriateness to reach higher level.

Transfer

What is characteristic of second language acquisition, but not of the first language acquisition process is so called transfer. This term denotes the act of trying to apply the pronunciation, word order, vocabulary or some expression form the mother tongue to the target language learnt at the moment. When the transfer is

successful, for example a word from the learners' native language has been used while using the target language and such a word indeed exists in the target language (either with different pronunciation, or not) the learner has benefited from a positive transfer. However, when in a similar attempt the learner tries to use a structure, or a word from the native language, but such a word, or structure does not exist in the target language the learner makes use of the negative transfer.

Looking at the problems of ESL learners in the basic areas of target language, learners can be offered different stylistic assignments to develop their acquisition of the language. It is better to have target oriented assignments to reach the higher results. It is observed that while learning ESL learners switch on to transfers as they are not exposed to structure and grammar of ESL sufficiently. If we facilitate them with the books and exercises in which stylistics aspects are well practiced I think they would prefer the native styles and patterns immediately instead of transfers. So teachers can apply the student oriented exercise to bring them near to the native skills.

Pedagogical Stylistics

As this application of stylistics proved to be fruitful for both learners and teachers, different patterns of facilitating to L2 learners have been discussed here.

Hence, a teacher may analyse the linguistic patterns in the text, breaking down complex linguistic units to smaller ones, converting excerpts in verse form prosaic form, hyperbaton (syntactic inversion) to regular forms in the belief that such will help the learner to grasp the message therein.

Wales remarks on this as follows: Because of its eclecticism, stylistics has increasingly come to be used as a teaching tool in language and literature studies for both native and foreign speakers of English; what can be termed pedagogical stylistics. (438)

Carter and McRae claim that stylistics in its pedagogical application "has been accused of tending towards the simplistic" (xxx). However, since the aim of teaching and learning is to make things clearer or simpler than they seem, pedagogical stylistics would be considered a positive development.

Learners can be exposed to the stylistic patterns which would help them understand and improve their language near to the native standard in writing and reading to a good extent, depending on the learners' capacity.

What is more, it is thought that being acquainted with stylistics makes student more aware of certain features of language and to implement the knowledge in their language production on all levels: phonological, grammatical, lexical and discursive. Also empirical findings support the view that stylistics helps students improve their reading and writing skills.

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These strategies consist of a close reading of the model, followed by an intensive study of the features of the given text and writing assignments:

1. Reading for stylistic analyses and
2. Exposing them to exercises

Learners' Activity

- Learners read the model carefully before and make observations on their copies to the model.
- Learners reread the text and then questions on following stylistic aspects could be asked;
- Sentence structure
- diction
- verbs
- word choice, etc.
- Different texts could be used for the activity. The exercise offered to the students should be more specific and limited.
- Give students writing assignments. The purpose of this assignment should be to insure the students understanding of rhetorical and grammatical principles to be used or applied.
- Another purpose is to reinforce their reading skills, since they must necessarily read the model text (paragraph) carefully in order to write about it.
- (supervisor or teacher should guide them during the activities)
- Students can be given liberty to select the structural and stylistic features unless required to improve aspects.
- The practicing of the same will develop learners' ability to understand certain kinds of stylistic features and learn how important it is to be able to choose the proper set of features that will communicate their intended meaning.

Important Activities

- Supervisor or teacher should
- comment on the relative strengths and weaknesses of each,
- make suggestions for improvement.
- reinforce this procedure by writing marginal and
- summary comments on their worksheets.

These activities would definitely result into improving the targeted stylistic features in reading and writing skills.

Stylistics to Analyse and Develop Lexical Awareness and Competency of Learners

Learners also face problems in lexis, style, and appropriateness. Different types of exercises can be designed to develop the learner's awareness in the desired areas.

Activities

Activity One

1. Select a text from any English language newspaper.
2. Give learners worksheets

Assign learners to:

1. list nouns which is stylistically inappropriately used
2. list nouns which are inappropriately used or given
3. find out Incorrect verbs which fail to convey the intended meanings
4. find odd, verbs used in wrong forms

Activity Two

1. Select the two texts on physical exercises or cookery.
2. Give learners worksheets

Assign learners to:

1. List all types of verbs used in imperative forms.
2. List all verbs in past and past participle forms.
3. List all verbs related to action or processes.
4. Assign them to provide synonyms for the verbs with actions.
5. List the different words with same or almost same in meaning.
6. Ask them to rewrite the texts or paragraphs using alternate words and verbs

Various tasks can be framed and exercises based on the different stylistic features could be given to the learners:

1. Find out grammatical faults.
2. Lexical items used incorrectly
3. Collocations which learners feel wrong
4. Uses and misuses of prepositions
5. Adjective order and mistakes
6. Pronouns and reflexive pronouns
7. Order of nouns and pronouns in sentences. Etc.

Examples

He and I played carols or
I and me played carols or
He and me played carols or

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I and he played carols.

In using a language to express the meaning, a speaker has a linguistic choice that allows him or her to change the order of groups of words or in other words, the speaker is given an allowance to use many ways of language use, for example: when a speaker intends to know the time, he or she may use his or her own expressions to the language offers such as:

- What's the time?
- What time is it, please?
- Would you mind telling the time, please?
- Tell me the time, please.
- I'd like to know the time.

Those are the different forms of expression of getting same information for time. The first and the second are interrogative forms, the third is requesting form. The fourth one is imperative form, while the last one is declarative form.

Most of the linguistics choices that a speaker makes are unconscious. He or she never makes a conscious choice among the available language forms. He or she had chosen the best form to express or to convey the meaning.

Worksheets and Evaluation Sheets

Stylistic analysis of the written assignments of the learners could be done on the basis of following criteria:

Essay relevant	D	C	P	F	Essay has little
----------------	---	---	---	---	------------------

Structure:

The Essay has little relevance					The Essay is relevant to topic
Superficial Relevance of Topic					Topic covered in depth

Style

Clumsily written					Fluent piece of writing
Unnecessarily Repetitive					Succinct writing

Mechanics

Many Ungrammatical Sentences					Sentences grammatical
Incorrect Spellings					Correct Spellings

Appropriate Use of Verbs, Noun and Prepositions

	Inappropriate Use	Appropriate Use
Prepositions		
Verbs		
Conjunctions		
Nouns and pronouns		
Articles		
Idioms and phrases		

Name:

Date:

Text's author and title/Comment? _____
Consider the text's rhetorical situation. What is behind its creation? What is its audience? _____
What is the author's purpose? Inform the audience? Persuade? Explain? _____
Cite a passage that illustrates the author's message (embodied thought/logos) and discuss it. _____
Cite additional content that develops / supports / illustrates the writer's message. What claims does the author make? How does the author assert his presence and knowledge? _____

Conclusion

Stylistics, as an independent discipline, provides students with all the necessary material (investigation tools) to skim as well as muse deeply into literary texts, which seem to them too difficult and perhaps, sometimes, unapproachable. It is within the scope of the present article to introduce stylistics to the English learning community in general and to the ESL and learners in particular.

Stylistics being a multidisciplinary discipline there are different approaches of stylistic analysis. It is required to know the following facts about the application of stylistic analysis to reach to the qualitative results as well as producing target and result oriented materials for learners. Pedagogical stylistics proved to be scientific as it is based on analysis of learners’ performance and putting them to the target oriented exercises on selected areas. Therefore we can conclude as follows:

- Stylistic analyses of student reading and writing assignments have really proved to be very useful medium of motivating students and helping them in improving their acquisition of the language.
- Learners can be exposed to different exercises by means of working with a wide variety of texts including literary (artistic) texts, stylistics can function as a bridging discipline between literary and linguistic courses.
- Different stylistic aspects can be applied and achieved by assigning them different and problem oriented exercises.
- The resourcefulness of teachers or supervisors is expected.
- The analysis of the language learners, dividing them in levels and giving them target oriented exercises, affects the results.

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Influence of Dravidian Languages on the Bengali Dialect of Barak Valley

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The Barak Valley

The geographical area which is known as Barak Valley is situated in the southern part of the state of Assam. Apart from two hill districts, i.e. North Cachar Hill and Karbi Anglong Hill, there are two river valleys in Assam – one is Brahmaputra valley after the name of the river Brahmaputra and another is Barak valley after the name of the river Barak. Dr. Suhash Chatterjee said: "...the term 'Barak Valley' is of recent origin. Indeed, Barak valley is the post-partitioned undivided Cachar district in Assam." (Chatterjee: 2000) This comprises of three districts, namely – Cachar, Karimganj and Hailakandi. This valley is the dwelling of various races, tribes and castes, such as *Bengalee*, *Manipuri*, *Assamese*, *Khasi*, *Garo*, *Naga*, *Mizo* or *Lusai*, *Dimasa*, *Sakacheep*, *Chorei*, *Kuki* (old and new) and the various *Janajati* of tea garden. For this variety of demographic pattern this valley is known as the 'Anthropological Garden' among anthropologists and historians.

Research on Barak Valley

The valley is surrounded by the state of Manipur situated in the east, Sylhet district of Bangladesh in the west, North Cachar hill in the North and the state of Mizoram in the south of this region. It covers 6,922 sq. km. which occupies 8.82 percent of the total geographical area of Assam.

Several research works have been done on various aspects of the Barak Valley, such as – *Srihatter Itibritta* (History of Sylhet); *Cacharer Itibritta* (History of Cachar); *Srhatta-*

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Cacharer Prachin Itihas (Ancient History of Sylhet and Cachar); *Barak Upatyakar Loksanskriti* (Folk Culture of Barak valley); *History and Folklore: A Study of the Hindu Folk cult of the Barak Valley of North East India*; etc. But there is no research work in the discipline of Linguistics to explore the Dravidian influences on the language/s of this region though there is enough scope for this type of study.

Language, society and culture are intimately connected with each other. Language can never be separated from society and culture. And hence the language of a caste, tribe or race is used always in the context of that particular society and culture. Therefore the influence of Dravidian languages in the Bengali dialect of Barak valley indicates that the Bengali culture prevailing in this region is also deeply influenced by the Dravidian. The Austric and Mongoloid races had migrated in this valley from time immemorial and in course of time. Numerous archaeological remains and their present settlements also prove their existence from historical age. Regarding Dravidian migration, there is no such historical evidence discovered in this valley. Yet the linguistic influence proves that without any political and geographical boundary or identity, Dravidian culture had deep rooted influence over the Bengali culture and dialect of Barak valley region.

In the present paper we discuss the Dravidian influence on the following:

- i) Place names (ii) Terms relating to flora and fauna; and (iii) Other words.

Place names

The study of Bengali place names will remain quite incomplete without the help of Dravidian linguistic analysis. Prof. Suniti Kumar Chatterjee rightly stated: "In the formation of these names, we find some words which are distinctly Dravidian; e.g. -jola, -jota, joti-jotika etc.; hitti, hitthi-vithi, -hist (h)I, etc.; -gadda, -gaddi; pola-vola and probably also -handa, -vada, -kunda, -kundi, and cavati, cavada, etc. ; ... An investigation of place-names in Bengal, as in other parts of Aryan India, is sure to reveal the presence of non-Aryan speakers, mostly Dravidian, all over the land before the establishment of the Aryan tongue." [Roy: 1993, (Quoted from Chatterjee's 'The Origin and Development of the Bengali Language)]

Dravidian suffixes and prefixes borrowed in the nomenclature of places of Barak valley are – 'ai', 'baita', 'patti', 'kudi', 'kopa', 'kapan', 'khai', 'khola', 'pai', 'koti' etc.

- a) Dravidian 'patti' stands for small village or town. This suffix is used in the place names of this region to denote a lane of a town. Such as – Shillong patti, Rahman patti, Tula patti, etc.
- b) 'Kudi' in Dravidian means home or villa. It used in several place names like Sabirakudi, Chengkudi, Shilkudi, Kanaikudi, etc. of this valley with same meaning.
- c) Tamil 'kuppam' (meaning hillock) > 'kopa', such as – Gabindakupa, Bhatirkupa, Bhitarkupa, Ujankupa, etc.

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- d) Dravidian '*baitha*' meaning settlement, is found as '*baitha*' in one of the place names as prefix – Baithakhal. Baitha – settlement; khal – channel.
- d) '*Pur*' is one of the common suffixes not only of the place names of Barak valley but of the place names of Bengal too. E.g. Mahadevpur, Gavindapur, Shantipur, Kalyanpur, etc. This suffix is derived from Dravidian '*ur*' means “town”, which could have the meaning, originally, of a place, ‘where there are many people or many wares’.” (Lahovary : 1963) Dravidian '*ur*' was adopted in Sanskrit as '*puram*' > *pur* (Bengali).
- e) Dravidian '*pai*' means small branch of a river. Using this word twice only one place is named in this region as '*paipai*' meaning a place surrounded by various channel.
- f) The suffix '*khai*' is derived from Dravidian *kabaiyi* > *kaiyi* > *khai*, meaning man made channel. Place names with this suffix are Borakhai, Lakharkhai, Kudikhai, Kamarkhai, etc. In Bengali dialect of Barak valley unaspirated letter is pronounced as aspirated letter, such as – *k* > *kh*; *g* > *gh*; *c* > *ch*; *p* > *ph*; *d* > *dh*; *t* > *th*.
- g) In several place names of Barak valley, Dravidian '*jod*' and '*jodi*' meaning streamlet, is used both as suffix and prefix, e.g. Elongjudi, Chengjud, Boaljudigram, Judbadi etc. 'O' phoneme is pronounced as 'U' in Barak valley. It is the dialectical characteristics of this valley.
- h) Dravidian '*Kalam*' (Malayalam) and '*kol*' (Kannada) mean threshing-floor. In the place names of this valley '*khola*' is used as both suffix and prefix to indicate widespread field, e.g. Khola, Itkhola, Kholagram, Chankhola, etc.
- i) Dravidian *kaupana* > *kapan*, means fertile land. Place names relating to suffix *kapan* are – Jatkapan, Nagkapan, Kaibartakapan, etc. (Das: 2009)

Terms Relating to Flora and Fauna

- a) In Barak valley, cat is known as '*bilai*' whereas in standard Bengali it is called '*Bidal*'. Dialectical word '*Bilai*' is nothing but the corruption of Dravidian '*bilal*' which means cat.
- b) In the Bengali dialect of this valley 'ram' or 'sheep' is called '*meda*' (masculine gender) and '*medi*' (feminine gender). These two terms seems to have been originated from Dravidian word '*merro*', '*mari*'.
- c) A kind of bird in Barak valley is known by the name '*kuda*'. The name has been derived from Dravidian '*kuru-ku*' which means bird.

- d) In Dravidian, seed plant is called ‘*sajje*’ and in Barak valley the ear of the paddy is called ‘*hija*’. ‘*Hija*’ is the corruption of ‘*sajje*’: *sajje* > *hajje* > *hijje* > *hija*. Mention may be made that in the dialect of Barak valley ‘*s*’ and ‘*sh*’ are pronounced as ‘*h*’. For Example – ‘*se* > *he*; *sokol* > *hokkol* etc.

Some Other Terms

In standard Bengali, son is called ‘*chele*’ whereas in the dialect of Barak valley son is known by ‘*pula*’. The word ‘*pula*’ has been directly derived from Tamil ‘*pillai*’. Dravidian ‘*akali*’ stands for hunger. In Barak valley, scarcity is called ‘*akal*’ and it is interesting to note that a baby born during the period of scarcity of food is named as ‘*akalir maa*’ (*maa* - mother) or ‘*akalir bap*’ (*bap* – father). Some other examples are given below:

<u>Dravidian origin & meaning</u>		<u>Bengali dialect & meaning</u>
ari (sister)	>	jhiyari (daughter), bouyari (daughter in law)
aria (kinship)	>	adipadi (neighbour)
goda (face)	>	godan (shape of the face)
ur (belly)	>	ur (arms)
kuto (small, lean)	>	kuttimutti (small, lean)
vitu (house)	>	vita (house) etc.

In conclusion we can say that in spite of lacking historical and archaeological evidences about migration of Dravidian people in the Barak valley region of North-east India, the Bengali dialect of this valley had been influenced by Dravidian languages. And it will be interesting to investigate further how and in what situation the Bengali dialect of this valley had come in contact with the Dravidian languages.

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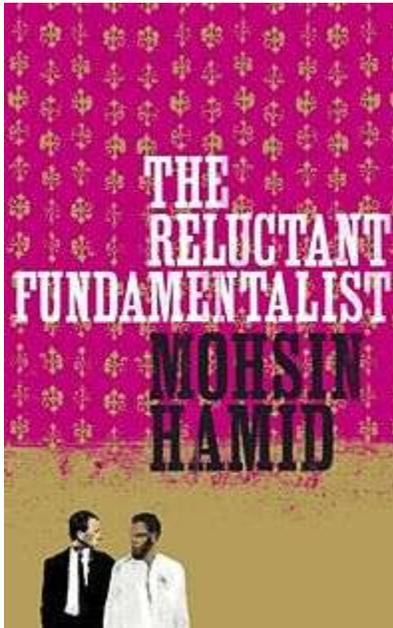
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An Analysis of Mohsin Hamid's *The Reluctant Fundamentalist*

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Introduction

The Reluctant Fundamentalist, like many first-person narratives, is a fictional autobiography. Changez, the protagonist, is an intellectually ripe and mature narrator who looks back on his past happenings during his stay in America. Although he is only twenty five at the time of narrating the story, he feels his life completely over-turned rather metamorphosed. Like many first-person narrators, he has become wiser after his experiences in America on 9/11---the time when history is taking shape. Looking back on his life, he remembers his brilliant career in juxtaposition of his love for mentally unhealthy Erica and his love for his homeland--facing the shadow of impending war. The story's first-person narrative situation is uniquely suited for presenting Changez's insights about his wasted life in the country of Uncle Sam.

The story is told in a straightforward, chronological manner and its timeline can be established quite accurately. The story's action begins with Changez reaching New Jersey as a young Princetonian of eighteen and ends on his attaining twenty five.

Plot of the story is linear: narrator Changez, recounts the events of his recent past in first-person narrative. The narrative technique employed in the novel is dramatic monologue. Throughout the novel it is the hero, Changez, who tells us and narrates while talking in his own voice. We know of the reactions and the attitude of the audience, the person who listens to the narrative, the silent American who is constantly listening to him. But we know this only through the words of the one narrating self, Changez. So, we cannot know more of the silent but physically present listener than what Changez thinks he (the American) might be.

This narrative technique is, indeed, dramatic, and the monologue is very impressive. There is no verbal and direct reaction of the American for what the narrator says to him as well as makes comments about his people, their attitude towards the Muslims after 9/11, and, also, what he (the narrating self) comments on the listener's gestures and physical movements. The deliberate, contrived complete silence of the listener (the American) as a technique functions to convince the readers about the reliability of the report.

In this ulterior narration, there are secondary narrators. Narratives, if divided with reference to their temporal position, have four kinds, and ulterior narration is one among them. Ulterior, the term used by Genette (cited in Kenan, 2003: 89), and Subsequent, the term used by Genette (1980: 177), is one and the same kind. Ulterior/Subsequent narration is marked by the use of the past tense, and in it events precede the act of narrating. Such type of narration "presides over the immense majority of the narratives" (177). *Robinson Crusoe*, *David Copperfield*, *Great Expectations* etc. are ulterior narratives. Jim and Erica tell their own past events in first-person narration. Although these secondary narrators tell their stories in their own voice, the focalizer (Changez), since the novel is a dramatic monologue, does not get changed as secondary narrators'

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first-person narratives reach the readers through the monologue of the primary narrator, Changez, who is the hero of the story as well.

Methodology

This research paper is based on the basic narratological concepts proposed by Claude Bremond, Mieke Bal, Gerard Genette, Porter Abbott, and Shlomith Rimmon-Kenan. The paper shows how to put these concepts to work in the analysis of Hamid's *The Reluctant Fundamentalist*.

The plot of the story has been analyzed after the model proposed by Bremond. Bremond explains three stage model of almost every fictional story - Possibility (or Potentiality), Process, and Out-come (cited in Kenan, 2003: 22). *The Reluctant Fundamentalist* exactly follows the three: Potentiality for understanding the affairs was there in the young Princetonian, Process of change started with Americans' attitude towards the Muslims after 9/11, and the third stage, the Out-come arrives in the form of complete metamorphosis of Changez.

The present work analyses the kinds of narration, narrative levels, typology of narratives, focalization, narrative situations and characters and characterizations in Hamid's *The Reluctant Fundamentalist*, with textual references and exemplification.

The story has a linear plot. Changez is the extradiegetic-homodiegetic narrator, telling his story in dramatic monologue. Extradiegetic refers to 'external to any diegesis' (Mcquillan, 2000: 318) in the sense that at the time of narration the narrators, events being happened in the past, are not the part of the story (Abbot, 2002: 189). In this sense an extradiegetic narrator can be said to be one who is neither involved in the story related nor any subsequent framing narrative (Genette, 1985, 1988; Lanser, 1981). Homodiegetic is a kind of narrative in which the narrator is a character in the events recounted (Genette, 1985, 1988; Lanser, 1981).

This paper presents the discussion about the extent of Changez's participation in the story, the degree of perceptibility of his role, reasons of his reliability, nature of focalization and voice, characterization (semiotic/mimetic), narrative features in narrative situation (Changez's involvement in the story, temporal and mental distance between the narrating self and the experiencing self, his knowledge of the world he is talking about, his reliability, his voice etc.), and the kind of his narrative discourse in terms of Jakobson's (1960) functions (phatic, appellative, emotive). This work is an attempt of 'intentional reading' of the novel.

For ease the following framework is presented here:

- Plot analysis according to Bremond's three-stage model: Possibility or Potentiality, Process, and Out-come (cited in Kenan, 2003:22).

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➤ Kinds of Narration

Todorov (1981), Prince (1982), Genette (1985) explain the kinds of narration:

- Ulterior/Subsequent/Posterior: Narration coming after the narrated events.
- Anterior Narration: Narration preceding the events in time.
- Simultaneous Narration: Narration occurring at the same time as the events.
- Intercalated Narration: Narration situated between two moments of action as in epistolary novels.

➤ Narrative Levels

Genette (1985, 1988), Bal (1985), Mcquillan (2000), Abbott (2002), Kenan (2003) provide the following categories:

- Extradiegetic Level: It is external to any diegesis in the sense that at the time of narration the narrators are not the part of the story.
- Diegetic Level: The events themselves. The level at which an event or existent is related to a given diegesis.
- Hypodiegetic Level: A narrative embedded within another narrative, sometimes called a meta-diegetic narrative or pseudo-diegetic narrative (e.g. the monster's account in *Frankenstein*).

➤ Typology of Narrators

- The narrative level to which the narrator belongs
- The extent of his participation in the story
- The degree of perceptibility of his role
- His reliability

➤ Narration, Focalization, and Narrative Situations

Genette (1980, 1985, 1988), Bal (1981, 1983, 1985), Brewer (1984), Stanzel (1984), Lonon (1990), Kenan (2003) classify thus:

- Narration (voice): Who speaks in the narrative? It determines the narrator and govern the relation between narrating and the narrated. Voice is an important focus for a Feminist and Postcolonial analysis in which the question of who speaks is suggestive of the power relations at work in a narrative.
- Focalization (mood): The perspective from which events are narrated. It can be internal, fixed, variable, multiple, external, or zero.

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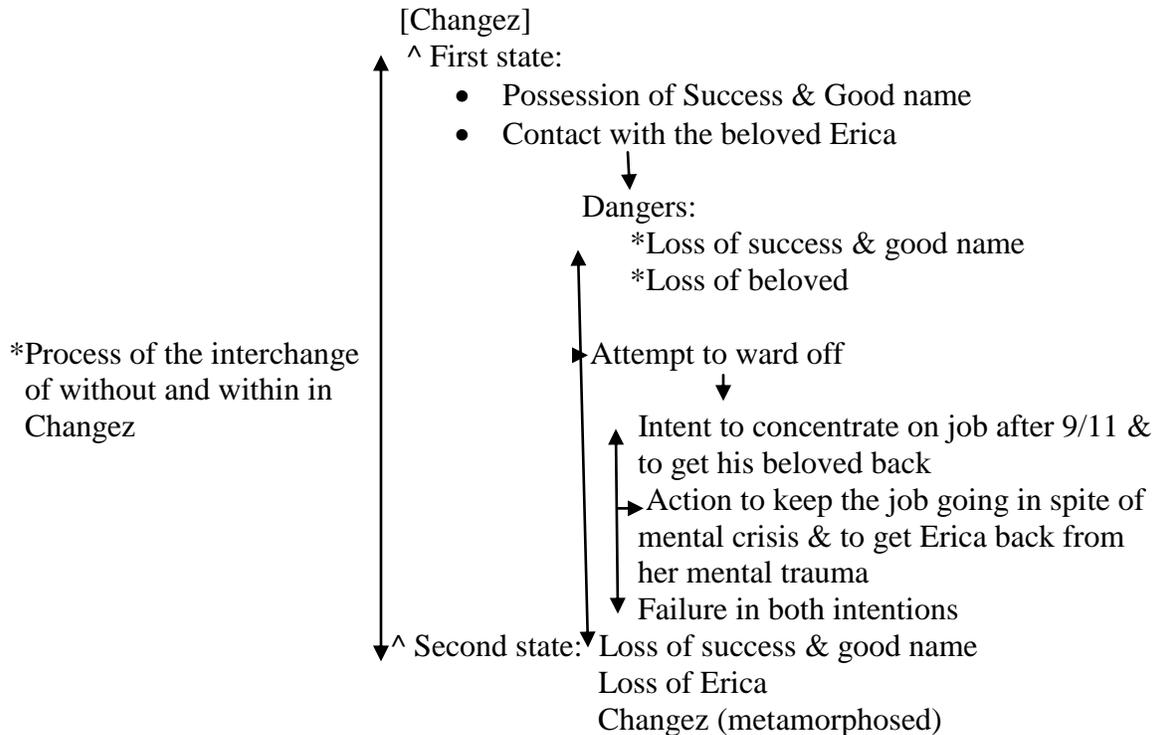
- Narrative situation: It refers to complex arrangements or patterns of narrative features. These complex frameworks aim at capturing typical patterns of narrative features, distance, knowledge, reliability, voice, and focalization.

➤ Characters and Characterization

Kenan (2003), Jahn (2005) provide the following parameters of Character classification:

- Narratorial VS figural: Identity of characterizing subject ----- narrator or character?
- Explicit VS implicit: Personality traits that can be known through words, or by somebody's behavior.
- Self VS altero: Refers to the question whether the characterizing subject characterize himself or somebody else?
- Pure VS realistic: Semiotic or mimetic? Whether they represent the mythic world or the realistic world?

Plot of Hamid's *The Reluctant Fundamentalist* According to Bremond's Method



[Adapted from Kenan, 2003: 24]

Kinds of Narration

Genette classified narration into four kinds (cited in Kenan, 2003: 89):

1. **Ulterior** (Events precede the narration)
2. **Anterior** (Being predictive in nature, narration precedes the events using future tense and sometimes the present tense as well)
3. **Simultaneous** (Action and narration both are simultaneous: diary entries or reporting)
4. **Intercalated** (instead of being simultaneous, telling and acting follow each other in alternation)

Past events are recounted in the Ulterior narration and different texts show different temporal distance between the events and the activity of narration. Kenan puts it thus,

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“Commonsense tells that events may be narrated after they happen (Ulterior narration), as in Fielding’s *Tom Jones*, Dicken’s *Great Expectations*, and Wolf’s *Mrs Dalloway*” (Kenan, 2003: 89), and as in Hamid’s *The Reluctant Fundamentalist*. “The distance between the narration and the events varies from text to text: around fifteen years in *Great Expectations*, one day in *L’Etranger*” (89), and almost seven years in Hamid’s *The Reluctant Fundamentalist*.

The first person narrator, Changez recounts the events of his past seven years when in a restaurant he finds an American visitor getting frightened by his beard. The whole of the narration is Ulterior in kind as Changez tells the events of his past life he spent in America and experienced history when it was taking shape.

Changez at the time of the narration is twenty-five years old starting with the recounting of events which occurred about seven years back, the moment he saw the Gothic buildings through a younger eye of a student. This he reclaims later when in the flash-back his experience with Juan-Bautista is narrated, “I went for college, I was eighteen” (Hamid, 2007: 91). Near at the close of the narration, the distance between the events and the activity of narration is entirely lost: “Juan-Bautista added considerable momentum to my inflective journey, a journey that continues to this day...” (88). The underlined relative clause eliminates the distance between events and the activity of narration.

Narrative Levels

In a narrative there might be lots of stories told by different narrators. One story can have other stories in it. These are the different narrative levels, as Kenan writes:

A character whose actions are the objects of narration can himself in turn engage in narrating a story. Within a story there may be yet another character who narrates another story, and so on in infinite regress. Such narratives within narrative create a stratification of levels (Kenan, 2003: 91).

Narrative Levels are three as described by Bal (1985), Genette (1985, 1988), Kenan (2003):

- Extradiegetic**
- Diegetic**
- Hypodiegetic**

Abbott opines that the narrators often tell a story in an extradiegetic situation: Though they tell the stories of the past happenings, yet at the time of narrating them they are not in the past; they narrate about the past in the present. Moreover, they tell stories in the circumstances and among the people who had not been the part of those stories (Abbot, 2002: 189). Kenan (2003) writes that Chaucer’s *The Canterbury Tales* narrator presents

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the pilgrims at extradiegetic level, and the adult Pip of *Great Expectations* talks about his childhood at this level.

It is noticed that at extradiegetic level the narrator of *The Reluctant Fundamentalist*, Changez tells his story to the silent American narratee (who had not actually been the part of Changez story) in a restaurant of Old Anarkali in Lahore: “What did I think of Princeton? Well the answer to that question requires a story” (Hamid, 2007: 2).

And, “I was telling you about my interview with Underwood Sampson, and how Jim had found me to be, as he put it, hungry” (Hamid, 2007: 7).

And, “I was telling you about Manila” (38).

And:

I ought to pause here, for I think you will find rather unpalatable what I intend to say next, and I wish to warn you before I proceed. Besides my throat is parched. -
----- You are curious, you say, and desire me to continue? Very well (42).

Diegetic level of the narrative comes under extradiegetic one:

“Immediately subordinate to the Extradiegetic level is the Diegetic Level narrated by it, that is the events themselves: the pilgrims’ journey to the Shrine of St. Thomas a Becket, Pip falling in love with Estella” (Kenan, 2003: 91).

Changez’s study visit to America, admission at Princeton University, Princetonian’s holiday in Greece, meeting with stunningly regal Erica, selection as Underwood Sampson trainee, first assignment in the Philippines, massive collapse of World Trade Centre on 9/11, visit to Pakistan, and the trip to Chile, all are events at diegetic level of the narrative.

Jim and Erica narrate their hypodiegetic level stories, which is second degree narrative. “The stories told by fictional characters, e.g. the exploits of the Pardoner, constitute a second degree narrative, hence a hypodiegetic level” (Kenan, 2003: 91-92). In Hamid’s *The Reluctant Fundamentalist* stories told by Jim and Erica are the examples of Hypodiegetic level, narrated by the intradiegetic narrators (Jim, Erica). Intradiegetic narrators are the part of the diegesis of a primary narrative (Genette, 1985, 1988; Lanser, 1981). Such narrators (Jim, Erica) in *The Reluctant Fundamentalist*:

Because I [Jim] grew up on the other side. For half my life, I was outside the candy store looking in, kid. And in America, no matter how poor you are, TV gives you a good view. But I was dirt poor. My dad died of Gangrene. So I get the irony of paying a hundred bucks for a bottle of fermented grape juice, if you know what I mean (Hamid, 2007: 42).

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And:

I [Jim] remember my first Underwood Sampson summer party. It was a gorgeous evening, like this one. Barbeque going, music playing. Reminded me of Princeton for some reason, of how I felt when I got there. I figured, I wouldn't mind having a place out in the Hamptons myself one day (26).

And:

When I [Jim] was in college, the economy was in bad shape. It was the seventies. Stagflation. But you could just smell the opportunity. America was shifting from manufacturing to services, a huge shift, bigger than anything we'd ever seen. My father had lived and died making things with his hands, so I knew from up close that that time was past (57).

And, "Chris and I [Erica] used to come to the park a lot. We'd bring this basket with us and just read or hang out for hours" (35).

And:

For a while I [Erica] stopped talking to people. I stopped eating. I had to go to the hospital. They told me not to think about it so much and put me on meditation. My mom had to take three months off work because I could not be myself. We kept it quiet, though, and y September I was back at Princeton (35-36).

And:

Chris did it...When we were eight or nine. It's inspired by one of his Tintin comics, Flight 714... His mother gave it to me [Erica] when she was clearing out his stuff (Hamid, 2007: 31).

Typology of Narrators

While talking of types of narrators Kenan writes that the type of a narrator depends on the following factors:

The **narrative level** to which the narrator belongs
The **extent of his/her participation** in the story,
The **degree of perceptibility** of his/her role,
His/her **reliability**

A narrator who is 'above' or superior to the story he/she narrates is extradiegetic. To this category belong the narrators of Fielding's *Tom Jones*, Lawrence's *Sons and Lovers*, and Hamid's *The Reluctant Fundamentalist*, although Changez is not above the story he is telling.

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On the other hand, if the narrator is also a diegetic character in the first narrative told by the extradiegetic narrator, then he is a second degree, or intradiegetic narrator. Examples are Marlow in Conrad's *Heart of Darkness*, the Pardoner in Chaucer's *The Canterbury Tales* and Erica and Jim in *The Reluctant Fundamentalist*. There can also be narrators of a third degree (i.e. hypodiegetic, fourth degree (hypo-hypodiegetic, etc.) In James's *The Turn of the Screw* the Extradiegetic narrator is the anonymous 'I', the Intradiegetic one is Douglas, and the hypodiegetic narrator is the governess.

Genette writes that extradiegetic and intradiegetic narrators can be absent from or present in the story they narrate. A narrator not participating in the story is called 'heterodiegetic', whereas the one who takes part in it is 'homodiegetic' (cited in Kenan, 2003: 95). Changez in *The Reluctant Fundamentalist* is Extradiegetic and Homodiegetic (Extra-Homodiegetic). Jim and Erica both are not detached from the story they tell. In fact, they are the very much part of it. Jim narrates the story of his childhood and Erica narrates her experiences with her lover Chris: "I [Erica] think of Chris a lot, and I think of me. I think of my book. I think some pretty dark thoughts sometimes" (Hamid, 2007: 62). Hence both are intradiegetic and Homodiegetic narrators.

Kenan further opines that the degree of participation of homodiegetic narrators varies from case to case. The narrators sometimes play a central role in the stories they narrate: Protagonist- Narrators. Pip and the Pardoner play a central role in the respective stories they narrate: both are Protagonist-Narrators, while the narrator whose role is subsidiary is witness-narrator. Changez, according to Kenan's typology, is **Protagonist-narrator** as he plays the central role in the story he narrates. He is like a pivot around which the whole story moves. Missing him is to miss the whole narrative. Jim and Erica are **witness narrators** as their role is subsidiary in the Hypodiegetic narration.

A distinction exists between 'overt' and 'covert' narrators. Jahn (2005) distinguishes between overt and covert narrators:

An overt narrator is one who refers to him/herself in the first person ("I", "we" etc.) and one who directly or indirectly addresses the narratee, whereas a covert narrator, in contrast, is one who neither refers to him or herself nor addresses any narratee, one who has a more or less neutral (nondistinctive) voice and style.

Changez in *The Reluctant Fundamentalist* displays maximum of overtness in his narration showing no signs of covertness. He is the one who refers to himself in the first person, directly addresses the narratee---- the American, tells the setting of the narrative, defines the characters and comments on his own narration, so fulfilling all the features of overtness:

When I first arrived, I looked around me at the Gothic buildings----- younger, I later learned, then many of the mosques of the city, but made through acid

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treatment and ingenious stonemasonry to look older----- and thought, this is a dream come true (Hamid, 2007: 2). **[Setting]**

And:

So stunningly regal was she. Her hair was piled up like a tiara on her head, and her navel----- ah, what a navel: made firm, I would later learn, by years of taekwon do---- was visible beneath a short T- shirt bearing an image of Chairman Mao (10). **[Defining Character]**

And, "I know you have found some of my views offensive" (111).

[Commenting on his own narration]

A reliable narrator is one on whose story and commentary the reader can believe in. An unreliable-narrator, on the other hand, is one who's rendering of the story and commentary on it the reader has reasons to suspect. There are different degrees of unreliability. According to Kenan, the main sources of unreliability are the narrator's limited knowledge, his personal involvement and his problematic value-scheme.

Changez in *The Reluctant Fundamentalist* is a reliable-narrator as he is the eyewitness of the havoc and sufferings in New York after 9/11. Though the personal involvement renders the narrative unreliable, yet Chengaiz presents the event in its most original form. Since there are no other extradiegetic narrators, his views do not clash with those of others. As his language contains no internal contradiction throughout the narration, he is maximally reliable narrator. Moreover, it is a biography based on a real event which the people of the whole world not only saw but also suffered in one way or the other, the reliability of the narrating self gets increased. So, the readers' knowledge of the world is at work throughout the novel. Again, due to this very reason it seems that there is not much gap between the narrating self (Changez at the time of narrating) and the experiencing self (Changez who experienced all that in America).

Narration (Voice), Focalization (Mood), and Narrative Situations

In Narratology, the basic 'voice' question is "Who speaks?" (Who narrates this?). A narrator is the speaker or '**voice**' of the narrative discourse (Genette, 1980). He is the agent who establishes communicative contact with the 'narratee', who manages the exposition, who decides what is to be told, how it is to be told, and what is to be left out. If necessary, the narrator will comment on its purpose, or message.

Changez is the voice of the narrative discourse of *The Reluctant Fundamentalist*. He establishes communicative contact with the narratee, the American. He manages the exposition and decides solely what is to be told and how it is to be told and even what is to be left out.

Regarding voice, Abbott would suggest what the readers 'hear' during the narrative is the

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voice. He opines that it is the voice of the grammatical person (first-person, third-person) of the narrator whom readers 'hear' (Abbot, 2002: 64). In *The Reluctant Fundamentalist* it is the voice of the hero, Changez, the first-person narrator, we 'hear' throughout the novel. While telling his story, he is the only person behind arousing our emotions. So the narrative voice of Changez is a major element in the construction of his story, since his voice is too strong, interesting and absorbing for the readers. As focalization shifts, the voice also can shift. Sometimes the shift of the voice is from the narrator to that of a character by means of direct citation. Although the narrator remains the focalizer, the voice changes: the narrator uses the voice of a character. This he/she does in one of the two ways: if he cites and quotes the exact words of a character, the voice gets a shift from the narrator to that of the specific character. This kind of shift of voice is called Direct Style/ Direct Discourse.

The second way of shifting is that the voice gets filtered through the narrator----- though the narrator is speaking, yet the voice is of the character. This kind of shift of voice is called Free Indirect Style/ Free Indirect Discourse. Abbott supports this view (Abbott, 2002: 70). In Erica's and Jim's first-person narratives the voice shifts from that of Changez to that of both these characters. So the voices here are those of Jim and Erica, but the narrator and focalizer is Changez, since the whole narrative/ novel is a dramatic monologue of Changez.

In Jakobson's terms (1960), narratorial discourse can serve several 'functions', mainly:

- (a) An addressee-oriented '**phatic function**' (maintaining contact with the addressee),
- (b) An '**appellative function**' (persuading the addressee to believe or do something),
- (c) An '**emotive**' or '**expressive function**' (expressing his/her own subjectivity).

Phatic function is performed when Changez maintains a constant contact with the narratee:

I enjoy the tea in this, the city of my birth, steeped long enough to acquire a rich, dark colour, and creamy with fresh, full-fat milk. It is excellent, no? I see you have finished yours. Allow me to pour you another cup (Hamid, 2007: 9).

Appellative function where the addressee is persuaded to believe or do something is visible at many places:

Come, relinquish your foreigner's sense of being watched. Observe instead how the shadows have lengthened. Soon they will shut to traffic the gates at either end of this market, transforming Old Anarkali into a pedestrian (Hamid, 2007: 19).

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Emotive or expressive function where the narrator expresses his own subjectivity is obvious in following textual reference:

Pakistani cabdrivers were being beaten to within an inch of their lives; the FBI was raiding mosque, shops, and even people's houses; Muslim men were disappearing, perhaps into shadowy detention centers for questioning or worse (56).

Focalization is a means of selecting and restricting narrative information, of seeing events and states of affairs from somebody's point of view, of foregrounding the focalizing agent, and of creating an empathetical or ironical view on the focalizer. A focalizer is the agent whose point of view orients the narrative text. Focalizer can be either 'external' (a narrator) or 'internal' (a character). External focalizers are also called 'narrator-focalizers'; internal focalizers are also termed as 'focal characters':

External focalization can occur in first person narratives, either when the temporal and the psychological distance between narrator and character is minimal or when the perception through which the story is rendered is that of the narrating self rather than that of experiencing self...Internal focalization is inside the represented events. This is a character focalizer (Kenan, 2003: 74).

Bal (1980) explaining focalization writes that it lies with one character which participates in fibula. This is internal focalization or character-bound focalization, abbreviated as CF. While in external focalization an anonymous agent is situated outside the fibula, functioning as non-character-bound focalizer, abbreviated as EF.

The narrator and the character in *The Reluctant Fundamentalist* are same in one agent as temporal and psychological distance between Chengaiz, the narrator and Chengaiz, the character is nonexistent. The presentation of narrative facts and events in the novel is mostly from the constant point of view of a single focalizer, Chengaiz (Fixed focalizer).

In Bal's terms, Changez is character-bound (CF) focalizer.

Abbott is of the view that focalization is the lens through which we see characters and events. Too often it is the narrator who is the focalizer. As the readers hear his/her voice, they often 'see' through his/her eyes. But the narrator is not always the focalizer (Abbott, 2002: 66). In narratives the focalizer can be a character through whose eyes the readers 'see'. So, the focalizer can be the character within, or the narrator within or without the narrative.

It is Changez who remains focalizer throughout the narrative. It is through Changez's pair of eyes the readers see almost everything. Even in the intradiegetic narratives of Jim and Erica (both first-person narrators) the focalizer is Changez. Since it is dramatic monologue, we see through the eyes of Changez all that Erica and Jim see. So the first-

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person narratives of Jim and Erica must not be confused with the idea that they also are the focalizers of their accounts, although the focalizer (Changez) takes their voices when they speak.

The term **narrative situation** refers to more complex arrangements or patterns of narrative features. Stanzel's (proto-) typical narrative situations are complex frameworks aiming at capturing typical patterns of narrative features, including features of relationship (involvement), distance, knowledge, reliability, voice, and focalization (Stanzel, 1984).

- A **first-person narrative** is told by a narrator who is present as a character in his/her story; it is a story of events s/he has experienced him- or herself, a story of personal experience. The individual who acts as a narrator (**narrating I**) is also a character (**experiencing I**) on the level of action.
- An **authorial narrative** is told by a narrator who is absent from the story, i.e., does not appear as a character in the story.
- A **figural narrative** presents a story as if seeing it through the eyes of a character.

The Reluctant Fundamentalist, **first-person narrative** is told by a narrator, Changez, who is present as a character in his story; a story of events he has experienced himself, a story of personal experience. He is the individual who acts as a narrator (**narrating I**) and also a character (**experiencing I**) on the level of action, hence his involvement with the events is transparently obvious. The narrator and the character in *The Reluctant Fundamentalist* are same in one agent as temporal and psychological distance between Changez, the narrator and Changez, the character is nonexistent. Although he is an adolescent narrator, Changez's knowledge of the world he is narrating is direct. Hence his knowledge is reliable. Changez is the voice of the narrative discourse of *The Reluctant Fundamentalist*. He establishes communicative contact with the narratee, the American. He manages the exposition and decides, solely what is to be told and how is to be told.

Characters and Characterization

Characterization analysis investigates the means of creating the personality traits of fictional characters. The basic analytical question is, Who (subject) characterizes whom (object) as being what (as having which properties). Characterization analysis focuses on these basic parameters (Kenan, 2003; Jahn, 2005):

(1) **Narratorial vs. figural** characterization (identity of characterizing subject: narrator or character?)

(2) **Explicit vs. implicit** characterization (are the personality traits attributed in words, or are they implied by somebody's behavior?);

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(3) **Self-characterization vs. altero-characterization** (does the characterizing subject characterize himself or somebody else?).

(4) **Pure vs realistic** (semiotic or mimetic)

Characterization in *The Reluctant Fundamentalist* is narratorial in nature. Instead of presenting a story as if seeing through the eyes of a character (Figural Characterization), the narrator, Changez is present as a character in his story; a story of events he has experienced himself, a story of personal exposure. The personality traits of Changez are implied by his behavior instead of in words as happen in implicit characterization: since the text of the novel is presented through his dramatic monologue (no description, statements, judgments, generalizations etc are by the implied author), his words act as his behaviour. The characterizing subject (Changez) characterizes himself (Self-characterization), but the possibility of altero-characterization can not be overlooked in the cases of the silent American, Erica and Jim as all the three are revealed to us through Changez's dramatic monologue.

While presenting the mimetic/realistic and semiotic/pure (both are opposite to each other) theories of characterization Kenan (2003) writes that fictional characters are just like the real people. They imitate real people in the empirical world. They are our neighbours and friends (realistic theories).

Regarding the other view of characterization she presents to us that characters are just one segment of a text; characters just get dissolved into the text during the process of textualization. They are not like real people in the empirical world, hence can not be talked of out of their specifically textual context (pure theories). She further presents her own view that the characters can be viewed both through the purest and realistic point of view simultaneously only if the readers adjust them in two different aspects of the narrative fiction: text and story. Defining this she writes that if text is the object of analysis for the critic/ reader, characters just dissolve in the text through the process of textualization; and if story is object of study, characters can come out of the text as real people (31-33). She supports her view by quoting Chatman:

...Too often do we recall fictional characters vividly, yet not a single word of the text in which they came alive; indeed, I venture to say that readers generally remember characters that way (cited in Kenan, 2003: 33).

The 'intentional reading' of the story of *The Reluctant Fundamentalist* reveals that Changez seems imitating the real persons of his kind (the people who actually have the same experience after 9/11 as he has). He is the figure who cannot be dissolved into the text, as the story he is telling is the real event in the history of mankind. The readers find his account as reliable and him as the real person who really suffered (or at least the representation of the persons like him in empirical world after 9/11). While defining the nature of paratext, Abbott writes that it is the comments of the real author, of critics,

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reviews etc. And, paratext powerfully influences the way of our reading of a text (Abbott, 2002: 194). Changez's character is realistic/ mimetic, as the readers have lot of knowledge of the real event of 9/11 which serves as paratext in the process of the intentional reading of the novel. Also, the dramatic monologue as a technique of narrating a story which is the part of readers' paratext convinces emphatically that the narrator is a real character imitating real people involved in that event.

Conclusion

The Reluctant Fundamentalist is based on a real historical world event, told to the readers by first-person homodiegetic narrator who recounts his past regarding 9/11 (which exists in the consciousness of the real readers through the medium of either paratext or personal experience, making the narrator a reliable one to them). It becomes a convincing account of the theme of fundamentalism which is 'reluctant'. The narrative technique of dramatic monologue combined with the real world knowledge of 9/11 presents the message of the narrator as well as the implied author.

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Role of English and the Negligible and Marginal Role of Indian Languages – A Case Study of Urdu in India

Somana Fatima, Ph.D.

Abstract

This paper is based on the role of English and the negligible and marginal roles of Indian languages in India. Researcher has collected the data and did the analysis of English and its impact on Indian languages. Researcher has taken Urdu language to compare with the English language in different contexts and situations. The study is done in Lucknow, Delhi and Aligarh city using hundred respondents who are Urdu speakers. The study is carried out by using questionnaire and interviews. After the data collection in the field, researcher has analyzed the data in the form of tables and charts.

Selection of Respondents

The present study has drawn data from more than one hundred respondents living in and around Aligarh district, Lucknow and Delhi who answered the survey questionnaire, and around 50 respondents who were interviewed.

1. New generation young Urdu speakers were mainly selected for this study since they are more globalized, commercialized and free to adopt foreign culture very easily. This generation is ready to change the society according to perceived and felt needs.

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2. Urdu Speakers who belonged to the old generation were also included in the study because their speech is found to be relatively uniform among all members of the Urdu speaking society.
3. The respondents either originally belonged to Aligarh, Lucknow or Delhi, or their stay in Aligarh, Lucknow and Delhi have been for more than 15 years.

Data Collection

The data has been collected through a combination of techniques, with the help of tape recorder and field diary. These techniques included:

1. Questionnaire.
2. Serving a text. (to get attitude and preference of Respondents)
3. Reading of word list.
4. Interviews.
5. Anonymous observations on the field diary.

Anonymous Observations

While the preliminary calculation of correlation was made on the basis of text and words list production by the respondents, the investigator heavily used her anonymous observations as authenticate the calculations and analysis.

For achieving this, the investigator had to participate in religious addresses, speeches by learned people, academic lectures and daily life encounters, etc. This was also complemented by the observation of such speakers in totally or relatively informal situations, eg., when speakers are in rash, emotional or friendly moods. The investigator tried to observe all types of speakers including students, scholars, and office-goers, clerks, shopkeepers, etc. in many places. Radio/Television news and other programmes were also referred to in order to make comparisons between the speech of elite and non-elite classes, urban and rural and formal and informal contexts.

The Survey Questionnaire

The Survey Questionnaire was designed and structured to collect the most basic and general information about the speakers. The purpose of Survey Questionnaire was to clarify the respondents in terms of the social background in which they are living. This enabled the investigator to place various respondents into particular social classes.

The Field Dairy

A field Dairy was maintained throughout the study to systematically record the observations during the data collection. It is found that usually, there is no concordance between the actual

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uses of language and the attitudes towards one's usage. One speaker who produces and claims to use a particular form, starts using a different form with a slight change in the social setting.

Keywords: English and Indian language, Aims of Study, Data analysis in 17 different contexts and 12 different situations.

1. English and Indian Languages – A Review

The following quotes from leading Indian scholars of language planning reveal the current processes in operation in India:

“The relativized and pluralized western culture further evokes a perception of ‘the West’ as being tolerant and ‘the Rest’ as intolerant and fundamentally dogmatic. It is good that there is change but the change is not rapid enough to transform the society into an affluent but socially unstable one like that of the western world, which is now becoming the model for our people. As years and decades pass by, the future historian might well compliment India for the evolutionary manner in which the social change was brought about” (Gupta & Hasnain: 2001).

“The ideology of science, new information technologies, international media and communication and the growth of world capitalism, economy and globalization have contributed to the hegemony of English in the education system of India. Furthermore, the hegemony of English has been strengthened by the internal language conflicts, politics of language and language planning discourse, and lack of proper implementation of language policy.” (Dua: 2001: 47)

Though English is spreading as a universal language of science, it cannot be denied that some developed languages like German, French, Russian, Japanese, etc. have a strong tradition of scientific research and are extremely rich in literature in some areas of scientific studies. Thus, most developing countries that rely exclusively on English sources of scientific literature are deprived of scientific knowledge being generated in other languages and scientific communities. (Dua: 2001: 113).

The most significant question that emerges in relation to the scientific community in India concerns the problem of language use in scientific education, scientific publication and scientific communication that shows the dominance of English and the marginal or negligible role of the Indian Languages. But the monograph brings out the need to develop a new language planning paradigm based on an integrated policy of science, language and economy. It urges the speakers of Indian languages to build alternative futures for themselves as well as for their languages. The Indian language intellectuals and the dynamic scientific community can provide a new direction to the use of Indian languages. The monograph provides insight and commitment for the accomplishment of the renaissance of the Indian languages, cultures and sciences for the realization of different futures and traditions of science. (Dua: 2001: Coverpage).

“The case of English is still more curious—this exocolonial, exoglossic language—is not only the associate national official language, but also serves as an inter-state link language and is

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promoted, propagated and supported as the language of opportunity, the language of higher learning, the language of prestige and the language of power”. (Patnaik & Imtiaz: 2006: 11)

In their paper “Globalization, Language, Culture and Media: Some Reflections”, Imtiaz Hasnain and R. S. Gupta write, “if we feel equally strongly about and mourn the loss of a species, we should feel equally strongly about and mourn the loss of a language. There is a balanced dynamism in case of species-extinction and births of new species are well balanced, but obsolescence of language may not be the same and today languages are disappearing at an alarming rate” (Patnaik & Imtiaz: 2006: 13)

In the National Seminar on Language and Globalization: Issues and Perspective held in the Linguistics Department, Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh in 2006, it was suggested that “at the global level the events of great impact—the collapse of the USSR, the disappearance of the communist regimes in Eastern Europe, the unification of Germany, the abolition of apartheid in South Africa, etc.—are causing new linguistic world order. As a result of commercialization a new ordering is afoot—new power alignments are taking place, socio-cultural re-orientations are in evidence, and new hegemonies are being created”.

In the paper “Will India becomes an English Speaking Country?”, Shereesh Chaudhary writes, “besides British journals, Indian journals are: Englishman, The Friend of India, Pioneer, The Asiatic Mirror, The Calcutta Advertiser, The Bengal Hircarra, The Calcutta Chronicle, Bengal Journal, The Calcutta Gazette, The Bengal Gazette, Madras Courier, Madras Gazette, Asia Magazine, Asiatic Researcher, etc.” (Patnaik & Imtiaz: 2006: 48) “Computers and internet have further tightened the hold of English in India. There are many newspapers, advertising agencies, radio and television networks whose reach, aided by computers, has greatly expanded recently.” (Patnaik & Imtiaz: 2006: 53).

In the paper “Language Globalization and Market Realism,” Shailendra Kumar Singh writes about ‘market realism’ and ‘linguistic imperialism’. He writes, “the new wave — language globalization is created through marketization and internationalization of politics. The new wave is creating global market for the realistic society of today and tomorrow (Patnaik & Imtiaz: 2006: 102).

In any linguistic market an individual as a customer may accept the language of interaction. In the paper “Globalization, Media and Linguistic Numbness,” Bharati Modi argues that English has so much damaged our linguistic life that we are suffering from ‘Linguistic Numbness Syndrome’.

A. R. Fatihi, in his paper “Economic Relevance of Language in Post-Global Indian Consumer Society,” writes about the language of market and advertisement. In the paper “Electronic Linguistics: the Internet and the Evolution of New English,” Sophia Ahmad argues that the impact of globalization can also be seen on English language. “The extensive use of computers and the internet has revolutionized the concept of commercialization and globalization by

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bringing people and communities together in ways we never thought possible. Electronic English has given fresh meanings to old words. Lexicon items like desktop, internet, surfing, E-mail, inbox, outbox, recycle bin, search engine, home page and download etc. are new words derived only from the computer and mobile.” All these new words transform in traditional English. It changes the English completely as well as other Indian languages too. English, in due course of time, has become the primary choice for code-switching or is used as a code-switched variety.

In the paper “Global: A Threat for Mother Tongue of Indian People”, Nazir Ahmad Dhar says that English also affects the Kashmiri language. “The use of English as a switched variety is passing from the more educated to the less educated Kashmiri and from the formal to informal domains. Some examples are given below: Tell him that m’e Chun l bakwaas pasand.

‘Tell him that I don’t like useless talk’” (Kak and Wani 2005 a)

As compared to Urdu, English has established itself in comparatively less time. In spite of initial opposition, English has become the dominant language, mainly because expansion commerce and industry helped this process of extending the use of English.

Dr. K. Abdul Azeez mentions in his paper “Globalization and Language Hegemony” in the National Seminar that through the extensive use of mobile phones more than twenty English usages have become popular in every nook and corner of Kerala: Prepaid, postpaid, sim-card, incoming call, out-going tariff, etc. One of the effects of commerce “with the growth and extension of inter-state and intrastate commerce” is the growing tendency to use English words instead of Bengali words, where English words are not at all necessary, particularly in domestic interactions. All these things are discussed in the paper **Effect of Globalization on the Bengali Language** by Sunandan Kumar Sen. “The tendency to use English for domestic purpose is growing rapidly ... [mixing English words in] the Bengali speech is very much noticeable nowadays. That is a kind of code-mixing between English and Bengali. An interesting advertisement from a leading mobile phone maker, where there is a sentence like the following may be cited as an example: “ebar kAlighAte pujA din only from your Hutch”. What it actually means is that Hutch Company has arranged for its customers to pay homage in Kalighat Temple from their mobile just by sending only one sms. In the paper “Tanglish as by product of Communication Globalization,” A. Chandra Bose says, “there are a lot of chaotic sentence structures that have been employed by Tamilians chatting in the internet. Though the sentence structure is a mixture of both English and Tamil vocabularies, it gives mere understandable meanings to communicate to others.” For example, the sentence ‘help pannuviya?’ is very frequent and it means ‘could you help me?’”

Use of English words in the mother tongue is due to the impact of commerce on mother tongue. Internal hegemony is less dangerous than the external linguistic invasion. In the process of commercialization all such linguistic diversities are liable to be abolished. This is to be resisted by giving expression to our ideas and emotions against the despotism of commercialization.

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Commercialization transforms Urdu language also, as all these points are discussed by Shafi Mashhadi in his paper “Impact of Globalization on Urdu Language and Literature”. We all would agree with this assessment:

“In the dichotomous process, many less favourably placed speech variety---which may be dialects, vernaculars or minority languages, or may have non-elite style---stand in danger of becoming extinct.” (Khubchandani 1997: 165).

Hans Raj Dua in his article “Sociolinguistic Processes in the Standardization of Hindi-Urdu” writes that in providing an analysis of linguistic features in relation to the language problems pertaining to language structure that is writing, spelling, pronunciation, vocabulary, syntax, forms of discourse, and problems of speech. The developmental status of these features can be indicated on the basis of the processes of standardization, codification, elaboration and cultivation (Hasnain: 1995: 179).

The emergence and development of Hindi and Urdu as standard varieties spans over almost nine hundred years. The protagonists of both Hindi and Urdu have expressed a wide range of views and theories, sometimes confusing and contradictory, about their origin and development. However, there seems to be an agreement on the basis premises regarding the origin, directions of development and emergence of Hindi and Urdu as standard varieties (Hasnain: 1995: 180).

In the article “Standard Pronunciation for Doordarshan (Indian T.V.),” Shubhashree Ganguly asks “Have the Doordarshan personnel been able to identify themselves with standard Bengali? To what extent the process of standardization has been successful in Doordarshan in terms of management of standard pronunciation? What are the noticeable deviations in Doordarshan’s standard pronunciation?” (Hasnain: 1995: 203).

In his article “Innovations in Language---An Experiment, in Comprehensibility with Reference to Urdu in Mass Media and Education,” Syed Imtiaz Hasnain writes:

“The processes of innovation brought about in most Modern Indian Languages are marked by an ongoing struggle between purists and propagandists on the one hand, and language pedagogues and planners on the other. While in the former the uncompromising attitude remains a strong underlying ideology, the latter has an all pervasive comprehensibility as its forte. And between the two warring groups, by and large, it is the former that succeeds in foregrounding those linguistic innovations that conform to their ideology. But at what cost? Of course, at the linguistic price of incomprehensibility. Language incomprehensibility remains a problematic for its users as they are couched in highly Sanskritised or Perso-Arabicized languages far from the spoken and even ordinarily written reality” (Hasnain: 1995: 213).

In the article “The Standardization of Urdu Script,” Mirza Khalil Beg writes about the simplification of Urdu script so that its user can use the script easily. In all the articles published

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in the *Indian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, authors are talking about the simplification of vocabulary, simplification of sentence structure and pronunciation and simplification of script so that the majority can use, speak and write that language by the process of “Standardization”.

This study is on the Urdu language, so my research focused on Urdu. Urdu is a Khadi Boli Idiom which developed in the North India especially in and around Delhi by the end of the twelfth century A.D. This was the time when due to the settlement of Muslims comprising Turks, Afghans and Iranians and the establishment of the Muslim rule in Delhi, certain socio-political, cultural and linguistic changes were taking place in North India. It was during this period that Khadi Boli came under the influence of new linguistic and cultural forces and eventually became a full-fledged language called ‘Urdu’. Though the structure of Urdu is purely Indo-Aryan, its vocabulary is largely derived from Persian and Arabic and it is written in an ‘adaptation’ of the Perso-Arabic script (Beg: 1986).

It is interesting to note that during the early phases of the Muslim settlement, anything indigenous to India was termed by the Muslim settlers as ‘Hindi’ (Hind+i). The word Hind meaning ‘India’, comes from the Persian language, and the suffix –i which is transcribed in the Persian alphabet as ya-i-ma’ruf is a grammatical marker meaning ‘relating to’. The word *Hindi*, thus, meant ‘relating/belonging to India’ or the ‘Indian native’. This language is called as ‘the Khadi Boli style of Urdu’ (Beg: 1986).

2. Aims and Scope of Study

The present study covers the Aligarh district, Lucknow city and Delhi Metropolitan city. All possible steps have been taken to make the data comprehensive and representative of Urdu language. It makes a thorough analysis of Urdu Speakers' attitude and preference in seventeen different contexts and twelve different situations.

2.1 Goals and Objectives of the Study

The researcher conducted the field survey in Uttar Pradesh in order to find out the actual position of Urdu and English. It was noticed that Urdu is substantially used for oral communication in almost all the domains, whereas English is used in the fields of administration, education, literature, written communication and in formal settings such as writing, printing, etc. It was also found that the Urdu language speakers have strong feelings for the development of their language. It is their desire that this language should be used for various functions in the society. To focus on these issues the following objectives were formulated:

1. To find out the use and the status of the Urdu language and to ascertain the functions of English.
2. To investigate the preferences of languages at specific domains and situations.
3. To find out the attitudes of the Urdu speakers towards English.

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2.1.1. Hypotheses

The foremost important step in conducting a research work is to establish hypotheses that form the key points to be either proved or disproved. So, the present study is based on a few propositions which are as follows:

1. It has been established that in an Indian society several languages are used for different purposes. So, all the languages must have their specific domains of use.
2. People having the advantages of more than one language at their disposal might prefer one language over the other. Thus English is supposed to be preferred over Urdu.
3. English, a language of prestige, is mostly preferred for higher education.
4. Urdu speakers favour the use of Urdu for all purposes including education, administration and mass media.

2.1.2. Tools of data collection

In order to test these hypotheses, the researcher prepared a questionnaire for the collection of data that consisted of four sections (appendix 1). Section 1 of the questionnaire is concerned with the background information of respondents. Section 2 contains seventeen questions to inquire about the use of language(s). Section 3 contains fourteen questions to elicit preferences for specific languages. Of these fourteen questions, 13 were provided with language choices, Urdu and English whereas, the fourteenth question is related to progress of society, science and technology and foreign ways of life. Section 4 contains attributes as well as domains with specific language choices. It deals with the attitudes of Urdu speakers toward Urdu and English.

2.1.3. Sample design

The researcher distributed questionnaire among 100 respondents, but later decided to consider only 97 samples which are presumed to be representative of the data collected. The data is collected from Aligarh, Lucknow and Delhi and the variables taken into consideration are Sex (male and female) and Age groups. Age group 1 is from 15-25 years, Age group 2 is from 26-45 years and Age group 3 is from 46-80 years. 50 respondents are selected from the district Aligarh in which 25 are males and 25 are females, 50 respondents are selected from Lucknow and Delhi in which 25 are males and 25 are females respectively.

2.1.4. Collection of data

All the four sections of the questionnaire are prepared in English. Respondents have filled up the questionnaire themselves in the presence of the researcher. 100 questionnaires were distributed in three cities of Lucknow, Aligarh and Delhi in which 97 samples were selected for analysis. The distribution is made equal keeping in view the comparative analysis between

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different social variables from different regions. For the present study, the researcher did not consider region as a separate variable.

2.1.5. Analysis of data

The data is analyzed by obtaining simple frequency percentage for each language in each domain/situation. On the basis of the frequency percentage the researcher studied the following:

1. The use of Urdu and English in all considered situations with respect to two social variables: sex, age.

2.1.6. Presentation of findings

2. Different tables and graphs have been prepared according to the findings and result.
3. The seventeen different contexts or domains with respect to Urdu and English that have been analyzed are as follows:

1. Talking to people in a locality (context 1).
2. Talking to people in schools, college and university (context 2).
3. Talking to family members (context 3).
4. Talking to colleagues (context 4)
5. Talking to children (context 5).
6. Talking to Urdu speaking stranger (context 6).
7. While visiting offices, hospitals and market places (context 7).
8. For entertainment (context 8).
9. In teacher-student relationship (context 9).
10. In watching TV programmes (context 10).
11. In listening to radio broadcast programmes (context 11).
12. In reading magazines, story books, etc. (context 12).
13. In reading newspaper (context 13).
14. In writing to close friends (context 14).
15. In writing to family members (context 15).
16. In printing invitations (context 16).
17. For creative writings (context 17).

3.1 Urdu and English use by males and females in seventeen different contexts/domains

Urdu and English use by males

As given in Table 3.1, 97.60 per cent of males use Urdu in locality; 71.42 per cent of males use Urdu in school, college, university; 100 per cent of males use Urdu in family domain; 73.80 per cent of males use Urdu with colleagues; 92.85 per cent of males use Urdu with

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children; 80.95 per cent of males use Urdu with Urdu speaking stranger; 71.42 per cent of males use Urdu while visiting office, hospital and market places; 71.42 per cent of males use Urdu for entertainment; 38.09 per cent of males use Urdu teacher-student relationship; 42.85 per cent of males use Urdu in watching TV; 40.47 per cent of males use Urdu in listening to radio broadcast; 11.90 per cent of males use Urdu in reading magazines, story books; 11.90 per cent of males use Urdu in reading newspaper; 07.14 per cent of males use Urdu in writing to close friends; 23..80 per cent of males use Urdu in writing to family members 35.71 per cent of males use Urdu in printing invitations and 21.42 per cent of males use Urdu in creative writings.

11.90 per cent of males have been found using English in locality; 52.38 per cent of males use English in school, college, university; 11.90 per cent of males use English in family domain; 40.47 per cent of males use English with colleagues; 11.90 per cent of males use English with children; 33.33 per cent of males use English with Urdu speaking stranger; 50 per cent of males use English while visiting office, hospital and market places; 38.09 per cent of males use English for entertainment; 71.42 per cent of males use English in teacher-student relationship; 83.33 per cent of males use English in watching TV; 64.28 per cent of males use English in listening to radio broadcast. 100 per cent of males use English in reading magazines, story books; 97.60 per cent of males use English in reading newspaper; 66.66 per cent of males use English while writing to close friends; 59.52 per cent of males use English while writing to family members; 83.33 per cent of males use English in printing invitations and 57.14 per cent of males use English for creative writings.

Urdu and English use by females

Seen in Table 3.1, 81.81 per cent of females use Urdu in locality; 33.33 per cent of females use Urdu in school, college, university; 81.81 per cent of females use Urdu in family; 38.63 per cent of females use Urdu with colleagues; 79.54 per cent of females use Urdu with children, 43.18 per cent of females use Urdu with Urdu speaking stranger; 31.81 per cent of females use Urdu while visiting office, hospital and market places; 52.27 per cent of females use Urdu for entertainment; 29.54 per cent of females use Urdu in teacher-student relationship; 59.09 per cent of females use Urdu in watching TV; 54.54 per cent of females use Urdu in listening radio; 9.09 per cent of females use Urdu in reading magazines, story books; 13.63 per cent of females use Urdu in reading newspaper; 4.54 per cent of females use Urdu in writing to close friends; 15.90 per cent of females use Urdu in writing to family members; 52.27 per cent of females use Urdu in printing invitations and 18.18 per cent of females use Urdu for creative writings.

A cursory look at Table 3.1 reveals that 18.18 per cent of females use English in locality; 74.54 per cent of females use English in school, college, university; 20.45 per cent of females use English in family domain; 63.63 per cent of females use English with colleagues; 34.09 per cent of females use English with children; 63.63 per cent of females use English with Urdu speaking stranger; 63.63 per cent of females use English while visiting office, hospital and market places; 68.18 per cent females use English for entertainment; 72.72 per cent of females use English in teacher-student relationship; 56.81 per cent of females use English in watching

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TV; 54.54 per cent of females use English in listening radio; 75 per cent of females use English in reading magazines, story books; 77.27 per cent of females use English in reading newspaper; 79.54 per cent of females use English in writing to close friends; 81.81 per cent of females use English in writing to family members; 86.36 per cent of females use English in printing invitations; 81.81 per cent of females use English for creative writings.

3.2 Urdu and English use by males and females of three age groups

Urdu and English use by males

So far as Urdu use by males of age group 1 (16-25 yrs) is concerned, Table 3.2 shows that 94.44 per cent of males use Urdu in locality; 55.55 per cent of males use Urdu in school, college, university; 90.70 per cent of males use Urdu in family domain; 86.70 per cent of males use Urdu with colleagues; 72.22 per cent of males use Urdu with children; 50 per cent of males use Urdu with Urdu speaking stranger and while visiting office, hospital and market places; 33.30 per cent of males use Urdu for entertainment; 28.10 per cent of males use Urdu in teacher-student relationship; 8.10 per cent of males use Urdu in watching TV; 33.30 per cent of males use Urdu in listening radio and 42.80 per cent of males use Urdu in printing invitations.

5.55 per cent of male use English in locality; 44.40 per cent of male use English in school, college, university; 11.10 per cent of male use English in family domain; 46.70 per cent of male use English with children; 13.60 per cent of male use English with colleagues; 50 per cent of male use English with Urdu speaking stranger; 56.70 per cent of male use English while visiting office, hospital and market places; 58.10 per cent of male use English for entertainment 88.70 per cent of male use English in teacher-student relationship; 88.70 per cent of male use English in watching TV; 86.70 per cent of male use English in listening radio; 84.50 per cent of male use English in reading magazines, story books; 88.70 per cent of male use English in reading newspaper; 58.10 per cent of male use English while writing to close friends; 84.50 per cent of male use English while writing to family members; 84.50 per cent of male use English in printing invitations and 100 per cent of male use English for creative writings.

Table 3.2 shows that 83.30 per cent of males of age group 2 (26-45yrs) use Urdu in locality; 58.33 per cent of males use Urdu in school, college, university; 100 per cent of males use Urdu in family domain; 66.60 per cent of males use Urdu with colleagues; 91.60 per cent of males use Urdu with children; 75 per cent of males use Urdu with stranger and while visiting office, hospital and market places; 83.30 per cent of males use Urdu for entertainment; 41.60 per cent of males use Urdu in teacher-student relationship; 44.70 per cent of males use Urdu in watching TV; 41.60 per cent of males use Urdu in listening radio; 8.33 per cent of males use Urdu in reading magazines, story books and newspaper; 8.33 per cent of males use Urdu in writing to family members and 40.71 per cent of males use Urdu in printing invitations

Table 3.2 shows that 12 per cent of males use English in locality; 44.70 per cent of males use English in school, college, university; 8.30 per cent of males use English in family

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domain; 25 per cent of males use English with colleagues; 8.30 per cent of males use English with children; 25 per cent of males use English with Urdu speaking stranger; 25 per cent of males use English while visiting office, hospital and market places; 25 per cent of males use English for entertainment; 41 per cent of males use English in teacher-student relationship; 64 per cent of males use English in watching TV; 91.66 per cent of males use English in listening radio; 100 per cent of males use English in reading magazines, story books; 96.50 per cent of males use English in reading newspaper; 75 per cent of males use English while writing to close friends; 83.30 per cent of males use English while writing to family members; 83.30 per cent of males use English in printing invitations and 84.50 per cent of males use English in creative writings.

Table 3.2 shows that 91.60 per cent of males of age group 3 (46-80yrs) make use of Urdu in locality; 100 per cent of males use Urdu in school, college, university; 91.60 per cent of males use Urdu in family domain and with colleagues; 100 per cent of males use Urdu with children; 75 per cent of males use Urdu with Urdu speaking stranger; 75 per cent of males use Urdu while visiting office, hospital and market places; 83.30 per cent of males use Urdu for entertainment; 41.60 per cent of males use Urdu teacher-student relationship; 50 per cent of males use Urdu in watching TV; 58.30 per cent of males use Urdu in listening radio; 45 per cent of males use Urdu in printing invitations and 9.20 per cent of males use Urdu in creative writings.

10.71 per cent of males make use of English in locality; 90.06 per cent of males respondents has been found using English in school, college, university; 9.20 per cent of males use English in family domain; 58.30 per cent of males use English with colleagues; 10.70 per cent of males use English with children; 10.71 per cent of males use English with stranger; 97.06 per cent of males use English while visiting office, hospital and market places; 58.30 per cent of males use English for entertainment; 66.60 per cent of males use English in teacher-student relationship; 75 per cent of males use English in watching TV and listening radio; 100 per cent of males use English in reading magazines, story books; 100 per cent of males use English in reading newspaper; 83.30 per cent of males use English while writing to close friends; 86.05 per cent of males use English while writing to family members; 86.05 per cent of males use English in printing invitations; 100 per cent of males use English for creative writings.

Urdu and English use by females

The Table 3.2 reveals that 92.30 per cent of females of age group1 (16-25yrs) use Urdu in locality; 53.84 per cent of females use Urdu in school, college, university; 76.92 per cent of females use Urdu in family; 69.23 per cent of females use Urdu with colleagues; 69.23 per cent of females use Urdu with children; 64.54 per cent of females use Urdu with Urdu speaking stranger; 64.54 per cent of females use Urdu while visiting office, hospital and market places; 46.15 per cent of females use Urdu for entertainment; 46.15 per cent of females use Urdu in teacher-student relationship; 69.23 per cent of females use Urdu in watching TV; 46.15 per cent of females use Urdu in listening radio; 7.69 per cent of females use Urdu in reading magazines,

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story books and newspaper; 10.69 per cent of females use Urdu in writing to family members; 53.84 per cent of females use Urdu in printing invitations and 10.69 per cent of females use Urdu for creative writings.

English is used by 7.69 per cent of females in locality; 46.15 per cent of females use English in school, college, university; 23.07 per cent of females use English in family domain; 69.23 per cent of females use English with colleagues; 64.54 per cent of females use English with children; 38.46 per cent of females use English with Urdu speaking stranger; 38.46 per cent of females use English while visiting office, hospital and market places; 84.61 per cent of females use English for entertainment; 53.84 per cent of females use English in teacher-student relationship; 76.92 per cent of females use English in watching TV and listening radio; 92.30 per cent of females use English in reading magazines , story books and newspaper; 100 per cent of females use English in writing to close friends and family members; 92.30 per cent of females use English in printing invitations and for creative writings.

In Table 3.2 83.30 per cent of females of age group 2 (26-45yrs) has been found using Urdu in locality; 45.83 per cent of females use Urdu in school, college, university; 84.50 per cent of females use Urdu in family domain; 43.20 per cent of females use Urdu with colleagues; 84.50 per cent of females use Urdu with children, 58.33 per cent of females use Urdu with stranger; 43.20 per cent of females use Urdu while visiting office, hospital and market places; 54.56 per cent of females use Urdu for entertainment; 42.10 per cent of females use Urdu in teacher-student relationship; 81.05 per cent of females use Urdu in watching TV; 58.30 per cent of females use Urdu in listening radio; 4.16 per cent of females use Urdu in reading magazines, story books; 6.58 per cent of females use Urdu in reading newspaper; 6.58 per cent of females use Urdu in writing to close friends and to family members; 54.56 per cent of females use Urdu in printing invitations and 12.50 per cent of females use Urdu for creative writings.

The same Table shows that 16.66 per cent of females use English in locality; 66.60 per cent of females use English in school, college, university; 13.90 per cent of females use English in family domain; 63.20 per cent of females use English with colleagues; 12.50 per cent of females use English with children; 58.33 per cent of females use English with stranger; 59.60 per cent of females use English while visiting office, hospital and market places; 61.50 per cent of females use English for entertainment; 75 per cent of females use English in teacher-student relationship; 72.50 per cent of females use English in watching TV; 50 per cent of females use English in listening radio; 91.60 per cent of females use English in reading magazines, story books; 91.66 per cent of females use English in reading newspaper; 91.60 per cent of females use English in writing to close friends and family members; 94.50 per cent of females use English in printing invitations and 91.60 per cent of females use English for creative writings.

The same Table 3.2 shows that 85.71 per cent of females of age group 3 (46-80yrs) use Urdu in locality; 42.83 per cent of females use Urdu in school, college and university; 85.71 per cent of females use Urdu in family; 71.42 per cent of females use Urdu with colleagues; 85.71 per cent of females use Urdu with children; 57.14 per cent of females use Urdu with stranger;

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51.14 per cent of females use Urdu while visiting office, hospital and market places; 57.14 per cent of females use Urdu for entertainment; 57.14 per cent of females use Urdu in teacher-student relationship; 71.42 per cent of females use Urdu in watching TV; 57.14 per cent of females use Urdu in listening radio; 28.57 per cent of females use Urdu in reading magazines, story books; 28.51 per cent of females use Urdu in reading newspaper; 14.28 per cent of females use Urdu in writing to close friends; 28.57 per cent of females use Urdu in writing to family members; 42.85 per cent of females use Urdu in printing invitations and 14.28 per cent of females use Urdu for creative writings.

The Table also reveals that 14.28 per cent of females use English in locality; 57.14 per cent of females use English in school, college, university; and 14.28 per cent of females use English in family domain; 28.57 per cent of females use English with colleagues and children; 42.85 per cent of females use English with stranger and while visiting office, hospital and market places and for entertainment; 57.14 per cent of females use English in teacher-student relationship; 71.42 per cent of females use English in watching TV; 57.14 per cent of females use English in listening radio; 85.71 per cent of females use English in reading magazines, story books and newspaper; 100 per cent of females use English in writing to close friends and family members and 85.71 per cent of females use English in printing invitations and for creative writings.

Findings

1. Data shows that females are inclined to use more English than males because they are more status conscious.
2. 0 per cent of males and females of Age group1 read and write in Urdu and do all the creative writing in English only.
3. Males of Age group1 prefer more English in talking to the surrounding, in school, with teachers and friends in all the formal settings.
4. Only 5 to 7 per cent of males of Age group2 prefer reading and writing in Urdu and 0 to 5 per cent of females of Age group2 prefer Urdu for reading magazine, story books and newspaper and writing to close friends and family members.
5. Males of Age group1 are most inclined towards English but males of Age group3 are least inclined towards English.
6. Males of Age group1 think English is prestigious language and males of Age group3 prefer English only due to the utility of it.
7. Females of Age group1 prefer only English for entertainment. The reason behind it would be that they are more language conscious, status conscious and more commercial.
8. 30 to 40 per cent of females of Age group3 prefer Urdu for reading and writing.

4. The twelve different situations considered for evaluation of Urdu and English are as follows:

1. Medium of instruction for children (situation 1)

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2. Making social contacts (situation 2)
3. A bilingual Urdu speech community (situation 3)
4. Most ideal medium of instruction at primary school level (situation 4)
5. Most ideal medium of instruction at secondary school level (situation 5)
6. Most ideal medium of instruction at college level (situation 6)
7. For securing jobs (situation 7)
8. Pursuing higher education (situation 8)
9. Communicating with other groups (situation 9)
10. Performing religious practices/activities (situation 10)
11. Welcoming/ departing from guests, relatives, friends, etc. (situation 11)
12. For official purposes (situation 12)

4.1. Urdu and English preferences by males and females in twelve situations

Urdu and English preferences by males

Table 4.1 shows that males prefer 2.38 per cent Urdu and 97.61 per cent English as the medium for their children. In making social contacts 69.04 per cent males prefer Urdu; 47.61 per cent males prefer English. 73.80 per cent Males of this community have reported to prefer Urdu; 38.09 per cent of males prefer English. 73.80 per cent males have reported to prefer Urdu; 38.09 per cent of males prefer English in a bilingual setting. 33.30 per cent have reported Urdu; 92.85 per cent of males prefer English as the most ideal medium of instruction at primary school level. Whereas, 23.80 per cent of males prefer Urdu; 92.85 per cent of males prefer English as the medium of instruction at secondary level. 9.52 per cent of males prefer Urdu; 100 per cent of males prefer English as the medium of instruction at college level. For securing jobs 4.80 per cent of males prefer Urdu; 100 per cent of males prefer English. To pursue higher education 2.39 per cent of males prefer Urdu; 94.60 per cent of males prefer English. To communicate with other groups 76.19 per cent of males prefer Urdu and 42.85 per cent prefer English. Whereas, 100 per cent of males prefer Urdu and 2.39 per cent of males prefer English for performing religious activities. In welcoming/departing from Only 5 to 7 per cent of males of Age group2 prefer reading and writing in Urdu and 0 to 5 per cent of females of Age group2 prefer Urdu for reading magazine, story books and newspaper and writing to close friends and family members. Males of Age group1 are most inclined towards English but males of Age group3 are least inclined towards English. Males of Age group1 think English is prestigious language and males of Age group3 prefer English only due to the utility of it. Females of Age group1 prefer only English for entertainment. The reason behind it would be that they are more language conscious, status conscious and more commercial. 30 to 40 per cent of females of Age group3 prefer Urdu for reading and writing.

4. The twelve different situations considered for evaluation of Urdu and English are as follows:

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1. Medium of instruction for children (situation 1)
2. Making social contacts (situation 2)
3. A bilingual Urdu speech community (situation 3)
4. Most ideal medium of instruction at primary school level (situation 4)
5. Most ideal medium of instruction at secondary school level (situation 5)
6. Most ideal medium of instruction at college level (situation 6)
7. For securing jobs (situation 7)
8. Pursuing higher education (situation 8)
9. Communicating with other groups (situation 9)
10. Performing religious practices/activities (situation 10)
11. Welcoming/ departing from guests, relatives, friends, etc. (situation 11)
12. For official purposes (situation 12)

4.1. Urdu and English preferences by males and females in twelve situations

Urdu and English preferences by males

Table 4.1 shows that males prefer 2.38 per cent Urdu and 97.61 per cent English as the medium for their children. In making social contacts 69.04 per cent males prefer Urdu; 47.61 per cent males prefer English. 73.80 per cent Males of this community have reported to prefer Urdu; 38.09 per cent of males prefer English. 73.80 per cent males have reported to prefer Urdu; 38.09 per cent of males prefer English in a bilingual setting. 33.30 per cent have reported Urdu; 92.85 per cent of males prefer English as the most ideal medium of instruction at primary school level. Whereas, 23.80 per cent of males prefer Urdu; 92.85 per cent of males prefer English as the medium of instruction at secondary level. 9.52 per cent of males prefer Urdu; 100 per cent of males prefer English as the medium of instruction at college level. For securing jobs 4.80 per cent of males prefer Urdu; 100 per cent of males prefer English. To pursue higher education 2.39 per cent of males prefer Urdu; 94.60 per cent of males prefer English. To communicate with other groups 76.19 per cent of males prefer Urdu and 42.85 per cent prefer English. Whereas, 100 per cent of males prefer Urdu and 2.39 per cent of males prefer English for performing religious activities. In welcoming/departing from guests, friends and relatives 92.95 per cent of males prefer Urdu; 28.57 per cent prefer English. So far as the language suitable for official use within the country is concerned, 9.52 per cent of males prefer Urdu and 100 per cent prefer English.

Urdu and English preferences by females

As the females are concerned, Table 4.1 shows that 4.54 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 95.45 per cent of females prefer English as the medium of instruction for their children. Similarly, 70.45 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 43.18 per cent of females prefer English for making social contacts. While in bilingual setting 68.18 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 38.66 per cent of females prefer English. Females of this community seem to prefer 36.30 per cent Urdu; 90.09 per cent of females prefer English as the most ideal medium of instruction at

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primary level. Whereas, 25 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 90.09 per cent of females prefer English as the medium of instruction at secondary level. 13.63 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 88.63 per cent of females prefer English as the medium of instruction at college level. 2.27 per cent of females prefer towards Urdu and 93.18 per cent of females prefer English in regarding securing jobs. 6.81 per cent have shown their preferences towards Urdu; 95.45 per cent of females prefer English with respect to pursuing higher education. Whereas, communicating with other groups 68.18 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 40.90 per cent of females prefer English. 93.18 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 2.27 per cent of females prefer English for performing religious practices. In welcoming/departing from guests, relatives, friends etc. 90.90 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 29.54 per cent of females prefer English. For official use of language 9.09 per cent of females prefer Urdu and 27.90 per cent of females prefer English.

4.2 Urdu and English preferences by males and females of three age groups

Urdu and English preferences by males

Table 4.2 shows that 16.66 per cent of males of age group 1 (16-25yrs) prefer Urdu; 96.40 per cent of males prefer English as the medium of instruction for their children. In making social contacts 55.50 per cent of males prefer Urdu; 50 per cent of males prefer English 55.50 per cent of males of this community prefer Urdu; 44.40 per cent of males prefer English in a bilingual setting. 16.66 per cent of males prefer Urdu; 96.40 per cent of males prefer English as the most ideal medium of instruction at primary level. Whereas, 11.10 per cent of males prefer Urdu; 88.16 per cent of males prefer English as the medium of instruction at secondary level. 11.10 per cent of males prefer Urdu; 100 per cent of males prefer English as the medium of instruction at college level. For securing jobs 11.10 per cent of males prefer Urdu; 100 per cent of males prefer English. To pursue higher education 11.10 per cent of males prefer Urdu; 96.40 per cent of males prefer English. To communicate with other groups 55.50 per cent of male respondents prefer Urdu; 55.50 per cent of males prefer English. Whereas, 100 per cent prefer Urdu; 11.10 per cent of males prefer English for performing religious activities. In welcoming/departing from guests, friends and relatives 66.60 per cent of males prefer Urdu; 38.80 per cent of males prefer English. So far as language suitable for official use is concerned, 30.17 per cent of males prefer Urdu and 88.80 per cent of males prefer English.

The figures in the Table 4.2 shows that 8.30 per cent males of age group 2 (26-45 yrs) prefer Urdu; 100 per cent of males prefer English as the medium of instruction for their children. In making social contacts 66.70 per cent of males prefer Urdu; 58.30 per cent of males prefer English. 58.30 per cent of males prefer males prefer Urdu; 50 per cent of males prefer English in bilingual setting. 8.30 per cent of males prefer Urdu; 90.16 per cent of males prefer English as the most ideal medium of instruction at primary level, whereas 100 per cent of males prefer English as the most ideal medium of instruction at secondary level and at college level. For securing jobs 16.60 per cent of males prefer Urdu; 100 per cent of males prefer English. To pursue higher education 100 per cent of males prefer English. To communicate with other groups 75 per cent of males prefer Urdu; 60 per cent of males prefer English. Whereas, 100 per cent of

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males prefer Urdu; 9.16 per cent of males prefer English for performing religious activities. In welcoming/departing guests, friends and relatives 75 per cent of males prefer Urdu; 40.30 per cent of males prefer English. So far as the language suitable for official use is concerned, 100 per cent of males prefer English.

Table shows that 8.16 per cent of males of age group 3 (46-80yrs) prefer Urdu; 100 per cent of males prefer English as the medium of instruction for their children. In making social contacts they prefer Urdu 74.70 and English 66.70 per cent. The males of this community have reported to prefer 58.33 per cent Urdu; 83.30 per cent of males prefer English in a bilingual setting. The males of this community have reported to prefer 8.16 per cent Urdu; 100 per cent of males prefer English as the most ideal medium of instruction at primary school level. Whereas, 100 per cent of males prefer English as the medium of instruction at secondary level and at college level. For securing jobs 100 per cent of males prefer English. To pursue higher education 100 per cent of males of this age group prefer English. To communicate with other groups 71.60 per cent of males prefer Urdu; 50 per cent of males prefer English. Whereas, 98.16 per cent of males prefer Urdu for performing religious activities. In welcoming/departing from guests, friends and relatives 66.60 per cent of males prefer Urdu; 61.70 per cent of males prefer English. So far as the language suitable for official use is concerned, 100 per cent of males prefer English.

Urdu and English preferences by females

As far the females of age group 1 (16-25yrs) are concerned, Table 4.2 shows that 15.38 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 94.70 per cent of females prefer English as the medium of instruction for their children. Similarly 61.53 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 54.50 per cent of females prefer English for making social contacts. While in bilingual setting 61.53 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 61.53 per cent of females prefer English. Females of this community seems to prefer 23.07 per cent Urdu; 94.70 per cent English as the most ideal medium of instruction at the primary school level. Whereas, 15.38 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 100 per cent of females prefer English as the medium of instruction at secondary school level. 7.69 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 100 per cent of females prefer English as the medium of instruction at college level. 15.38 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 94.70 per cent of females prefer English for securing jobs. 7.69 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 100 per cent of females prefer English with respect to pursuing higher education. Whereas, communicating with other groups 54.50 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 54.50 per cent of females prefer English. 94.70 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 15.38 per cent of females prefer English for performing religious practices. In welcoming, guests and relatives etc. 88.10 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 46.15 per cent of females prefer English. For official use of the language 15.38 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 88.10 per cent of females prefer English.

Table reveals that 8.33 per cent of females of age group 2 (26-45yrs) prefer Urdu; 95.83 per cent English as the medium of instruction for their children. Similarly 75 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 66.70 per cent of females prefer English for making social contacts. While in bilingual setting 70.83 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 61.16 per cent of females prefer

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English. Again, 12.50 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 95.83 per cent of females prefer English as the medium of instruction at primary level. Whereas, 8.33 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 81.70 per cent of females prefer English as the medium of instruction at secondary level. 4.16 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 100 per cent of females prefer English as the most ideal medium of instruction at college level. With regard to securing jobs 12.50 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 95.83 per cent of females prefer English. 100 per cent of females prefer English with respect to pursuing higher education. Whereas, communicating with other groups 70.83 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 54.17 per cent of females prefer English. 100 per cent of females prefer Urdu for performing religious practices. In welcoming/departing guests, relatives and friends etc. 100 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 50 per cent English. For official use 12.50 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 100 per cent of females prefer English.

The same Table shows that 100 per cent females of age group 3 (46-80yrs) prefer English as the medium of instruction for their children. Similarly 71.42 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 57.14 per cent of females prefer English for making social contacts. While in bilingual setting 71.42 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 57.14 per cent of females prefer English. Females of this community seems to prefer 14.28 per cent Urdu; 100 per cent English as the most ideal medium of instruction at the primary level. Whereas, 100 per cent of females prefer English as the medium of instruction at secondary level, college level, for securing jobs and higher education. Whereas, communicating with other groups 85.71 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 71.42 per cent of females prefer English. 100 per cent of females prefer Urdu for performing religious practices. In welcoming/departing from guests, relatives and friends etc. 100 per cent of females prefer Urdu; 85.71 per cent English. For official use 100 per cent of females prefer English.

Findings

1. 100 per cent of males and females prefer English for securing jobs, for education and higher studies and for official purpose.
2. 7 to 9 per cent of males of Age group1 prefer English for religious ceremony.
3. 100 per cent of males of Age group2 prefer English in secondary school level, college level, higher education and for official purpose.
4. Even 100 per cent of males of Age group3 prefer English for job and education.
5. 100 per cent of females of Age group 1, 2, 3 prefer English for higher education and jobs.
6. 100 per cent of females of Age group 3 prefer English for medium of instruction.
7. Males and females of Age group1 prefer or want to adopt foreign ways of life.
8. Females are more status conscious and more inclined towards foreign ways of life as compared to males.
9. As compared to females, males think that Urdu is more sweet, expressive and prestigious than English.
10. Females think that Urdu is less prestigious and expressive than English
11. 100 per cent of males and females think that English is the language of business and science and technology.

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TABLE 2.1

Percentage wise distribution of the use of Urdu and English by males and females in 17 different contexts

			CONTEXTS/DOMAINS																
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
L A N G U A G E / S	M A L E	U	97.60	71.42	100	73.80	92.85	80.95	71.42	71.42	38.09	42.85	40.47	11.90	11.90	07.14	23.80	35.71	21.42
		E	11.90	52.38	11.90	40.47	11.90	33.33	50	38.09	71.42	83.33	64.28	100	97.60	66.66	59.52	83.33	57.14
	F E M A L E	U	81.81	33.33	81.81	38.63	79.54	43.18	31.81	52.27	29.54	59.09	54.54	9.01	13.63	04.54	15.90	52.27	18.18
		E	18.18	79.54	20.45	63.63	34.09	63.63	63.63	68.18	72.72	56.81	54.54	75	77.27	79.54	81.81	86.36	81.81

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TABLE 2.2(A)

Percentage wise distribution of the use of Urdu and English by males of three age groups

G E N D E R	LANGUAGES	A G E G R O U P	C O N T E X T S /D O M A I N S																
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
M A L E	Urdu	A.1	94.44	55.55	90.70	86.70	72.22	50	50	33.33	9.81	28.1	33.33	-	-	-	-	42.8	-
		A.2	83.33	58.33	100	66.66	91.66	75	75	83.33	41.66	44.70	41.66	8.33	8.33	-	8.33	40.71	-
		A.3	91.66	100	91.66	9.66	100	85.33	83.33	50	41.66	50	58.33	-	-	-	-	45	9.2
	English	A.1	5.55	99.44	11.11	13.60	46.70	50	56.70	58.10	88.70	88.71	86.70	84.50	88.70	58.10	84.50	84.50	100
		A.2	12	44.70	8.33	25	8.33	25	25	25	41.66	64.66	91.66	100	96.50	75	83.33	83.33	84.50
		A.3	10.71	90.06	9.20	58.33	10.71	10.71	97.06	58.33	66.66	75	75	100	100	83.33	86.05	86.05	100

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TABLE 2.2 (B)
Percentage wise distribution of the use of Urdu and English by females of three age groups

G E N D E R	LANGUAGES	A G E G R O U P	C O N T E X T S / D O M A I N S																
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
F E M A L E	Urdu	A.1	92.30	53.84	76.92	69.23	69.23	64.84	64.54	46.15	46.15	69.23	46.15	7.69	7.69	-	10.96	53.84	10.69
		A.2	83.33	45.83	84.50	43.20	84.50	58.33	43.20	54.56	42.10	81.05	58.33	4.16	6.58	6.58	6.58	54.56	12.5
		A.3	85.71	42.85	85.71	71.42	85.71	52.14	51.14	57.14	57.14	71.42	57.14	28.57	28.57	17.28	28.57	42.85	14.20
	English	A.1	7.69	46.05	23.07	69.23	64.54	38.46	39.46	84.61	53.84	76.92	76.92	92.30	92.30	100	100	92.30	92.30
		A.2	16.66	66.66	13.20	63.20	12.5	58.33	59.60	61.50	75	72.50	50	91.66	91.66	91.66	91.66	94.50	91.66
		A.3	14.28	57.17	14.28	28.17	28.57	42.85	42.85	42.85	57.14	71.42	57.17	85.71	85.11	100	100	85.71	35.11

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TABLE 2.3

Percentage wise distribution of preferences relating to Urdu and English by males and females in 12 situation/s

			SITUATIONS											
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
L A N G U A G E /S	M A L E	U	2.38	69.04	73.80	33.30	23.90	9.52	4.80	2.38	76.19	100	92.85	9.82
		E	97.61	47.61	38.09	92.85	92.85	100	100	94.60	42.85	2.39	28.57	100
	F E M E L E	U	4.54	70.45	68.18	36.36	25	13.63	2.27	6.81	68.18	93.18	90.90	9.09
		E	95.45	43.18	38.63	90.09	90.9	88.63	93.18	95.45	40.90	2.27	29.54	100

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TABLE 2.4 (A)

Percentage wise distribution of preferences relating to Urdu and English by males of three age groups

G E N D E R	LANGUAGES	A G E G R O U P	SITUATIONS											
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
M A L E	Urdu	A..1	16.66	55.50	55.50	16.66	11.10	5.50	11.10	11.10	55.50	100	66.60	30.17
		A..2	8.30	66.60	58.33	8.30	-	-	16.60	-	75	100	75	-
		A..3	8.16	74.70	58.33	8.16	-	-	-	-	71.60	98.16	66.60	-
	English	A..1	96.40	50	44.90	96.40	88.16	100	100	96.40	55.50	11.10	38.90	88.90
		A..2	100	58.33	50	90.16	100	100	100	100	60	9.16	40.30	100
		A..3	100	66.70	85.30	100	100	100	100	100	50	-	61.70	100

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TABLE 2.4 (B)

Percentage wise distribution of preferences relating to Urdu and English by females of three age groups

G E N D E R	LANGUAGES	A G E G R O U P	SITUATIONS											
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
F E M A L E	Urdu	A..1	15.38	61.53	61.53	23.07	15.38	7.69	15.38	7.69	54.50	94.70	88.10	15.38
		A..2	8.33	75	70.83	12.5	8.33	4.16	12.5	-	70.83	100	100	12.5
		A..3	-	71.42	71.42	14.28	-	-	-	-	85.71	100	100	-
	English	A..1	94.70	54.50	61.53	94.70	100	100	94.70	100	54.50	15.38	46.15	88.10
		A..2	95.85	66.60	61.16	95.83	81.70	100	95.83	100	54.17	-	50	100
		A..3	100	57.14	57.14	100	100	100	100	100	71.42	-	85.71	100

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5. Conclusion

Because of the role of English, Urdu language gets limited in almost all the domains and situations among young people.

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The Construction “I Love You” Comparative Accounts in Tamil and English

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Abstract

This paper tries to visualize the cultural dynamics with reference to the construction “*I Love You*” in Tamil and English. It also tries to address the structural influence of linguistic domains, such as phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics in both languages.

For this study, we make use of the available corpora - Enabling Minority Language Engineering (EMILLE) and Corpus of Contemporary American English (CCAE) for Tamil and English respectively.

This paper addresses the issue how the constructions “*kātali-kkiṛ-eṇ*” (love-present tense-1p.sg. png marker) in Tamil and “love” in English are typically unique from one another. To concretize, the verb “*kātali-kkiṛ-eṇ*” cannot be used for anything other than the sense of “*I Love you*” in between the beloved ones in Tamil, whereas the verb “*love*” in English can be fit into different contexts to perceive different senses like “*I love my mother*” (parental), “*I love my job*” (appreciation) and “*I love you*” (loved one).

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Finally, the comparison of how this construction (or particularly the verb “love”) functions in other Indian languages and how a Machine Translation (MT) would translate this construction considering all the tense features from English to Indian Languages are highlighted.

1. Phonology

nāṇ uṇṇai kātaliṅṅē which means ‘I love you’ in Tamil

When I observe this construction in Tamil, first of all, I experience, one pure vowel, four pure consonants, one diphthong and combination of six vowel-consonants (*uyirmey ezuttukaL* which means *soul & body letters*). In other words, the compound letters are formed by adding a vowel maker to the consonants. *uyirmey* is unique for Tamil but not for English which does not have the concept of vowel-consonants. Likewise, in English, I observe three vowels, two consonants, one diphthong and one semi-vowel.

In Tamil, vowels are called *uyir* (*uyir*-soul/life, *ezuttu*-letter) and consonants are called *mey ezuttu* (*mey*-body, *ezuttu*-letter). The *mey* ‘body’ will not function without *uyir* ‘life’. Therefore, I experience the life in the body of letters in the construction of *nāṇ uṇṇai kātaliṅṅē*. When I say *nāṇ uṇṇai kātaliṅṅē*, each time my tip of the tongue touches the alveolar ridge around six times in Tamil, but only once in English. It means, to spell out *nāṇ uṇṇai kātaliṅṅē*, means that *uyir*-‘life’ and the *mey*-‘body’ have to club together to express the placing of life in the body.

2. Morphology

<i>nāṇ</i>	= I
<i>uṇṇai</i>	= an obl. form of <i>nī</i> (you) + acc.
<i>kātal-i-kkiṅṅē</i>	= love+prs tense+1sg (It is a strong verb in Tamil)

When we compare the words in Tamil with the words in English of the construction “I Love You”, one could perceive that *nāṇ* equal to I, *uṇṇai* is not equal to you because *uṇṇai* is an oblique form of *nī* (Lehmann 1989). So *nī* is equal to you and also Tamil has an accusative case marker *-ai*. The word ‘*kātaliṅṅē*’ is not equal to ‘love’ because it conveys more information. If I try to give an equivalent to the verb ‘love’ then I can give only ‘*kātali*’ which is an equal to ‘love’ (affection, lust, desire etc.) which is a derivational verb from the noun *kātal*. The form *-i* functions as a feminine marker and verbalizer in Tamil (For example, *kaṇavaṅ -maṇaiv-i*, *māṇavaṅ-māṇaiv-i* and *kātal+i* → *kātali*, *kaL+i* → *kaLi*, etc.). It also functions to change the word’s category (derivational word) from noun to verb. For example, *kaL* → *kaLi*, *kātal* → *kātali*, etc. (Kriya 1982, Tamil Lexicon 1982).

The word *kātal*, when it takes this feminine marker *-i*, it becomes *kātali* which means lover (female, not male). The word *kātali* (both noun and verb e.g., *avaL eṅ kātali* – ‘she is my lover’ as noun and *nī avaLai kātali* – ‘you love her’ as verb) is categorically an ambiguous one, we cannot decide on its category but based on the suffix it takes, we can decide on the category

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(Nandaraj & Thennarasu 2010). One could also observe the uniqueness of the word *kātali* (love, a beloved woman, sweetheart) which is from *kātal* (love as noun). It is a noun which derived from noun. Observe the closeness of *kātal* (love) and *kātali* (love) which is feminine, not masculine. Therefore, it makes me to think or I assume that man would have proposed first, not woman!

In the word, *kātali*, one could distinguish three words such as *kātal-love* as noun, *kātali-love* again as noun and *kātali-love* as derived verb (Burrow and Emeneau, 1961). It is very interesting to know that this kind of verb is very rare and unique and its frequency is also very less from the corpora of Tamil. (E.g. 6 *kaL-i-kkiṛ-ār-kaL* = *kaL* as noun (*toddy*), verb as '*kaLi*' 'enjoy', '*kaLi*' as noun '*dish made with millet flour*'. Notice the frequency of *kātalan* 'lover' is 288 times and *kātali* is 235 times '*lady love*' from the corpus.

All strong verbs have been extracted from the corpora that we used for this study in which we found that this type of verbs like *kātali* is rare and irregular in Tamil. I list below a few of the strong verbs with frequency from Tamil corpus. Though the following verbs are strong, none of them has the unique characteristic like *kātali* '*lady love*' except the one *kaLi* '*rejoice*' in Tamil.

107	<i>tayār-i-kkiṛār</i>
32	<i>cittar-i-kkiṛatu</i>
14	<i>vacūl-i-kkiṛatu</i>
9	<i>puṛakkaṇ-i-kkiṛār</i>
9	<i>pāl-i-kkiṛār</i>
8	<i>vacūl-i-kkiṛōm</i>
6	<i>kaLi-kkiṛārkaL</i>
5	<i>kaṇ-i-kkiṛārkaL</i>

We also see the differences of the morphology between Tamil and English languages.

<i>I</i>	= I
<i>Love</i>	= love (ambiguous and it functions as noun and verb)
<i>You</i>	= You (plural)

The verb '*love*' is called as *lufian* in Old English. It first came to be used before 12th century (Cf. Merriam-Webster, 2010), Oxford Dictionary (1986), Singer, Irving (1966), Rubin, Zick (1970). Levin (1993) has widely employed the English verb classification which incorporates 57 novel classes of verbs. The verb '*love*' comes in the 37th class in the classification of verbs. The verbs, such as '*like*' and '*hate*' are in the same class of verbs with love. The verb '*love*' is a weak verb in English. (Examples of strong verb in English include '*speak*' = speak, speaks, speaking, spoke and spoken.) Now compare with the verb '*love*' = love, loves, loving, loved, and no ~~loven~~.

3. Syntax

1. *nāṇ unṇai kātaliṅṅireṇ*

S + O + V = Tamil is a SOV type language

2. I love You

S + V + O = English is a SVO type language

I = I (nominal subject)

Love = love (categorical ambiguous)

You = You (plural, accusative object)

PNG Marker	Tamil	English
Person	Yes	Yes
Number	Yes	Yes
Gender	Yes	No

Table-1 shows the person, number gender agreement for both the languages.

What we observe from the above sentence 1 and 2 is that there is a clear cut agreement between the subject and the verb in sentence 1, whereas, in sentence 2, no agreement marker is visible between the subject and the verb. The verb suffix changes according to the gender in sentence 1. There is a zero marker in English. In other words, Tamil shows strong agreement and English shows weak agreement. In Tamil it is a categorical restriction, whereas in English it is not.

In languages like Telugu, Kannada, Malayalam, Tamil, etc., where the verb is inflected, it often agrees with its primary argument (what we tend to call the subject) in person, number and gender. English only shows distinctive agreement in the third person singular, present tense form of verbs (which is marked by adding "-s"); the rest of the persons are not distinguished in the verb (Van Valin et al 1997).

When somebody writes *nāṇ unṇai kātaliṅṅireṇ*, it refers only to singular, not plural like English. But in English morphology, the word 'You' stands for both singular and plural. It makes me to think not only 'I Love You' but also others. Therefore, I recommend to the lovers in India who want to propose to their beloved ones that they do it in their mother tongue only. There is strength in such utterances in Tamil than in English, So, when you propose to your beloved one, propose it in Tamil. Not only that this construction 'I love you' alone reveals to me the culture, the culture of India, i.e. one to one (one male – one female) system, not one to many (foreign culture).

I just want to draw the attention to the sentence in 1 again. Even if I move the word order of sentence 1, still I can get the correct sense of 'I love you'.

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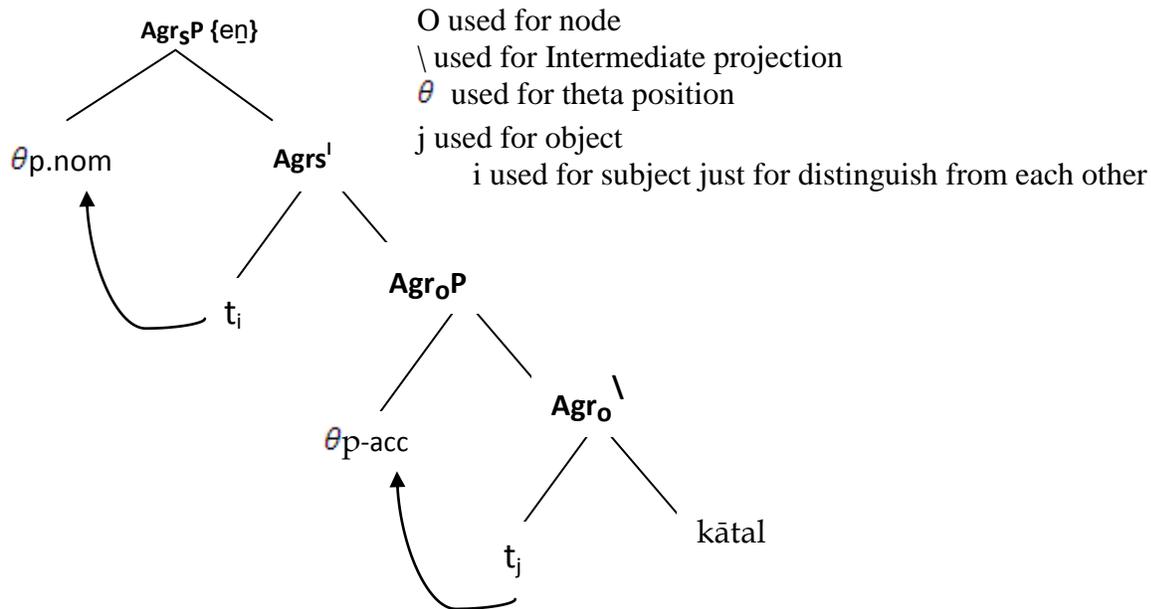
Example:

Tamil	English
<i>nān unnai katalikkiren</i>	<i>I You Love</i>
<i>unnai nān katalikkiren</i>	<i>You I Love</i>
<i>katalikkiren nān unnai</i>	<i>Love I You</i>
<i>nān katalikkiren unnai</i>	<i>I Love You</i>
<i>unnai katalikkiren nān</i>	<i>You Love I</i>
<i>katalikkiren unnai nān</i>	<i>Love You I</i>

Table-1

In sentence 2 in English, you cannot move the word order. If I change the word order of English then I will get a different sense. Instead of 'I love you', it may be 'you love me' and so on. Thus Tamil adopts free word order and English uses fixed word order.

In Tamil, null subject can be licensed by the inflection reflected in the verbal domain whereas it can't be so in English. And I can also use different pronoun forms for 2nd person such as *uṅkaLai katalikkiren* and *taṅkaLai katalikkiren* with respect. I can use different sentence construction to express 'I love you' in Tamil but whereas in English we cannot. For example; *nīṅkaL eṅṅāl eṅṅaku rompa piṅṅkum* 'If it is you (hon.) I like very much', *eṅṅaku unnai piṅṅkum* 'I like you', *nī eṅṅāl eṅṅaku viruppam* 'I desire if it is you' (using different verbs) which is not possible in English (Natraja Pillai 1986, Schiffman, Harold F. 1999). The following is an agreement tree for *nān unnai katalikkiren*



4. Semantics

In some of the Indian languages, the verb 'love' is ambiguous. It can be used in different contexts as in English. One can use the verb 'love' to say that 'I love my country', 'I love my mother', 'I love my job' etc., with the same verb 'love', whereas in Tamil we can't say that *nāṇ eṇ nāṭṭai katalikkiṇ* 'I love my country', *nāṇ eṇ ammāvai katalikkiṇ* 'I love my mother', *nāṇ eṇ sakōtariyei katalikkiṇ* 'I love my sister' etc., but we can replace this with different verbs like *nēcikkiṇ* 'like/kindness', *virumpukiṇ* 'want/wish' etc. I can't use this verb in different contexts to get different senses. The verb *katalikkiṇ* 'love' is not categorically ambiguous like in English and other Indian languages (see table-2). It will not go with all the senses but only in the sense of 'I love you' addressed to a beloved. I cannot use this verb *kātali* 'love' to declare love to non-humans in Tamil to say that *antap paravaikaL oṇṇukkoṇṇu katalikkiṇṇaṇa* 'those birds love each other' as it is in English. This verb *katalikkiṇ* is used only for human, not non-human.

Languages	Dravidian Languages	Indo-Aryan Languages	Tibeto-Burman languages
Tamil	<i>nāṇ unṇai katalikkiṇ</i>	-	-
Assami	-	<i>moi tomak bhāl paun</i>	-
Bengali	-	<i>āmi tomāke bhālo bāshi</i>	-
Bodo	-	-	<i>ang nwnghwo mwjang mwmw</i>
Gujarathi	-	<i>hōn tanē pyēma karōn chōn</i>	-
Hindi	-	<i>main tumse pyar karata hōn</i>	-
Kannada	<i>nānu ninnanū prītisutēne</i>	-	-
Kashmiri	-	<i>bi chus tse seth mohbat karān</i>	-
Konkani	-	<i>manu tujo mug karter</i>	-
Malayalam	<i>njyān ninne' prēmikkunnu</i>	-	-
Maithili	-	<i>ham ahaamkee piyaar karaita chiī</i>	-
Manipuri	-	-	<i>aina nangbu nungsi</i>
Marathi	-	<i>me tujhyvar prem karte</i>	-
Nepali	-	<i>ma timilāi manaparcha</i>	-
Oriya	-	<i>mu tumāku bhālapāi</i>	-
Punjabi	-	<i>main tenu pyar karta han</i>	-
Telugu	<i>nēnu ninnu prēmistu'nnānu</i>	-	-
Urdu	-	<i>mein tumse pyār karta hōn</i>	-

Table-2

The verb 'love' in some of the Indian languages, it seems they are noun when we look at the word in isolation but it gives the verb sense in the context.

5. Pragmatics

By sentence nature, this construction 'I love you' is a statement but it expects an answer to it. If we consider the spoken language, then the pragmatics works well. For example, in *nāṇ unṇai kātaliṅkiṟeṇ*, the intonation pattern (like question and exclamation) may give more pragmatic senses. The researcher believes that although it has the statement sentence structure, it has also has different meanings. That is why we need to learn it correctly in order know its correct and correct use. By using pragmatics, the researcher hopes that people can understand rightly about this feature of language, especially the meaning of speaker's utterances rather than the meaning of words in the sentence.

6. English to Tamil Machine Translation (MT) Output for the Construction 'I Love You'

http://www.tdil-dc.in/components/com_mtsystem/CommonUI/homeMT.php



I loved you = நான் நீங்கள் அன்புகொள்கிறது [nāṇ nīṅka! aṇṇukoḷḷkiṟatu]

I love you = நான் நீங்கள் அன்புகொள்கிறது [nāṇ nīṅka! aṇṇukoḷḷkiṟatu]

I will love you = நான் நீங்கள் அன்புகொளும் [nāṇ nīṅka! aṇṇukoḷum]

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I was loving you = நான் நீங்கள் அன்புகொள்துக் கொண்டிருந்தது [nāṇ nīṅka! aṇṇukoḷttuk koṇṇiruntatu]

I am loving you = நான் நீங்கள் அன்புகொள்துக் கொண்டிருக்கின்றது [nāṇ nīṅka! aṇṇukoḷttuk koṇṇirukkiṇṇratu]

I will be loving you = நான் நீங்கள் அன்புகொள்துக் கொண்டிருக்கும் [nāṇ nīṅka! aṇṇukoḷttuk koṇṇirukkum]

I had loved you = நான் நீங்கள் அன்புகொள்துருந்தது [nāṇ nīṅka! aṇṇukoḷtiruntatu]

I have loved you = நான் நீங்கள் அன்புகொள்துருக்கின்றது [nāṇ nīṅka! aṇṇukoḷtirukkiṇṇratu]

I will have loved you = நான் நீங்கள் அன்புகொள்துருக்கும் [nāṇ nīṅka! aṇṇukoḷtirukkum]

I had been loving you = நான் நீங்கள் அன்புகொள்க்கப்படது [nāṇ nīṅka! aṇṇukoḷkkappaṭatu]

I will have been loving you = நான் இரு நீங்கள் அன்புகொள் [nāṇ iru nīṅka! aṇṇukoḷ]

We checked this construction ‘I Love You’ considering all the tense features with English-Tamil Machine Translation system from Indian Language Technology Proliferation and Deployment Centre (website of TDIL, Govt. of India). What we observe from Machine Translation (MT) output is that it seems the English to Tamil Machine Translation systems is domain specific (limited vocabulary). Because of this reason it failed to translate well. It has translated *naṇ* ‘I’, *nīṅkaL* instead of *uṇṇai* ‘you’ and *aṇṇukoL* instead of *katalikkiṇṇ* ‘love’. If it is a general system it could have been translated well considering the right equivalent to the right word.

7. Conclusion

We discussed the cultural dynamics with reference to the construction “I Love You” in Tamil and English and also the structural features of linguistic domains such as phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics in both languages. We also discussed how the constructions “*kātali-kkiṇṇ-eṇ*” (love-present tense-1p.sg. agreement marker) in Tamil and “*love*” in English are typically unique from one another based on the corpora. Further, we discussed the various features of the verb “*kātali-kkiṇṇ-eṇ*” which cannot be used for anything other than the sense of “I Love you” in between the beloved ones in Tamil, whereas the verb “*love*” in English can fit into different contexts to perceive different senses. Finally, we discussed how this construction (or particularly the verb “*love*”) functions in other Indian languages and how a Machine Translation (MT) would translate this construction considering all the tense features from English to Indian Languages. The uniqueness of the Tamil verb and the Tamil construction were revealed in this discussion.

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avaraik **kātalitta** antak kiristuvap
 rātikā vaik kuruṣṇaṅ **kātalikkirāṅ**
 eṇṇaik **kātalittāḷ** nīyō nāṅ
 kātalikkirēṅ nīr eṇṇaik **kātalikkirīr**
kātalittāṅ in̄kē pāluvukkum umāvukkum
 avalaiyē **kātalikkirēṅ** pārāṭṭappaṭa vēṇṭiya
 āṅṅal aval yāraiymē **kātalittillai**
kātalittuviṭuvatā eṇṇu urimaiyōṭu avanīṭam
kātalippatu aval porāmaiyaikum kōpattaiyum
 uṣātēvi eṇṇpavalaik **kātalittāṅ** avan
 nōkkam avalai **kātalippatākavum** maṇam
 avanaik **kātalittāḷ** kāṭṭilēyē kāntarva
 kaṅkaḷ eṇṇu **kātalitta** pōtu
kātalippatāṅṅal in̄ru mutal inta
 mārtṭā uṇmaiylēyē **kātalikkirāḷ** anta
kātalikkirār āṅṅal kaṅkam kumaravēlin
 eṇṇaik **kātalittāṅ** eṇṇāḷ aṅkirunta
kātalitta antak kiristuvap peṇṇum
 nāṅ ummaik **kātalikkirēṅ** nīr
kātalikkavēyillai eṇṇu kūrīṅṅal piṇṇu
 mūlamāka nīnkaḷ uṇmaiyaḱak **kātalikkum**
kātalippatu allatu iraṅṭu āṅkaḷ
 iraiṇaṅkaik **kātalittal** āṅṅālin paruvam
 eṇṇi āṅkilēyaṅaiyē **kātalikka** virumpukirāṅkaḷ
 patu kīzkkulamakaḷaik **kātalikkirārā** mūtā
 peṇ oruvaṅkaik **kātalikka** muṭiyum
 mārrattai kāṭṭukirātu mutalil **kātalippatu**
 in̄ṇamum nāṅ avalaiyē **kātalikkirēṅ**
 eṇṇaik **kātalippatāṅṅal** in̄ru mutal
 cārlasai **kātalittēṅ** ayṭāvum kātalittāḷ
 peṇṇaik **kātalittu** maṇam ceytukoṅṭu
 oruvaṅkaik **kātalikka** muṭiyum peṇṇōr
 ippozutum **kātalikkirēṅ** aval eṇṇai
 avalai **kātalikkavillai** eṇṇu aval
 orē nōkkam avalai **kātalippatākavum**
 nī eṇṇaik **kātalippatāṅṅal** in̄ru
kātalikkirēṅ intac cūṭṭilētāṅ eṇ
 yāraiymē **kātalittillai** ilamaipparuvam nakaitṭiram
 kāṭṭukirātu mutalil **kātalippatu** pōl
 vālipaṅai **kātalikkum** kalyāṅi pirapala
kātalittu maṇam ceytukoṅṭu kirustuva
 aval eṇṇaik **kātalikkirāḷ** taṅatu

Appendix 2

The Key word “Love” in context with different sense.

<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
They really become victims themselves ANNOUNCER Something to think about, " Who Will Love My Pet? " Joe Giarranto. Address: Death Row. Ten years ago
sleepwalker. John Stossel explores " The Twilight State. " Commercial break Who Will Love My Pet? DOWNS: Talking about pets and what - WALTERS: My beloved
put on that generated a really huge response. And that says something about our love affair with animals. And tonight, Roger looks at the flip side. If
BOIBEAUX: A Club Med for cats CARAS voice-over While we are alive, we love our pets and we believe they love us. We are responsible for them.
CARAS voice-over While we are alive, we love our pets and we believe they love us. We are responsible for them. A growing number of people feel that
. A growing number of people feel that that responsibility and, indeed, that love does not end with our death. But deciding what is best for a surviving
\$50,000 trust goes to the Bark and Purr Kennel and Bingo gets good care and love which, in this case, money did buy. Mr. MADDEN: There's
feeding her CARAS voice-over The Sido Service works for people like Dorothy whose son does love Daisy, but would not be in a position to adopt her. Mrs. AMADOR
just a matter of days. CHEMICAL PEEL PATIENT: Everyone loves me and I love me ANNOUNCER But John Stossel learned there are problems. BRENDA ORDYNE, Chemical Peel
they took them off. So I feel great. Everyone loves me and I love me STOSSEL voice-over I can see why they're happy with the procedure. Look
Danger on the Half Shell, " and why should they? Millions of Americans love to wine and dine over raw oysters and raw clams. It's an acquired
know you are ANNOUNCER Helping addicts and transforming lives. Bob Brown shows that tough love is " The Daytop Solution. " Plus, the real cost of America's
beat drugs, the old-fashioned way. No to coddling and excuses and yes to love and respect. And later, this behavior. STEVEN BACHNER, Tourette Syndrome Patient
family. It's hard to describe to the world out there that type of love in Daytop. It's a very beautiful but very tough love, you know
that type of love in Daytop. It's a very beautiful but very tough love , you know. It's not a sympathetic love, it's very,

very beautiful but very tough love, you know. It's not a sympathetic love, it's very, very difficult. It's a steep hill. DEBBIE

hurt my feelings or their being honest with me, brutally honest, because they love me so much they want me to get that back together, that life of

and won't accept his attempts to dodge the issue. Mr. FENIMORE: The love is here and the concern. People have brought you into this meeting looking to

you look at him and say, Johnny, I'm your mother, I love you. But motherhood is towards living and you're dying in front of my

's okay to let us do what we do best and it's okay to love us. There's nothing wrong with that
DOWNS John, I noticed while you

for fresh deer tracks. Mr. DAVIS: This is it. This is my love STOSSEL And what's the pleasure?
Mr. DAVIS: Killing the buck that you

away. In the morning when I first see her face, I fall in love all over again. I'm very proud of being an older mother. I

couldn't have been happier. Mrs. MORRIS: Thank you, Tony. I love you. Mr. MORRIS: I love you. Mrs. MORRIS: She's so

MORRIS: Thank you, Tony. I love you. Mr. MORRIS: I love you. Mrs. MORRIS: She's so sweet and snuggly and I feel really

" Are you my father? " Tonight, Bob Brown has bittersweet epilogues to love stories of wartime England. BOB BROWN: voice-over It was the epitome of wartime

they were the success stories. There were also untold numbers of brief, desperate love affairs between English women and the so-called " Yanks, " affairs that lasted only

big difference between animals and humans, but the way I see it, you love them just as much.
MARK INHOOF, Puppy Buyer: I can't just

WALTERS Boy, let's hope there's a change in this. People who love animals should take some action. Thank you, Roger CARAS Thank you very much

she'd look me right in my face and she'd say, " I love you, Mommy. " I miss that. I miss that, I miss

" Hi, Happy Birthday, " " Merry Christmas, " and " I love you " to a headstone and a grave. If it's over for them

or her life with her husband. BARBARA BUSH: October 5, 1988 I love him. I love my country and I love my God. I love my

her husband. BARBARA BUSH: October 5, 1988 I love him. I love my country and I love my God. I love my friends and I have

: October 5, 1988 I love him. I love my country and I love my God. I love my friends and I have strong, healthy children.

I love him. I love my country and I love my God. I **love** my friends and I have strong, healthy children. Pretty hard to beat Barbara

1990 She's not trying to be something she's not. The American people **love** her' cause she's something she is **SHERR** voice-over And that was defined by

the symbol of a new generation and a spokesman for conscious- raising, peace and **love**, pot and psychedelic drugs. Dr. **LEARY**: LSD, used wisely, can

for summer. Let the good times roll. They're sporty, young people **love** them. But tonight, we'll show you that a certain Jeep may be

to join one of these Jeep Jamborees, you do it' cause you'll **love** it **PHILLIPS** voice-over Carl Cook was driving his CJ on a mountain road when it

the eyes of the Romanian children. " **LAUREL BAUMAN**, Adoptive Parent: I **love** my children and I love my boys, but I always just always felt that

children. " **LAUREL BAUMAN**, Adoptive Parent: I love my children and I **love** my boys, but I always just always felt that we should have a little

violence. I think people will enjoy it **BROWN** Well, they're going to **love** hearing that **WALTERS** I'm sure they will. Did you find him as difficult

every other state. So whatever happened to Walter Mondale? Mr. **MONDALE**: I **love** public life. It was not my idea to leave it, but here I

is a problem and it's a concern of everyone, anyone that has a **love** for animals. On the other hand, to say that it is a widespread

that sold 65 million records, guest-starred on Don Kirchner's Rock Concert and The **Love** Boat and made both the World Book Encyclopedia and the cover of Rolling Stone.

the people, but somebody didn't do the job to try to- I'd **love** to know myself who didn't do the job **SHERR** Why not? It's

come here are enthusiastic. **MAREA JO MILNER**, Pensacola, FL: We all **love** the dolphin family, and this is the closest we'll ever get to them

McGUIRE: Yes **WALTERS** voice-over Sam Giancana, the man Phyllis says was the great **love** of her life, was one of the Mafia's most notorious figures, linked

Did you know what he was? Did you say to yourself, " I **love** him, this is the man that I want " or did it just sort

find out until sometime later really who he was. And I was already in **love** **WALTERS** When you found out, though, did you try to break it up

dreamer / may your wildest dream come true. / May you find someone to **love** / as much as we love you **DOWNS** That takes us back. Her life

come true. / May you find someone to love / as much as we **love** you **DOWNS** That takes us back. Her life continues to be exciting and busy

, I was hemorrhaging internally. And I was caught between, obviously, a **love** for my father, and this growing tragedy in Southeast Asia, in which hundreds

piece of ass- a good one- there are 50 percent of the population who will **love** the woman who was left. " Mr. TRUMP: I do remember saying that

interview with Marla, in which Marla said that she loves you. Do you **love** her? Mr. TRUMP: I'm not going to comment on it. I

felt anything like I felt when I was up there. It was just pure **love**, pure happiness PHILLIPS voice-over If dreams are " the royal road to the unconscious

be able to hug my mom again, or see any of those people I **love**. " And I turned around and said, " No, I want to

at that report on how important it is to a marriage to make not just **love**, but war. How To Fight With Each Other JOHN STOSSEL: voice-over You

on to have a successful relationship. That's more important than how much they **love** each other, how sexually attracted they are with each other PHILLIPS voice-over Markman says

to stay together, the experts say what counts most is not how much you **love** each other now, not how often you have sex, or how much money

ever filled. Sadness. Very little joy in the people around me who I **love** so much WALTERS voice-over And Kitty Dukakis was loved by nearly everyone around her.

you heard that. It was my father. He said, " We'd **love** to serve coffee to the Marines in the morning. " WALTERS: That man

understood just why I was concerned with these animals. They didn't understand my **love** for them and they didn't understand my feeling that the horses deserved better CARAS

though I'm stuck here in my feet encased in mud and it's- I'd **love** to be able to join the and just run across the prairies as fast as

of view is I ride my good horse for 15, 20 years and I **love** him. But when I finally sell him, somebody in France or Belgium's

I'm not ashamed of saying I'm there to sell you something. I **love** salesmen. I think salesmen make this country great ANNOUNCER Infomercial TV Insiders STOSSEL voice-over

me involved with some sexual things in my mind WALTERS You went there to make **love** to her? Mayor BARRY: No, I didn't go there. I

you've ever wanted an easy way to copy a videotape cassette, you may **love** the man Bob Brown has been following. BOB BROWN, ABC News: voice-over

job in Iowa that took Ronald Reagan away from Dixon. Pres. REAGAN: " **Love** Is On the Air " Eight-thirty. Stop talking, children, and finish your

opposite a person that, in that story, you're supposed to be in **love** with. It can very easily affect you. The first marriage was the result

not being loved. I guess what bothered me most was not having someone to love WALTERS voice-over He found someone to love in 1952 and five years later, they

bothered me most was not having someone to love WALTERS voice-over He found someone to love in 1952 and five years later, they made their only film together. Her

well as yours does? Pres. REAGAN: Well, I guess, because we love each other and our first concern is for each other. And that phrase that

say hello to my wife Kay, J.J., Rod, little Jack. I love you and I hope you all win that first ball game JARRIEL How are you

'd like. SPC McCONNELL: Oh, yes. Hi, everybody, I love you. I miss you terribly. Thank you for your love and understanding through

everybody, I love you. I miss you terribly. Thank you for your love and understanding through this. Thank you for your prayers. Pray that I'll

tonight, Henrietta shines. Bob Brown- an inspiring tribute to " A Lifetime of Love. " Plus: He was Richard Nixon's notorious palace guard. What ever

from the desert like this, are they running into their parents' arms with love or away from Challenger's grasp with fear? PHILLIPS: Barbara, right now

for presenting this to us DOWNS Well, later: you hate them but they love you. John Stossel on how to get tough with a household pest. But

on how to get tough with a household pest. But first, the extraordinary love between these two sisters. Henrietta is an autistic savant. Dolly is her guiding

. It turns out the tribute is to both of them. A Lifetime of Love BOB BROWN: voice-over This seaside cottage in Massachusetts is a place where Dolly and

've seen her cry. I've seen her laugh. I've seen her love. I've seen her kiss my at night before she went to bed.

with jars of cockroaches. Inside the jars are little wooden slats, because roaches love to be snuggled into dark, tight spots. That's why they're so

for Insect Control: Yeah STOSSEL And people want to? Mr. RANDALL: They love it. They love to STOSSEL voice- over John Randall is one of Raid's

Yeah STOSSEL And people want to? Mr. RANDALL: They love it. They love to STOSSEL voice- over John Randall is one of Raid's entomologists. That's

, an alcohol or bottled water company, that's the American way WALTERS I love this piece. I have so many friends who drink bottled water. So,

. McCONNELL: writing letter Dear Tim, Makisha and Chad, hi, I love you and miss you very much. I know you can't quite grasp what

time, just for right now anyways. All I want to say is I love you, and I hope you come home soon. We are still praying for

life. But I realize now that what you needed most was me, my **love** and my care. I pray that someday you'll better understand the situation and

babies. Hang tough, and pray that I'll be home soon. I **love** you. Love you all, Joyce DOWNS Oh, boy. That may be

tough, and pray that I'll be home soon. I love you. **Love** you all, Joyce DOWNS Oh, boy. That may be even rougher on

, Volunteer: To respect, to be there when people need me and to **love** my neighbors, you know, as thyself JARRIEL How much time do you spend

knowing that you have a script to go over? Mr. DANSON: I really **love** to act, but there is a part of me that does want that same

Investigator: That's him. He's on the street with a girl ANNOUNCER **Love** detectives, private eyes hired mostly by women to check out husbands and boyfriends.

Our negotiators have to master loads of inside information, knowledge that foreign countries would **love** to get their hands on. Well, surprise. Often foreign countries do get

They're suspicious or afraid to ask. That's when they call the " **love** P.I.'s. " One Check-a-Mate client - we'll call her "

be sung to. I gave him a bath and I just rocked him and **love** him. You give a handicapped child just a little bit and they give you

they can't imagine life without them. ADDIE HOLKER, Queens Resident: I **love** it. Keep them on the street. We need it. We need it

press voted her the most popular female star in 50 countries. She fell in **love** with one of her leading men, Fernando Lamas, the only one, she

211 man here, you know. 2nd INMATE: Hello, Jock. I **love** you, Jock. 3rd INMATE: Don't use drugs. 4th INMATE:

toll, but in another sense it has been very much a chronicle of a **love** story. You two love each other very much, don't you? KENNETH

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The Construction "I Love You" Comparative Accounts in Tamil and English

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Language Teaching and Learning in the Age of ICT

Shafeeq. C.P., M.A., M.Ed.

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Abstract

Due to developments in technology, the rationale for the use of ICT in education is widely accepted. It necessitated the teachers and the learners of the present day to possess the necessary skills in ICT. There is a demand for technologically equipped teachers to meet the requirements of future generation teaching. In the field of language teaching and learning, Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) is now used with a wide range of educational implications. It can easily generate learner-centered, self-pacing activity. As in other programmed learning packages, CALL can change the proportion of learning from teacher-led to learner-controlled activity. Though CALL started as an application of behaviourist approach, use of present day multi-media technologies can be rightly justified from the point of view of the accepted assumptions in education

Education in the Age of ICT

Globalization and technological changes have created a new global system over the past two decades. This global system is powered by technology, fueled by information and driven by knowledge. Technological developments are playing a vital role for the changing nature of the world and these developments led to a branch of knowledge called Information and Communication Technology (ICT). The advent of ICT has challenged education worldwide in preparing students and teachers for the future knowledge-based society.

The term "ICT" is broad enough to cover all advanced technologies in manipulating and communicating information. The term is sometimes preferred to Information Technology (IT), particularly on the institutions like education and government. The educational Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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institutions are keen in acquiring the basic assumptions of ICT and its applications in education. As access to information continues to grow exponentially, schools cannot remain mere venues for the transmission of a prescribed set of information from teacher to student over a fixed period of time. Rather, schools must promote learning to learn, i.e., the acquisition of knowledge and skills that make possible continuous learning over the lifetime. Thus, the illiterate of the 21st century will be defined to those who cannot learn, unlearn, and relearn. These developments prompt the teachers and educational practitioners to study the possibilities of ICT in the actual teaching-learning process.

In order to have a sense of direction in challenging the future trends of education in developing countries like India, it is necessary to acquire the basic knowledge, understanding, applications, and skills of ICT-based education. Education policymakers and planners must first of all be clear about what educational outcomes are being targeted. These broad goals should guide the choice of technologies to be used and their modalities of use. The potential of each technology varies according to how it is used. To understand the basic assumptions of ICT in education, the investigator thinks that it is necessary to have a comprehensive search for the circumstances that led to the present scenario.

Key Features of ICT in Education

The following key features of ICT can provide the opportunities for learners to use and develop their learning skills.

Immediacy. Use of ICT helps learners to have a sense of immediacy and control, which is an important factor for motivation. Learners get access to information quickly from around the world using search engines. Complex calculations and process information are done in moments. Technology enables learners to send messages almost as soon as they are written and communicate with people living any part of the globe.

Capacity. Learners are enabled to store and retrieve large quantities of images, sounds and text. They can download resources through the Internet, interrogate CD-ROMs and edit digital video, learning as they do to process large amounts of information and sequence information effectively and efficiently. They can use a wide range of stored information to build up an understanding of the world and develop communication with people who live in circumstances different from their own.

Automation. Learners can use spreadsheets to record, sort and represent data to investigate possible solutions to problems. They can adapt and amend templates while the technology carries out the calculations, leaving the children to process the information and follow lines of enquiry. They can use ICT to stop and start video clips and animations, ‘cut and paste’, combine text and images, and correct spelling and grammar.

Communicability. By constructing presentations, learners can communicate their points of view using different platforms or findings. They can work together to share ideas, and develop their social skills through debate with their partners. They can learn how to manage their feelings when they disagree about an issue or understand other people’s needs and emotions and enhance their own self-awareness.

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Replication. As compared to traditional teacher, computers are not affected by repetition fatigue. Therefore, learners can go over a process as often as they wish to ensure they understand, and do things in their own time.

Provisionality. Learners can use word-processing or related software to record their initial ideas and draft their thoughts before constructing a more formal response. They can review and refine their work, evaluating the effectiveness of their choices to ensure greater precision. They can take risks as the edit and undo tools enable them to make changes with no evidence of early drafts. They can create sounds and change the pitch, tempo or texture to meet their requirements. They can import pictures that they adapt by changing colours, pattern, tone and shape to create their own images.

Interactivity. Learners can manipulate interactive media or carry out simulations in which they are in control and are able to make changes. They receive feedback and see the consequences of their actions while in a safe environment. They can practise techniques and routines in response to randomly generated questions. They can solve problems, deciding on the best way to present their solutions and refine their approaches to achieve greater precision. They can create new problems of their own and test and confirm their hypotheses.

Non-linearity. Learners can gather information from a variety of ICT sources which they can navigate in many ways to find data relevant to their enquiry. They can move between different sections of text and realign their work. They can capture pictures and images and manipulate these to improve their presentations. They are able to make choices based on their reasoning about the different options available.

Multi-modality. Learners can build a website and incorporate diagrams, symbols, text, pictures and sound. They can watch a video clip, stopping the video at various places and annotating it. The children can create their own videos, using handheld video cameras to record and performance. They can share these videos, evaluating their performance and discussing improvements that could be made.

Thus, ICT provides enhanced instructional methods that include immediate feedback. Use of multimedia such as text, image, video, virtual reality, and simulation models function as extrinsic motivators for the new generation learners, and also help to create real life situations in classrooms. The sources of information are wide-open and individualized learning is always enhanced. By using different accessories, modern technology enhances collaborative learning, which contributes to the socialization of education. ICT-mediated education is more productive in comparison to the traditional approaches, as sourcing, storing, copying, editing etc. are made easy. Further, technology-enhanced learning styles prompt the learners to acquire basic skills in technology, which will be a boost in the future job market.

Use of Interactive Multimedia

Multimedia is media and content that uses a combination of different content forms. The term is used in contrast to media which only use traditional forms of printed or hand-

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produced material. Multimedia includes a combination of text, audio, still images, animation, video, and interactivity content forms. All these forms can be used by teachers in different situations as teaching aids.

Text. Text can be made easily using computer programmes like MS Word. Editing, correcting, storing, and reproducing the text are made flexible in this digital age. Displaying computer generated text using multimedia projectors can even solve the problems related to teachers' handwriting as it is capable of substituting the traditional blackboards.

Image. Images are important educational aids as one picture can save hundred words. In modern age there are different ways to get images for educational purposes. Teachers can use digital cameras to take snap of the real life objects, and they can be produced easily in a multimedia classroom. They can even use scanners to reproduce the pictures on the screen in a different shape. Free clipart from Microsoft office can be inserted to use as teaching aids. There are even websites like www.flickr.com that help to collect pictures of all subjects. Editing of images can be made using programmes like Adobe Photoshop.

Video. Video programmes are used for educational purposes. It can be used for teaching all kinds of subjects. Educational software and feature films are available in different disciplines. Video can be played either using DVD players or Internet. Websites like www.teahertube.com help to download educationally relevant video files. Different programmes are used for video editing and effects.

Audio. Audio is used in different ways for teaching different subjects. This is made easy using the speakers attached to the computer. Microphones are used to handle educational lectures in big halls. It can be used in language labs or even teaching science subjects. Sound effects can be adjusted using computer software.

Virtual Reality. Virtual reality (VR) is a technology which allows a user to interact with a computer-simulated environment, whether that environment is a simulation of the real world or an imaginary world. Most current virtual reality environments are primarily visual experiences, displayed either on a computer screen or through special or stereoscopic displays, but some simulations include additional sensory information, such as sound through speakers or headphones. Users can interact with a virtual environment or a virtual artifact (VA) either through the use of standard input devices such as a keyboard and mouse, or through multimodal devices such as a wired glove. The simulated environment can be similar to the real world, for example, simulations for pilot or combat training, or it can differ significantly from reality.

Animation. It is the rapid display of a sequence of images of 2-D or 3-D artwork or model positions in order to create an illusion of movement. It is an optical illusion of motion due to the phenomenon of persistence of vision, and can be created and demonstrated in a number of ways. The most common method of presenting animation is as a motion picture or video program, although several other forms of presenting animation also exist.

Thus, multimedia programmes enable the learners to acquire information through a variety of experiences. NCERT's position paper on Educational Technology makes a remarkable comment:

Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) have brought in a convergence of the media along with the possibility of multi-centric participation in the content- generation and disseminative process. This has implications not only for the quality of the interchange but also for drastic upheavals of centre-dominated mindsets that have inhibited qualitative improvement (NCERT, 2006).

ICT and New Pedagogical Methods

Modern constructivist educational theory emphasizes critical thinking, problem solving, “authentic” learning experiences, social negotiation of knowledge, and collaboration. These pedagogical methods change the role of the teacher from disseminator of information to learning facilitator, helping students as they actively engage with information and materials to construct their own understandings. That is, students learn *how* to learn, not just *what* to learn. ICT has the potential to be used in support of these new educational methods, as tools enabling students’ learning by doing. ICT can make it possible for teachers to engage students in self-paced, self-directed problem-based or constructivist learning experiences; and also test student learning in new, interactive, and engaging ways that may better assess deep understanding of content and processes.

Improved assessment tools can also be developed using ICT. Such assessments can engage students in tasks that require data manipulation, simulation or other interactive acts of knowledge construction. For example, Viz Quiz is a multimedia program that allows students to take a chemistry quiz at a computer, but with the added advantage that color graphics, animations, and video clips can be included in the questions. In addition to multimedia capability, such programs can provide hints, remedial feedback, worked out solutions or explanations, and instantaneous grading.

Educational Implications of Internet in Education

From the above discussions, the benefits of Computer and Internet can be justified easily. But, the full significance of Internet applications for teaching-learning process can be understood only when it is viewed from the point of view of modern educational principles. Firstly, Internet enhances student-centered teaching which results in meaningful learning. In addition, learning through Internet can foster learning by exploration which can promote problem-based learning. Also, learning by sharing knowledge is promoted through internet. Collaborative learning and creation of learning communities are other important phenomena of education through Internet. It provides learning connectivity through electronic communication and the opportunities for learning are without any boundaries. Lastly, Internet promotes learning by multisensory experiences.

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The advent of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) has tremendously influenced the contemporary teaching learning process. The developments in technology paved the way for an area of discussion in language learning called Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL). Considering the breadth of the subject, CALL can be any process in which a learner uses a computer and, as result, it improves his or her language. It encompasses a broad spectrum of current practice in the teaching and learning of language at the computer. An awareness of this spectrum allows learners, teachers and researchers to recognize appropriate materials and methodologies and adapt others to various teaching learning styles. Thus, Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) has been defined as “the search for and study of applications on the computer in language teaching and learning” (Levi, 1997). It is now used in a variety of instructional settings.

This has necessitated the language teachers to possess CALL expertise that includes both practical skills and a thorough understanding of information technology (IT). Though Computer assisted Instruction (CAI) is common to teaching of all subjects, CALL has become an exclusive part of language teaching, especially Second Language (L2) learning. CALL covers a broad range of activities which makes it difficult to describe as a single idea. It has come to encompass issues of material design, technologies, pedagogical theories and modes of instruction. Materials for CALL can include those which are purposively made language learning and those which adapt existing computer based materials, video and other materials. In order to set a sense of direction in the general area of language learning, it is very important to attempt to examine CALL practice which may lead to effective venture in future.

Because of the changing nature of computer, CALL is an unstructured discipline, constantly evolving both in terms of pedagogy and technological advances in hardware and software. Change is also occurring with advances in computer literacy among both teachers and learners. However, CALL is employed many ways. It is sometimes promoted as a complete method of learning language. In classrooms it can be used both as a reward for better learners or a remedial aid for weaker ones. Some language labs integrate CALL and some teachers in foreign countries use CALL activities based on email and the World Wide Web (WWW) to supplement student learning. The scope of CALL is widening with development in technology, and it is very difficult to visualize the future possibilities, as Beatty points out:

It is likely that in future, computer based language tools will become both pervasive and invisible; that is, they will be commonly included in other applications and computer interfaces will become almost completely intuitive, perhaps through computer software able to recognize and intelligently respond to speech” (Beatty, 2003).

CALL and Teaching Learning Process

One of the conventional rationales for the computer in language learning is the justification that it offers a powerful self-access facility. It can easily generate learner-centered, self-pacing activity. As in other programmed learning packages CALL can change

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the proportion of learning from teacher-led to learner-controlled activity. The role of teacher is more of a facilitator of learning situations. Autonomy is fostered by CALL in different ways.

As it is concerned with new technology, CALL brings about changes in the teaching methodology. As Phillips observes, one of the important possibility offered by the computer is that more of the management of learning can be embodied in the materials themselves (Phillips, 1986). This does not mean that the role of teacher is questioned by CALL because a computer managed simulation demands teaching skills of a very high order at least commensurate with anything required by the more sophisticated techniques in communicative language teaching.

Anyhow a shift is taking place in the use of general technology and also in education from the teacher-centered classroom towards a learner-centered system where the learner is in control of the lesson content and the learning process. CALL has historically been rooted in educational technology, and findings from the general field of education will continue to be influential on determining its future directions. This is due to differences between education in the pre-computer industrial society and education in the computer-based information society. (See Table 1)

The most effective uses of CALL support this new model of education and language teachers need to be able to respond by creating CALL-based activities for their particular instructional situation. It is rightly observed that there is no way the computer can replace the teacher, instead teachers who use technology will replace those who don't (Fotos and Browne, 2004).

The above-mentioned realities demand for technologically equipped teachers to meet the requirements of future generation teaching. Teachers may need to design, implement, and evaluate CALL activities in their classrooms, they may be asked to supervise an institution-wide project or to work with other institutions to develop CALL exchange program, or they may be put in charge of setting up and operating a multi-media language laboratory. It is thus becoming essential for L2 teachers to be familiar with CALL options within the classroom, at the institutional level, and at the broader level of inter-institutional collaboration.

TABLE 1. Education in the Pre-computer Society versus Education in the Information Society*

	<i>Education in the Pre-Computer Society</i>	<i>Education in the Information Society</i>
School	Isolated from society Information on school functioning is confidential	Integrated in society Information on school functioning is openly available
Teacher	Initiates and controls instruction Teacher-fronted instruction of the whole	Empowers students to find appropriate instruction for their particular learning styles and strategy preferences Teacher as facilitator guides the students independent learning ; students often work in

	class Evaluate students Low emphasis on communication skills	groups or pairs or singly Helps students evaluate their own progress High emphasis on communication skills
Student	Mostly passive learning Learning mostly at school Little teamwork Answers questions from text-books or teacher Low interest in learning	Actively in charge of own learning Learning at school and outside of school Much teamwork Asks questions; learns to find answers to questions High interest in learning

*Adapted from Pelgrum (2001), as cited from Fotos and Browne (2004)

CALL Approaches in Second Language Acquisition

Second-language Acquisition (SLA) refers to the study of the processes through which learners acquire a new language. SLA can be offered at the computer as learners are exposed to new language and when learners are promoted to engage in collaboration that promotes negotiation of meaning, i.e., the interactional work done by speakers and listeners to ensure they have a common understanding of the ongoing meanings of the discourse. It is based on the fact that language learning and teaching is a fluid process in which different learner and teacher learning styles to be accommodated on an almost individual basis.

In terms of CALL, the individualization of instruction makes for even greater opportunities for SLA to be, promoted through software designs that assess learners' learning styles and track their acquisition through tests which remember and revisit individual items with which each learner has difficulty. The possibilities of CALL in English Language Teaching (ELT) is an important area of study, especially in the context of the third world countries like India, where English has become a link language of the people. However, the discussion of the effectiveness of CALL in language learning is not free from the contemporary theoretical disposition on the nature of language acquisitions. This prompts the need for discussion of the approaches involved in CALL.

Behaviourist Approach. One of the practical applications of the behaviourist approach is the design of programmed instruction or programmed learning. A behaviourist model of instruction suggests that learners can be taught a wide variety of subjects if presented with information in small steps, each step requiring appropriate responses from the learner before going to more difficult or more advanced steps. This promoted the idea of machine instruction as a way of increasing learner autonomy to avoid an essential problem in class-room instruction, the pace of instruction in a group of learners whose comprehension and learning rates are at different levels. As Skinner says, even in a small classroom the teacher usually knows that he is going too slowly for some students and too fast for others. Those who could not go faster are penalized, and those who should go slower are poorly taught and unnecessarily punished by criticism and failure. Machine instruction would permit each student to proceed at his own rate (Skinner, 1968).

Many features of programmed instruction are found in CALL such as the use of multi-choice questions, constructed response answers and hotlinks. But critics soon saw that

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programmed instruction had its faults, pointing out that programmed instruction tended to teach details about language but not communication. Despite this criticism, programmed instruction continues to be pervasive in CALL, sometimes combined with other less behaviourist features.

The reason for its enduring appeal is simply that programmed instruction is an easy thing for the computer to do, though not pedagogically ideal. This aspect of programmed instruction is also seen in another approach, mastery learning. Mastery of learning assumes that wholes can be broken into parts, that skills can be broken onto sub-skills. Learners are diagnosed in terms of deficiencies, called 'needs', then taught until 'mastery' is achieved at each level. If this mastery, defined as behavioural competence, is achieved at each level, then the more general concept of the accumulation of the skills has also been taught.

As learner motivation is a key consideration in the creation of CALL materials many of which are set up as adventure games or include positive reinforcement in the form of points, and virtual items to be collected by the learner. Two of the computer's principal defining characteristics which make it attractive as a vehicle for a mastery-learning model are consistency and patience. The computer can provide uniform repetitive lessons to the same learner or a group of learners and test indefinitely.

But, in term of its appropriateness as a model of SLA, behaviorism has been criticized for its simplistic approach. The later theoretical propositions on the nature of language learning questioned behaviourist approach, as it does not fit with the highly complex activity of learning second or foreign language.

Constructivist Approach. It is argued that behaviourism, with its focus on stimulus of an organism leading to a response behaviour that was either reinforced or not, is not a true picture of the working of the mind or an accurate description of the learning of language. Attempts to provide a better picture of mental processes were provided by Noam Chomsky (1965) and his ideas have influenced the methodologies. Chomsky and other cognitivists criticized the behaviourist approach and it resulted in another model of instruction, known as constructivism.

Constructivism is a humanist model that differs radically from behaviourism, suggesting that learning is a process by which learners construct new ideas or concepts by making use of their own knowledge and experiences. The learner has greater control and responsibility over what he or she learns and relies on schema to select and transform information, create hypotheses and make decisions.

Schema Theory Schema theory is important to CALL because it provides an idea of how knowledge is organized. Schema theory of language processing suggests that discourse is interpreted with reference to the background knowledge of the reader or listener. It also suggests that the knowledge we carry around in our heads is organized into interrelated patterns. These are constructed from all our previous experiences and they enable us to make predictions about future experience. Schema theory is important for CALL because many aspects of schema mirror the organization of hypertext, hypermedia and multimedia.

Schema theory offers a dividing line between behaviourism and constructivism. Behaviourism often assumes that the learner's state of mind is that of a blank slate, waiting to be written on; constructivism assumes that the learner comes to the class-room with a rich set of ideas and experiences. As Beatty says, a constructivist model allows and encourages learners to build on what they already know and go beyond the simple collection and memorization of information to develop individualized internalized principles (Beatty, 2003).

Constructivism supports key concepts of CALL, collaboration and negotiation of meaning. Collaboration provides opportunities for negotiation of meaning as learners struggle to build new schema and extend existing ones. The role of the teacher in a constructivist model includes presenting opportunities for learning and encouraging reflective thinking in learners, partly through collaborative peer activities. This model, influenced by the cognitive psychologists like J.S.Bruner, views knowing as a process, not a product. This process orientation of constructivism assumes that good methods for structuring knowledge should result in simplifying, generating new propositions and increasing the manipulation of information. Thus, like behaviourism, constructivism has also had a close connection with CALL. Many teachers would recognize aspects of constructivism in both class-room practice and some CALL programmes.

Collaboration and Negotiation of Meaning. Collaboration is among the most useful ways in which learners acquire language at the computer. Beatty defines collaboration a process in which two or more learners need to work together to achieve a common goal, usually the completion of a task or the answering of a question (Beatty, 2003). It is manifested in the actions a learner takes when working with others. When two or more learners sit at a computer and discuss process and content in the target language, they often engage in scaffolded learning, helping each other improve their language.

Learners often collaborate, either on their own initiative or as an assigned activity. Collaboration is an important activity in the class-room because it encourages social skills and thinking skills and mirrors the way in which learners often need to work once they leave an academic setting. From the point of view of learning a language, there is an additional benefit, in the process of negotiating the meaning of a task and the means by which it may be addressed; learners make decisions about the learning materials they study and the ways in which they should study.

To negotiate meaning, learners engage in discourse that provides opportunities for comprehensible input and encourage comprehensible output. This helps learners build vocabulary, skills and language awareness. Further, it is suggested that collaboration supports a communicative approach to learning. This requires coordination and decision-making and interpersonal and communication skills. Such activities often work best with group members of different language and cultural background, such as in a mixed ESL classroom where English is the only common language. Much research has been focused on individual learners using computer to collaborate over distance with other learners. In one version of this approach, collaboration takes place through local area networks within a classroom or among different classrooms in a school. Another approach is to offer opportunities for learners to use email and the World Wide Web (WWW) to communicate with the wider world. This approach is particularly appropriate for distance learning situations in which learners need to

communicate with their teachers at greater regularity than is practical through correspondence-course mail.

A commonly observed collaborative phenomenon is pair or small groups of learners working on their own outside of a class at a single computer to complete a task or series of tasks. This type of collaboration is sometimes teacher-initiated but is more often learner-initiated. The greatest reason for collaboration at the computer is the simple human desire for social contact; learners like to explore together and work together. Working together is an aspect of education consistent with one of the goals of modern schools, fostering the socialization of learners.

However, a concern of CALL is how collaboration promotes language learning through exposure to new language and opportunities to use it through negotiation of meaning with peers. Traditional class room settings are likely to be poor places for learners to acquire language compared to the world outside the class room, in part because teachers dominate the conversation with display question mean to elicit set responses. This criticism is largely answered by collaboration, whether within or outside of a class room context in which learners are able and encourage to engage in discourse freely. So it is the responsibility of the teachers and the institutions to organize the CALL class room in such a way to promote maximum collaboration.

CALL Applications in SLA

One of the earliest forms of CALL was the drill or pattern – practice exercise, an activity that reflected the structural orientation of L2 pedagogy in late 1970's and 1980's. Although current language teaching practices emphasize meaning –focused language use, and learners are encouraged to process target structures in authentic discourse, the effectiveness of structure-based computer software tutorials for improving learner accuracy in the drilled structure has been noted from the earlier reviews of CALL effectiveness and continues up to the present. The challenge, therefore, is to retain those elements that promote the development of accuracy while providing meaning-focused use of the target structure to enhance SLA. This challenge is met by today's language learning software. Whereas early CALL software was text-based and was characterized by low interactivity, today's hypermedia programmes provide students with instruction on and practice in using target forms, listening exercises, dictionary assistance, pronunciation exercise, translation, and communicative usages of the forms through authentic texts, sound and video clips software.

There are different CALL applications available for SLA. The scope of application can widen accordingly with the developments in technology. Some of them can be understood as Beatty points out (Beatty, 2003).

Word Processing. One of the most important CALL activities is writing. This includes word processing, text analysis, and desktop publishing, often combined with communication over a LAN. Most computers are now sold with some version of word processing already installed and such programmes are widely used in the composition process. Within such word processing packages, spelling and grammar checkers are standard tools. After much research in the 1980s and early 1990s, attention has shifted away from the

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influence of spelling checkers and grammar checkers. However, it is an area, which continues to merit attention as learners turn away from writing on paper to computer based composition.

When learners look through to correct a word a response to uncertainty, the word processor may help their acquisition of vocabulary to wade through dozens of related words, practicing alphabet skills and scanning through several entries. Beyond word processing, software such as Microsoft Word is increasingly multipurpose. For example, it is commonly used by teachers for creating semi-authentic learning materials featuring text, tables and illustration as well as simple websites. Many L2 teachers, for example, now request their students to use computers to write essays then to e-mail each other what they have written or to post their essays on a LAN. The students then discuss and correct each other's writing, engaging in meaningful discourse and creating knowledge through interaction.

Games. Most educational games make use of a form of subversive teaching; learners are unaware of the objectives or, rather do not share the same objectives as the teachers. Instead, learning takes place as an activity peripheral to play. The peripheral learning benefits in a game are likely to be small but are hopefully greater in a programme devoted to some specific educational objective. The best educational games are those which embed the pedagogical objectives so that the learner's perceptions are of play, while the teacher's hidden objectives are still achieved. On the simplest level, the computer is a suitable game player as it can provide clues, levels of difficulty and rewards for solutions through points or visual stimulation. Within the classroom environment, computer can help in motivation through the organization of learning into game like formats, by providing clues, levels of difficulties and rewards for solutions through points or visual stimulations.

Games are often in the form of quizzes, which test knowledge more than they teach it. Like games quizzes are very motivating for learners as they illustrate a learner's progress and give some security against fear of more formal exams. As computer-based quizzes are often done outside of class and not marked by teachers, learners may feel less threatened. Quiz software includes programmes to check spelling, listening, speed-reading, knowledge of synonyms and antonyms, and general knowledge and other English skills.

Literature. A work of literature is not a simulation, but it has a high degree of fidelity, or authenticity, in that the learning materials are both extensive and taken from real world sources. So literature forms the basis of many CALL program. The best CALL programmes offer learning in the same way as good literature, presenting a narration in which the learner draws a more general understanding of the themes. Further, computer based learning materials easily bridge the gap between fictional and non-fictional resources by routinely offering multimedia links between the two. For instance, a Shakespeare play presented on the computer is likely to offer a video of plays being performed, diagrams of costumes, virtual tours of a theater, interactive dictionaries and other tools for literary and language enrichment.

Corpus Linguistics. Corpus Linguistics, an important branch within applied linguistics, is also a useful tool for teaching and learning language at the computer. The 'corpus' in 'corpus linguistics' refers to a body of text. A text can be made of different

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examples of spoken and written language or a combination of both. Corpora (corpora=plural of corpus) can be used on simple and brief texts on a narrow topic or run into the millions of words. Corpora can be unformatted text made of individual words or formations. Alternatively this can be tagged for grammatical functions or for other functions. Using corpora in the class room involves making use of concordance programme's ability to spot patterns and differences in language use.

The importance of learning from corpus linguistics is that only when words are in their habitual environments, presented in their most frequent forms and their relational pattern and structures, they can be learned effectively, interpreted properly and used appropriately. Both teachers and learners can use corpus linguistics in various ways within the class room. One of the approaches used is Data Driven Learning. "Data Driven Learning is an inductive approach to learning in which learners acquire an understanding of language pattern and rules by becoming more involved researching corpora, usually through the use of a computer based concordance programmes. Instead of studying patterns and rules, learners naturally internalize them. This approach can stimulate learners interest in language and give them a sense of empowerment and responsibility for their own language education" (Beatty, 2003).

Computer Mediated Communication. Communicating using the computer is often referred to as Computer mediated Communication (CMC) and is one of the more popular activities associated within CALL. CMC encompasses communication by email, bulletin boards, chat lines, etc. CMC refers to a situation in which computer based discussion may take place but without necessarily involving learning.

Of course, opportunities for learning are inherently presented, especially in situations in which learners need to engage in negotiation of meaning with native speakers of the target language or even with peers of non-native proficiency. It is common for teachers in different countries to create assignment for their students to communicate a common target language. Communications using the computer is either asynchronous or synchronous. Asynchronous refers to communication that takes place at different times, for example, through email in which message is sent and may be read at leisure by the recipient. Synchronous refers to communications that takes place at the same time, such as through chat lines.

W.W.W. Resources. The WWW has presented opportunities for the creation of websites dedicated to the teaching and learning of English. Such sites may have different varieties in terms of age, level or even profession. One of the more popular language learning sites on WWW was created by Dave Sperling, a California-based teacher who started Dave Sperling's ESL café as a class project in 1995. This website (<http://www.eslcafe.com/>) now serves as a kind of portal, providing a directory of other CALL websites and attracts more than one million visits a month.

Many such websites are driven by commercial concerns. Typically the learner pays a fee for enrolling and taking online lessons. Several publishers also maintain educational websites featuring portions of their work or extra study material for their work. Other resources commonly found on the WWW include those created by learners and teachers. This includes everything from software to class handouts and presentations in the form of

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Power point files. These resources vary in quality and extent but at least have the virtues of being free hand an easy to find with a search engine.

Adapting Other Materials for CALL. Besides materials especially targeted for language learning, there are many materials that can be adapted. Many games and simulations not intended for language learning can be adapted for such a purpose, particularly for advance learners, as they are likely to be rich in authentic language, with text, images, sound and video. For example, a learner studying English can go to countless websites on different topics of interest related to England to learn more about culture or information related to English for specific purpose. Learners can also visit online newspapers for the target language they are studying.

Personal Digital Assistants (PDA). A Personal Digital Assistant (PDA) is a small hand-held computer for downloading and storing information such as documents, databases and calendar entries. It is less powerful than a desktop or laptop computer, but less expensive and more portable. Portability is achieved by eliminating the keyboard and minimizing the screen size. The PDA market consists of several models created by different companies using different software systems by Palm, Microsoft and, most recently, Linux.

PDAs are not yet widely used in education, but their portability and expense could make them a popular choice in class rooms, especially when combined with accessories such as collapsible key boards, digital cameras and modems that allows for WWW and email access. One of the important advantages of a PDA is that it is easy to back upon one's computer. A one-button operation generally allows the user to synchronize and update files from their PDA to a larger laptop or desktop computer.

Creating Course-Specific CD-ROMs. Apart from the above mentioned possibilities of CALL, creating course specific CD-ROMs is also an integral part of CALL, especially in the Indian context where computer technology is not much enhanced to provide larger network systems. Most language learning software today consists of hypermedia and, because of the larger amount of memories required, such programmes are not network or web based, and they are produced on CD-ROMs. In addition to the abundance of commercial programmes, it is possible for teachers to use multimedia-authoring software to develop their own course specific material. CD-ROM software is an extremely useful form of CALL, especially for the many instructional situations in the world that lack abundant and up-to-date hardware, language laboratory facilities, LAN capabilities and speedy connection to the Internet.

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Ammu's Lugubrious Tale of Alienation in Roy's Man Booker Novel

Varun Gulati, M.A., M. Phil., Ph.D. (Thesis Submitted)

Alienation

“Alienation” is an intermediate stage and is not the end of cognitive or psychic process. Today, the word “alienation” has become an important word and almost all the contemporary authors seem to delight in finding ever different uses for it. Its transmutations have moved from the factory floor to other realms of life, ranging from mass culture to domestic labour. It informs our understanding of such diverse moments and realms as communities, identities, prejudices, popular culture, everyday life and speech and even the nature of transcendence.

“Alienation” is a term which most people understand in terms of their acquaintance with the writings of certain philosophers, psychologists and sociologists who coined the term and applied it in different ways. However, its transmutations and the emergent revolutions in the contemporary world have given a new credence and life to the concept in which old and modern discourses are replaced with post-modern perspectives.

The word *lugubrious* refers to a bundle of features: “mournful, dismal, or gloomy, especially in an affected, exaggerated or unrelieved manner” (<http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/lugubrious>). Roy's *The God of Small Things* displays these features in several ways.

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Manifestations of Alienation in the Writings of Women Writers

The various manifestations of alienation have been largely dealt with by today's women writers. They focus on the themes of clash between tradition and modernity, identity crisis of their protagonists, women's quest for independence, East-West Cultural conflicts, feeling of alienation and, of course, many others.

In more recent years, a generation of talented women writers has emerged, and they have a style of their own. Among these contemporary women writers, Arundhati Roy has carved out a niche for herself. Salman Rushdie rightly remarks: "Most encouragingly, yet another talented generation has begun to emerge. The Keralan writer Arundhati Roy has arrived to the accompaniment of a loud fanfare. Her novel *The God of Small Things* is full of ambition and sparkle, and written in a highly wrought and utterly personal style."¹



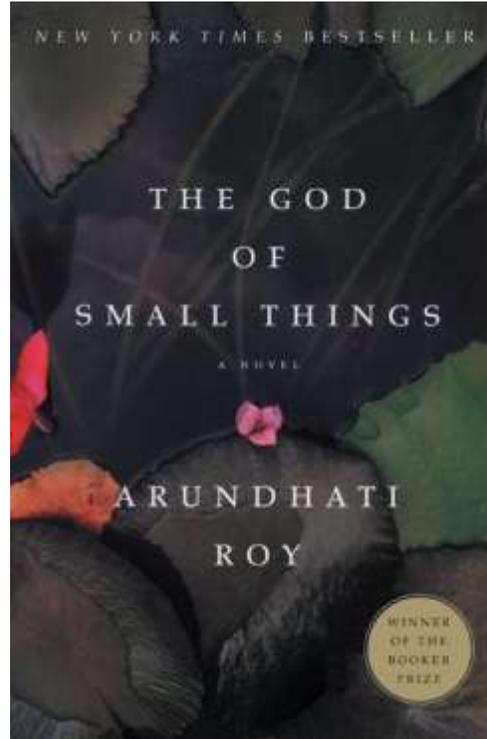
Arundhati Roy's debut and Man Booker Prize winning novel *The God of Small Things* was released first in India, on 5 April 1997. However, it had already received media attention in the West. In India, one of the earliest discussions of the book with the author was conducted by Alok Rai in *The Sunday Review* of *The Times of India*, April 1997. The novel enjoys tremendous international success but more significantly, it touches the heart of individuals deeply. The novel has been acclaimed highly as a 'brilliant novel' and even a 'contemporary classic.' The novel has a unique story of three generations, but it is detailed in multifarious ways. There are several other novels dealing with such themes, yet *The God of Small Things* leaves an everlasting impact on Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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the psyche of its readers. It maintains its charm and charisma at the every sequential reading. More than 350,000 copies were sold within the first three months after publication.



Ammu and Her Life

The main female character Ammu suffers from extreme sense of alienation. She is often dragooned by the society to live a life of separation and estrangement. Ammu's alienation takes place when she ceases to identify her surroundings just like Hegelian "social substance" i.e., estrangement from the social, political, and cultural institutions. Ammu, the novel's adolescent central character, is the daughter of Pappachi and Mammachi and the sister of Chacko. Ammu from her childhood experiences the sense of alienation from her social environment. She is misbehaved and ill-treated by the members of her own family, badly treated by the police, and abandoned by her brother. Thus, she remains fundamentally anomic, withdrawn, and isolated.

Ammu belonged to an elite family but disapproved Aristotle's conception that man of high ranks alone can have tragic grandeur. Actually, Ammu had her first encounter of alienation and dejection when she was just a little girl. In the author's terminology, she is a "Mombatti" of a big house. During her growing years, the Ipe family has seen the brutal behaviour of Pappachi against Mammachi. Being too familiar with the violent scene, Ammu understood it as a deviational version of children's fairy tale. "As a child, she had learned very quickly to disregard the 'Father Bear Mother Bear' stories she was given to read. In her version, Father Bear beat Mother bear with brass vases. Mother Bear suffered those beatings with mute resignation."² (Roy 171) There was no happy 'Father Bear and Mother Bear' in the Ayemenem House, it was only an ill-tempered father and a "bitter, long-suffering mother" (Roy 38). Knowing well that she

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could not ever change her 'Bear story' into a better one, Ammu tried to be familiar with that. She learned to coexist with it and even find her own fun in it. The "lofty sense of injustice and the stubborn reckless streak that develop in Someone Small who has been bullied all their lives by Someone Big" (Roy 172-173) taught her to cultivate a more tolerant attitude towards the misfortunes in her life caused by the patriarchs.

Ammu became victim of some hellish experiences as she saw the tyrannical face of her father Pappachi who used to beat his wife Mammachi. Ammu could not mask her feeling of humiliation as she was deprived of getting higher education. She wanted to fly high in the sky just like a free bird. "All day she dreamed of escaping from Ayemenem and the clutches of her ill-tempered father and bitter, long suffering mother. She hatched several wretched little plans. Eventually one worked. Pappachi agreed to let her spend the summer with the distant aunt who lived in Calcutta" (Roy 38-39). There, in a wedding, Ammu's sense of alienation found a greater chance of escaping the entanglements of her life. She met a person who was an Assistant Manager of a tea estate in Assam. Ammu was in hurry to marry that man: "Ammu did not prevent to be love with him [...] She thought that anything, anyone at all, would be better than returning to Ayemenem. She wrote to her parents informing them of her decision" (Roy 39).

Turned Rebellious

Thus, Ammu, as a prisoner in the family walls, turned rebellious youth from a frustrated teenager. Ammu's husband, the man the author does not even name, made his first appearance in the novel as "a small man, but well built." (Roy 39) He was not that perfect for Ammu in terms of looks, but at least he was having a pleasing personality. The marriage did not go well. Soon after the elaborate Calcutta wedding, Ammu found that the pleasant-looking man had made their marriage completely unpleasant because of his serious alcoholic addiction. When Ammu was about to give life to the newly-coming babies', who later named as Estha and Rahel, this man was "stretch out on a hard bench in the hospital corridor," and he "was drunk" (Roy 40). His addiction to liquor aggravated to the extent that it had not only consumed his vitality but also "had driven him into an alcoholic stupor" (Roy 40). One day he was summoned to the manager's office and was given an ultimatum: either he has to take his beautiful wife to sleep with the lecherous boss, Mr. Hollick, or lose his job. Ammu's husband conveyed this indecent proposal to her. This extreme sense of humiliation generated deep hatred in the heart of Ammu. Thus, a series of fierce physical conflicts between the husband and wife broke out:

Ammu watched her husband's mouth move as it formed words. She said nothing. He grew uncomfortable and then infuriated by her silence. Suddenly he lunged at her, grabbed her hire, punched her and then passed out from the effort. Ammu took down the heaviest book she could find in the bookshelf – The Reader's Digest World Atlas – and hit him with it as hard as she could. (Roy 41-42)

A Cycle and a Pattern

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The recurring violence followed by a brief moment of reconciliation, with violence and comfort, formed a cycle which “fell into a pattern” (Roy 42) in Ammu’s marital life. Thus, Ammu experienced alienation as a result of her fragmented marital life and decided to break it off. The sacrilegious tie of marriage ended in fiasco, and Ammu along with her twins returned to the parental home i.e. Ayemenem house. Though in her parental home, Ammu and children are subjected to all kinds of indignities and sufferings, yet her decision was a sheer revolt against the binary standards and male chauvinism prevailing in Indian society. Roy, in words of A. N. Dwivedi, prefers revolution against the pervading sense of alienation: “Arundhati Roy raises her banner of revolt against a male dominated patriarchal society [...] Through Ammu, Arundhati raises a strong protest against the old-age agonies and sufferings of the suppressed class of women.”³

No Relief from Alienation

Ammu’s return to Ayemenem does not provide any relief from alienation, rather in her own house, she is treated badly. Chacko, her brother used to taunt her twins and said that “Estha and Rahel were indecently healthy. And so was Sophie Mol. He said it was because they did not suffer from inbreeding like most other Syrian Christians” (Roy 61). Thus, Ammu developed a permanent sense of alienation from her family. Tortured by her insensitive husband and persecuted in her parent’s home, Ammu’s life transformed into an estranged individual in the society. Roy writes, “She spoke to no one. She spent hours on the riverbank with her little plastic transistor shaped like tangerine. She smoked cigarettes and had midnight swims” (Roy 44). In other words, she became virtually untouchable. Baby Kochamma, the Lady Macbeth of the novel, jeered at Ammu. “A married daughter had no position in her parent’s home. As for a divorced daughter, she had no position anywhere at all” (Roy 45).

Love Blossoms

Ammu decided not to be obedient, submissive, according to patriarchal demands of the society. She cared for no “Love Laws”, when she decided to surrender herself to Velutha, who is an “Untouchable Paravan” at Ayemenem. Ammu loved Velutha from her childhood because he was a talented craftsman. Moreover, it was the secret charm of opposite sex which attracted her attention towards the well-built stout body of Velutha and naturally her suppressed womanhood revived again after a gap of several years. Ammu and Velutha started their love in such a way:

Ammu saw that he saw. She looked away. He did too. History’s fiends returned to claim them. To re-wrap them in its old, scarred pelt and drag them back to where they really lived. Where the Love Laws lay down who should be loved. And how. And how much. Ammu walked up to the verandah, back into the Play. Shaking. Velutha looked down at Ambassador S. Insect in his arms. He put her down. Shaking too. (Roy 168)

This is usually how a love story begins; there are two persons looking into each other’s eyes, and suddenly they realise that they are in love. The lovers stand silently and transfixed unaware of how much time has passed by. May be a century or even longer! Nothing really

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matters at this moment of ecstasy. The whole world quiets down, and time is condensed. There seems to be some kind of telepathy between the two. Without saying a word, they know exactly that they share the same feeling and they are thinking about the same thing. However, in the significant scene when the male and female protagonists, Velutha and Ammu, looked at each other and realised that there was a mutual attraction between them. Roy immediately shifts the focus from the smooth-sailing love story to the socio-historical taboos that commanded the characters to love or not to love.

Initial Hesitation

The turning point in the story is that her love story begins not with the lovers transfixing each other once they have made eye contacts but their turning away from the contact out of hesitation rather than embarrassment as soon as they found their gazes meet. The couple's first reaction to the new found love was to conceal their emotions and then they retrieved to the places they belonged. One was a respectable woman in the upper class, and the other was a man of the untouchable caste. Roy in the novel introduces an oxymoronic condition by combining love with law (which are usually contrary to each other) to convey a realistic point of view that there are, in fact, social, traditional and historical reasons affecting every individual's behaviour as one cannot have his own way in every matter related to life. Thus, love has to face many hindrances.

This confrontation is a serious matter, especially in India, where the love and laws, a strange mixture of patriarchy, are the very foundation upon which the Indian society is able to stabilise itself. Roy does not only examine love from its psychological underpinnings, but in light of social mores that instruct Indian men, how to love. It is just to highlight the clash between the individual and the complicit cooperation of the deep-rooted patriarchy and caste system in India along with the colonial force. Arundhati Roy in one interview with Abraham Taisha claims that "*The God of Small Things* is not a book specifically about our culture – it's a book about human nature."⁴

Indian Cleopatra?

The character of Ammu is like Shakespeare's Cleopatra, who can flirt with Antony with her infinite variety and can go to any extent for the fulfilment of love even in the time of war. Cleopatra's love crosses the boundaries of time and space but Ammu and Velutha's relationship crosses the borders of caste and creed. Shakespeare's Cleopatra is naughty, fickle in flirting with Antony but Roy's Ammu is simple, sober and faithful in her relationship with Velutha. As a tragedy of love, the character of Ammu and Cleopatra bear resemblance in the sense that their love is altogether sincere, intense and irresistible. Ammu is unsatisfied both physically and mentally, and her desire to come closer in the life of Velutha with her sexual passion is irresistible:

Ammu, naked now, crouched over Velutha, her mouth on his. He drew her hair around them like a tent. [...] She slid further down, introducing herself to the rest of him. His

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neck. His nipples. His chocolate stomach. She tasted him, in her mouth. He sat and grew back to him. She felt her belly tighter under her, hard as board. She felt her wetness slipping on his skin. He took her nipple in his mouth and cradled her other breast in his callous palm. (Roy 336)

Similar to Madeline and Porphyro?

Just like Ammu's and Velutha's love affair, John Keats's Madeline and Porphyro in his famous poem "The Eve of St. Agnes" point towards a deathly absence, alienation, and infertility in relation. Madeline's and Porphyro's erotic love affair transcended the barriers of family disputes as Porphyro entered the castle of his enemies and eloped with his beloved. Ammu's portrayal has reversed the order as in place of Porphyro, she stepped out to meet her untouchable lover at the riverbank.

Here, Ammu's condition of normlessness can easily be perceived, since all social rules and obligations lose their hold and fail to regulate her behaviour. For the anomic or normless Ammu, social norms are null and void. Ammu's transgression of the social norms was severely punished. Ammu, who was considered one of "the worst transgressors" of "the laws that lay down who should be loved and how, the laws that makes grandmothers grandmothers, uncles uncles, mothers mothers, cousins cousins, jam jam, and jelly jelly" (Roy 31), was locked away in her bedroom like "the family lunatic in a medieval household" (Roy 239).

Losing the Social Status

After her affair with Velutha had come to light, her social status dropped even lower because for one she was a widow and secondly that she had been "defiled" by a member of the untouchable caste. Inspector Mathews taps on Ammu's breasts in the police station, and it was a "premeditated gesture, calculated to humiliate and terrorize her" (Roy 246), rather than a single isolated instance of sexual harassment. Consequently, she is locked up in the dark room for hours. This alienated experience makes her so crazy that, in a fit of rage, she shouts at her children. Later, her own brother Chacko drags her out from the Ayemenem house. Ammu passed rest of her life in isolation, relative silence, and feeling extreme alienation. Her life becomes virtually irrelevant. Upon her all-but-unnoticed death "in a grimy room in the Bharat Lodge in Alleppey" at the age of thirty-one ("a viable, die-able age"), "the church refused to bury Ammu" (Roy 154), thereby further denying Ammu any record of her participation in the Orthodox Church.

Defiled Woman

Thus, Ammu's alienation leads her on to utter desolation as the lady was declared 'defiled' by society. She becomes totally destitute when even her brother bares his fangs. She was thrown out of the house before condemning her to a solitary cell while her heart touches the depths of despair which led to rebelliousness in her nature. She becomes invisible in the eye of puritans and at the very young age of thirty-one breathes her last and even the church refused to

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bury her. The story of their lives is more bizarre and horrendous than the ‘honour killings’ in India. In the former case the lovers are killed in instalments with an unforgiving heart even by the religious priests while in the latter case the death is meted out in a few strokes of ruthlessness.

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Occupational Role Stress of the Public and Private Sector Universities Teachers

Fauzia Khurshid, Ph.D.

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Abstract

This study aimed to explore phenomena of occupational role stress among the private and public sector universities teachers. The sample comprised 500 teachers including 250 from public and 250 from private sector universities. University Teachers Stress Inventory (UTSI), developed by Khurshid (2008) was used UTSI questionnaire was used to measure dimensions of university teachers' occupational role stress. The psychometric properties of UTSI questionnaire were determined and yielded that it was a reliable tool. Statistical tests including mean, standard deviation, percentages and correlation analysis were calculated to test the research hypotheses.

The findings indicated that as a whole the university teachers experience moderate to high level of occupational role stress, however, teachers working in the public sector universities experienced higher stress as compared to the private sector university teachers. The key reason for occupational role stress of public sector university teachers was their relationships with their colleagues, whereas for the private sector teachers their workload caused occupational role stress.

The study also explored effects of demographic variables age, gender, marital status, qualification, income, experience, and nature of job contract on teachers occupational role stress.

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It was found that the demographic variables have effects on determining the level of occupational role stress.

Key words: Occupational role stress, university teacher, level of occupational role stress, dimensions of occupational role stress.

Introduction

Occupational stress is considered as one of the leading causes of work-related health problems in almost all professions around the world. In the past, there has been considerable research mainly in the developed countries on the nature, causes and effects of occupational role stress on the psychological wellbeing of employees (Ivancevich & Ganster, 1987, French et al, 1982; Hocky 1987).

Previous studies related to the teaching profession have pointed out that teaching may be one of the most stressful of all occupations, following air traffic controllers and surgeons (Truch, 1980). In a study, Cox & Brockley (1984) attempted to make a comparison of teachers with non-teachers and found that 67 per cent of the teachers reported that their work itself was the main source of occupational stress for them, as opposed to 35 per cent of the non-teachers. Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978) carried out a study on a sample of 700 teachers in the UK. They found that 25 percent of the respondents recorded their job to be “very stressful” and “extremely stressful”. Several multidisciplinary studies have focused on the dimensions of occupational role stress including interpersonal relationships, role ambiguity, role conflict, workload, and lack of resources, students' attitudes towards work and job autonomy (Blase, 1982; Fletcher and Payne, 1982; Fraser, 1998; Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1978; Okebukola and Jegede, 1989). The implications of such studies helped raise concern on staff reactions to work pressure and the effects of stress on the university teachers' health and wellbeing.

Meaning of the term *Stress*

Teachers have a wide variety of meanings when they use the term stress and when they accept or deny the existence of stress in themselves or in their colleagues. Some teachers define stress as anxiety, fear, inability to cope, frustration and unhappiness (Pratt 1979), while others associate stress with personal weakness and professional incompetence (Dunham, 1984).

Fraser (1998) defined teacher occupational role stress as an interactive process that occurs between teachers and their teaching environment.

Trendall (as cited in Verma, 1998) defined teachers' stress as a multi-dimensional concept composed of factors within the individual, the organization, nature of work place and society that leads to the lowering of feelings of personal self-worth, achievement, effectiveness and coping within one's professional role. In this study, occupational role stress is considered as an unpleasant emotion, which manifests itself through tension, frustration, anxiety, anger and depression. All these emotions are the result of different aspects of working environment and personal lives of the universities teachers (Khurshid, 2008).

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Prolonged Occupational Stress in Teaching

The main reason for conducting research into teacher stress is that prolonged occupational stress in teaching has been found resulting in both mental and physical ill health, ultimately having damaging effects on teacher's professional efficiency. High stress results in the lowering of intellectual ability and functioning, irrespective of one's age, education and background. Stress within teaching profession may not only affect the physical and emotional well-being of a teacher and their families, but it also effects the organization where they are working because it may impair the working relationship with students and colleagues (Bradfield and Fones, as cited in Verma 1998).

Teachers' Occupational Stress in Pakistan

Many of the studies on teachers' occupational stress have been carried out in industrialized and developed societies where conditions may be different from those prevailing in a developing country. Hence, the present study has been prompted by the fact that little is known about the nature of the university teachers' occupational stress in Pakistan. Interestingly the concern over occupational stress among university teachers in Pakistan remained very limited due to the lack of coverage of the subject in the media and other professional platforms. Although a lot of research has been done on the general nature of occupational stress, however, it does not shed light on the state and nature of this phenomenon in education. In Pakistan, most of the researches in the domain of occupational stress were related to the dimensions, such as job satisfaction and motivation (Cochinwala & Imam, 1987).

No empirical study was found addressing the phenomenon of occupational role stress of university teachers in Pakistan. Therefore, it is a need to undertake a study of this nature to explore strongest and most frequently occurring sources and manifestations of stress for the present sample and to explore the role of certain demographic and job related variables in determining the university teachers' occupational role stress. The study will generate empirical data which could be of value to policy and decision makers, and to university administrators and other professional associations in the education sector of Pakistan.

Research Aim

This study aimed to explore the level and dimensions of occupational role stress of teachers working in the private and public sector universities. The study also explored the effects of demographic variables including age, gender, marital status, qualification, income and type of employment on the teachers' occupational role stress.

Research Hypotheses

1. Teachers working in public sector experience higher occupational role stress than teachers working in the private sector universities.

2. Age is negatively associated with occupational role stress.
3. Male teachers experience more occupational role stress than female teachers.
4. Married teachers experience more occupational stress than unmarried ones.
5. Teachers with a Ph.D. qualification experience more occupational role stress than teachers having a Master's or M. Phil qualification.
6. Teachers with low income experience more stress than the teachers of higher income.
7. Contract employment results in more occupational role stress than permanent employment for teachers.

Method

The current study is a descriptive study in which scientific methodology is used to explore the level and dimensions of occupational role stress in the public and private sector universities teachers.

Sample

For this research, the ideal population includes all teachers working in the public and private sector universities of Pakistan, but due to limited time and resources, it was not possible to collect data from all of them.

Therefore, for the convenience of data collection, a stratified random sample of 500 teachers from twenty-public and private sector universities based in Rawalpindi and Islamabad was selected. Among them 282 were men and 218 were women, ages ranged from 25 to 75 years and job experience ranged from 1 year to 40 years. Teachers' qualification level ranged from Master's to Ph.D. and income level ranged from Rs.10, 000 to Rs.200, 000.

Other specifications of the sample were marital status and type of employment. The teachers were contacted at their respective workplace. They were given sufficient information about the purpose of the study. After their consent, UTSI was given to them. They were requested to complete this scale in one sitting. The assurance of confidentiality and anonymity was provided to them that information collected by them would only be used for research purposes.

Instrument

For the measurement of occupational role stress, University Teachers Stress Inventory (UTSI) was developed by Khurshid (2008) was used in this study. UTSI was consisted of 54 items with five point rating scale, pertaining to six subscales such as, workload stress scale (WLSS), student related stress scale (SRSS), colleagues related stress scale (CRSS), administration related stress scale (ARSS), personal factor leads to stress scale (PFSS) and manifestations of stress scale (MSS). The scores assigned to these categories are ranged from 1 to 5. The present study measured occupational role stress in terms of respondent's scores on 54-items UTSI.

Results

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The psychometric properties of UTSI were determined through alpha reliability coefficients, item total correlations inter-correlations and percentile analysis. The result revealed that all 54 items have positive correlation with the total scale of UTSI. The correlations ranged from .41 to .89. Cutoff scores were determined to categorize three levels of occupational role stress including mild stress, moderate stress and high stress. The score of 122 falls on 25th percentile illustrate as mild stress. Score of 143 falls on 50th percentile characterized as moderate stress, whereas score of 161 falls on 75th percentile and characterized as high stress.

Table 1
Inter-Correlations of the Subscales of UTSI (N=500)

Subscales	1	2	3	4	5	6
WLSS						
SRSS	.64**					
CRSS	.65**	.53**				
ARSS	.37*	.69**	.83**			
PFLSS	.43*	.59**	.80**	.56**		
MSS	.65**	.65**	.83**	.61**	.70**	
Total	.65*	.80**	.83**	.83**	.77**	.89**

**p < .01

Table 1 portrayed inter-correlation of the subscales and total scale of UTSI. Result shows that all subscales have positive correlation with each other and with total scale of UTSI. The highest correlation existed between MSS and total scale of UTSI ($r = .89^{**}$).

Table 2
Level and Percentages of Stress (N=500)

Levels of Stress	Public Sector		Private Sector	
	n	Percentages	n	Percentages
Mild Stress	47	18.8%	78	31.2%
Moderate Stress	95	38. %	105	42 %
High Stress	108	43.2%	67	26.8%

Table 2 portrays levels of occupational role stress experienced by the university teachers. The results indicate that public sector university teachers reported experiencing a moderate to high-level occupational role stress, whereas, the private sector university teachers reported mild to moderate role stress. As a whole, the public sector university teachers experience high occupational role stress as compared with the private sector teachers.

Table 3 Dimensions of Occupational Role Stress

Dimensions	public sector (n=250)		private sector (n=250)	
	M	SD	M	SD
WLSS	27.54	4.95	21.89	6.49
SRSS	25.58	5.45	27.43	5.72
CRSS	34.36	5.38	22.18	7.31
ARSS	26.31	7.49	23.78	9.02
PFSS	22.54	5.71	21.34	6.74
MSS	27.04	6.37	24.33	7.40
Total	163.37	35.35	140.95	42.68

Table 3 indicates scores of five dimensions of occupational role stress. The results show that public sector university teachers have higher mean scores on subscale stress related to colleagues and manifestation of stress scale, while private sector teachers experience higher stress due to students' related issues.

Table 4 Comparison of Mean SD of the University Teachers Scores on UTSI for Age -Wise. N=500)

Subscales	Public Sector (n=250)		Private Sector (n=250)		Public Sector (n=250)		Private Sector (n=250)	
	25-35 years				35-45 years			
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
WLSS	27.14	5.08	27.31	6.42	26.12	4.80	26.97	4.80
SRSS	22.94	4.95	21.82	4.09	25.21	6.98	25.97	6.41
CRSS	23.87	4.94	21.22	4.80	25.28	6.81	25.92	4.26
ARSS	26.02	7.13	23.44	5.52	23.95	8.23	19.75	6.39
PFSS	22.40	5.07	20.88	3.44	23.21	5.82	27.64	8.0
MSS	25.38	3.9	24.57	5.75	24.47	5.35	18.14	6.64
Total	147.75	31.07	139.24	30.02	148.24	37.99	144.39	36.5
	45-55 years				55 years & above			
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
WLSS	28.70	4.04	27.11	3.03	28.77	5.07	29.84	5.79
SRSS	22.02	4.95	24.77	2.95	25.39	5.15	24.59	6.49
CRSS	23.36	3.85	27.82	3.85	25.84	6.10	26.25	5.24
ARSS	22.98	8.31	25.66	6.31	26.37	6.74	27.16	7.97
PFSS	25.77	5.28	23.66	4.28	23.05	7.43	24.59	6.58
MSS	26.32	5.32	26.32	3.32	24.46	7.19	26.34	8.17
Total	149.15	31.74	155.34	15.93	153.88	37.68	163.77	40.24

Table 4 reveals the score of private and public sector teachers on UTSI for the variable of age. Result of both group indicates, gradual increased in stress with the passage of time, older

teachers have more stress than younger. Overall, senior teachers of private sector were more stressful than public sector (public sector M =153.88, private sector M = 163.77).

Table 5
Gender Wise Comparison of University Teachers Scores on UTSI (N=500)

Subscales	Public Sector (n=250)		Private Sector (n=250)	
	M	SD	M	SD
Men				
WLSS	26.80	5.05	35.39	4.61
SRSS	26.12	5.85	20.68	6.47
CRSS	26.83	5.8	20.25	6.09
ARSS	27.80	7.66	21.26	6.83
PFSS	22.22	6.36	20.12	7.38
MSS	25.18	6.89	22.28	6.99
Total	154.95	37.61	139.98	38.37
Women				
WLSS	28.17	4.80	21.22	5.57
SRSS	23.12	5.04	24.08	5.76
CRSS	23.96	4.93	20.59	7.97
ARSS	24.90	7.34	28.41	10.59
PFSS	20.81	5.08	23.55	4.45
MSS	24.92	5.91	28.0	6.55
Total	145.88	33.01	145.85	40.8

Table 5 indicates the result of UTSI on the variable of gender. From the table it appears that mean scores of both public and private sectors male teachers are higher on UTSI (public M = 154.95, private M = 139.98) as compared to female teachers.

Table 6
Comparison of Mean SD of the University Teachers Scores on UTSI on Marital Status-Wise (N=500).

Subscales	Public Sector (n=250)		Private Sector (n=250)	
	M	SD	M	SD
Married				
WLSS	27.97	4.66	27.71	5.63
SRSS	24.66	5.38	25.57	6.57
CRSS	24.52	5.76	22.81	7.51

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ARSS	25.83	7.61	24.11	9.07
PFSS	22.98	6.32	21.17	7.26
MSS	25.69	6.18	24.60	7.68
Total	151.6	34.61	145.97	43.72

	Unmarried			
	M	SD	M	SD
WLSS	25.91	3.29	26.23	2.45
SRSS	21.98	2.61	19.19	3.54
CRSS	24.12	2.52	19.41	3.67
ARSS	24.55	4.71	22.27	4.32
PFSS	21.88	4.52	21.17	4.52
MSS	25.07	4.51	22.95	3.89
Total	143.51	20.93	131.22	22.39

Table 6 describes the results of married and unmarried teachers working in the public sector and public sector universities. It described that married teachers of public sectors universities experience higher stress as compared with the unmarried ones (M = 151.6), whereas the mean score of unmarried teachers are low on UTSI (M = 143.51). The unmarried private sector university teachers have lower mean score among all groups (M = 131.22).

Table 7

Mean SD of University Teacher's Scores on UTSI for the Variable Qualification (N=500)

Subscales	Public Sector (n=250)		Private Sector (n=250)		Public Sector (n=250)		Private Sector (n=250)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
	Masters				M. Phil			
WLSS	26.61	5.48	26.0	4.50	27.51	4.78	27.99	3.99
SRSS	22.79	5.59	20.86	6.22	23.93	6.10	22.85	4.13
CRSS	25.85	4.98	21.27	6.05	23.80	5.40	22.52	5.54
ARSS	25.81	8.41	22.22	7.29	25.60	6.98	23.95	5.25
PFSS	23.75	5.73	20.76	7.98	22.64	5.46	21.51	5.08
MSS	24.16	6.40	21.61	7.31	26.06	6.21	27.75	5.55
Total	148.97	36.59	132.72	39.35	149.54	33.99	146.57	29.54
	PhDs							
WLSS	28.77	4.65	30.50	4.87				
SRSS	23.48	6.10	22.70	3.38				
CRSS	24.36	5.52	23.72	5.53				
ARSS	23.68	7.81	27.98	4.64				
PFSS	20.77	6.11	22.52	2.39				
MSS	22.86	6.22	24.65	3.79				

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Total 143.87 36.41 152.07 24.6

Table 7 shows the mean and SD of university teacher's scores on UTSI for qualification wise. In the public sector, teachers having Master's degree exhibited more stress and in private sector, lowest mean scores were among teachers, whose qualification was up to Master's degree. The teachers whose qualification were up to PhDs displayed higher mean score on UTSI in the private sector (private M = 152.07, public M = 143.87).

Table 8
Comparison of Mean SD of the University Teachers Scores On UTSI on Income –Wise (N=500)

Subscales	Public Sector (n=250)		Private Sector (n=250)		Public Sector (n=250)		Private Sector (n=250)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
	Up to Rs.15000				Rs.15001-25000			
WLSS	27.63	5.10	28.93	5.49	27.30	5.18	30.89	4.10
SRSS	24.20	4.98	23.00	5.33	22.77	5.66	23.64	4.31
CRSS	23.44	5.02	24.09	8.43	25.43	5.84	23.54	4.63
ARSS	25.42	6.08	27.84	10.1	25.10	8.67	26.41	6.83
PFSS	22.98	5.31	23.49	5.03	23.08	5.71	22.89	5.74
MSS	25.39	7.5	27.40	5.86	24.58	6.67	25.05	6.69
Total	149.06	33.99	154.75	40.24	148.26	37.73	152.42	32.3
	Rs.25001-35000				Rs.35000 & above			
WLSS	27.37	3.35	26.89	5.04	28.0	2.35	24.20	6.45
SRSS	20.86	6.76	22.39	6.23	23.90	3.94	18.07	7.79
CRSS	24.35	8.74	22.20	7.53	23.75	3.27	19.03	6.80
ARSS	25.71	4.47	23.58	8.13	21.20	2.39	18.57	6.37
PFSS	20.71	3.71	21.30	6.61	21.68	3.45	18.23	7.78
MSS	23.22	2.65	25.16	7.12	23.41	4.23	19.10	7.11
Total	142.22	29.68	141.52	40.66	141.94	19.63	117.2	42.3

Table 8 explains the differences in mean score of private and public teachers on the variable income. Result indicates that stress decreased with increase in income. Overall teachers of private sector have less stress.

Table 9
Comparison of Mean SD of the University Teachers Scores on UTSI for the variable Type of Employment (N=500)

Subscales	Public Sector (n=250)	Private Sector (n=250)	Public Sector (n=250)	Private Sector (n=250)
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	Permanent				Contract			
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
WLSS	27.32	4.99	27.96	6.18	27.86	4.86	27.12	4.11
SRSS	23.45	5.73	22.36	6.25	23.91	4.62	22.63	6.07
CRSS	24.51	5.47	23.07	7.68	23.75	5.22	22.41	5.10
ARSS	25.03	7.81	24.15	10.0	26.31	6.60	22.73	4.42
PFSS	22.55	5.97	22.04	6.86	22.14	4.78	20.07	6.15
MSS	24.17	6.50	25.22	7.45	27.97	5.24	23.59	6.57
Total	147.03	36.47	144.09	44.42	151.94	31.86	138.55	32.42

	Visiting			
	M	SD	M	SD
WLSS	31.71	2.2	25.13	3.67
SRSS	24.86	1.77	18.92	6.83
CRSS	25.00	3.1	17.50	4.71
ARSS	25.29	2.9	22.67	6.72
PFSS	26.00	1.4	19.08	5.99
MSS	26.29	1.6	20.54	6.36
Total	159.15	12.97	123.84	34.28

Table 9 indicates the mean and SD of teacher's score on UTSI for work related variables, type of employment. From the results, it is clear that permanent teachers experience least stress in public sector whereas, on UTSI mean scores of visiting faculty members were highest among all (M = 159.15). In the private sector, mean score of public sector, permanent teachers were high and mean score of visiting faculty members was lowest (M = 123.84) on UTSI.

Discussion

The present study provides valuable information regarding the level and dimensions of occupational role stress among the public and private university teachers. The first aim of the research was to explore the level of university teachers' occupational stress. Both the teachers working on public and private sector universities reported experiencing occupational stress, however, the mean score of the public sector teachers was higher as compared to the private sector (public sector M = 163.37 private sector M = 140.95) on UTSI (Table 4). The results confirmed the research hypothesis 1 and 2 that the university teachers experienced high occupational role stress and the level of occupational stress of public sector university teachers was higher than the private sector teachers.

The second aim of the study was to explore the dimensions of occupational role stress of the university teachers. The teachers of public sector have higher mean score on subscales of stress related to colleagues (M=34.36) and manifestation of stress scale (M=27.04), while the private sector university teachers have higher mean score on subscale student related stress (M=27.43) and manifestation of stress scale (M= 24.33) (Table 4) .

The study also aimed at exploring the relationship of age, gender, marital status, qualification, income level and type of employment on the occupational role stress of the private and public sector universities teachers. In order to find out differences due to these variables mean and standard deviation were computed and the results of the analysis for each variable were as following:

Age: The results in table 5 indicated an inverse relationship between the age and occupational role stress. Interestingly, it also indicated a gradual increase in level of occupational role stress with the increase in age of teachers of both public and private sector universities. The senior teachers of the private sector universities reported experiencing more occupational role stress than senior teachers of public sector (public sector $M=153.88$, private sector $M=163.77$). The results confirm the research hypothesis 3 that the age is inversely related to the occupational role stress. The literature perused on the relationship of age and occupational stress also indicated an inverse relationship between age and occupational stress.

Gender: Another interesting finding was the analysis of the level of occupational stress based on gender. The study found as a whole that level of occupational role stress was higher in male teachers as compared to female teachers both in the public and private sector universities (Male $M=154.97$, Female $M=145.88$) (Table 6). The results confirm the research hypothesis 4 that male university teacher experience more occupational role stress than female teachers.

Marital Status: The results related to the marital status indicated that mean scores of the public sector married teachers were higher on the total scale of UTSI, whereas mean scores of unmarried teachers were low (married $M= 143.51$, unmarried $M= 131.22$) (Table 7). The results confirm research hypothesis 5 that the married teachers experience more occupational role stress than the unmarried ones.

Qualification: Qualification was another significant factor that affects the level of occupational role stress of the university teachers. The results show that the master's degree holder exhibit less occupational role stress and the Ph.D. degree holders (PhD $M= 153.87$, Master $M= 148.97$) (Table 8). Hence, the results confirm the research hypothesis 6 that the teachers with the Ph.D. qualification experience more occupational stress than teachers having a Master's or M. Phil qualification.

Income: The results on income show that the teachers with low income experience more occupational role stress than teachers with higher income level (Higher income $M= 142.33$, Low income $M= 149.06$) (Table 9). Another interesting finding regarding the income was that stress was positively associated with occupational stress, as the increase in income resulted in decrease in the level of occupational role stress. Thus, the results confirmed the research hypothesis 7 that teachers with low income experienced more occupational role stress than the teachers of higher income.

Type of employment: The results indicated that university teachers with a permanent employment had lowest stress compared to the teachers employed on contract basis (permanent $M= 147.03$, contract $M= 159. 15$) (Table 10). Interestingly the contract teachers of public sector

universities had highest mean score (M = 161.94). It reflects that the nature of contract influenced the occupational role stress level of the teachers. The results support the research hypothesis 8 that the contract employment produces more occupational role stress than permanent employment for university teachers.

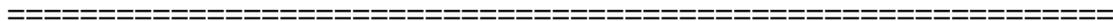
Recommendations

The study provides a glimpse of the level and dimensions of the occupational role stress experienced by the university teachers working in public and private sector universities in Pakistan. The empirical evidence from the present research sample shows a serious concern that a large proportion of university teachers in both the public and private sector in Pakistan reported experiencing high Occupational role stress. Although it is not possible to comment on whether stress among university teachers has been increasing over the years, it is important that the decision makers be aware of this situation.

These findings have several important implications for the university administrations and educational policy makers.

It is recommended that the both public and private sector university management should develop comprehensive stress management strategy and programs for alleviation of occupational stress at the university level to improve the quality of life of teachers. The university management should also provide a more supportive work environment to teachers so they can perform their jobs more effectively.

Currently there are disparities in the pay structure of teachers of public and private sector universities, a balance in the pay structure and attractive benefits for teachers, particularly highly qualified teachers help in dealing with the occupational stress and will attract qualified and experienced people towards this profession. The contract and daily wage employment also seem to be a source of occupational stress causing frustration and disinterest among the university teachers. The university administration should provide stable contracts to the teachers to remove this frustration. Finally, further research is recommended to verify the findings of the current study and contribute towards the development of a sound research database on occupational stress of university teachers in Pakistan.



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Bridging Digital Divide in India to Create Equal Opportunities

Ramachandra Reddy Vemireddy, M.A., M.Com, M.Phil., Ph.D. Scholar

Abstract

There are many divisions in almost all societies and they all have some or the other negative impact on the people who live in those societies. But “Digital Divide” which is a side effect of the technology explosion of the 21st century is posing a new challenge. This divide started creating disparities in the dissemination of information and access to the knowledge resources between the rich and the poor, rural and urban, computer literates and computer illiterates, etc. If the government and the civil society do not take effective steps in bridging this digital divide it would get blown up into a larger problem of disparities in opportunities and consequently take the shape of economic disparities. To bridge this digital divide we have to explore different ways to take the information technology to the masses.

Introduction – Rural people are at disadvantage

Internet is considered to be the treasure house of knowledge because we can find almost all the information on it. It is also considered to be the information superhighway as the large quantities of data and information ceaselessly flows through the fiber optic cables. Skill in using Internet and the extent of its usage make huge difference in accessing and disseminating knowledge and information. In our knowledge society, it is the access to knowledge and information that makes the real difference. But, unfortunately in India, the Internet penetration is too low. So the computer literates who fall under the category of the rich, middle class or even lower middle

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class who live in urban areas are able to access Internet and improve their knowledge and grab the opportunities thrown by the business corporations that thrive as a result of the booming economy. But their rural counterparts are denied access to this vital source of knowledge since they don't have the required infrastructure. In some developed countries, they have made access to Internet a fundamental right.

Internet penetration in other countries

In US, where around 65% (as on Feb 2010) of the people have access to this treasure house, the Federal Communications Commission(FCC) set itself an ambitious target to equip 100 million U.S. homes with 100Mbps Internet access by 2020. They also want to take the Internet adoption rate to more than 90% by 2020. (1)

FCC believes that broadband networks backed by high bandwidth will empower American entrepreneurs and innovators to build and expand businesses in the United States. They also started taking measures to effectively counter the *cyber attacks* and protect their information networks. (2)

We can't afford to lose the opportunity thrown by the Internet

These days if a *netizen* seeks to access some information the first thing that comes to his/her mind is *Wikipedia* the free online encyclopedia. Internet has become an essential source for acquiring knowledge.

In fact, Internet is a very fascinating thing. Take the example of a newspaper. Every morning we get a hard copy of the newspaper delivered at our doorsteps. We eagerly grab it and start reading, as it has something new to offer. Humans by nature seek new things every day. It is a widely known fact that not more than 10% of the readers read beyond first chapter after they buy a book. So it is obvious that many people, after reading some pages or chapters shelve the book because it has become "old" and it no longer attracts their attention. But in case of a newspaper every morning we get a new copy and that is why we get fascinated by it.

Take Internet. It has something new to show us every minute, in fact, every second! So when a netizen sits in front of his or her networked computer he/she rarely turns his/her eyes from it. It has got everything we want. We can not only access information but even share the information with others.

Providing school going children with cost effective equipment

To improve the educational standards in our country we need to devise a plan to provide every school going child with a networked computer which is affordable to even poor people. In fact, there is a program called *One Laptop per Child* (OLPC) started by MIT Labs. This laptop is very sturdy and runs on open source LINUX based software called *Sugar*.

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OLPC Project has made a start in India with a pilot deployment in a rural village at Khairat near Navi Mumbai where laptops have been deployed and every child carries one laptop home.(3) Just imagine a teacher teaching Geography lesson and the students in the classroom use Google Earth to locate the countries, water bodies and observe the terrain of different locations. How effective the teaching learning process would be!

Satish Jha, president and CEO of OLPC India has announced in April 2009 that two government organizations and one private-sector entity placed orders amounting to 2,50,000 XO laptops. These XO laptops were distributed to about 1,500 schools.

This is a step in the right direction. But considering the enormous population and the high percentage of children, it is highly inadequate. So the government should act in a proactive manner in promoting high technologies in teaching and learning. According to the surveys conducted by two trade bodies in India namely FICCI and NASSCOM only 15 to 25% of the students who pass out of Indian universities are fit to be employed.(4)So the educational standards are distressingly poor.

Improve the employability of the graduates

The students who come from rural areas are not able to compete with their urban counterparts. On the other hand, students who are born and brought up in urban areas have access to good schools where the official medium of instruction is English and they are taught by teachers who have comparatively far better skills and knowledge and the methodology used in these schools is also far superior to the government run schools in rural areas. So there is a perpetuation of poor academic standards among the students from rural areas. They finish their schooling; they graduate and even join post-graduate courses in university campuses without any significant addition to their range of knowledge and skills. Once they enter university campuses they find the environment equally boring and dampening.

Deployment of technology to make students self-reliant

Indian universities have become degree producing machines. There is hardly any research going on and they are also infected with politics and caste discrimination. So the students who are enthusiastic and have quest for knowledge develop cold feet after they face the real life situation in Indian universities.

One of the ways to change the situation is the deployment of technology at school level itself. The strategy would definitely bring about transformation in the education system in our country. Technology would make the children self reliant to a great extent and their dependence on teachers would get reduced. Teachers instead of projecting themselves as the sole resources of knowledge will have to transform themselves as the facilitators in the process of learning.

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Infrastructure bottlenecks and the apathy of the leaders

But in India we face infrastructure bottlenecks like inadequate power supply, low *band width*, bumpy roads etc. But our leaders instead of thinking about how to solve these problems are busy in politicking and destroying democratic institutions. Corruption has grown to unprecedented levels and is threatening to undermine the economic growth rate of our country. The people in power always try to distract the attention of the people from real issues and to do that, they introduce populist policies and occasionally make statements like India is poised to become a world power; India deserves a permanent seat in UN Security Council etc. But do they make any real difference? What if we don't get a permanent seat in UN Security Council?

Invest on development of human resources

Instead of thinking about these useless things our policy makers should concentrate on development of human resources especially on creating a *knowledge society*. There are some political parties and leaders who can't tolerate taking any progressive steps that are intended to improve the prevailing situation. To create knowledge society and to eradicate disparities we have to defeat the evil designs of these so-called leaders and try our best to bridge the *digital divide* and make information freely accessible to all the people. Unless we do this we can't make any significant achievements. Though most of the countries especially the countries in Africa and Latin America which constitute third world ordered for millions of OLPC XO-1 laptops, India is skeptical about its utility and announced its own program called '*Sakshat*' a tablet PC which reportedly costs around \$35. The HRD minister Mr. Kapil Sibal stated that the tablet PC would hit the market in 2011. But so far there is no indication of the availability of the gadget. So it has proven to be a damp squib. (5)

Conclusion

As far as education and technology are concerned, the delay in decision making proves to be counterproductive. In this age of cut throat competition among the nations, India can't afford to be left behind in this race. According to a well-known man of letters in Telugu literature, Shri. Gurajada Appa Rao, a country is not a piece of real estate- it is a set of people (*deshamante mattikadoi, deshamante manushuloi*). The development of the human resources- educating them in the best possible way and helping them in keeping in good health so that they remain able bodied, must be the top priorities of any nation. For that the digital divide...disparities in access to information and its transmission must be bridged. Till then the rural urban divide would keep widening and a section of the youth would keep failing in grabbing the opportunities thrown by the growing economy.

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An Overview to Informal Language Learning

Taher Bahrani

Abstract

The present paper tries to provide a broad overview of informal language learning and its application based on some approaches to second language learning. Accordingly, it considers informal language learning in relation to some psychologically oriented approaches such as behaviorism and innate-ism. Moreover, it discusses the interactionist approach to second language learning in relation to informal language learning as a socially oriented approach to second language teaching. Accordingly, informal language learning cannot be based on behaviorism because it requires language learners to do some repetition and drills even in informal setting similar to some of the formal language classrooms which does not support theories underlying informal language learning. On the contrary, interactionist approach can support informal language learning because the focus is rather on the meaning of the language than on the form.

Key words: informal learning, Behaviorism, Innate-ism, Interactionist

1. Introduction

Informal learning compared to formal learning was first introduced and popularized by Knowles in his pioneering work *Informal Adult Education* (1950). In focusing on the notion of informal education, Knowles pointed to the informal environment in many adult learning situations, the flexibility of the process of learning, and the use of experience. According to Coombs and Ahmad (1974), the definition of informal education is widely accepted in the field of language

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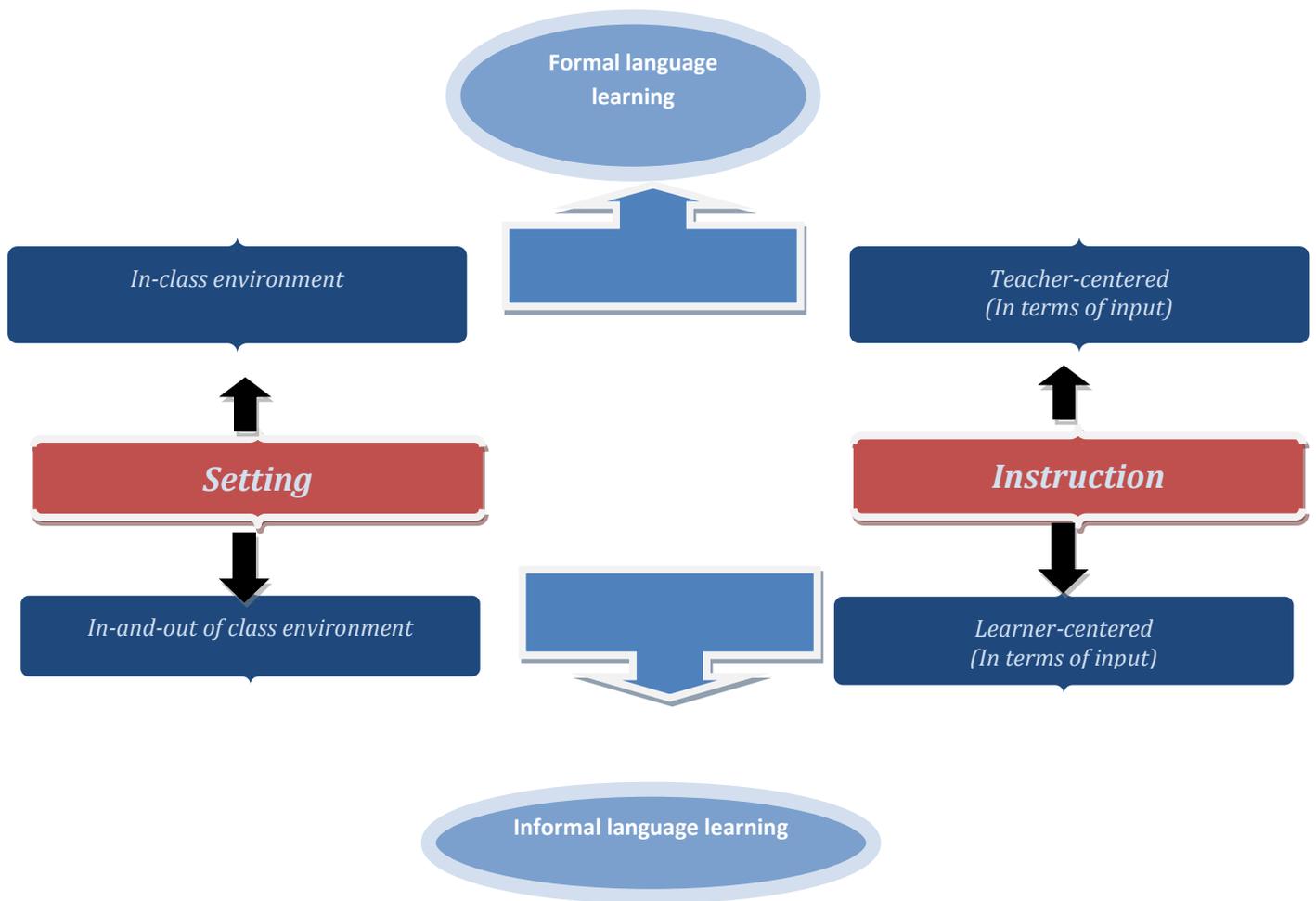
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learning as the process of developing people in knowledge and skills in a highly uninstitutionalised and unstructured setting.

In the same line and based on informal education, informal learning was also defined as the lifelong process of learning by which every individual acquires and accumulates the required knowledge, skills, attitudes, and insights from exposure to the environment at home or at work (Rogers, 2004). This sort of unconscious learning mainly occurs through reading newspapers and books or by listening to the radio or viewing films or television (Coombs and Ahmed, 1974). Accordingly, informal learning is mostly unorganized, unsystematic and even unintentional at times. Moreover, the notions of formal and informal language learning were also introduced and studied in the same way by some other researchers (Marsick and Watkins, 1990; Lightbown and Spada, 2001; Rogers, 2004).



The above graph shows the comparison between formal and informal language learning in relation to setting and instruction:

In the same line, research in second language learning in relation to informal language learning has always been a challenge and has faced many aspects in psychological and social disciplines. Early second language learning research was psychologically oriented focusing on habit formation through repetition and drills, but later on it gradually became socially oriented which provoked interaction with native speakers or more advance language learners in real world communication.

As a result, the focus of psychological research on second language acquisition was mainly on morphology, syntax, and acquisition order (Dankin, 1973; Krashen, 1981; Brown, 1973; Larsen-Freeman, 1975). On the contrary, socially oriented research was based on discourse analysis, text analysis, and more importantly the social factors such as interaction with native speakers or advanced language learners that impact language learning (Fairclough, 1992; Matthiessen, 1990; Tannen, 1991).

In the following sections some of the physiologically and socially oriented approaches are discussed in relation to informal language learning to find out which one would best fit into informal language learning.

2. Psychologically oriented approaches

This part deals with considering some of the psychologically oriented approaches to Second Language Acquisition (SLA) such as behaviorism and innate-ism in relation to informal language learning setting and their contributions to language learning based on informal language learning:

2.1. Behaviorism and Informal Language Learning

Behaviorism can be considered as the most outstanding psychologically oriented approach to second language teaching. According to Mangubhai (2004), behaviorism can be traced back to the studies on classical conditioning by Russian psychologist Pavlov followed by Skinner (1957). The behaviorists basically claim that learning including language learning is a habit formation and the environment, formal or informal, is an essential and determinant factor in learning. Moreover, learning is realized by being stimulated, responding to stimulation and receiving feedback to responses (Ellis, 1999).

According to the behaviorist approach, understanding of second language learning studies is based on the assumption that children learn their first language by imitation and reinforcement thus forming a habit of language use (Lightbown and Spada, 2001). According to Skinner (1957), learners are first exposed to linguistic input from other speakers in their environment and then form meaningful associations between the language, objects, and events around them and the repetition of those associations over and over by experiences in the form of reinforcements and corrective feedback, they turn into linguistic habits.

However, although the behaviorists have worked well in explicit teaching and computer-assisted instruction (e.g. learning through repetitions, drills and practice) in some English classes, they would not be suitable for learning the language informally. Based on the informal language learning, language learners are not supposed to learn the language through having exposure to language input in informal language setting which is made for language learning requiring them to be involved in repetition and drills in away similar to class or lab. Accordingly, behaviorism may best suit formal language learning.

2.2. Innate-ism and Informal Language Learning

Another psychologically oriented approach is that of the innatists. Based on the cognitive perspective and in contrast to the behaviorist approach, innatists such as Chomsky (1965) and Lenneberg (1967) argued that language learning is more than mechanical imitation and feedback processes for particular stimuli. On the contrary to the behaviorism, it has been observed that cognitive characteristics of the human brain have a role on language learning processes, and the behaviorist approach cannot explain the complexity of language learning through habit formation (Chomsky, 1981).

The main feature of innate-ism is related to first language acquisition during the critical period of a child's language development. Chomsky (1965 and 1981) referred to the Language Acquisition Device (LAD), by which he refers to the innate capacity of an able child to learn language in his or her environment through exposure to sufficient language input. This language input can be provided by the parents, other children or audio/visual media, for example, through watching different cartoons.

LAD was proposed in contrast to the data-nurturing environment which was proposed by the behaviorist. Chomsky argued for the presence of a skill which gifted humans with inherited knowledge of 'Universal Grammar' (UG) to acquire a language (Chomsky, 1981).

Accordingly, language learners can improve their language proficiency in informal environment through exposure to authentic language. This can occur without having to follow the mechanical stimulus and response of the behaviorism which does not support informal language learning.

3. Socially oriented approaches

In recent years, socially oriented approaches to language teaching/learning have mainly considered language learning as the outcome of linguistic interactions with native or more proficient speakers of the target language in informal language learning setting.

3.1. Interactionists and Informal Language Learning

Social interactionists see the language learner in his or her environment as a perceiver, actor, follower, and learner (Long, 1983; Hatch, 1978; Pica, 1994). In contrast to behaviorist approaches, the relations between the learner and the social environment in this approach are not limited to imitation and reinforcement, but are more dynamic, fluid and innovative. Learning the language is contextual, open to a wide range of perception and the teacher in formal setting or

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the native speaker or more proficient speaker in informal setting cooperate with the language learner to maintain a meaningful communication.

However, socially oriented approaches also emphasize the interaction with the native speakers to boost language learning. What the interactionists have not focused on is that this socially oriented interaction with native speakers just exists in target language countries or ESL context. In other words, EFL contexts lack this social interaction. In this regard, some other authentic sources of language input may be available to use. However, getting into this discussion is out of the scope of the present paper.

3.2. *Constructivist and Informal Language Learning*

Another socially oriented approach to language learning is Constructivism. The Constructivist approach asserts that learning is an active, creative, and socially interactive process in which language learners construct new ideas based upon their current and past knowledge (Cook, 1996). According to the constructivist approach, successful language learning is therefore achieved through exposure to and interaction with language in authentic contexts. Typically a learner in a constructivist-inspired program would be required to perform tasks and solve problems involving listening, reading, writing and speaking in the foreign language to ensure a high level of interaction both in formal and informal language learning settings.

The Constructivist philosophy is closely tied to communicative teaching approaches and indeed is the force behind many initiatives in interactive computer assisted language learning to be used in both formal and informal language learning settings. Informal language learning can be based on the constructivist approach because it emphasizes exposure to language. However, it should be emphasized that some of the computer assisted language learning programs are designed based on behaviorist approach which are not suitable for informal language learning.

Conclusion

The present paper aimed at considering the behaviorism and innatism as two psychologically oriented approaches to SLA in relation to informal language learning and interactionist and constructivist approaches to language learning shown in the following table:

The relationship between informal language learning and some language learning theories

Theories of language learning	Behaviorism	Innatism	Interactionists	Constructivists
Informal language learning	Not suitable: because require repetition and drills even in informal setting	Suitable: because language can be learnt through exposure in informal setting	Suitable: because the focus is primary on the meaning which supports informal learning	Suitable: because the focus is on exposure. It can be supported based on learner autonomy

Accordingly, informal language learning cannot be based on behaviorism because it requires repetition even in informal setting. On the contrary, informal language learning emphasizes that language learning in informal setting should be unstructured. Moreover, it happens incidentally. In other words, language learners are not supposed to be instructed in informal setting similar to that of the formal setting.

The interactionist and constructivist approaches are two socially oriented approaches to SLA which were considered. It was found out that language learners can learn or improve their language in social interaction with other people while the focus is not on the form of the language in informal setting. It can be concluded that socially oriented approaches work best in informal language learning.

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Describing and Explaining Lai

George Bedell, Ph. D.

Most papers on Lai grammar (like those listed at the end of this discussion) are attempts to describe and explain its syntax and morphology using the concepts and techniques of modern linguistics. Regardless of how successful those papers may be, they assume familiarity with linguistics, and are difficult to follow without such background. The present discussion has both different aims and a different audience. Rather than trying to analyze Lai for linguists, it tries to introduce linguistic analysis to Lai speakers. My other papers address mainly those aspects of Lai which (I think) I understand. This paper mentions also aspects of Lai which I do not understand, in part to illustrate the complexity of the language, but also to solicit the efforts of Lai speakers in extending our understanding together. This paper was prepared for the 2nd Lai Linguistics Workshop, held in at the Lai Baptist Church in Yangon, November 1997, and a Lai translation ('Laiholh a Tawinak i Fianternak') appeared in in *Muko Magazine* (Special Centenary Issue 1998), pp. 146-57. I am grateful to Rev. Samuel Ngun Ling, Rev. Thang Hlun and Saya Trial Peng for sharing their knowledge of Lai with me, and to everyone who attended the workshop for their interest and reactions.

Linguistic Structure. Let us take as our text the following sentence from the 1978 *Lai Babil Thiang* (The Holy Bible in Lai).

- (1) *Keimah pei nangmah nih tipilpek awk ka si cu, ka sin i nangmah lehtuk na rat.*
(Mt. 3:14)

This sentence is a report of what John the Baptist said to Jesus when he came to the Jordan to be baptized. It is a significant sentence for Baptist Christians, and perhaps could serve as the text for a serious sermon or even a theological treatise. My focus is not on its religious or theological value, but rather on its structure as an example of Laica. It is a translation into Lai from the Greek original (2) written by Matthew some 1900 years ago. Probably the translators also had in mind the Latin and English versions (3) and (4).

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- (2) *Egô khreian ekhô hupo sou baptisthênai, kai su erkhêi pros me?*
- (3) *Ego a te debeo baptizari, et tu venis ad me?* (Vulgate)
- (4) *I have need to be baptized of thee, and comest thou to me?* (King James Version)
I need to be baptized by you, and do you come to me? (Revised Standard Version)
I ought to be baptized by you, and yet you have come to me! (Good News Version)

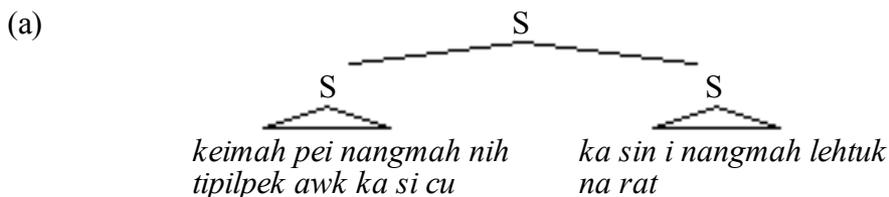
John did not know any of these languages, and his original words have not come down to us. If the translations are accurate, the religious or theological meaning has been preserved throughout, but the linguistic structure is different in each case.

What is linguistic structure, and how do we determine it? In their written form, sentences like (1) to (4) appear as strings of words with a few punctuation marks. But it is easy to see that this is far too simple a view of sentence structure. The words of which a sentence is composed differ among themselves, and are related to one another in quite elaborate ways. In what follows, we will examine a few of the types of words, groups of words (phrases), and relations between words and phrases which make up syntactic and morphological structure. It is only in so far as we can clarify the structures composed of these elements that we can describe or explain any language.

Sentences and Clauses. Sentence (1) can be broken down into the two parts (5) and (6).

- (5) *keimah pei nangmah nih tipilpek awk ka si cu*
- (6) *ka sin i nangmah lehtuk na rat*

Each of (5) and (6) has a structure and meaning of its own, though they are also interrelated so as to compose the single sentence (1). Phrases like (5) and (6) may often function as sentences by themselves, and those that may not can be slightly reformulated to do so. This structure may be represented as in (a).



In diagram (a), the symbol S stands for a clause or sentence (a clause which is not part of any larger clause). The structure in (a) is represented indirectly by the comma which separates the two clauses in (1).

Words and Phrases. Usually a clause is composed of several words, and has its own internal structure. The core of a clause is a predicate, which may be accompanied by one or more arguments or adverbials. In the case of (6), the predicate is (7); (8) is an argument and (9) is an adverbial.

- (7) *na rat*
- (8) *nangmah lehtuk*

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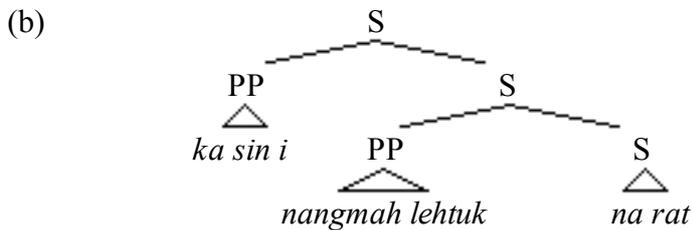
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(9) *ka sin i*

The structure of (6) may be represented as (b).



According to (b), (6) consists of a predicate (which is a minimal clause) which forms a larger clause together with the argument (8), which in turn forms a still larger clause with the adverbial (9).

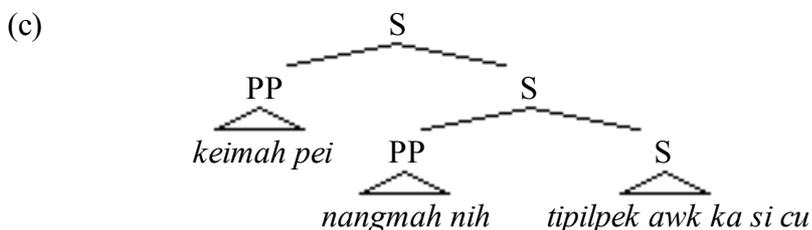
In the case of (5), the predicate is (10); (11) and (12) are both arguments.

(10) *tipilpek awk ka si cu*

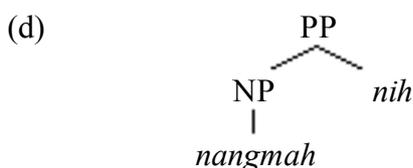
(11) *nangmah nih*

(12) *keimah pei*

The structure of (5) may then be represented as (c). At this level, the structure of (5) is the same as that of (6).



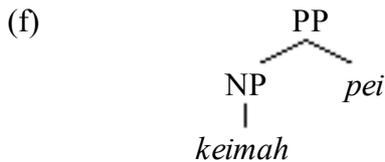
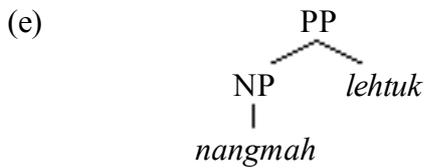
Postpositional phrases. The symbol PP which appears in (b) and (c) stands for postpositional phrase, that is a phrase whose head is a postposition. A postposition is analogous to a preposition in English grammar, but in Lai such a word comes at the end of its phrase rather than at the beginning. Both arguments and adverbials are often (but not always) PPs. There are four PPs in (5) and (6): (8), (9), (11) and (12). (11) may be represented as (d).



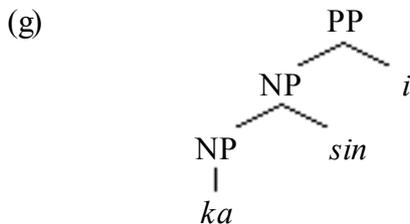
Here *nih* is a postposition which corresponds to the English preposition *by* in (13).

(13) *by you*

The rest of (d) is an NP (noun phrase), a phrase whose head is a noun. In this case the noun *nangmah* comprises the entire NP. In a very similar way, (8) and (12) may be represented as (e) and (f). They have the same structure as (d), but the postpositions *pei* and *lehtuk* have a different type of meaning from *nih*.



The structure of (9) is more complex, and may be represented as (g).



In this case the NP has additional structure: its head noun is *sin*, which is accompanied by a second NP *ka*. (9) corresponds to English (14), which has the simpler structure of (d), (e) and (f).

(14) *to me*

The Lai PP (9) might correspond more closely to (15), but it is not idiomatic English in this context.

(15) *?in my direction*

Predicates. The predicate (7) consists of two parts, but it may be unclear how they are related. The head is the verb *rat*, but the remainder *na* is neither an argument nor an adverbial. I argued in 'Agreement in Lai' that it is an agreement marker attached to the verb. *Na* appears if (and only if) the subject is second person singular. In (6) the subject is the PP (8). Even though *na* is normally written as a separate word, it is in a sense part of the verb, and (7) should be represented as (h).



Here the verb stands alone as predicate, and *na* has no independent syntactic status.

The predicate (10) is more complex than (7); it can be broken down into two parts.

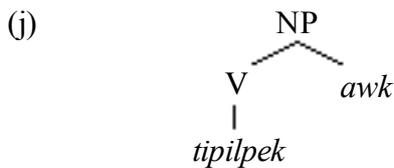
(16) *tipilpek awk*

(17) *ka si cu*

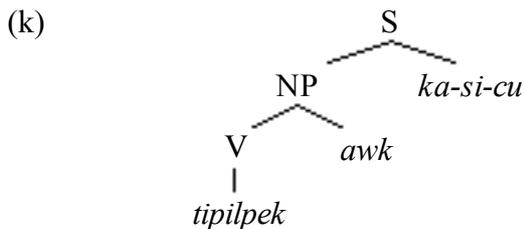
(17) is similar to (7) and may be represented as (i).



The verb here is *si*, with the agreement marker *ka* and a second marker *cu* which follows the verb. (16) is harder to analyze, but I think it should be represented as (j).



That is, *awk* (like *sin* in (11)) is a kind of noun, which combines with a verb to form an NP. The structure of (10) will then be (k).



If (k) is correct, there is again a difference between (10) and the corresponding English (18).

(18) *(I) need to be baptized (by you)*

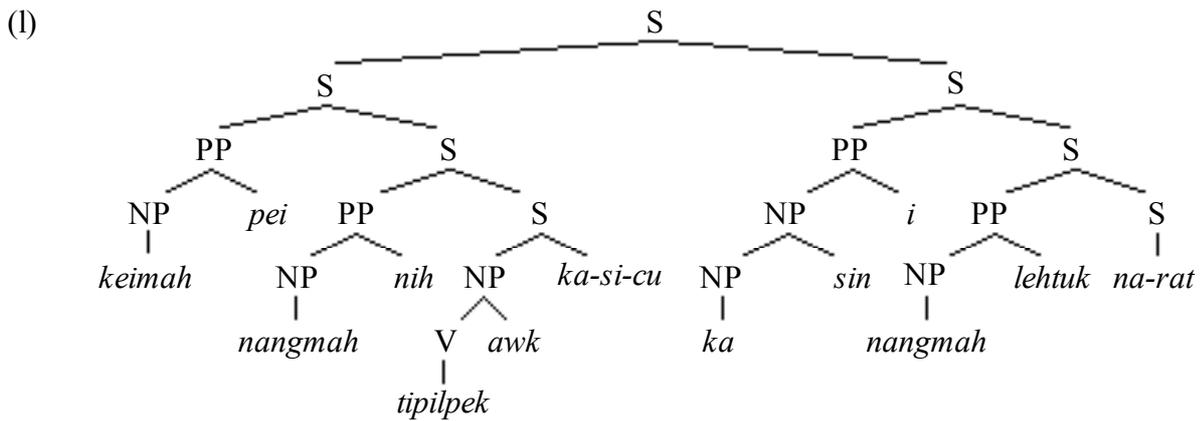
In (18), *need* is a verb and there is a passive under it: *to be baptized*. The Lai structure in (10) corresponds more closely to the (non-idiomatic) English (19).

(19) *?(I) am in need of baptizing (by you)*

In (19) *need* is a noun and parallel to Lai *awk*.

Verbs. In (10), the syntactic head verb is *si*, but the verb *tipilpek* is more salient in terms of the meaning. The PP (11) is the semantic subject of *tipilpek* rather than of *si*, and the PP (12) is the semantic object of *tipilpek* as well as the subject of *si*. (12) is also the semantic subject of *awk* even though it is syntactically a noun. In the syntactic structure, the main verb is *si*, with *awk* dependent on it, and *tipilpek* in turn dependent on *awk*. But semantically *tipilpek* is the main verb, with *awk* modifying it, and *si* serving only to allow *awk* to be used as a predicate. This is parallel to the relations between *am*, *in need of* and *baptizing* in (19).

Putting together (a) through (k), our representation of sentence (1), looks like (l).



(1) shows the words and phrases, together with the relationships among them, which make up the linguistic structure of (1) according to this analysis. It remains to argue that this structure is the correct one by considering possible alternatives.

Agreement. On the other hand, (1) does not exhaust the syntactic structure of (1); there are relations among its components which are not represented there. The most obvious case is agreement, already mentioned in the discussion of the predicates (7) and (10). The agreement markers *na* and *ka* are related to the syntactic subjects of each of the clauses (5) and (6).

(5) *keimah pei nangmah nih tipilpek awk ka si cu*

(6) *ka sin i nangmah lehtuk na rat*

If the subject of *si* in (5) is *keimah*, then *ka* must appear, and if the subject of *rat* in (6) is *nangmah*, then *na* must appear, as part of the verbs. This is so even though the verbs are located in an independent part of the syntactic structure from their subjects. Though it is not illustrated directly in (1), Lai also has agreement between verbs and their objects.

Beginning in 'Clitic Climbing in Lai', I adopted an analysis of agreement which has the virtue of representing it as part of the syntactic structure. That analysis is rather abstract and will not be discussed again here; but it helps to explain why some Lai verbs show agreement but others do not. Sentence (1) contains an example of a Lai verb (*tipilpek*) which does not show agreement. As I discovered during the first Workshop, it is possible to have agreement (full or partial) in this case as well.

(20) *Keimah cu nangmah nih tipil na ka pek awk ka si.*

(21) *Keimah cu nangmah nih tipil na pek awk ka si.*

(22) **Keimah cu nangmah nih tipil ka pek awk ka si.*

(23) *Keimah cu nangmah nih tipilpek awk ka si.*

In (20) the verb *tipil na ka pek* agrees with both its subject and object; in (21) the verb *tipil na pek* agrees only with its subject. (22) is impossible because *ka* not preceded by another agreement marker is interpreted as marking subject rather than object agreement (and therefore conflicts with

the subject *nangmah*). Some Lai speakers do not accept partial agreement as in (21), and a complete account of when agreement is required, allowed or prohibited in Lai remains to be given.

Exclamations. A second case is the relation between the postposition *pei* and the marker *cu* which appears on the verb in (5).

(5) *Keimah pei nangmah nih tipilpek awk ka si cu.*

(24) *Keimah cu nangmah nih tipilpek awk ka si cu.*

(25) **Keimah pei nangmah nih tipilpek awk ka si.*

If *pei* appears as in (5) then *cu* must accompany the verb and (25) is bad in comparison with (23); but this dependency goes in only one direction, since *cu* may appear without *pei* as in (24). The postposition *pei* contrasts the NP to which it attaches, and *cu* marks an exclamation. This may in fact account for the dependency.

(6) is also an exclamation; here the marker is the use of the verb form *rat* instead of *ra*, though *cu* can be added.

(6) *Ka sin i nangmah lehtuk na rat.*

(26) *Ka sin i nangmah lehtuk na rat cu.*

(27) *?Ka sin i nangmah cu na rat.*

(28) *Ka sinah nangmah lehtuk na ra.*

Though *lehtuk* resembles *pei* in contrasting the NP to which it attaches, it does not seem to require an exclamation marker; thus (28) is acceptable in comparison with (25). But some speakers feel that the use of *rat* without a contrastive postposition is dubious, as in (27).

I and ah. There may also be a dependency between the postpositions *i* and *ah* in these examples and *ra* versus *rat*.

(29) **Ka sin i nangmah lehtuk na ra.*

(30) *Ka sinah cu lehtuk na rat.*

(31) *Ka sinah nangmah lehtuk na rat.*

There is no obvious difference in meaning between *ka sin i* and *ka sinah*; and they have the same syntactic structure (g) in spite of *sinah* being often written as a single word. Some speakers feel that the use of *i* is restricted to the context of verb forms like *rat*, thus (29) is unacceptable in comparison with (28). Others seem to regard the two postpositions as merely stylistic variants.

The postpositions *pei* and *lehtuk* differ in that the former appears only in exclamations while the latter is not so restricted. They also differ in the order they take with respect to *nih*.

(32) *Keimah cu nangmah nih pei tipilpek awk ka si cu.*

(33) *Keimah cu nangmah lehtuk nih tipilpek awk ka si cu.*

(34) **Keimah cu nangmah pei nih tipilpek awk ka si cu.*

(35) **Keimah cu nangmah nih lehtuk tipilpek awk ka si cu.*

That is, when combined with *nih*, *pei* must follow but *lehtuk* must precede. It is unclear why this should be so.

Passives. An interesting feature of (5) is that the syntactic subject of the verb *ka si cu* (with which it must agree) is the semantic object of the verb *tipilpek* (with which it may but need not agree). Thus it resembles Lai passive sentences as discussed in 'Passive and Clefts in Lai', which also contain two verbs, one of them being a form of *si*.

(36) *Keimah cu nangmah nih tipilpek ka si.*

The only difference between (23) and (36) is the absence of *awk* in the latter. Not every Lai speaker accepts passives like (36), but those who do do not allow agreement of any sort on *tipilpek*.

(37) **Keimah cu nangmah nih tipil na ka pek ka si.*

(38) **Keimah cu nangmah nih tipil na pek ka si.*

(39) **Keimah cu nangmah nih tipil ka pek ka si.*

Awk. The Lai word *awk* is itself quite interesting syntactically. As represented in (k) it may be characterized as an auxiliary noun. As an auxiliary it requires a verbal complement, and as a predicate noun it must appear as the complement of *si*. English does not have auxiliary predicates which are syntactically nouns, though other languages (for example Japanese) do. A further feature of interest is that the syntactic subject of *si* may be an argument of the verbal complement or may be independent.

(40) *Tipil na ka pek awk ka si.*

(41) *Tipil na ka pek awk na si.*

(42) *Tipil na ka pek awk a si.*

(40) to (42) differ in focus, but not in basic meaning; some speakers do not accept (41). As noted in the discussion of (20) (of which (40) is a part), agreement is optional on *tipilpek*.

(43) *Tipil na pek awk na si.*

(44) *Tipilpek awk na si.*

(45) *Tipil na pek awk a si.*

(46) *Tipilpek awk a si.*

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But omission of agreement in (41) or (42) affects the meaning: (43) to (46) contain no reference to the first person singular.

Verb Stem Alternation. The verb form *rat* as opposed to *ra* was noted above as marking an exclamation. But this form is used in a variety of other situations which do not involve exclamation.

- (47) *Ka sinah rat na duh.*
- (48) *Ka sinah na rat duh.*
- (49) *Ka sinah na ratnak sullam cu zeidah a si?*
- (50) *Ka sinah a rami cu ahodah a si?*
- (51) *Ka sinah na rat caah, ka lawm tuk.*
- (52) *Ka sinah na rat ahcun, ka lawm tuk ko hnga.*
- (53) *Ka sinah na hawipa na ratter.*
- (54) *Ka sinah na hawipa na ratpi.*

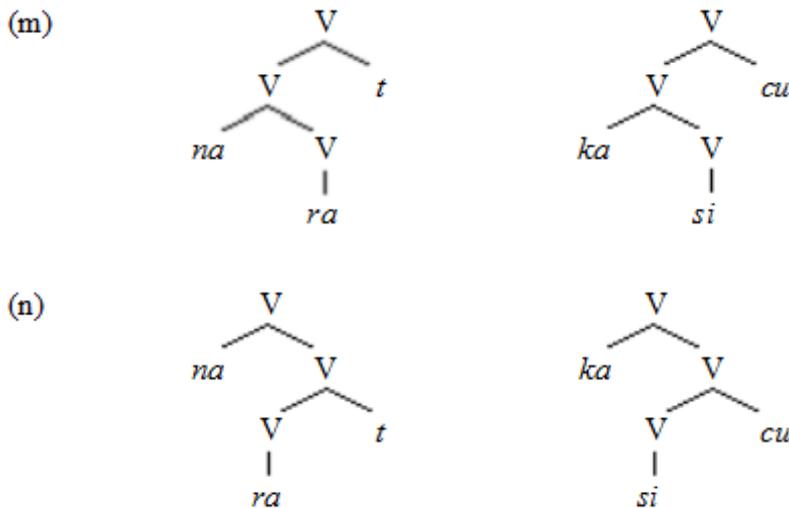
Rat must be used in an infinitive complement as in (47); this construction is discussed in 'Clitic Climbing in Lai'. It must be used in a relative clause formed on an adverbial as in (49), though not in one formed on the subject as in (50). It must be used in adverbial clauses like those in (51) and (52). Finally, it must be used with transitivity (or 'valence-increasing') suffixes as in (53) and (54). See the discussion of the causative suffix *-ter* in 'Causatives and Clause Union in Lai'.

The distribution observed in (47) through (54) has been explained by F. K. Lehman in 'Relative Clauses in Lai Chin' on the assumption that *rat* is (or was at one time) a nominalized form of *ra*. Infinitive complements as in (47) are plausibly nominalized; the transitivity suffixes *-ter* and *-pi* in (53) and (54) reflect the same original phenomenon, with sentences like (48) perhaps in transition at the present time. Some speakers feel that sentences like (48) are 'incomplete' out of context, while others accept them freely. Conjunctions like *caah* or *ahcun* in (51) and (52) might also plausibly require their clause complements to be nominalized. A major problem for this proposal is the failure of *rat* to appear in relative clauses like (50). If it is on the right track however, the use of *rat* as an exclamation marker can be understood as a special application of nominalization. And it may help account for the appearance of *cu* as an exclamation marker. Not all Lai intransitive verbs have a distinct nominalized form. *Si* does not, but *cu* (if it is in fact the discourse demonstrative *cu*) should be attached to a noun phrase and thus may serve to nominalize a finite verb. Note that it cannot be attached to *ra*; (55) shows a clear contrast with (26).

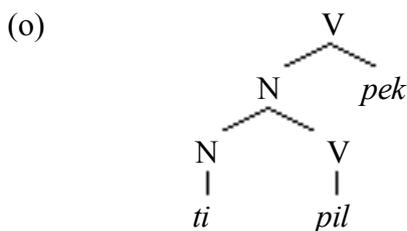
- (55) **Ka sinah nangmah lehtuk na ra cu.*

Verb Morphology. We left off our analysis with verbs such as *na rat* in (7) or *ka si cu* in (10) being syntactic units, despite usually being written as if they were two or three separate words. But they do have internal morphological structure. That is, *na rat* consists of a verb stem *ra* 'come' followed by the nominalizing suffix *-t* and preceded by the subject agreement marker *na*. *Ka si cu*

consists of a verb stem *si* 'be' followed by the nominalizing suffix *cu* and preceded by the subject agreement marker *ka*. It is not clear what (if any) further structure should be assumed; that is whether it should be as in (m) or as in (n).



More complex morphological structure is seen in the verb *tipilpek* 'baptize'. *Tipilpek* is a verb stem like *ra* or *si* with respect to agreement, but it has further internal structure. *Pek* 'give' is itself an independent verb, and *tipil* 'baptism' looks like an incorporated noun which in turn consists of the independent noun *ti* 'water' and *pil* 'sink'. *Tipilpek* then has the structure in (o).



That (o) is word-internal (that is, morphological and not syntactic) structure is suggested by several things. *Ti* cannot be a syntactic argument of *pil*; an adverbial noun like *chung* is required to relate them.

(56) *Tilawng cu ti chungah pil.*

(57) *ti chung i pil*

Also, *pil* is an intransitive verb which requires the causative suffix to be used transitively.

(58) *Tilawng cu ti chungah ka pilter.*

(59) *ti chung i pilter*

Tipilpek is a transitive verb which corresponds to the intransitive *tipilin* 'be baptized'. Though *tipil* seems to be a semantic argument of *pek* or *in* 'receive' in these compounds, it cannot be topicalized or otherwise syntactically modified.

(60) **Tipil cu na ka pek.*

(61) **Hi tipil hi ka in.*

Tipil is not in fact the independent Lai noun meaning 'baptism', which is either *tipilpeknak* or *tipilinnak*, derived from the verbs. That agreement markers are infixed with compound verbs like these is an additional point in favor of the morphological status of agreement.

Lai morphology is interestingly different from English with these words. English *baptize* is a borrowing from Greek without internal morphological structure, and the noun *baptism* is derived from it just as in Lai. *Tipilin* must be translated as an English passive since *baptize* is inherently transitive; its presence may account for the resistance of some Lai speakers to passives like (36). But sentences like (62) are not passives and do not allow an agent phrase with *nih*.

(62) *Tipil ka in.*

(63) **Nangmah nih tipil ka in.*

(64) *Nangmah in tipil ka in.*

Note also that English *sink*, unlike Lai *pil*, can be used either transitively or intransitively with no morphological difference.

(65) *The boat sank.* cf. (56)

(66) *I sank the boat.* cf. (58)

In the preceding pages, we have explored a few aspects of syntax and morphology as they appear in Lai sentence (1). While we have only scratched the surface of the complex grammar of this language, it may be appropriate to observe that the goal of linguistic analysis is not confined to the description and explanation of any particular language, no matter how complex or rich it may be. Human language is a manifestation of human nature and the human mind. This nature is variable, as we know from the variety of cultures and societies to be found in the world, as well as from the variety of languages. But as we know equally well from the ability of a Lai child brought up in Japan to learn Japanese, or the equal ability of a Japanese child brought up in Chin State to learn Lai, there is a biological capacity for language common to all human beings. It is as important to investigate the similarities among languages as the differences between them. The work of describing and explaining Lai should be of value not only to Lai people, but to everyone who wishes to understand human nature.

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Bertolt Brecht

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Bertolt Brecht's *The Life of Galileo*: A Biographical Review

Writing a Biography for a Purpose – *The Life of Galileo* by Brecht

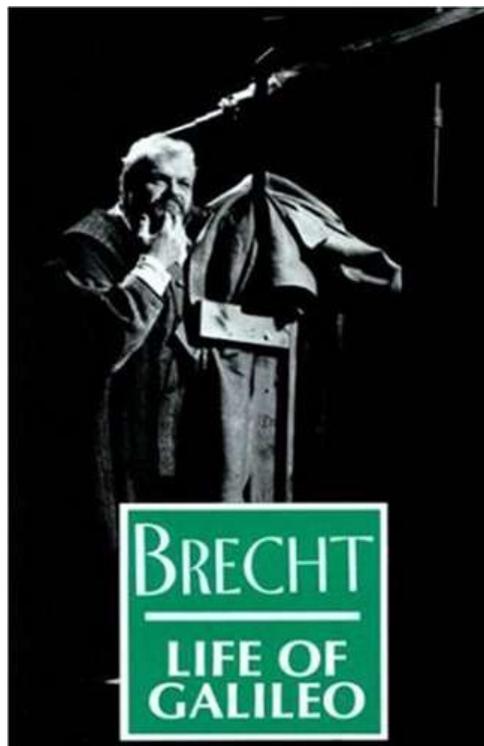
Writing a biography is a great art. The term ‘biography’ was first used by Dryden in 1683. He defined it as ‘the history of particular men’s lives’. The format of biographical writing is still indeterminate. *The Oxford Dictionary* defines it as ‘history of the lives of individual men as a branch of literature’.

Many people have given their own definition to biography. The German dramatist Bertolt Brecht first wrote his biographical play, *The Life of Galileo*, on the eve of the Second World War, as concerns over authoritarianism were rife among the German Left. But Brecht significantly rewrote the play two more times as the War raised questions not only about the dangers of authority, but also the human cost of scientific knowledge in the wake of the atomic bomb.

The Life of Galileo is the first of major plays Brecht wrote in the hope of securing performances in important theatres of the western world. It is a historical play, which deals with the problem of the scientist’s social responsibility.

The writer of this article has relied on the translation of the play by Desmond I. Vesey, which is edited for students by A. G. Stock.

Back ground of the play



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The play stays generally faithful to Galileo's science and timeline, but takes significant liberties with his personal life. Galileo Galilei is one of the great virtuosos of science. He made pioneering observations in astronomy, physics, mathematics, and scientific philosophy. But in the centuries since his death in 1642, Galileo has become a symbol of heroism and heresy – the very archetype of the struggle between science and faith, and the dangers inherent in the pursuit of truth.

Galileo used a telescope, observed the moons of Jupiter, advocated for the heliocentric model, observed sun spots, investigated buoyancy, and wrote on physics. He visited the Vatican twice to defend his work, the second time being made to recant his views, and being confined to house arrest thereafter.

Freedom with the Life Story

One significant liberty that is taken is the treatment of Galileo's daughter Virginia Gamba, who, rather than becoming engaged, was considered unmarriageable by her father and confined to a convent from the age of thirteen, and, further she died of dysentery shortly after her father's recantation. However, Galileo was close with Virginia, and they corresponded extensively.

Condemnation of Scientific Evidence – Subversive Ideas Spread!

Galileo, the sixteenth Century astronomer uses the telescope to establish Copernicus's heliocentric model of the universe. The philosophers at the Medici court refuse to accept his evidence; so do the monks at the *Collegium Romanum*. However, Clavius, the papal astronomer has to admit its truth. Yet the Holy Office denounces the idea of a solar system as heretical on the fear of a collapse in the existing socio, economic and religious orders. So Galileo is forced to keep off astronomy for eight years. His subversive ideas begin to spread.

In 1633, the Medici delivers Galileo to the Inquisition. Pope Urban VIII, himself a mathematician, refuses to protect him. Consequently, Galileo is scared into publicly recanting his theories. For the rest of his life, Galileo lives privately with his daughter, writing the *Discorsi* under the watchful eye of the Church. Nevertheless, he keeps back a copy, and Andrea, his former pupil is able to smuggle it out of the country.

Brecht's Views on Religion

Brecht holds the view that “Each man is free to embrace and profess the religion he would judge to be true according to the light of reason” (De Laubier, 1989: 34). One of the cardinal assertions of Christianity is that *Truth shall free you* (John 8:32). Brecht's play *The Life of Galileo* is about the condemnation of a scientific truth of Galileo's astronomical findings. The Inquisitor cautions the Pope, “what would happen if all these people, so weak in the flesh and

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inclined towards every excess were to believe only in their own common sense which this mad man declares to be the sole court of appeal!” (LG, 1964: p.76).

The questions related to faith are always in conflict with Brecht’s outlook on the religion. He finds religious tension in the society that causes unnecessary conflict and leads even to war among men and nations. Brecht observes that the institutionalized religion is so powerful that it overpowers the individual’s faith and freedom. It also shakes hand with the rich and the ruling class, neglecting the weak and the poor. His approach is a sarcastic appraisal of how the church fails the society.

Galileo’s Commitment to Knowledge

Galileo, with his improved telescope, went to Rome and showed it to the dignitaries of the Catholic Church with great success and honour. Though he had accepted the Copernican theory years earlier, he kept quiet about it for fear of ridicule rather than persecution. He published a treatise in Rome on the spots on the sun, which the Church found dangerous. Yet “the Church hesitated to give a decision, all the more because its official astronomer agreed with Galileo” (LG, 1964: p.105). The Church warned Galileo this time.

The Church declared the doctrine of Copernicus an anti-religion in 1616. Galileo was asked to promise not to hold, teach, or defend it. Nevertheless, Galileo, realizing the social responsibility of himself as a scientist published *A dialogue on the two Principal systems of the Universe* in a debate form, in 1632. In fact, he defended Copernican theory, which gained for him a widespread feeling that the Church has gone too far in hampering the advance of knowledge.

The Church authority suppressed Galileo’s book and Inquisition called him to Rome in 1633. He was warned of being tortured and burned alive if he persisted in his view. This is what the Church has done to those convicted as heretics in the history. However, Galileo gained international acceptance, which made the Church authorities too reluctant to make a decision on him. Hence, they showed him the instruments of torture to make him recant.

Relationship between the Man of Science and the Public: Compulsion to Survive

Looking back, Brecht brings out the relation between man of science and the public through Galileo’s action. The Catholic Church is the most powerful authority of both civil and religious in the history. In those days, the Church alone can decide what is to be made known as truth to the people, even in a scientist’s research findings. Thus, Brecht explains the power of the church and its interference in every sphere of life.

Brecht presents Galileo, a man who struggles between the scientist’s passion for truth and his compulsion to survive. This is a tension created by the church interfering in individual’s freedom. Brecht’s presentation of his characters, especially Galileo, is plausible and according to his reading of human nature.

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In scene 6, there is a significant dialogue between Galileo and Cardinal Bellarmin, which suggests that Galileo may go on working if he agrees that what is true in physics should not be called true in fact:

Galileo: That means that all further scientific research ...
Bellarmin: Is well assured, Signor Galilei. And that in conformity with the Church's view that we cannot know, but we may research. You are at liberty to expound even this teaching through mathematical hypothesis (LG, 1964:50).

This is a robbery of a scientist's work and its practical meaning by the authority of the Church. It limits any research findings in conformity with the Church's view and if one does not agree; must not work. Brecht condemns such an attitude of the church in the words of Andrea in scene 11: "he who does not know the truth is merely an idiot, but he who knows it a lie, is a criminal" (LG, 1964: p.97).

Truth and Falsehood

Brecht wants to make it clear to his audience that the truth is with Galileo and the Church, which has to propagate the truth and goodness, is on the side of falsehood. Brecht's intention is that his audience must understand that the power of the opponent lies in the people's faith. Because people believe, what the church says, as the truth. As long as people have such a blind faith, they may not find the truth. Hence, he makes mockery of it as, "Speak, Speak! The habit, you wear, gives you the right to say whatever you wish" (LG, 1964: p.53). When someone like Galileo contradicts the accepted belief system or comments like Andrea in scene 11, "I cannot wait any longer they are killing the truth" (LG, 1964: p.81) the conflict arises.

Power to Control

Brecht reasons out that truth can stand alone; and falsehood is dependent (sc 10). The Inquisitor finds various reasons to convince the Pope to punish Galileo, lest those who are with their childlike faith in the word of God should go astray. He brings in the theories of scepticism and barbarianism, and affirms his fear of people reposing faith in science and machines instead of in God. This is the magnitude of the disturbances caused by Galileo's new knowledge.

In the words of the Inquisitor lies the fear of the Church authority losing its control over the people. Due to the conflict within the Church authorities, they take a long time for making a decision. The Inquisitor in his long speech in scene 10 refers to Galileo as "mad man", "wicked man" and "worm" (p.77). This shows his personal anger towards Galileo and the unrest within himself.

Despise of Common Man's Language – A Sign of Deep Malady

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Galileo is despised for using common people's language: "This wicked man knows what he is doing when he writes his astronomical works, not in Latin, but in the language of the fishwives and wool merchants" (LG, 1964: p.77). It is ironical of the Inquisitor speaking for the sake of the simple people's faith and despising their own language. Brecht uses it to show that Jesus had chosen his disciples among the common rustic people from the seashore and countryside (Mt 10:2-4, Lk 6: 14-16). However, the Church is not on their side.

Brecht gives Signora Sarti and Galileo's own daughter Virginia as examples of what power the Church exercises over simple devout minds. Other such touches fill in the picture of a changing world and explain the Church's fear of change. Brecht makes it clear that the Church, which is the most powerful authority in the world in Galileo's time, is wrong in its principles of astronomy. It is interested in keeping the people submissive and content with the social order and thereby suppressing the *subversive* ideas.

Interpreting a Religious Text in the Light of Discoveries of Science

Brecht gives a picture of Galileo right from the beginning. His theory of *heliocentric cosmos* (sun-centred universe) does not contradict the Bible or Christian dogma, but the way it is being interpreted at the time. Galileo distinguishes between science and the Bible, which is essential to his theories. His letter to Christina, the Grand Duchess explains the need of the Church to interpret the Bible in the light of the discoveries based on Copernican theories. The life of Galileo teaches a lesson to the church or any religion that works for the salvation of humankind must interpret the word of God according to the signs of the times.

Views on War

The nature of war in *The Life of Galileo* is the conflict between the world of science and the world of faith. The astronomical findings of Galileo create a tension in the scientific certainties of his time, which reflects in the religious sphere too. Hence, Galileo as an individual is forced to face the opposing systems of science, religion and the politics that is linked with religion.

The Life of Galileo takes into account the conflicting war of science with religion and society. This war of conflict lasted for centuries starting from Aristarchus of Somos, a great astronomer of the third century B.C. He pointed out that the pattern would be much simpler if the sun were the fixed centre and the earth, one of the planets going round it (LG, 1964: p.100). However, Aristotle's view of earth-centred universe was accepted and established. After Aristotle, Ptolemy of Alexandria wrote an account of the completely earth-centred design, which was known as the Ptolemaic Universe.

Nicolas Copernicus (1473-1543), a devout Catholic priest and astronomer, made an accurate calendar by calculating the planets whirling round a fixed sun. The Church adopted this calendar in 1582. Later in 1616, while the Church declared it was against religion to profess that

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the sun stood still and the earth moved, it still used the new calendar based on Copernican calculations.

Conflict between Theories

The conflict arose between two different theories: the Ptolemaic theory of Earth-centred Universe and Copernican theory of Sun-centred Universe. Brecht takes his play back to a time when everyone accepted the Ptolemaic theory, and the Copernican theory was beginning to penetrate a few minds. The conflict was with the learned and the people in established positions in society. They were not able to accept the new idea that made nonsense of their qualifications and questioned the social order.

The play reflects Brecht's Marxist view of every individual working for the good of all humanity. However, it is far more a study of history's course depending on individual responsibility. Galileo fully devoted himself to the search for truth at any cost. He pursued research without fully examining its implications on the general humanity. Brecht found this idea relevant to his own age.

Galileo – The Ultimate Reason for Atomic Bomb? The Tragedy of Knowledge for Knowledge's Sake

Brecht ultimately portrays Galileo as the initial instigator of the horrors associated with the atomic bomb. Galileo denounces himself in the play's final scenes because he has pursued knowledge for its own sake, not for the good of humanity. Pursuing truth outside the realm of human needs led to the split between science and society that according to Brecht culminated in the dropping of the bomb. Brecht, as is his style, does not answer the problem completely but leaves that to the reader.

In the original version of Galileo, Brecht portrayed him as a man who cunningly outwits Inquisition in order to pursue his research. However, in 1945, a modern tragedy occurred because of scientific progress and forced Brecht to rethink the theme of his work. He revised the play's ending after the bombing of Hiroshima. Brecht transforms Galileo into a weak man, who recants the truth at the mere sight of the torture instruments.

Surrender to Capitalism – Oppressive Structures

In *The Life of Galileo*, the Marxist theory and Communist practice are not referred to explicitly, though messages about the inequalities of the Capitalist world are intended. The institutions of oppressors, torturers, police, and guards are seen as the phenomena of fascism, while Galileo is presented as a role model for an oppositional scientist in Nazi Germany. He does not allow the compromises made with the authorities paralyze his research. Brecht makes an implicit dramatization of the new knowledge to stand for Marxism and Soviet Communism and the opposing elements of vested interests to the progressive social force of the time, which is Capitalism.

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The oppressive structures stand hand in hand to victimize the common people. In scene 8, Ludovico betrothed to Virginia breaks off the engagement because Galileo does not renounce his subversive studies. "Ludovico is a landlord and counts on the authority of religion to keep his peasants submissive" (LG, 1964: p.110). Brecht makes it clear how the oppressor - the Church - has used direct and indirect means to make Galileo submissive. It is also an indication that the Church is with the landowners who exploit the peasants by keeping them in perpetual submission.

Galileo's discoveries challenge both the scientific and religious certainties of his time. Therefore, the men of learning found it making nonsense of their qualifications, which they mastered from the universities. Their social status and the existing social order stood challenged. A number of unobtrusive touches keep one reminded of the common peoples' interests. For example, the price of milk turns into a symbol of the hard life of the poor under their rulers. Brecht suggests, "Milk would be cheaper if the people were less submissive" (LG, 1964: p.110).

Andrea's reminder to Galileo that the milkman has to be paid (LG, 1964: p.1) is simultaneously a reminder to the Marxist that characteristically human preoccupations are not in the habit of creating wealth but rather the driving forces of life. To Galileo it meant food and books. Galileo seems quite aware of his inability to pay the milkman. His dependence upon the powers for milk and money will eventually cost him his freedom. Galileo retorts that freedom seems to be good business.

The Church resembles the Nazi Government in Germany, which suppresses free comment and drives scientists and scholars to emigrate. All his life Brecht was against authorities who tried to control the people's freedom of opinion.

Observations

The title of the play may be slightly misleading, for the play, in fact, is not a biography of Galileo at all. It is a play that looks at the conflicts between dogma and the scientific method, using the story of Galileo as a starting point. Originally, the play had fifteen scenes, but the 1947 English version has only thirteen scenes. Brecht translated the verses for the 1957 Berlin production.

Brecht's writings show a profound influence from many diverse sources. He was influenced by the modern literary, dramatic, scientific, and philosophic trends of the time. He adopted elements of Greek tragedy in this play. He found inspiration in other German playwrights, notably Buchner and Wedekind, and enjoyed the Bavarian folk play. He had a phenomenal ability to take elements from these seemingly incompatible sources, combine them and convert them into his own works.

Brecht was very much influenced by Marxist ideology since 1926. He supported in his writings the political views of Karl Marx. His Epic theatre was essentially 'Marxian Theatre'.

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One may find evidence to this fact in many of his works during exile from Germany. His anti-Nazi views deprived Brecht of his German citizenship. Brecht showed great interest in *The Life of Galileo* as a case study pertaining to his own modern world. The play reflects his Marxist views in its theme of working for the good of all humanity.

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Tense and Aspect: A Pedagogical Linguistic Study

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A Dissertation Submitted to
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In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the
Award of the Degree of

**MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY IN ENGLISH
(English Language Teaching)**

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You are expected to contact the guide as early as possible and start preparing your dissertation.

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CERTIFICATE

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Place: Hyderabad

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Tense and Aspect: A Pedagogical Linguistic Study

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ABSTRACT

In this dissertation entitled “**Tense and Aspect: A Pedagogical Linguistic Study**” an attempt is made to find out the most insightful way of explaining and teaching the concepts of ‘tense’ and ‘aspect’ in English. The present research argues that the learners need to acquire a functional use of tenses and aspects which would aid them to communicate in English. As there are several views on tense and aspect, it is essential to find out which concept is more insightful and useful for the learners at under graduate level to learn tense and aspect with ease. The grammar aspect should not be taught in isolation, feeding the students with only rules without exposing them to the real situations. The teaching of grammatical categories should be functional and situational.

The study is carried out by taking the concepts of the three well known grammarians on tense and aspect. The concepts are taught to the learners over a period of time through various examples and pair based-tasks. The teaching was followed by a test which assessed the learners’ understanding on the items that have taught.

Chapter – 1

In this chapter time, tense, aspect and related categories are defined and illustrated. Tense express universe time i.e. past, present and future and if they are marked in verb form, the marking is called tense. Similarly when the event time is marked in a verb form it is Language in India www.languageinindia.com
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termed as aspect. It also throws light upon the morphology, the semantics and the discourse of tense and aspect.

Chapter – 2

The second chapter reviews the research carried out in the area of tense and aspect. This is done with the purpose of placing the present study in the map of ongoing research in the field of grammar. An attempt is made to draw theoretical support for the study by taking the analysis of tense and aspect by Quirk et al., Huddleston and Pullum, Zandvoort, Leech and Svartvik.

Chapter – 3

This chapter presents a detailed analysis of the ideas of Comrie, Halliday and Prakasam on tense and aspect. In Comrie's view, tense expresses the universe time i.e. present, past and future. On the other hand, aspect is a different ways of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation i.e. event, state and process. He discusses the concepts of absolute and relative tense and treats tense as a deictic category. Absolute tense relates the universe time to the moment of speech and relative tense relates the universe time to the time of some other situation. Here, the progressive and perfective aspects also discussed in detail. Halliday discusses that tense is carried by a logical structure. The verbal group is the constituent that functions as finite and predicator and it provides tenses forms to the sentence. To describe the tense from of a verbal group one must analyze the event time, speaking time and reference time. And he names the tense combination for a verbal group by considering the inverted order of the choices. Halliday doesn't recognize aspect as a category for English. Prakasam defines tense as a categorization of the relationship between the time of speech and the time of the process, whereas aspect referees to the state of the process completed (Perfective), not

completed (non-perfective). He assumes that the verb 'be' and 'have' carry tense and all other verbs carry aspect verb forms are distinguished along the axis of finiteness; and non-finite.

Chapter – 4

This chapter deals with the interpretation of the data and furnishes a detailed discussion of the teaching strategies which involved the teaching of tense and aspect as presented by Halliday, Comrie and Prakasam. This teaching was done over a period of one week and an end-test was administered to the learners to assess their understanding of the concepts that were taught. The response of the students and the findings of the study are presented. It discusses the implication for the teachers, pedagogical significance of the study and an overview of the study.

The present study is limited to only a group of 30 degree students of regional medium. The nature of the test conducted is very rudimentary. The study concludes with a positive note on the possibilities of further research in this area which may come up with some new ideas that would enable the learners to comprehend tense and aspect more clearly.

Chapter - 1

Introduction

1.0 Introduction

Chapter one discusses the concepts of time, tense and aspect. In this discussion time is viewed as a universal phenomenon. It has two facts: universe time and event time. An attempt is made to explain the morphology, semantics and discourse aspects of tense and aspect. It explains how tense work in natural languages like English, and how they interact with other temporal determiners or temporal adverbials. In modern English the traditional difference between shall and will has almost disappeared, and shall is not used very much at all, especially in American English shall is now only used with I and We, and often sounds formal and old-fashioned. People are more likely to say: I'll (=I will) be late and you'll (=you will) apologize immediately. 'No I Won't! In British English shall is still used with I and We in questions or when you want to make a suggestion or an offer: for example:

1. *What shall I wear to the party?*

1.1 Time and Tense

The word tense comes from Latin Tempus meaning 'time'. Time is often perceived as a continuum with three main divisions, past, present and future defined in relation to the time when the event is described. Tense locate a situation in relation to some other time (Such as speech time).

Therefore it is a category that signifies temporal deixis. Aspect on the other hand, is not concerned with relating a situation with some other time (i.e. it is non deictic), but rather characterizes different ways of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation (Comrie, 1976)

The difference between 'he is eating' and 'he was eating' is that of tense, since the is/was contrast signifies the difference between the two in relation to speech time. The difference between 'he ate bread' and 'he was eating bread', however, is one of aspect, since the difference is about how the action of eating is viewed by the speaker, the former views the situation in its entirety (external view) while the latter views the situation as consisting of phases (internal view) (Comrie, 1976)

1.2 The concept of Time

Time is universally conceived as a concept which is unidirectional, moving from left to right (Bull, 1960:50). This onward movement of time can be represented by one straight line.



Figure: 1 Unidirectional movement of time

This is the concept of time at the experiential level. At the level of contemplation, however, the time of the situation can be viewed in a bidirectional sequence.



Figure: 2 Bidirectional Sequence of time

In the sentence,

2. We are out dinner at eight last night.

The time has already elapsed away and we cannot eat out last night's dinner again, but we can still think about it in retrospect. That is to say, impossible though it is to live backwards in time, we can all the same recapitulate about the past events of our lives.

Similarly in the sentence

3. *We'll* have our dinner at nine tonight

The event will take place in the future and we cannot have the experience of eating our tonight's dinner before the event happens. But we can still think about it in anticipation. There is also a kind of event the time of which does not involve recapitulation in retrospect or in anticipation. In this case, the time of the event coincides with the moment of speaking.

4. We are eating our dinner now.

These observations enable us to have three main divisions of time: past, present and future.

This image of time can be presented in the following way:

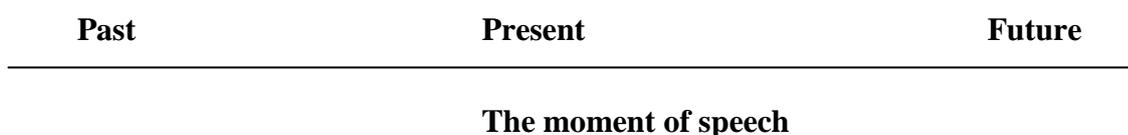


Figure: 3 Main Divisions of time

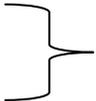
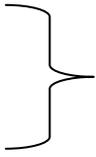
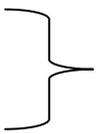
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All these divisions of time are related to a reference point, commonly known as the moment of coding or speech (Allen, 1966: 165, Comrie, 1976: 2). Thus past represents the time prior to the moment of speech; future stands for the time anterior to the moment of speech; and present indicates the time simultaneous with the moment of speech. Example:

- | | | |
|-------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------|
| 5. a) John Sang
b) John was singing |  | Past |
| 6. a) John is singing
b) John sings |  | Present |
| 7. a) John will sing
b) John will be singing |  | Future |

The concept of time analyzed above is extra linguistic, as it is not restricted to any specific language; it exists independently of the grammar of any particular language. It is common to all mankind and all languages and therefore universal (Quirk et al.1972:84).

According to Comrie, time can be represented as straight line, with the past represented conventionally to the left and the future to the right. The present moment will be represented by a point labeled ‘O’ on that line (Comrie, 1985; 2)



Figure: 4 Representation of time

This figure shows an adequate representation of time for the purpose of analyzing expression of time in natural language. Comrie (1985:14) states that “tenses locate situations either at the same time as the present moment, or prior to the present moment or subsequent to the present moment”.

This definition presents the logic of the space- time analogy, but in fact there is reason to question whether tense “locates situations”. If the situation in question is an event, then it is certainly true, for example, that a past-tense sentence like (8a) locates the cab ride prior to the time of speech, but do past tense state predications as in (8b), localize the situations that they denote in a similar way?

8. a) I took a taxi back to the hotel.

b) The taxi driver was a Latvian.

If a speaker makes the assertion in (8b) following that in (8a), no sensible hearer will respond by asking whether the taxi driver is still Latvian now.

1.3 The Concept of Tense

Tense indicates the time that the process of the verb takes place (now, earlier, later or present, past, future). It is grammaticalised expression of locating a state, an event or an action in time. There are three tenses: Past, Present, and Future.

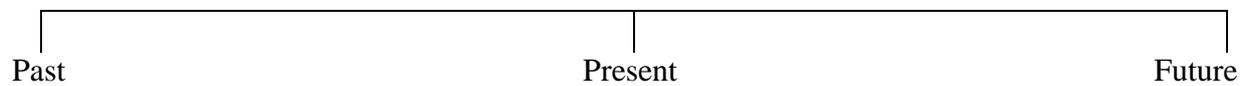


Figure: 5 Representation of Tense

1.3.1 Present Tense

- a. Present Continuous (or “Present progressive”) For example: 9. “I am listening”. This tense expresses actions in the present taking place as the speaker is speaking
- b. Simple Present (or simply “Present”), For example: 10. “I listen”. This tense expresses actions in the present on a habitual or repetitive basis, but not necessarily happening at the moment the speaker is speaking.
- c. Present Perfect Continuous: For example 11. “I have been listening”. This tense expresses actions in the present taking place at this precise moment and that have been occurring in the past.

1.3.2 Past Tense

- a. Simple Past: For example, 12. “I listened”. This is used to express a completed action that took place at a specific moment in the past.

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- b. Present Perfect or Perfect: For example: 13. “I have listened”. This is used to express a completed action that took place at a non – specific moment in the past. (The term “present perfect” refers to the auxiliary verb “to have” which is conjugated in its present form for this tense; nonetheless, the tense is a past tense expressing actions in the past and the shorter term perfect is therefore often considered preferable to avoid confusion with actual present tenses.
- c. Past Continuous (It is also known as the imperfect or past progressive) for example, 14. “I was listening”. This is used to express an incomplete action in the past (thus an “imperfect action, as opposed to a completed and therefore “perfect” action).
- d. Past Perfect or Plu Perfect: For example: 15. “I had listened”. This express an action completed prior to some other action in the past (often expressed by the simple past). The pluperfect is thus expressing an action locates before another action already located in past. For example: 16. “He realized he had lost his way, I was going to town because he had spoken to me”.
- e. Present Perfect Continuous: For example: 17. “I had been listening”. This is used to express that an event started at some time in the past and continuing to the present.
- f. Past Perfect Continuous: For example: 18. “I had been listening”. It is usually used with an explicit duration; this indicates that an event was ongoing for a specific time.
e.g. 19. “When Peter entered my room, I had been listening to music for half an hour.”

1.3.3 Future tense

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- a. Simple Future: For example: 20. "I shall/will listen". This is used to state that an event will occur in the future, or that the speaker intends to perform some action later.
- b. Future Continuous: For example: 21. "I shall/will be listening". This is used to express an ongoing event that has not yet been initiated.
- c. Future Perfect: For example 22. "I shall/will have listened". This indicates an action which will occur before a specific moment in future or before another action located in future. Normally two actions are expressed, and one of them will be expressed in the past. (e.g. "I will know the tune next week because I will have listened to it".)
- d. Future Perfect Continuous or future imperfect: For example 23. "I shall /will have been listening." This indicates an ongoing action that occurs in the future before some other event expressed in the future, "I am going to listen" is a construction using "be going to" as an auxiliary. It is referred to as 'going to' future or immediate future and has the same sense as the simple future, sometimes with an implication of immediacy. By varying the tense of the auxiliary "to go", various other meanings can be achieved, i.e. I am going to be listening (future continuous), I was going to listen (conditional perfect continuous).

1.3.4 Conditional tense

- a. Present Conditional or simply conditional: For example: 24, "I would listen". This is used to express that an event would occur in the future in the past, or that the speaker intended to perform some action.

- b. Present Continuous Conditional: For example: 25. "I would be listening". This is used to express an ongoing event that had not yet been initiated.
- c. Conditional Perfect: For example: 26. "I would be listened". This indicates that an action would occur after some other event.
- d. Conditional Perfect Continuous: For example: 27. "I would have been listening". This is used to express an ongoing action that would occur in the future in the past, after some other event.

Tense changes involve a change in the form of the verb, e.g. "Walk/Walked". Future events and possibilities are expressed in English by using adverbs and modal auxiliaries.

Example:

28. "The train leaves soon."

29. "The train will leave at nine."

There are various ways of indicating futurity in English. Example:

30. 'They will arrive next week'.

31. They are going to arrive next week'.

32. "They are arriving next week'.

Or simply,

33. 'They arrive next week'.

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Formally, 'will' and 'shall' behave like other modal auxiliary verbs and so they have been classified under modality rather than tense.

In English, tense often anchors an event to present or past time. However, present tense combine with simple aspect also expresses plain, 'timeless' facts (The world is round') and habitual actions ("she jogs every morning").

To sum up, there are three basic tenses: past, present and future. Each of these tenses has four possible aspects. Simple, progressive (also called continuous), perfect and perfect progressive. That makes total twelve tense- aspect combinations, which some people count as twelve tenses.

English has a set of "modal auxiliary verbs" and "modal like verbs" that are combined with other verbs to give a number of shading to the basic meaning; they show features like probability and obligation. The use of these modal verbs is not generally called a distinct tense. Some linguists claim that English has no true future tense. According to some grammarians there is conditional tense formed with the modal auxiliary would. For instance, at some point in time, Robin made a statement about the future:

34. "I am going to attend college after I graduate".

Now some one else will tell us that Robin said he would attend college after he graduated.

This sentence uses the modal auxiliary verb "would". It is not one of the named tenses. The word 'should' is a modal auxiliary verb and like other modal auxiliaries, it is used with an infinitive (without the particle to.)

This infinitive can be either the ordinary infinitive (the base form of the verb) or the perfect infinitive which is formed with the infinitive have and a past participle. Perfect

infinitive is used to speak of actions that have completed, which are generally past actions. For example, the sentence, “I should have done this”, uses the modal auxiliary ‘should’ with the perfect infinitive have done.

According to (Comrie, 1976:2) there are two kinds of tense: Absolute and relative tense. Comrie defined tense as a category which relates the universe time to the moment of speech. He terms it absolute tense. Besides it, he talks of another kind of tense, called relative tense which, instead of relating the universe time to the moment of speech, relates the universe time to the time of some sentences, the tenses of the participle constructions depend upon the tenses of the finite verbs:

35 a) When walking down the road, I often meet Harsha

b) When walking down the road, I often met Harsha

36 a) Having met Harsha earlier, I don’t need to see him again

b) Having met Harsha earlier, I did not need to see him again

In the first pair of sentence, the same present participle involves present tense in (35a) and past tense in (35b), as the finite verb ‘meet’ in (35a) is in the present, whereas the finite verb ‘met’ in (35b) is in the past. Similarly the perfect participle “having met” is in the present in (36a), whose finite verb “do” is in the present, and in the past in (36a), whose finite verb did is in the past. In English, the finite verbs take absolute tense and non-finite verbs use relative tense.

Hornstein (1977) develops a theory of tense within the Reichenbachian framework which postulates three theoretical entities. S (the moment of speech), R (a reference point), and E (the moment of event.). The key idea is that certain linear orderings of the three time points get grammatical zed into the six basic tense of English. The following is the list of basic tense structures:

37a. Simple past e.g. I did

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- b. Past Perfect e.g. I had done
- c. Simple present e.g. I do
- d. Present perfect e.g. I have done
- e. Simple Future e.g. I shall do
- f. Future Perfect e.g. I shall have done

Hornstein proposes three formal constraints that limit the class of derived tense structures that can be generated from the basic tense structures in such a way as to capture the acceptability of sentences containing temporal adverbs (e.g. now, yesterday, tomorrow), temporal connectives (e.g. when, before, after), and indirect speech.

1.4 Tense and Aspect

Tense relates the time of the situation referred to some other time, usually to the moment of speaking. Aspects are different ways of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation (Comrie, 1976:1).

The essential ingredient of a tense morpheme is that it is an external way of looking at some “event “or “situation”.

38. a. Robin built a house
- b. Robin will build a house
 - c. Robin was building a house
 - d. Robin will be building a house (when Raheem arrives here next month)

(38a) is in the past tense, while (38b) is in the future tense. Despite the difference in tense form, both of them state that Robin does something that result in the coming about of a complete house. It is the “propositional content” of (38a-b). A tense morpheme does not alter the propositional content of the sentence in question and simply locates it at an appropriate position on the time continuum. On the other hand, (38c-d) are progressive sentences. When a native speaker interprets (38c) or (38d) its “propositional content” is different from that involved in (38a) or (38b) in that it does not involve a complete house. The difference between (38a-b) and (38c-d) can be summarized in the following manner: both (38a) and (38b) entail that there will be a complete house built by Robin at some further time, whereas neither (38c) nor (38d) guarantees this outcome. In other words, tense morpheme simply locates “the same thing” at different temporal positions, whereas an aspect morpheme such as the progressive changes the propositional content itself. For example, an aspect morpheme looks into the internal structure of the type of situation described by the main predicate and focuses on one particular aspect of the situation described by the predicate say the beginning, the ending, or the middle.

The grammars of different languages describe verbal meanings in different ways. English has a two formal system of tense, indicating past or present only; walk, walked. Here the form of the verb changes. To indicate futurity, however, English speakers do not change the form of the verb, In fact they might use an auxiliary verb like “will” or “shall”.

For example:

39. I will go there tomorrow.

Because a modal auxiliary is used to express future actions, it can be said that in English the time is expressed through the system of modality rather than the system of tense. There are three aspects in English such as simple, progressive and perfect. These aspects add

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meanings too the verb. Because aspect and tense combine to produce different forms and meanings, particular combine such as the present simple (i.e. present tense, simple aspect) is sometimes referred to as ‘tense’ as in ‘the present simple tense’. The simple aspect expresses actions as a fact (‘we play cricket’) or as a completed event at a specific point in the past (‘we played cricket on Friday night’).

The progressive (or ‘continuous’) aspect is formed using the auxiliary “be” and the present participle adds a sense of duration to the action (‘we were playing cricket’). The present progressive aspect expresses the idea that the action is taking place right now. ‘We are playing cricket’.

Perfect (or ‘perfective’) aspect is formed by combining the auxiliary ‘have’ with the past participle perfect aspect has a range of possible meanings. (1) With the present tense, it can be used for events that have recently happened (we have just played cricket). Here the adverb ‘just’ reinforces the idea of recent event. (2) Alternatively, it can be used to express that the event had taken place at some unspecified time in the past.

40. ‘We have played cricket before’.

With the past tense, perfect aspect can express an event which happened before a specified point in the past (‘we had finished the game by ten’).

Perfect aspect can combine with progressive aspect to add a sense of duration to the meaning given above. The verb phrase consists of two auxiliaries (have+be) plus the present participle:

41. We have been playing for hours when she arrived.

Both tense and aspect share certain characteristics, that is to say both of them indicate time by the same means, i.e. modifications in the verbal sequences, but in quite different ways. Tense is a deictic category and relates the time of situation to the moment of speech or other situations. Aspect is on the other hand, a non- deictic category; it does not relate the times of the situation to any other time – point, but rather concerns itself with the internal temporal phases of the situation. In brief, tense expresses situation- external time, whereas aspect refers to situation – internal time (Comrie, 1976:5).

Aspect is regarded as a higher- node than tense in the analysis of tense-aspect system of a language. Hence aspect precedes tense in the analysis.

1.4.1 Classification of Aspects

The finite verb forms in English exhibit the following aspectual oppositions in the indicative mood (Leech, 1971:14-29).

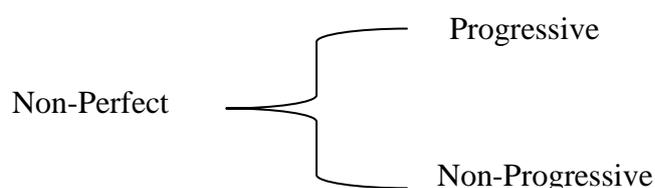
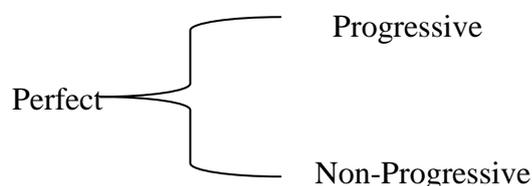
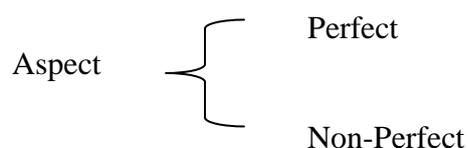


Figure: 6 Classifications of Aspects.

For example:

A. Simple (Non- perfect, Non-progressive)

- 42. a. Robin wrote
- b. Robin writes
- c. Robin will write

B. Non-perfect progressive

- 43. a. Robin was writing
- b. Robin is writing
- c. Robin will be writing

C. Perfect (Non-progressive)

- 44. a. Robin had written
- b. Robin has written
- c. Robin will have written.

D. Perfect progressive

- 45. a. Robin had been writing
- b. Robin has been writing
- c. Robin will have been writing

1.4.2 Morphology of aspects and tense in English

Tenses used to express different notions and aspects shows an internal temporal constituency of an action.

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The following are the morphological representation of the verb forms Morphology of verb form

	Aspectual distinctions	Verb forms	Containing tense	Containing Aspect marker
1.	Simple	Wrote Writes Will write	V+ Tense	
2.	Progressive	Was writing Is writing Will be writing	V+Tense	V+ing
3.	Perfect	Had written	Have+ tense	V+en
4.	Perfect progressive	Had been writing Has been writing Will have been writing	Have+tense	Be+en V+ing

Table: 1 Morphology of verb forms

The above table shows that;

- a. The simple form is unmarked for aspect; it simply consists of a main verb and a tense marker, e.g. wrote=V+Past
- b. The progressive marker is –ing which is always preceded by ‘be’ attached with tense. E.g. is writing +be+tense+V+ing
- d. The perfective marker is –en, which never appears without have attached with tense, appears. Example: have written= have+tense+v+en
- e. Both the progressive marker –ing and perfective marker –en are inflectional; they are attached to a verbal element by suffixing
- f. The perfect combines with the progressive to yield a combined aspect, called the perfect progressive, which is marked with –en, -ing. For example. I have been writing=have+tense+be+en+V+ing. In this sentence, ‘have –en’ and ‘be-ing’ occur simultaneously.
- g. In all the verb forms, aspects are marked periphrastically. Thus the aspects in English can be realized in four ways:

1. Unmarked (simple)

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2. Marked with –ing (Progressive)
3. Marked with –en (Perfect) and
4. Marked with both –en and –ing (Perfect Progressive)

According to the morphological material one can distinguish marked and unmarked categories (Comrie, 1976:114) marked categories have more morphological material than unmarked ones. When the markedness of the aspectual categories in English is examined, one gets the following binary oppositions, in which the first members of the oppositions are marked and the second members are unmarked:

- a. Perfect progressive vs. Perfect (non- progressive)
- b. Progressive vs. non-progressive (i.e., simple)

To conclude the marked/ unmarked contrasts in the aspectual system of English verb forms;

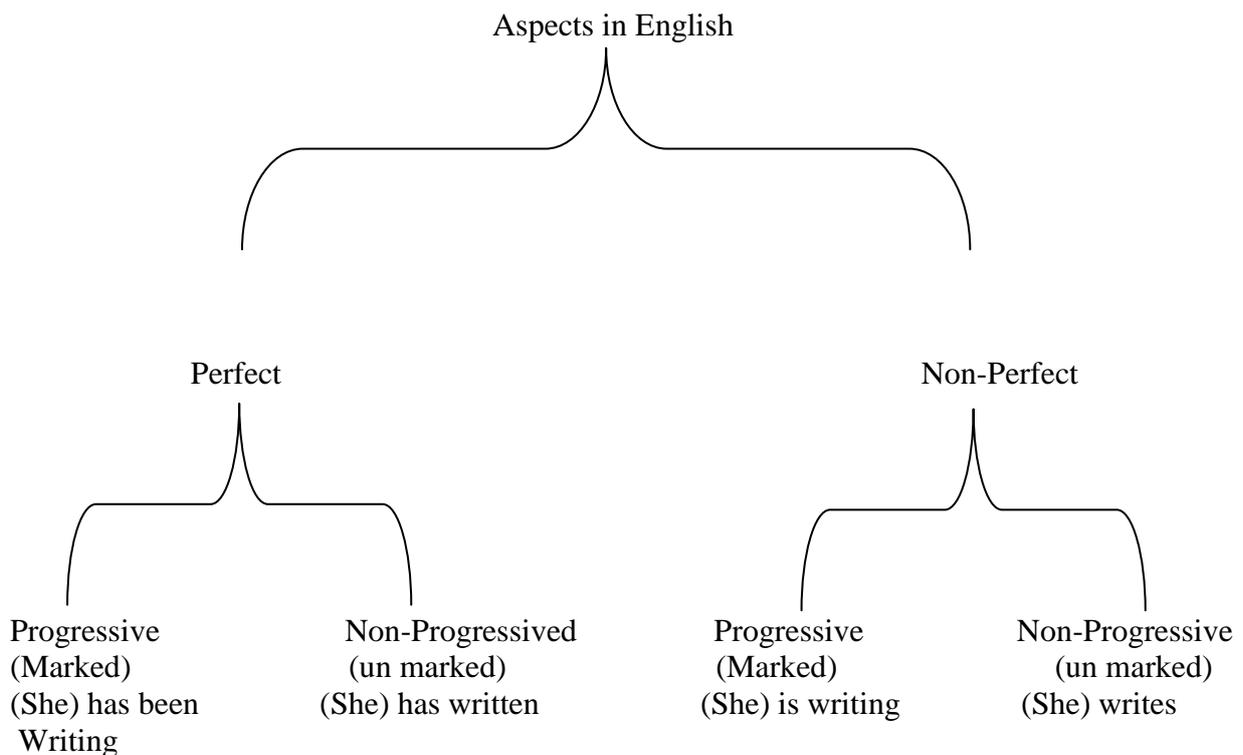


Figure: 7 Aspects in English

1.4.3. Variations of Aspect markers

A. Progressive marker: -ing

The progressive marker remains stable, irrespective of the forms of lexical verbs to which it is always affixed. It is –ing added to the base of both regular and irregular lexical verbs except modals (shall, will, etc) which are not inflected in the present tense third person singular number (Quirk et al.1972:105)

For example:

Base	-ing form
Agree	agreeing
Pass	
	passing
Push	pushing
Weep	weeping
Carry	carrying

Though the –ing form itself remains unchanged, it sometimes affects the spelling of the base to which it is affixed. Example:

Base	-ing form
Lie	lying
Bar	barring
Traffic	trafficking
Come	coming

B. Perfect marker

The –en form is a cover form used to indicate all kinds of realizations of the past participle form of both regular and irregular verbs. It is highly unstable; it is generally realized as –ed when added to the base of regular verbs.

Example:

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Base	-en form
Look	looked

But when it occurs with irregular verbs, it has various orthographic and phonetic realizations, which are not easily predictable and cannot therefore, be brought under one rule.

Example:

Base	-enform
Bring	brought
Hang	hung
Eat	eaten 2

1 Quirk et al. (1972) deals with this point under three kinds of exceptions: doubling of consonants (e.g. bar-barring), treatment of -y(e.g. die-dying), and deletion of -e (e.g. come-coming).

Quirk et al (1972: 110-121) make a detailed analysis of the phonetic realization of -ed.

1.5 Morphology of Tense in English

Let's take the following sentences:

46. Robin is writing
 47. Robin was writing

When these both verb forms are compared, they have the same aspect, i.e., progressive (-ing) what makes them differ is their reference to different times first sentences refers to present and the second to past. The difference time- reference is matched with the difference in their first verbal elements, i.e. 'is' in first sentence and 'was' in second sentence.

The first verbal elements are carriers of tense in English. The full paradigm of the verb writes (with the subject Robin) exhibiting all the tense distinctions is given below:

- i. Robin writes
- ii. Robin wrote
- iii. Robin has written
- iv. Robin had written

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- v. Robin is writing
- vi. Robin was writing
- vii. Robin will write
- viii. Robin would write
- ix. Robin has been writing
- x. Robin had been writing
- xi. Robin will be writing
- xii. Robin would be writing
- xiii. Robin will have written
- xiv. Robin would have written
- xv. Robin will have been writing
- xvi. Robin would have been writing

The paradigm above consist of sixteen verb forms in English (Xv) and (Xvi) are marked with a question mark, as these forms occur very rarely. Thus only fourteen of these forms are commonly used.

A look at the full paradigm of the verb forms makes it obvious that there are four pairs of first verbal elements. They are: writes/wrote, has/had, is/was and will/would.

Their morphological analysis is presented in he following table

	First Verbal Element	Morphological analysis	Type of tense
	Writes Wrote	V+es V+ed	Non Past Past+
	Has Had	Aux(have)+es Aux(have)+ed	Past
	Is Was	Aux(be)+es Aux)(be)+ed	Non- past(Present) Past
	Will Would	Modal+es Modal+ed	Non-Past(Present) Past

Table: 2 Morphological analyses of First Verbal elements

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From the study of the table above, the following generalizations can be made about the marking of tense in English.

1. Tense is a category marked obligatorily in the first element of the finite verb forms.
2. The first element may be a main verb(e.g. wrote), an aux(e.g. has/is), or a modal(e.g. will)
3. All the forms indicate two kinds of tense marketing: past and non- past
4. The past marker is –ed, where as the non-past marker is –es.
5. The non-past can be further subdivided into present (marked with -es) and future (marked with modal+-es)

1.6.1 Variations of Tense markers

In English, tense markers have several variations. There are two reasons for these variations: first, the first verbal elements do not express the function of tense only, but also categories like person number of the subject. Secondly, the irregular verbs (especially in the past) mark tense in an idiosyncratic way which cannot be easily accounted for.

The following analysis shows how the tense markers are affected in various ways.

(A) Past tense

The past tense marker is –ed an inflectional marker added to the base form of regular verbs. Example:

Base	-ed form
Work	worked
Serve	served
Appoint	appointed

It has three allomorphs; [id], [t], [d]. These allomorphs are manifest in pronunciation.

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They are phonologically conditioned; that is [-id] occurs after alveolar stops /t/ and /d, /t/ after voiceless consonants other than; t; and /-d/ after vowels and voiced consonants other than /d/.

This statement can be formulated as follows:

The rule3

Past (d/ed)	→	d	/	t/d.....
	→	t	/	C-v.....
	→	d	/	V/C+v.....

[C-v: voiceless consonant; V: vowel; C+v: voiced consonant]

In the case of irregular verbs, the past is also marked inflectionally but in a different way, namely modification of the stem of base form (Jakobcczyk, 1974:387-388).

a. Vowel change only:

Base	Past form
Lead	led
Shoot	shot

b. Consonant change only

Base	Past form
Build	built
Make	made

c. Vowel and consonant change

Base	Past form
Sell	sold
Bring	brought, etc.

³ Quirk et al. (1972: 110-121) have made a detailed analysis of past tense of irregular verbs.

d. Different root in the past(suppletive forms)

Base	Past form
Be	Was, were
Go	went

The past tense forms of verbs, regular or irregular are not affected by the person and number of the subject, but the verb 'be' is an exception. It is the only verb which has two distinct past forms: was (singular) and were (plural).

(B.) Present tense

In present tense, however, there is no difference between regular and irregular verbs. It has two markers: - (e) and o. The - (e) s form is marked, whereas the o form is unmarked.

Example:

48 a) He writes (marked present tense)

b) They write (unmarked present tense)

The - (e) s form is inflectional added to the base of a verb by suffixing.

Base	-es form
Write	writes

This marked form indicates three categories: person, number and tense. Thus 's' of 'writes' indicates the present tense of the verb, third person and singular number of the agreeing 'subject'.

It has three allomorphs which are predictable from their phonological environment: [-iz] occurs after /s, z, ʃ, ʒ, dʒ/ [-s] after voiceless consonants other than those listed above, and [-z] after vowels and voiced consonants other than those listed for /iz/. The above statement can be formulated as follows.

But there are some irregular present tense forms which are difficult to be derived by rules e.g.

Base	-es form
Have	has
Be	is

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are
am

The unmarked (o) present form is used for all persons and both numbers except for third person singular number

Example:

48. a) I write
b) We write
c) You write
d) They write

(c) Future Tense

The future tense is not marked inflectionally like the past and the present tense 3rd singular. Instead, it is formed by means of a periphrasis, namely shall/will followed by the base of verb. Example:

Base	shall/will form
Write	shall write
	Or
	Will write/

The future markers 'shall' and 'will' are called modals, as they indicate future tense. It also serves to express modalities like intention, permission, and promise and so on.

Shall is generally used with first person pronouns (e.g. I and we) and will with the second person pronoun (you) and third person pronouns (he, she, it, they) and nouns (e.g. boy, man, cat, etc) Example;

50. I shall be late this evening.
51. When will you get your exam results?
52. She will pass the exam.

The following are the forms of different tense- aspect combinations available in English;

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A. Simple (non-perfect, non-progressive)

53. Past: Robin wrote.

54. Non- past: a. Present: Robin writes.

b. Future: Robin will write.

B. Progressive (Non-Perfect)

55. Past: Robin was writing.

56. Non-Past: a. Present: Robin is writing.

b. Future: Robin will be writing

C. Perfect (Non-Progressive)

57. Past: Robin had written.

58. Non-Past: a. Present: Robin has written.

b. Future: Robin will have written.

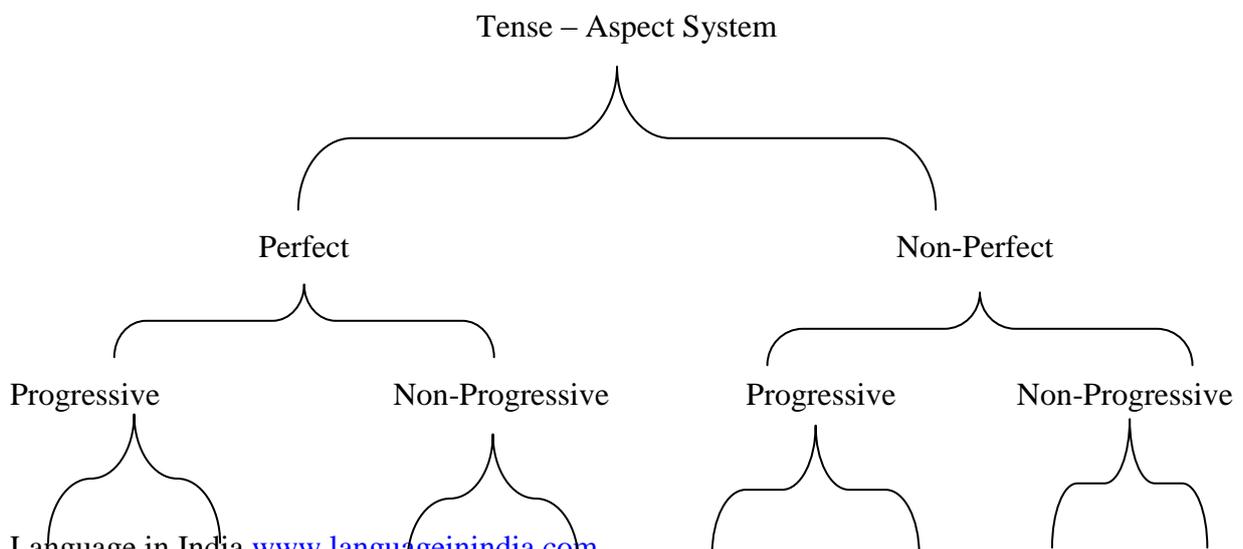
D. Perfect Progressive (Non-Perfect)

59. Past: Robin had been writing.

60. Non-past:a. Present: Robin has been writing.

b. Future: Robin will have been writing.

Including the tense distinctions, the following diagram presents the complete tense-aspect system in English



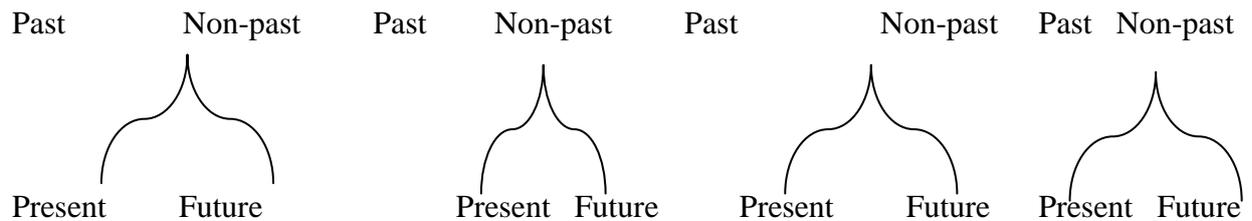


Figure: 8 Tense and Aspect system

1.6 Semantics

Verbs are restricted by their meaning, verbs can be classified into stative and non-stative (also called dynamic) in terms of their meaning. A stative verb refers to a state, whereas a nonstative verb refers to an action or event which indicates a change of state. Example:

61. Robin knows where I live.

62. The dog is running.

In (61) knows is a stative verb which refers to the state of Robin's knowledge which does not undergo any sort of change. On the basis of the action indicated by (62) the dog can be described as the running dog. However this noun phrase cannot be used, if the dog has stopped running. This is because the verb run is a verb of motion which indicates a change of state. The progressive form in English is used only with nonstative verbs and not with stative ones.

(A) Stative Verb⁴

63. a. yes, I understand it now (An answer to the question: "do you understand it?")

b. yes, I am understanding it now.

(B) Dynamic verb

64. a. The train arrived (completive)

b. The train was arriving (progressive)

As mentioned above, the two sets of lexical verbs stative and dynamic are not always mutually exclusive, there are many verbs which can function either as stative or as non stative verbs in different situations. In sentence (38a) the verb understand is stative, as it refers to a state of comprehension which does not change but the same stative verb can be used as dynamic verb.(Comrie, 1976:36)

63 c. I understand more about quantum mechanics.

Here, understand indicates a change in the degree of understanding. It means, the person understood more about quantum mechanics than on any previous day.

Thus the lexical verbs in English sometimes overlap with regard to their division into stative and non stative

⁴ 1.Quirk et al. (1972:94), however, argues that it would be more accurate to speak of stative and dynamic verbs, since some verbs be sometimes stative and sometimes dynamic verbs,

Since some verbs are sometimes be stative and some times dynamic whether they refer to stative and some times dynamic in regard to whether they refer to stative or dynamic situations. Be is an example of such verbs: a) be as a stative verb: Sophia is a good girl (is by nature a good girl)

b) Be as a non-stative verb: Sophia is being a good girl today (is behaving well).

5. Zandvoort (1962:59) calls the use of the simple present with stative verbs actual present.

1.6.1 Perfect

Perfect serves to relate some state to a preceding situation that creates it. The analysis of the following examples will make the distinction clear:

65. a) I am eating now

b) I have already eaten

In (65a), the present progressive indicates that the situation of eating is in progress, whereas in (65b) the present indicates that the situation of my eating is already over, but its after –effect, i.e., I don't feel like eating now, still exists a post- effect related to an anterior situation.

As the perfect relates two time-points, the time of the state and the time; of the preceding situation their relations will vary from tense to tense. The combination of the perfect with three tense will thus produce the following three kinds of relations:

	Tense+ Aspect	Relations	Examples
a.	Present Perfect	Present state related to past situation	(a) Robin has eaten the mango
b.	Past Perfect	Past state related to an earlier situation	(b) Robin had eaten the mango (before I came)
c.	Future Perfect	Future state related to a situation prior to it	(c.)Robin will have eaten the mango(before I came)

Table: 3 Tense-Aspect Relations

(A) Present Perfect

The basic meaning of the present is often described as referring to past with present relevance, retrospective present or ‘the continuing relevance of a previous situation.

(Comire, 1976:56)

It has the following manifestations in English

- i. the resultative perfect
- ii. the experiential perfect
- iii. the continuative perfect and
- iv. the perfect of recent past

i. Resultative Perfect

The present perfect refers to a past event, the refers to a past event, the result of which still exists at the present time Example:

66. He has cut his hand with a knife.

In this sentence, cutting his hand took place in the past. But its effect still exists: i.e. the cut has not yet healed. The resultative perfect does not need the adverbials of time. (Leech, 1971: 34)

ii. Experiential Perfect

The present perfect may refer to some event that has taken place at least once in a period leading up to the present. Example:

67. Mr. White has been to Burma.

It means, Mr. White once visited Burma, but he is not there now. The experiential perfect gives indefinite past meaning which is often indicated adverbially, especially by ever, never or before (now).

iii. Continuative perfect

It is used to indicate a situation that begins in the past continuous up to the present and may extend into the future. Example:

68. We have lived here for 10 years

In this sentence, the situation of our living here began 10 years above and is still valid, but it does not explicitly mention whether it will continue in future or not.

iv. Perfect Recent past

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The present perfect also indicates a situation completed in the recent past.

Example:

69. Robin has just gone out.

This type of perfect generally occurs within adverbials like a moment ago or a few moments ago. Example:

70. Robin went out a moment ago.

The recent past also include what McCauley (1971:105) terms hot news which belongs to the past but is still sensational. Example:

71. Mr.Gopi has been assassinated.

(B) Past perfect

(i) Basic meaning

The past perfect or pluperfect refers to a time further in the past seen from the view point of time already in the past (Leech, 1971:42).

72. Robin had lived in London for ten years (when I met him).

When two events happen one after another in the past, the first event is called E1 and second one E2. If both events are narrated in the order in which they occurred, one may use simple past or the past perfect for E1 and the simple past for E2. This is usually the case, when the conjunction is 'before':

died
73. a E1 [the patient/had died /before]
E2 [the doctor came]

But if E2 is mentioned before E1, E1 must have the past perfect form only

73. b. [The doctor came] but E1 _{E1} [The patient had died.]

Moreover, with conjunctions "other than before, the past perfect tense is usually needed to indicate E1 the earlier of two events:

73. c. When the patient had died the doctor came.

In (73c) one event follows the other. This example may be compared to (73d) in which two events occur together.

74.d When the doctor came the patient died.

(ii) Use of the past perfect in indirect speech

The present perfect and the simple past forms of verbs in the direct speech are changed into the past perfect if the reporting verb is in the past.

74. a. He said, "I have never read this book"

is equal to

74.b. He said that he had never read that book.

75.a He said, "I went home last month"

is equal to

75.b. He said that he had gone home last month."

But in English the simple past is left unchanged.

(c) Future perfect

The future perfect is used to predict an action which at a give future time will be in the past. Example:

76. He will have reached home by four today.

1.6.2 Perfect progressive

The basic meaning of the perfect progressive suggests both aspectual meanings: the perfect and the progressive.

(I) Present Perfect Progressive

(A) Resultative Perfect progressive

77. She has been crying again (look, her eyes are red)

In this case, it is not necessary for the activity to continue right up to present moment.

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(B) Experiential Perfect Progressive

Here the situation may be an ongoing process. (Comrie, 1976:62)

Example:

78. Have you ever being watching television when the tube has exploded?

(C) Continuative perfect progressive

It means a temporary situation leading up to the present and possibly extending to the future. Example:

78. a Robin has been living in New York since 1970.

79. b. Robin has lived in New York since 1970.

In certain contexts, present perfect and the present perfect progressive are interchangeable. (Leech, 1971:45)

80. a) Robin has looked after the business for several years.

b) Robin has been looking after the business for several years.

Like the non-perfect progressive, the perfect progressive also occurs only with dynamic verbs, and not with stative one. Example:

81. I have known him for a long time

*82. I have knowing him for a long time

But

83. I have been speaking for ages

(II) Past perfect progressive

The past perfect progressive can be used to refer to all the meaning discussed above with respect to the present perfect progressive. Furthermore, it may refer to a past event preceding another past event. It is often used with an adverbial of time

84. My friend's servant ran away with his money; I had been warning him for quite some time.

1.7 Discourse

Tense and aspect can be viewed from an interactive perspective that is how the speaker switches from one tense to another to emphasize particular stages in the narrative. The analysis is done with some excerpts from novels by Virginia Woolf, Jean Rhys, Margaret Arable and Doris Lessing (Maria del Mar Rivas Carmona 2001)

This analysis is done to show how the choice of verbal aspect may not just be a matter of location in time but also a sign of the addresser's intentions to highlight different elements of the message. The role of the addresser is to establish temporal assumptions and draw the necessary inferences in order to interpret the text, in the case of literary texts, writers make use of aspect variation in order to foreground particular events and to involve or detach the readers with respect to them

The following illustration shows the shift from the past to the present and from the historical present tense to continuous for emphatic purposes in the recounting of a ghost story:

A: Not all that long since, perhaps ten years ago, this friend of mine, her son was in hospital, and he had a serious accident and he was unconscious for a long time, anyway, she went to see him one day and she said, "has anybody been to see you?", and he says 'no', but a right nice young lady came to see me', he said, 'she was lovely, she stood at the foot of my bed, you know, shehad a little

Word with me.' Well eventually he came home, and they'd a lot of the family in the house, and Emma, this friend of mine, brought these photographs out, of the family through the years, and, passing them round, and he is looking at them and he said 'oh! That's the young lady that came to see me when I was in bed.' She had died when he was born....so.

B: Good God.

A: He had never seen her

B: No.....heavens. (in McCarthy, 1991; 61)

From this extract it can be deduced that the choice of tense and aspect is not just a matter of precise location in time but also a sign of the speaker/writer's intentions to foreground certain elements. The role of the hearer/reader will be to interpret these sentences by establishing temporal assumptions / presuppositions and capturing inferences based on tense and aspect choice. Thus, temporal inference is vital in a discourse/pragmatic approach to a text.

In the introductory lines of *The Summer Before the Dark* by Doris Lessing, the reader has access to the protagonist's inner thoughts, which are introduced with the progressive aspect:

A woman stood on her back doorstep, arms folded, waiting, and thinking? She would not have said so. She was trying to catch hold of something ---; for some time she had been 'trying on' ideas - - - she was letting words and phrases slide around her tongue Ah yes, first love! - - - Growing up is bound to be painful - - Marriage is a compromise - - -, A woman stood on her back doorstep, arms folded, waiting for a kettle to boil. (Lessing, 1973; 5)

The protagonist, Kate: Brown, is presented and located ("she stood") at the very beginning of the narration and the tense selected is the past simple, in accordance with the conventions of the genre. Then the progressive from "waiting" opens up a path to her mental process, revealing her thoughts;. "Thinking - - - she was trying to thoughts in the present tense without any projecting clause ("Ah yes, first, love - - -etc"), When the perfective reappears, the objective standpoint of the narrator returns with it." A woman stood on her back doorstep - - -."

This passage provides both perfective and simple present tense. The use of the progressive form is also a frequent device for thought - representation in Virginia Woolf. In **To the Lighthouse** it is a fundamental vehicle for approaching Mrs

Ramsay's, Lily Briscoe's or Mr. Tansley's thoughts. For instance, the use of the progressive in the following excerpt helps readers interpret these lines as being part of Mr Tansley's thoughts and not as an objective description by the narrator:

'Oh, Mr Tanley', [Lily, Briscoe] said, 'do take me to the Lighthouse with you. I should so love it.'

She was telling lies he could see. She was saying what she didn't mean to annoy him, for some reason. She was laughing at him- - He felt very rough and isolated and lonely. He knew that she was trying to tease him for some reason; she didn't want to go to the Lighthouse with him; she despised him.' So did Prue Ramsay; so did they all. But he was not going to be made a fool of by women - - - (Virginia Woolf, *To the Lighthouse*, 1927; 1964: 99-100).

This paragraph is a clear example of an episode of thought – representation. The projecting clause “he could see [that] - - “, “he knew that - - - “introduce his thoughts. And, even when not introduced by these mental processes, we perceive sentences such as “She was saying what she didn't mean - - - “or “she was laughing at him - - -“as though they were projected from his subjective perspective.

In *After Leaving Mr. Mackenzie*, Jean Rhys presents us with Julia Marin's life. The following two dialogues between the protagonist, Julia and her sister, the relevance of the use of the progressive in certain contexts will become apparent:

Julia sat silently by the fire. She looked ill. Norah thought she had lost- her expression, but Norah was too busy to think about that. She came in to ask 'Look here, Julia, do you think we ought to have the Choir?' 'No,' said Julia. 'Why?' Norah said: 'I think she'd have liked it' 'Oh, well, have it then, have it.'

'it's that I have so little ready money.'

Said Norah unhappily. (1930) 1971:p.92)

(Julia) shut her eyes on the twilight of the room and began to mutter:

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Eternal rest give unto her, O Lord.
Let perpetual light shine upon her.

Her lips were dry - - she went on praying, Norah was whispering: 'would you like something to eat?'

'No'-----

Norah stood up and went spoke- - - to the nurse. She was saying.' Go and have something to eat – or some tea, and the nurse was answering.'

'No, my dear, no'

But after that Julia stopped praying- - - (p.88)

In the first dialogue, the sentences that introduce the direct speech of the interlocutors are in the past simple. This provides an objective perspective of the conversational event. In the second passage, on the other hand, the interaction between both sisters and between Julia's sister and the nurse parallel to another action. Julia's praying. The progressive aspect helps to interpret these words as if heard through Julia's ears while praying.

At the beginning of the novel, Julia is about to leave a room at a hotel and she is thinking about her future. The progressive aspect provides a broad lens - - angle and close perspective of some events which the audience also feel to be perceived through her ears:

- - - She started to walk up and down the room with the palms of her hands tightly together- - -
As she put on her hat she stared at herself in the looking - - glass.
She told herself, 'I must get some new clothes. That's the first thing to do.'
And she longed for some one to whom she might say, 'I don't look so bad, do I? - - -
Now the gramophone next door began to play again - - - People were laughing, talking, pushing, Crowds of people were elbowing each other along a street, going to a fair. And you heard the tramp of feet and the noise of the fan's coming nearer; and the people calling - - - (p.15)

In **Jerusalem the Golden** by Margaret Drabble, shows the use of the progressive to represent the character's inner perceptions:

"Clara seeing [a portrait], understood entirely, as she had never understood entirely, as she had never understood before, why one should wish to perpetuate such things- - - She liked the look of Gabriel. She looked, anxiously, in search of his adult image - - - but the only revealing picture was one - - - at the christening of Mangus's first child Gabriel was, in fact, holding the baby; a baby elaborately draped in the ancient lace robe of the Denham's - - -

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Candida had herself been christened in it - - - Gabriel was not looking at the Camera, but at the child, and he was smiling. (1967; 110-111)

In these lines, the protagonist, Clara Maughans, is looking at the Denham's family album. The progressive aspect marks the difference between what is and is not in the pictures. The reader interprets or, rather, infers that sentences such as "Gabriel was holding the baby" or "Gabriel was smiling" refers to what he is doing in the pictures as seen through Clara's eyes.

In short, the analysis of different text excerpts from **To the Lighthouse** by Virginia Woolf, *After Leaving Mr. Mackenzie* by Jean Rhys, *Jerusalem the Golden* by Margaret Drabble and *The Summer before the Dark* by Doris Lessing provides evidence supporting an interpretation of interactive perspective, that is, on the one hand, focusing on the writer's intentions to highlight particular events (by establishing temporal frameworks involving or detaching the readers); and on the other, focusing on the readers' ability to establish temporal assumptions and making the right inferences by basing them on aspect choice.

1.8 Tense and Temporal Adverbials

(A) Tense

A common view of the English tense system recognizes six tenses in English, represented by six different verbal forms exemplified in the following sentences,

(Werner Saurer, 1984)

Forms	Name of Tense
a. Robin Walks	(simple) tense
b. Robin has walked	present perfect
c. Robin walked	(simple) past
d. Robin had walked	Past Perfect (or plu-perfect)
e. Robin will walk	(Simple) Future
f. Robin will have walked	(Future perfect)

A certain parallel between the forms in (a), (c), and (e) on the one hand and (b), (d), and (f) on the other is quite obvious. The former are “simple tenses” and the latter “perfective tenses” and the latter “perfective tenses.” the perfective tenses can be conceived as complex tenses, consisting of a combination of a simple tense (past, present, or future) and the “perfect”

(B) Temporal Adverbials

The simple temporal adverbs are yesterday, today and tomorrow. The complex adverbials of the prepositional phrases are ‘at 5^o’ clock, after the dinner, etc. And certain “sentential” adverbials are ‘when Robin arrived, after Robin, etc.’

A theory of temporal adverbials in general should explain, in conjunction with a theory of tense, why some adverbials are compatible with a particular tense only while others are compatible with more than one tense. It should give an explanation of why yesterday requires past tense and tomorrow future tense whereas today is compatible with all three tenses.

For Example

85. Yesterday Robin left at 5pm

In this sentence both yesterday and at 5pm are considered as frame adverbials that refer to different times.

Another example:

86. Yesterday, Robin walked after the dinner

This sentence asserts that within the past frame time, specified by past tense together with the frame adverbial **Yesterday** there were, two events, the dinner and Robin’s walk, that occurred in a certain temporal order, viz, the latter after the former.

Similarly the sentence:

87. Yesterday John walked after the dinner

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Is and example for prepositional phrase adverbials.

(C) Count Adverbials

The count adverbials are like **twice** which is a definite count adverbial and **frequently** which an indefinite one is.

For example;

88. Robin smoked twice.

This sentence asserts that within the contextually specified frame time. there are two different past events.

Past (yesterday)

twice (Robin smoke)

When there is no count adverbial such as in the sentence

89. Yesterday Robin smoked.

There is at least one occurrence of a (Robin smoke) - - events within the day before the speech time of that sentence. That is the sentence (88) to be synonymous with

90. Yesterday Robin smoked once.

91. Yesterday Robin smoked at least once.

This view of count adverbials faces a problem; it does not work for activity and stative sentence. Consider the sentences:

92. Robin walked.

93. Robin walked twice.

94. Robin was tired.

95. Robin was tired frequently.

Wherever (92) is true there is a (Robin walk) – event that occurs within the period contextually specified by the past tense. But then, because of the subinterval- property of Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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activity sentences, there is always more than one, in fact a very large number of such events. So (93) would come out true relative to the same index. (92) does not imply (93) intuitively, however.

This analysis shows that, count adverbials do not count events but something else. The count events can be taken as count occasions. For example:

96. Robin walked on two (different) occasions.

Here occasions means certain times or periods at which events happen or states obtain. (96) asserts that, there are two different and non – overlapping periods of time, contained within the frame time specified by the past tense, for which it is true that Robin walked. In addition, those two periods of walking by Robin must be separated by a period during which Robin doesn't walk. This is to make sure that the two non – overlapping periods are not merely parts of one longer period of walking by Robin.

Thus, if count adverbials were to count events and not occasions, they have to count two simultaneous events of the same kind as two. For example:

97. Robin raised an arm twice.

98. Robin smoked a cigarette twice.

To be true in a situation where Robin raises both of his arms at the same time once, or where he smokes two cigarettes at the same time, provided one can conceive of the event of John raising both of his arms as a complex event having two simultaneous parts, one being his raising of his right arm and the other being his raising of his left arm, and with a similar provision for the cigarette smoking case. But, one cannot - judge that (97) and (98) to be true under those circumstances. For (97) and (98) to be true there must be two events of the right kind , occurring at two different times, one before the other, and the two events must be easily recognized as two different events.

We have so far had an elaborate description of the concepts of time, tense and aspect. Time is viewed as a universal phenomenon. It has two facts: Universe time and event time. It also deals with morphology, semantic and discourse of Tense and aspect. The analysis shows how tenses work in natural languages like English and how they interact with other temporal determiners or as temporal adverbials. Tenses must not be conceived as determining the relation between the event time and the time of utterance directly, but that the concept of frame time is needed, and the tenses are conceived as determining the relation between the time of utterance of the sentence and its frame time. The frame time is here conceived of as providing a temporal frame for the “sentence event”. The frame time serves also as the referent of some type of temporal adverbials, accordingly called frame adverbials.

Traditionally, tenses have been taught to English medium students from lower classes. But this is not the case with the regional medium students. Hence, mastering tenses is a major problem for them. Various factors which cause difficulties are as follows:

- a) Less exposure to English Language
- b) No English Learning atmosphere at home
- c) Less training
- d) Traditional method of teaching

Hence, the students from regional medium find it difficult to comprehend tenses and its aspects and to use it in their conversation or even to produce a sentence in English using g correct tense. So, in order to help the regional medium students in learning tenses and its aspects in a more easy insightful way, this study (Tense and Aspect: A Pedagogical Linguistic Study) has been taken up.

This study analyzes different concepts of tense and aspect in order to help he learners who are at average and below average levels. Though there are various

concepts of tense and Aspect by many grammarians, this study emphasizes mainly upon the concepts of Halliday, Comrie and Prakasam. Halliday states that there is no aspect and he speaks about tense in different angles. Bernard Comrie describes the terms tense and aspect as tense relates the time of the situation referred to some other time usually to the moment of speaking. Aspects are different ways of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation. Prakasam brings out the distinction between finite and nonfinite verbs or perfect and non- perfect verbs, and ‘tense’ carrying verbs and ‘aspect’ carrying verbs. I have chosen these three concepts in the context of language teaching, analyzing the three concepts to find out, which concept is more comprehensible for the regional medium students. Finally, the result of the analysis will be based on the student’s response to the teaching of these three concepts as they are the target of this study to decide upon the concept that they understood most.

Chapter - 2

Review of Related Literature

2.0 Introduction

The last chapter has attempted to define the time, tense and aspect of English.

The aim of this chapter is to review with the different analyses of tense and aspect of English by well known grammarians.

2.1 Review of Related Literature

It presents a brief review of the concepts analyzed on tense and aspect by the following linguists.

2.2 Quirk et al (1973)

Quirk et al classifies verbs as lexical verbs and auxiliary verbs. Auxiliary verbs are again divided into primary and modal. Lexical verbs are the main verbs and the Auxiliary verbs are the helping verbs. And tense expresses the universe time through verbal form that is past, present and future. Aspect concerns the manner in which the verbal action is experienced or the action is completed or an incomplete one. Example:

1. Robin wrote the letter yesterday.
2. While Robin was writing the letter, the postman came.

In (1) the lexical verb wrote shows Robin's writing the letter was completed in the past, whereas in (2) he thinks that the situation had started and was in the middle when the postman's arrival took place. They explained this concept showing the variations of tense and aspect markers such as –ed, -es will/shall which are used to indicate past, present and future tense and the progressive marker –ing and the perfective marker –en to indicate aspect. The progressive marker remains stable, irrespective of the forms of lexical verbs to which it is always affixed. It is –ing added to the base of both regular and irregular lexical verbs except modals (shall, will, etc) which are not inflected. Though the –ing form itself remains unchanged, it sometimes affects the spelling of the base to which it is affixed, e.g. die-dying. The perfective marker-en form is a cover form used to indicate all kinds of realizations of the past participle form of both regular and irregular verbs. It is generally realized as person and singular number. Instead, it is formed by means of a periphrasis, namely shall/will followed by the base form of verb. The future markers shall and will are called modals, as they in addition to indicating future tense, also serve to express modalities like intention, permission, promise and so on. They describe the present and past tenses in relation to the progressive and perfective aspects.

Quirk et al also speak about the uses of dynamic and stative verbs, since some verbs are sometimes stative and sometimes dynamic in regard to whether they refer to stative or dynamic situations. Stative verbs are not usually used in the progressive tenses such as be, seem, and like etc. Example:

3. Sheela is a good girl (is by nature a good girl)

Dynamic verbs are used in the progressive tense such as eat, grow and so on.

Example:

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4. She is eating a banana.

However, there are situations where 'be' is used as non-stative verb. Example:

5. Sheela is being a good girl today. (is behaving well)

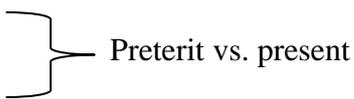
The above analysis shows the use of verb forms to indicate tense: past, present, future and the progressive marker- ing and the perfective marker – en to indicate aspects in English.

2.3 Rodney Huddleston & Geoffrey K.Pullum (2002)

Huddleston and Pullum emphasize on the verbal systems of tense, aspect and mood, which are marked inflectionally on the verb in just one case (the distinction between present and preterit tense) and otherwise analytically by auxiliaries. Tense is used to locate the situation or period or time. The two tense systems are present tense and perfect tense.

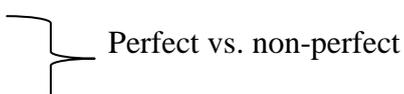
Example:

6. a) She went _ to school
b) She goes to school



Preterit vs. present

7. a) He may have known her
b) He may know her



Perfect vs. non-perfect

The verb forms in the sentences refer to past and present time. The present perfect involves two tenses: past and non- past. Example:

8. I have read only two of the books.

Both have and read are verbs by themselves and they carry respective tense selections have is “non-past” and read “past”.

Here Huddleston and Pullum are of the view that all occurrences of the auxiliary have are underlying past tenses. They argue that the terms past, present and future refer to certain parts of time itself. They are relational notions. For example:

- 9. a) He died of lung cancer.(past time)
- b) I promise to let you have it back tomorrow. (Present time)
- c) If you see her tomorrow give her my best regards (future time)

In (9a) the time of dying is past and it is understood as a time earlier than now, than the time when I utter the sentence. There are two terms in the relation as the time referred to, symbolized 'tr', and the time of utterance, symbolized 'to'.

In (9a) Tr is the time of dying, To is the time of utterance, and the relation is "earlier than" or "anterior to". In (9b), Tr is the time of promising. To again the time of utterance and the relation is "simultaneous with". In (9c), Tr is the time of your seeing her, To the time of utterance and the relation is "later than" or "posterior to".

The above statement can be symbolized as follows:

Past time	Tr anterior to To- Tr<To
Present time	Tr simultaneous with To-Tr=To
Future time	Tr posterior to To-Tr>To

Present Tense is used to indicate occurrence and state. Example:

- 10. a) I promise to let you have it back tomorrow.(Occurrence)
- b. I live in Berlin. (State)

In (10a) the time of promising coincides with the time of speaking. Here the time taken to promise is precisely the same as the time taken to utter the sentence. In (10b), the situation is referring to the present time. The time does not show when it began or how long it

will continue. Thus, there is a major difference between occurrences and states with respect to the interpretation of the simple present. State has no distinction between limited and unlimited situations. For Example:

11 a) She has a headache (limited)

b. The sun rises in the east (un limited)

On the other hand, the occurrences in the simple present impose severe constraints on dynamic situations. Present tense is also used to indicate future time situations. Example:

12. If he doesn't help me, I am finished.

This sentence shows that the time can be a period extending from the present into the future. The future tense is used to predicate cyclic events in nature, scheduled events and conditionals. Example:

13. It is going to rain soon. (Cyclic events in nature)

In this statement, the time of event (rain) is scientifically calculated.

14. Australia meets Sweden in the Davis Cup final in December. (Scheduled events)

In (14), the future event is already arranged.

15. If he doesn't play according to the rules, he doesn't play at all (Conditional)

And past tense is used when the event took place in the past. Example:

16. He published an article.

2.3.1 Perfect Tense

Perfect Tense “expresses a present state resulting from past action”. In other words, the present perfect is used when an event that occurred previously is viewed by the speaker as having some relevance, some affect at the present moment, i.e. the moment of utterance.

Example:

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17. He is believed to have written it last week.’

The following are the manifestation of perfect tense:

(a) Present Perfect

The Basic meaning of the present perfect is described as referring to past with present relevance of a previous situation. The following are the four major uses of the present perfect.

- i) the continuative perfect
 - ii) the experiential perfect
 - iii) the resultative perfect
 - iv) the perfect of recent perfect
- (i) The Continuative Perfect

It is used to indicate a situation that begins in the past, continues up to the present and may extend into the future. Example:

18. She has lived in Berlin ever since she married.

(ii) The experiential perfect:

The present perfect may refer to some event that has taken place at least once in a period leading up to the present. For Example;

19. We have now walked ten miles.

(iii) The Resultative Perfect

(iv)

The present Perfect in English refers to a past event, the result of which still exists at the present time. Example:

20. She has broken her leg.

(v) The perfect of recent past

The present perfect indicates a situation completed in the recent past. Example:

21. Harsha has just gone out.

(b) Past perfect

It refers to a time further in the past, seen from the view point of a definite point of time already in the past. For Example:

22. Harsha had lived in London for ten years. (When I met him)

In the indirect speech, if the reporting verb is in the past, the verb of the reported speech which in the simple present is changed into the simple past. It is called back – shift. Example:

23. He said, “I like it.” = He said that he liked it.

(c) Progressive Aspect

Progressive aspect is marked with the periphrastic form: be –ing.
Example;

24. Harsha is singing now.

This sentence describes a situation in progress.

2.4 R.W. Zandvoort (1957)

Zandvoort speaks about ‘tense’ as that which denotes two verbal forms (past and present) and an equal number of verbal groups (perfect and future) whose main function is to denote the ‘time’ at which an action takes place. Tense expresses the time (past, present and future) through verbal forms. Example:

25. Harsha is playing (Present)

26. Harsha played (Past)

27. Harsha will play (Future)

2.4.1 Simple Present

The simple present in English mainly used in three ways (Zandvoort: 1962: 59)

(i) Neutral Present

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- (ii) Iterative Present
- (iii) Actual Present

(a) **Neutral Present:** The neutral refers to the state which extends into past and future without any limitations of time. Hence Leech (1971:1) and Qurik et al. (1972: 85) term it “the unrestrictive use of the simple present” It includes “eternal” truths. Scientific statements and other similar states. Example:

28. The Ganga flows from the Himalayas

29. Water boils at 100oc.

30. We live in Sweden.

However, the unspecified duration of the situation referred above can be specified by adding adverbials of time to this. Example:

31. At present we live in Australia.

(b) **Iterative present:** The habitual or iterative present refers to a situation that can be successfully repeated at intervals within a period of time. The repetition of the situation is usually denoted by adverbials of time like everyday, twice, weekly, always, often, in summer etc. example:

32. I get up at six every day.

33. This paper appears twice a week.

34. We always go to the sea-shore in summer.

(c) **Actual present**

Actual present is to indicate a stator action in the present. Example:

35. The manager wants to speak to you.

36. It is very hot.

37. Guess! What I have in my hand.

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The simple present also is used to indicate the future or the past. Example:

38. I start work tomorrow.

39. Robin tells me that you have been abroad (...has told...)

In such a situation, normally one use the present perfect but the simple present can also be used as a shifter. This use is restricted to communication verbs like tell, here, learn and write etc.

As indicated earlier, the simple present is used to describe past events. Example:

40. He just walks into the room and sits down in front of the fire without saying any word to any one.(Historic present)

This type of narration is used to create rhetorical effects

2.4.2 Simple Past

The simple past is used to indicate the past events that completed at a definite time Example:

41. I met her yesterday

In this regard, the present perfect also refers to the past events without a definite reference to the past. Example:

42. I have just met her.

In both sentences, the meeting took place in the past, but in (41) the time is specified i.e. yesterday. Hence, the simple past is generally used with adverbials of the time referring to definite past. There are, how ever, certain cases in which adverbials of time are not explicitly mentioned but implied in the situation it self.

43. He worked in that bank for four years.(but he does not work there now)

(a) Iterative past

The simple past in English may be used with habitual or iterative meaning.
Example:

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44. I saw her every day.

How ever, there is a separate habitual aspect in English (though only in the past tenses) with the construction used to + inf. Example:

45. I used to see her every day.

2.4.3 Perfect tense

It is used to indicate an action that falls with in the time –sphere of the present. Example:

46. I have already eaten

This sentence indicates that the situation of my eating is already over, but it is after – effect, i.e. I don't feel eating now, still exists a post – effect related to an anterior situation.

The present perfect has the following uses such as:

a) **Continuative perfect**

Perfect is used to indicate a situation that begins in the past, continues up to the present and may extend into the future. Example:

47. We've lived here for ten years.

In this sentence, the situation of our living here began ten years ago and is still valid, but it doesn't explicitly mention whether it will continue in future or not.

The continuative perfect also refers to some habit which extends over period of leading up to the present. Example:

48. I have always walked to work.

(b) **Resultative perfect**

It refers to past events, the result of which still exists at the present time.
Example:

49. I have bought a new T.V

In this sentence, buying T.V took place in the past, but its effect still exists. The resultative perfect does not need the adverbials of time.

(b) Experiential perfect

It refers to some event that has taken place at least once in a period leading up to the present. Example:

50. Mr. Varma has been to Japan

It means, Mr.Varma once visited Japan, but he is not there now. The experiential perfect gives indefinite past meaning which is often indicated adverbially, especially by ever, never or before (now).

2.5 Geoffrey Leech and Jan Svartvik (1975)

Geoffrey Leech and Jan Svartvik talk about time, tense and aspect. Verbs may refer to an event or to a state.

(a) Event verb

An event verb shows a definite beginning and end. Example:

51. He became unconscious

(b) State verb

A state verb does not have well – defined beginning and end. Example:

52. He remained unconscious

2.5.1 Present time

It is used to refer to something which occurs at the present time.
Example:

53. I admire your hand writing

The following are the main ways of referring to something which occurs at the present time.

(a) **Present state (the simple present tense)**. Example:

54. She is hungry.

(b) **Present event (the simple present tense)**. Example:

55. He declares the meeting closed.

In this sentence, an event has begun and ended at the every moment of speech.

(c) **Present Habit (the simple present tense)**. Example:

56. I walk every day in the morning.

It shows an event that is repeated every day.

(d). **Temporary present (the present progressive)**. Example:

57. My brother is living in a rented house.(temporarily)

(d) **Temporary Habit (the present progressive)**. Example:

58. She is walking to work while her kinetic is being repaired.

It shows a temporary habit 'walking'

2.5.2 Past time

It refers to past actions. Example:

59. I read your book yesterday.

The past tense refers to a definite time in the past. The past tense also implies a gap between the time referred to and the present moment..

60. Her father suffered from T.B. all his life.(i.e he is now dead)

2.5.3 Present perfect

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Present perfect is often described as referring to past with present relevance.

Example:

61 She has written the letter.

Present perfect has the following uses.

a) Resultative Perfect

It refers to a past event with results in the present time. Example:

62. His leg has been broken. (i.e. it is still not healed)

b) Indefinite Event

It is used to indicate an indefinite situation. Example:

63. Have you ever been to France?

c) Habitual Perfect

It refers to a habit in a period leading up to the present time. Example:

64. She has played at a wimbledon since she was eighteen.

d) Stative Perfect

It refers to a state up to the present time. Example:

65. The super market how long has it been open?

2.5.4 Perfect progressive

The perfect progressive deals with present and past. Example:

66. She has been writing a letter. (Present perfect)

67. She had been writing a letter. (Past perfect)

According to Leech and Svartvik, in some contexts, the present perfect and the present perfect progressive are interchangeable.

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68. Robin has looked after the business for several years.

69. Robin has been looking after the business for several years.

Chapter - 3

Pedagogical study of the tense and aspect (Analysis of Comrie, Halliday and Prakasam)

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3.0 Introduction

The present chapter presents an elaborate description of the ideas of Comrie, Halliday and Prakasam on Tense and Aspect. Comrie and Prakasam state about tense and aspect whereas Halliday talks only about the functional use of tense and oits forms.

3.1 Bernard Comrie(1985)

According to Comrie, tense expresses the universe time through verbal forms. The universe time is past, present, or future.

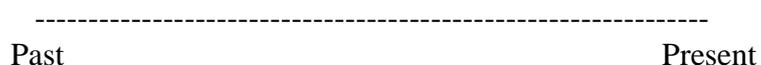


Figure: 9 Representation of time

The straight line represents the universe time.

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For example:

1. Hari was reading when I entered

In (1) there are two verbal sequences: was reading and entered both of them express the same kind of universe time, i.e., past, but what makes them differ is their variant representation of the event time. The first verbal sequence (was reading) refers neither to the beginning nor to the end of the situation – Hari’s readings but to its internal portion, i.e., his reading in progress. The verbal form, which can convey this meaning related to the event time is said to have imperfect meaning. If a language has a distinctive verbal form to express this meaning, it is called imperfective aspect. In the second verbal sequence (entered), the situation is presented as a single whole, and all its successive phases of entry – beginning, middle and end merge into one. If a language has a verbal form marked to express this kind of perfective meaning, it is called perfective aspect. Aspect thus expresses the time distinction contained within a situation. Comrie rightly defines aspects as different ways of viewing the internal temporal consistency of a situation. Comrie uses the word situation as a cover – term for an event, state and process.

There are various linguistic realizations of the universe time in different languages of the world. Many languages express the universe time by means of their verbal forms, so called “tenses”. This has appeared to many grammarians so natural that they have considered tense distinction the main characteristics of verbs. In addition to indicating time, the verbal forms also serve other purposes, the manifest person, number, gender honorifics and mood in their endings for example, the ending in the sentence:

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2 she feels hot now.

Express indicative mood, present tense, third person and singular number. Some languages, however, do not express time through the verbal forms. That is to say, they do not have grammaticalised time reference, i.e. have temporal adverbs to indicate time. Comrie defines **tense as a grammatical category** which manifests it self in the verbal forms of a language. Its role is to relate the universe time of the situation. (i.e past, present, future) to the moment of speech.

For Example:

3. Ramesh worked for nine hours yesterday.
4. Ramesh feels terribly hot now.
5. Ramesh will come tomorrow.

The verbal forms in all these sentences differ:- ed in (3), -s in (4) and will in (5), which indicate the time of the situations prior to, simultaneous with and anterior to the moment of the situation respectively. Hence Comrie calls it as deictic category. There are two kinds of tense namely, **Absolute tense and Relative tense**. As stated before, tense is a category which relates the universe time to the moment of speech and Comrie terms it as an Absolute tense. And Relative tense relates the universe time to the time of some other situation. Nonfinite participle construction in English use relative rather than absolute tense. In the following pairs of sentences, the tense of the participle constructions depend upon the tense of the finite verbs:

6. a) When walking down the road, I often meet Ramesh.
b) When walking down the road, I often met Ramesh.
7. a) Having met Ramesh earlier, I don't need to see him again.

b) Having met Ramesh earlier, I didn't need to see him again.

In the first pair of sentences, the same participle involves present tense in (6a) and past tense in (6b) as the finite verb meet in (6a) is in the present, whereas in the present in (7a), whose finite verb did is in the past. In English, the finite verbs take absolute tense and non-finite verbs use relative tense.

Tense relates the time of the situation referred to some other time, usually to the moment of speaking. The time is divided as present, past and future. Example:

8. Raju wrote the Exam (Past)

9. Raju writing the exam.(Present)

10. Raju will write the exam. (Future)

This present tense indicates the time simultaneous with the moment of speech, past represents the time prior to the moment of speech, future stands for the time subsequent to the moment of speech. Since tense locates the time of a situation relative of the situation of the utterance, Comrie describes as tense as deictic category. Aspects are different ways of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation.

These are two aspectual oppositions such as perfective aspect imperfective aspect.

Example:

11. Ramesh was writing when I entered.

The two verbal sequences: was writing and entered, express the universe time, i.e past.

The first verbal sequence (was writing) is imperfective aspect the second verbal sequence (entered) is perfective aspect. The different between perfective and imperfective aspect is that, the perfective look at the situation from outside, without necessarily distinguishing any of the internal structure of the situation, where as the imperfective looks at eh situation from inside.

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The choice of aspect is not necessarily a matter of objective judgment. It depends upon the individual's attitude towards a situation. For instance, one may consider the same situation as a complete event or an incomplete one. Example:

12. Ramesh wrote the letter yesterday.

13. While Ramesh was writing the letter, the postman came.

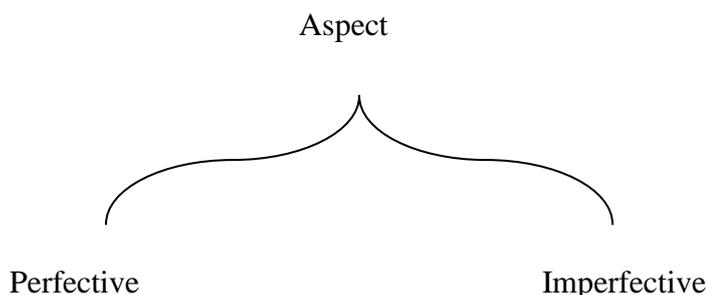
In both the sentences, the verb to write refers to the same situation, i.e writing.

But in (12) the speaker considers Ramesh's writing the letter as a complete event without referring to its temporal phrases, whereas in (13), the speaker thinks that the situation had started and was in the middle when the postman's arrival took in the verbal sequences, but in quite different ways. As noted earlier, tense is a deictic category and relates the time of situation to the moment of speech. Aspect is, on the other hand, a non-deictic category; it does not relate the time of the situation to any other time –point but rather concerns itself with the internal temporal phases of the one situation.

In brief, we can state that tense expresses situation-external time, whereas aspect refers to situation- internal time.

3.1.1 Classification of aspectual oppositions

The following diagram presents the aspectual oppositions:



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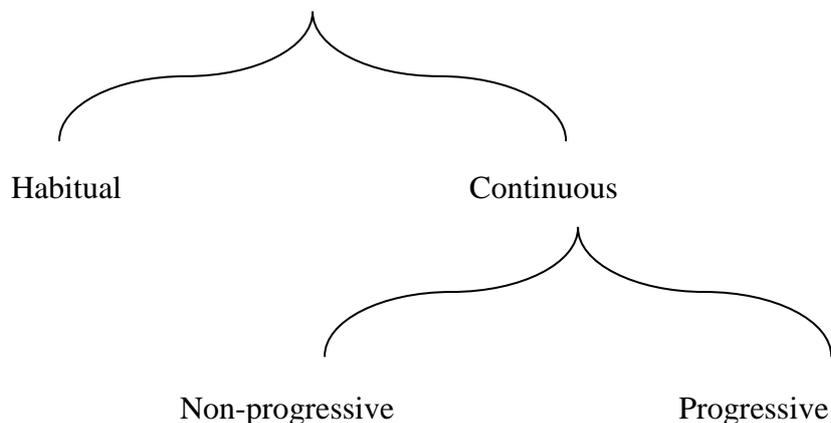


Figure: 10 Classification of aspectual oppositions

For Example:

- 13. The phone was ringing when I entered. (Imperfective)
- 14. The phone has rung twice (Perfect)
- 15. The phone was ringing (Progressive)
- 16. The phone rang (Non-Progressive)
- 17. He is going to college on foot.(Habitual)
- 18. She has worked her since 6 years. (Continuous)

3.1.2 Progressive Aspect

The progressive aspect is marked with the periphrastic form: be-ing. Example:

- 19. Meena is studying now.

The basic function progressive aspect is to describe a situation in progress. In (19) the verb forms refer to the situation that Meena's studying is going on at the moment the speech act is performed. The progressive is restricted by their meaning. Verbs can be classified into stative and dynamic in terms of their meaning. A stative verb refers to a state, whereas a non-stative verb refers to an action or event which indicates a change of state. Example:

20. Meena knows where I live.

21. The dog is running.

In (20) knows is a stative verb which refers to the state of Meena's knowledge that does not under go any sort of change. On the basis of the action indicated by (21) one can aptly describe the dog as the running dog. However, one cannot use this noun verb of motion which indicates a change of state.

3.1.3 Perfect

The perfect aspect serves to relate some state to a preceding situation that creates it, for example:

22. I am eating now.

23. I have already eaten

In (22) the present progressive indicates that the situation of eating is in progress, where as in (23) the present perfect, indicates that the situation of my eating is already over, but its after effect i.e. I don't feel like eating now, still exists- a post effect related to an anterior situation. As the perfect relates two time-points the time of the state and the time of the preceding situation, their relations will vary from tense to tense.

The perfect has three combinations as:

Present perfect: It is present state related to past situation. Example:

24. Ramesh has eaten the mango.

Past perfect: It is past state related to a situation earlier to it. Example:

25. Ramesh had eaten the mango, before I came.

Future perfect: It is future state related to a situation prior to it. Example:

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26. Ramesh will have eaten the mango (before I came).

(I) Present Perfect

The meaning of the present perfect is often described as referring to past with present relevance, retrospective present or the continuing relevance of a previous situation.

It has the following manifestations in English

- (a) The resultative perfect
- (b) The experiential perfect
- (c) The continuative perfect
- (d) The perfect of recent past

a) **Resultative perfect** The present perfect refers to a past event, the result of which skill exists at the present time. Example:

27. Ramesh has cut his hand with a knife.

In this sentence, cutting his hand took place in the past, but its effect will exist, i.e. the cut has not yet healed. The resultative perfect does not need the adverbials of time.

b) Experiential perfect

It refers to some event that has taken place at least once in a period leading up to the present, Example:

28. Mr. Varma has been to London.

It means, Mr. Varma once visited London, but he is not there now. The experiential perfect gives indefinite past meaning which is often indicated adverbially, especially by ever, never or before (now).

c) **Continuative perfect**

It is used to indicate a situation that begins in the past, continues up to the present and may extend into the future. Example:

29. I have lived here since 20 years.

In this sentence, the situation of living here began 20 years ago and is still valid, but it is not explicitly mentioned, whether it will continue in future or not.

d) **Perfect of Recent past**

It is used to indicate a situation completed in the recent past. Example:

30. Peter has just gone out.

This type of perfect generally occurs with adverbials like just, recently.

(II) Past perfect

The past perfect or pluperfect in English refers to “a time further in the past, seen from the view of a definite point of time already in the past. For example:

31. Peter had lived in Paris for 15 years (when I met him).

(III) Future perfect

The future perfect is used to predict an action which at a given future time will be in the past. Example:

32. He will have reached home by four today.

3.1.4 Perfect progressive

The perfect in English can combine with the progressive to yield the perfect progressive, which further conjugates with the present and past. Thus, there are two kinds of perfect progressive namely, present perfect progressive (has been writing) and past perfect progressive (had been writing). The basic meaning of the perfect progressive suggests both aspectual meanings: the perfect and the progressive.

(I) Present Perfect Progressive

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It has the following manifestations as:

(a) Resultative perfect progressive.

For example:

33. She has been crying again (look, her eyes are red)

In this case, it is not necessary for the activity to continue right up to the present moment.

(b) Experiential perfect progressive

It is used to indicate a situation which is an on going process.

For example:

34. Have you ever been watching television when the tube has exploded?

(c) Continuative Perfect Progressive

It means a temporary situation leading up to the present and possibly extending to the future.

For example:

35. Hari has been living in London since 2000.

(I) Past Perfect Progressive

The past perfect progressive can be used to refer to all the meanings discussed above with respect to the present perfect progressive. Further more, it may refer to a past event preceding another past event. It is often used with an adverbial of time.

36. My friend's servant ran away with his wife; I had been warning him for quite some time.

3.2 M.A.K. Halliday (1985)

Halliday speaks about tenses in different angles and he doesn't speak about aspects.

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According to him, tense system is carried by a logical structure. He organizes the rank group in his book entitled, An introduction to Functional Grammar in the following way.

He distinguishes two different units within the same rank: phrases (a reduced strain of clause) and groups (an enlarged strain of word) within phrases, he only includes one type of structure: prepositional phrases. Within groups, he distinguishes three basic structures: the verbal group, the nominal group and the adverbial group. Besides these elements, he also introduces two more groups the preposition group and the conjunction group. But in this study of tense only the verbal group and the nominal group functions are described to understand Halliday's analysis of tense.

The verbal group is the constituent that functions as finite plus predicator (or as predicator alone if there is no finite element) in the mood structure (clause as exchange); and as process in the transitivity structure (clause as representation). Example:

37. Some one has been eating may porridge.

In (37) the verbal group is has been eating. Thus, a verbal group is the expansion of a verb, in the same way that a nominal group is the expansion of a noun. Let us look at the following example:

(38) He stayed three weeks

In (38) the nominal group three weeks has verbal values as one could paraphrase it as "he stayed being three weeks".

Halliday gives several examples for process nominal groups (the building of the bridge, the defacing of status of national heroes, the departure of the boats, his handling of situation etc).

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The verbal group ends with an event. Example:

39. He has been eating.
Aux Event

In (39) the verbal groups has been eating provides three tenses, present, past and present as 1) present, expressed by the –s in has 2) past, expressed by the verb have plus the –en in been 3) present, expressed by the verb be plus the –ing in eating (i.e plus the fact that the next verb is in the present/active participle form v-ing).

The tenses form of the sentence (39) is **present in past in present tense**.

According to Halliday, to choose the tense form of a sentence, we must not only know the relation between the time of the events described in the sentence, but also the relation which holds between the event time or reference time i.e., the interval of time the situation described in the clause refers to. Example:

40. By the end of next month, I shall have finished writing the novel.

In (40) the speaking time in ‘now’ and the event time is given by the time interval associated with the action to finish writing the novel, and the reference time is the future action that is “by the end of next month.” Halliday uses a systemic approach to tense selection. The name for a tense combination in the systemic approach is determined by considering inverted order of the choices. Example:

41. He is going to have taken.

Present future past

The tense form of this sentence is **past in future in present**. In the view of Halliday up to quinary tenses (such as will have been going to have been taking, **present in past in future in past**) are admissible in English. But some tense combinations how ever are not allowed in

9) I will be singing	--	present in future
10) I was going to sing	--	future in past
11) I am going to sing	--	future in present
12) I will be going to sing	--	future in future
13) I was going to have sung	--	past in future in past
14) I am going to have sung	--	past in future in future
15) I will going to have sung	--	past in future in future
16) I had been singing	--	present in past in present
17) I have been singing	--	present in past in future
18) I will have been singing	--	present in past in future
19) I was going to be singing	--	present in future in past
20) I am going to be singing	--	present in future in present
21) I will be going to be singing	--	present in future in future
22) I had been going to sing	--	future in past in past
23) I have been going to sing	--	future in past in present
24) I will have been going to have sung	--	future in past in future
25) I had been going to have sung	--	past in future in past in present
26) I have been going to have sung	--	past in future in past in present
27) I will have been going to have taken	--	past in future in past in future
28) I was going to have been singing	--	present in past in future in past
29) I am going to have been singing	--	present in past in future in past
30) I will be going to be singing	--	present in past in future in future
31) I had been going to be singing	--	present in future in past in past
32) I have been going to be singing	--	present in future in past in present
33) I will have been going to be singing	--	present in future in past in future.
34) I had been going to have been singing	--	pre.in past in future in past in past
35) I have been going to have been singing	--	pre.in past in future in past in past
36) I will have been going to have been singing -		pre.in past in full. In past in fut.

Thus tense system –I, has 36 forms of tenses according to Halliday.

Tense system II, is neutralized as past, past in present and past in past. For example:

- 1) He arrived yesterday
- 2) He has arrived just now.

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- 3) He had arrived before that.
- 4) They said he had arrived just then.
- 5) They said he had arrived before that

All these sentences are represented as past in past. Since there are six such groups, system II has 12 fewer tenses than system I.

System III has non- finite form where as system II is a finite one using the clause having arrived, system III represents 12 forms.

For example:

a) Non-finite

1. Having arrived yesterday, she shared her experience.
2. Having arrived just now, she shared her experience.
3. Having arrived before that, she talked about her trip.

b) Modalised

1. She must have arrived yesterday.
2. She must have arrived just now.
3. She must have arrived before that

c) Non- finite

1. Being about to arrive tomorrow.
2. Being about to arrive just now.
3. Being about to arrive after that

d) Modalised

1. She must be going to arrive tomorrow
2. She must be going to arrive just now.
3. She must be going to arrive after that.

In system-III past, past in present and past in past are all represented by past. In the same way, future in present and future in future are all represented by future. So, the total number of tenses in system III is twelve (12).

The Halliday represents different tense systems and he doesn't speak about aspect in English.

3.3V. Prakasam(1970 and 2004)

Prakasam defines tense referring to the concept of Crystal (1980) and brings out his own functional views on tense and aspect. Tense is defined as “a category used in the grammatical description of verbs (along with aspect and mood), referring primarily to the way the grammar marks the time at which the action denoted by the verb took place” (Crystal, 1980: 352) Aspect is defined as “a category in grammatical description of verbs (along with tense and mood), referring primarily to the way the grimmer marks the duration or type of activity denoted by the verb” (ibid: 34)

Here ‘tense’ is referred as categorization of the relationship between the time o speech and the time of the ‘processes’.’ Aspect’ refers to the state of the process completed (perfective), not completed (non-perfective). One needs to look at time per se. can it ever be ‘present’, i.e ‘now’,(‘now’ is the moment of speech), hence one can establish or talk of ‘before now’ for the past, and the future as ‘after now’ and the present as ‘during now’ but not ‘now’. Adding to this point, one needs to distinguish between the auxiliary or ‘modal’ colour of ‘tense’ and the internal or inflexional expression of tense. ‘Be’ and “Have’ are the only English verbs which can really refer to ‘now’ or ‘during now’. Example:

43. He is a doctor.

44. He has two daughters.

No other verb in English can refer to the ‘now’ of time correlation (tense).

The sentences,

45. He teaches at the University.

46. He taught at the University

do not really refer to any time correlation. The sentence (45) refers to the profession of ‘He’ which is “not yet over”. The other sentence (46) shows that his teaching at the university is ‘over’. It is not about ‘when’ the sentences are talking about but the ‘state’ of the process that is being talked about.

If so, Praksam argues against bringing in the category of tense in this regard. In this context, he talks about aspect as follows:

teaches -- non perfect (not yet completed)

taught -- perfect (completed)

The other important point that he brings out here is the distinction of finite and non-finite verbs. Example:

Aspect	Finite	Non- finite
Perfective	did took built	done taken built
Non Perfective	do(es) take(s) build(s)	Doing (to) do (inf) taking building

Table: 4 Perfective and non-Perfective aspects:

The main point being made here is that verbs, except ‘**be**’ and ‘**have**’, express only aspect. ‘**Be**’ and ‘**have**’ carry **tense** while in colligation with the main verbs carrying aspect.

For example:

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(47) He pained the door.

expresses the fact that the job of painting is 'over' or completed. On the other hand,

(48) He has painted the door.

refers to the completion of action as relevant to the present. The structure 'has painted' shown here is different from the traditional representation.

Pre+have-en+point –(traditional)

Pre+ have+painting – (here)(perf.Nonf)

Here 'painted' is 'perfective' and 'has' is 'present' (III person singular).

Look at the following sentences

(49) Did you see Taj Mahal?

(50) Have you seen Taj Mahal?

Sentence (49) is referring to 'seeing' per se and sentence (50) is referring to seeing in the present. The sentence (50) will be relevant to a situation where the addressee is talking of his visit to Agra. Sentence (49) may come up when someone is talking about Taj Mahal and asks the addressee whether he ever saw it.

Sentences (49) and (50) shows that 'have' is the tense carrier when the main verb is in the perfective- finite (did see) or non-finite (seen).

On the other hand, if 'be' is used as tense carrier with the perfective form of the verb, the sentence construction will be passive. If non-perfective is used with 'be' then it gives a progressive construction. Example:

51. He is painting the door.

52. He was painting the door.

53. The door is painted by her.

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54. The door was painted by her.

In (53) and (54) 'be' is passive marker in colligation with the nonfinite perfective form of a verb. When a verb is in 'perfective' it takes an adjunct expressing specific time, but if the verb is already marked for tense it doesn't take a specific temporal adjunct.

55. Did you see her on Monday?

Is acceptable where as

56. Have you seen him on Monday?

is not.

because, one cannot use 'perfective' form where the 'presentness' of perfectness is meant.

57. Did you see Mr.Rahu?

58. Have you seen Mr. Rahu?

When 'aspect' and 'tense' are marked more than once, then we get the complex cases. For example:

59. Rahu has been painting it for a week now.

60. This Flyover has been being built for the last five years.

'has been painting' and 'has been built' are complex verbal groups and are semantically reflecting several simple groups;

61. i) has painted + is painting =preperfective +present progressive
ii) has + -en + be + painting =present nf.perf pre nf. Non-perfective
iii) has been painting

Present perfective progressive

Here a part of the painting has been completed in pas and the rest is being painted now.

The verbal group in (60) is more complex.

62. (i) has built + is building +is built
Pre.perfect Progressive pre.passive

(i) Has+-en +he -ing +be built

(ii) Has been being built

Here the Flyover is built in parts. The construction work is going on. The builders have completed building it in parts. The verbal group here reflects the complexity of the work process. The 'passive' seems to 'subsume' the 'active' activity of building. What is shown here in (61) and (62) is what one can call Syntactic Sandhi where,

(i) The main verb gets deleted except in the last unit and

(ii) The aspect marker gets appended to the next tense carrier.

Complex situations are reflected in complex verbalization. Telescoping takes place as part of 'non repetitive' and 'time saving' activity.

Chapter - 4

Summation: Research Findings and Futuristic View Points

4.0 Introduction

This chapter begins with a discussion on the procedure followed to conduct the study. The researcher taught the students the general concept of tense and aspect first and then the concepts of Halliday, Comrie and Prakasam through various examples: at the end of each session a group discussion was followed that helped the learners to understand the grammar aspect easily. Finally a test was administered to here in a descriptive nature. The pedagogical significance of the study, limitations of the study, scope of the study and an over view of the study entitled ‘Tense and Aspect: A Pedagogical Linguistic Study are also presented in this chapter.

4.1 Procedure for Data Analysis

In the present study, the data is collected purely from students’ response and it presented in a descriptive manner because the students find it difficult to respond to the question that are given in English. As they are from regional background most of them expressed their understanding of the concept taught in their mother tongue (Telugu). For this very reason the researcher taught the concepts using bilingual method and the data presentation is descriptive. The researcher, the questionnaire, classroom observation, group and pair based tasks and an end-test are the tools that are used in order to collect the data.

4.2 Teaching Strategies

In order to arrive at the suitable strategies for teaching tense and aspect of Halliday, Prakasam and Comrie the researcher divided the teaching into four stages. From the active interaction with the learners, it was found that the following strategies would be useful for these learners who are from regional background.

- (a) Teaching through various examples
- (b) Group discussions and pair based tasks
- (c) Motivating them to use it in situations and conversations
- (d) Teaching through bilingual method.

These strategies have been used to teach the tenses and aspects for English. These strategies proved to be quite useful and served the purpose of teaching tense and aspect. Now let's look at the teaching procedures in detail.

The concept of Halliday, Comrie and Prakasam on tense and aspect was taught to a group of 30 students for a week and their understanding of these concepts were studied. The selected students were from the regional medium within the age group of 17-18 years. The teaching was divided into four stages. The first two days the ideas of Comrie was taught and the following two days involved the teaching of the concept of Prakasam and the next two days the ideas of Halliday. At the end of the teaching, a questionnaire was administered to 30 learners to test their understanding.

The class started with a motivation session asking a few questions on tense and aspect such as:

1. What is tense?
2. What are the basic tenses in English?
3. How tense is related to time?
4. What is your understanding about aspect?

Only a few of the students responded to all the questions. Most of the students were familiar with the basic tense in English: Past, Present, and Future. But they had very little knowledge of the term 'aspect'. However, after eliciting some ideas from them the basic three tenses and their other forms were taught. For example:

1. Tom works hard (Present tense)
2. Tom worked hard (past tense)
3. Tom will work hard (Future tense)

Here these tenses indicate the time of the action that take place in the present past and future. Each tense is again divided into four forms as:

(a) Present tense

- | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|
| (a) I take | (Simp. Pre. Ten) |
| (b) I am taking | (Pre. Cont.) |
| (c) I have taken | (Pre. Perf.) |
| (d) I have been taking | (Pre. Perf. Cont. Ten) |

(b) Past tense

- | | |
|-----------------------|-------------------|
| (a) I took | (Simp. past) |
| (b) I was taking | (Past. Cont.) |
| (c) I had taken | (Past Perf.) |
| (d) I had been taking | (Past Perf.Cont.) |

(c) Future tense

- | | |
|------------------------------|----------------------|
| (a) I shall take | (Simple Future) |
| (b) I shall be taking | (Future Cont.) |
| (c) I shall have taken | (Future Perf.) |
| (d) I shall have been taking | (Future Perf. Cont.) |

After teaching these basic tense forms, the concept of Comrie was taught through various examples such as:

1. Praveena worked for eleven hours yesterday (Past)
2. Praveena feels terribly hot now (Present)
3. Praveena will come tomorrow (Future)

In (1),(2),(3), the verbal forms –ed,-s, and will represent different times, i.e. the universe time: past, present and future.

Look at the following sentences:

- 4a) When walking down the road I often meet Raju.
- 4b) When walking down the road I often met Raju.

The above constructions show that ‘meet’ and ‘met’ relate the universe time to the moment of speech and Comrie terms it as Absolute tense.

Look at the following sentences:

- 5a) Having met Raju I don’t need to see him again
- 5b) Gaving met Raju I don’t need to see him again

The above sentences show that it relates the universe time to the time of some other situation and Comrie calls it Relative Tense. Thus, Comrie examined tenses with absolute time reference, where a situation is located at, before or after the present moment: and relative tenses, where a situation is located at, before or after a reference point given by the context.

(Comrie, 1985:64-65)

Few of the students respond well to teaching of this concept. They find it difficult to understand the idea of aspect such as imperfective and perfective. Yet, few of the learners grasped the meaning of ‘aspect’ when it is explained through various examples as:

5. Mary was studying when I entered.

In (6), there are two verbal sequences: was studying and entered. Both of them express the same kind of universe time, i.e. past. But what make them different are their variant representations of the event time. The first verbal sequence (was studying) refers neither to the beginning nor to the end of the situation- Mary’s studying, but to its internal portion, i.e. her studying is in progress. The verbal form which can convey this meaning related to the event time is said to have imperfective meaning. If a language has a distinctive verbal form to express this meaning it is called imperfective aspect. The second verbal sequence (entered), the situations is presented as a single whole, and all its successive phases of entry- beginning, middle and end merged into one. If a language has a verbal form marked to express this kind of perfective meaning, it is called perfective aspect. Aspects thus express the time distinctions contained within a situation.

The next two days the ideas of Halliday on tense were taught through various examples such as:

7. She has been reading

Here in (7), the verbal group has been reading presents event time, experiential time and speech time. The event is reading, the verbs ‘have’ expressed the experience in the past and the speech time is in the present. Here Halliday gives a logical tense form to the sentence as; present in past in present. In (7), ‘present’ expressed by the –s in has, ‘past’ expressed by the verb ‘have’ plus the –en been and ‘present’ expressed by the verb be plus the –ing in reading. In this view to choose the tense form of a sentence, one must not only know the

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relation between the times of the events described in the sentence, but also the relation between the event time and reference time. Here Halliday does not speak about aspect.

The students find it difficult to grasp the ideas of Halliday. They expressed that his analysis is confusing and beyond their level of understanding. A further effort may help the learners to understand the concept better.

The following two days the concept of Prakasam on tense and aspect was taught through a number of examples such as:

8. He is a lawyer.

9. He has two houses.

The above sentences (8),(9) refer to the time 'now' or 'during now'. He assumes that 'Be' and 'Have' are the only English verbs which can refer to 'now' or 'during now'. No other verb in English can refer to the "now" of time correlation (tense). Look at the following sentences;

10. She works in the bank.

11. She worked in the bank.

The sentences (10), refers to the profession of 'she' which is not 'over'. The sentence (11) shows that her service is 'over'. Here the state of the process is being talked about. Thus, the verb 'works' in (10) is not completed and the verb 'worked' in (11) is completed. Here Prakasam brings out the concept of perfect and non perfect aspects in English. For example, in (10), works – non perfect (not yet completed).

And in (11), worked-perfect (completed).

Verbs except 'be' and 'have' express only aspect. And 'be' and 'have' carry tense. In this context, Prakasam speaks about finite and non finite verbs, non finite perfective and non finite non perfective verbs. For example:

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	Perfect	Non-perfect
fn.	Went	Go(es)
nf.	Gone	Going

Table: 5 Verb Forms

Here the finite verb **went** shows the action completed and the non finite verb refers to the action that is not completed. For example:

- 12. He went home (fn.Perf)
- 13. He goes (fn.Non perfect)
- 14. He has gone (nf. Perfect)
- 15. He is going (nf.Non perfect)

The students responded well and participated actively in the class. They expressed that the ideas of Prakasam on tense and aspect are rather simple and clear. The learners were asked to express their understanding of the concepts taught through group discussions. The draw back of the learners is that their mind is attuned to traditional method of learning grammar rules rather than using it in the situational context. They expressed their difficulty to use this knowledge for communication purpose. The students need more exposure to English language use. How ever they expressed their interest for further learning in this area. Hence a further research on this area is essential.

4.3 Test and Findings of the Study

After one week of teaching of the three concepts of “Tense and Aspect”, the learners were a test to assess the degree of their learning. This test covered all the items that have been taught to the learners during the time span of one week. The learners were given one day to prepare for the test. It was found that the performance of the learners in the test was far from being satisfactory. Because some of them did not attempt all the questions as they found it difficult to express in English language. The nature of the test was very simple with only six questions, testing learners’ understanding of the three concepts. The test consisted of five objective type questions and one question was descriptive type. However, the conducted study is very elementary and it can be considered as a pilot study. The following are the six questions administered for the test;

1. Identify the following underlined verbal groups and write what tense they are in.
 - a. Ramu has come back.
 - b. I missed my flight.
 - c. He has lived in London
 - d. They had been in business all their lives.
 - e. Hari will have written.
 - f. Robbin wrote a letter.’
 - g. Robin had written.
 - h. Have you ever visited Indonesia?
 - i. He was president for ten years.
 - j. How long have you been living here?
2. Comrie speaks about Absolute and Relative tense. (True or False)
3. Halliday explains both tense and Aspect (True or False)
4. Prakasam brings out the distinction between finite and nonfinite verbs relation to tense and aspect (True or False)

5. Explain any one of the concepts based on your understanding with two examples.
6. Whose concepts, did you understand the most?
 - a) Halliday
 - b) Comrie
 - c) Prakasam

From the above questionnaire the following findings emerged.

For the first question, 18 students identified the tenses of the given sentences following the concepts of Prakasam, 9 students marked the tenses according to the ideas of Comrie and 3 students marked the tenses following the views of Halliday. To the second, third and fourth questions, most of the students responded correctly. To the fifth question, 12 students explained the concept of Prakasam with examples, 7 students explained the concept of Comrie with examples and 2 students explained the idea of Halliday and 9 students did not respond to the question. For this question the learners couldn't give a satisfactory answer as many couldn't express their views in English and some of them used their mother tongue. For the final question, out of 30 students 17 of them wrote that Prakasam's concept is more comprehensible and easy to grasp the meaning of tense and aspect, 11 students expressed that Comrie's concept is more comprehensible and 2 students were interested in Halliday's concept. The following are the findings of the study.

- (a) Students grasped the concept of Prakasam easily and lucidly
- (b) Students find it difficult to comprehend the views of Halliday.
- (c) Students understood the concept of Comrie but it is not so clear
- (d) Students find it difficult to express in English
- (e) They do not apply this learning in communication
- (f) Students are good at listening and interacting
- (g) Students need a lot of help and motivation
- (h) Students performed better in group activities than individual tasks.
- (i) Students' poor socio-economic background has a lot of negative impact on their learning.

4.4 Implication for the Teachers

The teachers may focus their attention on teaching the views of tense and aspect taking into consideration the students level of understanding using different modern techniques,

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The teacher may motivate learners and make classroom teaching as interesting as possible in order to make the learning easy. The classroom teaching may provide a room for the learners to use the grammar elements in real situations which may enable the learners to use their theoretical knowledge for communication purpose.

4.5 Pedagogical Significance of the study

Chapter II and III present the analysis of different writers on Tense and Aspect system in English. Particularly, the functional analysis of **tense and aspects** of Comrie, Halliday and Prakasm. The test administered to the learners and the students' response showed that the learners grasped the ideas of Prakasam more easily than the concept of Halliday and Comrie. Thus the study gives an insight into the following aspects;

- (a) Teachers need to be aware of the learners' level of understanding and implement in the teaching of tense and aspect which is more insightful to the letters.
- (b) Teachers may adopt new methods of teaching to avoid the learning difficulty of the students.
- (c) Various examples and group discussions and pair based tasks can be used in the classroom teaching.
- (d) Teachers may communicate with the learners in English and if it is really necessary the teacher may use bilingual method for teaching.

4.6 Limitations of the Study

The following are the limitations of the study.

- a) The study has attempted to study only the concepts of Halliday, Comrie and Prakasam.
- b) The study has concentrated on the teaching of only the tense and aspect of English. As a result, not much attention has been paid to other aspects of grammar.
- c) This study takes into consideration only the 30 degree students who are from regional medium.

- d) The nature of the test has been very rudimentary and this can be considered only as pilot study.
- e) The teaching sessions are limited to a period of one week and the nature of the test was very simple with six questions covering the items that have taught. Hence further research and an elaborate exploration of the three concepts and more teaching sessions may make the study more concrete.

4.7 Scope of the Study

Further research could be carried out to assess the present analysis on tense and aspect which may enable the learners to comprehend the concept of tense and aspect more insightfully. A similar study can be taken up for the second language learners at school and intermediate level students to enable them understand the concept of tense and aspect as it is the basic knowledge for the communication.

4.8 Overview of the study

The present study entitle, **Tense and Aspect: A Pedagogical Linguistic Study** has been undertaken with a view to teaching tense and aspect more clearly to the learners at degree level as tense and aspect are basic to the use of English. The inspiration to take up this study has emerged from the researcher's personal teaching experience as she found it difficult to teach the students traditional rules of tense and aspect.

The study has attempted to enhance our knowledge of tense and aspect in English. Details of different tenses and aspects have been presented in chapter II and III. These are presented from different view points. The work of Quirk et al, Huddleston and Pullum, Zandvoort, Leech and Svartvik, Halliday, Comire and Prakasam gives us a very comprehensive picture of the English verbal group from the two crucial angles of 'time' and the 'state' of process.

The teaching of three specific variant view points has added to our knowledge of students needs. Students need precise picture of a given grammatical category and a clear presentation of the same. Once the basics are comprehended clearly, it will be easier for the

teacher to take the students to more difficult and complex categories. The morphological, semantic and discourse aspects of a category can make the students grasp the ideas analytically and later synthesize them for their cognition and storage.

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Evolving Strategies for Teaching Basic Vocabulary in L2 through Meaningful Input:

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**EVOLVING STRATEGIES FOR TEACHING BASIC VOCABULARY
IN L2 THROUGH MEANINGFUL INPUT: AN ETHNOGRAPHIC
STUDY WITH FIRST GENERATION LEARNERS**

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ABSTRACT

The thesis entitled, “EVOLVING STRATEGIES FOR TEACHING BASIC VOCABULARY IN L2 THROUGH MEANINGFUL INPUT: AN ETHNOGRAPHIC STUDY WITH FIRST GENERATION LEARNERS” is an attempt to teach basic vocabulary to the first generation learners. It proposes to evolve vocabulary teaching strategies that are suitable to the level of the learners and to the context in which they are placed. Meaningful input which is culturally familiar and which is readily available in the learners’ immediate context is used in the process of teaching. The present research argues that vocabulary and language skills (LSRW) share a mutually constitutive relationship. In other words, words should not be taught in isolation and out of context; rather, teaching of vocabulary should be built into the teaching of the language skills and in turn focus on skill development while teaching vocabulary would help gain proficiency in a language. As Nation (1993b) rightly puts, vocabulary knowledge enriches language use and language use enhances vocabulary knowledge.

The study hypothesizes that equipping learners with basic vocabulary through various vocabulary teaching strategies would certainly enhance the low-achievers’ comprehension abilities in processing their L2 academic texts. It is further hypothesized that vocabulary will be learnt effectively if taught through meaningful input.

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The study is carried out in three phases. Phase one involves identifying the problems that the first generation learners encounter while coping with the demands of learning the L2 with a special focus on vocabulary. This is done through classroom observation and also through interaction with the learners outside school i.e. at home and in their immediate environment. The Dolch Word List (DWL) is selected as suitable to the learners from among the various vocabulary lists available. The second phase concentrates on teaching the vocabulary from the DWL to the learners over a period of time through meaningful input using classroom tasks and communicative situations. Some of the strategies evolved for the purpose of teaching vocabulary are: a) vocabulary through reading; b) vocabulary through exploiting classroom situations; c) vocabulary through authentic materials and classroom tasks; and d) vocabulary through grammar of words. Phase three consists of assessment of learners' achievement in terms of the vocabulary knowledge that they have gained over a period of 60 instructional sessions. This is done through an end test which has items that tested their improved proficiency in the aspects of meaning and spelling. Learners' improvement in pronunciation is gauged through interaction in the classroom. And so the test items did not include pronunciation.

The first chapter defines vocabulary and explains its related aspects such as kinds of vocabulary, aspects of word knowledge, and approaches to teaching / learning vocabulary. The role of vocabulary in developing language skills (LSRW) has also been discussed. The chapter also introduces the research problem.

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The second chapter reviews the research carried out in the area of vocabulary teaching / learning. This is done with the purpose of placing the present study in the map of ongoing research in the field of L2 vocabulary learning. An attempt is made to draw theoretical support for the study from the available research. Further, a theoretical framework for the study is designed which consists of the following three major aspects – basic vocabulary, strategies for teaching, and meaningful input. The third chapter discusses the research design of the study. The relevance of the present study is highlighted. The subjects of the study, tools and methodology adopted for data collection are enumerated. The terms used in the present study are explained.

The fourth chapter deals with the presentation and interpretation of the data. It furnishes details of classroom observation and field observation. It gives a detailed account of the learners, their socio-economic background, their language environment and the teaching conditions. This information is gathered by administering a questionnaire to the learners. The chapter offers a detailed discussion of the three major components of the present research: a) the diagnostic test and how it helped to select the suitable vocabulary list (the DWL) to be taught to the learners; b) the actual classroom teaching of vocabulary over period of 60 instructional sessions and c) the end-test administered to the learners to assess their improved vocabulary knowledge. The responses of the teachers, learners and parents recorded in informal interviews are also presented.

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The fifth chapter presents the findings of the study and discusses their implications for the teachers, learners, parents and the institution. This chapter also puts forth some recommendations for pedagogical action to be considered by the second language teachers. The limitations of the study have been stated. The need for compensatory classes for the low-achievers has been emphasized. Some hints on learning vocabulary, gathering and studying words and using dictionaries have been suggested. The chapter ends by suggesting some possible areas for further research.

The study concludes with a positive note on the possibilities of improving the academic performance of the first generation learners. This, the study has proved, could be achieved through teaching basic L2 vocabulary to the learners which in turn would facilitate efficient text comprehension and result in proficient test performance. Equipped with the ability to face the challenges of learning the L2 through improved vocabulary knowledge and with a renewed confidence in themselves the first generation learners would then be able to make higher academic decisions and use the opportunities around for their academic growth and career improvement.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

The chapter attempts to define the term vocabulary. It discusses different kinds of vocabulary as well as the various aspects of vocabulary knowledge which are essential in second language (L2) learning and teaching. It also throws light on well-known approaches to learning vocabulary. The role of vocabulary in acquiring language skills and their reciprocal relationship is highlighted. An argument on whether vocabulary should be taught is also presented. This chapter ends with an introductory note on the research problem.

1.1 Vocabulary and Related Aspects

Vocabulary is a core component of language proficiency and provides the basis for understanding how well learners listen, speak, read, and write. Without an extensive vocabulary and strategies for acquiring new vocabulary, learners often achieve less than their potential in terms of academic success. Further, lack of proficiency in vocabulary also hampers learner's optimal use of the language learning opportunities available aplenty (the radio, newspapers, television etc). Research on vocabulary in recent years has focused on the levels of vocabulary

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learning which learners need to achieve in order to read unsimplified materials and to process different kinds of oral and written texts. Research also explored into the kinds of strategies learners use in understanding, using, and remembering words.

Very often, in the past, vocabulary learning was viewed as an independent, isolated activity involving reading a variety of texts and also interacting with different listening aids. However, it is increasingly felt that vocabulary cannot be taught/ learnt in isolation. Further, vocabulary teaching and learning, especially in India, have been given little priority in second language programmes. But now the importance of vocabulary and its role has been greatly acknowledged both in learning and in teaching a second language.

1.2 The Place of Vocabulary in L2

There are a number of goals in any language learning. We know that a language is comprised of many aspects like: phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics. Equal and appropriate attention should be paid to all these aspects by language teachers. In this context, it will not be out of place to say that vocabulary plays a prominent role in learning language. This is so because proficiency in spoken and written discourses of a person is determined by his or her ability to choose and use words appropriately. Hence, teaching vocabulary becomes a specific goal in any language learning programme. A look at the table below helps us to understand the place of vocabulary in language learning.

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Table: 1

Goals for Language Learning

General goals

Specific goals

Language items

- Pronunciation
- Vocabulary**
- Grammatical constructions

Ideas (content)

- Subject matter knowledge
- Cultural knowledge

Skills

- Accuracy
- Fluency
- Strategies
- Process skills or sub-skills

Text (discourse)

- Conversational discourse rules
 - Text schemata or topic type scales
-

Nation (2003)

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The table above besides helping us to know various language learning goals also shows that vocabulary is a specific goal under the language items. Although the focus of this thesis is on developing strategies to teach basic vocabulary, which is the sub-goal of learning L2, the other goals are not ignored. Moreover, they have been approached from different perspectives in relation to vocabulary and language skills such as listening, speaking, reading, writing and also spelling and grammar.

1.3 Defining ‘Vocabulary’

In the context of second language learning, it is generally understood that vocabulary means ‘new words’. Now let us look at the definitions given by two well-known dictionaries:

According to the *Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary*, vocabulary means:

1. ‘All the words known and used by a particular person’.
2. ‘All the words which exist in a particular language’.

(CALD p. 1423)

According to the *Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary*, vocabulary means:

1. ‘All the words a person knows or uses’.

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2. 'All the words in a particular language'.
3. 'The words that people use when they are talking about a particular subject'.
4. 'A list of words with their meanings, especially in a book for learning a foreign language'.

(OALD p. 1707)

It is understood from the definitions above that vocabulary means all the words in a particular language. But it is said that it is impossible for even native speakers to master all the words of that particular language. Therefore, in the context of the present study, keeping in mind the immediate needs of the learners, their level and the context in which they are placed, the term vocabulary is used in a limited sense. Here it refers to the basic vocabulary that any learner would need to process a text. Further, the focus of the study is restricted to the meaning, spelling and pronunciation aspects of word knowledge.

1.4 Kinds of Vocabulary

There are three kinds of vocabulary according to their usefulness in a language. The first is active or productive vocabulary which occurs in one's spoken and written language. The second is passive or receptive vocabulary which occurs in listening and reading. The third kind is adhoc vocabulary which is not immediately useful. There is another way of classifying

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vocabulary into four categories. These categories refer to high-frequency words, academic words, technical words and low-frequency words. These are briefly presented below.

1.4.1 High Frequency Words

These include structure words (in, for, the, of, a, etc), and also content words (government, forest, production, boundary, etc). The best referred list of high frequency words is West's (1953) General Service List of English Words which contains around 2,000 word families. Almost 80% of the running words (every word form in a spoken or written text) in the text are high frequency words and they cover a very large proportion of the running words in spoken and written texts and occur in all kinds of uses of the language.

1.4.2 Academic Words

These words are very common in different kinds of academic texts (policy, phase, adjusted, sustained, etc). These words make up about 9% of the running words in the text.

1.4.3 Technical Words

Technical words are very closely related to the topic and subject area of the text (indigenous, regeneration, timber, etc). As soon as we see them, (what) we can guess the topic

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being dealt with. They cover about 5% of the running words in a text. They are said to differ from one subject area to the other.

1.4.4 Low Frequency Words

This group includes words like zoned, pioneering, perpetuity, aired, pastoral, etc. They make up over 5% of the running words in an academic text. Low-frequency words are too many in number. But they do not fall into any of the categories of high frequency words, academic words and technical words of a particular subject.

1.5 Aspects of Vocabulary Knowledge

Learning words in any language other than one's mother tongue is not a day's task. In other words, words are not instantaneously acquired by the second language or foreign language learners. A number of researchers in second language acquisition are of the opinion that words are gradually learned over a period of time from numerous sources of exposure. This suggests that there are different aspects and degrees of knowing a word. Also vocabulary knowledge could be thought in terms of the receptive and productive knowledge, of which it is assumed that the receptive knowledge occurs first followed by the productive. One should be aware of the fact that vocabulary knowledge consists of more than just two facets – meaning and word form, of which people talk about mostly while learning new words.

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Nation (1990, p. 31) proposes the following list of the different kinds of word knowledge that a person needs to acquire in order to master a word. The following figure (in the next page) presents them.

Figure: 1
Aspects of Vocabulary Knowledge

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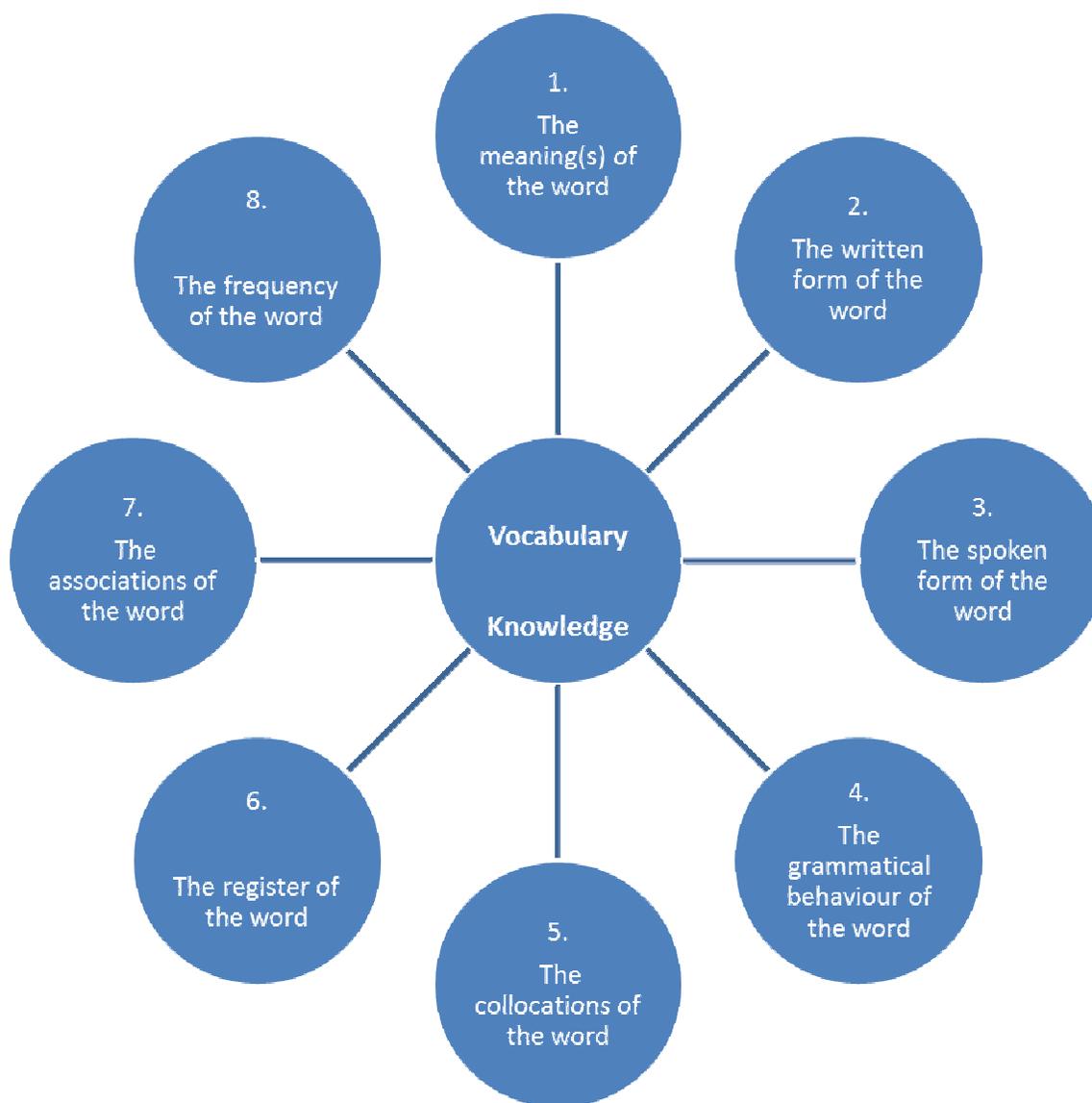
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<510-720>



Some of the other researchers who have also proposed varying conceptual frameworks of vocabulary knowledge are: Cronbach, (1942); Wallace, (1982); Dale, (1965); Henriksen, (1999); and Lowes et al. (2004).

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According to Wallace (1982: 27), to know a word in a target language may mean the ability to:

- a) recognize it in its spoken or written form;
- b) recall it at will;
- c) relate it to an appropriate object or concept;
- d) use it in an appropriate grammatical form;
- e) in speech, pronounce it in a recognizable way;
- f) in writing, spell it correctly;
- g) use it with the words it correctly goes with, i.e. in the correct collocation;
- h) use it at the appropriate level of formality;
- i) be aware of its connotations and associations.

All the aspects of word knowledge mentioned above are related and therefore are essential for anyone to perform well in a wide variety of contexts. However, it is impossible for one to gain immediate mastery of all the aspects of word knowledge when the word is encountered for the first time. Each aspect of word knowledge may be learned in a gradual manner from numerous contexts. From this perspective, vocabulary acquisition is not spontaneous but incremental in nature (Richards, 2000; Nation, 2001; Read, 2000).

1.6 Approaches to Teaching Vocabulary

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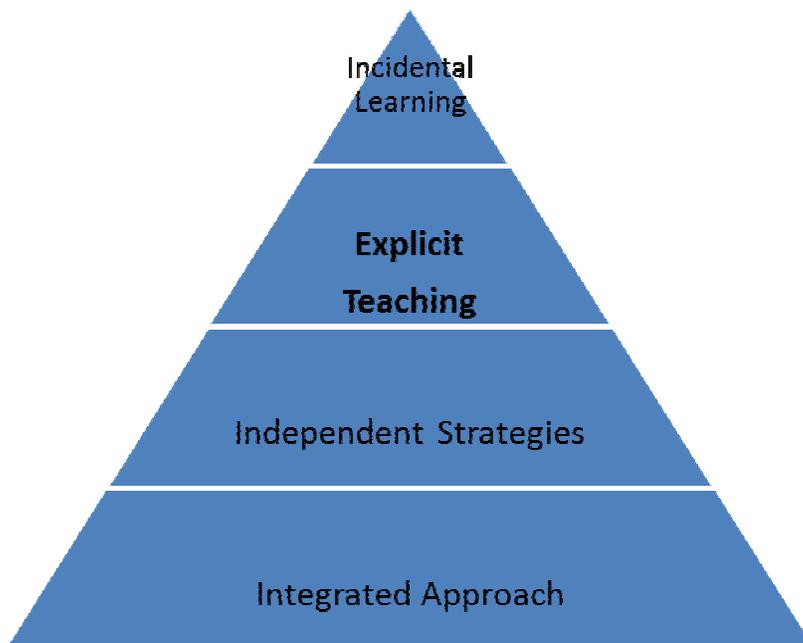
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It is believed that teaching is not always equal to learning for the reasons such as: (a) what is taught is not necessarily what is learnt and vice versa; (b) different learners might learn the same item at different times and (c) different learners might learn the same thing by following different styles and strategies. In other words, different learners learn differently and learners learn different things in different ways. Hence, let us now look into some of the approaches to learning vocabulary. They are shown in the following figure below:

Figure: 2

Approaches to Teaching Vocabulary



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The figure 2 above shows that approaches to vocabulary teaching. The approach of explicit teaching is highlighted in bold in the figure above because the present study concentrates on and exploits this approach.

1.6.1 Incidental Learning

Incidental vocabulary learning refers to learning vocabulary without any intent to learn it– that is, learning vocabulary when the learners’ primary objective is to do something else (e.g., to comprehend a reading passage) (Schmidt, 1994).

It is said that incidental learning (i.e., learning vocabulary as a by-product of doing other things such as reading or listening) can be achieved through extensive reading. This strategy has been recommended as a regular out-of-class activity (Nation, 1990; 2001; Schmitt, 2000). It requires teachers to provide opportunities for extensive reading and listening.

However, Nation (2001) points out that incidental vocabulary learning through reading often may not benefit the L2 beginner learners because they lack sufficient vocabulary knowledge to comprehend the text. In other words, extensive reading and listening– which incidental learning involves – are useful to more proficient and advanced learners. Although students showed a significant improvement in vocabulary through reading, Horst et al. (1998), from their experiment suggest that incidental vocabulary acquisition was not beneficial for low

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level learners to build up their lexicons. Swanborn and de Glopper (2002) as well as Zahar, Cobb, and Spada (2001) in their studies found that low ability readers learned very few words incidentally and that high ability readers were able to gain more in learning words through incidental learning than their counterparts- the low ability learners.

1.6.2 Explicit Instruction

Explicit instruction has to do with identifying specific vocabulary acquisition targets for learners. It involves diagnosing the words learners need to know, presenting words for the first time, elaborating word knowledge, and developing fluency with known words. It varies according to different proficiency levels of various learners and can be successfully used with the elementary and intermediate learners. Here the teacher plays a major role in designing a special vocabulary list or in making use of the existing lists such as; the General Service List (West, 1953), Basic English List (C.K. Ogden), Dolch Word List, or the University Word List (Nation, 1990) etc. These lists focus on the most common words learners need to learn for effective reading.

1.6.3 Independent Strategy Development

This is a strategy under which the learners are given opportunities or taught techniques for inferring word meanings from the given context. It is assumed to be a very complex and

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difficult strategy as learners are expected to know 19 words out of every 20 words (i.e., 95%) of a text, which requires knowing the 3,000 most common words (Liu & Nation 1985; Nation, 1990). In addition, learners are required to know the background of the text in order to guess the correct meaning. It is proved that initially, guessing words from the context is time consuming and therefore it is more likely to work for more proficient learners than elementary learners. Once the learners decide that a word is worth guessing, they might follow a five-step procedure which Nation and Coady (1988, pp. 104-150) propose:

1. Determine the part of speech of the unknown word.
2. Look at the immediate context and simplify it if necessary.
3. Look at the wider context. This entails examining the clause with the known word and its relationship to the surrounding clauses and sentences.
4. Guess the meaning of the unknown word.
5. Check that the guess is correct.

Other well-known independent strategies such as using dictionaries, maintaining vocabulary notebooks, word parts study, study of prefixes, roots and suffixes, etc are also a part of independent strategy development.

1.6.4 Integrated Approach

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For many years lexis, grammar and discourse are viewed as separate entities and this impression has been translated into teaching. However, with the advent of the communicative language teaching era, it is felt that such a disconnected approach makes language teaching unnatural. Hence, an integrated approach is advocated for effective language teaching. Lexis, grammar and discourse are well connected and given equal and appropriate importance without prioritizing one and dismissing the other. This principle of integrated approach is better actualized in the classroom through suitably designed activities rather than pre-determined content. Teaching vocabulary through reading, selecting reading passages for vocabulary and grammar activities (Diana Ooi & Juhi Lee Kim-See, 1996 ELTJ), joint efforts by the teachers and learners in task designing (Breen, 1984), learner involvement / participation (Gairns and Redman, 1986), establishing connection between new and known words (Stahl, 1983) are the strengths of this approach. Besides suggesting a number of strategies for building up vocabulary, Nation (2001) argues that vocabulary instruction should be integrated in such a way that the listening, speaking, reading and writing components of a language programme are dealt with collectively.

1.7 Vocabulary and Language Skills

The division of vocabulary into receptive and productive categories requires an elaborate explanation in order to understand deeply the role of vocabulary in second language learning. All the four language skills namely; listening, speaking, reading and writing (LSRW) act as a

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channel through which one can learn vocabulary and in turn the mastery of all the four language skills depends on the effective learning of vocabulary. The following figure shows the mutually constitutive relationship that exists between vocabulary and the language skills.

Figure: 3

Mutually constitutive relationship between vocabulary and language skills

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1.7.1 Vocabulary and Listening

Vocabulary plays a major role in developing the language skills. In order to facilitate effective comprehension of the spoken discourse, learners need to be equipped with the required vocabulary that the discourse consists of. Hence, teaching vocabulary assumes primacy while developing the listening skill. Learners can be made to listen to texts with special attention to basic vocabulary. Sufficient exposure to vocabulary can be made available to learners through a variety of listening texts / tasks and also through teachers' interaction with the learners.

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Elley (1989) found that vocabulary learning from listening to stories occurs to a larger extent, if the story is interesting, comprehensible, and involves repetition, and if the teacher draws attention to some words by quickly providing a definition. Nation (2001) thinks that there should not be more than one or two unknown words per hundred running words in order for unassisted learning to occur while listening to some spoken language. It is said that this could be done by listening to the same story several times with each retelling done at a faster pace, and by listening to graded readers.

1.7.2 Vocabulary and Speaking

Although vocabulary plays a crucial role in spoken language, which is also given much importance these days, it is quite interesting to note that the vocabulary needed for this purpose is smaller than the vocabulary needed for reading and writing. It is because listening and speaking are considered to be informal activities using colloquial language. This colloquial language consists largely of the words which fall within the first 2,000 most frequent words of English. In their study of the oral vocabulary of an Australian worker, Schonell et al. (1956) found that the most frequent 1,000 words covered 94% of the running words and the most frequent 2,000 words covered 99%. There are several activities for developing vocabulary through spoken language. A few of them for the elementary learners are: tasks on numbers, days

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of the week, months of the year, and names of objects; and tasks seeking quick responses involving L1 translation etc.

1.7.3 Vocabulary and Reading

Reading can be effectively used for learning vocabulary as it is the basis of all learning. It is definite that people who read more will acquire many words than those with poor reading habits. The more one reads the better are the opportunities for one to meet the same word or other new words in different situations. As a result, word knowledge can be deepened on each encounter with the same word. Eskey (2006) quotes Edward Fry's (1981) claim that the readers who encounter more than one unknown word in twenty words in a text will be reading at what he calls "frustration level". So, learning vocabulary becomes essential for all kinds of reading. When it comes to learning vocabulary through reading, two kinds of reading namely, extensive and intensive reading can be employed.

1.7.3.1 Extensive Reading

Extensive reading involves reading for pleasure and it is usually reading large chunks of a variety of texts. This results in learning new vocabulary through meaning focused input and creates opportunities for developing known vocabulary. It has been suggested that for this purpose, the elementary learners should read the graded or simplified materials which are written

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within a limited vocabulary. Nation (1990, 2001) believes that this should happen at six vocabulary stages such as 300 words, 700 words, 1,000 words, 1,500 words, 2,000 words, and 2,500 words. Nation and Wang's (1999) research suggests that learners should be reading at least one graded reader every 1-2 weeks, and be reading at least twenty graded readers a year. Without graded readers the beginners in second language may find reading a shocking experience as they have a very limited vocabulary. In this regard, teachers need to be familiar with the various series of graded readers.

1.7.3.2 Intensive Reading

Intensive reading usually involves interactive reading of a text that contains a fairly heavy and large vocabulary. In other words here the learners are not familiar with a lot of vocabulary that is required to comprehend the text. Under this activity, learners pay special attention to word meanings with the help of a dictionary. Pre-teaching of vocabulary, glossing, matching words in the text with definitions provided at the end of the text, word part building and analysis, and finding collocations, etc., can be exploited to teach vocabulary through intensive reading.

1.7.4 Vocabulary and Writing

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There is a close relationship between writing and vocabulary because, one's proficiency in written expression can be assessed from the way one uses vocabulary while writing. Proficiency in vocabulary enriches the learners' writing and gives them a sense of academic satisfaction and achievement. The learners need to concentrate more on the academic vocabulary in their academic writing and this enables them to be acknowledged as members of the academic writing community (Corson, 1997). If the language teachers equip themselves with aspects of vocabulary knowledge (see 1.5) and vocabulary teaching strategies, they will be in a position to grasp the kind of vocabulary that their learners use and can look into the range of mistakes made by learners. Teachers can assist learners to work more on the academic vocabulary by guiding them to do different writing tasks such as:

- writing a paragraph on some topic of learners' personal interest / choice,
- writing letters to friends and parents,
- Using the newly learned words while doing writing tasks, and so on.

1.8 Should Vocabulary be Taught?

There are two different schools of thoughts about whether vocabulary should be taught at all: one which supports the idea that vocabulary should be taught to the learners and the other which does not. Research gives reasons for the need for an efficient learning of vocabulary in L2 because vocabulary knowledge has an impact on other abilities which contribute to successful learning of L2. These reasons are:

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- ➡ vocabulary is the basis of any language learning
- ➡ language consists of grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalized grammar
- ➡ continuous enriching and enlarging vocabulary enhances learners' knowledge of comprehension of texts in L2
- ➡ vocabulary plays an active role in both receptive (L&R) and productive language skills (S&W)
- ➡ vocabulary is crucial for achieving academic success and for seeking better employment opportunities
- ➡ vocabulary is essential for communicating and expressing ideas and feelings
- ➡ vocabulary knowledge contributes to metalinguistic awareness
- ➡ vocabulary contributes to phonological awareness and word recognition

In the light of these arguments, the position that vocabulary should be taught cannot be dismissed, more so in the case of the First Generation Learners. It is very much essential to teach vocabulary in an explicit manner to these learners for the following reasons:

- the learners do not come from an academically sound background; they are the first generation learners,
- the learners' parents are illiterates,
- the learners do not have the knowledge of basic vocabulary,

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- the learners do not know new ways / strategies to learn vocabulary,
- the learners cannot afford to buy the study material,
- the learners do not have proper guidance,
- the learners do not have the exposure to L2,
- the learners do not know the importance of English as a global language,
- the learners lack motivation and encouragement from parents and teachers to learn L2.

Vocabulary teaching is essential for the following reasons too:

- vocabulary is the most important element in language learning;
- lack of vocabulary causes difficulty in acquiring receptive and productive language skills;
- to reinforce and strengthen the existing vocabulary knowledge of learners;
- asking learners to do language tasks and using language when they lack adequate vocabulary can be frustrating.

1.9 The Research Problem

Besides the reasons mentioned above, the researcher's personal experience as a student of regional medium as well as a first generation learner has also prompted him to take up the present study. When compared with the past when the researcher was a secondary school learner, ten years ago, the present learning conditions do not record any improvement in terms of the

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teaching methodology and the opportunities of exposure available for learning L2. Further, experience and the available data bring forth the bleak fact that the high percentage of failures in English in the SSC examinations is a common phenomenon among most first generation learners. The pertinent reason for this depressing reality is lack of basic vocabulary knowledge on the part of the learners. In other words, there is a gap between the existing vocabulary proficiency of the learners and the quantum of vocabulary that has been used in the textbooks. This poses two major problems to the first generation learners; a) learners find it difficult to face the public examinations due to lack of even basic vocabulary knowledge. This causes failures and the frustration finally resulting in drops from school; b) learners are threatened by the idea of the medium of instruction in English at +2 level and in graduation. Owing to lack of proficiency in English, learners cannot dream of higher education. As the result, learners opt for vocational courses such as polytechnic, ITI, and other self-financed courses. Learners also cannot make future academic plans with confidence.

So the present study supposes that equipping learners with basic vocabulary through meaningful input exploiting multiple and suitable vocabulary teaching strategies would certainly enhance the low-achievers' competence to process their L2 academic texts. This would facilitate efficient comprehension leading to learner confidence and academic success. (Here the term low-achievers refer to the first generation learners in the Indian regional medium school, who come from socially disadvantaged and economically poor backgrounds).

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1.10 Overview of the Chapter

This chapter has discussed the role of vocabulary in second language learning. It has attempted to define the term vocabulary with reference to the kinds of vocabulary and also the aspects of vocabulary knowledge. It has also touched upon some of the approaches to and strategies of learning vocabulary. It has argued that vocabulary teaching should be built into language skills and teaching of skills could benefit from a focus on vocabulary. The chapter ends with a brief introduction to the research problem in the light of the issues mentioned above.

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CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.0 Introduction

The last chapter has attempted to define and discuss vocabulary and its related aspects. The aim of this chapter is to acquaint us with the on going research in the field of vocabulary instruction. It also puts forth the theoretical underpinnings of the study. The first part of this chapter presents a review of research in the area of vocabulary. The second part builds the theoretical support for the study.

2.1 Review of Research Work

This section reviews the unpublished research work in the area of vocabulary which is available in the form of dissertations. The summaries of these works have been presented below.

a) ‘An Investigation into the vocabulary Resources of Third Year Degree Students’. Usha Chadda. Ph.D. Thesis, CIEFL, Hyderabad, (1971).

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The research work attempts to evaluate the language proficiency of third year under graduate (UG) students through an assessment of the 'recognition vocabulary'. Recognition vocabulary refers to the passive vocabulary which is needed for listening and reading, as opposed to active vocabulary which is needed for speaking and writing. The study focused on eleven different university affiliated and constituent colleges of Osmania University, situated within the twin cities of Hyderabad and Secunderabad. The investigation was carried out by administering a vocabulary test which was specially constructed for the purpose. It contained 300 test items and the testing techniques of translation and multiple choice were employed.

For the purpose of the investigation, the researcher compiled lists of essential words which constitute the vocabulary for comprehension purposes at the UG level. Four such lists were compiled from a number of well-known lists. It was assumed for the purposes of this investigation that the students knew about 1500 words when they came to the UG level. These words constituted the defining vocabulary of 1,507 words. The four lists were: list A containing 1110 words of GSL in the 1500 – 2,500 range; list B containing 652 words of GSL in the 2,500 – 3,500 range; list C-S and C-A containing 685 and 991 words respectively. These two lists were not based on general frequency or range but contained words of high range and frequency for science and arts students respectively. All four lists were used for obtaining a sample of 400 words for the purposes of the test. The procedure of random sampling was used.

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The findings of the study are: a) the total average percentage scored by a student irrespective of the fact that he was a science or an arts student was 52.2%. The average percentage scored by the science students is higher than that of the arts students. The average for the science student was 54.1% and for the arts student it was 48.3%; b) a good vocabulary is an index of general intelligence and knowledge; c) the students with English medium background scored higher percentage of marks than those who came from Hindi, Telugu and Urdu mediums; d) students who studied English before the age of 7 scored higher percentage in the test than students who started to learn English between the ages of 7 – 9. This shows that the study of second language at an early age is a definite advantage. It implies that in any case learning a second language should begin before the age of 9; e) on classification of the words according to the parts of speech it was found that the students knew 53.6% of the nouns, 52.1% of adjectives, 50.1% of verbs, 30.7% of adverbs and 31.6% of other parts of speech; f) cultural and environmental differences made it difficult to acquire certain items of vocabulary in a foreign language; g) certain words like restaurant, authority, and hotel have almost become a part of the regional language vocabularies; h) the reading habits of students and their attitudes towards English affect vocabulary learning. Students who read books, magazines and newspapers fared better on the test; and i) students who came from regional medium schools found the translation technique easier than the multiple choices.

The study found that the results on the vocabulary test vary according to the level of the student. The researcher claims that it is possible to make generalizations about student

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vocabulary, if adequate sample of words and students is taken. In her view, the vocabulary of a college student can be measured and estimated.

The above study attempted to test learners' vocabulary at pre-university level. For this purpose, the researcher designed vocabulary lists with the help of the existing vocabulary lists. This study also assumes that the learners at this level are already familiar with the basic vocabulary about 1,500 words when passed out of school. The researcher also made use of the two well-known techniques such as translation and multiple choices. The relevance of this research for the present study is discussed in 2.1.1.

b) 'A Communicational Approach to the Teaching of Vocabulary at the Intermediate Level'. Priscilla Sumalini. M. Phil. Dissertation. CIEFL, Hyderabad, (1993).

The present study which emerged from the researcher's own experience as a student and as a teacher has made her realize that students lack the ability to express themselves in simple and lucid English. In the researcher's opinion, linguistic competence (mastery of grammatical structures) itself cannot make learners competent users of a language. Rather, importance should be given to communicative competence (appropriate use of language) which makes learners more effective communicators. Therefore, in her view, teaching vocabulary to second language learners is essential.

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This research is heavily based on ‘semantics’ i.e. study of words and meanings. The researcher argues that teaching of vocabulary has been neglected in the current teaching and learning methods. She says that vocabulary at +2 level is taught just in two steps: first, by giving the translated word meaning; second, by asking learners straight away to make sentences using the given words. The researcher says that the teachers are not aware of the difficulty that the learners face in this kind of teaching. Hence, she suggests that teaching of vocabulary should be envisaged not just in isolation but within the appropriate context. Such a methodology, the researcher believes, will lead to more effective communication through the appropriate and precise use of words.

The researcher suggests that the following conditions are a must for a learner to fully ‘know’ a word: a) full meaning (not specific meaning), b) appropriate situations, c) ways in which the words can combine or collocate, and d) relation between the word and other words.

The researcher emphasizes the importance of ‘linguistic competence’ as a pre-requisite for learning to use a language for effective communication. She also says that this notion has been overlooked and has been presented inadequately in the current syllabuses as well as in teaching practices. In order to prove these arguments, the researcher has analyzed the intermediate English textbook. After analyzing the textbook, researcher found that: a) most of the teachers depend on glossary for teaching of vocabulary; b) most important and useful words

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and not so important words are taught in the same manner; c) the meanings of new words among the other most frequent English words is never grasped by our Indian learners because they usually try to learn through translation and d) words which can be used interchangeably (of semantic groups) cause confusion to the learners.

The above study argues that vocabulary teaching has been neglected by the language teachers in the present teaching practices. Therefore, the researcher emphasizes the need for teaching vocabulary at intermediate level as the learners find it difficult to express themselves in simple and lucid manner. The study claims that vocabulary knowledge is a prerequisite for mastering language skills as well as for effective communication. The relevance of this thesis for the present study is presented below (see 2.1.1).

c) Vocabulary Growth in a Second Language: Instruction versus Facilitation of Acquisition, Abhra Jana, M. Phil, CIEFL 2001.

The purpose of the present research was to test a well-known hypothesis in the field of lexical acquisition research: 'Incidental learning from context during free reading is the major mode of vocabulary acquisition during school years'. This study aimed to find out whether students acquire measurable knowledge about unfamiliar words while reading authentic texts. The other hypotheses that were tested in the present research were: a) a certain level of proficiency in the language is a pre-requisite in order to guess the meaning of new words

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effectively from context, and b) vocabulary acquisition from context proceeds in terms of small increments.

All the hypotheses made above are by Nagy et al. in their study. However there are a few differences in the present study such as the level of the subjects (Nagy's learners were eighth grade learners, and here the learners are at + 1 level, the materials (an authentic text i.e. a newspaper extract) had been evolved by the researcher, Nagy's subjects were L1 learners of English, but here the subjects are L2 learners of English.

The study was conducted on 30 Bangla speaking students of 10+1 level on a regular working day during the English period and the following Chemistry period. The data was collected through filling up the student profile and answering the checklist vocabulary test. The main part of the study consisted of the reading of the newspaper report, followed by the multiple-choice test and the individual interviews with 5 students.

The major findings of the study were: a) contextual learning of words occurred from a single exposure to unfamiliar words in an authentic text; b) students must become independent word learners; c) the instructional setup of a teacher can influence a large amount of reading for pleasure which in turn will lead to substantial vocabulary gains; and d) teachers should train students to use context most effectively.

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The above study concentrated on the incidental learning of vocabulary from contextual guesses. This study was built on the hypotheses made by Nagy et al. The study claims that vocabulary can be learned through carefully planned contexts as well as from extensive reading. It also stressed on the role of the classroom teachers in providing learners with opportunities to make contextual learning of unfamiliar words. The relevance of this thesis has been discussed in 2.1.1 below.

2.1.1 Implications for the Present Study

The review of the research work presented above (see 2.1) has important implications for the present study. It has helped the researcher to place the present study in proper perspective to language teaching and learning in general and teaching and learning vocabulary in particular. This review has offered a focus and direction to the present study. The research presented above highlight some of the issues relevant to the present research.

The first review had attempted to test the recognition vocabulary (passive vocabulary) knowledge of the learners at UG level. This study had emphasized the role of word lists for this purpose. This study also made use of the two well-known techniques in teaching vocabulary— translation and multiple choices. The present research also believes in the efficacy of these methods and exploits them to teach vocabulary to the first generation learners (see 5.2).

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The previous research assumed that the learners at pre-university level are already familiar with the 1,500 most common words. At this point, the present research is seen as an extension of the previous research in the sense that it explores into the learners' present vocabulary knowledge and their problems in learning basic vocabulary at the high school level with a view to offering possible solutions to them. The present study aims at strengthening the passive or receptive vocabulary (listening and reading) of the learners.

The second review has focused on the teaching of vocabulary to the learners with a view to enabling their communicative language skills. The researcher argues that the teachers do not focus on teaching vocabulary to the learners in the present teaching practices. The study stresses on teaching aspects of vocabulary knowledge and teaching vocabulary in contexts for effective learning of words in L2. In this context, it should be mentioned that, the present study is an extension of the previous research as it focuses on teaching the three most important aspects of vocabulary knowledge such as meaning, spelling and pronunciation as well as teaching vocabulary strategies. Some of the findings of the previous study such as aspects of word meanings, teaching words in appropriate contexts (vocabulary strategies) are similar to the findings of the present study (see 5.2).

The third research reviewed above had explored into incidental learning of vocabulary in a second language. This study assumes that sufficient amount of vocabulary has been gained by the learners at their school level. The study also emphasizes the need for authentic materials. It

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places a high premium on the role of the teachers and also on the availability of opportunities provided for learning unfamiliar words from the context. In this sense, present study is an extension of the above discussed work as it focuses on the level of the existing vocabulary knowledge of the first generation learners. Our study strives at teaching learners the basic vocabulary and believes in making learners independent vocabulary learners by designing a few strategies which suit their context. Our study also attempts to make teachers aware of the importance of providing opportunities for learners in learning a second language vocabulary.

2.2 Theoretical Support

We make use of a large number of words when we speak a language. But not all of these words are equally useful. It is important that the second language learners and second language teachers are aware of the fact that a small number of the words of English occur very frequently and if learners know these words, they will know a very large proportion of the running words (see 1.4.1) in a written or spoken text.

There are certain strategies for teaching vocabulary in a simple and easy way to the learners whose immediate environment offers no opportunity to interact in L2. These learners, whose exposure to L2 is limited, are heavily dependent on the resourcefulness of the teacher for learning L2 vocabulary. Hence, teachers should be aware of the strategies and teach vocabulary to the learners through these strategies. They should also encourage the learners to use these

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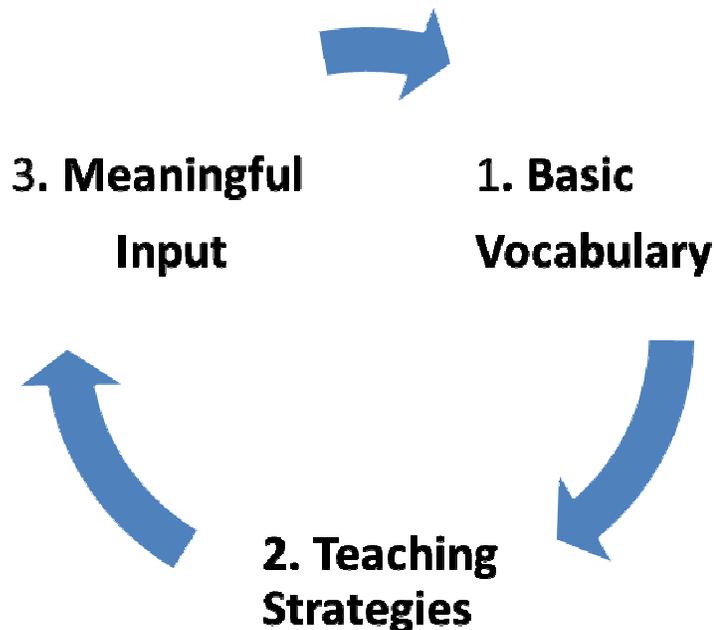
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strategies on their own. Authentic and meaningful material which is immediately available to the learners can be exploited for the purpose. To reiterate, basic vocabulary needs to be taught through meaningful input using multiple learner-appropriate strategies. These ideas which form the three major dimensions of the present research are presented figuratively below.

Figure: 1

Major Dimensions of the Study



2.2.1 The Role of Word-lists in Learning Basic Vocabulary in L2

Basic Vocabulary (BV) would mean ‘the most common words’ in a language. BV is also known as most frequently occurring words. These words are very useful to all the foreign and second language learners at elementary level, as they cover 85% to 90% of the running words in any text.

Basic vocabulary is discussed in the form of established word-lists. The word lists are specially designed in order to meet the specific needs of the L2 learners in their particular context. Some of the well-known word lists are:

General Service List

Basic English Word List

C.I.E Lists

Dolch Word List

It is considered essential for teachers of English as a second language to be aware of their students’ vocabulary size because this can provide some indication about the problems that the students face in the process of comprehending a text. For this purpose teachers can make use of word lists and word cards suitable to the level of the learners, for testing or assessment of their vocabulary. However, it should not be assumed that learning from word lists or word cards

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means that the words are learnt quickly at one go, nor does it mean that all the aspects of word knowledge are learnt. Learning from word lists or word cards is only an initial stage of learning a particular word (Schmitt and Schmitt, 1995). This strategy is a learning tool for use at any level of vocabulary proficiency.

2.2.1.1 The General Service List

The General Service List (GSL) (West, 1953) is a set of 2,000 words. It is a collection of most frequent words for the learners of English as a second language. The first 1,000 words cover about 77% and the second 1,000 words cover about 5% of the running words in academic texts (Nation, 2001). The GSL was prepared for pedagogical purposes. Frequency was one of the factors taken into account while arriving at this list. Each of the 2,000 words is a headword representing a word family. It informs us about the frequency of the headword as well as the relative frequency of the various meanings of the headword. This list has had a wide influence on teaching and learning vocabulary for many years and has served as the basis for second language graded readers (West, 1955).

2.2.1.2 Basic English Word List

Basic English is a simplified version of the English language created by Ogden (1930). This list consists of 850 words. It is an “island vocabulary”, compiled on a subjective basis. The purpose

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of this list was to establish an international language. A key to simplification that was used in formulating this list was to limit the number of verbs to necessary and regular forms. This list aims to facilitate efficient expression and proficient use of language by the learners. As part of this, Ogden selected a minimum set of verbs such as come, get, give, go, keep, let, make, put, seem, take; be, do, have; say, see, send, may, will, which could take the place of all the other verbs in the language.

2.2.1.3 C.I.E Lists

In India, the Central Institute of English (CIE) prepared two special lists for the Pre University Course (PUC) students. In order to prepare materials for the PUC students, it was considered necessary to assess the vocabulary of PUC students and then prepare lists according to their needs. In addition to the needs of the learners, the frequency of occurrence of the words was also taken into consideration. Based on this, two lists were compiled: one, for the social sciences containing 1,600 words and the other for physical sciences containing 900 words. These lists exclude purely technical words. Both these were published by the All India Council for Secondary Education.

2.2.1.4 Dolch Word List

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Dolch Word List consists of 220 basic English words (see Appendix 1). It is believed that these 220 words form 50% to 75% of running words (see 1.3.1) used in school books, library books, newspapers, and magazines. These words belong to word classes of pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and verbs. These words must be recognized at a glance, without having to "figure them out" (i.e. 'sight words'), before a child can read with confidence.

Table 1 below shows that high frequency words are known before low frequency words. It also shows that knowing about 2,000 word families gives nearly 80% coverage of written text.

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Table:1 TYPES OF VOCABULARY, THEIR FEATURES, AND THE IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING AND LEARNING

Type of Vocabulary	Number of words	Frequency	Coverage of text	Origins	Implications for teaching and learning
High-frequency Words	2000	Occur frequently in all kinds of texts	About 87% of the running words in a text	About half are from Latin, French, or Greek	Spend a lot of time on these words. Make sure they are learned
Academic Vocabulary	800	Occurs frequently in most kinds of academic texts	About 8% of the running words in academic texts	About two-thirds are from Latin, French or Greek	if learners are in upper secondary school or in tertiary education, spend a lot of time on these words. Make sure they are learned.
Technical Vocabulary	About 1,000 to 2,000 for each subject	Occur, sometimes frequently, in specialised texts	About 3% of the running words in specialized text		Learning the subject involves learning the vocabulary. subj. teachers can deal with the vocabulary, but the English teacher can help with learning strategies.
Low frequency words	About 123,000	Do not occur very frequently	About 2% or more of the words in any text		Teach strategies for dealing with these words. The word themselves do not deserve teaching time.

Nation I.S.P. (1990:19)

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With a vocabulary size of 2,000 words, a learner knows 80% of the words in a text which means that one word in every five words (approximately two words in every line) is unknown. Research by Liu Na and Nation (1985) has shown that this ratio of unknown to known words is not sufficient to allow reasonably successful guessing of the meaning of the unknown words. At least 95% coverage is needed for that. Research by Laufer (1989) suggests that 95% coverage is sufficient to allow reasonable comprehension of a text.

It is said that, if we have to count all the words that a text contains and to have knowledge of their frequency count, there is a particular pattern which differs from one text to another. According to Nation (2006), the following observations on word frequency count are typical.

-
- The most frequent words in a text, usually *the*, will count for about 6% - 7% of the running words in the text.
 - The ten most frequent words will account for about 25% of the running words in a text (see table 2).
 - The 100 most frequent words will account for about 50% of the running words in the text.
 - The 1,000 most frequent words will account for at least 70% - 80% of the running words in the text.

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Table: 2

Ranked Frequency Figures and the product of Rank Times Frequency from the Francis & Kucera Count (1982).

Word	Rank	Frequency	Frequency x Rank
To	10	11,165	111,650
As	20	6,029	120,580
An	30	3,727	111,810
Make	40	2,312	92,480
Could	50	1,782	89,100
Come	60	1,561	93,660
May	70	1,307	91,490
Must	80	1,017	81,360
So	90	932	83,880
Just	100	795	79,500

Nation (2006)

The table above explains that:

- ✿ Some words occur much more frequently than other words.
- ✿ In a ranked list, the frequency of items initially drops very quickly and then drops gradually.
- ✿ There are a small number of high frequency words, and a very large number of low frequency words.

Thus, it is clear that there is a group of between 1,500 and 2,000 high frequency words that are the most important vocabulary learning goal (West, 1953). These words are so frequently Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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and widely used that they need to be learned as quickly as possible. Because of their usefulness, they deserve immediate attention to all aspects of vocabulary knowledge from teachers and learners.

Carter (1998) discusses the prominence of vocabulary lists from the point of view of elementary learners. He talks extensively about the *General Service List* (West, 1953) and Ogden's *Basic English*. In his view, these two vocabulary lists are of great help to the elementary learners of a second or a foreign language.

Although Wallace (1982) has reservations about the relevance of the word lists to vocabulary learning and teaching, he does mention the most famous word lists in English such as 'Basic English' devised by Ogden and Richards (1930); 'The General Service List of English Words' edited and compiled by West (1953) and a word list assembled at Brown University in the USA (1963-4). Wallace (1982) refers to what he calls a 'commonsense argument', which argues for teaching of most frequently occurring words before teaching of low frequency words.

There are a limited number of high-frequency English words, most of which are content words. Acquiring these words will enable an L2 learner to comprehend a large percentage of written and spoken text (Nation, 2001). The Collins COBUILD English language Dictionary (1995) claims that 15,000 words cover 95% of the running words of their corpus. According to the studies of the Brown Corpus, knowing about 2,000 word families gives close to 80% coverage of a written text and around 96% coverage of an informal spoken text. Following these

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calculations, if a learner knows 80% of the words in a text (a vocabulary of 2,000 words), one in five words will be unknown. For a non-simplified text, this ratio of unknown to known words has been deemed insufficient for successfully inferring meaning from context (Liu & Nation, 1985).

There is a threshold level of vocabulary knowledge below which a learner cannot read well enough to learn new vocabulary through reading. Supporting this idea, both Laufer (1997), and Liu and Nation (1985) argue that the learners who have not yet reached a minimum of 3,000 word families, which covers almost 95% of running words of most general texts, cannot adequately guess the meanings of the words from context in non-simplified texts. Therefore, they further argue, it is necessary for the learners to master these words through direct instruction (Anne Ferrell Tekmen and Daloglu, 2006).

Bongers (1947) and others have claimed that the 2,000 most frequent words in a language will account for 80% of any text. Consequently, while teaching English language, high-frequency lexical items should be taught first. It is believed that, for second language learners, a vocabulary of about 2,000 words would be a realistic goal. According to Schmitt (2000) these 2,000 words are most commonly cited; also they facilitate basic conversation and form the nitty-gritty for moving into more advanced study of words.

Willis (1990) is of the opinion that, the 700 most frequent words of English account for around 70% of all English texts. In other words, he says that around 70% of English we speak, hear, read and write is made up of the 700 common words in the language. He further argues that

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the most frequent 1,500 words account for around 76% of the texts and the most frequent 2,500 words cover around 80%. Thus, the Collins COBUILD English contents of the course were built on the idea of word frequency. This course has been designed at three levels. The first level aims to cover the most frequent 700 words. The second level covers the next 800 words, which makes it 1,500 and the third level covers the other 1,000 words, which makes it 2,500 words.

Stahl (2005) believes that there is a set of 100 or 300 or more words in print which are important for children to recognize instantly. This small number of words he says, accounts for 50% of the words children encounter in a typical reading passage in L2. However, according to Adams (1990) only 105 words account for 50% of the words that the children come across in an L2 reading text.

2.2.2 Criteria for Designing Basic Vocabulary Lists

The main aim of this section is to lay down acceptable criteria for designing basic vocabulary lists. This does not mean that learners must be provided with large vocabulary lists as the major source of their vocabulary learning. Rather, it means that course designers should have lists to refer to when they consider the vocabulary component of a language course. Thus, teachers need to have reference lists to judge whether a particular word deserves attention or not, and whether a text is suitable for a class. These are words that proficient readers should instantly recognize while reading the text.

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Arriving at a frequency list however is not simply a mechanical task, and judgements based on well-established criteria need to be made. The following are the important factors that need to be considered in the development of a resource list of high frequency words.

2.2.2.1 Necessity / Need

The kind of vocabulary that has been selected should be appropriate to the needs of the learners. For instance, if the learners' needs are to meet conversational language in a social setting, then exposure to language is essential. Learners' skills in communicative speaking tasks, such as role playing, relevant speaking tasks like talking to a doctor, meeting a stranger will fit in this context (Nation, 2001).

On the other hand, if the learners' needs are to meet the academic goals in a formal classroom setting, then explicit teaching would be of great help. Here, learners' skills at reading a series of texts graded according to vocabulary level, their performance on graded dictation test (Nation, 2001) should be taken into account. In a classroom situation, the teacher can take the responsibility of choosing the vocabulary to be taught to the students, depending on the learners' needs and their limitations (Wallace, 1982).

2.2.2.2 Frequency

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Frequency of occurrence of words in a context provides a rational basis for making sure that learners get the best returns for their vocabulary learning effort. Vocabulary frequency lists play an important role in curriculum design and in setting learning goals.

According to Nation (1990), any simplified text written for young learners will be within the most frequent 2,000 words of English. It is said that these words occur in different kinds of learning materials under various topics. Nation says that about 87% of these words in texts are high-frequency words. It is believed that if a learner knows about 2,000 words, he would be able to read 87% of the words in the text. So, it is clear that these 2,000 high-frequency words are very useful and important for learners of English as a second language. Hence, learners should spend sufficient time on learning them. The table 3 below presents the details of text coverage of different word types highlighting the importance of high-frequency words in learning a second language.

Table: 3
Word Types and Text Coverage

Word Type	No. of Words	Proportion of Text
High-frequency words	2,000	87%
University word list	800	8%
Technical words	2,000	3%
Low-frequency words	123,200	2%
TOTAL	128,000	100%

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Words which occur most often or repeatedly in a textbook or any other reading material were considered to be the most important by most of the researchers in the field of vocabulary. They felt that if these frequent words were taught to the learner, the meaning of the less commonly occurring words can be inferred from the context. So frequency of words for a long time was used as a criterion for selection of the words in any well-known vocabulary lists (Wallace, 1982).

The main criteria for selection of vocabulary for learning in the early stages of acquisition are frequency and the information about the various meanings and uses of a word form. Both these criteria provide a sense of direction for teachers when deciding which words and which meanings to be taught first (Carter, 1998). The table below presents the different factors involved in teaching vocabulary such as: vocabulary level, type of vocabulary and the learning required to increase vocabulary knowledge at each level. The information in the table below provides teachers with guidelines for identifying not only the vocabulary taught to the learners but also the strategies to be employed while teaching bearing the level of the learners in mind.

Table: 4

Factors involved in teaching vocabulary

Vocabulary level	Type of vocabulary	Learning required to increase vocabulary knowledge at each level
2,000 Word level	<i>The General Service List</i> . The vocabulary of simplified reading books.	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Learning lists of words based on the Longman Structural Readers Lists or <i>The General Service List</i>2. Intensive and extensive reading of simplified reading books3. Advanced English Vocabulary, Workbook 1 (Barnard, 1972)
3,000 Word level	A basis for beginning to read unsimplified texts	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Intensive reading of a variety of texts2. Extensive reading of the Bridge Series
5,000 Word level	A wide vocabulary	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Training in guessing words in context2. Wide general reading- novels, newspapers, university texts etc.3. Intensive reading of variety of texts4. <i>Advanced English Vocabulary</i>, workbooks 1 and 2
The University Word level	The specialized vocabulary of university texts.	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Learning words in the university word lists2. intensive reading of university texts3. <i>Advanced English Vocabulary</i>, workbooks 2 and 34. Learning prefixes and roots
10,000 Word level	A large wide vocabulary	Activities similar to the 5,000 word level, combined with learning prefixes and roots.

Nation (1983)

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The suggestions in the table above to increase the knowledge of the high frequency words are based on the idea that high frequency words are worth individual attention. Learning from word lists (e.g. GSL, Basic English, etc) and also doing exercises from workbooks (e.g. Barnard, 1972) are suggested as appropriate measures to achieve the goal in context. It also suggests that the direct teaching of vocabulary is also appropriate for high frequency words. For incidental vocabulary learning to happen, extensive reading of simplified texts and extensive listening activities are essential. Explicit teaching of vocabulary through classroom teaching and individualized exercises is appropriate for most high frequency words.

However, Nation (1990) is of the opinion that, although frequency counts provide information about the frequency and the range of words, there are several problems associated with word frequency lists. Some of these are: a) certain useful and important words do not occur in the first or second 1000 words, they occur only at the third, fourth, or fifth thousand word level; for example: nouns such as soap, bath, chalk, stomach, etc. b) some words that are not suitable for elementary learners occur in the first 1000 words of the most frequency lists; for example: bank, bill, deal, stock, thee, etc. c) sometimes a word has a high frequency in one list and a fairly low frequency in another list; and d) usually the frequency order of the words in a frequency list is not suitable to teach these words; for example: *his* is 74th word in one list and *hers* is the 4151st word in another list.

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2.2.2.3 Availability

According to Wallace (1982), availability is another important criterion that can be considered while selecting vocabulary. For instance, he points out that General Service List does not contain the word 'blackboard' and the word 'chalk' has a very low frequency according to this list (only 78 occurrences in 5 million words). But these words are very important in a classroom situation. Therefore, one should take into consideration the high availability of words because they have a special relevance to a particular situation in which the learner finds himself.

2.2.2.4 Other Criteria

West (1953) found that frequency alone is not a sufficient criterion for deciding what goes into a word list designed for teaching purposes. West talks about other useful criteria in designing word lists such as:

- ➡ difficulty of learning (it is easier to learn another related meaning for a known word than to learn a new word),
- ➡ cover (it is not efficient to be able to express the same idea in different ways, but to learn a word that covers a quite different idea),
- ➡ universality (words useful in all countries),
- ➡ utility (enabling discussion on as wide a subject range as possible),

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- ▶ stylistic level and emotional words (second language learners initially needing neutral vocabulary).

Thus careful consideration should be given to these and other criteria mentioned above in the final stages of making a general word list.

2.2.3 Teaching Strategies

The high frequency words are very important in language use. And since they are not many in number (about 2,000), teaching them explicitly should be feasible and practical.

According to Nation (2001), there is a small group of high frequency words. For him these words are very important because they cover a large proportion of the running words in spoken and written texts and occur in all kinds of uses of language. Therefore, it is necessary that considerable time should be spent on learning and teaching them in the classroom, at the initial stages of second language learning. This can be done in the form of explicit teaching, direct learning, incidental learning, and planned meetings with the words i.e. spaced repetition which involves spreading the repetitions across a long period of time like three minutes now, three minutes a few hours later, three minutes a day later, three minutes two days later and finally three minutes a week later. The table 5 below lists some of the teaching and learning possibilities.

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Table: 5

Ways of learning and teaching high-frequency words

Direct teaching	1. Teacher explanation 2. Peer teaching
Direct learning	1. Study from word cards 2. Dictionary use
Incidental learning	1. Guessing from context in extensive reading 2. Use in communication activities
Planned encounters	1. Graded reading 2. Vocabulary exercises

Nation (2001)

High frequency words are very important and they need to be taught to the learners. So, suitable strategies are required for review and consolidation of various aspects of vocabulary knowledge (Nation, 1990). However, it should be kept in mind that the effectiveness with which learning strategies can be both taught and used will depend upon a number of variables such as learners' proficiency level, the L1 cultural background of the learners, their motivation and purposes of learning L2, the task and the text being used, and the nature of the L2 itself (Schmitt, 2000). There are as many as fifty-eight different vocabulary learning strategies (Schmitt, 1997). The strategies are presented in the following table.

Table: 6
Vocabulary learning strategies

Strategy group	Strategy
Strategies for the discovery of a new word's meaning	
DET	Analyze part of speech
DET	Analyze affixes and roots
DET	Check for L1 cognate
DET	Analyze any available pictures or gestures
DET	Guess meaning from textual contexts
DET	Use a dictionary (bilingual or monolingual)
SOC	Ask teacher for a synonym, paraphrase, or L1 translation of new word
SOC	Ask classmates for meaning
Strategies for consolidating a word once it has been encountered	
SOC	Study and practice meaning in a group
SOC	Interact with native speakers
MEM	Connect word to a previous personal experience
MEM	Associate the word with its coordinates
MEM	Connect the word with its synonyms and antonyms
MEM	Use semantic maps
MEM	Image word form
MEM	Image word's meaning
MEM	Use Keyword Method
MEM	Group words together to study them
MEM	Study the spelling of a word
MEM	Say the new word aloud when studying
MEM	Use physical action when learning a word
COG	Verbal repetition
COG	Written repetition
COG	Word lists
COG	Put English labels on physical objects
COG	Keep a vocabulary notebook

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MET	Use English-language media (songs, movies, newspapers, etc.)
MET	Use spaced word practice (expanding rehearsal)
MET	Test oneself with word tests
MET	Skip or pass new word
MET	Continue to study word over time

Schmitt (2000)

The table above has been divided into two major sections: one, strategies for the discovery of a new word's meaning, and two, strategies for consolidating a word once it has been encountered. It becomes clear that different strategies are necessary for knowing the meanings, usage and to memorize new words. The table also shows strategies being classified into five groups such as: Determination Strategies (DET), Social Strategies (SOC), Memory Strategies (MEM), Cognitive Strategies (COG), and Metacognitive Strategies (MET) (Schmitt, 2000). These are the commonly used strategies and deserve attention by both the teachers and learners.

From an extensive survey on explicit vocabulary teaching, Sokmen (1997) offers a number of useful key principles which help us to understand how we can acquire words and remember them. They are:

- ➡ Building a large sight vocabulary
- ➡ Integrating new words with old
- ➡ Providing a number of encounters with a word

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- ➡ Promoting a deep level of processing
- ➡ Facilitating imaging
- ➡ Making new words 'real' by connecting them to the students' world in some way
- ➡ Using a variety of techniques
- ➡ Encouraging independent learning strategies

According to Nation (2001) the following are the important ways of communicating word meanings:

- ♣ by performing actions
- ♣ by showing objects
- ♣ by showing pictures and diagrams
- ♣ by defining in the first language (translation)
- ♣ by defining in the second language
- ♣ by providing language context clues

Nation (2001) views gestures, real objects, pictures and diagrams as the most valid ways of communicating the meaning of a word. Using these in combination with verbal language leads to what Pavio calls, 'dual encoding', where the meaning is stored both linguistically and visually. While explaining the meanings of L2 words, translation can also be used when required.

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However, the choice, use, and effectiveness of vocabulary learning strategies very much depend on the task, the learner, and the context (e.g., L1, L2, or FL contexts).

2.2.4 Meaningful Input

Input is a much researched factor in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and is considered to be a necessary condition in learning a second language. In the words of Fillmore (1985), “good input to second language learners has their social needs in mind. It is selected for content and modified in form and presentation. It tends to be structurally simpler, more redundant and repetitive and is characterized by greater structural regularity than is found in normal usage”. Successful outcome in learning a language always depends on the variety and comprehensible input that has been given to the learners of that language. Thus input assumes importance in language learning.

2.2.4.1 The Role of graded materials in L2 Vocabulary Learning

Nation (1999) believes that graded readers are effective resources for learning vocabulary. In his opinion, these graded readers should not be ignored by teachers and instructors, because, they offer a lot of benefits to the elementary learners in the L2 context. The graded readers offer the following:

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- ➡ Contribute to vocabulary expansion
- ➡ Provide opportunities to practice guessing from context
- ➡ Encourage dictionary skills
- ➡ Supply partially known words again and again
- ➡ Serve the purpose of consolidation of repeatedly met words

Nation (2006) suggests that most learners of English can be exposed to numerous series of graded and simplified readers, which are written within a limited vocabulary usually with about six vocabulary stages – 300 words, 700 words, 1,000 words, 1,500 words, 2,000 words, and 2,500 words. Thus the stage I learners who are at an elementary level can read texts within the range of 300 words and gain familiarity with the words used in those texts. He also quotes Nation and Wang (1999) who says that learners should be reading at least one graded reader every 1-2 weeks, and be reading at least twenty graded readers a year.

Schmitt (2000) observes that, for intermediate and advanced learners with vocabulary above 3,000 words, the activity of reading provides exposure to a wide range of words (other than the 3,000 words). He also says that elementary learners with a limited vocabulary can benefit from reading, by accessing *graded readers* (books written with controlled vocabulary and limited range of grammatical structures).

Materials such as reading cards, simplified stories should be written within the 1,000 word limit. Learners' interaction with the simplified stories will gradually lead them to cope with

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unsimplified texts. The learners can be encouraged to read long stories, written in simple vocabulary and supplied to them in parts. Because, a continuous story, by one writer, provides an opportunity for the reinforcement of the already encountered vocabulary.

2.2.4.2 Teacher Talk

In the rural settings exposure to L2 is minimal be it inside or outside the classroom. The paucity of exposure to L2 in the surroundings gets aggravated with the lack of opportunities to interact in L2 in the classroom. This is the reality and teachers need to make conscious efforts to change this. They need to not only act as sources of exposure but also provide opportunities for their learners to use L2

Most of the classrooms in the rural areas are dominated by the teacher as the 'leader'. All the students and their activities are guided and managed by the teacher in the class. It will not be far from truth if we say that 95% of the utterances in the classroom come from the teacher. In a world-wide survey, Delamont (1976) notes that teachers talk at length in classrooms. It shows that the teacher talk which is available in large quantities in most classrooms is a major source of input, and hence, teachers need to use L2 in the classroom.

Gaies (1977) suggests that teacher talk in the classrooms is characterized by the so called training strategies which are found in motherese such as the use of repetitions, prompts and modeling. Thus, teacher talk can be a great help to the learners.

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Mitchell (1982) also emphasises for the role of teacher talk in language acquisition. To quote Mitchell:

“no functional syllabus, ‘authentic’ materials, or micro computer programme can replace the capacity of the live, fluent speaker to hit upon the follow-up topics of interest to particular individuals, continually adjust his / her speech to an appropriate level of difficulty and solve unpredictable communication difficulties from moment to moment. In all this, the teacher and his/her interactive skills are decisive”.

Crook (1991) seems to emphasize on the role of teacher talk in learning an L2 when he says that everything the teacher does provides the learner with opportunities for encountering the language.

2.2.4.3 L1 Translation

The first language (L1) plays a crucial role in the teaching and learning of a second language (L2). Its influence can affect learning L2 positively or negatively. Teachers use a lot of L1 in the rural areas. However, there are arguments both for and against the use of L1 in the L2 classroom.

Many educational psychologists like Vygotsky (1978) and Bruner (1985) are concerned with the learning process and the factors that affect language learning. They consider language learning as one facet of learning and therefore, assume that the learning of another language is an extension of existing knowledge (schemata) or capability. In other words, when the learner is exposed to any new phenomenon, experience or problem, s/he at first tries to relate it to her / his

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previous experiences, tries to construct hypothesis, falling back to his / her existing knowledge. The cognitive structure which already exists in the mind provides meaning and organization to experiences and allows the individual to go beyond their present level while trying to understand new things. This way the knowledge of L1 can have a positive influence on learning of L2.

In the context of the present study where learners come from rural settings, it is perhaps not only useful if the teachers use the mother tongue in the classroom but it also becomes necessary to achieve optimal learning from the learners. Judicious use of the mother tongue is both economical and result yielding.

Some of the instances where teachers can use mother tongue are while: explaining the meanings of words; discussing errors; checking learners' comprehension; eliciting responses and also while giving instructions (if necessary).

2.3 Recapitulating the Research Problem

Vocabulary should be given importance while learning a second or a foreign language because of the fact that all languages are built on the use of words. In other words, vocabulary is considered as the basis of any language. Hence, some authors, influenced by Lewis (1993) argue that a high premium should be placed on vocabulary while teaching language for 'language

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consists of grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalized grammar’. It is said that a person can communicate without grammar, but it is perhaps difficult to communicate without words.

However, vocabulary in itself is a vast and a complex phenomenon. Hence, the researchers have classified vocabulary into four categories: high-frequency words, academic words, technical words and low-frequency words (see 1.4). This suggests that there are different levels of vocabulary learning which should be learned by the students at various stages of any language learning– elementary, intermediate and advanced. It also suggests that not all the vocabulary is equally important and therefore learning vocabulary should be prioritized according to one’s needs.

The arguments above strengthen the cause for research in the area of L2 vocabulary teaching / learning. The researcher’s experience, as a regional medium student as well as the first generation learner, has helped him to visualize and understand the second language needs of the first generation learners. It is observed that basic vocabulary knowledge is the felt need among the first generation learners. This lack of basic vocabulary knowledge creates hurdles in learners’ attempts to perform well in their public examinations as well as in their ability to make higher academic decisions in life. Thus, being threatened by these awful situations, learners resort to dropping out from school, choosing unchallenging academic subjects, opting for vocational courses (ITI, Polytechnic) etc. Against this backdrop, it is assumed that teaching basic vocabulary through suitable strategies, using authentic materials as meaningful input would

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enhance the first generation learners' overall academic performance and especially proficiency in English. The argument here is that it is essential to teach vocabulary explicitly and that such a teaching should draw from meaningful input. This need to teach vocabulary becomes even more felt in the case of the first generation learners who are deprived of opportunities for exposure to the second language. Hence the present research.

2.4 Overview of the Chapter

This chapter has attempted to present a review of research carried out in the area of vocabulary. An attempt is also made to provide theoretical support to the three main aspects of the present study– basic vocabulary, teaching and learning strategies and meaningful input. This chapter has also thrown light on the role and prominence of various well-known vocabulary-lists. The criteria for designing basic vocabulary lists are discussed. The strategies of vocabulary teaching/learning are recounted. Resources of meaningful input are explored into. The chapter ends by recapitulating the research problem.

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CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN

3.0 Introduction

The present study entitled, 'Evolving Strategies for Teaching Basic Vocabulary in L2 through Meaningful Input: an Ethnographic Study with First Generation Learners', attempts to facilitate basic vocabulary learning for the first generation learners through meaningful input. It also tries to evolve some strategies that can be used effectively by the language teachers while teaching vocabulary in the classroom. This chapter presents the details of research design including a discussion on the relevance of the study, dimensions of the research problem, methodology, and the research tools used.

3.1 Background

An important reason why the under-achieved learners find it difficult to read and write English is that they do not have basic vocabulary to express their thoughts and ideas. To a certain extent, the current teaching practices in schools seem to be responsible for this poor vocabulary of the learners. For instance, teachers do not elicit word meanings from the learners; rather, they tend to supply mother tongue equivalents to most of the difficult words. This, in turn, reduces the opportunities for the learners to learn vocabulary effectively and meaningfully.

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Teachers do not seem to employ modern vocabulary teaching techniques such as inferring meaning from context, word building strategies, using syntactic and semantic cues to discern meaning, and effective dictionary use. Most often, meanings are dictated to the learners. Readymade sentences are given to the learners and they are supposed to memorize and reproduce them. Aspects involved in knowing a word such as meaning(s), written form, spoken form, grammatical behaviour, collocations, register and associations (Nation, 1990) are not taught to the learners. As a result, not only learners' vocabulary but also their reading proficiency and the writing skills are hampered.

West (1953) regarded vocabulary as 'an essential component of reading proficiency.' According to Lewis (1976), 'the only characteristic of successful people is an unusual grasp of the meanings of words.' Therefore, it is essential that, this unproductive approach is discarded and new ways of teaching vocabulary are adopted by English teachers in regional medium schools. The need for innovative vocabulary teaching methods is even more greatly felt for the under-achieved learners, who do not have the supportive L2 environment either at home or in their nearby community. There is a need to enable them to learn words on their own without allowing this inadequacy (i.e lack of environmental support) affect their learning.

3.2 The Research Problem

It is assumed that the class X regional medium students do not possess basic vocabulary in L2. Such a lack of vocabulary acts as a stumbling block in comprehending the texts
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prescribed. Lack of required proficiency in reading comprehension has an adverse effect in their written performance in the examinations. In addition, they face problems in decision making for higher education; they either drop out from school or opt for vocational courses like- ITI, Polytechnic, etc. This is because they cannot meet the requirement of English as the medium of instruction at the +2 level.

In order to address these two major problems that these learners face in their academic career, the present study proposes to teach them the basic vocabulary which is needed to comprehend an authentic academic text without assistance. The basic vocabulary consists of high frequency words which cover 90-95% of running words in a given text. (Laufer, 1989). Most of the words of the basic vocabulary are structure words, words which depend upon context for their meaning, for example; a, about, and, which, both, from, etc. There are also content words – words which are complete in their meaning, such as ball, doctor, learn, cat, etc. Both these are essential in order to process the meaning of a text.

3.3 Hypothesis

It is hypothesized that equipping learners with basic vocabulary through various vocabulary teaching strategies would certainly enhance the low-achievers' (here, the first generation learners) comprehension abilities in processing their L2 academic texts. It is further hypothesized that vocabulary will be learnt effectively if taught through meaningful input.

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3.4 Assumptions

Based on the above hypothesis, the following assumptions are made. It is assumed that:

- ✿ the learners do not possess the basic vocabulary that is required to comprehend a text.
- ✿ teaching the learners the basic vocabulary will enable them to process a text thereby achieving academic success.
- ✿ the learners are not exposed to suitable and sufficient language input that is required to learn basic vocabulary.
- ✿ providing meaningful input through the channel of authentic materials will enable them to learn vocabulary. Thus, they come to know the importance of the authentic materials and realia input in acquiring basic vocabulary.
- ✿ learners are not aware of any techniques or strategies that enable them to learn words easily and effectively.
- ✿ equipping them with some feasible techniques and strategies will enable them to learn vocabulary quickly and systematically.
- ✿ the learners will be made aware of the fact that learning the most frequent words or the basic vocabulary is the key to academic success at this level.
- ✿ being able to comprehend the academic texts not only gives the learners a sense of achievement but it will also boost their morale.
- ✿ with increased confidence in their ability to cope with the English language, learners will be able to plan for their higher education and also seek better employment opportunities.

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3.5 Relevance of the Study

Vocabulary or new words in L2 is not given much importance in the classroom. As a result, comprehending the text and understanding the spoken discourse of the teachers in the classroom becomes very difficult for the learners. Ultimately, this results in the learners' poor performance in the classroom tests, end-examinations and even in life when it comes to making higher academic decisions.

Teaching vocabulary to the under-achieved learner becomes essential because, the under-achieved learner, as pointed out by Passow et al. (1967: 48), has “few enriching stimuli at home with only rare opportunities to range beyond the immediate neighborhood.....not given materials to explore...nor do parents make any attempt to glamorize education as valued experience” (Passow et al. 1967: 2). The learner does not have a peer group with whom he can practise what he learns at school. He lives in a conflicting situation where his home is not aware of the value of educational experiences and his school not able to value his existing educational experience that he brings with him at the time of joining the institution. The learner's access to education, vocation and socialization with the greater community is severely limited and historically, such learners have been marginalized to an ‘inferior status despite individual attainment’ (Passow et al. 1967: 2).

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For these reasons, the need for teaching vocabulary for the under-achieved is viewed as essential in terms of academic progress, economic growth and occupational mobility. Teaching vocabulary in L2 addresses all these three needs.

3.6 Scope of the Study

The study attempts to teach basic vocabulary to the first generation learners as it (basic vocabulary) meets their immediate needs. For this purpose, the Dolch Words (220) which are the most frequently occurring words in newspapers, textbooks, children's stories and magazines have been found to be suitable for the learners in this study. However, the study limits itself to teaching only the three most important aspects of vocabulary knowledge (see 1.5). They are; a) the meaning, b) the spelling, and c) the pronunciation.

These aspects of vocabulary knowledge have been taught through explicit teaching of vocabulary (see 1.6.2). For this purpose, classroom tasks / activities were designed; authentic materials were selected; suitable teaching strategies were employed – all pitched at a level that meets the learners' requirements. This study adopts the ethnographic approach to data collection and analysis. The principle of thick description has been used to data interpretation. The study has been restricted to the learners of one particular area.

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3.7 Research Methodology

The methodology of the present study is as follows:

3.7.1 The Subjects

The subjects are the class IX regional medium students of Vemana Zilla Parishad High School, Modukuru village of Guntur district, Andhra Pradesh. The learners are low achievers, within the age group of approximately 13-15 years. They are the first generation learners (see 3.8.5) who are socially and economically disadvantaged.

3.7.2 The Tools

The following tools are used in the present study.

- Classroom Observation (to assess the teaching and learning methods),
- Field Observation (to feel the reality as an insider),

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- Teacher Interviews (to find out the dominant modes of teaching vocabulary and the rationale thereof),
- Informal Interviews with the parents (to have a sense of their beliefs and expectations from their children),
- Questionnaire (to understand learners' background and for record purposes),
- Diagnostic test (to diagnose learners' problematic areas and to assess their existing word knowledge in L2),
- Authentic material (which are immediately available),
- classroom tasks and activities (in order to teach vocabulary),
- Post- test (to assess the improvement),
- Informal talk with the students (to facilitate and enable their receptive and productive skills),
- Photographing and audio-recording of interviews (for analysis and record sake),
- Students' written answer scripts of Unit Tests, Quarterly and Half-Yearly examinations (to understand the level of the learners, the common spelling errors they make etc).

3.7.3 Research Procedure / Design

The study has been carried out in three parts:

Figure: 1

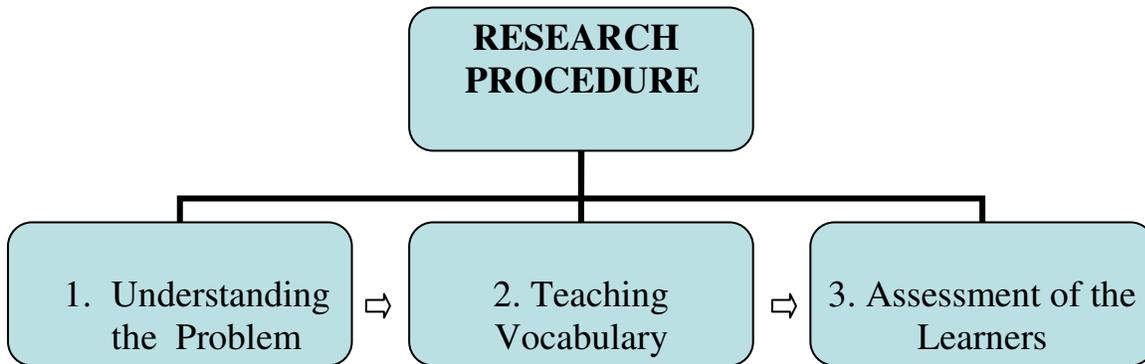
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Research Procedure



Part 1: Understanding the Problem

This part of the study is purely ethnographic in nature (see 3.8.4). During this phase, the researcher, using his own experience as the first generation learner attempts to understand the problems that the learners face in learning vocabulary in L2 while listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Two key principles namely, 'holism' and 'thick' explanation which, according to Nunan (1992: 57) are based on the 'grounded theory' are followed in the process. Under the holistic principle, the researcher, in the present study, has taken into account both the 'behaviour' of the individuals under the investigation and the 'context' in which the L2 learning behaviour

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occurs. For this purpose, the subjects are observed in their school as well as their home environments.

Under the principle of ‘thick’ explanation, all the ‘factors’ which affect the learners’ L2 learning behaviour have been taken into account. Some of these factors include: classroom behaviour of the learners as well as the teachers; the teaching and learning aids in the school; the learners’ and parents’ beliefs; the socio-economic and cultural background of the learners and finally the physical, psychological and motivational factors affecting learning.

The learners’ existing L2 word knowledge has been assessed with the help of; a) a diagnostic test which consisted of reading passages with some difficult words and b) informal interviews with both the teachers as well as the learners.

Part 2: Teaching Vocabulary

After having assessed the learners’ present L2 word knowledge, the researcher has selected, among the various vocabulary lists discussed earlier (see Chapter 2) the Dolch Word List (DWL) to be taught to the learners. It is so decided because DWL is a basic vocabulary list in L2 and is found suitable to the level of the learners chosen for the study. The Dolch Words have been taught to the learners in the following way:

✚ through selected and graded material as meaningful input

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- ☛ over a period of 30 days, everyday three sessions, 45 minutes each (a total of 60 hours of teaching)
- ☛ the first session for instruction' the second for classroom tasks and activities, and the third for individual (silent) reading respectively
- ☛ through different vocabulary teaching techniques in multiple contexts/situations

The DWL contains about 220 most common words (see Appendix). As all the words in DWL figure in well-known word lists, it can be considered as simplified version of various basic vocabulary lists such as ; Michael West's General Service List (2000 words), West's Minimum Adequate Vocabulary (1,250 words), Ogden's Basic English Word List (850 words), Nation's Academic Word List (1000 words).

Learners have been taught Dolch words in an explicit manner through reading cards, authentic materials, classroom situations, classroom tasks and activities etc. It is assumed that the incidental method of teaching vocabulary to the first generation learners would not yield good results mainly for the following reasons such as; first, they do not possess basic vocabulary to read and comprehend any text; second, they do not have ample opportunities, sources and environment to explore; third, they do not possess dictionaries to refer to them when required; fourth, because of the assumption that incidental learning is meant for the advanced learners. In order to teach these words, the researcher has gathered ample materials such as newspaper cuttings, word search puzzles, simplified and graded reading cards and storybooks, and some selected pieces of the learners' textbook, etc. Thus, the teaching techniques suggested by Nation

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(1990; 2001), West (1953) and others were used while teaching vocabulary to the learners. The following strategies were found to be appropriate, useful and meaningful for teaching vocabulary in the context of the study:

- ☉ Vocabulary through Reading
- ☉ Vocabulary through exploiting Classroom Situations
- ☉ Vocabulary through Authentic Materials and Classroom Tasks
- ☉ Vocabulary through Grammar of Words

Part 3: Post Teaching Assessment of Learners

This is the phase of evaluation in which an end test was designed and administered to the learners to assess the degree and amount of learning that has occurred. At the end of the teaching session, a feedback session was conducted to elicit learners' responses to the strategies of vocabulary learning that they were exposed to and taught. The researcher has also had informal talks with the learners to know whether they think they can use these techniques in future.

3.8 Terms Used in the Study

The terms used in this study have been defined within the context of the present study. This will help us to view the study from the proper perspective and with the right focus.

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3.8.1 Basic Vocabulary

Basic Vocabulary (BV) would mean ‘the most common words’ in a language. BV is also known as most frequently occurring words. These words are very useful to all the foreign and second language learners at elementary level, as they cover 85% to 90% of the running words in any text (see Chapter 1). They serve as the building blocks and lay the base for elementary reading. They are comprised of the content words (those that are complete in their meaning for example: book, watch ...) such as nouns, as well as the structure (those that depend on other words for their meanings for example: it, the, an, and, in ...) such as articles, determiners, prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, adjectives etc.

3.8.2 Strategies

Strategy can be understood as ‘a means to achieving a goal’. There are different kinds of strategies and they differ from person to person. Strategies assist language learners as well as language teachers. It is essential for classroom teachers to be aware of different strategies employed by individual learners. Strategies can be talked about mainly in two ways. They are learning strategies and teaching strategies.

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According to Mitchell and Myles (1998: 89), learning strategies are procedures undertaken by the learners in order to make their own language learning effective. In this regard, they quote O'Malley and Chamot (1990) who say that learning strategies include:

Focusing on selected aspects of new information, analyzing and monitoring information during acquisition, organizing or elaborating on new information during the encoding process, evaluating the learning when it is completed, assuring oneself that the learning will be successful as a way to allay anxiety. (p. 125)

Teaching strategies are procedures undertaken by the teacher in order to make teaching as effective and interesting as possible. In this particular study the researcher has taken into account both the strategies (teaching and learning) in order to facilitate learning. In the process, the teachers were enquired about what strategies they follow, to what extent and in what manner.

3.8.3 Meaningful Input

Input is considered to be a necessary condition in second language acquisition and so a good amount of research is happening in this area. Corder (1967) defines input as “what goes in” as distinguished from what is available for going in. Krashen (1978, 1980a, 1981b) talks of ‘optimal’ input, which is simple in nature and is inevitable for language acquisition. Therefore, the researcher, keeping the level of the learners in mind, has chosen the material which is

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authentic, simplified and graded for the purpose of teaching vocabulary in the classroom. This input is meaningful as it directly meets the needs of the target group in that particular situation.

3.8.4 Ethnographic Study

Ethnographic study refers to one of the procedures of data collection used in research. It differs from the other methods of data collection and interpretation such as qualitative and quantitative procedures in that it requires the researcher to play an active role in the field work. In the present research, the researcher has focused on the principles like: participant and non-participant observation, locating research in natural settings, collecting and interpreting subjective views and belief systems of the participants (LeCompte and Goetz, 1928).

The use of thick description – that is, the collection of data on all of the factors which affect the environment under investigation – interpretation, and explanation are the other principles of ethnographic study. In other words, thick description is an important element of an ethnographic study which is the first hand narration of the social site. It is said that the goal of thick description is achieved by narrating certain key events and episodes that are experienced on the site. It also includes the researcher’s interpretations on data (the subjective accounts).

Chaudron (1988: 46) characterizes ethnographic research as a qualitative, process-oriented approach to the investigation of interaction, involving ‘considerable training, continuous

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record keeping, extensive participatory involvement of the researcher in the classroom, and careful interpretation of the usually multifaceted data’.

3.8.5 First Generation Learners

All the First Generation Learners are ‘disadvantaged learners’ who are disadvantaged from an educational and economic point of view. They are considered to be linguistically deficient, academically unsuccessful and socially and economically backward. Most of these learners are children of agricultural labourers, bonded labourers, and civic-sanitation workers with no educational background. These learners do not have any parental support as their parents are illiterates. Very often parents take their children to work in agricultural field as they can contribute to the family’s income. As a result, these learners remain as under-achievers, school dropouts and failures in academics and remain so there after forever in life.

3.9 Overview of the chapter

This chapter has discussed the research design and the methodology adopted for the present study. The research problem is presented and its relevance and need highlighted. Terms used in the study have also been explained with reference to the precise meaning assigned to them in this particular study.

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CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter begins with a discussion on the procedure for data interpretation. The tools used are thick description and field observation. Aspects of vocabulary knowledge to be taught to the learners are identified. Strategies to teach vocabulary are designed. Examples of the tasks and activities carried out in the classroom are provided. This is followed by a discussion and analysis of the end test administered to the learners. Principles and objectives of the prescribed textbook are presented followed by a critical analysis of the tasks and activities incorporated in it. Subsequently the gap between the present level of competence of the learners and the challenge offered by the prescribed textbook is made evident.

4.1 Procedure for Data Analysis

In the present study, ethnographic approach to data collection has been employed. The researcher, the questionnaire, the diagnostic test, informal interviews with teachers and parents, classroom observation and an end-test are the tools that were used in order to collect the data. Thick description and reflective thinking are the two most important elements that have been used while analyzing and interpreting the data. The researcher has recorded every day activities and experiences of the field observation in the form of writing a diary. The researcher also assumes a prominent role in ethnographic study. In this study, the researcher's background,

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experience and beliefs as a regional medium student as well as a first generation learner are also taken into account while interpreting the data.

4.2 Subjects

The subjects are the class IX Section A, regional medium students of Vemana Zilla Parishad High School, Modukuru village of Guntur district, Andhra Pradesh. They have four years of exposure in learning English as a third language. The learners are 45 in number, within the age group of 13-15years. They are first generation learners (see 3.8.5), who are socially and economically disadvantaged. The section ‘A’ learners were chosen for the study on the suggestions given by the Head Master and the English teachers, as these learners are low achievers when compared to section the ‘B’ learners. The following table captures the complexion of section ‘A’ of class IX.

Table: 1
Class Complexion: Section ‘A’

Students	Number
Boys	16
Girls	29
Total	45
Present Daily	30 - 35
Absent Daily	10 - 15

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Section 'A' consists of 45 students who belong to different communities, religions and villages. Of these 10 -12 students are regularly absent to school. The classroom seating arrangement is fixed and boys and girls sit separately. It is found that these two groups of learners do not prefer to communicate with each other. Students who belong to the same community, religion or village prefer to sit together. There is no free interaction among the students within or outside the classroom. It clearly reflects the personality of the learners, their culture and the traditional values they practise.

4.3 Questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed to elicit information on the learners' background (see Appendix). It also served the purpose of record maintenance. Care was taken to make it short, simple and clear. The learners were guided to fill in the information under all the sections of the questionnaire as they found it difficult to understand them. The questionnaire was administered to 40 learners. From the questionnaire it was learnt that:

- ▶ most of the students are first generation learners;
- ▶ learners come from socially disadvantaged and economically poor backgrounds;
- ▶ most of the learners' parents are illiterate;
- ▶ most of the parents are agricultural labourers, daily wage workers, farmers, and bonded labourers;

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4.4 Diagnostic Test

A diagnostic test was administered to the students in order to arrive at the existing vocabulary level of the students. The purpose here was to test the learners' competence of basic vocabulary. The test was designed by selecting the vocabulary from General Service List (West, 1953). While selecting this particular vocabulary the researcher has primarily given importance to the present academic needs of the learners. In other words, basic vocabulary which occurs in their English textbook was tested. From the diagnostic test it was found that:

- the learners were not familiar with even the most important aspects of the basic words in L2 namely: meaning, spelling and pronunciation;
- the learners lack text comprehending skills;
- the learners needed help at each and every section of the test;
- the learners lack test taking skills;
- the learners were not proficient in their mother tongue (Telugu);

This test helped the researcher to get a sense of the learners' present level of vocabulary and their test taking skills. It gave the researcher a sense of direction to plan, select and teach basic vocabulary which serves their immediate needs (see 3.2).

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4.5 Classroom Observations

Classroom observation helped to understand how teachers teach and learners learn. It was found that grammar translation and traditional methods of teaching are generally followed. To the researcher's question— *why don't you follow some modern methods or techniques while teaching English?* the teachers replied, 'theory is quite different from practice'. It was found that while teaching English lessons teachers give away the meanings of the difficult words in L1. Teachers made use of the glossary given at the end of the lesson and dictated the word meanings and spellings. The learners were never given a chance to guess the meanings of the unknown words. The learners had to take down whatever meanings that the teacher gave. Learners do not have freedom to ask for the meanings of the words which they find difficult. The teachers never use English in the classroom in its complete sense except a few common phrases such as keep quiet!, go out, come here, stand up, silence please, don't talk, and so on. The teaching of English is purely examination oriented. Hence, there is no focus on the language skills required to learn English as a language for communication purposes.

4.6 Selection of Aspects of Vocabulary Knowledge

As discussed earlier, there are several aspects of word knowledge as suggested by Nation (2001) (see 1.5). Keeping the level of the learners in mind as the first generation learners, their age, educational, socio-economic and cultural backgrounds, and their interests, the researcher has

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chosen to teach the learners the three most important aspects of word knowledge namely, meaning, spelling and pronunciation. Priority has been given to these three aspects of word knowledge in order to help the learners in their academics and to do well in their examinations especially in the S.S.C Examinations, which is their immediate need.

4.6.1 Meaning

Meaning is the most essential aspect of a word. So the meanings of the words were taught through different techniques such as: using pictures, gestures and actions, through translation into L1 and through exploiting the contextual cues. The learners were taught only the most common meaning. Word meanings were not given away too quickly to the learners' rather the words were repeatedly presented to them in different sentences before the meaning of a particular word was explained.

4.6.2 Spelling

The fact that the first generation learners are greatly troubled by the English spelling even at their higher studies is obvious. Therefore, the researcher has taught the spellings through various tasks and activities by drawing their attention to:

-verbs of regular and irregular spellings

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- spelling rules concerning the doubling of consonants, final silent 'e' and 'i' before 'e'
- word puzzles
- arranging the jumbled words into alphabetical order
- word dictation
- incomplete words

4.6.3 Pronunciation

Pronunciation is very problematic to the first generation learners because they neither have the opportunity to listen to English being spoken in their surroundings nor can they speak English at all till they reach the advanced level of the ladder of education. Sufficient knowledge of pronunciation of the basic English words is required for these learners because not that it assists them to speak English well but it helps them to comprehend, even the little English spoken in the classroom. Hence, for the purpose of teaching pronunciation, the learners were made to speak; they were also asked to read out stories. The main aim here was to correct their pronunciation and also to offer them the correct models of pronunciation. This enhanced learners' listening skills and improved their ability to read aloud with correct pronunciation.

4.7 Strategies to Teach Vocabulary

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In order to arrive at the suitable strategies for teaching basic vocabulary to the learners, the researcher had used four important tools namely, the diagnostic test, scrutiny of the answer scripts of the Unit Tests, Quarterly and Half-Yearly English examinations, interviews with the teachers and the researcher's personal experience as the regional medium student as well as the first generation learner. From the active interaction with the learners, it was found that the following strategies would be useful with these first generation learners.

- ♣ Vocabulary through Reading
- ♣ Vocabulary through Classroom Interaction
- ♣ Vocabulary through Authentic Materials and Classroom Tasks
- ♣ Vocabulary through Grammar of Words

These strategies have been used to teach the basic vocabulary through classroom tasks and activities. Authentic materials such as paper cuttings, advertisements, brochures and other materials are used as meaningful input. It was found that these strategies proved to be quite useful and served the purpose of teaching vocabulary well. This emphasis on vocabulary teaching strategies is mainly to help learners develop strategies for learning vocabulary and to become independent learners. Now let us see each of these strategies in detail.

4.7.1 Vocabulary through Reading

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Reading is used as a strategy to promote vocabulary learning. For this purpose, a separate 45 minute period has been allotted. During this session, the learners were given graded reading materials to read. These materials include reading cards such as:

English 400 Reading Programme: It consists of graded reading cards for the learners at different levels. It has been planned and prepared by language experts from CIEFL Hyderabad. It has been specially designed with a view to providing:

- Individualized, self-paced graded reading,
- a wide range of reading texts,
- imaginative illustration, and
- reading for fun and pleasure.

Elementary Stories for Reproduction First Series: This series of books (Elementary 1&2; Intermediate 1&2; Advanced 1&2) was written by L. A. Hill, within the 1,000 word vocabulary, published by OUP, 2002. This book consists of 56 stories with illustrations. The researcher has selected some stories which are culturally familiar to the learners. Each student was given copies of stories. They have to read them silently everyday.

In both the cases, learners had to read and underline the difficult words. It was observed that this material has enabled learners with the basic sight vocabulary (words that good readers

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recognize instantly without having to ‘figure them out). The purpose of this task was to supply the basic vocabulary again and again till learners acquired them. It has strengthened the depth of word knowledge of those words that were taught to the learners. One of the advantages of this task (vocabulary through reading) was that it helped learners to gain the required familiarity with the basic words. Further, this strategy has also helped to inculcate the reading habit (silent reading) in the learners who otherwise do not do any kind of reading in the L2. It was found that vocabulary taught through reading would give the learners more opportunities to process language use at a deeper level and to develop semantic networks and other kinds of associative links that will ultimately enhance L2 learning.

4.7.2 Vocabulary through Classroom Interaction

In the context of the present study where learners’ exposure to L2 vocabulary is limited to only the classroom setting, teachers’ interaction with the learners in L2 could be a useful strategy to teach L2 vocabulary to the learners. The researcher, while teaching vocabulary, has interacted with the learners most often in L2. The language, in order to make it meaningful, was related to real life situations (birthdays, festivals, traveling, cooking...etc) and was presented to the learners. Here the learners were asked to talk about their friends, about the stories they have listened to and have read, etc. This helped them to use the words they were taught in contexts that were relevant and meaningful to them. Students were also encouraged to listen to teacher’s talk and were thereby exposed to situational language use.

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Following Instructions:

Here the students had to act as instructed by the teacher. A few sample instructions are:

Teacher: The third person from the second bench, get up, raise your left hand.

Teacher: The fourth person from the ninth bench, get up and call out the name of the first person from the second bench.

Teacher: The last person from the twelfth bench, get up and open your bag, take out the English textbook, open on the page 45 and read the 10th line, etc.

This activity has helped the learners to listen to the instructions given by the teacher carefully and to enact them accordingly. Most of the learners had understood these instructions when accompanied by gestures. It was found that the learners were fairly good at listening skills when listening tasks are accompanied by gestures (see 5.2).

Introducing oneself / thanking / apologizing / expressing wishes / asking for and giving something.

Here the students were made to provide information about themselves, with the help of the sentences the teacher speaks to them. In other words, students had to reply to the questions asked by the teacher. For example:

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Teacher: My name is Rajkumar. What's your name?

Student: My name is Rajesh.

Teacher: I'm Rajkumar. Who are you?

Student: I am Suresh.

Teacher: I'm from Hyderabad. Where are you from?

Student: I am from Guntur.

Teacher: Thank you so much! / thank you very much! / thanks a lot!

Student: Thank You / It's my pleasure.

Teacher: Can I borrow your pen / notebook / pencil?

Student: Yes, please / ok, here you are / yes, no problem.

Teacher: Can you sing a song?

Student: Yes, I can / No, I cannot.

This activity had helped learners to come out with a lot of creative utterances while greeting (good morning / afternoon / evening / night; how are you?); asking for information (Where are you from? / What is your name? / What is your favourite food?); requesting (come to our class, please take our class, can you sing...) and in other situations.

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Speaking about festivals / celebrations

The students were encouraged to speak about the festivals they have celebrated recently. It was to see what kind of vocabulary they will be able to use while speaking. Only two students whose parents have a reasonably good educational background came forward to speak. They could use words and little phrases such as; **morning get up, take bath, go to temple, pray, cooking food, eating sweets, buy new dress, go picture, playing, enjoying.....etc.** The first generation learners were quite flustered and did not attempt to speak.

Speaking about a trip to a new place / visiting friends

Students were asked to speak on the journey to a new place they have made during the vacation. Of all the first generation learners only one student could manage to say a few words such as **go to my friend village, go in bus, see beautiful place, play in river, see and talk uncle and aunt...etc.**

The above utterances show that the learner had only used the present form of all the verbs. It is clear that learners are neither aware of the past forms of the basic verbs nor do they use them in spoken or in written discourse.

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4.7.3 Vocabulary through Authentic Materials and Classroom Tasks

Authentic Materials such as advertisements, train time schedule, information on movies, newspaper cuttings on weather forecast, paper cuttings on brief and theme based general knowledge were used to teach vocabulary. The following are the tasks that have been carried out in the classroom. They were presented to the learners from simple to complex manner. They are:

- spelling tasks
- word dictation
- word completion tasks
- word recognition tasks
- word search puzzle
- word quiz
- match the following tasks
- word association tasks
- giving instructions
- Writing five sentences about yourself/family/village/school
- reading the story and translating it into L1
- introducing oneself / thanking / apologizing / expressing wishes

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All these tasks had been carefully designed keeping in mind the level of the first generation learners. Most of these tasks had to be done in groups involving negotiation, interaction, and participation.

These tasks have provided learners with opportunities for working with words. The learners, apparently, were not made to do such tasks before. Their curiosity was tickled and they showed great interest in learning more and more words. Further, it was observed that the learners had fun and enjoyment while doing these exercises in groups. The ultimate result was that the learners learned basic words that the present study aimed at teaching.

4.7.4 Vocabulary through Grammar of Words

Lexis and grammar are not two separate entities in language learning. In vocabulary instruction, defining a word, according to Nation (1990: 56), indicates three things: one, grammatical function of the word eg: a noun, a verb, an adjective, etc; two, the typical sentence patterns, and three, other formal aspects of the word, eg: countable, uncountable, irregular past forms, irregular plurals.

Hunt and Beglar (1999), in their article, 'Current Research and Practice in Teaching Vocabulary' explain that, a word is defined as including the base form (e.g., make) and its inflections and derivatives (e.g., makes, made, making, maker and makers). Read (1988) opines

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that, since the meanings of these different forms of the word are closely related, it requires extra effort for the learners to learn them as these forms confuse them. It was found that the first generation learners were not aware of the word families (all the related forms of a word, i.e. come, comes, coming, came...) of the basic words. This lack of knowledge has resulted in confusion and the subsequent inability to arrive at the meanings of words.

Richards (2000: 58) suggests that lexical knowledge and grammatical knowledge are inextricably interrelated. This interrelation is termed as lexico-grammar. It is observed that most of the learners did not know or even do not have a sense of many inflections and derivative suffixes for basic English verbs. Hence, a lot of effort was made to teach these forms to the learners.

Topics dealt while teaching vocabulary through grammar are;

Parts of Speech: These are also called word class, and show the grammatical behaviour of a word into categories of noun, verb, adjective, etc. According to Richards (2000: 60), word class can be better engaged in learning and storage of vocabulary. Word class knowledge of L2 word can be easily transferred to the learners' L1.

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Helping Verbs: There are 24 helping verbs. These are; is, am, are, do, does, has, have, be, been, was, were, did, had, will, shall, would, should, can, could, may, might, ought, must, and dare.

Verb Forms: The learners were not familiar with the different forms of a word (word-family) in L2 such as:

-Go, goes, going, went, gone.

-Come, comes, coming, came, come.

-Eat, eats, eating, ate, eaten, etc.

The learners could recognize the base forms of the verbs like go, come, eat, etc., but not the -es, -ed, -s, -ing, and past participle forms of the verbs. In fact these forms do not make any sense to them. They express their inability even to identify these forms as the inflected forms of the base form of the verbs. So they were taught various forms of the verbs which they could grasp gradually.

Number: It was observed that the students had problems with the number distinction of the English nouns. So they were taught different rules of singular and plural numbers such as:

1. The plural of nouns is generally formed by adding –s to the singular as in:

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Boy - Boys; Girl - Girls; Cow - Cows;

2. The nouns ending in -s, -sh, -ch, and -x form the plural by adding -es to the singular as in:

Class - Classes; Bench - Benches; Church - Churches;
Box - Boxes; Watch - Watches; Brush - Brushes;

3. Some nouns ending in -o also form the plural by adding -es to the singular as in:

Mango - Mangoes; Hero - Heroes; Potato - Potatoes;

4. Some nouns ending in -f, or -fe form their plural by changing -f or -fe into v and adding -es as in:

Knife - Knives
Wife - Wives
Thief - Thieves
Leaf - Leaves

5. A few nouns have irregular plural forms as in:

Man - Men
Woman - Women

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Mouse - Mice
Tooth - Teeth

Gender: This was taught to the students by asking them to supply the opposite gender to the noun given by the teacher. The distinction was made clear to the students through appropriate contexts and situations.

Masculine ***Feminine***

Man - Woman
Boy - Girl
Son - Daughter

Example:

- ➡ **S1:** I went to the market with my **mother**.
- S2: I went to the market with my **father**.
- ➡ **S1:** My **uncle** gave me a big five star chocolate.
- ➡ **S2:** My **aunt** gave me a big five star chocolate.

Person: Most of the students were not aware of the person distinction of the English Noun and were often confused about it. The distinction was made clear to the students through situations and contexts.

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Singular ***Plural***

I - We
You - You
He }
She - } They
It

Example:

I }
We }
You - } - go, eat, walk, read.
They }

He }
She } - goes, eats, walks, reads.
It }

- I *go* to the market every day.

- He *goes* to the market every day.

4.8 End Test: Discussion and Analysis

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After almost 60 hours of teaching of vocabulary through a variety of appropriate tasks, the learners were given a final test to assess the degree and depth of their improvement in learning vocabulary. This test covered all the items that have been taught to the learners during the time span of 60 instructional sessions. The learners were given two days to prepare for the test.

It was found that the performance of the learners in the test was far from being satisfactory (see Appendix II). Some of the errors the learners made were:

Write the plural number for the given words

Man – Mans; Bench – Benchs; Card – Cardes;

Fill in the blanks with the correct word from the choices given

1. Lions eat ----- (meet 65% / meat 35%)
2. Raja is the only ----- (sun 69% / son 31%) of his parents.
3. When there is ----- (piece 56% / peace 44%), there is happiness.

Write the meanings of the underlined words in Telugu in the given sentences

I want to study Bipc group. What is your opinion? (open 25 % / correct equivalent 30% / unanswered 45%)

There are many reasons which caused this poor performance in the test. Some of them are:

- disinterest in taking the test
- carelessness in revising what has been taught
- lack of test taking skills

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- poor memory
- lack of self-practice in doing tasks
- lack of time managing skills
- lack of knowledge of basic word meanings
- inability to read and understand the instructions

However, the learners' improvement at vocabulary knowledge of the basic English words cannot be dismissed. Between the diagnostic test and the end-test, after 60 instructional sessions, the researcher has recorded a modest progress in the learners' ability to process an L2 text. The learners were able to grasp words meanings from contextual clues instead of entirely depending on the teacher. There was a visible improvement in their sense of spelling and pronunciation of the English words (those basic words that were taught to them). By the end of the stipulated instructional sessions the learners were able to:

- ➡ comprehend the text in L2,
- ➡ read and recognize words,
- ➡ categorize words into different sections,
- ➡ pronounce words,
- ➡ spell words,
- ➡ associate new words with the known words,
- ➡ utter a few most commonly used phrases and sentences,

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- ➡ follow the written as well as the spoken discourses/instructions,
- ➡ guess the meanings of new words from the context,
- ➡ understand the overall the role of the vocabulary in learning the L2

4.9 Teaching and Learning Conditions/ Methods

It has been observed that the teaching and learning methods of the classroom, in government schools, are still old and outdated in spite of the availability of modern teaching and learning equipment provided by the government. English is taught through traditional methods of Grammar Translation, Structural Approach, Rote Learning etc. The school has been provided with modern equipment such as computers, a tape recorder, a television set graded reading cards, Cambridge simplified picture story books, and others. However, these aids have not been used by the teachers. This equipment has been confined to the head master's office. Teachers neither possess the technical know-how to operate them nor do they have any inclination to use them in the classrooms. Teachers think that it is an additional burden for them. It was also noticed that the teachers were not enthusiastic about teaching language skills to the learners. The classrooms are entirely teacher-centered; consequently learning English appears to be an agonizing experience for the learners. For these reasons, learners do not consider their teachers as good models of language teachers.

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The learners too are not motivated and do not show any interest in learning English. It is because they are not aware of the importance of English as a global language. It was found that there were a few learners who find it difficult even to recognize certain letters of the alphabet. It was due to the government norms that if a student has 80% of attendance, he / she should be promoted to the higher classes. This procedure is counter productive and results in low academic achievement causing disinterest in the learners towards their performance. It was observed from the interviews with the parents as well as with the learners that most of the learners do not care to study except during examinations.

4.10 Analysis of the Answer Scripts of Unit Tests and Quarterly and Half-yearly Examinations

Permission was obtained from the school head master to examine the learners' answer scripts of the Unit tests, Quarterly and Half-yearly English examinations. This was mainly to get a sense of the learners' writing, spelling and text comprehension abilities. This helped the researcher in identifying most of their problems. This activity gave a lot of insights for the researcher on how to plan and design and proceed with teaching vocabulary. It was found that the learners lack the skills in comprehending the text, writing, spelling, punctuation, sentence structures and grammar. It was also found that the answers produced by the learners were simply memorized sentences and phrases. Learners do not know how to write grammatically correct

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sentences. The following are a few samples the mistakes that the learners made in the examinations.

Some spelling mistakes committed by the learners in writing exams are shown in bold in brackets; (QUARTERLY EXAMINATION)

About (**a bout**) , into (**in to**), with (**wuith**), nice (**nince**), song (**songe**),
Brought (**brith, brithe, brathe, breath**), asked (**asket**), grow (**gruw**), flower
(**fiower, fowler**), help (**hilp**), person (**perosn**), buttered (**betured**),
Game (**gane**), birthday (**barth day**), world (**wold**), looked (**lookind**), America (**amarica**),
lazy (**lezy**), please (**plase**), hours (**ours**), eating (**eatting**).

Fill in the blanks with **io, au, ea, or oo**; (UNIT TEST 2)

- (i) bec - - se : students' answers ---(**becefse, becgkse, beciese**);
(ii) f - - d : students' answers----(**find, fiold, feed, ford, faud**);

How would you ask a stranger time? (HALF-YEARLY EXAMINATION)

Students' answers to the above question in the Half-Yearly Examination are as follows;

Sir, please talk me time.

At evening 4 pm.

Sir, please say the time.

The stranger is 6:30.

Oh! Look at the moon.

What a lovely garden.

Reading books.

Excuse me sar (sir), what is the time now?

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4.11 Analysis of Classroom Teaching Tasks

The diagnostic test has shown that the learners are not good at the basic English vocabulary. They do not possess the core components of L2 vocabulary such as: spellings, meanings, pronunciation, recognition of words, etc. Hence, these aspects were taught through tasks such as: word dictation, word association, writing, reading and word finding tasks and others. The mistakes made by the learners while they did the tasks are also presented below.

4.11.1 Spellings

The learners cannot even spell the common and simple words when dictated. The following spelling mistakes were observed and recorded when the learners were tested on the Dolch Word List. They are:

Table: 2

Mistakes in Spelling

WORD	STUDENTS' SPELLINGS			
DOWN	Daun	Dawn	Dioun	Dnow
LITTLE	Lettle	Litle	Littele	Litll
MAKE	Maek	Mack	Mike	
YELLOW	Illo	Yollo	Allo	Wolow
WHITE	Wiyet	Wite	Wayet	Wiyth
UNDER	Ander	Andr	Undur	Onder
EVERY	Iwrive	Avry	Avery	Avary

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THINK	Tink	Thing	Thng	Theing
ONCE	Onese	Ones	Oncie	Onec
BEFORE	Befour	Befor	Bofur	Before
ALWAYS	Ilevige	Ollwas	Allyease	Allevege
WHICH	Wich	Vichi		
AGAIN	Agen	Againe	Agin	Aggen
THANKS	Thnkes	Thiakes	Thaings	Thaink
BETTER	Bretter	Bettir	Beter	Bettr
MYSELF	Myswell	Mysalf	Miselp	Mycelef
NEVER	Navar	Nevar	Naver	Nawer
SHOW	So	Shae	Sho	Sow
MUCH	Moch	Mach	Mache	Machi

The learners were also tested on spellings of the words from their class IX English textbook. The learners were found to be very weak in the vocabulary related to the subject. The mistakes were identified.

Table: 3

Information on spelling mistakes

WORD	STUDENTS' SPELLINGS			
HOLIDAY	Haliday	Holeday	Holyday	Hollday
IMPOSSIBLE	Imposbul	Imposabul	Impossibull	Emposibl
LESSON	Leson	Lesan	Lasean	Lessen
NOTHING	Nathing	Neithing	Nughting	Nuting
PENCIL	Pencel	Pensil	Pancial	Pancil
REFUSE	Refus	Refeese	Rifug	Rafus
PROOF	Prouf	Prof	Profe	Pruf
REPEAT	Repet	Reped	Repete	Repeate
STUPID	Stuped	Stupid	Stupite	Stupt
WHATEVER	What aver	What awar	Whar ar	Whatever
PROMISE	Pramic	Pramis	Promises	Promises

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PROBLEM	Problem	Prablam	Proleim	Problam
SERIOUS	Seriyes	Siriyas	Sireus	Cerias
MEMBER	Member	Meber	Mamberr	Nember

4.11.2 Word Association Tasks

The learners were asked to produce all the associated words to the given word or a phrase in a simple context. The learners have done it but with a lot of spelling mistakes. The following tasks give us some idea about how mistakes are made.

Given word: EXAMINATION

Context : writing Examination

The associated words given by the learners containing spelling errors are presented below:

Table: 4
Mistakes in Spelling

WORD	STUDENTS' SPELLINGS		
Write	Writhing	Writeing	Writh, Rait, Rite, rayating
Ready	Redi	Radi	
Look	Luk		

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Read	Reding	Reed	Reade
Listen	Lisne	Lijan	Ligan, Lisen
Walking	Waking	Vaking	
Sit down	Sedown		
Take	Tack		
Paper	Papur	Praper	Paiper
Join	Jain		

Given word: MARKET

Context : Buying and selling

The associated words given by the learners containing spelling errors are presented below:

Table: 5
Mistakes in Spelling

WORD	STUDENTS' SPELLINGS	
Smell	Smill	smeel
Smoking	Smooking	
Taking	Toking	
Cheating	Cheting	
Catching	Cating	
Listen	Lishen	
Buy	By	bying
Speak	Speking	
Like	Likeing	
Selling	celing	

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4.11.3 Writing Tasks

These writing tasks were aimed at knowing learners' ability to write spellings of the basic words. These give us some clues about how the learners make mistakes in spellings. The correct spelling is given in the bracket.

1. Write five sentences about your school.

My school is butffle / butfly (**beautiful**)

My H.M is very stiak / strik (**strict**)

My grand / grond is very big (**ground**)

My school is very clieng (**clean**)

We are lisiting in the lessons (**listening**)

My classroom is very neatly (**neat**)

My teachers is a very good teachers (**teachers are**)

My school trees is very nice (trees are)

My class is very neetness (**neatness**)

My school dres is so nice (**dress**)

My school studts very good (**students**)

My school is meny trees (**many**)

My teacher very beuttiful (**beautiful**)

My school stof 20 persans (**staff**) (**persons**)

My school studins 400 naber (**students**) (**number**)

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2. Write five sentences about your village.

My village is very coll (**cool**)

My village people is very buttfull (**beautiful**)

My village is children very buautiful / beatuful / beatful (**beautiful**)

My village are trees and bards (**birds**)

3. Write down the conversation between you and your friend next to you while introducing to each other.

S1. how or you (**are**)

S2. iam fain / fin (**fine**)

S1. all the bust (**best**)

S2. tanks (**thanks**)

S1. how many sisters? (**How many sisters do you have?**)

S2. I am one sister (**I have one sister**)

S1. I am two sisters (**I have two sisters**)

S1. how old are you?

S2. I am old are 14 years. (**I am 14 years old**)

S1. what is your marther / mather name? (**mother**)

S2. my marther name is xxx (**mother**)

S1. what is your marther? (**mother**)

S2. my marther is ouseyefe. (**mother**) (**housewife**)

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4.11.4 Pronunciation Difficulties

The learners were not able to follow the pronunciation of certain common words when the researcher used them in the dictation tasks in the classroom. These words appeared totally unfamiliar to the learners. This was because the learners were not exposed to the correct models of pronunciation. The learners were not aware of the silent letters in words– a common feature in the English spelling. As a result, the learners pronounce words phonetically and this misleads them. This can be regarded as one of the major reasons for the learners' poor spellings ability as well.

The researcher has drawn the learners' attention to some of the most common words that they need to be familiar with. They were asked to pronounce them before the right pronunciation was given to them. Some of the words are:

Words with Silent letters

Know, knee, lamb, limb, bomb, comb, answer, doubt, debt, palm,
Calm, arm, form, farm, turn, corn, barn, warn, girl, born,
Learn, morning, talk, walk, bark, chalk,

Substitution of wrong Phonemes

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It was observed that some learners pronounce certain words wrongly because they mistake one phoneme for the other.

- ☛ Learners have problems distinguishing between voiceless bilabial plosive / p / and voiceless labio-dental fricative / f /. As a result, they have problems in pronouncing the most frequently used word friend. They pronounce it as **prend**. The other examples are;

Fants for **pants**; pocus for **focus**; porm for **form**; fractice for **practice**;

- ☛ Learners also have problems distinguishing between voiced-palato alveolar affricate / tʃ / and voiced alveolar fricative / z /. As a result, they have problems in pronouncing the word zoo. They pronounce it as **dzoo**. The other examples are;

Dzuice for **juice**; zam for **jam**;

- ☛ Learners also have problems with dental fricatives [th], [dh]. As a result, they have problems in pronouncing words such as;

Tanks for **thanks**; ttink for **think**; ttin for **thin**;
Dhatt for **that**; dheese for **these**; dhem for **them**;

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4.11.5 Misrecognition / Mispronunciation of Words

It was observed that the following words were misrecognized and mispronounced by the learners while they were reading aloud.

Arrest (artist),	stayed (study),	dark (duck),	bed (bad),
Play (pay),	placed (pleased),	thicked (thanked),	went (want),
Beautiful forest (beautiful part),		graden (garden),	samal (small),
Runs (roses),	sumar (summar),	prend (friend),	dzoo (zoo),
My (may I),	prend (friend),		

The errors mentioned above help us to understand how the learners tend to mistake one word for the other. It is clear that here the learners try to relate the unfamiliar words to those words that they are already familiar with. Also these errors are a result of the perceived similarities in the spelling of the new and known words (eg. 'Forest' being understood as 'First').

Word puzzles: These were the tasks used in the classroom to help learners to quickly recognize the basic words hidden in the word-puzzle. But the fact that the learners had marked a lot of non-sense words shows that misrecognition of words is a common phenomenon among the learners.

Some of the nonsense words are presented below:

Lli, wour, buwt, eawt, tlli, newes, wes, dost, lenr, greu, tee, sar,
Tep, hor, tai, nli, ent, lo, pulld, veel, retn, gde, sar, veet,

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Vel, viom, kyt, wny, loves, reks, juak, si, kee, open, lep, ni,
Esy, ska, ata, raj, nlse, resk, oll, kull, eit, bett, bou,

4.11.6 Word Finding Tasks

The following are the word finding and word building tasks that were used in the classroom while teaching basic vocabulary. It was noted that only a few learners could generate appropriate and correct words.

Type 1: A key word has been given and the learners had to make many as new words as possible by using those letters which the given word contains. For example;

Given word : EXAMPLE

Possible Words : exam, axe, map, lamp, leap, palm, max,

Given Word : BEAUTIFUL

Possible Words : beat, tea, tub, let, at, a,

Given Word : AEROPLANE

Possible Words : plan, an, on, rope, one, near, ear, open, lane, no,

Given Word : ELEPHANT

Possible Words : he, ant, hat, let, an, a, ten, hen,

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Type 2 : A key word has been given and the learners have to create more words by adding parts of word or letters to it.

Given Word : AND

Possible Word : hand, band, land, stand, sand, brand,

Given Word : SO

Possible Words : son, soap, soak, sold, soon, sour, soft, soil, sound,

Type 3 : A series of letters were presented in the form of a chain in which a few basic words were hidden. The learners had to recognize them and mark them.

Example: Sd**an**dbn**run**mo**ic**o**me**jkew**no**pp**l**se**nd**u**th**e**w**a**ca**ch**l**mj**h**dsf

Lsd**so**me**kl**sw**h**ati**o**mc**o**pen**w**q**q**ju**mp**n**f**sk**s**it**l**sd**w**ent**v**px**n**s**le**ep**i**ios**m**

Most of the learners could not generate expected simple words from the above tasks. It shows that they lack enough exposure with the essential words which results in misrecognition or non-recognition of words.

4.11.7 Poor Reading Skills

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It was found that the learners do not possess adequate reading skills. Most of the learners were unwilling to read aloud. The researcher had to persuade them for a long time to do so. It was because the learners never do any reading in L2. At this point, the researcher has emphasized the importance of extensive reading in L2 and suggested to the learners to make it a habit to:

- ➡ visit the village library regularly,
- ➡ read the children's stories in the newspaper,
- ➡ make use of the English 400 Reading Programme, graded story reading cards in the school library, etc.

The researcher had allotted a separate 45 minute session for the reading purpose in order to inculcate reading habits in the learners. During this session the learners had to read silently the graded story reading cards 'English 400 Reading Programme' prepared by CIEFL, for the elementary learners. The learners were asked to note down the difficult words while reading the stories. They were also asked to do the simple and short vocabulary exercises given at the end of the story after reading. The students did not know the meanings of most of the common words and even some proper nouns. It was found that learners have problems with the meanings of the inflection markers, past tense markers, third person singular markers, past participle markers, possessive markers, plural markers of the basic verbs and nouns in English.

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The learners were asked to underline the words that they did not know while reading stories (see Appendix IV). The learners were not aware of the meanings of the following words:

Arranged	waiting	sitting	printed	decided	back too
Leader	card	because	great	moment	weight
Turned	attractive	intelligence	first	however	Nepoleon*
Failed	examinations	died	none	replied	immediately
Please	professor	improve	afraid	continue	studies
Love	friend	your	himself	white	yellow
Listened	covered	January	Mehta*	Nikhil*	three
Wood	beautiful	Dhak*	minutes	seventh	passed
Again	while	looked	started	with	then
Market	counted	counting	house	find	were
Tired	them	went	they	after	few
Had	now	look	this	but	got
For	said	sixth	Nasaruddin*	Christmas*	

(*proper nouns)

4.11.8 Stories Read by Students

The learners were supplied with simplified and graded stories for reading purposes, from *Elementary Stories for Reproduction*. The learners were asked to read them aloud in the class and they were audio-recorded. The learners had expressed their inability to understand the meanings and pronunciation of the most frequent words which nearly amount to 80% to 90% of

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the running words in the text. It seemed that it was nearly impossible for them to read these stories without assistance. The following lapses occurred frequently while students read the stories aloud:

- ▶ long pauses between words were too long,
- ▶ misreading of certain words,
- ▶ repetition of the same word,
- ▶ inability to read any further, and
- ▶ skipping of unfamiliar words

4.12 Discussion on the Course book

There is a set of books prescribed for the class IX Telugu Medium students (published by the Government of Andhra Pradesh in the year 2006). These are: a) *New English Reader IV*; b) *New English Workbook IV*; c) *Supplementary Reader*; and d) *Teacher's Handbook*. All these books are prepared by Prof. Paul Gunashekar, CIEFL, Hyderabad, edited by Prof. V. Sasikumar, CIEFL, Hyderabad and illustrated by D. S. Vinod Kumar. This set has been prepared according to the syllabus for a Five-Year Course in English as a third language (1987). It is for use in class IX– the fourth year of English– in the non-English medium classes in Andhra Pradesh.

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The main Objectives of teaching English at this level, as stated by the author in the book are:

- ☞ *to help learners enjoy learning English,*
- ☞ *to help learners listen to English spoken by their teachers and classmates and understand it,*
- ☞ *to help learners to speak English with their teachers and classmates,*
- ☞ *to train learners to read and understand the given reading materials,*
- ☞ *to help learners to read, recite, understand, and enjoy simple poems in English, and,*
- ☞ *to help learners to learn elements of language, such as sounds, words, spellings, phrases, sentences and their structuring, etc.*

The principles of teaching second / third language as stated by the author in the textbook are:

- *Learning through use i.e. giving learners plenty of practice in using language skills.*
- *Learning through speech i.e. giving meaningful oral speech.*
- *Learning through situations i.e. encouraging learners to use language in situations.*
- *Learning through communication i.e. making learners communicate.*
- *Learning through doing i.e. organizing a variety of activities by creating a relaxed atmosphere in the classroom.*

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Skills that are focused at this level, as stated by the author in the textbook, are:

1. *Listening: read the passages aloud to the students and let them just listen. Do not use the passages for reading, writing, or testing.*
2. *Reading: develop right silent reading habits and train pupils in reading aloud.*
3. *Writing: focuses on giving practice in different kinds of writing: expository, descriptive, narrative, and imaginative. Giving regular practice in writing.*

Learning Words

Section 3 of each unit contains a story with some words that are new to the learners. The most important of these words are taught under the section ‘*Learning Words*’. Words to be taught to the learners through tasks concentrate on: word families, collocations, phrasal verbs and adverbs through techniques such as semantic grouping, word puzzles.

List of New Words

The textbook has a list of words which the students are supposed to have learnt by the end of the academic year. This list includes only those words which occur in the specific reading texts meant for the students. It does not list the words in the stories for listening or the words that figure in the conversations, poems and instructions.

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Critical Analysis

It seems that a lot of planning and preparation have gone into the present syllabus designing. However, learners find it difficult to cope with the language, in particular with the basic words and their meanings. The root of these difficulties lies in the lack of opportunities for learning L2 at lower levels of schooling of these learners. As the present teaching and learning practices are purely examination oriented, they fail to impart the required skills that the learners need while learning L2. The section entitled 'a note to the teacher' which describes in detail the objectives, principles of teaching; the abilities and skills to be imparted to the learners; the activities planned in the book and also the suggestions on how to use the textbook – has been ignored by the teachers. As a result, the efforts put into syllabus preparation to teach English effectively have been thwarted.

The learners were tested on simple words from the New Word List at the end of the textbook. The learners were not good at the three most important aspects of word knowledge such as the meaning, spelling and pronunciation even for the 10% of the words which they were supposed to have learned by the end of the academic year. This clearly shows that it is beyond the capability of the learners to master them.

A few sample tasks from the students' textbook have been presented. Based on the learners' performance in the tasks / activities carried out in the classroom, it is felt that these offer a high level of challenge to the learners. The learners will not be able to cope with the

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linguistic and the cognitive demands that these tasks make on them unless they are equipped with the basic vocabulary and task solving skills required for the purpose.

4.13 Field Observation

As part of the ethnographic approach, field observation was undertaken by the researcher. The researcher associated himself with the learners as one with them, lived in the community, playing, singing, chatting, going for walks, visiting their homes, talking to their parents and sharing their experiences. The detailed description of the field observation is given below.

4.13.1 Informal Interviews with the Parents

The researcher had conducted informal interviews with the parents in order to get a feel of the immediate surroundings of the learners. The researcher had visited the homes of the learners every evening and has had very long and informative conversations with the parents. Most of the parents are illiterates and daily wage workers. It seems the parents are well aware of the causes for the low academic achievement of their children. But they cannot help it. They are frank enough to share with the researcher all their problems.

First of all, most of the parents are under the impression that even if they get their children educated, they will not get jobs. This despair is reflected in their query to the

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researcher– ‘what is the use of sending them to school?’ They also think that it is a waste of money and time sending children to school. For these reasons, the parents are not ready to fend for their children’s higher education; rather, they are satisfied with their children’s secondary education. Some parents have the opinion that education spoils their children. Being illiterate, most of the parents are not in a position to enquire after their children’s progress. When the researcher asked them if they make any attempts to enquire about their children’s academic progress, they answered in the negative saying they are afraid, feel ashamed, have no time, do not know how to speak to teachers, etc.

Most of the parents have a negative attitude towards the education of their girl children. ‘If she passes class IX we will let her study class X, if not we will get her married off’, was the parents’ attitude. When it comes to educating children, it seems that boys are given preference to girls. Parents take their children for work even on working days. Most of the parents were of the opinion that, ‘children contribute to the family’s income and it is equally important’.

Parents being illiterate are aware of neither the school syllabus nor their children’s academic progress. They leave everything, their children’s success or failure to the teachers. Most of them cannot afford to send their children for tuition, to buy material such as notebooks, textbooks, school uniform and others. Most of the parents are happy with their children’s average academic achievement and their only wish is that their children should pass class X. In spite of

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their children's remarkable achievement in class X, most of the parents deliberately stop their children from pursuing higher education due to financial problems.

It was observed from the interviews that, the learners' poor socio-economic background is also responsible for their low educational and occupational aspirations. Most of the parents were uncertain about the kind of education their children want to have after matriculation. The low educational and occupational aspirations are responsible for their lack of motivation for learning in general and learning English in particular. However, it was also found from the interviews that, most of the first generation learners have an instrumental motivation towards learning a second language, because, they expect immediate educational or occupational benefits from learning a second language.

After school, the children are obliged to do certain household chores and these are gender-specific. For instance, boys have to take the cattle to the field, they have to clean the cattle shed, assist their fathers in the agricultural fields and so on. The girls have to go to the near-by canal to wash the clothes, cook meals at home, go to the fields for collecting firewood, harvest paddy, collect maize, red chilly, and lemons. The children cannot refuse to work.

The entire family lives in a small hut or a thatched house. A few families live in congested concrete houses. It was observed that some learners live in unhygienic conditions. Cattle and sheep are bred in the same house and sewage stays put just in front of the house

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resulting in continuous noise and terrible foul smell. Thus, the learners do not have conducive environment at home to study. Added to these, the community in which they live does not provide a peaceful environment required to study. The community consists of five churches, which keep on playing songs, making prayers at all times. This is really a disturbing phenomenon for it does not allow learners to study even during the time of examinations. Being illiterate, parents do not even know the factors which are necessary for their children's education.

4.13.2 Informal Interviews with the Teachers

The school head master and the English teachers were cooperative and considerate to accept and support the researcher's work at their school. The school has two English teachers. Both the teachers are from Andhra Pradesh and their mother tongue is Telugu. They are trained graduate teachers. These teachers were not forthcoming with answers to the questions asked during interviews (see Appendix).

The teachers seem to have a very low opinion about their learners and therefore, they do not expect much from them. They often make children do little jobs for them even during the class timings like serving tea to the staff members, paying the electricity bills for the teachers, buying eatables from the shops and others. Teachers even make some derogative remarks to the parents about their children like, 'your daughter cannot study, you better find her some work', 'your son does not have knowledge enough to study', etc. The teachers are blind to the reality

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that their learners are the first generation learners. They do not seem to understand the fact that these learners need to invest extra time and effort to grasp and assimilate the things that they study, because of the many problems they face in day to day life as disadvantaged learners. Teachers, besides failing to see the reality, try to compare the performance of the first generation learners with that of learners with good educational background. Such a comparison makes the disadvantaged learners feel ashamed of themselves and sometimes leads to dire consequences such as dropping out from school, skipping the language classes, developing negative attitude towards language learning.

Most of the teachers are not aware of the aims and objectives of the textbooks they are teaching. Very few teachers work towards clearly defined goals. Teaching for them is simply discharging their duty. They do not use the *Teacher's Handbook* which provides guidance to the teachers on how to use the *Reader*, the *Workbook*, and the *Supplementary Readers* effectively. They simply go on teaching the same subject, with the same tone, with the same methodology. "Theory is different from practice" seems to be their stance when it comes to experimenting with new techniques.

The teachers do not seem to understand why the parents of these children cannot keep a check on the progress of their wards. They do not seem to bear in mind the fact that the parents are illiterates, daily wage workers, and bonded labourers. They simply complain that parents never enquire after their children's academic progress.

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4.14 Reasons for the poor Performance of the Learners

There are several reasons for the poor performance of the learners. The researcher has found that most of these are similar to those stated by Streven (1980). They are;

- unwillingness
- low expectations
- unrealistic aims
- physical and organizational impediments
- insufficient time for learning and teaching
- imbalanced equation between teaching and the materials
- inadequate preparation by the teachers, etc.

However, two most important causes for the low academic achievement of the learners under rural settings are lack of interest and lack of exposure.

4.14.1 Lack of Interest

The learners do not show any interest in learning L2. It is due to the lack of awareness of the importance of English language on the side of both the parents as well as the learners. While talking to the learners, the researcher has noticed that this lack of interest was due to the poor

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academic expectations. It can also be due to the lack of necessary support from the teachers, parents and peers. Another reason can be that the learners' orientation towards learning L2 is guided by the requirement of writing examinations rather than to be able to function well in real life situation. Most of the learners have inhibitions to utter even a few words in L2. Due to all these reasons the learners do not care to go back to their books or revise what has been taught in the school.

4.14.2 Lack of Exposure

Because the learners are from a rural background, they lack opportunities for exploring things in L2. They do not have exposure to the spoken language either at home or at school. Some children complained about their library not subscribing to any English newspapers. Though some of the learners have access to the television, many cannot afford cable and those who can afford are not allowed to watch English channels because parents consider it a taboo. They hardly travel to nearby towns or cities. The researcher has suggested a few ways to the learners to create opportunities for themselves to learn words in L2 from various sources such as wall posters, brochures, bill boards, soap covers, tooth paste covers, train tickets and so on.

4.15 Overview of the Chapter

This chapter has presented, analyzed and interpreted the data. The main concern of this chapter was to give detailed facts about the data collected during the field work. The relevance

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and the outcomes of administering the questionnaire, the diagnostic test, and the final test were discussed. Extensive information has been provided on classroom observations, the need for selection of aspects of word knowledge to be taught to the learners, suitable strategies to teach vocabulary, teaching and learning conditions and the socio-economic conditions of the learners. The chapter also offers a discussion on the informal interviews conducted with the parents and the learners. It has also delved into the reasons for the low academic achievement of the rural learners. Thus the chapter has provided an overall picture of the personal, academic and socio-economic conditions of the first generation learners, the subjects of the present study.

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CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSION

5.0 Introduction

This chapter begins with an overview of the study which refreshes our understanding of the research problem stated. The chapter, besides recommending certain changes to be brought about in teaching English (eg. need for compensatory classes), also offers some practical and useful hints to the learners on how to learn, retain and use new words. The findings of the study and its implications are discussed in detail. The limitations of the study are stated. Possibilities for further research in the area are indicated. The chapter ends with concluding remarks on the efficacy of the present research and the positive changes– small and modest though– that it has brought in the attitude of the teachers and the learners towards learning English through enriching one’s vocabulary.

5.1 Overview of the Study

. The present study entitled, *Evolving Strategies for Teaching Basic Vocabulary in L2 through Meaningful Input: an Ethnographic Study with First Generation Learners*, aims to evolve strategies to teach basic vocabulary to the learners at high school level.

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The inspiration to take up this study has emerged from the researcher's personal experience as a regional medium student as well as the first generation learner. The present debilitating environment of language learning (traditional teaching methods, poor learning environment, and lack of facilities...) still resembles the deficient conditions of learning that prevailed when the researcher was a high school learner. There has not been any change worth its name. In spite of the so called advanced technology in the form of audio-visual aids and computers, reading materials, etc., the present educational institutions seem to have achieved minimal success in bringing awareness about the importance and benefits of acquiring English as the second language. These unproductive actions pose a threat to the foundations of the academic growth of today's youth, especially those from the rural settings. These ideas strengthen the arguments for explicit teaching of vocabulary that the present study puts forth.

This study diagnoses the problems which the learners face in their academics, particularly in learning the second language such as:

- ➡ lack of basic vocabulary,
- ➡ problems in comprehending the academic texts as well as the spoken discourse in the classroom,
- ➡ poor reading skills,
- ➡ poor performance in the public examinations, etc.

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It was assumed that the root cause for these problems is the lack of basic vocabulary knowledge (see1.5). The focus of the study was on learners from rural settings. Hence, researcher's own village, Modukuru, Guntur district of Andhra Pradesh, was chosen for data collection.

The first chapter has discussed vocabulary and its related aspects. The second chapter has presented the theoretical underpinnings of the study. The third chapter has sketched the research design and the methodology proposed to carry out the research. The fourth chapter has presented and interpreted the data at various stages.

5.2 Findings of the Study

The following are the findings of the study. They have been classified under the following headings:

5.2.1 Learners' proficiency

1. The First Generation Learners find even the basic English words very difficult and do not know the meanings. Also the learners do not have knowledge of word-families i.e. they cannot recognize all the related words such as come, comes, coming, came, ... as different forms of the same word 'come'.
2. Students do not have a habit of reading in L2.

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3. 10-15 students are regularly absent from classes.
4. Most of the learners cannot dream of higher education and this is one of the reasons why the learners do not show interest in learning L2.
5. Students find nouns easy to learn.
6. Students seem to learn faster those words with less pronunciation difficulties than those words which are difficult to pronounce.
7. Students have serious spelling problems both with subject specific words as well as the common or most frequently occurring words.
8. Students have problems with reading. Some of these are mispronunciation, misrecognition of words, and lack of fluency in reading aloud which result in long, uncomfortable pauses.
9. Students lack motivation in learning languages.
10. Students need help almost at every word and phrase of their reading.
11. Students find it difficult to understand the text as a whole. They prefer word to word translation.
12. Students do not study at home except during the examinations.
13. Students in the class perform better in group activities and group tasks than in the individual tasks and activities.
14. Students cannot follow the instructions both in written form presented in the textbook, as well as the spoken form (given by the teacher).

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15. Students can recognize the basic English words in their base forms (come, eat, go, etc) but do not know the other aspects involved in knowing a word such as spelling, pronunciation and meaning (see 1.4).
16. Learners are good at listening skills when the teacher's talk is accompanied by gestures and actions.
17. Students seem to forget words very quickly due to lack of repeated exposure and disinterest to learn.
18. Students are obliged to help their parents and grand parents in household chores.

5.2.2 Learning Environment

19. Students are segregated by gender, caste and creed in the classroom.
20. There is no student friendly environment in the community.
21. Students' poor socio-economic background has a lot of negative impact on their academics.
22. Students are forced to do some small chores such as serving tea to the staff, paying the electricity bills, shopping for teachers, etc which shows the poor learning environment of the school.

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5.2.3 Family Background

23. Being illiterates, parents lack motivation and seriousness in their children's academics.
24. Parents leave their children's academic success or failure to the teachers.
25. Most of the students come from broken homes, families with incessant squabbles and misunderstandings which adversely affect their academic growth / performance.
26. Neither students nor parents are aware of the importance of English as a second and global language.

5.2.4 Teachers' Attitude

27. Teachers teach languages more from the examinations point of view than for communication skills.
28. Teachers think it an additional burden to make use of audio-visuals in teaching languages in the classrooms.
29. Teacher is the 'leader' of the classroom. As the result, 95% of the utterances come from the teacher.
30. Teachers are neither aware of the advanced technology in teaching languages nor good at operating / making use of the existing equipment.

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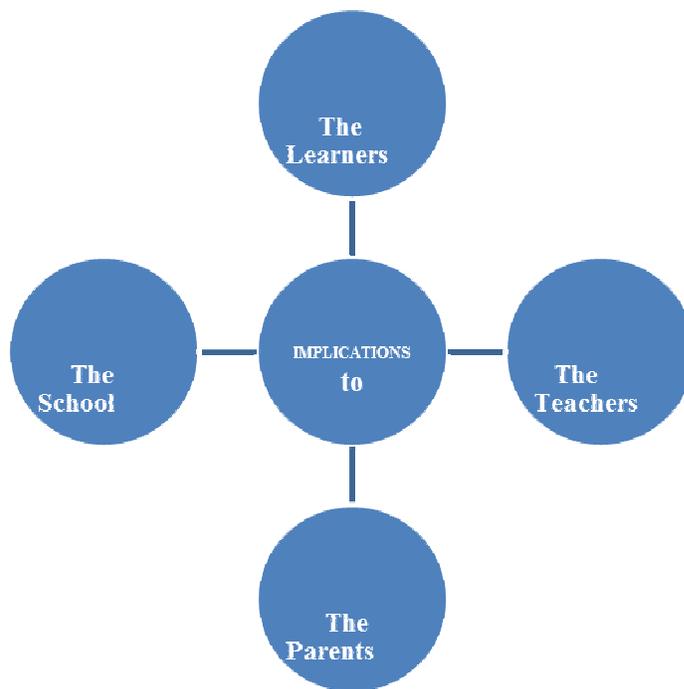
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5.3 Implications of the Findings

The findings of the study presented above have implications for the following people / aspects as shown in figure 1 below.

Figure: 1
Implications of the Findings



These implications are discussed in detail in the following sections;

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5.3.1 Implications for the Learners

The learners:

- a) need to understand that acquiring basic vocabulary is essential for success in higher studies. So they have to take initiative to learn basic vocabulary first in their elementary schooling (see finding 1).
- b) should make use of the facilities in the village libraries, community halls to subscribe to English newspapers in order to make it a habit to read in L2 (see finding 2).
- c) have to go to school regularly in order to get good marks in the examinations as well as to achieve adequate proficiency in L2 (see finding 3).
- d) have to understand that education is very important and therefore should aim at pursuing higher education. This can create an interest at and motivate learners in learning L2. (see finding 4)
- e) can use the technique of integrating nouns with other basic words while learning L2. This results in quick learning of new words (see finding 5)
- f) have to concentrate on the meaning, spelling and pronunciation of the basic words (see findings 6 & 7).
- g) can come together as groups to practice loud reading (see finding 8).
- h) have to make it a habit to study daily. Regular study sessions may be followed at home (see finding 8).

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- i) may seek the help of the teachers in helping them to provide the meanings of new words when required. Learners may try to guess the meanings from the context (see finding 9).
- j) may learn L2 more in group activities. They may also consider negotiation as one of the active tools in learning the second language (see finding 10).
- k) have to read and understand the instructions before doing exercises in the book and while writing exams. They may take the help of the teachers if they cannot follow them (see finding 14).
- l) have to prioritize language skills according to their requirements. They may understand that reading, writing, and listening are more important at this stage than speaking (see findings 15 & 16).
- m) have to realize that reading is the only activity which provides them a lot of opportunities to meet these basic words again and again. So they need to inculcate in themselves the reading habit (see findings 2, 8, 10, 11 & 12).

5.3.2 Implications for the Teachers

The teachers may:

- a) focus their attention on teaching basic vocabulary to the students in their elementary schooling (see findings 1, 6, 7, 10, 11, 14, 15 & 17).
- b) need to plan their timetable in such a way that it includes as many sessions for the reading skill as possible. Here teachers can make use of the school library, English 400

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Reading Programme Reading Cards, and other picture story books, etc (see findings 1, 2, 8, & 10).

- c) motivate learners and make classroom lessons as interesting as possible in order to make students come to school regularly (see findings 2, 9, & 25).
- d) advise learners about the opportunities and benefits of learning L2 to help them to plan and persuade their higher education (see findings 4, 9, 23, & 26).
- e) teach L2 in an integrated manner i.e. integrating new words with the nouns can foster better learning of L2 (see findings 5, 6 & 16).
- f) present information both verbally and visually. Visual clues may include facial expressions, gestures, realia, pictures, charts, graphs, maps, etc (see findings 6, 8, 10, 14, 16 & 18).
- g) pre-teach vocabulary which helps learners comprehend the text better. Use oral pre-reading activities and allow time for discussion and questioning before assigning academic reading assignments to ensure students have the background information and linguistic skills necessary to do the assignment (see findings 1, 10, 11, 12 & 17).
- h) provide students with a list of essential vocabulary a day or two before the introduction of a new lesson so that the students can use a simplified English or bilingual dictionary to learn the meanings and familiarize themselves with the words (see findings 1, 10, 11, 14 & 17).

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- i) use organizational activities such as semantic mapping, word puzzles, and other strategies to determine where the students stand in relation to the content of the upcoming lesson (see findings 10, 11 & 17).
- j) speak to students slowly and clearly in simple sentences(see findings 1, 10, 11, 14 & 17).

5.3.3 Implications for the Parents

The parents:

- a) may realize that English is the language for survival in today's world and it is an effective tool for the social and economical upward mobility of their wards. Therefore, parents may encourage their children to learn English from their childhood which can result in learning basic vocabulary (see findings 18, 20, 23, & 26).
- b) can approach the educated persons or church pastors in their community and may seek their help in conducting study sessions for their children. This can result in regular reading habits in L2 as well as in other subjects (see findings 2, 9, 10, 12, 20, & 23).
- c) should abstain from taking their children to work during the school hours (see findings 3 & 18).
- d) may encourage and support their children to pursue higher education (see finding 4).
- e) have to take initiative to attend parents' meetings organized by the school (see finding 24).

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- f) have to make regular enquiry into their children's academic performance as responsible parents (see finding 24).

5.3.4 Implications for the Institution

The institution:

- a) may try to do away with unproductive practices which cause low achievement of the learners in their academic performance. Introducing an entrance test or screening test may help learners to take their studies seriously and thereby enhancing the standard of the learners as well as the school (see findings 1, 2, 3, & 18).
- b) may subscribe to children's magazines and story books, picture story books, English newspapers, etc (see findings 1, 2, 10, 27 & 30).
- c) may introduce some incentives such as scholarships, bonus marks in the exams, word of appreciation, etc. for those students who are regular to the classes. These steps may encourage students and can lead to full attendance (see findings 3, 12, & 18).
- d) may conduct parents' meetings regularly and may insist on parents' regular attendance at the meetings (see findings 3, 9, 18, 20, 23, 24, & 26).
- e) may organize guest lectures involving people from diverse fields, old students, retired teachers...) to talk to students in order to motivate them (see findings 4, & 9).
- f) can organize exhibitions to encourage both teachers and learners to display their mini projects and student-generated charts and word collection charts etc as part of the

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classroom assignments. This creates an interest among the learners and brings awareness in the learners of other schools and in those who have fascination for learning languages. In this regard, the administration may extend sufficient encouragement and co-operation (see findings 9, 27, 28, 29 & 30).

- g) should encourage programmers and teachers who develop some materials in this area and there should be a wide exhibition of vocabulary cards, vocabulary charts, vocabulary lists, useful dictionaries, and so on (see findings 6, 7, 10, & 27).

5.4 Recommendations for Pedagogical Action

The following suggestions have emerged from the field observation:

5.4.1 Pedagogical Measures

These measures focus on the classroom methods to be employed and tasks and activities to be carried out in a second language classroom.

☞ Teachers may bear in mind the fact that L2 proficiency is required not only for examinations but also to be able to perform well in real life situations.

☞ Teachers need to be aware of and implement the guidelines given by the Teachers

Resource Books while teaching second languages;

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- ☞ Teachers may adopt new methods of teaching second or foreign languages such as; using media and specifically classroom teacher designed materials;
- ☞ Pre-teaching of vocabulary can be done through mind-maps or semantic-maps techniques involving vocabulary generation by the students.
- ☞ Students tend to forget the vocabulary that they have learnt unless they use them consistently. Therefore, reinforcement is vital, and ideally it should happen one or two days after the initial input. After that, weekly or monthly tests can check on previously taught items;
- ☞ Meaningful tasks related to learners' real life situations, maybe used in the classroom which will help them analyse and process language deeply, help them retain information in long-term memory;
- ☞ Teachers can encourage learners to use other methods, using topics and categories to organise a notebook and binder or index cards. Diagrams and word trees can also be used within topics / categories. The class as a whole can keep a vocabulary box with cards that can be used for reinforcement of basic vocabulary.
- ☞ Teachers may communicate with the learners in English in the classroom as it is the only opportunity for the learners to listen to the L2;
- ☞ Teachers may use L1 translation when necessary if the learners find it difficult to cope with new words;

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5.4.2 Remedial Measures

Remedial Measures aim at supporting the learners by extending additional help in the form of organizing extra sessions in order to meet the learners' difficulties while learning L2 in general and vocabulary in particular.

- ☞ Learners may be encouraged to seek and benefit from diverse sources of language exposure that are available aplenty in their immediate surroundings. For example, the village library, the community hall, the railway station, and the bus station– all of these could act as rich suppliers of vocabulary to the learners.
- ☞ Teachers may conduct a special class for teaching functional English;
- ☞ A compulsory reading session as part of the compensatory classes can be organized;

5.4.3 Motivational Measures

Motivational measures include steps to bring awareness among the learners about the importance of English in every day life. Motivation to learn L2 could be achieved through interesting activities and tasks. Real life examples can be brought and used in the classrooms as motivational aids.

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- ☞ Learners always try to emulate the personality of their teachers. If the teachers are good at English and encourage their learners to speak in English, this can motivate learners. Consequently, learners try to imitate little phrases and words which the teachers use with learners while teaching. This motivates learners to pay attention to learning English;
- ☞ Teachers may ask learners to do mini projects which involve collecting authentic materials for language learning such as; train tickets, advertisements, brochures, etc. They may be asked to exhibit them. These are some of the ways for creating plenty of opportunities for helping learners to acquire words;
- ☞ Community / group study centers in order to impart habits like reading newspapers, talking in L2, watching English movies and listening to English songs, etc may be started in with the help of the children's parents for better and quicker learning of L2;

5.5 Compensatory Classes

It would be beneficial to all the low achievers if the school organizes 'compensatory classes'. It could be part of the school programme or at the personal initiative of the teachers. Thus, it requires support from the authorities and also from all the teachers.

For this purpose, a special period apart from the usual classes may be planned. This helps the teachers and the learners to plan additional learning that will help the learners cope with the

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demands made by the syllabus. This way learning L2 may become a fun-filled and enjoyable experience for the learners.

Compensatory classes may include periodical counseling sessions for parents with a view to bring awareness in them about the need for and importance of sound education for their children.

5.6 A Few Hints for Learning Vocabulary

The following are a few hints that have been suggested over the years in learning a second or a foreign language vocabulary especially at elementary level. It is believed and proved from practice that if learners follow these techniques, they can achieve better proficiency in terms of vocabulary knowledge (see 1.4). The language teachers too may keep these techniques in mind while teaching L2 in the ‘compensatory classes’ suggested above (See 5.6).

- ✚ Read English newspaper daily for about one hour
- ✚ Listen to English news on television or on radio daily
- ✚ Listen to teachers and friends speaking
- ✚ Read stories, magazines and other books of interest
- ✚ Maintain vocabulary notebooks
- ✚ Use a good dictionary

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- ✚ Ask teachers or friends for the meanings of new words
- ✚ Read posters, wall papers, tickets, etc. when travelling to new places
- ✚ Read books on vocabulary building and do exercises
- ✚ Watch films in English or films with subtitles
- ✚ Watch T.V serials, educational programmes, news etc. in English
- ✚ Play vocabulary games and do more puzzles on vocabulary

5.7 A Few Hints on Gathering and Studying Words

Firstly, at elementary stages, it is quite important for one to choose which words one is going to study. If one tries to learn too many words, it is easy to forget them soon or get confused with them. It would be better to limit the number of words to 5 or 6 and learn them thoroughly than try to learn fifteen to twenty words at one go. It is good to employ certain techniques while studying new words effectively. The following techniques (table 1, below) suggested by Lowes et al. (2004) can be used as a checklist by oneself on how one records or remembers the new words encountered.

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Table: 1

Ways to record new words

How do you try to record new words? Tick any of the techniques you use:

<input type="checkbox"/> Word + translation ()
<input type="checkbox"/> Word + picture ()
<input type="checkbox"/> Word + spelling ()
<input type="checkbox"/> Word + an example sentence ()
<input type="checkbox"/> Word + definition in English ()
<input type="checkbox"/> Word + pronunciation ()
<input type="checkbox"/> Word + opposite or synonym ()
<input type="checkbox"/> Word + the text it came from ()

Secondly, after choosing words to study, what bothers most of the learners is the question: how to study them? There are plenty of ways to study words. Some of them are active and some are passive in nature. They are suggested in table 2 below.

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Table: 2

Sixteen ways of studying vocabulary

Some of the feasible ways to study words among those suggested by Lowes et al. (2004: p.82) are given below:

Here are 16 ways of studying vocabulary. Tick the ones you use:

1. Underlining or highlighting words in a text ()
2. Using a dictionary to find the meaning of a word ()
3. Using pictures and diagrams in the text to help ()
4. Keeping word lists and reading through them regularly ()
5. Using a vocabulary workbook to do exercises ()
6. Organizing new vocabulary in mind maps or tables ()
7. Collecting examples of new words, such as tickets,
advertisements, letters and realia ()
8. Carrying cards with new words on them in your pockets ()
9. Repeating new words to yourself many times ()
10. Learning a poem or a song with new vocabulary in it ()
11. Labelling items with their names in English ()
12. Asking someone to explain a word to you ()
13. Asking a friend to test you ()

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14. Guessing the meaning of the word in context before checking
with the dictionary ()
15. Writing paragraphs using new vocabulary ()
16. Explaining the vocabulary you have learnt to a friend ()
-

5.8 A Few Hints on Using Dictionaries

It is essential for all the L2 learners, especially for the beginners to keep a good dictionary. A good dictionary can be a great help in building one's vocabulary. Almost all the aspects of vocabulary knowledge (see Chapter 1) can be found in a good dictionary. One should be very careful while choosing the dictionary one wants to use. First, learners have to know what their level (elementary, intermediate, or advanced) is. In this regard, teachers would be able to suggest to the learners the suitable dictionaries since they can assess the learners' level of proficiency. Therefore, it is good to approach one's teacher before buying a dictionary. Also one can seek teachers' and friends' help when using a dictionary.

Learners may initially choose bilingual dictionaries at elementary level. But as they progress in studies, they should switch over to monolingual dictionaries. Teachers should encourage and guide their learners to buy and make use of good dictionaries when learning new words in L2. Some of the good dictionaries are:

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- ✚ Oxford Picture Dictionaries (for Elementary Learners)
- ✚ The Little Lifco English – English – Telugu dictionary (Bilingual Dictionary)
- ✚ The Great Lifco English – English – Telugu dictionary (Bilingual Dictionary)
- ✚ Brown’s English – Telugu – English Nighantuvu (Bilingual Dictionary)
- ✚ Shankara Narayana English – Telugu Dictionary (Bilingual Dictionary)
- ✚ Oxford Learner’s Pocket Dictionary (for Intermediate Learners)
- ✚ Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (for Advanced Learners)
- ✚ Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (for Advanced Learners)
- ✚ Longman’s Active Study Dictionary (for Intermediate Learners)

5.9 Limitations of the Study

The following are the limitations of the study;

- Ⓢ The study has attempted to teach only the Dolch Word List which has a limited number of words.
- Ⓢ The study has concentrated on only three aspects of vocabulary knowledge such as the meaning, spelling and pronunciation. As a result, much attention was not paid to the other aspects of words knowledge such as grammatical, collocational, register and associational aspects.

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- ☉ This study takes into consideration only the first generation learners and the under-achievers in the rural settings.
- ☉ This study is based on one locality and was restricted to only one school (but represents students from eight different villages).
- ☉ Only the procedure of the thick description to data analysis and interpretation has been adopted as part of the ethnographic study.

5.10 Suggestions for Further Research

The following are indicated as possible areas of further research in the field of vocabulary learning in the L2.

1. Research could be carried out to assess the existing vocabulary range of the First Generation Learners. Subsequently, a new vocabulary list can be compiled which emerges from the immediate context of the learners and that which addresses their needs.
2. Research can be taken up with a focus on strengthening the other aspects of vocabulary knowledge that have not been focused in the present study such as grammatical behaviour, collocational aspect, associational aspect and the aspect of usage.

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3. A similar study can be taken up for the first generation learners at the college or university level to make them aware of the fact that basic vocabulary is essential for improving all other language skills.
4. A comparative study of the teaching methodology and strategies employed in teaching L2 vocabulary in the government schools vis-à-vis the private school can be undertaken.
5. A study can be taken up to compare and contrast the range and use of vocabulary in the textbooks of the government and the private schools.
6. Case studies can be done with the first generation learners, in order to understand how their socio-economic and cultural environment affects learning L2 in general and learning vocabulary in particular.

5.11 Conclusion

The study has attempted to teach basic English vocabulary to the first generation learners. Basic vocabulary is the ‘felt need’ of these learners. It is essential for these learners to learn these words in order to meet the demands that learning an L2 involves. English poses multiple problems to the first generation learners (see 1.7). This study tries to address most of these problems affecting the learners’ academic success such as– lack of basic vocabulary, inability to recognize words and comprehend the text, poor performance in examinations, all of which culminate in inability to seek and plan for higher academic goals.

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In a way, this is an attempt by the researcher to look into the issues that hinder learners' academic achievement in L2 at lower levels of their academic career. This work has emerged out of the researcher's personal experience as a regional medium student as well as a first generation learner. This study has been taken up with the aim to contribute towards the academic success of the under-achievers and the first generation learners.

The study has achieved success in bridging the gap between the learners existing vocabulary knowledge and the linguistic and cognitive challenges posed by the difficult and unfamiliar words in the learners' textbook. The learners have become familiar with the basic vocabulary, word families, past tense markers, present tense markers, plural forms, gender, person, number of English nouns, inflection forms, etc. The learners are now able to prioritize the aspects of vocabulary knowledge which are necessary to meet their immediate academic needs.

The study has attempted to enhance the L2 vocabulary of the first generation learners and it has achieved success to a certain extent in this regard. Further, the study has also inspired and motivated not only the language teachers and learners in the school but it has also brought in a positive change in the attitude of the parents and the villagers towards the need and importance of learning English for their young children. The awareness– among the learners, teachers and

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parents about the factors that contribute to the learners' overall academic success– that resulted after the completion of the study was both visible and rewarding.

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**Appendix
1**

the	if	way	need	without
be	no	many	mean	again
of	man	must	call	hold
and	out	look	develop	govern
a	other	before	under	around
to	so	great	last	possible
in	what	back	right	head
he	time	through	move	consider
have	up	long	thing	word
it	go	where	general	program
that	about	much	school	problem
for	than	should	never	however
they	into	well	same	lead
I	could	people	another	system
with	state	down	begin	set
as	only	own	while	order
not	new	just	number	eye
on	year	because	part	plan
she	some	good	turn	run
at	take	each	real	keep
by	come	those	leave	face
this	these	feel	might	fact
we	know	seem	want	group
you	see	how	point	play
do	use	high	form	stand
but	get	too	off	increase
from	like	place	child	early
or	then	little	few	course
which	first	world	small	change
one	any	very	since	help
would	work	still	against	line
all	now	nation	ask	city
will	may	hand	late	put
there	such	old	home	close
say	give	life	interest	case
who	over	tell	large	force
make	think	write	person	meet
when	most	become	end	once
can	even	here	open	water
more	find	show	public	upon
	day	house	follow	war
	also	both	during	build
	after	between	present	hear

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light	read	foot	teach	strong
unite	include	care	low	friend
live	president	simple	hour	necessary
every	nothing	within	type	add
country	yet	love	carry	court
bring	better	human	rate	deal
center	big	along	remain	tax
let	boy	appear	full	support
side	cost	doctor	street	party
try	business	believe	easy	whether
provide	value	speak	although	either
continue	second	active	record	land
name	why	student	sit	material
certain	clear	month	determine	happen
power	expect	drive	level	education
pay	family	concern	local	death
result	complete	best	sure	agree
question	act	door	receive	arm
study	sense	hope	thus	mother
woman	mind	example	moment	across
member	experience	inform	spirit	quite
until	art	body	train	anything
far	next	ever	college	town
night	near	least	religion	past
always	direct	probable	perhaps	view
service	car	understand	music	society
away	law	reach	grow	manage
report	industry	effect	free	answer
something	important	different	cause	break
company	girl	idea	serve	organize
week	god	whole	age	half
church	several	control	book	fire
toward	matter	condition	board	lose
start	usual	field	recent	money
social	rather	pass	sound	stop
room	per	fall	office	actual
figure	often	note	cut	already
nature	kind	special	step	effort
though	among	talk	class	wait
young	white	particular	true	department
less	reason	today	history	able
enough	action	measure	position	political
almost	return	walk	above	learn

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voice	offer	responsible	wide	employ
air	plant	allow	alone	defense
together	charge	secretary	character	smile
shall	ground	heart	english	river
cover	west	union	happy	improve
common	picture	slow	critic	game
subject	hard	island	unit	detail
draw	front	enter	product	account
short	lie	drink	respect	cent
wife	modern	story	drop	sort
treat	dark	experiment	nor	reduce
limit	surface	stay	fill	club
road	rule	paper	cold	buy
letter	regard	space	represent	attention
color	dance	apply	sudden	ship
behind	peace	decide	basic	decision
produce	observe	share	kill	wear
send	future	desire	fine	inside
term	wall	spend	trouble	win
total	farm	sign	mark	suppose
university	claim	therefore	single	ride
rise	firm	various	press	operate
century	operation	visit	heavy	realize
success	further	supply	attempt	sale
minute	pressure	officer	origin	choose
remember	property	doubt	standard	park
purpose	morning	private	everything	square
test	amount	immediate	committee	vote
fight	top	wish	moral	price
watch	outside	contain	black	district
situation	piece	feed	red	dead
south	sometimes	raise	bad	foreign
ago	beauty	describe	earth	window
difference	trade	ready	accord	beyond
stage	fear	horse	else	direction
father	demand	son	mere	strike
table	wonder	exist	die	instead
rest	list	north	remark	trial
bear	accept	suggest	basis	practice
entire	judge	station	except	catch
market	paint	effective	equal	opportunity
prepare	mile	food	east	likely
explain	soon	deep	event	recognize

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permit	chance	dress	bank	conscious
serious	prove	anyone	exact	worth
attack	argue	gain	honor	eat
floor	settle	pain	brother	election
association	growth	object	quiet	faith
spring	date	knowledge	marry	wave
lot	heat	depend	corner	murder
stock	save	relate	handle	model
lack	performanc	below	danger	forget
hair	count	dollar	hospital	extend
science	production	advance	pool	edge
relation	listen	shape	promise	distance
profession	main	arrange	blood	memory
pattern	pick	population	shoot	recommend
quick	size	yes	scene	division
medical	cool	sell	literature	staff
influence	army	mention	arrive	leg
occasion	patient	dry	film	discussion
machine	combine	check	base	address
compare	summer	poet	freedom	fly
husband	hall	sleep	bar	dependent
blue	slight	join	maybe	ball
internationa	command	hot	hang	shake
fair	enjoy	bed	suffer	frame
especially	length	electric	manufactur	extreme
indeed	proper	dream	frequent	engineer
imagine	express	due	rock	thick
surprise	health	season	loss	comfort
average	chief	manner	burn	latter
official	evening	fit	sun	camp
temperature	store	left	audience	oil
difficult	language	progress	essential	discover
sing	degree	neither	glass	examine
hit	lay	strength	prevent	difficulty
tree	current	notice	poem	tooth
race	gun	finish	poor	middle
police	dog	opinion	inch	choice
touch	hotel	bill	song	refer
relative	strange	western	skill	enemy
throw	separate	truth	post	practical
quality	boat	wrong	popular	marriage
former	fail	travel	radio	bridge
pull	clean	suit	animal	declare

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lady	whatever	secret	wine	warn
cross	round	ability	hole	ring
daily	rapid	sea	duty	bitter
afternoon	laugh	soft	beat	chair
attend	finger	justice	perfect	yesterday
director	spot	reasonable	bottom	scientific
balance	propose	circle	compose	flower
wash	shop	solid	battle	wheel
capital	broad	page	expense	solution
speed	replace	weapon	cattle	aim
block	reply	fast	flow	gather
citizen	extent	representati	kitchen	invite
mouth	lock	ve	dust	moreover
hill	employee	search	bottle	fresh
green	ahead	pure	admit	forest
please	sight	escape	tear	winter
motor	spread	crowd	tire	box
agency	wind	stick	expression	belief
encourage	approve	telephone	exception	ordinary
governor	destroy	avoid	application	impossible
worry	none	garden	belong	print
affair	pound	favor	rich	gray
shoulder	fame	news	failure	taste
bright	importance	unless	struggle	lip
mass	reflect	dinner	instrument	speech
sample	advantage	someone	variety	reference
pretty	match	signal	narrow	stain
repeat	regular	yard	theater	connection
roll	wage	ideal	collection	otherwise
push	refuse	warm	rain	stretch
trip	existence	miss	review	knife
council	hardly	shelter	preserve	village
clothe	perform	soldier	leadership	blow
parent	title	article	clay	mistake
forward	tend	cry	daughter	sweet
sharp	exercise	captain	fellow	shout
straight	thin	familiar	swing	divide
gas	coat	seat	thank	guard
weight	bit	guest	library	worse
discuss	mountain	weak	fat	exchange
fix	youth	excite	reserve	rare
load	behavior	king	tour	commercial
master	newspaper	everyone	nice	request

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appoint	railroad	disease	politics	defend
agent	minister	hat	passage	bend
dependence	coffee	excellent	lawyer	somebody
bird	brush	formal	root	shadow
wild	beside	snow	climb	mix
motion	collect	sheet	metal	smoke
guess	guide	somehow	gradual	description
neighbor	luck	unity	hunt	fruit
seed	profit	sky	protection	guilt
fashion	lord	rough	satisfy	yield
loan	everybody	smooth	roof	sensitive
correct	prison	weather	branch	salt
plain	cloud	steady	pleasure	pale
mail	slave	threaten	witness	sweep
retire	chairman	depth	loose	completion
opposite	soil	oppose	nose	throat
1088 81	distinguish	deliver	mine	agriculture
prefer	introduce	ancient	band	admire
safe	urge	pray	aside	gentle
evil	blind	adopt	risk	dozen
double	arise	birth	tomorrow	particle
wood	upper	appearance	remind	pleasant
empty	curve	universe	ear	bay
baby	membershi	busy	fish	cup
advise	key	hurry	shore	competition
content	entertain	coast	operator	moon
sport	soul	forth	civilize	terrible
lift	neighborho	smell	being	strip
literary	od	furnish	silent	mechanic
curious	friendly	female	screen	shock
tie	pair	hide	bind	conversatio
flat	stone	wire	earn	angle
message	lean	proposal	pack	tall
neck	protect	ought	colony	plenty
hate	advertise	victory	besides	star
dirt	mystery	quarter	slip	yellow
delight	welcome	engine	cousin	sick
trust	knee	customer	scale	thorough
nobody	jump	waste	relief	absolute
valley	snake	fool	explore	succeed
tool	stream	intend	stem	surround
presence	avenue	intention	brain	proud
cook	brown	desk	musician	dear

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card	favorite	efficiency	pink	grain
lake	breakfast	disappear	gate	calculate
breath	apart	defeat	expensive	drag
afraid	chest	extensive	shut	opposition
silence	entrance	rent	chicken	worship
onto	march	comparison	forgive	arrest
shoe	sink	possess	holy	discipline
somewhere	northern	grace	wooden	string
chain	iron	flesh	prompt	harbor
slide	alive	liquid	crime	camera
copy	ill	scientist	sorry	mechanism
machinery	bag	ease	republic	cow
wake	disturb	heaven	anger	grand
severe	native	milk	visitor	funny
pocket	bedroom	sympathy	pile	insurance
bone	violent	rank	violence	reduction
honest	beneath	restaurant	steel	strict
freeze	pause	frequency	wing	lesson
dictionary	tough	angry	stair	tight
calm	substance	hate	partner	sand
swim	threat	accuse	delay	plate
ice	charm	necessity	gentleman	qualify
male	absence	knock	pour	elsewhere
skin	factory	loud	confusion	mad
crack	spite	permanent	damage	interference
rush	meal	row	kick	pupil
wet	universal	lovely	safety	fold
meat	accident	confuse	burst	royal
commerce	1356 56	gold	network	valuable
joint	highway	frighten	resistance	whisper
gift	sentence	solve	screw	anybody
host	liberty	grave	pride	hurt
suspect	wise	salary	till	excess
path	noise	photograph	hire	quantity
uncle	discovery	advice	verb	fun
afford	tube	abroad	preach	mud
instant	flash	wound	clerk	extension
satisfactory	twist	virtue	everywhere	recognition
height	fence	dare	anyway	kiss
track	childhood	queen	fan	crop
confidence	joy	extra	connect	sail
grass	sister	attract	egg	attractive
suggestion	sad	numerous	efficient	habit

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relieve	ton	bless	adventure	scarce
wisdom	desert	corn	beg	lunch
persuade	allowance	shell	pipe	slavery
certainty	servant	tempt	beard	creep
cloth	hunger	supper	bold	sweat
eager	conscience	destruction	meanwhile	gay
deserve	bread	dive	devil	stiff
sympatheti	crash	anxious	cheer	brave
cure	tip	shine	nut	seize
trap	strengthen	cheap	split	convenient
puzzle	proof	dish	melt	horizon
powder	generous	distant	swear	moderate
raw	sir	greet	sugar	complicate
mankind	tonight	flood	bury	dig
glad	whip	excuse	wipe	curse
blame	tongue	insect	faint	weigh
whenever	mill	ocean	creature	priest
anxiety	merchant	ceremony	tail	excessive
bus	coal	decrease	wealth	quarrel
tremble	ruin	prize	earnest	widow
sacred	introductio	harm	translate	modest
fortunate	courage	insure	suspicion	dine
glory	actor	verse	noble	politician
golden	belt	pot	inquiry	custom
neat	stir	sincere	journey	educate
weekend	package	cotton	hesitate	salesman
treasury	punish	leaf	extraordina	nail
overcome	reflection	rub	borrow	tap
cat	breathe	medicine	owe	eastern
sacrifice	anywhere	stroke	funeral	possession
complain	amuse	bite	ambition	satisfaction
elect	dull	lung	mixture	behave
roar	fate	lonely	slope	mercy
sake	net	admission	criminal	scatter
temple	fellowship	stupid	seldom	objection
self	fault	scratch	map	silver
compete	furniture	compositio	spin	tent
nurse	beam	broadcast	praise	saddle
stuff	pencil	drum	spare	wrap
stomach	border	resist	plow	nest
peculiar	disappoint	neglect	telegraph	grind
repair	flame	absent	barrel	spell
storm	joke	passenger	straighten	plaster

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arch	steam	destructive	flavor	airplane
swell	pin	fork	spit	rid
friendship	bound	noon	rob	shield
bath	companion	ownership	cream	veil
bundle	toe	tune	interrupt	kneel
grateful	reward	polish	pen	tray
crown	forbid	poison	weave	explosive
boundary	wherever	shame	orange	brass
nowhere	tower	loyalty	rescue	taxi
asleep	bathe	cottage	crush	wax
clock	lodge	astonish	humble	duck
boil	swallow	shave	fancy	button
altogether	multiply	feather	decay	invent
lend	bow	sauce	polite	remedy
holiday	kingdom	lid	tribe	bush
precious	garage	debt	bleed	thunder
wander	permission	fade	coin	weaken
ugly	pump	confess	fond	poverty
reputation	prevention	classificatio	autumn	scrape
ticket	urgent	descend	classify	arrow
pretend	aunt	cape	omit	tender
dismiss	zero	mild	loyal	cruel
delicate	idle	clever	needle	soften
despair	fever	envelope	lessen	mouse
awake	christmas	invention	complaint	hay
tea	regret	sheep	pad	anyhow
false	jaw	splendid	steep	alike
fortune	soap	stamp	skirt	circular
cap	pronounce	float	curtain	juice
thread	empire	brick	calculation	shelf
haste	bowl	rice	laughter	bake
bare	outline	businessma	solemn	hatred
shirt	organ	backward	grease	cautious
bargain	imitation	qualificatio	interfere	basket
leather	caution	artificial	explode	wreck
rail	mineral	attraction	fasten	width
butter	disagree	lamp	flag	confident
dot	blade	curl	resign	log
inquire	trick	shower	postpone	heap
warmth	treasure	elder	patience	suck
decisive	immense	bunch	boast	ladder
vessel	convenienc	bell	rope	gap
pity	disapprove	steer	envy	obey

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hut	stove	rot	drawer	applaud
axe	rubber	hollow	disregard	underneath
translation	rug	enclose	nowadays	hello
collar	misery	harden	patriotic	pretense
delivery	awkward	wicked	tin	descent
reproduce	rival	stiffen	penny	conquer
confession	roast	silk	cage	framework
pan	deed	upright	pardon	confidential
prejudice	preference	selfish	lately	adoption
voyage	explosion	stripe	offend	disgust
tobacco	theatrical	pig	coarse	waist
simplicity	cultivate	inward	spoil	momentary
paste	collector	excellence	horizontal	receipt
cake	miserable	rake	sting	pearl
elephant	wrist	purple	ditch	ray
ribbon	rabbit	hasten	librarian	lazy
harvest	accustom	shorten	meantime	limb
ashamed	tide	applause	cough	grammatica
cave	insult	ache	deaf	beast
customary	thumb	apology	sword	monkey
thief	lump	knot	messenger	jewel
damp	annoy	nephew	vain	persuasion
sew	toy	cushion	castle	obedience
rust	heal	drown	elastic	sock
separation	shallow	nursery	comb	vowel
waiter	repetition	pint	rod	hammer
pet	soup	fierce	widen	inn
straw	whistle	imitate	sorrow	chimney
upset	scenery	aloud	inventor	dissatisfacti
towel	apple	gaiety	cliff	on
refresh	offense	robbery	umbrella	annoyance
essence	cork	tighten	interruption	ornament
fur	ripe	perfection	merry	honesty
ambitious	temper	scorn	gallon	outward
defendant	sore	whoever	conquest	sharpen
daylight	pinch	trunk	headache	handkerchi
dip	diamond	wool	tailor	greed
suspicious	razor	sailor	bucket	heavenly
imaginary	imaginative	competitor	scent	thirst
ash	hook	moonlight	signature	niece
carriage	copper	deer	cart	spill
educator	landlord	bean	darken	loaf
saw	influential	everyday	sometime	wheat

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worm	coward	amongst	translator
secrecy	mat	grammar	possessor
rude	rejoice	cultivation	shilling
heighten	cheat	companion	redde
flatten	congratulate	ship	motherly
loosen	discomfort	rubbish	whose
cheese	enclosure	modesty	cultivator
rivalry	attentive	woolen	whom
royalty	paw	deepen	homework
discontent	overflow	pastry	electrician
complication	dissatisfy	cupboard	oar
fright	multiplication	quart	bribery
indoor	on	canal	sweeten
flour	whichever	notebook	sow
actress	tidy	deceit	pronunciation
congratulation	bribe	parcel	on
ounce	mend	brighten	beak
fry	stocking	moderation	plural
everlasting	feast	punctual	
goat	nuisance	hurrah	
ink	thorn	lipstick	
disappearance	tame	uppermost	
reproduction	inclusive	fatten	
thicken	homemade	conqueror	
avoidance	handwriting	hindrance	
spoon	chalk	cowardice	
strap	sour	obedient	
deceive	slippery	saucer	
lengthen	procession	madden	
revenge	ripen	scold	
correction	jealous	weekday	
descendant	jealousy	rotten	
hesitation	liar	disrespect	
spade	homecoming	widower	
basin	barber	deafen	
weed	whiten	donkey	
omission	berry	businesslike	
old-fashioned	lighten	motherhood	
bicycle	pigeon	sadden	
breadth	hinder	handshake	
photograph	bravery	calculator	
	baggage	headdress	
	noun	scissors	

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**Appendix
2
Basic
English
Word List**

A

a • • about •
• • across •
act • • •
advertisem
ent • • after
• again •
against • air
• all •
almost •
among •
amount • •
and • •
angry •
animal •
answer •
ant • any • •
apple •
arm • art •
as • at

B

baby • back
• bad • bag
• ball •
bath • be
beautiful •
because •
bed • bee •
before • •
belief • bell
• • between
• bird •
birth • •
bite • bitter

• black • •
blood •
blow • blue
• board •
boat • body
• • book •
bottle • box
• boy • • •
branch • •
bread • • •
broken •
brother • •
brush • •
building • • •
burn • •
business •
but • •
button • by

C

cake •
camera •
card • care
• cat •
certain •
chain •
chalk •
cheap •
clean •
clock •
cloth •
cloud • •
coat • cold
• color •
comb •
come •
cook • copy
• country •
cover • cow
• crime •
cry • cup •
cut

D

• dark •
daughter •
day • dead •
dear • death
• different •
• disease • •
do • dog •
door •
down • • •
dress •
drink •
driving •
drop • dry

E

ear • early •
earth • east
• education
• • egg • •
end enough
every •
example •
eye

F

face • • fall
• false •
family • far
• • fat •
father • fear
• feather • •
feeling •
fight •
finger • fire
• first • fish
• fixed •
flag • floor
• flower •
fly • food •

foolish •
foot • for
free • friend
• from •
front • fruit
• full •
future

G

garden •
general •
get • girl •
give • glass
• • go • goat
• gold •
good •
government

• grass •
great •
green • grip
• group •
growth •
guide • gun

H

hair •
hammer •
hand •
hanging •
happy • •
hard • hat •
hate • have
• he • head
• healthy •
hear • heart
• heat •
help • here
• high •
history •
hole • •
hook • hope

• • horse •
hospital •
hour •
house •
how •

I

I • ice •
idea • if •
ill •
important •
in • ink •
insect •
interest •
iron •
island

J

• jewel •
join •
journey •
judge •
jump

K

keep • key •
kick • kind
• kiss •
knee • knife
• knot •
knowledge

L

land •
language •
last • late •
laugh • law
• lead • leaf
• learning •

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leather •
left • leg •
let • letter •
level •
library • lift
• light • like
• limit •
line • • lip •
• list • little
(less, least)
• live • lock
• long •
look • loose
• loss • loud
• love • low

M

machine •
make •
male • man
• manager •
map • mark
• market •
marry •
match •
material •
mass • may
• meal •
measure •
meat •
medical •
meeting •
memory • •
middle •
military •
milk • mind
• mine •
minute •
mist •
mixed •
money •
monkey •

month •
moon •
morning •
mother •
motion •
mountain •
mouth •
move •
much
(more,
most) • •
music

N

nail • name
• nation •
natural •
near • •
neck • need
• needle •
nerve • net
• new •
news •
night • no •
noise •
normal •
north • nose
• not • note
• now •
number •

O

observation
• of • off •
offer •
office • oil
• old • on •
only • open
• operation
• opposite •
opinion •

other • or •
orange •
order • • •
out • • over
• owner

P

• pain •
paint • • •
parcel •
part • past •
paste •
payment •
peace • • •
pencil •
person •
physical •
picture • • •
pin • pipe •
place •
plane •
plant • plate
• play •
please •
pleasure •
pocket •
point •
poison • • •
poor •
porter •
position •
possible •
pot • potato
• powder •
power •
present •
price • print
• prison • • •
• process • • •
profit •
property • • •
protest •

public •
pull • pump
•
punishment
• purpose •
push • put

Q

quality •
question •
quick •
quiet •
quite

R

rail • rain •
range • rat •
rate • ray •
reaction •
red •
reading •
ready •
reason •
receipt •
record •
regret •
regular •
relation •
religion •
representati
ve • request
• respect •
responsible
• rest •
reward •
rhythm •
rice • right
• ring •
river • road
• rod • roll •
roof • room

• root •
rough •
round • rub
• rule • run

S

sad • safe •
sail • salt •
same • sand
• say • scale
• school •
science •
scissors •
screw • sea
• seat •
second •
secret • • •
see • seed •
selection •
self • send •
seem •
sense • • •
serious •
servant •
sex • shade
• shake •
shame •
sharp •
sheep • ship
• shirt •
shock •
shoe • short
• shut • side
• sign • silk
• silver •
simple •
sister • size
• skin •
skirt • sky •
sleep • slip
• slow •
small • • •

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smell •
smile •
smoke •
smooth •
snake •
sneeze •
snow • so •
soap •
society •
sock • soft •
solid •
some • son
• song •
sort • sound
• south •
soup •
space •
spade •
special •
sponge •
spoon •
spring •
square •
stamp •
stage • star
• start •
statement •
station •
steam •
stem • steel
• step •
stick • still
• stitch •
stocking •
stomach •
stone • stop
• store •
story •
strange •
street •
stretch •
sticky •
stiff •

straight •
strong •
structure •
substance •
sugar •
suggestion
• summer •
support •
surprise •
such •
sudden •
sun • sweet
• swim •
system

T

table • tail •
take • talk •
tall • taste •
tax •
teaching •
test • than •
that • the •
then •
theory •
there •
thick • thin
• thing •
this •
thought •
thread •
throat •
though •
through •
thumb • •
ticket •
tight • tired
• till • time
• tin • to •
toe •

together •
tomorrow •
tongue •
tooth • top •
touch •
town •
trade • train
• transport •
tray • tree •
trick • true
• trouble •
turn •

U

umbrella •
under • unit
• use • up

V

value • very
• voice

W

walk • wall
• waiting •
war • warm
• wash •
waste •
watch • •
wax • way •
weather •
week •
weight •
well • west
• wet •
wheel •
when •
where •
while • •
whistle •

white • who
• why •
wide • will
• wind •
window •
wine • wing
• winter •
wire • wise
• with •
woman •
wood •
wool •
word •
work •
wound •
writing •
wrong

Y

year •
yellow •
yes •
yesterday •
you •
young

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Appendix 3
Dolch Words (220)
In order of frequency

List 1

the	I	was	for
to	you	said	on
and	it	his	they
he	of	that	but
a	in	she	had

List 2

at	look	out	we
him	is	as	am
with	her	be	then
up	there	have	little
all	some	go	down

List 3

do	what	get	my
can	so	them	would
could	see	like	me
when	not	one	will

did	were	this	yes
big	now	very	ride
went	long	an	into
are	no	over	just
come	came	your	blue
if	Ask	its	red

List 4

List 5

from	want	put	every
good	don't	too	pretty
any	how	got	jump
about	know	take	green
around	right	where	four

List 6

away	saw	ran	sleep
old	call	let	brown
by	after	help	yellow
their	well	make	five
here	think	going	six

List 7

walk	again	stop	cold
two	play	off	today
or	who	never	fly
before	been	seven	myself
eat	may	eight	round

List 8

tell	first	black	goes
much	try	white	write

keep	new	ten	always
give	must	does	drink
work	start	bring	once

List 9

soon	has	our	warm
made	find	better	ate
run	only	hold	full
gave	us	buy	those
open	three	funny	done

List 10

use	hurt	sit	under
fast	pull	which	read
say	cut	fall	why
light	kind	carry	own
pick	both	small	found

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List 11

wash	live	upon	thank
show	draw	these	wish
hot	clean	sing	many
because	grow	together	shall
far	best	please	Laugh

Appendix 4

Learner's Questionnaire

Personal Information

Name :
Place :
Class :
Age :
Gender : Male () Female ()

Mother Tongue : -----

Medium of instruction : -----

Age at which you started to learn English:

4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12

Class in which you started to learn English:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Do you read books other than text books in English?

- Newspapers: Often () Sometimes () Never ()
- Magazines : Often () Sometimes () Never ()
- Storybooks : Often () Sometimes () Never ()

Do you watch English movies?

Often () Sometimes () Never ()

Do you listen to the news or other English programmes on radio?

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Often () Sometimes () Never ()

Family Background

Father's Education: Illiterate () Non-Metric () Metric ()

Father's Occupation: -----

Mother's Education: Illiterate () Non-Metric () Metric ()

Mother's Occupation: -----

Number of brothers: 1 2 3 4 5

Number of sisters : 1 2 3 4 5

What is your aim of studying?

- For job ()
- For higher studies ()

Have you access to T.V or Radio at your home?

Yes () No ()

What is your opinion of learning English and learning in English are –

Easy () Very- Easy () Difficult () Very-Difficult ()

Thank you

Appendix 5

SUMMARY OF INFORMAL INTERVIEWS WITH TEACHERS

1. Give us the profile of the learners in your class
2. Profile of the low achievers
3. Profile of the high achievers
4. Do you use anything other than the textbook in the class?
5. Do you give all the answers to all the questions at the end of the lesson in the textbook?
6. Do you work out all the exercises given in the each lesson of the textbook in the classroom?
7. Do your students do any extra reading in L2?
8. Do you give any additional support for the low achievers in the class?
9. Do you call for the parents meetings?

-Most of the learners are socially and economically disadvantaged. The parents of most of the learners are illiterate. Family does not encourage and support learners. Most of the learners do not have a definite goal for what they want to study. Regularly absent from classes.

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- Learners of think that English is not very important. A few of them do not know the alphabet. Learners are not fit to be in the ninth class.
- They come from well to do and with good educational background families. They are intelligent and hard working.

- Workbook and grammar and composition books. Wren and Martin grammar book occasionally. Encourage guides during exams.
- Yes, always. Dictate all the answers in the classroom. Because, learners cannot make answers on their own.

- Only some of them. Leave out the difficult ones.

- Yes, occasionally. English 400 reading programme reading cards, Cambridge Picture Reading Stories, etc. from the school library.
- Make them sit next to the high achievers in the classroom. Take personal interest during the exams. Make them sit in the front benches. No remedial classes conducted.

- Not really. Parents do not show any interest.

Appendix 6

SUMMARY OF INFORMAL INTERVIEWS WITH LEARNERS

1. What do you think are the reasons for your poor performance in L2?
2. Do you study English at home every day?
3. Are your parents literate?
4. Do you attend any coaching classes?
5. Does someone help you with your studies?
6. What are the study aids that you use?
7. Do you read anything in English other than the textbook?
8. Do you memorize all that you have to learn?
9. Does your English teacher use Telugu / English in the classroom?

- English is difficult to study. Do not have enough basic vocabulary. We cannot write in English. Do not know grammar. Do not have conducive environment. We cannot follow and understand English.

- No. we study only during the examinations.

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- No. both of our parents are illiterate. They cannot even put their signature.

- No. our parents cannot meet the expenses of tuition fees.

- There is nobody to help us to learn English. Nobody speaks in English. We study on our own.

- The major thing is 'a guide'. We also sometimes use our seniors' notebooks.

- No. since we cannot understand anything, we do not read other things at all.

- Yes. We can remember all that we read only by memorizing them. We are aware of the learning techniques at all.

- They 95% of the teacher's talk in the classroom is in our mother tongue (Telugu).

Appendix 7

CLASS IX, SEC / A, MARKS SHEET OF UNIT TESTS, QUARTERLY AND

HALF-YEARLY EXAMINATIONS

V.Z.P. HIGH SCHOOL, MODUKURU

NO	NAME	UNIT 1	UNIT2	UNIT 3	UNIT4	QUT.LY	HAF.LY
1	Isahwarya.p	04 / 25	05 / 25	05 / 25	10 / 25	16 / 100	38 / 100
2	Akhila. M	05	10	06	07	20	40
3	Anitha.K	03	08	04	09	26	44
4	Bhargavi. M	02	05	10	07	36	22
5	Durga Bavani .C	07	06	08	15	32	48
6	Jivakumari	06	06	06	09	20	38
7	Kavitha.P	02	03	04	05	06	46
8	Lokapavani	04	04	03	03	14	18
9	Madhavi.D	07	10	08	09	30	50
10	Manasa veena .K	19	21	19	19	76	74
11	Mercy .P	06	06	09	05	23	36
12	Mokambika	17	18	10	20	36	38
13	Nagabaji. Y	12	18	10	20	6	38
14	Naga Lakshmi . P	05	05	05	08	10	14
15	Prashanthi	01	05	09	03	16	16
16	Rajyalaksmi	05	09	06	04	08	22
17	Rojamani	05	06	07	02	30	16
18	Roja. D	03	03	01	09	12	22
19	Sandyarani	01	07	09	03	20	30
20	Sree Divya	04	10	05	01/2	20	28
21	Susmitha	11	10	11	16	54	66
22	Ramana . V	15	19	11	17	56	60
23	Anudeep. M	01	09	10	16	10	26
24	Chenhubabu	05	10	-----	05	22	24
25	Gopaya. K	04	11	10	06	30	24
26	Gopi. E	03	12	--	12	12	28
27	Imam Ali	14	17	15	17	58	46
28	Jani Baji	04	---	05	06	06	36
29	Karimulla	04	11	---	10	24	26

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30	Kirankumar	05	13	---	06	26	--
31	Lakshmi .P	06	05	07	04	20	--
32	Naga Baji. S	08	07	--	06	26	28
33	Nagaraju	09	09	06	14	26	22
34	Pramod Kumar	05	06	03	05	08	16
35	Ram Mohan	04	04	---	09	22	32
36	Sharat . A	05	11	19	09	28	38
37	Srikanth	09	09	09	11	38	22
38	Venkatesh	07	09	05	10	38	22
39	Venugopal	08	10	---	10	30	32
40	Aruna	02	01	01	06	08	08
41	Srilatha	07	08	---	04	18	30
42	Jansi Rani	03	06	---	12	22	22
43	Satyavathi	05	05	09	10	22	24
44	Sandya	---	04	04	05	----	12
45	Sumalatha	---	07	05	14	22	38

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Some Rhetoric Devices That We Can Use in Our Writing

M. S. Thirumalai, Ph.D.

=====

When you write your paper or dissertation, you need to have clarity of writing. You also need to keep the attention of your reader on what you want to communicate to him or her. You can do this through several ways: you give life to what you write, enliven your writing, animate it, and give spirit to it. An excellent example is given in the Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary: **Fresh flowers enliven the room.** It means providing or offering something new, something colorful or attractive, something most desirable, etc. In essence, you should induce in them an emotive response. All these aim at winning or gaining and capturing their mind and intellect to your side! While doing so, you also restate, that is, state the information in different ways, which will emphasize your points.

These techniques or devices are generally called **rhetorical devices**. These devices include the following;

1. **Alliteration.** When we alliterate, we use a consonant, a vowel or a combination of these two repeatedly in the words in a sentence or a number of sentences that occur/recur.

Merriam-Webster Online defines alliteration for English as follows: "the repetition of usually initial consonant sounds in two or more neighboring words or syllables (as *wild and woolly, threatening throngs*) —called also *head rhyme, initial rhyme.*" Indian languages use consonants, vowels, and syllables for this purpose. **Alliteration** has been a major device used by political leaders, orators and even heroes and heroines in movies and plays in India. If you want to be a great demagogue writer, Indian languages provide you with great facilities. However, be always moderate in the use of this device. Otherwise you will be easily carried away by the mesmerizing sounds. Moreover, you should also know that a demagogue is defined as "a leader who makes use of popular prejudices and false claims and promises in order

to gain power; a leader championing the cause of the common people in ancient times” (Merriam Webster Dictionary). Truly, a dangerous doubled-edged sword!

2. **Hyperbole.** Hyperbole is exaggeration. Often we resort to this to emphasize the importance of an item we talk about. Politicians, fans of cine stars, children, et al. are known to use this feature frequently. Mothers use this often while narrating stories for their children. *A bear as big as the elephant* is a simple hyperbole.

3. **Euphemism.** A simple and excellent definition is provided by the Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary: “the substitution of an agreeable or inoffensive expression for one that may offend or suggest something unpleasant.” Sanskrit and Tamil grammars insist on using euphemistic expressions for various purposes: to show respect, to bring in *mangal* or prosperity, to increase sales of produce, etc. *Prison* is referred to as *maamiyaar viiDu*, mother-in-law’s house in colloquial Tamil (perhaps this one should be labeled as a sarcastic expression?), a *latrine* may be referred to as *Restroom*, instead of using a native word for personal gender-related body parts, one may use a Sanskrit word, etc. I am always amused to read the translation for *latrine* in Tamil at the airports in Tamilnadu: it is called *Make-up Room, oppanai aRai*. Both in English and Indian languages, use of euphemism is a must and it needs some special skill apart from childhood socialization practices to achieve success in using the device. Families and communities may differ from each other as to the extent of the use of euphemistic expressions for various purposes.

4. **Metaphor.** We create a metaphor when two different things are compared in the same sentence. But, while comparing, we do not use words such as *like, as*. It is a figure of speech. A word such as *faceflower* in Tamil or other Indian languages is a good example. *She blossomed into a beautiful woman* is another expression. Note we also need to use metaphor in a measured manner, as metaphor is very much culture-bound, and our readers may have difficulty in following what we say or want to focus upon. In fact, all rhetorical devices need to be carefully chosen and used to bring in more relevant effect.

5. Parallelism

This brings out the correspondence or resemblance between contents expressed. It is expressed syntactically by the repeated use of similar sentence type. When such repetition is presented, correspondence, similarity, resemblance, etc., are brought out easily. Benjamin Franklin’s sentence is often quoted in English to illustrate this use. “Tell me and I forget. Teach me and I may remember. Involve me and I will learn.” A powerful statement that succinctly states a fundamental truth about teaching and learning.

6. Rhetorical Question

You ask a question but you do not expect a response. Everyone knows the answer as it is obvious and/or implied. How do you do? is a frequently used without expecting a real answer! Shylock’s statement in *Merchant of Venice* is a famous quote that is given to illustrate rhetorical questions:

Hath not a Jew eyes?

Hath not a Jew hands, organs, dimensions, senses, affections, passions?

If you prick us, do we not bleed, if you tickle us, do we not laugh?

If you poison us, do we not die?

We use rhetorical questions often to deliver our retorts.

7. Paradox

The statement is apparently contradictory as it contains opposing elements/content. However, a paradox may present a higher level of meaning. For example, *We all want to be in limelight, but we also want privacy.*

Some Suggestions

Please get a school dictionary as well as a school grammar to look up and refresh your knowledge and understanding of these devices. You also need to learn how to use these rhetorical devices by actually using these in a deliberate manner in your chapters and papers. If you start doing it, these devices will come to you in a natural manner and your writing will have arguments that capture the attention of your readers.

However, please note that rhetorical devices are not effective in themselves to persuade others to accept your presentation, arguments and conclusions. You should not also use these devices excessively. How do you decide whether you are given to their use excessively? If you have used several devices and used them repeatedly in the same paper or chapter, or even across chapters, the reader will notice that you indulge in these ornamental devices to convince him of the truth of your arguments. He or she will soon start resisting your rhetoric and then you lose your reader and gain a bad name!

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