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Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

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Colloquial versus Standard in Singaporean Language Policies

Tania Rahman, M.A.

Abstract

This paper is based on an investigation of the standard - colloquial debate among the four official languages, English, Mandarin, Tamil and Malay in Singapore. The aim of the study is to examine (1) major steps/movements in the history of Singaporean language policies that have been influential in forwarding the debate in the country and (2) how this debate has been reflected in the country's educational policymaking.

Expanding on Gupta's (1989, 1994, 2001) "diglossia model", the study examines the diglossic "H" - "L" relationships among the languages to understand the standard - colloquial issue in the country.

The outcomes of this study reveal that (1) the standard - colloquial debate can be extended beyond the "Singlish" - Singapore Standard English (SSE) question to the other three official languages, and (2) the Singapore government's drive for standard language usage marks significant shift in language use and attitudes of the speakers towards the vernacular languages in the country.

Keywords: varieties of language, standard and colloquial varieties, diglossia, "H" and "L" varieties, language policy, Singapore Colloquial English (SCE) or "Singlish",

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Singapore Standard English (SSE), Literary Tamil (LT), Spoken Tamil (ST), Sebutan Baku (SB) and Johor-Riau system of pronunciation.

Introduction

The debate between the standard and the colloquial varieties of language is age-old and the promotion of the standard variety is still debated in many parts of the world today. An interesting case is the language situation in Singapore where the standard – colloquial debate concerns multiple languages and their speakers.

Standard English is treated as the “High” (H) language in all communications and the local variety of English known as “Singlish” is considered as the “Low” (L) variety as reflected in government statements.

Mandarin is considered to be the second prestigious language among the majority Chinese community members whereas other Chinese dialects such as Hokkien, Teochiew, Hakka, Cantonese are regarded as the “Low” varieties to be spoken in informal situations like marketplace and home.

Tamil, the language chosen as a majority Indian language in the country, is also marked by the standard – colloquial distinction between Literary Tamil (LT) and Spoken Tamil (ST).

The H – L distinction is also present in the use of Malay language in Singapore, as it varies according to Sebutan Baku (SB) or standard *Bahasa Melayu* and Johor – Riau varieties of Malay pronunciation.

Language Policies in Singapore

The language policies since independence of the country, particularly in the education sector, have been influential in engendering the current debate on the use of standard and colloquial varieties of languages in the country.

In Singapore, the spoken variants such as the Chinese dialects (Hokkien, Hakka, Teochew, Cantonese), spoken Tamil, and other languages are considered as “Low” varieties as proficiency in these varieties is neither recognized by the government nor the general public (Rubdy, 2007), despite being favored by the young generation students (Lee, 1983 and Pakir, 1997), because of the official use of “exonormic” Mandarin, RP English, Literary Tamil, and standard Bahasa Melayu (Schiffman, 1997). In fact the Singaporean education system regards these vernaculars as a “problem” that needs to be eradicated, rather than a “resource” (Schiffman, 1997; Rubdy, 2007).

The Goal of This Paper

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The present paper aims to examine how the language policies in the country have reinforced the debate between the standard varieties of the four official languages in the country - English, Mandarin, Tamil and Malay and the vernaculars, i.e., the mother tongues of different communities. In search of an answer to this question, the paper explores the major policy attempts undertaken by the Singapore government regarding language use in the country since independence. The focus will be on the domain of education as it has been a crucial implementation tool for the government to materialize the language policies for bringing significant changes in language use in the country.

In discussing the language policies of the country, background information on the country's ethnolinguistic situation is explored which reveals the complex nature of the multilingual and multiethnic nation.

For analyzing the standard – colloquial debate in the Singaporean context, I have examined Gupta's (1989, 1994, 2001) diglossic model and found that the H – L relationship between the standard and colloquial varieties of English in Singapore, recognized now respectively as Singapore Standard English (SSE) and Singapore Colloquial English (SCE) or Singlish, are also evident in the other three official languages – Mandarin, Tamil and Malay. In order to discuss the standard – colloquial situation in Singapore, it is important to understand what exactly the term “standard” signify which is discussed below.

The Standard - Colloquial Debate in Language

The question of what makes a particular variety of a language the standard variety is problematic. The “standard variety” is defined as “the historically legitimated, panregional, oral and written language form of the social middle or upper class” and also “subject to extensive normalization (especially in the realm of grammar, pronunciation, and spelling)” (Bussmann, 1996, p. 451 cited in Grzega, 2000). Usually it is characterized as

- “written variety” (Grzega, 2000),
- “codified” (Dittmar, 1997; Huesmann, 1998),
- “supraregional” (Dittmar, 1997; Huesmann, 1998; Grzega, 2000),
- “preferred in institutional contexts and official situations” (Grzega, 2000),
- “of overt prestige” (Huesmann, 1998),
- “taught in school, and hardly occurring in everyday speech in its idealized form” (Dittmar, 1997, p. 201; also in Grzega, 2000).

Huesmann (1998, p. 34) mentions some “additional empirical features” of standard varieties which characterize them as -

- “group-specific”,
- “prescriptive”,

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- “multifunctional”,
- “used in written language”

Unlike Huesmann (1998), Grzega (2000) identifies two sorts of standard varieties: “(a) a formal one - codified, prescribed by recognized authorities, relatively homogeneous, used in public situations (particularly monologs) – and (b) an informal one - more subjective, more flexible, part of a standard-nonstandard continuum, basically used in private dialogs, all in all: a pluralistic concept”.

On Defining Standard English

Keeping these definitions and characteristics of the standard variety in mind, it is not easy to agree on the norm or norms that should apply to define varieties such as Standard English. For example, Hansen, Carls & Lucko (1996, p. 28) distinguish between “an official standard variety”, a variety that is “orientated toward one of the two main norms of English (English English or American English)” and “an unofficial standard variety” which has potentially more national features.

Trudgill (1999) considers Standard English as a “dialect” rather than a “language”, “accent”, “style”, “register” or “a set of prescriptive rules” defining it as “simply one variety of English among many” or “a sub-variety of English”. Biber, et al. (1999, p. 18), however, further classify between “standard” English, “standard English”, and “standard spoken English” according to their uses in written and spoken “registers”:

For written registers, we adopt an implicit, descriptive approach to characterize ‘standard’ English, in that we describe the grammatical forms and patterns actually used in published texts (as opposed to prescribing explicitly the forms that should be used in ‘standard English’). [...] we define standard spoken English as including grammatical characteristics shared widely across dialects, excluding those variants restricted to local or limited social/regional varieties.

Prescriptivist Attitude

In Singapore, the attitude of policymakers, like decision-makers in many parts of the world, have been more or less “prescriptivist” on the use of non-standard varieties such as Singaporean Colloquial English (SCE) or “Singlish”, a “contact variety” (Gupta, 1998), which is regarded as detrimental to the development of English proficiency among the general public, particularly in the education sector and hence branded as “bad English”. Mr. Lee Kuan Yew, Singapore’s former Prime Minister, once commented:

I think it’s important that you know the English language because it is the international language, and you speak it in the standard form.

Do not speak Singlish! If you do, you are the loser. Only foreign academics like to write about it. You have to live with it. And your interlocutors, when they hear you, their ears go askew. You detract from the message that you're sending.

I don't have to speak with an English upper-class accent. But I speak in a way which makes it easy for them to understand me and, therefore, they are not distracted by my background.

(Lee Kuan Yew, speech to National University of Singapore students, 29 July 1994, quoted in *The Sunday Times*, July 31 1994)

Hansen, Carls & Lucko (1996) and Lee Kuan Yew (1994) appear to be more “prescriptive” in emphasizing standardized norms or rules and, in this way, by declining existing non-standard varieties, they tend to brand non-standard forms as “inferior”. Trudgill (1999) and Biber et al. (1999), on the other hand, are more “descriptive” as they focus more on describing and presenting language varieties considering language use in-context than just dwelling on the standardized norms.

The prescriptivist attitude of the Singaporean government has been instrumental in the rising debate concerning the diglossic “High” (H) - “Low” (L) relationships between standard and non-standard varieties in the country.

Singapore Situation

It is, therefore, significant to examine the language situation in Singapore in the light of diglossic relationships of languages in the country. In order to do so, it is first significant to define diglossia and its features which are discussed below. The discussion is followed by an examination of the language and language policy situation in Singapore revealing diglossic relationships between the standard - non-standard varieties of different languages in the country.

Diglossia

Propounded by Ferguson (1959), the concept of diglossia refers to “a situation where two languages or language varieties occur side by side in a community, and each has a clear range of functions” (Deterding 1998, p. 18). The varieties are namely: the “High” variety or the “H” variety and the “Low” variety or the “L” variety.

The H-variety is recognized as the “standard” variety for use in formal or “official” situations, such as public media (both print and electronic), education, law and religious services. On the other hand, the situations for the use of the L-variety are generally “informal”, e.g. shopping and exchanges between family and friends.

The “archetypal” examples of diglossia include language situations in the Arabic, Swiss – German and Tamil communities (Ferguson, 1959; Deterding, 1998) where a sharp distinction between standard and colloquial varieties is maintained in the use of standard varieties such as classical Arabic, Standard German and Literary Tamil in formal situations, e.g., classrooms, literature and news media, limiting the colloquial or non-standard in informal interactions such as exchanges among family members and friends.

As Deterding (1998) explains, a sense of “high prestige” is attached to proficiency in using the H-variety, even if everyone does not possess “sufficient” education to attain that level of proficiency (p. 18). Despite such high prestige, H-variety might seem “quite absurd” if it is used in informal situations like “at home” or “when chatting with close friends” instead of the L-variety (p. 18).

Although Ferguson’s (1959) H – L distinction entails a clear separation between the “circumstances”, linguistic features and proficiency in the use of the varieties, Fasold (1984) questioned the “strict separation between the two varieties” (Deterding 1998, p. 19) by predicting a possible continuum between the H and L varieties in the “archetypal” diglossic Arabic and Tamil societies.

Such continua are significant to consider in multilingual societies such as Singapore where it would be a fallacy to draw a strict line between the “H” and “L” varieties of languages in the country. Fishman’s (1967) concept of “extended diglossia” is significant in relation to the language situation in Singapore as here a number of “genetically unrelated” languages manifest the H – L functions, some being used in formal situations such as pedagogical, administrative, religious or other similar “prestigious domains” (Schiffman, 1997) and the others being used in informal contexts such as in the home domain.

Extending the Concept of Diglossia to Singapore Situation

The article aims at discussing how the concept of diglossia can be extended and applied to analyze the language situation in Singapore in search of ways in which the use of the L-variety can be tolerated in educational institutions. For this purpose, the functions of different languages and their varieties and dialects including the agents and instruments emphasizing the standard variety over the non-standard ones in Singapore are identified. As bilingualism is a crucial aspect in Singaporean language policies, a distinction between languages, their varieties and dialects is maintained throughout the discussion in the paper in light of bilingualism to understand the diglossic relationships of languages, dialects and varieties in the country.

Bilingualism and Diglossia in Singapore

With a population of more than 4.5 million (4,657,542 according to the CIA World Factbook, July 2009 est.), Singapore is a multilingual and multiethnic state in Southeast Asia. The country's demography comprises of 75.6% Chinese, 13.6% Malays, 8.7% Indians and 2.1% of "Others" (2005 General Household Survey, Singapore Department of Statistics).

The Chinese in Singapore are a "diverse" community comprising sub-groups such as Hokkien (43.1%), Teochew (22.1%), Cantonese (16.4%), Hakka (7.4%), Hainanese (7.1%) and "smaller communities" of Foochow, Henghua, Shanghainese and Hokchia (David, Cavallaro and Colluzi, 2009, p. 165 - 166).

Another ethno-linguistically "diverse" community comprises the Indians including speech communities such as Tamils (63.9%), Malayalees (8.6%), Punjabis (6.7%) and other "smaller Indian linguistic communities" like the Bengali, Urdu, Sindhi, and Gujerati (p. 166).

The Malays are a more "homogenous" group than either the Chinese or the Indians in Singapore despite being the "descendents of various ethnic groups such as Boyanese, Bugis or Javanese" (p. 168) comprising 13.6% of the total population in the country.

According to the *Ethnologue* report (2009), around 21 languages are spoken in Singapore (Lewis, 2009) of which four languages have the status of official languages – English, Mandarin, Malay and Tamil. Table 1 shows the distribution of different ethnic communities and the languages spoken at home in Singapore (in percentage), according to the 2005 General Household Survey:

Table 1: Major ethnic communities and their language usage at home in Singapore (2005)

Ethnic communities	(%) of total Population	Languages	Language use at home (2000)	Language use at home (2005)
Chinese	75.6%	English	23.9%	28.7%
Hokkien (43.1%)	0.33%	Mandarin	47.2%	45.1%
Teochew (22.1%)	0.17%			
Cantonese (16.4%)	0.12%	Dialects	30.7%	23.9%
Hakka (7.4%)	0.056%			
Hainanese (7.1%)	0.054%			
Malay	13.6%	English	7.9%	13%
Indians	8.7%	Malay	91.6%	86.8%
		English	35.6%	39%

Tamils (63.9%)	0.56%			
Malayalees (8.6%)	0.007%	Malay	11.6%	10.6%
Punjabis (6.7%)	0.006%	Tamil	42.9%	36.8%

Source: 2005 General Household Survey, Singapore Department of Statistics

The term “bilingualism” in Singapore refers to language skills in English and “one other, usually the child’s proscribed “mother tongue”” (Pakir, 1999, p. 342). English has been treated in Singapore as the “non-ethnic and thus neutral official language” which in the post-independence era has become the “*de facto* dominant working language” in the country (Kuo, 1983, 1999). It is treated as the “high language for all formal official functions” and “the only language taught in all schools at all levels” (Kuo, 1983, 1999). Mandarin has been selected as the lingua franca among the Chinese communities in Singapore. Malay is the national language of Singapore with only some “ceremonial functions” limited to the national anthem and military commands (Rappa and Wee, 2006, p. 82). Tamil, a language spoken by a major portion of the Indian population in Singapore, has been selected as the major Indian language representing the Indian communities in Singapore.

Historically and sociolinguistically, Singapore has had a multilingual and diglossic language system. During the British rule, Singaporeans used to communicate either in Bazaar Malay, a form of “pidginized” Malay (Gupta, 1998), or in “simplified” Hokkien (used among the Chinese community), in the marketplace. English was used by the colonial government for administrative purposes. Mandarin, generally used in formal occasions as Chinese national holiday celebrations and marriage ceremonies and also related to the rise of Chinese nationalism, was considered as prestigious, hence the “High” variety among the Chinese community members, and so Chinese schools were founded in large numbers at the beginning of the last century to teach in the variety. In other words, Bazaar Malay and Hokkien were deemed as the street/market languages i.e. the “Low” varieties whereas English and Mandarin were regarded as the “High” varieties, or the languages of education, administration, and formal celebrations. Other tongues such as Cantonese, Teochew, Tamil, or Punjabi apart from the “High” languages were regarded as the language of the home and similar speech group assemblage.

Since the 1990s, English has been in use not only as the “High” variety used in formal situations but also as a “Low” variant in its “Singlish” form used in streets, marketplaces and also at home replacing Bazaar Malay and market Hokkien. Today Mandarin, Standard Malay and Literary Tamil (LT) enjoy the official status in Singaporean language policy with the prestige of standard languages for the three major communities in the country.

Standard versus Colloquial Debate in Singapore

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As the standard – colloquial debate in Singapore is manifested mainly in relation to the four official languages in the country: English, Mandarin, Malay and Tamil, the following discussion concerns these languages.

Standard Singapore English (SSE) versus Singapore Colloquial English (SCE) or Singlish

In the standard – colloquial debate concerning English usage in Singapore, the Speak Good English Movement (SGEM) has been a crucial instrument for the government to materialize its prescriptivist ideologies regarding Standard English usage in the country. The colloquial variety of Singapore English, popularly known as “Singlish”, is considered by the Singapore government as a “sign of declining local English standards” (Wu Man-Fat, 2005).

Government initiatives for maintaining Standard English in the country even involved measures such as “the import of native speakers” (Wu Man-Fat, 2005) for teaching in schools and training local teachers, even though the measure caused “students’ confusion over accents” (Gopinathan, 1980, cited in Wu Man-Fat, 2005). Local textbooks of English, in accordance with the approach of the government on Standard English, are aimed at providing opportunities “for students to acquire a command of the English language that is as close to the level of native speakers as possible” (Jones and Mann, 1999). In adopting these steps, it appears that, according to Wu Man-Fat (2005), “rather than recognizing the need of a new ‘standard’ variety among Singaporeans for societal cohesion, the Singapore Government is trying to ‘remedy’ the situation”.

With such idealized view of Standard English, the use of Singlish in contexts such as schools in Singapore is “strongly discouraged due to concerns that it will impede the acquisition of ‘good English’, the effective development of students’ literacy skills and the quality of their overall education” (Rubdy, 2007, p. 308). Even many of the Singaporean citizens support the government stance on the use of standard English and discarding “Singlish” considering it as a “corrupted” and “degenerate form” and maintain “strong disapproval of teachers using this variety” (Rubdy, 2007, p. 308).

The Speak Good English Movement (SGEM) was launched in 2000 by the then Prime Minister Goh Chok Tong to “promote the use of good English among Singaporeans” (Media Release for the Speak Good English Movement (SGEM) 2004) and also to “stem the spread of Singlish among Singaporeans” (Rubdy, 2007, p. 308; also in Rubdy, 2001). In the past decade, the Singapore government has been actively promoting Standard English usage in the country through persuasive slogans and themes each year targeting different groups.

In reaction to the government drive for raising the bar for Standard English, academicians such as Lee (1983) and Pakir (1997) identified the popularity of Singlish, the “L” variety, among the young generation, mostly students, who opined that “it is perfectly acceptable

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to use the localized forms of English among peers as these types of English are more conducive to friendly relations. In contrast, they view the use of ‘Standard English’ which they learned in school show social distance” (Wu Man-Fat, 2005). Both teachers and students were found to “take pride in the indigenization of English in Singapore” (Pakir, 1997 cited in Wu Man-Fat, 2005).

As De Souza (1980) commented, “despite deliberate efforts directed at the implementation of a strict standardization according to an external model - Standard English of the United Kingdom - a subtle and long-term corpus change, in a different direction, would seem to be underway” (p. 229). Therefore, although Singlish has been officially “disparaged” or “stigmatized” and of “explicit official disapproval”, the actual scenario, as Rubdy (2007) comments, is that “the presence of the vernacular in the classroom continues to be robust” (p.308).

Recently, noticing the rising popularity of “Singlish” among the young generation, the government has targeted this group which is evident in the SGEM slogans and themes in recent years. For example, the SGEM slogan for the year 2007 has been “Rock Your World! Express Yourself” emphasizing “expression in good English that will enable people to use the right words to build relationships and reach out to other people instead of using words just for pragmatic purposes” in 2007 (Media Release for the Speak Good English Movement (SGEM) 2007). In 2009, the movement included an interesting twist by commissioning mrbrown, a “prominent blogger” in Singapore popular for his podcasts and blog posts “punctuated with Singlish”, to write a story showing that “the effort to improve one’s English is a reward in itself” (Media Release for the Speak Good English Movement (SGEM) 2010).

Three Approaches to Explain the Language Situation for English in Singapore

As a result of the debates between the prescriptivist attitude of the Singaporean government towards use of Standard English rejecting its colloquial variant followed by the academicians’ reactions to it, different approaches have developed to explain the language situation for English in Singapore, particularly on the question of which variety should be termed as the native, hence standard, and which one as the non-native or non-standard variety.

One approach identifies Singapore English as a “non-native” variety instead of viewed as “having its own grammars”, and considers that it is “imperfectly learnt Standard English” (Gupta, 1998, p. 45).

Another model widely known as the “lectal continuum” approach propounded by Platt and his associates (Platt and Weber, 1980; Platt, 1987, 1991; Tay and Gupta, 1983; Gupta, 1986) also considers Singapore English as a “non-native variety” and the standard variety of English as belonging to countries like England and the US. Speakers are “classified” based on their educational level as “acrolectal”, “mesolectal” or “basilectal”

as in a “post-creole continuum” instead of being distinguished by different levels of “formality”. The acrolect is viewed as “an idealised Standard British English” (Gupta, 1998) or “a prescriptive native speaker standard” (Platt and Ho, 1993, p. 12).

A third approach considers English in Singapore as in a diglossic situation (Gupta, 1989, 1994, 2001). In this approach, Standard Singapore English (SSE) is recognized as a local variety, not being “significantly different from other standard Englishes” (Gupta, 1998). Singapore Colloquial English (SCE) is the informal variety different from Standard English with distinct features. It has a special grammar which needs to be explored considering the context of usage. The approach, however, has been criticized as problematic in identifying the English-speaking community in Singapore as “truly diglossic” (Pakir, 1991) as some community members with a low level of education show the tendency of code mixing, hence, “have an H-variety that is halfway between SSE and SCE” and some “English educated” members of older generation are reluctant to use the L-variety, i.e., SCE despite its use by the younger generation (Deterding, 1998, p. 19).

In response to these criticisms, the suitability of the diglossia approach in describing the language situation for English in Singapore can be defended on the grounds that by considering the distinction between the H and L varieties as “not absolute” (Deterding, 1998, p. 20), the concept of diglossia can be usefully applied to examine the English language situation in the country.

Extending the Concept of Diglossia to Describe Multilingual Situations

I now turn to my next hypothesis: the concept of diglossia can be extended to describe multilingual situations such as in Singapore in which the diglossic relationships between “H” and “L” varieties are not only observable in case of English but can also be noticed between the standard – non-standard varieties of other languages as well as among all the languages in the country in relation to each other. To examine the hypothesis, at first diglossic relationships between the standard – colloquial varieties of the other major official languages - Mandarin, Tamil, Malay – as well as their dialects in Singapore will be analyzed and then it will be explored that the major languages in the country also exist in a diglossic relationship to each other.

Mandarin versus the Chinese Dialects

The standard – colloquial debate also prevails among the speakers of Mandarin and other Chinese dialects in Singapore. Along with English, Mandarin is chosen as an official language to represent the Chinese communities in Singapore and hence also viewed as a privileged language in the country. The emphasis on Mandarin was once taken to that level in which studying and passing examinations in Mandarin became a compulsory requirement for all Chinese community members to complete secondary schooling and also to get admission in local universities.

An important instrument for the government to establish Mandarin as the standard language for use by the Chinese community in the country has been the Speak Mandarin Campaign, formerly known as “Promote the Use of Mandarin Campaign” (Pakir in Hassan, 1994, p. 165), founded by former Prime Minister Mr. Lee Kuan Yew. Hence, the campaign has a significant place in the history of Singaporean language policy to forward the standard – colloquial debate among the speakers of Mandarin and other Chinese dialects in the country.

The Speak Mandarin Campaign began in September 7, 1979 with the motivation of encouraging the use of Mandarin and discouraging the use of non-Mandarin Chinese dialects among the Chinese communities in Singapore. The campaign was initiated with a dual purpose: retention of Asian cultural values and “intra-ethnic” (David, Cavallaro and Colluzi, 2009, p. 166) communication among the various Chinese communities in Singapore. From 1991 onwards, the Speak Mandarin Campaign has aimed at encouraging English-educated Chinese Singaporeans to speak Mandarin.

In 2009, the campaign slogan was *Take the Challenge to Experience Chinese Language and Culture* - “a new nationwide initiative to deepen the appreciation of Chinese culture and increase the competency level of communication in Mandarin” (News Release, *The Promote Mandarin Council, The Chinese Language and Culture Fund and Business China launch, 2009*). At the 30th Anniversary Launch of the Speak Mandarin Campaign on March 17, 2009, at the NTUC Auditorium, former Prime Minister Lee Kuan Yew reiterated his stand on the need for a “common language of Chinese Singaporeans” in order to “direct” the language habits of Chinese Singaporeans: “Mandarin has to be the common language of Chinese Singaporeans, regardless of their dialect groups. If the government had left language habits to evolve undirected, Chinese Singaporeans would be speaking an adulterated Hokkien-Teochew dialect” (Speech by Mr. Lee Kuan Yew, former Prime Minister, at Speak Mandarin Campaign’s 30th Anniversary Launch, 17 March 2009, 5:00 PM at the NTUC Auditorium).

In the early years of the Campaign, controversies followed over the emphasis on Mandarin over other dialects implying “the dialects could transmit no worthwhile culture and that ignorance of Mandarin made Singapore Chinese rootless” (Gopinathan, 1998, p. 72). Further controversies ensued over the 1990 campaign slogan “If you are Chinese, make a statement – in Mandarin” which was felt to suggest that “only Mandarin speakers were to be considered Chinese”. The English translation of the slogan was charged with being “chauvinistic”.

Other Government Initiatives to Standardize Mandarin in Singapore

In addition to the Speak Mandarin Campaign, the other government initiatives which played crucial roles in standardizing Mandarin in Singapore included Hanyu Pinyinization of Pupils’ Names in 1979 and the Report of the Chinese Language Review Committee in 1991.

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In November 1979, the government declared that

...schools should use Hanyu Pinyin names for pupils in pre-primary and Primary 1 classes from 1981. If parents insisted, the schools could enter pupils' dialect names in brackets in the register. It was intended that within three to four years all Chinese pupils from pre-primary to pre-university would be listed by their Pinyin names and dialect names in the register; the pupil would in school be called by his/her Pinyin name (Gopinathan, 1998, p. 74).

This attempt was said to be in line with the objectives of the Speak Mandarin Campaign "to promote a common Chinese identity" (Gopinathan, 1998, p. 74). Initially though there was no "overt resistance" to this attempt, later controversies arose over the transformation that it "separated (pupils) from their ancestral names" (Mr. Jek Yuen Thong, senior PAP member and former Cabinet Minister, Straits Times, March 6, 1985, quoted in Gopinathan, 1998, p. 74). As a reaction to such criticisms, the Ministry of Education indicated in December 1991 that "the practice of entering dialect names first in the register would be reinstated" (Gopinathan, 1998, p. 74).

Next, in reaction to concerns over "the decline of standards in Chinese attainment by pupils", a "high powered" 22 member Chinese Language Review Committee headed by the Deputy Prime Minister was formed in June 1991 to "review and suggest improvements to the teaching of Chinese in schools" (Gopinathan, 1998, p. 82). The committee, in its Report issued in May 1992, proposed a comprehensive overview of Chinese language teaching to revitalize Chinese language learning and assessment. The Report, however, was later criticized for the committee being "content only to suggest further thought on the issue of the relationship between language skills and Chinese values, enlarging the number of pupils in express streams studying CL1 and Chinese literature, introduction of an optional General Paper in Chinese at the GCE AO level and the use of Chinese for Social Studies and Art at the primary level, and for Civics and Moral Education at the secondary level" (p. 84).

In all these attempts, it appears that the Singapore government "actively" promotes Mandarin establishing it as the second most dominant language in Singaporean education policy. The concern remains whether the status attributed to Mandarin as the standard/High (H) variety impedes the maintenance of other Chinese dialects such as Hokkien, Teochiew and Hakka predominantly regarded as the colloquial/non-standard/Low (L) variety. In a recent study (David, Cavallaro and Colluzi, 2009, p. 166), it has been reported that, "as a result of the bilingual educational policy and the influence of the Speak Mandarin Campaign, the young Chinese know and use Mandarin Chinese". The study also reveals that Mandarin has also replaced other Chinese dialects, particularly Hokkien, for "intra ethnic" communication in "almost all domains". Among other Chinese dialects, Hokkien is "known and still used, but mostly by older Chinese and the less educated" (David, Cavallaro and Colluzi, 2009, p. 166). The diglossic relationship between these two Chinese dialects is described as: "Mandarin is still by and large a High

(H) language, while Hokkien and the other Chinese varieties remain dominant in hawker centers, on buses, etc. (Kuo and Jernudd, 2003)” (David, Cavallaro and Colluzi, 2009, p. 166).

Literary Tamil (LT) versus Spoken Tamil (ST)

The next ethnic group among whom the standard – colloquial debate prevails in Singapore is the Tamil-speaking group. The Tamils comprise around 63.9% of the Indian population which is 8.7 % of the total population in Singapore (David, Cavallaro and Colluzi, 2009, p. 166).

As shown in Table 1, the Indian population in Singapore comprises a number of speech communities including Tamils, Malayalees, Punjabis and other “smaller Indian linguistic communities” (David, Cavallaro and Colluzi, 2009, p. 166), for example, the Bengali, Urdu, Sindhi, and Gujerati linguistic groups.

David, Cavallaro and Colluzi (2009, p. 166) report a 17.2% decline in the use of Tamil as the “principal family language” during the years 1985 to 2005. In the last two decades, a tendency has developed among the Tamil ethnic groups to use English, i.e. Singlish, as the Low variety in informal interactions such as communicating with friends and family limiting the use of Tamil in prayers and in conversing with relatives (Saravanan, 1995, 1999). The low use of Tamil with friends, siblings, school and reading of primary students was reported by Ramiah (1991).

The decline in the use of Tamil at home indicates the high prestige attached to English as the decline occurs among the highly educated and well-off Tamil community members (David, Cavallaro and Colluzi, 2009, p. 167).

Such a crisscrossed pattern in the use of English and Tamil as sometimes the High and sometimes the Low varieties resulted from the gap between the varieties of Tamil taught at school and spoken at home (Schiffman, 1998). The Tamil spoken at home is a “more colloquial variety” i.e. Spoken Tamil (ST) than that taught at school, i.e. Literary Tamil (LT) which is “more formal” and “significantly different” from the variety spoken at home (David, Cavallaro and Colluzi, 2009, p. 166).

Schiffman (2003), an authoritative scholar on Tamil language, described the Tamil language situation in Singapore as follows:

Tamil as a home language is not being maintained by the better-educated, and Indian education in Singapore is also not living up to the expectations many people have for it. Educated people who love Tamil are upset that Tamil is becoming thought of as a “coolie language” and regret this very much. Since Tamil is a language characterized by extreme diglossia, there is the additional pedagogical problem of trying to maintain a language with two variants, but with

a strong cultural bias on the part of the educational establishment for maintaining the literary dialect to the detriment of the spoken one (p.105).

In case of Tamil in Singapore, like elsewhere in the world, Literary Tamil, characterized by either “norms as old as the 13th century variety codified by Pavanandi” or “norms from earlier periods” (Schiffman 2007), enjoys the High (H) status in formal contexts of language use whereas Spoken Tamil (ST) is regarded as the Low (L) variety being used in very informal conversations. As Schiffman (2007) comments:

... the linguistic culture favors the notion that if any kind of Tamil should have high status, and be used as one of Singapore’s official language, Literary Tamil is the variety that should have this status, and the spoken Tamil (ST) that children speak at home and bring into the classroom does not deserve the status.

Schiffman (2007) considers the language policy in relation to Tamil in Singapore as “anti-Tamil” noticing utter neglect of the decision makers such as the Curriculum Development Board under the Ministry of Education to regulate “what kind of Tamil will be taught”. Schiffman (2007) views this policy as “anti-Tamil” because “it denigrates the home variety, which is the actual ‘mother tongue’ of the Tamil community and attempts to replace it with a variety never used for authentic communication by Tamils anywhere”. In an earlier study, Schiffman (2003) marked the harmful impact of such “excessive purism” on maintaining the Tamil language in Singapore, “because of what it does to the perceptions of Tamil speakers about their language competence, and what ‘mother-tongue’ language study is for in Singapore” (Schiffman 2007). The standard – non-standard debate between Literary Tamil and Spoken Tamil in Singapore is best described in Schiffman (2007):

.... that the language spoken at home is the *real* mother tongue, is accepted by linguists as God’s truth, but is typically rejected by Tamil purists, who see only the literary language as deserving to have this designation. Thus the mother tongue of the child is rejected and denigrated, which has disastrous consequences for Tamils, as well as for other children who bring a non-standard language to the classroom.

Despite the purists’ push for Literary Tamil in education, the variety has been repeatedly declared as “totally useless, of no economic value, and in many cases, of no value whatsoever” by Tamil students and others who consider it “merely as a hurdle to be overcome in the process of gaining entrance to higher education in Singapore” with the impact that “younger Tamils have no sense of ‘ownership’ of the Tamil language, since they cannot use it in creative ways, such as to coin new terminology the way speakers of English can and do” (Schiffman, 2007).

Schiffman (2007) regards the problems with the Tamil language in Singapore—mainly seen as a problem of “language maintenance”—are actually problems of implementation.

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According to him, “Tamils in Singapore fall back on corpus concerns since the status of the language does not seem to them to be under the control of the Tamil community—it is determined by the Singapore government, which has left the corpus issues to the Tamil community, which then devotes all its energy to battling issues of lexical purity”. Schiffman (2007) views the battle over Literary and Spoken Tamil in Singapore as a “mania about corpus policy” similar to the “rail against the invasion of Hindi and the corrupting influence of Sanskrit” in Tamilnadu in India. Schiffman (2007) comments on this puristic drive as a typical Tamil tendency saying: “Singapore Tamils tend to do what Tamils know how to do best—the care and feeding of ‘pure’ Tamil”.

Standard and Non-standard Malay

There is a lack of research on standard-colloquial question in Malay in Singapore. However, the Singaporean government identifies the need for standardizing Malay, at least in case of pronunciation, in its aim for achieving “uniformity between the spoken language used in schools and in public at formal occasions” within the Malay community (Ministry of Education, 2004).

The case of Malay in Singapore is interesting because although it enjoys the status of the national language, in practice its use is limited to singing the national anthem, in military commands and as one of the mother tongues to be learnt at school. Although these formal functions of the language apparently relate to the functions of a “High” variety, most of the uses of the language being limited to the “Low” domain, i.e., in Malay households and gradually being replaced by the use of English in all domains (David, Cavallaro and Colluzi, 2009, p. 168) suggest the virtually “Low” status of the language compared to English in practice.

In addition, the standard/colloquial question is also reflected among the Malays, perhaps not so strongly debated as among the Chinese and the Tamil communities, in the government drive for the adoption of ‘standardised’ pronunciation ‘Sebutan Baku’ (SB) in Malay Language (ML) (Ministry of Education, 2004). In line with its prescriptivist attitude, the government in Singapore endorsed the proposal for the adoption of the ‘standardised’ pronunciation in Malay Language (ML) or ‘Sebutan Baku’ (SB) in the early 1990’s put forward by the Malay Language Council (MLCS) (Ministry of Education, 2004).

As Malays in Singapore have historically been living close to Johore and Riau, they commonly use the Johore-Riau pronunciation system in both “formal” and “informal” interactions. The H – L distinction between these varieties is only evident in government statements such as: “While the bazaar-form of Johore-Riau pronunciation is still widely used in daily interactions in informal situations, the use of SB is encouraged in formal occasions such as in classroom teaching and learning, delivery of speeches, at seminars, forums, formal meetings, interviews, debates etc” (Ministry of Education, 2004). Thus, the government emphasis on the use of SB and the distinction between formal and

informal contexts of language use between SB and the “bazaar-form” of Johore-Riau pronunciation marks the H – L relationship between the two varieties only in official terms.

The Impact of Standard Language Promotion in Singapore: Language Shift and Attitudes

As mentioned earlier, in order to understand the diglossic situation in Singapore, it is necessary to consider the H – L distinction not only in the languages themselves but also among the languages in relation to each other.

The discussion in the present paper suggests that the diglossic relationships in languages are manifested not only in the standard – colloquial debate in the country but also in a “rapid language shift towards English” (Moyer, 2005) in all Singaporean communities due to the bilingual policy and the Speak Good English Movement. The extent of the shift to English as a “home language” is stronger among the Chinese and the Indian groups than the Malay community (Wei, Saravanan, & Hoon, 1997) between 1980 and 1990 in the country.

Table 2 demonstrates the significant increase in the use of English in all Singaporean households in the years 1980 - 1990 and in Table 3, the increase in English usage among three major communities in Singapore during 2000 – 2005 is shown. An 8.7% increase in the use of English among all communities in Singapore is evident during the decade 1980 – 1990 whereas in only five years during 2000 – 2005, a 13.3% increase in English usage can be noticed among three major Singaporean communities – Chinese, Malay and Indians. Although the Malays seem to maintain Malay usage at home, Saravanan (1999) noticed a tendency of growing English use in “family activities” (Moyer, 2005). Recent studies such as Cavallaro and Serwe (2009), David, Cavallaro and Colluzi (2009), Kassim (2008), Roksana (2000) attest to this fact.

Wei, Saravanan and Hoon (1997) found a shift from Teochew to Mandarin and English among the Chinese Teochew community in Singapore: “Mandarin and English are now used extensively in the family domain, which was previously occupied by Teochew” (p. 381). Gupta and Yeok (1995) found that “in Singapore the shift has been very fast, with, in many families, only one multilingual generation having access to the ancestral language. This has resulted in there being no common language between grandparents and their grandchildren” (p. 303). They attribute this shift primarily as the result of government encouragement of the use of English and Mandarin.

Table 2: Use of English, Mandarin and other Chinese dialects in Singapore between 1980 and 1990

Languages	Language use at home (%)	
	1980	1990

English	11.6	20.3
Mandarin	10.2	26.0
Chinese dialects	59.5	38.2

Source: adapted from Moyer (2005) and Pakir (1993)

Table 3: Language use in Singaporean households between 2000 and 2005

Communities	Languages	Language use at home (%)	
		2000	2005
Chinese	English	23.9	28.7
	Mandarin	45.1	47.2
	Other Chinese dialects	30.7	23.9
Malay	English	7.9	13
	Malay	91.6	86.8
Indian	English	35.6	39.0
	Tamil	42.9	36.8
	Malay	11.6	10.6

Source: 2005 General Household Survey, Singapore Department of Statistics (adapted from David, Cavallaro and Colluzi 2009)

All these findings and statistics suggest that, first, in terms of “Low” use of languages, namely, in the home domain, a significant language shift has occurred from the dialects/ethnic vernaculars to at least one of the official languages in the country.

Secondly, the government’s bilingual policy and campaigns for standard language usage has significantly contributed in this shift. The shift is marked not only between dialects of the same language family, e.g. from Hokkien and Teochiew to Mandarin, but also among varieties of different languages such as from Tamil or Malay to Singlish.

Thirdly, the prestige of the “High” variety is associated with English and Mandarin in Singapore whereas the functions of the dialects of these languages as well as the other minority languages such as Malay and Tamil being increasingly limited to the home domain are becoming the “L” varieties. Mandarin representing the majority Chinese communities in Singapore is of “higher prestige” than Malay and Tamil (Moyer, 2005). The “Speak Mandarin Campaigns” held annually has contributed in establishing the prestigious status of Mandarin in Singapore.

Similarly, the bilingual policy and the “Speak Good English Movement” have been instrumental in establishing English as a “High” language in Singapore. Therefore, it can be said that the linguistic situation in Singapore adheres to the conditions of Fishman’s (1967) “extended diglossia” as the H – L functions are not only observable in the uses of the standard varieties of each language (e.g. SSE or Standard Singapore English) in “formal” domains such as education, administration, public gathering and expressions, religious services and public festivals and in the “informal” uses of the colloquial varieties (e.g. SCE or Singlish) such as in the home domain, but also in treating “genetically unrelated” languages as either High (e.g. English and Mandarin) or Low (e.g. Tamil and Malay) languages.

Conclusion

One of the aims of the present discussion was to predict implications for the educational policymaking in Singapore in light of the diglossic analysis of the Singaporean language situation. Government initiatives in the Singaporean language policy are said to be aimed at achieving “a balance between the national pride of linguistic ownership and the need for international intelligibility” (Khoo, 1993, p. 67). This idealistic aim results from the government’s prescriptivist attitude towards the standard variety branding the non-standard as “bad” or “poor”. In this “desire” (Khoo, 1993), the Singaporean government policies regarding standard language usage appear to be in conflict with existing practices such as use of Singlish or Chinese dialects by students in classroom interactions. Despite the government’s drive for standard language usage, the popularity of the colloquial variety, be it Singlish, Hokkien or Spoken Tamil, is conspicuous among the young generation, mainly students (David, Cavallaro and Colluzi, 2009; Lee, 1983; Pakir, 1997; Rubdy, 2007).

Therefore, the crucial question on Singaporean education is whether the non-standard varieties can be tolerated in the classroom or not. Although different studies (e.g. Deterding, 1998; Ferguson, 2003; Lin, 1996, 1999; Liu et al., 2004; Rubdy, 2007) have identified positive effects of allowing code switching between languages/dialects in the classroom, the Singapore government adheres to its “puristic” attitude (Rubdy, 2007) of maintaining the standard variety in all its policies.

In the Singaporean case, in support of Deterding (1998) it can be argued that in the diglossic language situation in Singapore, the existence of the dialects or the colloquial or the non-standard forms of language should be realized in contexts of usage instead of disparaging them in the classroom. Teachers and learners should collaborate in developing a better understanding of which variety to use in which context to avoid conflict between the use of the standard and non-standard varieties in classrooms.

To achieve this, learners should be trained to attain “the ability to switch appropriately between the H and L varieties” of not only English but also other languages. To do this, policymakers including teachers need to bear a tolerant attitude towards the non-

standard/colloquial varieties in situations like peer conversations and “encourage the use of a standard variety for some purposes,...when required” (Deterding, 1998, p. 21), such as in academic writing.

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Listening, an Art?

Arun K. Behera, M.A., PGDTE, DDE, PGDJ, AMSPI, Ph.D., PDF

Abstract

The author, an ELT professional, attempts to establish how hearing is different from listening. He feels listening is a highly complex and an active process. It is also an art and hence needs to be mastered. According to him, there are so many types of listening which in actuality can be grouped into five major types:

- i) Discriminative,
- ii) Comprehension,
- iii) Critical,
- iv) Appreciative, and
- v) Dialogic listening.

All of them are equally important. The listener should, therefore, determine the needs and use the appropriate type of listening so that it becomes effective.

Introduction

Listening is the first and one of the four most important skills required for effective learning to happen, the other three being Speaking, Reading and Writing, in that order. We listen to something or somebody in order to elicit as much information as possible.

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Arun K. Behera, Ph.D.

Listening, an Art?

It is, of course a highly complex, interactive process 'by which spoken language is converted to meaning in the mind'. As is clear from the definition, listening is more than just hearing, although these two terms are often used synonymously.

In fact, hearing is only an important component of listening which is a specialized form of hearing and is the primary function of the ear. The most crucial part of the listening process is thinking or converting to meaning what one hears. Hearing is a passive process. It is merely the detection of sounds around us. Generally, we come across 'hearing' in certain situations. Listening, on the contrary is an active process that involves the conscious desire to determine the meaning of what is heard. While listening, one is engaged in processing the data, reconstructing the data and also giving meaning to the data.

Five Types of Listening

Depending on the need and various other factors, the level of listening also varies. In effect, there exist several types of listening: discriminative listening, comprehension listening, critical listening, biased listening, evaluative listening, appreciative listening, sympathetic listening, empathetic listening, therapeutic listening, dialogic listening, relationship listening, etc.

However, all these types can be put under five major types for the sake of convenience:

- i) Discriminative,
- ii) Comprehension,
- iii) Critical,
- iv) Appreciative, and
- v) Dialogic listening.

We will take up each of these types of listening in the subsequent paragraphs with illustrations.

i) **Discriminative listening** is perhaps the most common of all types of listening. As the name suggests, it ensures that the listener gets the differences between different sounds. In any language, each sound is distinct and unique. Therefore, if the listener fails to identify the differences, then he or she cannot make out the meaning. The result is a failed communication.

This kind of a situation arises mostly when the language in question is not one's mother tongue or at least one of the familiar languages. A person learns to

discriminate between sounds or phonemes within his or her own language at an early stage but fails to discriminate between the sounds or phonemes when it comes to other languages.

This, in fact is one major reason why a person generally finds it hard to speak another language perfectly. Similarly, a person finds it equally difficult to appreciate the subtleties of emotional variation in another person's voice. He or she will be less likely to be able to get the nuances in other person's communications. Listening, as we all know is as much a visual act as an auditory act. Since we communicate through body language in which muscular and skeletal movements are significant, we need to distinguish between these movements to understand the different meanings.

ii) **Comprehension listening**, also called content listening, informative listening or full listening refers to the full understanding of the communication. In other words, one has to get the content or the information contained in the piece of communication. Full listening takes much more effort than other types as it requires close concentrations for a protracted period. It also requires skills of understanding and summary. The listener seeks to carefully understand the full content that the speaker wishes to put across.

In order to comprehend, one has to have a lexicon of words at the fingertips in addition to having all the rules of grammar and syntax. Since we have already stated that listening is a visual act, an understanding of body language is also necessary to understand the other person's message. Therefore, the listener pauses for summaries. Moreover, at the end of the conversation, both the listener and the speaker agree that the listener has fully understood what was said. In any piece of communication, some words are more important than others. Comprehension listening thus helps extraction of key facts and items.

iii) **Critical listening**, also known as evaluative listening, judgmental listening or interpretative listening or biased listening is listening in order to evaluate and judge, and also forming opinion about what is being said. Judgment which is broad includes assessing both the strengths and weaknesses, as also agreement and disapproval. This form of listening requires significant real-time cognitive effort as the listener analyzes what is being said, relating it to existing knowledge and rules, while simultaneously listening to the ongoing words from the speaker.

In critical listening, we make judgments about what the other person is saying. We seek to assess the truth of what is being said. We also judge what they say against our values assessing them as good or bad, worthy or unworthy. Evaluative listening is particularly pertinent when the other person is trying to persuade us, perhaps to change our behavior and maybe even to change our beliefs. Within this, we also

discriminate between subtleties of language and comprehend the inner meaning of what is said.

Typically also we weigh up the pros and cons of an argument, determining whether it makes sense logically as well as whether it is helpful to us. It happens when the person hears only what they want to hear, typically misinterpreting what the other person says based on the stereotypes and other biases that they have. This type of listening is particularly pertinent when the other person is trying to convince the listener, perhaps to change the behaviour or even beliefs.

iv) **Appreciative listening** or sympathetic or empathetic listening or therapeutic listening is the listening where we seek certain information which will appreciate, for example that which helps meet our needs and goals. We use appreciative listening when we are listening to good music, poetry or maybe even the stirring words of a great leader. In sympathetic listening we care about the other person and show this concern in the way we pay close attention and express our sorrow for their ills and happiness at their joys.

When we listen empathetically, we go beyond sympathy to seek a truer understanding of how others feel. This requires excellent discrimination and close attention to the nuances of emotional signals. When we are being truly empathetic, we actually feel what they are feeling. In order to get others to reveal their thoughts and emotions to us, we also need to demonstrate our empathy in our demeanor towards them, asking sensitively in a way that encourages self-disclosure.

Here, the listener has a purpose of not only empathizing with the speaker but also to use this deep connection in order to help the speaker understand, change or develop in some way. This not only happens when you go to see a therapist but also in many social situations, where friends and family seek to both diagnose problems from listening and also to help the speaker cure themselves, perhaps by some cathartic process. This also happens in work situations, where managers, HR people, trainers and coaches seek to help employees learn and develop.

v) **Dialogic listening** means learning through conversation and an engaged interchange of ideas and information in which we actively seek to learn more about the person and how they think. The word 'dialogue' stems from the Greek meaning 'through words'. Sometimes the most important factor in listening is in order to develop or sustain a relationship. This is why some people talk for hours and listen closely to what each other has to say when the same words from someone else would seem to be rather boring. Dialogic listening is also called *rational* listening.

Conclusion

We are perhaps the only species on the planet to have been gifted with the ability to speak and interact which we do with our fellow beings in our everyday life. When we talk somebody listens and vice versa. That act of communication is, therefore, mutual. We do not, however, listen to everything with the same degree of seriousness and urgency.

Our listening to somebody depends on a number of factors which is why we filter out something but pay careful attention to something else. Some of the more important types of listening are: discriminative, comprehension, critical, appreciative, and dialogic. In fact, the act of listening can be put in this order, starting with the least attentive to the most attentive: passive hearing, active hearing, passive listening and active listening. It is an art one needs to master in order to listen effectively.

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Bilingual Persons with Mild Dementia - Spectrum of Cognitive Linguistic Functions

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Abstract

Cognitive linguistics (CL) refers to the school of linguistics that understands language creation, learning, and usage as best explained by reference to human cognition in general. With increase in age human cognition improves, which can be measured through tasks based on cognitive-linguistics. The tasks include attention and concentration, orientation, memory, organization etc. But these skills reduce their efficiency with advanced age. That is, younger population perform better as compared to older. And a disorder of elderly called dementia is a debilitating condition causing progressive deterioration in cognition, personality and communication skills. If healthy elderly perform less efficient in cognitive linguistic skills, then disordered population will perform still. Hence there is an immediate need to study the cognitive-linguistic performance in healthy elderly as compared to dementia.

The aim of the present study is to qualify the cognitive-linguistic performance in persons with dementia as compared to healthy elderly. Considered for the study were 20 (10 monolingual and 10 bilingual) healthy elderly and age matched persons with dementia. Monolingual persons had Kannada as their mother tongue/ first language and bilinguals had English as their second language. Cognitive linguistic Assessment Protocol (CLAP) (Kamath, 2001, Rajasudhakar, 2005) was administered for both the groups. The performance of healthy elderly as against to dementia is been discussed along with the performance of monolinguals versus bilinguals.

Key words: dementia, bilingualism, language, cognition.

Introduction

Communication is a manifestation of cognition. The linguistic representations for objects are part of long-term lexical memory and must be retrieved and brought to consciousness. Thus, the simple act of object naming requires perception, access to long term memory, association, recognition, lexical retrieval, decision-making, motor planning, and self-monitoring.

The cognitive- linguistic skills may be affected in people with closed head injury, cerebrovascular accidents and in cerebral neuropathogenesis. These deficits emerge as dynamic and pervasive, ranging from subtle to severe. Treatment of cognitive-linguistic deficits is a dynamic process that begins with assessment of patient's information processing skills, their ability for quantifying specific deficits and observation and recording of response behaviours (Ross-Swain, 1992).

Neurogenic communication disorders in adults encompass a variety of specific abnormalities all caused by nervous system pathology. These disorders include Aphasia, Right hemisphere damage, traumatic brain injury, dementia, dysarthria etc. Neurogenic communication disorders are an important consequence of nervous system abnormality. Their features, severity and outcome reflect the location, magnitude and nature of the abnormality. Aim of the present study is to primarily focus on Dementia and its effect.

Dementia

Dementia is the progressive decline in cognitive function due to damage or disease in the body beyond what might be expected from normal aging. Dementia is a non-specific illness syndrome (set of symptoms) in which affected areas of cognition may be memory, attention, language, and problem solving. According to American Psychiatric Association (2000), the clinical feature necessary for diagnosis of dementia are multiple deficits manifested by memory impairment and one or more of the cognitive disturbances such as aphasia, apraxia, agnosia or disturbance in executive functioning. Higher mental functions are affected first in the process. However in the later stages of the condition, affected persons may be disoriented in time (not knowing what day of the week, day of the month, or even what year it is), in place (not knowing where they are), and in person (not knowing who they are or others around them).

The early stage of dementia lasts from two to four years. The symptoms found during this stage include difficulty in handling finances, memory problems, concentration problems, difficulty with complex tasks, forgetting the location of objects and decreased awareness of recent events (Bayles, 1991). The first obvious symptom of dementia is a problem with episodic memory. Working memory also affected early in the progression of the disease, and is manifested by decreased efficiency of encoding and retrieval of information. Individuals have difficulty sustaining attention (Perry, Watson & Hodges, 2000; Backman, Small and Fratiglioni, 2001) and span memory is modestly attenuated in some individuals though not all.

Communicative Impairments in Dementia

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Deepa M.S. and Shyamala K. Chengappa, Ph.D.

Bilingual Persons with Mild Dementia - Spectrum of Cognitive Linguistic Functions

Of growing interest to speech language pathologists and neuropsychologists is the communicative impairment present in individuals with dementia. A consensus exists that persons with mild to moderate dementia show relatively preserved phonologic, syntactic and lexical knowledge while semantic and pragmatic knowledge are markedly impaired (Appell, Kertesz & Fisman, 1982; Bayles, 1982; Emery & Emery, 1983; Murdoch, Chenery, Wilks & Boyle, 1987).

Communication abilities in bilingual demented patients and the pattern of language decline for first language(L1) and second language(L2) L1 and L2 in dementia are issues rarely mentioned in the dementia literature. It is a well known fact that, in persons with dementia, the ability to maintain fluency in more than one language decreases. It is well known, however, the ability to maintain fluency in more than one language decreases with aging (Hyltenstam & Obler, 1989). With advancing age, people may tend to retreat to a single language, regardless of a life-long history of bilingualism. Moreover, older bilinguals may experience increased difficulties handling two languages due to the effects of cross-language interference. These effects in aging bilingual persons can be further exacerbated in those who develop dementia

Behavioral Characteristics of Dementia

The behavioral and cognitive slowing that characterizes normal aging is exaggerated in dementia. Birren and Botwinick (1951) reported an early attempt to document slowing in dementia, in which they showed patients with senile psychosis to be slower in writing than age-matched healthy older persons. Miller (1974) investigated the nature of response slowing in persons with dementia. He showed that the persons with dementia were slower in simple tasks which required participants to move the small objects. The studies which have employed standardized “intelligence test” agree that dementia patients show lower mean IQ scores than groups of age matched control subjects (review by Miller, 1977).

Selective attention within the visual modality has been studied with digit (Lewis & Kupke, 1977) or letter (Talland & Schwad, 1964) cancellation tasks. Using digit cancellation task, Allender and Kasniak (1985) found moderately demented patients to be impaired relative to age and education matched healthy control subjects.

Eslinger and Benton (1983) investigated spatial and nonspatial visual perceptual abilities in a group of 40 older dementia patients (mixed etiology) and an age-matched healthy control subjects. The dementia patients as a group were significantly impaired on both of these tasks.

Stoarandt, Botwinick, Danziger, Berg, and Hughes (1984) found mild Alzheimer’s dementia patients to make significantly more errors than age-matched healthy control subjects on a geometric design copy task. Further it was found that as the disease progressed there were greater number of errors in copying the geometric design.

Beatty et al., in the year 1994 administered a standard neuropsychological tests and individualized measures of patients' skilled behaviours. For patients who remained skilled at games, performance was compared with that of normal controls in direct competition. For the patient-trombonist, raters compared premorbid and postmorbid recordings of his play.

Findings indicate that a broad range of complex cognitive abilities may be preserved in patients with dementia of the Alzheimer type who cannot perform simpler actions.

Ballard, Patel, Oyebode, and Wilcock (1996) assessed 124 patients with different types of dementia with a standardized battery which included the Geriatric Mental State Schedule, the History and Aetiology Schedule, the Secondary Dementia Schedule and the CAMCOG. There were no significant differences in the cognitive abilities between these groups.

Laurin et al., (2001) explored the association between physical activity and the risk of cognitive impairment and dementia. Compared with no exercise, physical activity was associated with lower risks of cognitive impairment, Alzheimer disease, and dementia of any type. Significant trends for increased protection with greater physical activity were observed. High levels of physical activity were associated with reduced risks of cognitive impairment.

Aim of This Study

Present study aimed at assessing cognitive skills in monolingual and bilingual persons with dementia. The study was also interested in looking for performance in bilinguals versus monolinguals.

Method

Sample:

There were 80 participants: 20 persons with diagnosis of mild dementia (10 monolinguals and 10 bilinguals) and 60 healthy elderly (30 monolinguals and 30 bilinguals). The dementia group comprised of persons suffering with mild cognitive impairment as measured by the Mini-Mental Status Examination (MMSE: Folstein et al., 1975).

A diagnosis of probable dementia was made according to DSM IV criteria. Each patient attended a geriatric clinic at National Institute of Mental Health and Neurosciences (NIMHANS) where they underwent thorough medical screening in order to rule out any other treatable pathology that could explain their impairment. This included neuropsychological assessment, laboratory blood testing and Computerized Tomography (CT) scanning of the head. In addition, the following criteria were fulfilled for the participants from dementia group.

- The age range of the participants should be between 65-85 years.
- All participants should have a minimum of 12 years of formal education.
- All of them should have Kannada as their first language (L1).
- English as their second language (L2) was required criteria for bilinguals.
- All the clinical population must be diagnosed by neurologists/ psychiatrists/ neurosurgeon or geriatric specialist.
- At least 12 yrs of formal education.
- Vision and hearing acuity corrected to normal / near normal limits.
- A Score of “1” (mild) should be obtained from Clinical dementia rating scale (Hughes, Berg, Danziger, Coben, & Martin, 1982).

- A score of “3” and above was to be obtained in International Second Language Proficiency Rating Scales by Wylie (2006) to categorize the participants as monolinguals vs. bilinguals.

Healthy elderly participants were not suffering from any neurological or psychological illness likely to impair performance and were not complaining of memory or other cognitive difficulties. A score of 25 and above in MMSE and in “0” Clinical dementia rating was required for healthy elderly group.

Table 1 shows the demographic and neurological details of patient participants. Table 2 shows the mean age, years of education, and handedness of all the participants, and duration of illness for persons with dementia. There were no significant differences in the distribution of males and females ($p > 0.05$). Also the participants in the dementia group exhibited similar cognitive decline despite having different types of dementia.

Table 1. Demographic and neurological details of patient participants.

Sl no.	Age/s ex	CD R score	Monolingual/bilingual	Diagnosis of dementia	Neuroimaging result
1	67/f	1	M	Mild AD	Bilateral medial temporal atrophy
2	72/f	1	M	Mild AD	Diffuse central atrophy
3	69/f	1	M	Mild Frontotemporal	Left fronto-temporal atrophy
4	68/m	1	M	Mild Frontotemporal	Bilateral fronto-temporal lobe atrophy
5	86/f	1	M	Mild AD	Bilateral medial temporal atrophy
6	68/m	1	M	Mild AD	Diffuse brain atrophy
7	66/m	1	M	Mild AD	Bilateral sub-cortical infarcts
8	71/m	1	M	Mild vascular	Multiple cerebral infarcts
9	69/m	1	M	Mild frontotemporal	Left fronto-temporal atrophy
10	75/m	1	M	Mild AD	Bilateral medial temporal atrophy
11	67/f	1	B	Mild AD	Bilateral medial temporal atrophy
12	72/f	1	B	Mild AD	Diffuse central atrophy
13	69/	1	B	Mild	Left fronto-

	f			Frontotemporal	temporal atrophy
14	68/ m	1	B	Mild Frontotemporal	Bilateral fronto- temporal lobe atrophy
15	86/ f	1	B	Mild AD	Bilateral medial temporal atrophy
16	68/ m	1	B	Mild AD	Diffuse brain atrophy
17	66/ m	1	B	Mild AD	Bilateral sub- cortical infarcts
18	71/ m	1	B	Mild vascular	Multiple cerebral infarcts
19	69/ m	1	B	Mild frontotemporal	Left fronto- temporal atrophy
20	75/ m	1	B	Mild AD	Bilateral medial temporal atrophy

(CDR= Clinical dementia rating, m= male, f = female, AD = Alzheimer's dementia, M = monolingual, B = bilingual).

Table 2. Age, years of education, and handedness of all the participants, and duration of illness for persons with dementia

	Healthy elderly N= 60		Participants with dementia N= 20	
	M	SD	M	SD
Age	72.6yrs	6.39792	70.8yrs	6.97296
Years of education	12.8yrs	1.68655	11.9	2.46982
Duration of illness (in months)	--		7.7months	1.82878
Handedness	right		right	

Material:

Included in the study are two test protocols for assessing cognitive linguistic skills in elderly population. These tests include Addenbrooke's Cognitive Examination Revised (ACE-R, Krishnan & Lokesh, 2010) and Cognitive linguistic assessment protocol (CLAP, Kamath, 2001 & Rajasudhakar, 2005). Clinical Dementia Rating scale (Hughes et al., 1985) was used to measure the cognitive status of the participants.

Description of CLAP

CLAP is a test which assesses the cognitive and linguistic abilities in young and elderly. It was developed at All India Institute of Speech and Hearing, Manasagangothri, Mysore, as a part fulfilment of master's degree by Kamath in 2001 which was further modified by Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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Rajasudhakar in 2005. He developed the normative data for young and elder adults. It is the unpublished master dissertation submitted to University of Mysore. This test consists of domains such as attention, perception & discrimination, memory, problem solving and organization.

Procedure:

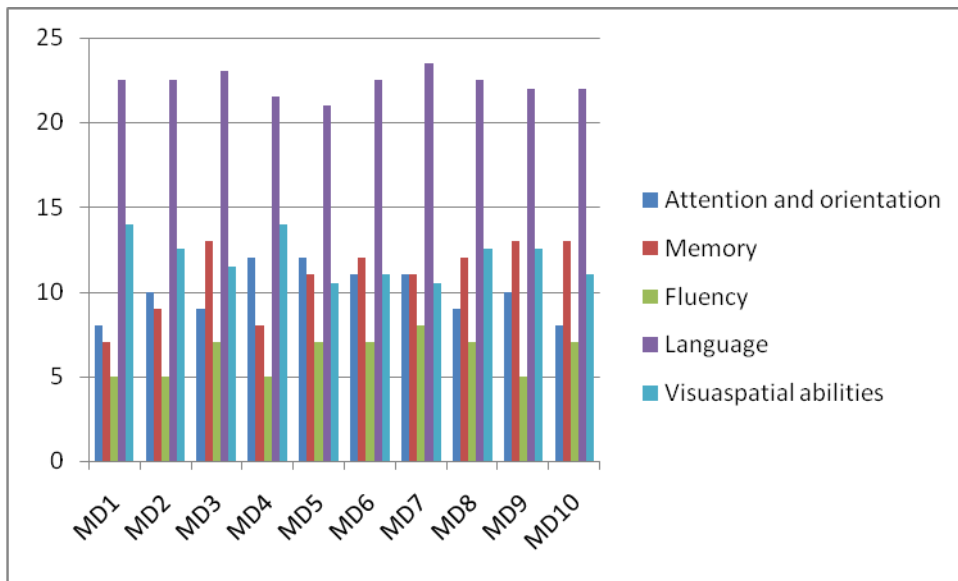
Four groups were considered for the study. Two clinical groups consisting of persons with dementia (10 monolingual and 10 bilingual) focused on mild stage and were recruited from National Institute of Mental Health and Neuroscience, Bangalore, India and Nightingales Medical trust, Bangalore, India. These clinical groups were compared with two groups of 60 healthy elderly (30 monolingual and 30 bilingual) matched for gender, age and education. All patients were subjected to a clinical and radiological (CT or MRI or SPECT). Patients were classified into demented and non-demented groups, according to DSM-IV criteria (APA, 1994).

A non-invasive method was used for the study. All the participants were interviewed and the general history was taken. The participants were made to sit in front of the examiner. Interview was basically questioning and answers type. General history included the demographic details of the participants, education history, language history, medical history & present health status and any other associated problems. Participants were expected to answer how much they are able to. Since the testing would take nearly one and half to two hours, all the participants were provided breaks in between the data collection considering their age. For the clinical group frequent breaks were provided as they were unable to cooperate for long duration. Followed by the general history, a written consent was taken from all the participants regarding the willingness for the participation in the study. Language proficiency was measured using International Second Language Proficiency Rating Scales by Wylie (2006). Based on the scale participants were categorized into monolingual and bilingual i.e., a score of 3 and above shows vocational to native like proficiency for speaking, reading, listening and writing. Hence a cut off score of 3 and above (in both Kannada and English) in all the four categories was used for considering the participants as bilinguals.

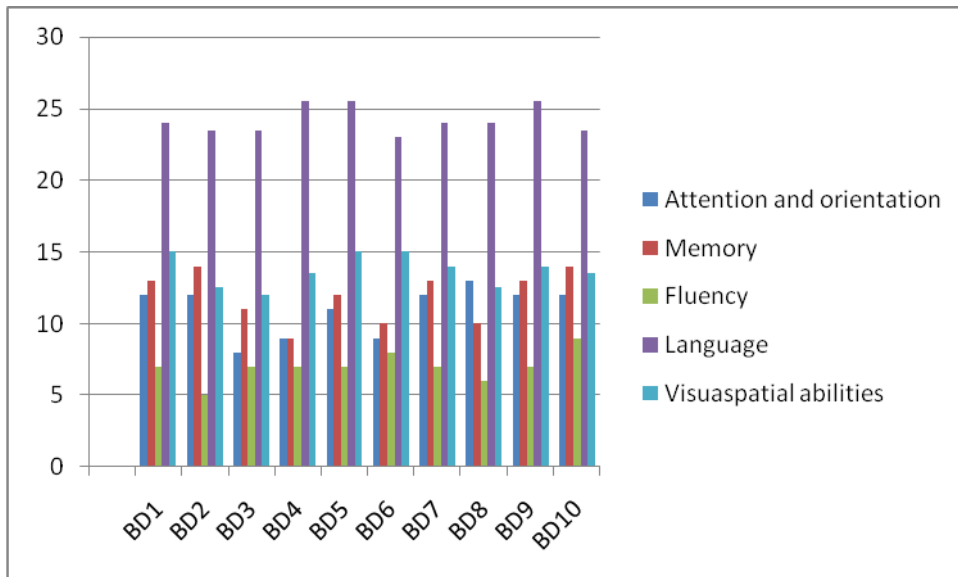
The clinical groups and healthy elderly groups were studied for CLAP.

Results and Discussion

The results of ACE-R for both monolingual and bilingual group of dementia are depicted in graph 1 and graph 2. As it is seen from both the graphs the scores in all the domains of ACE-R were almost similar for individuals within the group (monolingual and bilingual). That is they exhibited similar cognitive decline and hence they were grouped together.



Graph1. : Mean scores of ACE-R for monolingual persons with Dementia



Graph 2: Mean scores of ACE-R for bilingual persons with Dementia

As seen from Table 3, two way MANOVA was administered to see the main effect of group, category and interaction between the two, in APDVAT (Attention, Perception and Discrimination for Visual and Auditory in Total), MEST (and Semantic memory total), PST (Total for Problem solving), ORT (Total for organization) and CLAPT (Cognitive linguistic assessment protocol total). Main effect of group is significant in all five parameters or dependent variables at $p < 0.01$. The effect of category is significant in all dependent variables except PST at 5% level. There was significant interaction between group and category in PST, ORT and CLAPT at $p < 0.05$.

Table 3: Two way MANOVA of group, category and interaction between group and category

	Parameters	F(1,76)	Sig.

Group	APDVAT	327.414	.000
	MEST	88.302	.000
	PST	1004.116	.000
	ORT	589.812	.000
	CLAPT	1020.908	.000
Category	APDVAT	11.210	.001
	MEST	5.987	.017
	PST	1.489	.226
	ORT	45.606	.000
	CLAPT	29.927	.000
Group * Category	APDVAT	.171	.680
	MEST	.071	.790
	PST	57.717	.790
	ORT	6.659	.012
	CLAPT	13.728	.000

(APDVAT = Attention, Perception and Discrimination for Visual and Auditory in Total, MEST = Episodic and Semantic memory total, PST = Total for Problem solving, ORT = Total for organization, CLAPT = Cognitive linguistic assessment protocol total)

Patients with mild dementia were compared with healthy elderly to examine which linguistic function deteriorates first in dementia. Although the actual difference in the mean scores were typically small, many of the differences between mild dementia group and healthy elderly reached statistical significance. Particularly items measuring abstract naming, fluency, understanding of complex structures and verbal amnesia and conceptual processes were impaired in mild dementia. Thus the diffuse language impairment associated with dementia could not be found in healthy aging. CLAP consisted of items of several language dimensions such as attention, perception & discrimination, memory, problem solving and organization and these check for diffuse language disturbances in dementia.

Table 4: Result of ANOVA for monolingual vs. bilingual healthy elderly

	Parameters	F(1,58)	Sig.
Category	APDVAT	15.976	.000
	MEST	4.515	.038
	PST	70.554	.000
	ORT	13.689	.000
	CLAPT	2.624	.111

(APDVAT = Attention, Perception and Discrimination for Visual and Auditory in Total, MEST = Episodic and Semantic memory total, PST = Total for Problem solving, ORT = Total for organization, CLAPT = Cognitive linguistic assessment protocol total)

One way ANOVA was performed to find out the effect of category (monolingual vs bilingual) in normal for APDVAT, MEST, PST, ORT and CLAPT. As seen from table 4 the effect of category was significant for all the dependent variables. There was significant difference for the parameters, APDVAT, MEST, PST, and ORT but except for CLAPT at $p < 0.001$ level.

Table 5: Result of ANOVA for monolingual vs bilingual persons with dementia

	Parameters	F(1,58)	Sig.
Category	APDVAT	2.098	.165
	MEST	2.951	.103
	PST	20.188	.000
	ORT	234.747	.000
	CLAPT	71.138	.000

(APDVAT = Attention, Perception and Discrimination for Visual and Auditory in Total, MEST = Episodic and Semantic memory total, PST = Total for Problem solving, ORT = Total for organization, CLAPT = Cognitive linguistic assessment protocol total)

Table 5 shows the results of ANOVA administered to check for the category effect (monolingual vs. bilingual) in dementia for APDVAT, MEST, PST, ORT and CLAPT. There is significant difference between the category for PST, ORT and CLAPT at $p < 0.001$. But APDVAT and MEST did not show any category effect.

The results from CLAP reveal that overall; bilingual's performance was better compared to that of monolinguals. Linguistic memory is affected from the milder stage of dementia and it worsens as the disease progresses. The findings are in agreement with Morris (1996) and Perry, Watson, & Hodges (2000) who found that the difficulty in focused attention, forgetting the location of objects and the memory problems decreases the working memory capacity.

Organization skills decline from the early stage of the disease. Since individuals face difficulty in working memory, they perform very poor in organization tasks. The decreased sustained attention, leads to the lower performance in them. Organization skills require solving of complex tasks, hence concentration problems found in these individuals hinders their performance. This is agreement with Bayles (1991). Also the behavioral slowing and the fatigue are also common features which attribute to the poor performance.

Table 6: Result of ANOVA for monolingual persons with dementia vs monolingual healthy elderly

	Parameters	F(1,58)	Sig.
Category	APDVAT	97.935	.000
	MEST	38.506	.000
	PST	675.281	.000
	ORT	237.129	.000
	CLAPT	404.661	.000

(APDVAT = Attention, Perception and Discrimination for Visual and Auditory in Total, MEST = Episodic and Semantic memory total, PST = Total for Problem solving, ORT = Total for organization, CLAPT = Cognitive linguistic assessment protocol total)

Table 6 shows the results of ANOVA administered to see the effect of group (normal and dementia) for monolinguals for APDVAT, MEST, PST, ORT and CLAPT. There was highly significant group effect for all the parameters at $p < 0.001$.

Results from CLAP indicate that patient participants were slower and inaccurate in performing attention, perception and discrimination tasks. It is very clear that they exhibit visual-perceptual deficits which can be referred to as visual agnosia in the clinical literature after the observation of clinical patients with dementia (Ernst, Dalby & Dalby, 1970). The incorrect performance in the visual subset of this domain would attribute to the visual recognition problems. Even though the clinical population was provided bigger letters and longer duration, their performance was inaccurate and incorrect. Thus the disease related changes, places these elderly at a perceptual disadvantages.

Problem solving skills were found to be better than other tasks in CLAP. This could be that tasks involved in this domain are easier compared to other domains of the test. Problem solving domain involved fluency of language as the responses for the task. Since fluency of language is preserved till moderate stage of the disease, the scores were better in this domain. However in the later stage even problem solving is equally affected like other domains of the test. A less complete or elaborate mental representation would thus be available to higher cognitive process such as problem solving skills. Beyond a certain point, a mental representation may be so degraded that it no longer activates the appropriate concept.

Table 7: Mann Whitney test results for monolingual persons with dementia vs monolingual healthy elderly

	APDVAT	MEST	PST	ORT	CLAPT
Z	-4.683	-4.589	-4.737	-4.699	-4.692
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

(APDVAT = Attention, Perception and Discrimination for Visual and Auditory in Total, MEST = Episodic and Semantic memory total, PST = Total for Problem solving, ORT = Total for organization, CLAPT = Cognitive linguistic assessment protocol total)

In order to cross check_ the results obtained in table 6, Mann Whitney test was administered between groups and it was found that there exist significantly high group effect for all the dependent variables at $p < 0.001$. And hence the results shown in table 7 did not differ from each other.

Table 8: Result of ANOVA for monolingual persons with dementia vs monolingual healthy elderly.

	Parameters	F(1,58)	Sig.
Category	APDVAT	423.969	.000
	MEST	52.940	.000
	PST	338.486	.000
	ORT	492.796	.000

	CLAPT	929.805	.000
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(APDVAT = Attention, Perception and Discrimination for Visual and Auditory in Total, MEST = Episodic and Semantic memory total, PST = Total for Problem solving, ORT = Total for organization, CLAPT = Cognitive linguistic assessment protocol total)

One way ANOVA was administered to check the effect of group for bilinguals (normal vs dementia) for APDAVT, MEST, PST, ORT and CLAPT. As seen from table 8 there was significant effect of group for all the five parameters at $p < 0.001$.

Table 9: Mann Whitney test results for bilingual persons with dementia vs bilingual healthy elderly.

	APDVAT	MEST	PST	ORT	CLAPT
Z	-4.863	-4.489	-4.780	-4.738	-4.698
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

(APDVAT = Attention, Perception and Discrimination for Visual and Auditory in Total, MEST = Episodic and Semantic memory total, PST = Total for Problem solving, ORT = Total for organization, CLAPT = Cognitive linguistic assessment protocol total)

Although the groups could be differentiated very well, the results were reanalyzed in order to check the effect of dementia. Mann Whitney test was administered between groups and it was found that there exist significantly high group effect for all the dependent variables at $p < 0.001$. As seen from table 9 the results did not differ from each other.

Overall bilinguals performed better as compared to monolinguals in both the tests and across the test domains. Results from the present study shows that bilinguals perform better in all the domains of cognitive linguistic tasks as compared to monolinguals. This might be because that bilingual have two choices to come out with the response. Aging has been associated with increased interference between two languages. Alteration or code switching between languages occurs commonly amongst bilinguals (Skiba, 1997).

Whereas monolinguals have single language in use and hence if they are unable to use a particular word for a context the answer would be nil or no other choice. But bilinguals can code switch and complete that particular task. In the present study, researchers were not interested in studying the performance in a particular language, but performance as a whole in cognitive linguistic task. So the response either from native language (L1) or the second language (L2) was taken as appropriate. Hence bilinguals performed better as compared to monolinguals. This was true for the normal group because normal aging also shows up decline in the language abilities (Craik & Bialystok, 2006).

The result differentiates the healthy elderly from the demented patients. The greatest diagnostic value is laid on tasks measuring grammatical structures, abstract phrases, fluency and verbal memory. Impairment in these language abilities can be interpreted to a great extent to be caused by intellectual and amnesic disorder.

Conclusion

Language impairment was assessed in 20 (10 monolingual and 10 bilingual) patients with mild dementia and 60 healthy elderly (30 monolingual and 30 bilingual). The investigation included the Cognitive linguistic assessment protocol (Rajasudhakar, 2005). Statistical analysis with multivariate procedures used in this study indicated that the language functions in healthy elderly could be distinguished from the changes in mild dementia. The deterioration in cognitive linguistic functions found in mild dementia can be attributed to a great extent to general intellectual impairment and to memory disorders on the basis of the task complexity. The basic language functions seemed to preserve quite intact in mild dementia. However, the actual differences in mean scores were typically small which leaves the clinical significance of the results open to further investigation.

The most interesting results in this study concern the differentiation between monolingual and bilingual dementia. Clear differences could not be found in all the parameters besides the general cognitive linguistic impairment in both.

Degenerative changes in central nervous system seem to affect especially the complex forms of language without disturbances in the symbolic aspects of language and the disorders lie primarily in the cognitive aspects of language.

Bilinguals performed better as compared to the monolinguals in both the tests and across the cognitive domains of the tests. Bilinguals had an advantage of two choices to come out with the response unlike monolinguals, who had single language choice.

The study enlightens the clinicians working with elderly in various clinical set-ups. Age associated changes in sensory processes necessitate that modifications in illumination, size of the visual stimuli, and complexity of visual presentation be considered when working with the older adult. Reduction in attention capacity with aging implies that task complexity be carefully considered in clinical interactions with older individuals.

Deficits in perception and attention in persons with dementia must be taken into account in any attempt to assess other aspects of cognition and communication. Longitudinal studies in this domain will enlighten the nature of deficits in these individuals. Since the study considered very few persons with dementia, studies with larger group of individuals will strengthen the generalization of the findings.

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How does Washback Work on the EFL Syllabus and Curriculum? A Case Study at the HSC Level in Bangladesh

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Abstract

The way in which public examinations influence teaching and learning is commonly known as "washback" or backwash. The washback effect, or the influence of testing on the syllabus and curriculum, appears in any classroom situation. Washback influences the treatment of syllabus and curriculum, and this influence on teachers' teaching attitudes is quite superficial. The washback influences teachers about what to teach, and how to teach. The purpose of this study was to investigate the washback effects on the syllabus and curriculum at the Higher Secondary Certificate (HSC) level in Bangladesh. The study tried to examine the relationship between the curriculum and the textbooks, and the relationship between the curriculum and the HSC public examination.

The target population was higher secondary students and teachers. Data were collected through questionnaires. Findings indicate that the public examination associated with educational reform has an influence on teachers' curricular planning and instruction. It is found that the teachers often have a tendency to "teach to the test"; students are willing to focus only on those subjects and skills that are going to appear in the examination. The study also discovers that the students do not cover the syllabus of the HSC due to test pressure. The study explores that the

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M. Maniruzzaman, M.A., M. Phil., Ph.D. and M. Enamul Hoque, M.A., M. Phil., Ph.D.

How does Washback Work on the EFL Syllabus and Curriculum?

A Case Study at the HSC Level in Bangladesh

maximum teachers are not aware of the objectives of the English syllabus and curriculum, and they largely depend on the ‘hidden syllabus’ published by unauthorized external sources. The investigation discloses teachers’ lack of knowledge about how to change their teaching methods to align with the curriculum objectives; therefore, the test exerts negative washback on teaching and learning.

Finally, on the basis of current understandings of washback, some suggestions and recommendations are put forwarded. However, the results of the study seem to indicate that only if the student studies towards the examination, the intended qualitative learning will hardly occur, especially, in the period of examination preparation.

1. Introduction

Washback, a term commonly used in applied linguistics, refers to the influence of language testing on teaching and learning. The way in which public examinations influence teaching and learning is commonly described as washback or backwash. Tests are assumed to be powerful determiners of what happens in classrooms, and it is commonly claimed that tests affect teaching and learning activities both directly and indirectly. It has long been affirmed that tests exert a powerful influence on language learners who are preparing to take these exams, and on the teachers who try to help them prepare.

The first washback study was conducted by Kellaghan et al. (1982), then Wesdorp (1982) and Hughes (1988). It should be pointed out that the former was a general education study and not specific to language education. In their ensuing discussion, it is clear that evidence of either beneficial or harmful was often tenuous remaining unproven or, at best, inconclusive. For example, to take the Kellaghan et al. (1982) study looked at the impact of introducing standardised tests in Irish Schools as a case in point. Afterwards, Washback on learners was a topic seldom discussed in 1990s, and has gotten more attention from the researchers since the 21st century. The Sri Lankan impact study conducted by Wall & Alderson (1993) is often cited as a landmark study in the investigation of washback. It may be mentioned that, the present study is the pioneer research work conducted in Bangladesh on this particular pedagogical field.

Washback affects various aspects of teaching and learning: stakeholders, syllabus and curriculum, materials, teaching methods, testing and mediating factors, learning outcomes, feelings, attitudes, and learning, etc. Existing washback models and hypotheses contend that tests alone or at least for the most part trigger the perceived washback effects, but empirical studies show that both testing and mediating factors play essential roles involved in the mechanism of washback effects. Biggs (1995) uses the term ‘backwash’ to refer to the fact that testing drives not only the curriculum, but teaching methods and students’ approaches to learning (P.12).

Teacher perceptions of communicative language teaching are in many ways influenced by the existence of a ‘hidden syllabus’ (test papers, suggestions, model questions, etc.). Within the Bangladesh context, this hidden syllabus is undoubtedly shaped by the content of English

examinations. Johnson (1989) argues that, if a syllabus is to have credibility, then subsequent test items must be related to the content of that syllabus, and that ‘item types in examinations need to be selected and constructed with this ‘washback’ effect in mind’ (P. 6). Unfortunately, the HSC examinations in Bangladesh are still grammar orientated; somewhat, contradicting the syllabus aims of the National Curriculum and Textbook Board (NCTB).

The various influences of tests are often referred to as washback (or backwash). Washback is the power of examinations over what takes place in the classroom. Numerous explanations of the term ‘washback’ can be found throughout the published research and literature on language testing. Shih (2009) generated a new washback model of students' learning, as illustrated in Figure 1. This model includes extrinsic, intrinsic, and test factors to help depict the complexity of learning washback.

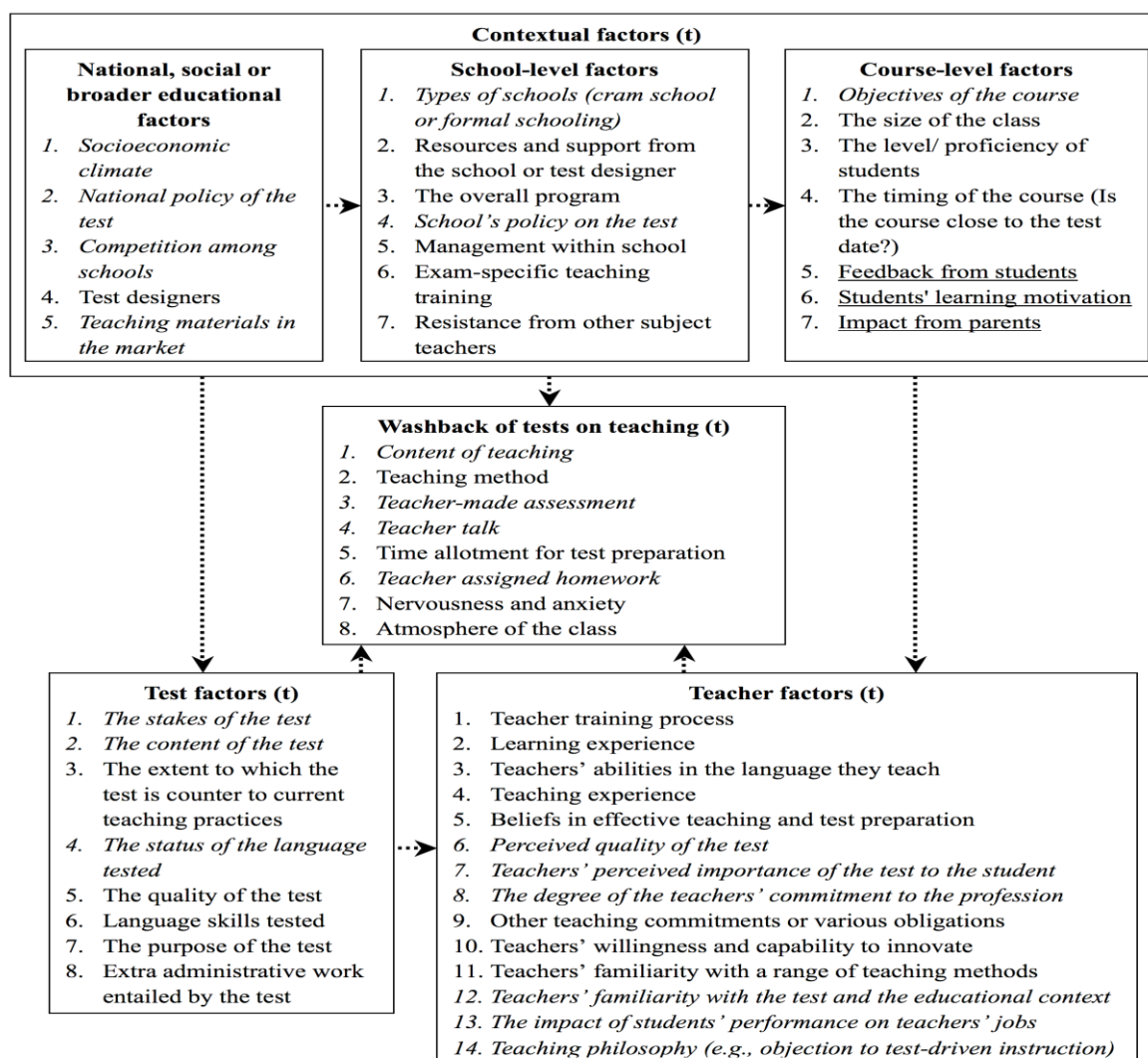


Figure: 1 Shih, Model of Washback (2009)

It is common to claim the existence of washback (the impact of a test on teaching) and to declare that tests can be powerful determiners, both positively and negatively, of what happens in classrooms. One of its key characteristics is the careful observation of teacher behavior. Swain succinctly states the prevailing opinion: Swain (1985) says "It has frequently been noted that teachers will teach to a test: that is, if they know the content of a test and/or the format of a test, they will teach their students accordingly" (p. 43).

It is generally accepted that public examinations influence the attitudes, behavior, and motivation of teachers, learners and parents... (Pearson, 1988, p. 98). Tests are often perceived as exerting a conservative force which impedes progress. Andrews and Fullilove point out, "Not only have many tests failed to change, but they have continued to exert a powerful negative washback effect on teaching" (Andrews and Fullilove, 1994, p. 57). Heyneman (1987) has commented that teachers teach to an examination. Pierce (1992) states "the washback effect, sometimes referred to as the systemic validity of a test (p.687). Cohen (1994) describes washback in terms of" how assessment instruments affect educational practices and beliefs" (p. 41).

The problem is that while washback is widely perceived to exist, there is little data to confirm or deny these perceptions. This is neatly summarized by Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996) in the rationale for their study of TOEFL preparation classes in the United States: "Much has been written about the influence of testing on teaching; however, little empirical evidence is available to support the assertions of either positive or negative washback" (p. 281).

Andrews (1994) concurs: "Although a great deal has been said and written about washback, there is in fact relatively little empirical evidence for its existence" (p. 44). Similarly, Shohamy (1993) acknowledges that "while the connection between testing and learning is commonly made, it is not known whether it really exists and, if it does, what the nature of its effect is"(p.4). Brown (2000) defines washback as "the connection between testing and learning" (p.298). Gates (1995) defines washback simply as "the influence of testing on teaching and learning" (p.101). Bachman and Palmer (1996) have discussed washback as a subset of a test's impact on society, educational systems, and individuals (p. 29-35). Alderson and Wall (1993) Washback refer washback as the way that tests are (...) perceived to influence classroom practices, and syllabus and curriculum planning (p.17)

The definition stresses the impact of a test on what teachers and students do in classrooms. This influence of the test on the classroom (referred to as washback by language testers) is, of course, very important; this washback effect can be either beneficial or harmful. Washback is the extent to which the test influences language teachers and learners to do things that they would not necessarily otherwise do (Messick, 1996, p. 243). The influence of testing on teaching and learning is referred washback (Bailey, 1996, p. 259). Shohamy (1993) summarized four key definitions that are useful in understanding the washback concept:

1. Washback effect refers to the impact that tests have on teaching and learning.
2. Measurement driven instruction refers to the notion that tests should drive learning.
3. Curriculum alignment focuses on the connection between testing and the teaching syllabus.
4. Systemic validity implies the integration of tests into the educational system and the need to demonstrate that the introduction of a new test can improve learning (p.4)

Andrews (1994) sees washback as "an influence on teachers, learners, and parents, with an associated impact on what happens in classrooms"(p.45) Washback sometimes referred to as backwash. Hughes (1989) states "the effect of testing on teaching and learning is known as backwash" (and this term, as he uses it, is synonymous to washback) (p.1). Alderson & Wall (1993) suggest washback compels "teachers and learners to do things they would not necessarily otherwise do because of the test" (p.1).

Bailey (1996) states, "washback is the influence of testing on teaching and learning" (p.5). Shohamy, et al. (1996) Washback is delineated as "the connections between testing and learning" (p.6). Pearson (1988) states "Public examinations influence the attitudes, behaviours, and motivation of teachers, learners, and parents, and because examinations often come at the end of a course, this influence is seen working in a backward direction, hence the term, washback" (p.7). Cheng (2005) concurs that washback indicates "an intended or unintended (accidental) direction and function of curriculum change on aspects of teaching and learning by means of a change of public examinations" (p.112).

1.1 Types of Washback

Generally, washback can be analysed according to two major types: **positive and negative**, depending on whether it has a beneficial or harmful impact on educational practices. For example, a test may encourage students to study more or may promote a connection between standards and instruction. Washback from tests can involve individual teachers and students as well as whole classes and programs. Bachman and Palmer (2000) termed washback as: **macro contexts**, and **micro contexts**. The **micro level**, the effect of the test on individual students and teachers; and the **macro level**, the impact the test may have on society and the educational system.

Some kinds of washback result from the effects of a test on the language learners themselves, while other kinds of washback are more closely related to effects of a test on personnel involved in language teaching (including influences on teachers, administrators, course designers, and materials developers ultimately influencing courses, programs and materials). Bailey (1996) called two sorts of washback: **learner washback** and **program washback**, respectively. This idea overlaps, to some extent, Bachman and Palmer's **micro** and **macro levels**

of washback, although they included the influences on individual teachers under the micro category.

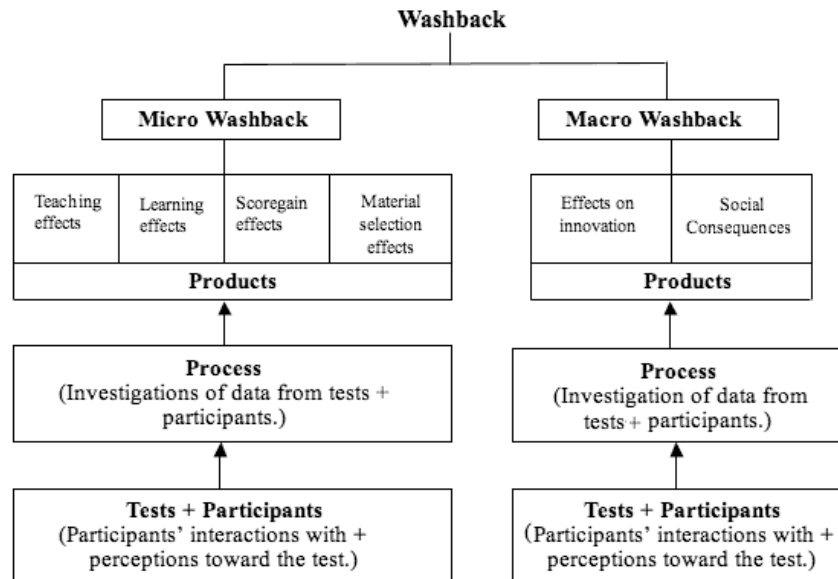


Figure: 2 Based on ideas of Hughes (1993), Bachman and Palmer (1996)

1.1.1 Positive Washback

Positive washback is said to result when a testing procedure encourages ‘good’ teaching practice. For example, an oral proficiency test is introduced in the expectation that it will promote the teaching of speaking skills. Positive washback would result when the testing procedure reflects the skills and abilities that are taught in the course, as, for instance, with the use of an oral interview for a final examination in a course in conversational language use.” Therefore, when there is a match between the activities used in learning the language and the activities involved in preparing for the test, we say that our test has positive washback. The following figure shows how a washback works on syllabus and curriculum.

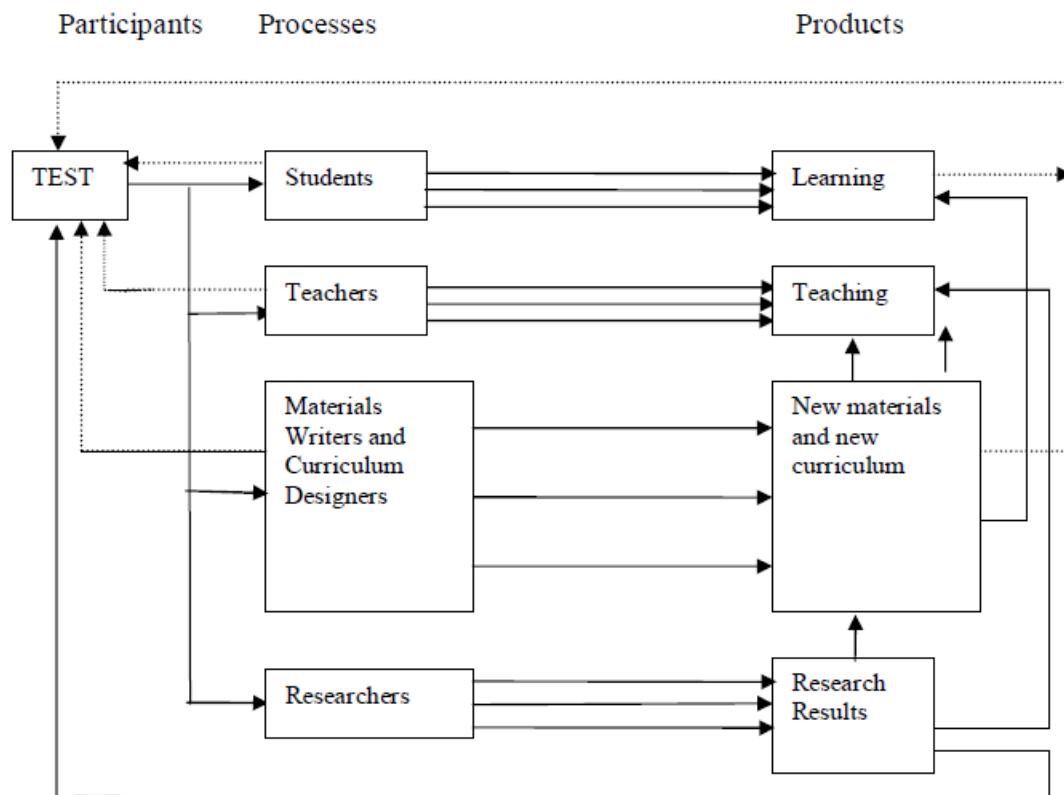


Figure: 3 Basic Model of Washback by Shohamy (2005)

We can use this positive washback to influence the language syllabus and curriculum. As Davis (1990) mentions, washback is inevitable and it is foolish to pretend that washback does not happen. Therefore, in order to prepare students for the examination, the communicative way of teaching will be adopted in our classes and this positive washback helps us change the curriculum the way we want. Positive washback can be summarised as below:

- Teachers and learners will be motivated to fulfill their teaching and learning goals (Anderson & Wall, 1993).
- Positive washback takes place when tests induce teachers to cover their subjects more thoroughly, making them complete their syllabi within the prescribed time limits
- Good tests can be utilized and designed as beneficial teaching-learning activities so as to encourage a positive teaching-learning process (Pearson, 1988).
- A creative and innovative test can quite advantageously result in a syllabus alteration or a new syllabus (Davis, 1990).

- Examination achieves the goals of teaching and learning, such as the introduction of new textbooks and new curricula (Cheng; 2005).
- Tests induce teachers to cover their subjects more thoroughly, making them complete their syllabi within the prescribed time limits.
- Tests motivate students to work harder to have a sense of accomplishment and thus enhance learning.
- Good tests can be utilized and designed as beneficial teaching learning activities so as to encourage positive teaching-learning processes.
- Decision makers use the authority power of high-stakes testing to achieve the goals of teaching and learning, such as the introduction of new textbooks and new curricula.

1.1.2. Negative Washback

Negative washback is said to occur when a test's content or format is based on a narrow definition of language ability, and so constrains the teaching/learning context. If, for example, the skill of writing is tested only by multiple choice items then there is great pressure to practice such items rather than to practice the skill of writing itself. As Brown (2002) states "Washback becomes negative washback when there is a mismatch...between the content (e.g., the material/abilities being taught) and the test".

Sometimes, the objectives and contents of the test do not appeal to students and teachers. For example, some students like and need to learn English communicatively, but the test they have to undergo is discrete-point. Actually, much teaching is always directed towards testing and much time of the class is spent on materials that appear in the test. Both positive and negative washback work at both level: micro-level (classroom settings), and at macro-level (educational and societal system). Some of the reasons as well as the outcomes of the negative washback are illustrated below.

- Test comes to dominate classroom work.
- There is no correlation between test objectives and curriculum objectives.
- Teachers teach one thing and the test then concentrates on another one,
- Teachers tend to ignore subjects and activities that are not directly related to passing the exam, and tests accordingly alter the curriculum in a negative way.

- Students may not be able to learn real-life knowledge, but instead learn discrete points of knowledge that are tested.
- Tests bring anxiety both to teachers and students and distort their performance.
- Teachers tend to ignore subjects and activities that are not directly related to passing the exam, and tests accordingly alter the curriculum in a negative way.
- The tests fail to create a correspondence between the learning principles and/or the course objectives.
- An increasing number of paid coaching classes are set up to prepare students for exams, but what students learn are test-taking skills rather than language learning activities.
- Test narrow down the curriculum, and put attention to those skills that are most relevant to testing.
- Decision makers overwhelmingly use tests to promote their political agendas and to seize influence and control of educational systems.

1.1.3 Washback on the Stakeholders and the Teaching Areas

As mentioned, washback affects various aspects of teaching and learning, such as **stakeholders, syllabus and curriculum, materials, teaching methods, testing and mediating factors, learning outcomes, feelings, attitudes, and learning**, etc. Tests have impact on the lives of test takers, classrooms, school systems and even whole societies (Hamp-Lyons, 1998).

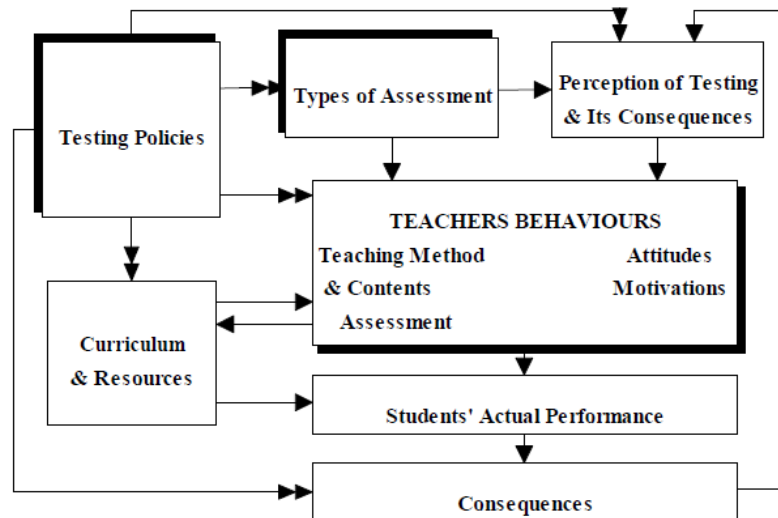


Figure: 4 Test Washback effects on teachers (Phuong-Nga Nguyen et. al, 2008)

Wall & Alderson (1993) put forward the 15 hypotheses, highlighting more specifically some of the ways in which a test might affect teaching and learning. The five of the hypotheses relate to washback to the learners, and six relate to washback to the programme. The following are the hypotheses that relate to syllabus, curriculum, and teaching contents:

- (3) A test will influence what teachers teach; and
- (5) A test will influence what learners learn; and
- (7) A test will influence the rate and sequence of teaching (P); and
- (11) A test will influence attitudes to the content, method, etc. of teaching and learning. (ibid)

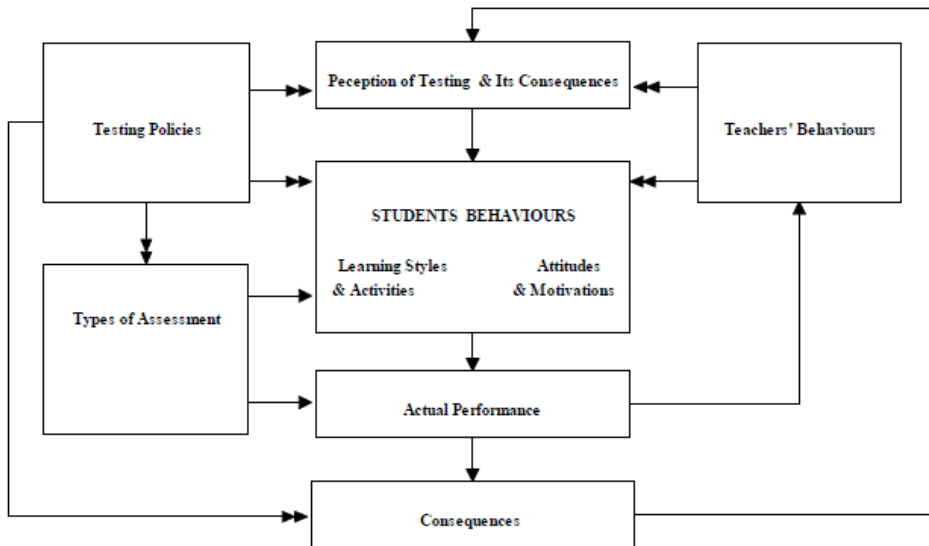


Figure: 5 Test Washback effect on students (Phuong-Nga Nguyen et. al, 2008)

The Washback Hypothesis seems to assume that teachers and learners do things they would not necessarily otherwise do because of the test. Additionally, in order to study the washback effect, it is necessary to look at the people that participate in the educational process, to the actual classroom events and activities, and to the outcomes of these processes. Based on the various researches throughout the world, washback hypotheses may be summarised as:

1. Tests can affect curriculum and learning,
2. Tests can provide feedback on learning,
3. Tests can help implement content and performance standards,
4. Tests can influence the methodology that teachers use,
5. Tests can motivate teachers and students,
6. Tests can orient students as to what is important to learn,
7. Tests can help orient needed teacher training,
8. Tests can help implement articulation,
9. Tests can help implement educational reform,

Taylor et al. (2000) offers a detailed conceptualisation in order to illustrate the wider societal effects of a test, building upon a washback model proposed by Rea-Dickins (1997) identified stakeholders categories as:

- | | | | |
|---|--------------|----|---|
| 1 | learners | 8 | government and official bodies, and the marketplace |
| 2 | teachers | 9 | professional bodies |
| 3 | parents | 10 | Consultant |
| 4 | test writers | 11 | Care-givers |
| 5 | examiners | 12 | Administrators |
| 6 | school owner | | test center |

Testing tends to induce consequences for its stakeholders. It is well known in the field of education that there is a set of relationships, intended and unintended, positive and negative, between testing, teaching and learning. Impact refers to the effects that a test may have on individuals, policies or practices, within the classroom, the school, the educational system or society as a whole.

1. 2 Literature Review

Alderson and Wall concluded from their Sri Lanka study that the examination has had a demonstrable effect on the content of language lessons (1993). This effect was that of the narrowing of the curriculum to those areas most likely to be tested. This finding is similar to that of Lam (1994) who reported an emphasis in teaching on those parts of the exam carrying the most marks.

Likewise, Cheng (1997) noted that the content of teaching had changed after the introduction of the revised exam, reading aloud being replaced by role play and discussion activities, for example, reflecting the new exam content. However, Shohamy et al.'s 1996 study shows a slightly different picture. They report that the Arabic exam had little effect on the content of teaching whereas the EFL exam did. Watanabe's findings are different again. He speaks of teachers not necessarily teaching listening or writing even though the exam contained these skills (Watanabe, 1996). The findings of Read and Hayes (2003) are quite detailed and show variations in washback on the curriculum depending on the course observed.

Lam (1994) finds that more curriculum time is given to exam classes, though Shohamy et al.'s study suggests that this is true only in the case of exams viewed as high stakes. Alderson and Hamp Lyons (1996) note in their study that while extra time is given to TOEFL classes in some institutions this is not the case in others. Read and Hayes' study (2003) also notes that time allocation may be greater or Mary Spratt lesser depending on the school. They point out too how much of a consideration time is for teachers, with teachers observed remarking that considerations of time available affected their choice of methodology. Alderson and Hamp Lyons also raise the consideration of class size, pointing out that in the situation they

investigated there were many more students in the exam classes than in the 'regular' classes. The findings from the studies about washback onto the curriculum indicate that it operates in different ways in different situations, and that in some situations it may not operate at all.

Read and Hayes (2003), in their New Zealand study, confirm as Cheng (1997) finds in Hong Kong: 'By the time the examination syllabus affected teaching in Hong Kong secondary schools . . . nearly every school had changed their textbooks for the students' (p.50). Shohamy et al.'s findings are somewhat different to Cheng's. They find that in relation to the EFL exam 'ample new material has been published and marketed since the announcement of the test changes became public' (1996: 309).

Read and Hayes (2003) confirm this in their New Zealand study, as does Cheng (1997: 50) in Hong Kong: 'By the time the examination syllabus affected teaching in Hong Kong secondary schools . . . nearly every school had changed their textbooks for the students'. Shohamy et al.'s findings are somewhat different to Cheng's. They find that in relation to the EFL exam 'ample new material has been published and marketed since the announcement of the test changes became public' (1996, P. 309). Tests sometimes are used by schools or school administrations as a "lever" to introduce the innovation of new curricula, but it may change the format of what teachers instruct, not foster an in-depth change of teaching methodologies as a whole.

Shohamy, Donitsa-Schmidt, and Ferman (1996) report on the stability of the washback effect over time as they investigated two national exams that had been implemented in Israel in the late 1980's. One was a high-stakes test of English as a foreign language (EFL) and the other was a low-stakes examination of Arabic as a second language (ASL). Following Madaus (1990), Shohamy et al. (1996) defines a high-stakes test as one used in a context in which decisions about "admission, promotion, placement or graduation are directly dependent on test scores" (p. 300), while low-stakes exams do not entail these significant decisions.

The notion of high-stakes and low-stakes exams is reflected in Alderson and Wall's (1993) breakdown of the washback hypothesis: "Tests that have important consequences will have washback; and conversely, tests that do not have important consequences will have no washback" (pp. 120-121).

As Hughes (1993) has pointed out, the key question about the products of washback is whether or not it leads to learning (in our case, language learning). Shohamy et al. (1996) asked their student respondents whether and how the ASL test and the EFL test had promoted learning. With regard to the high-stakes EFL test, 68% of the students believed that the test promoted learning (from a large to a very large degree) and 92% said that the goal of the test was to promote learning. But in terms of the EFL test's impact on their own language learning, 46% believed that it had little or no impact while only 34% of the student respondents reported that "their command of English is affected to a large extent" (ibid., p. 312) by the test. In terms of the low-stakes ASL test's impact on learning,

Shohamy et al. (1996, p. 306) say only that "both teachers and students express negative feelings toward the test and complain that the test is of nom importance and not essential in all course levels." An important issue that has not been investigated here is the extent to which the students' views are independent of or influenced by their teachers' views. Do teachers voice their opinions of tests to students, and if so, how are students influenced by their teachers' ideas?

Cheng (1997) reports on a study of language testing washback that she conducted at the time of a change in a major public examination: the Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination (HKCEE). Her data included questionnaire responses from 42 students. The students' data revealed that they thought the HKCEE played "a 30% role in their learning," followed by the influence of future jobs, their parents' concerns, and competition with their classmates (ibid., p. 47). Thus the students' perception is that the exam is the single greatest factor influencing their English progress.

1.3 Washback on the Syllabus and Curriculum

Test contents can have a very direct washback effect upon teaching curricula. Tests can affect curriculum and learning (Alderson & Wall, 1993). Shohamy et al. defined curriculum alignment as "the curriculum is modified according to test results" (1996, P.6). A curriculum is a vital part of TEFL classes. It provides a focus for the class and sets goals for the students throughout their study. A curriculum also gives the student a guide and idea to what they will learn, and how they have progressed when the course is over. Washback has deep relation with the syllabus and curriculum. The test leads to the narrowing of contents in the curriculum.

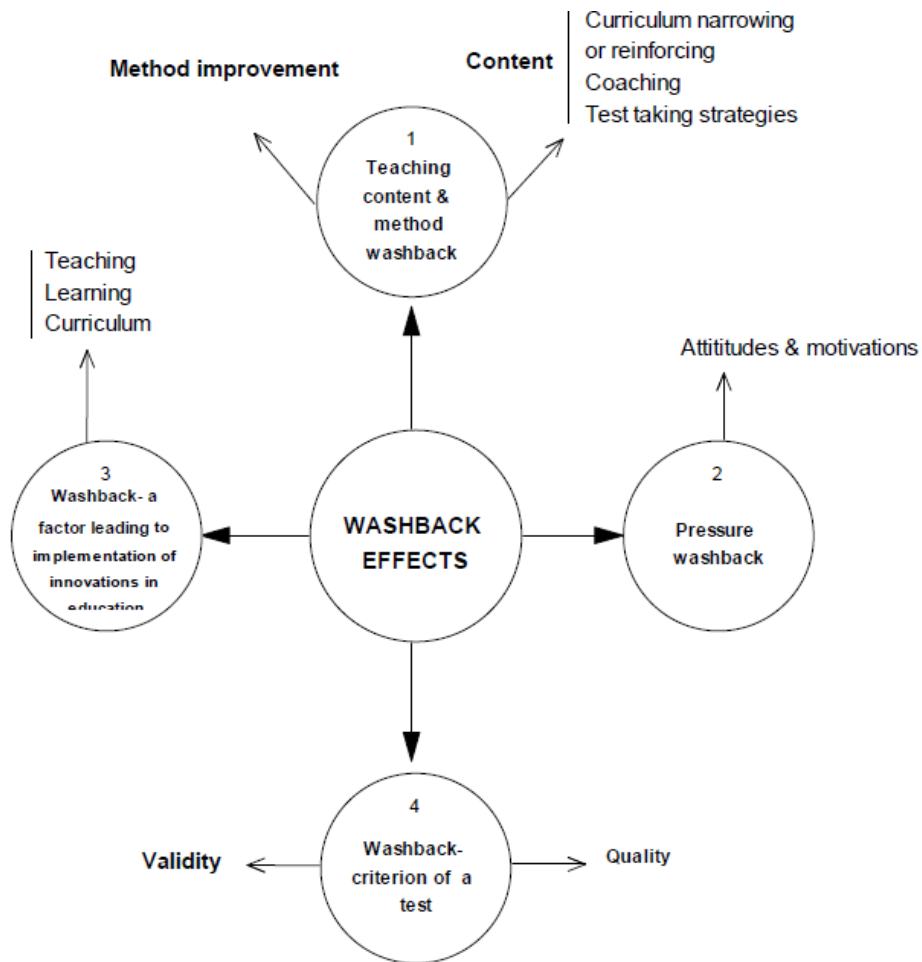


Figure: 6 Concepts of Washback Effects on the syllabus and Curriculum (based on the model of Nguyen et. al, 2008)

Alderson and Wall (1993) concluded from their Sri Lanka study that ‘the examination has had a demonstrable effect on the content of language lessons’ (p, 126-27). Lam (1994) finds that more curriculum time is given to exam classes, though Shohamy et al.’s study suggests that this is true only in the case of exams viewed as high stakes. Alderson and Hamp Lyons (1996) note in their study that while extra time is given to TOEFL classes in some institutions this is not the case in others. Higher Secondary Learners in Bangladesh follow a ‘hidden’ syllabus, that is, the contents driven by the contents of EFL examination.

A Summary of Test Effects and the Possible Factors for their Occurrence

Aspects of washback	Participants	Process (test and mediating factors)	Products
Teaching	1. teachers 2. students	1. teachers' awareness and perception of the test (e.g. the status and stakes of the test) 2. teachers' educational backgrounds, beliefs and experience 3. test format and content	1. syllabus design 2. methods of teaching (degree, if any, of change) 3. contents of teaching 4. classroom activities or time arrangement 5. instructional materials 6. classroom assessment in accordance with the format and content of the test 7. teaching to the test 8. different teachers react differently to test
Learning	1. teachers 2. students	1. students' awareness of the importance of the test (e.g. the status and stakes of the test) 2. students' experiences with tests 3. students' thoughts influenced by teachers 4. students' motivations, learning strategies and personalities 5. test format and content	1. promote learning 2. little change on their learning 3. not motivated to learn
Materials	1. teachers 2. material writers	1. teachers' needs resulting from unfamiliarity with the tests 2. test format and content 3. the purpose of test use	1. reliance on test-related materials 2. boom of test-related materials 3. influence on the design of curricula 4. encouragement of additional materials from a variety of sources
Learning outcomes	1. teachers 2. students	1. preparatory classes 2. initial proficiency 3. personality 4. motivation 5. learning strategies	1. score gains 2. not much gain on scores 3. no score gain

Table: 1 Washback on syllabus and Curriculum, and other areas (based on Andrew, 2004)

In Bangladesh, English education at the HSC level is mandatory. The National Curriculum and Textbook Board (NCTB) compiles and develops the syllabus and curriculum, publishes textbooks and teaching materials for nationwide HSC students. The revised curriculum was introduced in 2000, following by the issuance of the new textbooks in 2001. The revised curriculum places an emphasis on promoting students' communicative competence. The students sit for the HSC public examination after two years' studying of the syllabus.

1.3.1 The EFL Syllabus and Curriculum at the HSC Level

The National Curriculum and Textbook Board (NCTB) claims that the syllabus and curriculum at the HSC level follows the communicative approach to teaching and learning English in Bangladesh situations. The NCTB assures that the materials have been designed and developed in such a manner that, it can ensure practice in four basic language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. As a result, classes are expected to be interactive with students actively participating in the classroom activities through pair work, group work as well as individual work.

The “English for Today” for Classes 11-12 is to provide ample opportunities for students to use English for a variety of purposes in interesting situations. However, the emphasis in such cases is not just on content but on the exploitation of the texts to trigger a variety of language activities. The emphasis on the communicative approach, however, does not disregard the role of grammar. Instead of treating grammar as a set of rules to be memorised in isolation, the syllabus has integrated grammar items into the lesson activities allowing grammar to assume a more meaningful role in the learning of English. Thus, students will develop their language skills by practicing language activities, and not merely by knowing the rules of the language.

The higher secondary English subject consist of two papers carrying 200 marks, 100 marks for each paper: 1st paper, and the 2nd paper. The English syllabus contains 14 units comprising 112 lessons. In keeping with the communicative language teaching (CLT) principles, the book includes topics of both national and global context, appropriate and interesting to the learners thematically, culturally and linguistically. Adequate grammar contents have also been integrated with language skills, so that the elements taught and learned in situations can easily be related to real life situation not just to be memorised as discrete items.

It is expected that if used properly, the present syllabus will facilitate learning English through various enjoyable skill practice activities.

It also claims to provide learners with a variety of materials, such as reading texts, dialogues, pictures, diagrams, tasks and activities; learners can practise language skills using these materials. They can actively participate in pairs, group or individual work. The book also includes a wide range of topics from both national and global contexts. It is expected that the new textbook will be an effective resource for the learning of English at the HSC level.

It is hoped that the topics are appropriate and interesting to the learners thematically, culturally and linguistically. Adequate grammar elements are also integrated with language skills, so that learners can transfer the elements in the real life situations. This opposes the memorisation of discrete grammar items. It is hoped that the present textbook, containing the syllabus contents, will meet the actual needs of the students and the teachers, and eventually, it will accelerate effective communicative teaching and learning of English language at the level HSC in Bangladesh.

This syllabus aims to provide clear comprehensive guideline for teachers, students and all those who are concerned with the teaching and learning of English in classes 11-12. In itself, however, a syllabus cannot ensure that communicative language teaching and learning takes place in the classroom. It can only provide a set of criteria which, if properly implemented, would give the best possible change for that to happen.

The contents of the EFL Examination at the HSC level are: seen comprehension, unseen comprehension, vocabulary, guided writing (producing sentences from substitution tables, reordering sentences, and answering questions paragraph). Despite claiming the present syllabus as ‘communicative’, it is clearly observed that, there not sufficient opportunities for practicing the two important skills: listening, and speaking. Even testing of listening and speaking are totally ignored in the public examination. The EFL examination only assesses the reading comprehension and learners’ vocabulary. Therefore, the EFL testing does not match the curriculum objectives.

Distribution of Marks

Paper I: Total Marks = 100

(a) Seen comprehension: -----	40 marks
Objective questions:	20
More free/open questions:	20
(b) Vocabulary: -----	20 marks
*Cloze test with clues:	10
Cloze test without clues:	10
(c) Guided writing: -----	<u>40 marks</u>
	100 marks

Paper II: Total Marks = 100

(a) Unseen comprehension: -----	40 marks
Objective questions:	20
More free/open questions:	20
(b) Grammar: -----	20 marks
*Cloze test with clues:	10
Cloze test without clues:	10
(c) Semi-guided to free writing: -----	<u>40 marks</u>
	100 marks

2. Methodology of the Study

2.1 Sampling

The present study followed the random sampling while selecting respondents. Morris (1996) suggests that the advantage of random sampling is that, it is easy to apply when a big

population is involved. Robert (1997) opines that random sampling is inexpensive and less troublesome. Agresti (1999) suggests that sample must be large to give a good representation. Two types of samples are used for the present study: students, and teachers.

2.2. Instrumentation

In the present study, the questionnaires were used to elicit information from the respondents. The 12 item questionnaires were constructed on the syllabus and curriculum domain. The researchers developed the questionnaires following the model of Liying Cheng (2005), Chen (2002), and Shohamy (2005). Five-grade Likert Scale, from strongly agree – strongly disagree, was used in the questionnaire. The questionnaire had two versions: student questionnaire, teacher questionnaire. The reliability, validity and practicality of the questionnaires were checked with a pre-test among the 10 higher secondary students and 3 English teachers of Dhaka Model College, Dhaka.

2.3 Subjects

The target population, higher secondary students and English language teachers teaching EFL at the HSC level, were randomly selected. The sample consisted of 100 HSC students and 25 EFL teachers. The students received English instructions for 11-12 years. The teacher respondents were Master of Arts (M.A.) in English, and were experienced in teaching.

2.4 Data Analysis

The descriptive and contextual methods were also used for data analysis. The SPSS was used to categorise the data for the help of planning, analyzing, and interpreting the results collected through the questionnaire. The tables and graphs are used to present the findings. The responses of the subjects are generalized to the entire population of Higher Secondary students. The findings and the detailed analysis of the data are presented in the succeeding pages.

2.5 Discussion and Interpretation

Research is a studious investigation or experimentation with an aim to discover new facts and their correct interpretation. The science of statistics assists the research worker in planning, analyzing, and interpreting the results of his investigations. The results of the study are presented in this section. The data was collected through the questionnaire and processed through the SPSS.

Now, the relevant data is presented in the charts.

At first, the findings of the study are graphically presented and then analysed in the descriptive and the contextual methods. Expert opinions on the washback studies are also generalised through discussion. Due to the abundant results yielded in this study, the findings were presented according to the sequence of the research questions stated above. The findings of the study will be presented gradually: teacher questionnaire findings, and then student questionnaire findings. In the discussion and data presentation, whenever, data figure is shown, it will mean the sum of two options of same kinds. [for example (Strongly Agree & Agree) and (Strongly disagree & Disagree)]

2.5.1 Discussion and Interpretation- Teachers level

Test objectives resemble the curriculum objectives; and if it does so, it will obviously exert positive washback on teaching and learning. Washback effect works quickly and efficiently to bring about changes in the syllabus and teaching materials, but somewhat slowly, reluctantly, and with difficulty in the methodology that teachers employ.

Question	
1	I am aware of the objectives of the HSC syllabus and curriculum.
2	The present HSC syllabus and curriculum can enhance EFL teaching and learning.

The study finds that the teachers follow the “hidden syllabus “for the preparation of the students’ exam. The findings indicate that, at least 57% (strongly agree & agree) teachers are not aware of curriculum objectives (figure-7), yet 52% teachers(strongly agree & agree) believe that it will enhance the EFL teaching (figure-8) in the class.

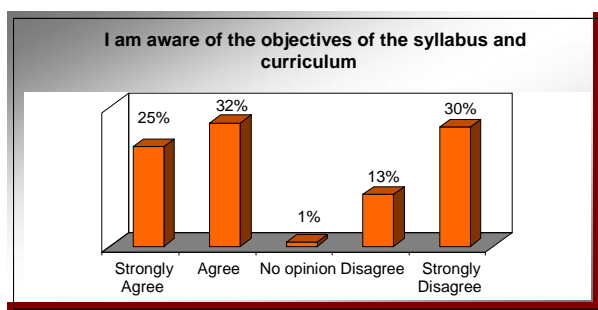


Figure: 7- Teacher Question-1

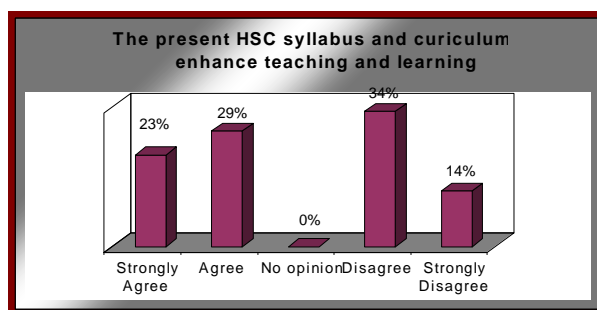


Figure: 8- Teacher Question -2

Alderson and Wall (1993) suggested that the examination has had a comprehensible effect on the syllabus and the contents of language lessons. This effect was that of the narrowing of the curriculum to those areas most likely to be tested. This finding is similar to that of Lam (1994) reported that teachers give emphasis on those parts of the exam that carry the higher marks. Usually, in Bangladesh, the teachers do not have much knowledge about how to

implement the curriculum objectives, even though, they are aware of the innovated curriculum and testing objectives. In this case, teachers do not know how to align the syllabus with their lesson plans.

Question	
3	I skip certain topics in the textbook because they are less likely to be tested in the examination
4	I teach every section in the textbook although some sections are unlikely to be tested in the exam.

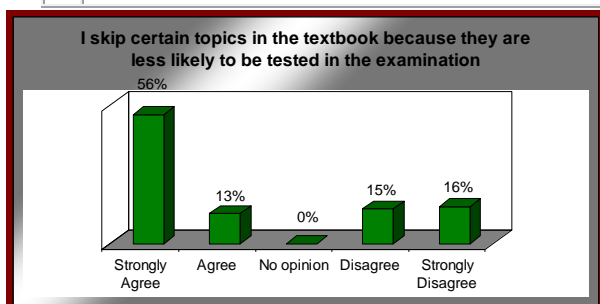
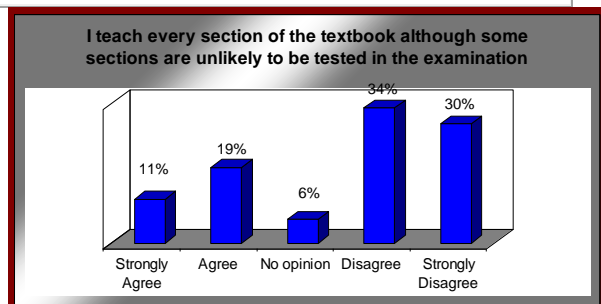


Figure: 9- Teacher Question -3



Figures: 10- Teacher Question - 4

The present study finds that the teachers narrow down the syllabus, and teach their students the selected topics to be tested in the examination.

The investigation discloses that the 69% teachers (strongly agree & agree) skip topics and lessons that may not be tested (figure:9). Another 64% (strongly agree & agree) responding teachers admit that they do not take the risk of teaching the entire syllabus (figure: 10).

The findings support the study of Alderson and Wall (1996) in their Sri Lankan study, Read and Hayes (2003) in their New Zealand study, and Cheng's study (1997) in Hong Kong, all of which found that the examination affected syllabus teaching.

Question	
5	I do not care the syllabus and curriculum while teaching my students.
6	I follow the textbook guidelines (given at the beginning of every lesson) while planning my lessons

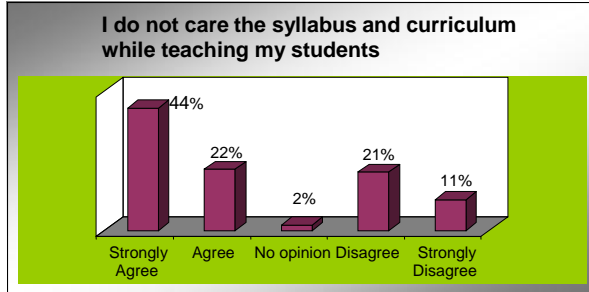
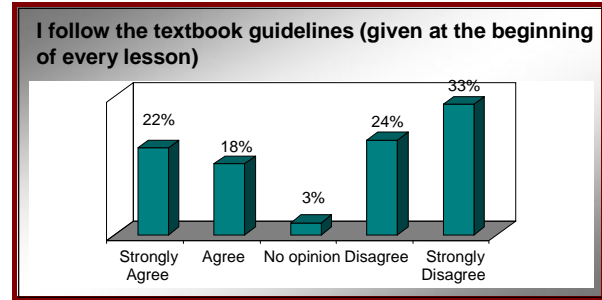


Figure: 11- Teacher Questions -5



Figures: 12- Teacher Questions- 6

Tests induce teachers to cover their subjects more thoroughly, making them complete their syllabi within the prescribed time limits. Though the present syllabus provides clear comprehensive guideline (claimed by the NCTB) for teachers, students, the figures (figure-12) (figure-11) focus that 64% teachers (strongly agree + agree) do not care the syllabus and curriculum for the teaching EFL; another 57% teachers (strongly disagree and disagree) suggest that they do not follow the guidelines of the textbook .

Khaniya (1990) found that the English examination would have a strong influence on the teaching and learning of English at secondary level, and that content, method and pressure washback were in effect. Students study the “ready-made answers” prepared by their teachers. Another source of “readymade answers” for the test items which are likely to appear in the examination is “commercial cribs” (which are easily available in the market).

The NCTB designed the HSC EFL syllabus and curriculum in such a manner (as claimed) that, it can ensure practice the four basic skills of language: listening, speaking, reading and writing. But, the classroom teaching does not reflect the teaching goals of the curriculum. Therefore, the communicative approach faces considerable opposition, and that several barriers have yet to be overcome if the EFL test is to be fully integrated into the English syllabus.

Question	
7	I rely on test papers and sample questions to prepare my students for the examination.
8	I teach whatever I think important to teach no matter whether it is important or not for the exam.

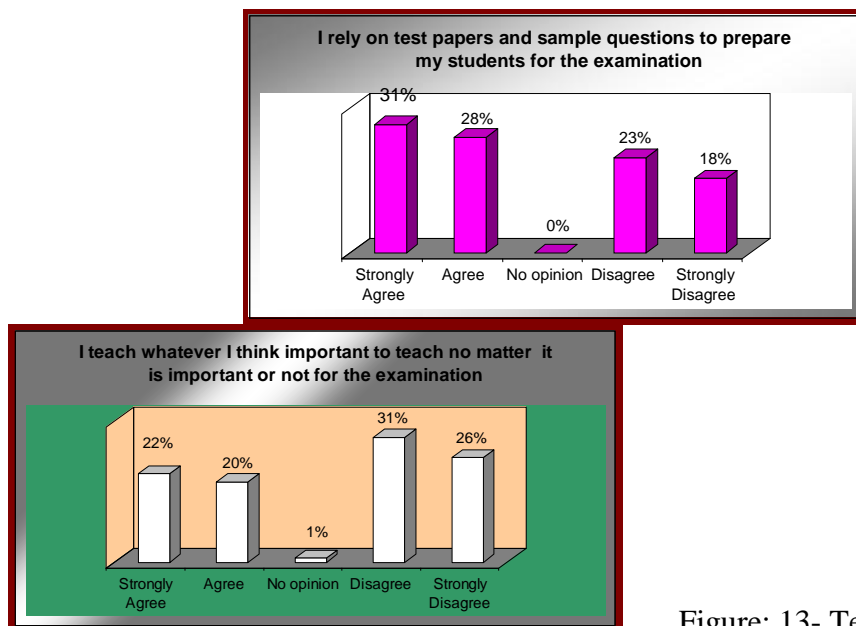


Figure: 13- Teacher Questions- 7

Figure: 14 Teacher Questions - 8

As shown in the above figure, the 59% teachers (figure-13), rely on the test papers, sample questions, and other commercially produced materials to prepare their students. It is also found that 57% (figure-14) teachers avoid teaching the important topics for teaching English. Here, the tests fail to create a correspondence between the learning principles and/or the course objectives (Cheng, 2005).

Examination achieves the goals of teaching and learning, such as the introduction of new textbooks and new curricula (Shohamy, 1992; Wall & Alderson 1993; Cheng; 2005). The present study is also parallel to the study of Cane (2005) in Japan, where he found that the teachers are heavily dependent on test papers, model questions, suggestion/guidebook, which is called “hidden syllabus” driven by the content of EFL examinations. These findings also support the findings of Cheng (1997) in Hong Kong, where she found that test contents dominate the classroom teaching.

Question	
9	I ignore the task and activities that are not directly related to passing the examination.
10	I give model tests to do better in the final exam.

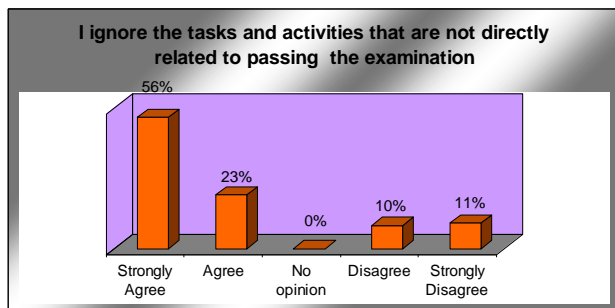


Figure: 15- Teacher Questions- 9

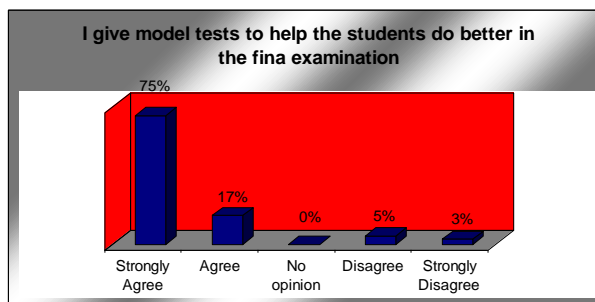


Figure:16 - Teacher Questions- 10

The task and activities, which are not tested in the examination, are considered as the wastage of time and labour. The figure (figure: 15) shows that the 79% teachers, surprisingly, ignore the task and activities that are not directly related to passing the examination, whereas 82% teachers (figure: 16) check the progress of the students by giving model tests.

In Bangladesh, the teachers teach the test and the test taking strategies, because it is relevant to the test score and test results. The teachers' teaching is examination oriented, and they follow the past examination question papers to have guidelines, assuming it would help them guess the probable questions to be appeared in the test. Teachers tend to ignore subjects and activities that are not directly related to passing the exam, and tests accordingly alter the curriculum in a negative way.

Question
11 I teach test-taking strategies, especially when the examination date gets closer
12 I feel pressure to cover the syllabus before the final examination.

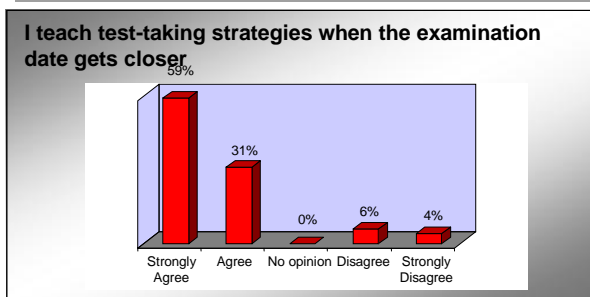


Figure: 17- Teacher Questions- 11

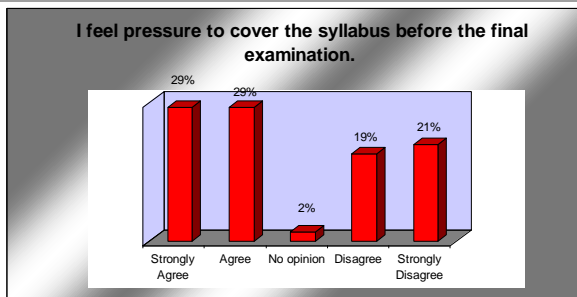


Figure:18- Teacher Questions -12

An increasing number of paid coaching classes are also arranged to prepare students for examinations; what students learn are test-taking skills rather than language learning activities; there is no correlation found between test objectives and curriculum objectives. The above figure (figure-17) demonstrates that 80% teachers teach the test and test taking strategies; another 58% teachers (figure 18) feel pressure to cover the syllabus before the examination starts.

2.5.2 Discussion and Interpretation - Students level

Alderson and Wall (1993, 1996) suggest that test influence the contents of the syllabus, learning methodology, rate and sequence of learning, etc. Cheng (2005), in her Hong Kong study, found that test can change the over all learning activities either positively, or negatively. The NCTB assures that the present communicative syllabus will meet the actual needs of the students and the teachers, and eventually it will accelerate effective language teaching and learning at the level HSC.

Question	
1	The present HSC syllabus and curriculum help me learn English.
2	I do not care the syllabus and curriculum while preparing for the examination.

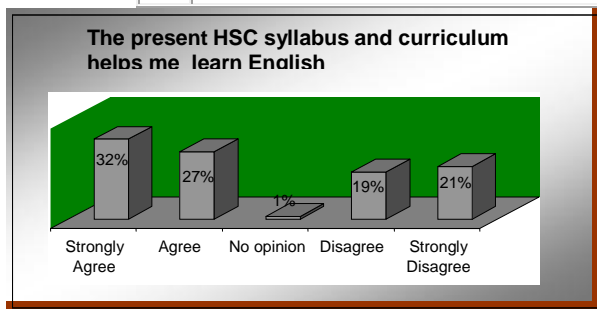


Figure: 19- Students Question-1

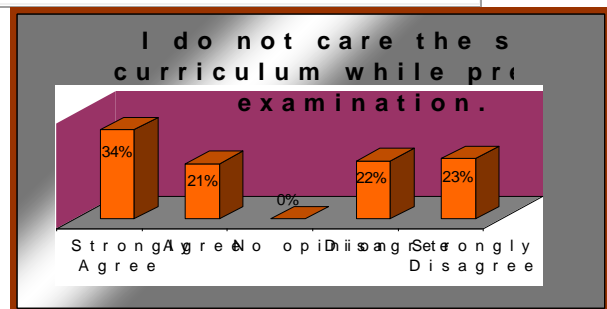


Figure: 20- Students Question-2

The findings of the present study support this impression of the NCTB, because 59% (strongly agree + agree) students (figure 19) believe that the present HSC syllabus and curriculum may help them learn English. But, it is surprising to notice that 55% learners (strongly agree + agree) do not care the syllabus and the curriculum (figure 20) due to test pressure.

It is asserted that the HSC examination is a very high stake examination, and it puts huge pressure on the teachers and the students, as a result, they largely depend on the test related materials, for the exam preparation. The reliance is the evidence of negative washback, because instead of introducing more authentic materials, the teachers prefer to use commercial textbooks, most of which are basically modified copies of the examination papers. Fullilove (1992) in his study in Hong Kong finds that many such texts are little more than **clones of past exam papers** (p. 139). The educational result is that some students particularly the weaker candidates tend to spend long hours memorising those model answers, rather., than actually learning how to answer similar questions.

Question	
3	The teacher skips certain sections in the syllabus because they are less likely to be tested in the examination.
4	We study every section in the textbook although some sections are unlikely to be

tested on the examination.

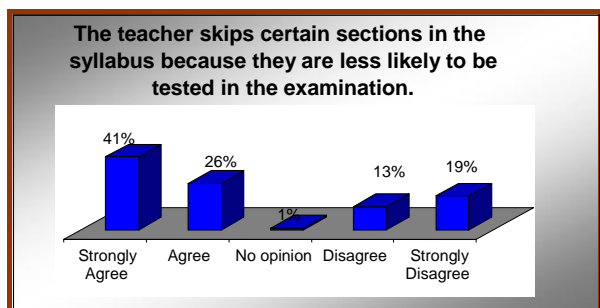


Figure: 21- Students Question-3

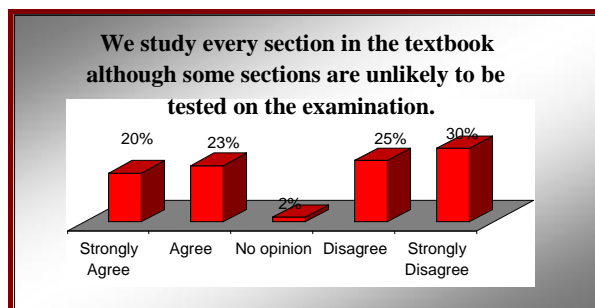


Figure: 22- Students Question-4

The present study found that the most of the English teachers adopt strategies in teaching the contents, and the students are also reluctant to cover the syllabus, it is because it may not affect their test results. The total 67% students (figure-21) admitted that they skip the sections, which may not be tested. Whereas 43% teachers (figure- 22) claim that, they study the entire syllabus, whether it is tested or not.

Question	
5	I rely on the test-related materials, such as test papers and model questions.
6	The teacher makes us practice and solve the past examination questions to do better in the final examination.

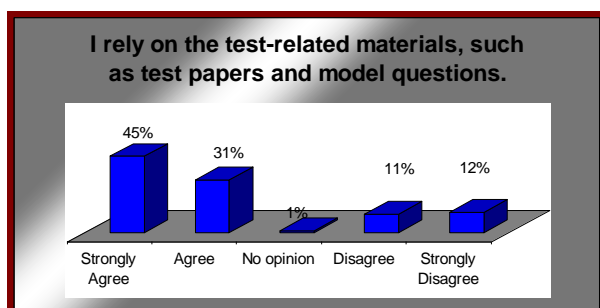


Figure: 23- Students Question-5

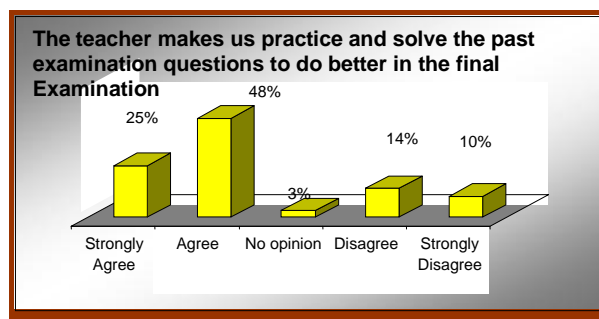


Figure: 24- Students Question-6

Cheng (1997) comments that test can influence to narrow down the syllabus and curriculum. It is very common that examination determines classroom behaviour. The present study finds that 76% students (figure-23) rely on the test papers and model questions to prepare themselves for the examination; the teachers also compel their students practice and solve past examination questions. Romen (2005) carried out a study in Tamil Nadu state in India on the textbook usefulness at the 12th grade English language education, and found that 72% students (out of 113 students) do not buy the textbook written by curriculum; it is because, they use commercial materials published by different publishers, which are mostly past examination

questions, model examination papers with ready-made answers. The present study directly correlates the study of Romen (2005) and Cheng (1997), because this study discloses that 73% students (figure 24) fully depend on the test related materials for their preparation.

Question	
7	The teacher teaches us the selected topics important for the examination.
8	The teacher gives us model tests before the final examination starts.

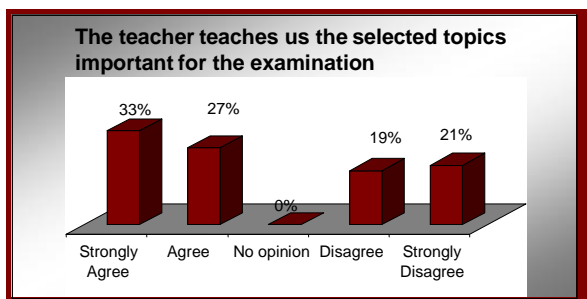


Figure: 25- Students Question-7

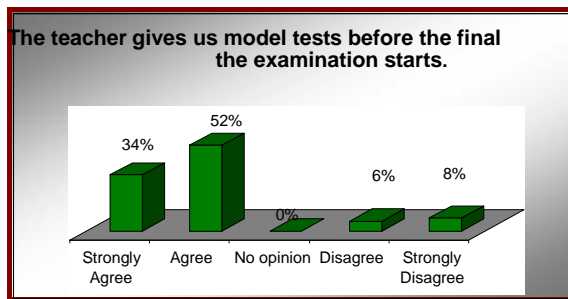


Figure: 26- Students Question-8

The 60% students (figure-25) say that their teachers teach them selected topics; another 86% (figure- 26) students confirm that their teachers give them model test as an examination preparation tool. The statements directly correlate the statements of the teachers.(see figures 10 and 11). It proves that classroom is a rehearsal venue of the test, not at all, a teaching learning place. These findings do not reflect the curriculum objectives, the main purpose of which is to practice four skills of English language.

The present EFL syllabus and curriculum cannot motivate the teachers and the students; the reason is that, the test objectives do not reflect the curriculum objectives. The test itself compels the teachers and the students to deal with the classroom activities in such a manner.

Question	
9	The teacher ignores the task and activities that are not directly related to passing the examination.
10	The teacher gives us instructions on how to answer questions in the examination.

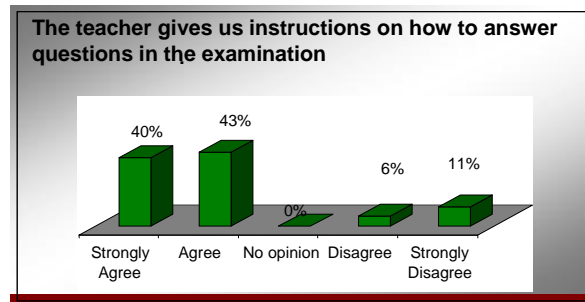
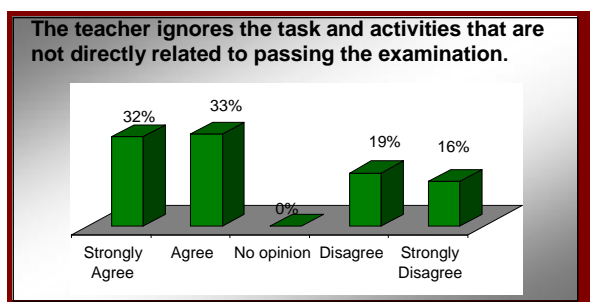


Figure: 27- Students Question-9

Figure: 28- Students Question-10

Test- oriented behaviour is also noticed in the findings of the present study. The 65% of the student respondents (figure -27) suggest that, not only the lessons and contents, but also the task and activities are related to the contents of the final examination. To them, practicing the less important (may not appear in the question paper) tasks and items, is the waste of time. In this study, the 83% students (figure-28) reply that the teachers teach them on how to answer the questions in the examination.

The present HSC public examination exerts pressure on the students, because this examination is a high stakes test. Shohamy et al. (1996) define a high stakes test, as a standardised test in which decisions about admission, promotion, placement or graduation are directly dependent on test scores, while low-stakes exams do not entail these significant decisions.

Question	
11	I feel pressure to cover the syllabus before exam.
12	I like to go to the coaching center for the preparation of the examination.

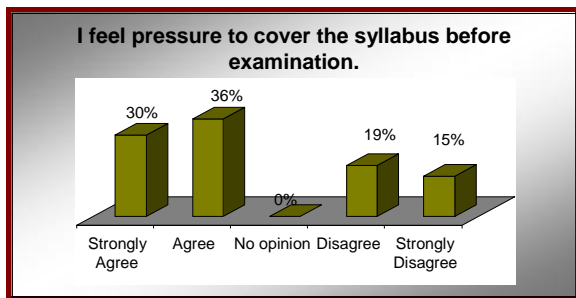


Figure: 29- Students Question-11

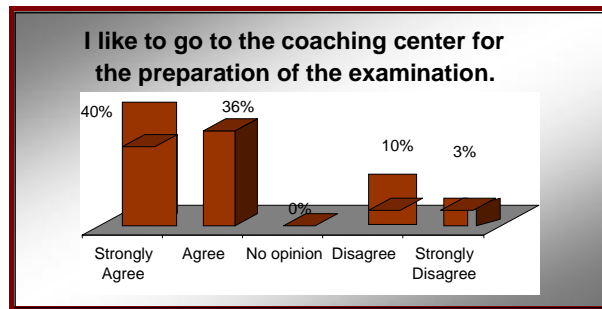


Figure: 30- Students Question-12

The present study correlates the research conducted by Shohamy et al. (1996) in Israel on the washback effect administered to students. Their study found that students suffer from anxiety to their examination preparation. The present study also discovers that, the 67% students (figure-29) feel very pressure to cover the syllabus (examination contents), and 76% students (figure-30) go to the coaching centers for the examination preparation.

2.6 Summary of Findings

The results indicate that the curriculum corresponds to the textbooks, while the EFL Public examination does not represent the curriculum, and that, there is a negative washback effect of the HSC examination on EFL teaching and learning. The variable(s) influenced by the washback effect are negative attitudes that the participants of the study have toward the test.

A question may be posed, whether the examination should address the objectives of the syllabus and curriculum, or the examination objectives be reflected in the syllabus and curriculum. Curriculum changes over times to address present needs. Innovation of the curriculum is a reality of time. The frontloaded curriculum alignment, that is, the curriculum is developed first; the test is designed to measure how students have learnt based upon the curriculum.

One of the problems with frontloading alignment is the poor test quality, such as lack of validity, reliability, and positive washback effects. The teachers usually claim that they have to make a change of their teaching to meet the curriculum standards, but the findings from this study do not provide enough evidence that the teachers may change their perceptions regarding how to teach, in terms that their teaching is still test-oriented. However, a huge gap is found between the objectives of the syllabus at the HSC level, and the current EFL practices. The present study explores that the present EFL test affects the syllabus and curriculum, and exerts negative washback on the teaching and learning. Positive washback effects are more likely to occur when a curriculum and a test are highly matched.

The major findings are:

1. The textbook “English for Today” for classes 11-12 is adopted as the syllabus and curriculum at the HSC English teaching,
2. Test narrow down the curriculum, and put attention to those skills that are most relevant to testing.
3. English language learning does not take place sufficiently, though huge numbers of students pass the examination with high grades; it is because, they do not learn the language rather they learn how to deal with the test.
4. The present EFL examination comes to dominate classroom work,
5. Teachers teach the test and the test taking strategies as a major activity in the class,
6. Teachers tend to ignore subjects and activities that are not directly related to passing the exam, and tests accordingly alter the curriculum in a negative way,
7. Tests bring anxiety both to teachers and students and distort their performance.
8. The present EFL tests fail to create a correspondence between the learning principles and/or the course objectives,
9. An increasing number of paid coaching classes are set up to prepare students for exams, but what students learn are test-taking skills rather than language learning activities,
10. Most of the teachers tend to rely on the hidden syllabus (test papers, model questions, suggestions book, etc.),
11. There is no correlation between teaching objectives and curriculum objectives,
12. According to most of the teachers, students' learning attitudes are associated with their learning interests.
13. The study finds strong correlation between the teachers' responses and that of students.
14. Teachers do not teach the students the basic skills of language: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

15. It is found that the present syllabus and curriculum does not keep any provision of testing of listening and speaking.
16. The marks distribution of the HSC EFL test focuses on the reading comprehension, writing, grammar and vocabulary items.
17. This study finds the washback effects of external tests occurred to influence how the teachers implement the new curriculum.
18. Most of the teachers interviewed expressed negative attitudes to the HSC syllabus and curriculum.

2.7 Suggestions and Recommendations

Examination should reflect the syllabus and curriculum, and since not everything in a curriculum can be tested in an examination, the areas that are assessed should be ones that are considered important. It is also important that, same items and contents should not be tested again and again. If the expectation is that student achievement will align itself with the content of examinations, it is critically important that the stated objectives and content be carefully developed. Objectives should reflect the contribution of knowledge and skill which they embody to the long-term growth and development of students. On the bases of findings, the researchers would like to put forward some suggestions and recommendations, so that it brings a beneficial washback on the EFL teaching and learning at the higher secondary level in Bangladesh, and thus, the objectives of the curriculum be achieved.

1. Insofar as possible, modes of testing (e.g., written, practical, oral) should be diverse to reflect the goals of curricula.
2. The syllabus and curriculum contents should be modified and reshuffled after every three years of time.
3. The provision of the listening and the speaking skills testing should be organized, so that students may be compelled to develop these two major skills of EFL.
4. The authority concern should monitor the teaching and learning activities in the classroom, testing, and check the test related materials whether all thing enhance EFL learning.
5. The format and contents of the public examination should be reorganized every year.
6. An expert body should be formed to look into matters, whether teaching – learning practices at the HSC level reflect the desired curriculum objectives.
7. The use of commercially produced clone tests materials (hidden syllabus) in the class should be discouraged.

8. EFL examination items should not be limited to the measurement of recall or recognition of information, but should attempt to measure higher-order outcomes defined in terms of more complex cognitive processes (e.g., understanding, synthesis, application).
9. EFL examination should assess students' ability to apply their knowledge, not just in scholastic contexts, but also in situations outside school.
10. Examinations, both in content and in difficulty level, should reflect their certification function and provide an adequate assessment of the competencies of pupils who will not obtain a higher-level qualification.
11. EFL examination performance should be analyzed to provide feedback to schools and other stakeholders (curriculum authorities, etc.).
12. As many teachers as possible should be involved in the setting and scoring of examinations, as these activities provide valuable insights into the demands of examinations which can be applied in teaching.
13. The use of teachers' assessments to contribute to grades that their students are awarded in public examinations merits investigation.
14. The syllabus contents and form of examination items should exhibit correlations with the EFL testing.
15. Testers, examiners, curriculum designers, and teachers should be trained properly, so that they can perform their respective duties in view of communicative language teaching and testing take place at the HSC level in Bangladesh.

2.8 Conclusion

A Syllabus is a vital part of the EFL classes. Washback has deep relation with the syllabus and curriculum. Washback influences and affects the various aspects of teaching and learning, such as stakeholders, syllabus and curriculum, materials, teaching methods, testing and mediating factors, learning outcomes, feelings, attitudes, and learning, etc. Public examination, as a high stakes test, impacts on the lives of test takers, classrooms, school systems and even whole societies. At the HSC level in Bangladesh, the entire syllabus and curriculum is incorporated in the HSC textbook formulated by the NCTB. The syllabus provides a focus for the class, and sets goals for the students throughout their study; it attempts to give the student a guide and idea to what they will learn, and how they have progressed when the course is over.

At various points throughout this study, reference has been made to the mismatch that occurs between the curriculum planning and classroom implementation. It has also been noticed that English teachers in Bangladesh find themselves in an unenviable position in which the

constraints imposed by the examination-driven “hidden syllabus” prevent them from implementing, in practice, communicative methodology. Students also feel tremendous pressure of the EFL test, as, this high stakes examination will determine their future educations and carrier. The study observed a negative washback on the EFL teaching and learning, which affects the existing syllabus and curriculum negatively. In order to examine more fully whether beneficial washback can be achieved within the area of teaching, it is suggested that future research should also be conducted in other areas to examine the intensity of the negative or positive washback, and to provide more insights into the nature of this educational phenomenon across different factors and research contexts.

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Appendix-1 (Teacher Questionnaire)

Items		Strongly Agree	Agree	No opinion	Strongly Disagree	Disagree
1	I am aware of the objectives of the HSC syllabus and curriculum.					
2	The present HSC syllabus and curriculum can enhance EFL teaching and learning.					
3	I teach every section in the textbook although some sections are unlikely to be tested in the exam.					
4	I skip certain topics in the textbook because they are less likely to be tested in the examination					
5	I do not care the syllabus and curriculum while teaching my students.					
6	I follow the textbook guidelines (given at the beginning of every lesson) while planning my lessons					

7	I rely on test papers and sample questions to prepare my students for the examination					
8	I teach whatever I think important to teach no matter whether it is important or not for the exam.					
9	I ignore the task and activities that are not directly related to passing the examination.					
10	I give model tests to do better in the final exam					
11	I teach test-taking strategies, especially when the examination date gets closer					
12	I feel pressure to cover the syllabus before the final examination					

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Appendix-2 (Student Questionnaire)

	Items	Strongly Agree	Agree	No opinion	Strongly Disagree	Disagree
1	The present HSC syllabus and curriculum help me learn English.					
2	I do not care the syllabus and curriculum while preparing for the examination.					
3	The teacher skips certain sections in the syllabus because they are less likely to be tested in the examination					
4	We study every section in the textbook 5 tested on the examination					
5	I rely on the test-related materials, such as test papers and model questions.					
6	The teacher makes us practice and solve the past examination questions to do better in the final examination					
7	The teacher teaches us the selected topics important for the examination					
8	The teacher gives us model tests before the final examination starts.					
9	The teacher ignores the task and activities that are not directly related to passing the examination					
10	The teacher gives us instructions on how to					

	answer questions in the examination					
11	I feel pressure to cover the syllabus before exam.					
12	I like to go to the coaching center for the preparation of the examination.					

Appendix -3: Syllabus of the HSC level

EFL Examination: Distribution of Marks of

Paper I: Total Marks = 100

(a) Seen comprehension: -----	40 marks
Objective questions:	20
More free/open questions:	20
(b) Vocabulary: -----	20 marks
*Cloze test with clues:	10
Cloze test without clues:	10
(c) Guided writing: -----	<u>40 marks</u>
	100 marks

Paper II: Total Marks = 100

(a) Unseen comprehension: -----	40 marks
Objective questions:	20
More free/open questions:	20
(b) Grammar: -----	20 marks
*Cloze test with clues:	10
Cloze test without clues:	10
(c) Semi-guided to free writing: -----	<u>40 marks</u>
	100 marks

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 How does Washback Work on the EFL Syllabus and Curriculum?
 A Case Study at the HSC Level in Bangladesh

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Impact of Participative Management on Employee Job Satisfaction and Performance in Pakistan

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Abstract

Participative management has been growing area of investigation and debate by management practitioners and scholars over decades (Wagner III, 1994). Today in hypercompetitive world, organizations consider it as a mean to achieve responsiveness and competitive advantage (Guthrie, 2001).

This paper aims to resolve the question that whether participative approach to management pay off in terms of employee job satisfaction and performance.

Single questionnaire was used to collect data from sample size of 300 employees from 05 private banks of Islamabad/Rawalpindi. Simple Regression and correlation was calculated for exploring the causal

association among variables where, employee performance and job satisfaction were dependent variable and participative management was independent variable.

The findings reveal positive relationship among participative management, employee job satisfaction and performance. Findings also do verify the existence of a highly strong connection among these variables.

The study has limitations which hold suggestions for future research including generalisability, one-shot study issue, and survey-only used for data collection. However, the study will benefit the organizations, employees and future researchers.

Key words: Participative management, job satisfaction, performance.

Introduction

Researchers have argued that today's organizations operate in hypercompetitive markets characterized by continuous technological change, shortened product life-cycles, and competitors who compete in aggressive ways (D'Aveni, 1998). Taking this argument a step further, some authors (e.g., David et al., 1995; Patria, 2001) specifically argue that participative management is one way in which organizations can achieve the responsiveness needed in a hypercompetitive world.

Initially, it appears that participative management may lead to high employee job satisfaction and it does seem eminently logical that a happy employee is a "better" employee which may perform well in the organization. However, thousands of studies have been carried out seeking to establish a positive and unmistakable correlation between participative management, employee job satisfaction and performance with nothing conclusive being proven. The unfortunate consequence of this lack of a clear cause and effect relationship, as Dogan (2009) notes, is that "when management discovers there is no guarantee of a one-to-one correlation between participative management, employee job satisfaction and performance interest usually wanes." The present research basically aims at resolving the question that "Does the participative approach to management pay off in terms of employee job satisfaction and performance?" Research results in this area would clarify the relationship.

Literature Review

Before examining the theoretical impact of participative management on employee job satisfaction and performance, a brief review of the extensive literature relating participation in decision making to satisfaction and performance is in order. Participative management has been a growing area of enquiry and debate ever since the seminal work by Lewin and his colleagues. Participative management has been called the "third managerial revolution" (Alutto & Acito, 1974). Scholars have noted that it has become a major social, political and economic issue throughout the world, in a variety of organizational environments (Vroom, 1960). Reportedly there has been a growing movement towards more "participative" management.

In today's intensely competitive global environment, there is a strong demand for workforce participation in organizational decision making to enhance individual performance enabling the

achievement of higher productivity of an organization. One aspect of workforce participation is job satisfaction. Job satisfaction in general is defined as how many employees like or dislike their work and the extent to which their expectations concerning work have been fulfilled (Dogan, 2009).

There is confusion over the exact definition of performance. However it is considered as an important criterion for organizational outcomes and success. The most commonly recognized theories of job performance are given by John P. Campbell and colleagues. According to psychological perspective, Campbell and colleagues described job performance as an individual level variable. Job performance is most commonly referred as whether a person performs their job well (<http://en.wikipedia.org>).

By helping organizations to actively develop and utilize their human resources, participative management should enable organizations to produce high-quality products/services, increase the quality of the decision, smoothen the process of organizational change, enhance the administrative control (McCaffry et al.,1995), increase the speed of work operations and innovation, and improve employee performance, motivation, and attitudes, less absenteeism, less turnover, better decision making, better problem solving, and less management overhead, in short, greater organizational effectiveness (Scott-Ladd & Marshall, 2004).

Empirical research indicates that successful participative management style efforts can substantially impact organizational financial productivity (Riordan et al., 2005). The arguments against this approach are that because the use of these practices increases the uniqueness and value of employees, it will also increase the costs associated with the loss of these employees. In keeping with these arguments, Bechtold (1997) proposed that in high-involvement workplaces, the "organizational centrality" of each individual employee is increased. Since high-involvement firms place greater skill requirements on employees, maximum performance will demand greater levels of tenure and experience (McCaffry, et al., 1995).

Cotton et al., (1988) defines "participation in decision making (PDM) as an approach of sharing decision making with others to achieve organizational objectives". There are six forms of participative decision making including participation in work decisions, consultative participation, short-term participation, informal participation, employee ownership, and representative participation. Shetzer (1993); Larry (1993); Huang, et al. (2009) discuss the two widely used theoretical models for explaining the effect of the participative style of superiors on subordinates' work performance. These models include motivational and exchange based models.

The creation of a participative decision climate in the company is an indication of organizational maturity and a stimulating factor for obtaining quality results. This can be seen at the operational level, where the propitious representatives are increasing the productivity, the employees' motivation and the clients' satisfaction (Camelia, 2008). The organizations that have strong inbuilt culture in their organizations would easily adapt to the changing environment (D'Aveni, 1998).

At the heart of basic proposition that participative management enhances firm performance is the contention that employees generally have more complete knowledge and information about their work tasks and processes than do managers and are in a better position than managers to plan and schedule

work, to organize work tasks and work flow, and to otherwise identify and resolve obstacles to achieving optimal performance (Alutto & Acito 1974; Singh 2009).

A second basic proposition is that participative management styles provide employees with greater intrinsic rewards from work than do traditional forms of management. These better rewards from work enhance job satisfaction and as a result increase employees' motivation to attain new production goals (Singh 2009). In line with the research, employee participation has been emphasized in relation to job satisfaction and performance.

Measuring Participative Management and Satisfaction of Employees

Participative management has been measured in many ways. Various instruments have been developed to consider the diverse types of participative management. Scholars have measured it in terms of management considering the opinion of employees, allowing employees to make autonomous decisions regarding their work activities (Driscoll, 1978), involvement of employees in setting goals, objectives and other major decisions within their company and how much employees are allowed to take risk in the organization (Scott et al. 2003).

Several instruments have been developed to measure employee satisfaction with the job and ultimately with the organization. Satisfaction is a qualitative variable; hence to quantify this concept has gained the attention of many practitioners and researchers. To measure this variable, the factors considered include working conditions, kind of work, challenges received from job, variety of tasks (Alutto & Acito 1974; Davis, 2004), importance of the job within the organization, opportunity given to use skills and abilities, sense of accomplishment, recognition of work performed (Kim 2002; Scott et al. 2003; Scott-Ladd & Marshall 2004).

To measure whether employees are performing well on their job will be a difficult task, as each employee performance measurement criteria may vary on the basis of job nature, type of organization and sector within which the organization. To quantify the performance for managerial employees would be relatively different from non-managerial employees. In general, performance is measured in terms of achievement of tasks and duties mentioned in the job description, complete tasks within the specified time period, punctual at work and identify the relevant problems and solve the problems (Riordan et al. 2005; Wagner 1994).

Procedure of the Study

The main purpose of the study was to assess the extent of relationship, if any, between variables participative management, employee job satisfaction and their performance.

The hypotheses for the study were:

H1: There is a positive relationship between participative management and employee job satisfaction.

H2: There is a positive relationship between participative management and employee performance.

The study was relational for exploring association among participative management, employee job satisfaction, and employee performance. A causal study was conducted to explore the association among these variables. The study was conducted in non-contrived settings as the data was collected from different Pakistani organizations. The data was gathered just once from different private banks. Therefore, the study was cross-sectional or one-shot study.

Participants of the Study

The sample was selected by using convenience sampling where the data collection was done from the employees of private banks who were conveniently available to provide it. Sample included 300 employees from private banks in Islamabad/Rawalpindi. Private Banks were only selected as participative management styles are more implicated in private banks than in public banks of Pakistan. The five private banks were included in the survey.

Instrument of the Study

A single questionnaire (See annexure) was distributed which was adapted from Scott, Bishop & Chen (2003), and Kim (2002). The questions were carefully worded to avoid misinterpretation. Questionnaire comprised three sections. First part consisted of questions in order to analyze the participative management style used in organization. The second part of questionnaire consisted of questions in order to identify job satisfaction of the employees. The third part included assessing the job performance of employees. The instrument used to measure all the independent and dependent variables, participative management, employee job satisfaction and performance were measured on a 5-point likert scale.

Data Analysis

A brief description of the data analysis is presented here:

Table 1 Correlations between participative management & employee performance (N=300)

Variables	Pearson correlation
Participative management (PM)	r = 0.52 p<.01
Employee performance (EP)	

The table 1 indicated a high correlation between participative management and employee performance.

Table 2 Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.52(a)	.272	.269		.46058	1.75

a Predictors: (Constant), PM

b Dependent Variable: EP

The model summary table 2 revealed a multiple correlation coefficient, $R = 0.52$. This indicates that there is moderately high correlation between participative management and employee performance. In terms of variability in observed employee performance accounted for by the fitted model, this amounts to a proportion of $R^2 = 0.272$, or 27.2%. It means that there was 27.2% of the variation in employee performance (dependent variable). This was explained by the participative management (independent variable). This shows a positive but moderately high relationship between the two variables. The *adjusted R²* is an improved estimation of R^2 in the population. Use of this adjusted measure leads to a revised estimate that 26.9% of the variability in employee performance in the population can be explained by participative management variable. According to the regression model, the mean deviation is zero (positive and negative deviations cancel each other out). In the table error value was 0.46058 which is not very high. Durbin Watson is 1.75 as indicated in table 2, that measuring the auto correlation between independent variables. It is in the acceptable range i.e. 1.5-2.5.

Table 3 Results of ANOVA (b)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	23.6	1	23.6	111.1	.000(a)
	Residual	63.2	298	0.21		
	Total	86.8	299			

a Predictors: (Constant), PM

b Dependent Variable: EP

ANOVA table 3 shows that as the significance-F value is less than 0.05. So, the model fits the data properly. An F-test for the null hypothesis is that participative management does not have positive relation with employee performance. In other words, R^2 is zero. Here the null hypothesis is rejected ($F(1) = 111.1, p < 0.05$). So, it was concluded that participative management was related to employee performance.

Table 4 Estimated regression coefficients (a)

Model	Un-standardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	1.96	.18		10.7	.000
1 PM	.57	.05	.52	10.6	.000

a Dependent Variable: EP

In coefficient table 4, the estimated regression coefficients are given under the heading “Un-standardized Coefficients, B”. These give, for each of the independent variables, the predicted change in the dependent variable when the independent variable is increased by one unit conditional on all the other variables in the model remaining constant. It is clear that the equation that models the line has a

slope of 0.57 and a y-intercept of 1.96. So, even if there is no participative management, the employee's performance would be 1.96 units. We could say that employee performance differs by 0.57 units for every unit difference in Participative Management. The regression line for Employee performance is: Employee Performance = 0.57 * Participative Management + 1.96

Discussion and Recommendations

Several findings can be drawn from the study: The multiple regression result indicates that participative management had positive impact on employee job satisfaction and performance. The results were consistent with Alutto & Acito 1974; Cotton et al. 1988; Wagner 1994 and Cooke 1994.

Significant stronger correlation exists between participative management and employee performance, which indicated that there was a strong tendency to vary together. Findings of this study complement previous studies, John 1994; Patria 2001; Yohe & Hatfield 2003; Bhatti & Qureshi 2007.

However, results show moderate relationship between participative management and employee satisfaction. Participative management had less significant impact on job satisfaction than the employee performance. This finding supports Joseph & Franklin 1974; Scott et al. 2003; Scott-Ladd & Marshall 2004; Scott-Ladd et al. 2006 that deduced positive moderate relationship among these variables.

Although participation in decision making positively influences employee satisfaction and performance, practitioners need to be careful to keep a balance between the needs of the employee as well as the employer. Job satisfaction is at risk in the long term if participation is viewed just as a survival strategy for managing work effort and task variety, which would ultimately affect the performance of the employees.

Although statistically significant, the average outcomes proved here may not be practically significant. Ultimately, it depends on the involvement of management practitioners and the difficulties faced by them in the organization (Wagner III, 1994).

However, it is suggested that programs designed for improvement in employee's performance or satisfaction that result in small outcomes are likely to be executed by organizations, only if they are less costly to implement and maintain.

The future research could extend this study by considering additional variables that may be impacted by participative management (such as organization culture, employee commitment, and turnover). Also, researchers should include larger number of employees and variety of organizations to enhance variability and possibly produce stronger results. In addition to analyzing the hypotheses in the current research, other experimental data based on observation and in-depth interviews should be collected beyond the survey method. In addition, multiple studies can be done over time in the public sector to validate the present results. Further, theoretically significant moderators can be tested to validate the relationship between participative management, employee job satisfaction and performance.

Limitations of the Study

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Impact of Participative Management on Employee Job Satisfaction and Performance in Pakistan and South Asia

The study has definite limitations which hold suggestions for future research. Firstly, the study was conducted in Pakistani settings and, therefore, may not be generalisable to all countries. The findings may be replicable in South Asia, but, perhaps, not in many other countries. Secondly, the investigation was limited to a single time period. There is a need for longitudinal research to possibly produce stronger relationship between the tested variables. Thirdly, survey was only conducted and other empirical data collection methods were ignored. Fourthly, the sample size was sufficient but not very large. Fifthly, convenience sampling was only used as sampling design. Then, the sampling is done in Islamabad/Rawalpindi only which may not be representative of the whole country. Lastly, the study was limited to banking sector of Pakistan.

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Annexure

Survey Questionnaire

This survey presents you with a set of questions about the impact of participative management on employee's job satisfaction and performance. By participative management, it is meant a type of management in which employees at all levels are encouraged to contribute ideas towards identifying and setting organizational-goals, problem solving, and other decisions that may directly affect them.

This questionnaire asks whether you personally agree or disagree with a set of statements about employee participation in your organization, your job satisfaction and your performance in your workplace. For each of the questions, please use the following scale and select the letter or number that best reflects your answer.

Please do not leave any question unanswered. The information you provide to us will be kept highly confidential.

PARTICIPATION IN DECISION MAKING

The below given table carries the responses in this way:

Strongly disagree (SD) Disagree (D) Neutral (N) Agree (SA) Strongly agree

Statement	SD	D	N	A	SA
Does your supervisor consider your opinion in the					

delivery of tasks?					
Is your supervisor competent and has the ability to convey knowledge properly, enhance full range of skills and accept variety of challenges?					
Is your supervisor fair and honest to you?					
Does your supervisor treat you with respect?					
Does your supervisor allow you to make autonomous operational decision?					
Does your supervisor allow you the opportunity to brainstorm and bring innovative ideas and suggestions?					
Does your supervisor involve you in setting goals and objectives?					

The below given table carries the responses in this way:

Not at all To a little extent To a moderate extent To a great extent Totally
1 2 3 4 5

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
In general how much say or influence do you have on how you perform your job?					
To what extent are you able to decide how to do your job?					
In general, how much say or influence do you have on decisions that affect you job?					
My superiors are receptive and listen to my ideas and suggestions.					

JOB SATISFACTION

The below given table carries the responses in this way:

Highly Dissatisfied Not Satisfied Neutral Satisfied Highly Satisfied

(HD)	(NS)	(N)	(S)	(HS)	
Statement	HD	NS	N	S	HS

How satisfied are you with:					
i. Your job in general					
ii. Your working conditions					
iii. The opportunity you have to use your skill abilities					
iv. The importance placed on your job					
v. The sense of accomplishment you get from your job					
vi. The amount of variety you experience on your job					
vii. The kind of work you do					
viii. The challenge you receive from your job					

The below given table carries the responses in this way:

Strongly disagree (SD) Disagree (D) Neutral (N) Agree (SA) Strongly agree

Statement	SD	D	N	A	SA
Compared to other places I could work here, I feel my career opportunities are excellent					
My job provides me with a sense of accomplishment					
I receive the recognition that I deserve for my work					

EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE

The below given table carries the responses in this way:

Strongly disagree (SD) Disagree (D) Neutral (N) Agree (SA) Strongly agree

Statement	SD	D	N	A	SA
You are dependable and present at work and are on time					
You understand assigned duties and responsibilities; establish priorities and plan work; use appropriate procedures, tools, equipment and materials for assigned work					
You complete all assignments within specified time limits; adjust to unexpected changes in work demands to meet timetables					

You project a positive work attitude; relate effectively with coworkers, supervisors, and others					
You identify problems, secure relevant information and implement solutions					

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Pauline Das, Ph.D.

Rights of a Woman to Family Property

The aim of this paper is to project the suffering of women as represented in Lakshmi Kannan's *Going Home* and Arundhati Roy's *The God of Small Things* with special reference to the Hindu Succession Act 1956 and 2005. The women folk in these novels feel homeless in their own homes. The physical and psychological conditions of women, with no space in their own homes remind us of Virginia Woolf's 'Room of My Own.'

In the preface of the novel, Kannan vents her anger at post- independent Indian society's failure to guarantee property and inheritance rights to Indian women. She points out that while the Hindu Succession Act of 1956 assures the legal rights of a woman to family property, the actual reality of control of assets is another story. Seemingly progressive families, according to Kannan, count upon the "unconditional compliance" of women when it comes to asserting over ancestral property. As a consequence of this "tacit silent acceptance of their lot in the unequal equation between them and their male siblings" (Preface,vii), the larger number of Indian women neither feel at 'home' in their physical homes, nor within their bodies.

The Plight of Career Women

Going Home is also a direct statement on the plight of the married middle class career woman who is compelled to cross over from private sphere to the public. However, this 'outing'

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and Lakshmi Kannan's *Going Home*

from the inner courtyard to a larger world is not translated into any real freedom for the self. Society feels that women allowed to work have special privileges accorded to her by the family. The unpleasant reality of it is that she has to work both at the home and in the office. A woman who is intellectual and excellent in academic performances is not even acknowledged in the community. This is the plight of women even two decades after Women's International Year. A woman who may become recognized by scholars and critics as brilliant, and who may draw so many readers compellingly into her books, is only insulted in her own family.

Women in India in the Sixties to Eights

Going Home attempts to study the condition of women in India in the sixties. The novel talks of formally and apparently socially respectable educated women who witnessed a mute, dull, numbing pain and were trying to break their long, oppressive silence. It talks of women who had changed their dress code but nevertheless could not change their status that was still governed by the random accident of their birth. Their growing up in the male dominated society developed a low esteem for them as they saw themselves inferior in the cultural and social context.

Voices in a Voiceless Environment

Indian writers in English have contributed a lot in reflecting the thoughts and aspirations of the Indian mind. Women novelists especially have recorded their voices in a voiceless environment. With the coming of Arundhati Roy in the Indian scene a great deal of attention has been paid to women's writing. Women writers' themes reflect the sad plight of their women protagonists, reflecting our society.

The Homeless Women in *The God of Small Things*

Arundhati Roy's novel *The God of Small Things* talks about the sufferings of women in a male dominated society. The chief reason for a woman's alienation is that of being a stranger in her own home. She becomes a stranger because she does not belong to the house in which she is born, nor does she belong to the house she goes to as a result of her marriage.

Talents Shattered

This is seen in the character, Mammachi, who is no less talented than her husband. She is musically talented and even better skilled in business and management, yet does not have a share in the business she runs. She is a wife who has no rights to her husband's property. Her son Chacko becomes the proprietor of the pickle factory run by her, and the Ayemenem House in which she lives is his, and does not belong either to his sister, Ammu.

The Daughter, an Intruder in One's Own Home:

Baby Kochamma, the spinster sister of Pappachi lives on sufferance in the Ayemenem House, where ironically she has no right to be. Ammu returns to the house after her separation from her husband and she becomes more of an intruder and less of a member of the house. Legally, Ammu has no claim on the property as the inheritance rights are weighed

against her. The main reason why the female characters suffer is due to their economic dependence on male members, for they don't inherit anything, although they belong to well educated families.

Can Women Go back Home?

We see the same plight of women in Lakshmi Kannan's *Going Home*. Published one year after *The God of Small Things*, *Going Home* too reiterates the same theme. The young girl Gayatri repeats time and again that she wants to go home. This becomes the leitmotif of the novel. The home here is 'Retreat', Gayatri's grandfather's home in Mysore. When Gayatri settles in Delhi after her marriage, she is forced to live in a small flat. She feels claustrophobic and longs to go back to her childhood home, 'Retreat'. But 'Retreat' no more belongs to her, her mother being the daughter of the house. The property slips through her fingers to her maternal uncle.

Hard Life that Women are Forced to Face with even if They are Daughters of Affluent Families

Going Home reflects the hard life that women have to face even if they are born in affluent houses. For the sake of being born as women they can only make their houses into homes for the other members of their families, whereas a woman has no space in it. Being homeless materially, makes a woman homeless psychologically.

Hard Life that a Poor Woman Faces in Life

There are the other characters in the novel, like Rama, who does not own a house in the material sense, but even the rented house she lives in does not provide her with the feeling of acceptance into the family. Rama is homeless in her father's home where she is only a third daughter, she is homeless in her rented home in Delhi where her husband dominates the house, and she is also homeless in her in-laws' house where she is a daughter-in-law with little dowry.

Hindu Succession Act, a mere Statement on Paper

According to the Hindu Succession Act 1956, Section 16, a daughter, and even a daughter's daughter has a rightful claim to the family property. But as far as women were concerned, this act was a mere statement on paper. There were two ways to tackle this situation. One was to fight out the case in court. But this would disturb the entire family and ruin everybody's peace. The daughters simply could not bring themselves to act this way. The other way was to grin and bear it. And that was what most women did. They did not want to create unpleasantness or hatred. So they distanced themselves from this and believed that it was happening to someone else other than themselves.

O Lord why have you not given woman
The right to conquer her destiny?
Why does she have to wait head bowed,
By the road side,
Waiting with tired patience,

Hoping for a miracle in the morrow? (Rabindranath Tagore)

The Physical House and the Human Body

Lakshmi Kannan spends time in exploring the analogy between the physical house and the human body. While the physical boundaries of a house holds the body, the human body in turn houses the 'being'. Gayatri talks to Rama about the need to break free of restrictive boundaries, and yet acknowledges the futility of these attempts. Despite attempts to free herself of both physical and mental fetters, she states, "we only fail in our efforts and return grudgingly to the shell of our body like disappointed tenants, to continue with our lives half-heartedly" (GH, 21).

Being Unhoused

After the loss of The Retreat, Gayatri is filled with a restlessness and an unhoused feeling taking over her which she cannot verbalize. She feels neither at home in the physical house, nor in her personal cage-body. "Does my body belong to me, or is it something that is holding me down, trying to subdue me? (GH 88)

Women who have Changed Their Dress Code but cannot Change Their Status

Going Home attempts to study the condition of women in India in the sixties to eighties. The novel talks of formally and apparently socially respectable educated women who witnessed a mute, dull, numbing pain and were trying to break their long, oppressive silence. It talks of women who had changed their dress code but nevertheless could not change their status that was still governed by the random accident of their birth. Their growing up in the male dominated society developed a low esteem for them as they saw themselves inferior in the cultural and social context.

Voicing against Inequalities in the Society

Arundhati Roy and Lakshmi Kannan's analysis of woman's predicament has been executed on several levels: each of the different female roles is examined – woman who is denied a home, woman alienated from her emotions. As writers both have used their words and the voices of their characters to sell their values, stand on social issues and point out the inequalities in the Indian society. Their voices are strong and loud. They have fought for a world that is free from discriminative value systems, hypocrisies and prejudiced laws. They have discarded any negative criticism that they might encounter and have been very straight forward, taking up cudgels against the world through their writings.

Women's Writing – Channel for Their Voices

Both the novels embody agonies of women emerging from the state of subjugation and bondage. They seek to establish their identity and the self. As Margaret Dickie observes in *Contemporary Literature*

If the voices of women are not mute, neither are they the voice of the dominant culture. They are rather new voices at the fringes of society; where, language

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changes and develops, woman's writing has always been a channel for such voices.

Social Changes brought about by Women Writers

The appearance of women novelists like Arundhati Roy and Lakshmi Kannan in India has added a new dimension to the English novel. Both the novels are about the urban middle class, the stratum of society they know best. Social changes do not take place overnight. As our society gradually emerges from its cocoon of prudery and inhibition into progressive permissiveness, the sensitive writers detail out these changes in fictional narratives. They show beyond doubt that women's liberation is at last becoming a part of national progressive consciousness.

Redrawing Boundaries – Gender in the New Economy

Thanks to Arundhati Roy and Lakshmi Kannan who were able to point out to the anomalies, ambiguities and inequalities in the earlier property laws which professed equal share share for men and women only in name. The Hindu Succession Act (Amendment) 2005 laid down a uniform and comprehensive system of inheritance that ensures greater property rights instead of limited rights in property. Thus it has removed the gender discrimination in respect of dwelling houses as well as agricultural lands. Further it makes the heirs of predeceased sons and daughters more equal. Now, all daughters including those married, widows, and remarried, have the same rights as sons and grandsons, to reside in or seek partition of the parental dwelling house. The outline of *The God of Small Things* and *Going Home*, stressing on the right to property as important for the freedom and development of women has been realized now to a greater extent.

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Formative Influences on Sir Salman Rushdie

Prabha Parmar, Ph.D.

Salman Rushdie, A Renowned Novelist

Sir Salman Rushdie has earned widespread reputation both in India and abroad as a novelist, essayist and discussant. He has a significant place in world literature. He has achieved a prestigious position in the Indo-English literature through his brilliant works.

Salman Rushdie, a Bombay born and London based novelist, was born in a Muslim family on 19 June 1947 in Bombay. He has written ten novels, two collections of short stories, many literature reviews and essays and two documentary films. He is a recipient of many awards along with 'Booker of Bookers'. Salman Rushdie is called "The demon-king of Indian English literature."¹ Rushdie is part of the bumper crop of Indian Writing in English: "One could hardly disagree with Rushdie that 'on the map of world literature', too, India has been undersized for too long, but a bumper crop of writing in English has emerged from the non-imperial postcolonial cultures, especially from India."²

Novels of Rushdie

Rushdie's novels deal with many themes like history, politics, love, shame, religion, exile and rootlessness. "Rushdie's work is so particular, in terms of subject matter, themes, setting, story-telling devices and formal literary method that no one but he can speak in his tongue."³

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Formative Influences on Sir Salman Rushdie

Rushdie has been influenced by some writers from English literature. This is not unusual, since influence on one writer by other is not a new thing in the world of English literature. Father of English and English poem Chaucer was also influenced by Boccaccio. The great dramatist Shakespeare took several of his ideas from others. “But much of the writing is evidently not his and as it seems probable that the conception and construction of the whole tragedy should also be attributed to some writer.”⁴

So, in the same way, Salman Rushdie is much influenced by some other writers along with Shakespeare. He was influenced by G.V. Desani, Gunter Grass and Shakespeare, most of all. His themes are also influenced by these writers. “Rushdie combines realism and fantasy, and, like South American novelists Gabriel Garcia Marquez and Jorge Luis Borges, he roundly satirizes the politics and society of the country in which each novel is set.”⁵ About the involvement of some famous books and writers in Rushdie’s fiction Damian Grant writes, “These influences include, it must be said, the Bible and the Koran, the Indian epics, Sufi texts, Virgil, Dante, Shakespeare, Black,Dickens, Bulgokov, Beckett, and, of course, Joyce himself.”⁶

Salman Rushdie’s Background

Salman Rushdie is an Indian and a Muslim also, so he knows a lot of things about India and Pakistan. He uses Muslim religion and both these countries in his novels. Rushdie himself writes in his third novel *Shame* – “I, too, know something of this immigrant business. I am an emigrant from one country (India) and a newcomer in two (England, where I lived and Pakistan, to which my family moved against my will).”⁷ These lines show his love for India and in an interview he accepts himself, “If you have to choose a nationality as a writer, I’d call myself an Indian writer.”⁸

His only novel *Fury* can be said an American novel, but it is also influenced by the Indian city Mumbai (Bombay), because the hero of this novel is born in Bombay. But, due to his direct writing about Islam, he had to face many problems and comments, such as, “I said, Hai Ram, our Salman has lost touch with his native land and with the religion of his fathers.”⁹

Gunter Grass and Salman Rushdie

There is a similarity between Gunter Grass and Salman Rushdie. Like Rushdie, Grass also had to face a ban. Rushdie’s novel *Shame, The Satanic Verses, and The Moor’s Last Sigh* had to face proscription. About the ban of Grass’ novel it is right that his *The Call of the Toad*, a depiction of the post-wall disenchantment and march of the Neo-Nazi also faced ban in Germany. Rushdie’s second novel *Midnight’s Children* is compared with Grass’ *The Tin Drum*, apart from being compared with other works of other writers, “As a growing-up novel with allegorical dimensions, it will remind readers of ‘Augie March’ “and may be of Gunter Grass’ ‘The Tin Drum’, Laurence Strene’s ‘Tristram Shandy’, and Celine’s ‘Death on the Installment Plan’ as well as the less portentous portions of V.S.Naipaul.”¹⁰

If we say Gunter Grass as the teacher of Sir Salman Rushdie, it is not a wrong statement because Salman adopts many ideas and themes from his works. Rushdie's main themes such as history, politics, and realism are also influenced by Grass. It is true to say that he has been taught by Gunter Grass.

Valentine Cunningham writes about Rushdie's second novel and tells, "It's a remarkable dexterous performance. But, if the granting of the Indian text so high a degree of self-consciousness were all, *Midnight's Children* might be as dismissible ... as a smart refurbishing of bits of Sterne and James, of *Heart of Darkness* and *Finnegan's Wake*, by courtesy of Deconstructionism out of Wolfgang Iser."¹¹

Rushdie's themes are affected by Gunter Grass as well as his language and his techniques – "His relationship with Gunter Grass, in his use of language and narrative technique. As for Gunter Grass, for Rushdie also the esthetic medium is an aspect of 'exploration' of the narrative world itself."³⁰

Indian Influence

Rushdie is influenced by the Indian writer and philosopher G.V.Desani. Desani's influence on Rushdie's work, especially in the novel *Midnight's Children* is easily perceived. Catherine Cundy wrote in an article in a newspaper in 1982 that Rushdie himself accepted the influence of the Indian writer and philosopher G.V.Desani on his work. Further Catherine Cundy wrote about the similarities and influences on Rushdie: "Desani's own background - born in Nairobi and subsequently residing in both Britain and the United States- presents another common factor with Rushdie through his migrancy. Similarly the links between *All about H.Hatterr* and, for example, *Midnight's Children*, are clear. Published in the year following Indian independence, Desani's novel is a world away from the ponderous, overtly politicized work of Rao and Anand."¹²

These lines of Catherine Cundy show the influence of Desani on Rushdie. About Desani's influence on himself, Rushdie confesses - "My own writing too, learned a trick or two from him."¹³

According to Rushdie, G.V. Desani stands with R. K. Narayan. Though Desani is the writer of a single work of fiction, *All About H.Hatterr*, yet Rushdie keeps him on the side of Narayan, who is a very famous Indian writer of world stature. Rushdie writes about G.V.Desani that he placed this writer along with Narayan because Dasani has fallen so far from favour that the extra-ordinary *All About H.Hatterr* is presently out of point everywhere, even in India.

Themes of Desani and Rushdie are well affected by each other. Rushdie's *Midnight's Children* is well reflected in the works of Desani. Although there are many other writers also, who are influenced by Desani, Rushdie is the best among them. K.D. Verma writes in *Indian Writing in English: Structure of consciousness, literary history and critical theory*, that

Rushdie's novel *Midnight's Children* seems to resemble Desani and he also writes that a serious reading of both shows that they are hardly apolitical.

Other Influences

The effect of Grass, Kundera, Garcia Marquez and Desani on Rushdie can be seen in his second and third novels. The tragedy and the destiny of both these novels are matched with the techniques of those writers: - "In a post script to his story, the author acknowledges having quoted Milan Kundera, Franz Kafka, Nikolai Erdmann and Georg Buchner. Here and there in the text, one can't help thinking of Gabriel Garcia Marquez. These are extraordinary writers with whom to be associated, but it's company that Salman Rushdie deserves."¹⁴

Rushdie, in his novel *Fury*, writes about one of his favorite writers: Gunter Grass. "It was so great to see my dad finally with his like peers and getting so much respect, and besides, here were all these names walking around attached to the real people they belonged to, Donald Barthelme, Gunter Grass, Czeslaw Milosz, Grace Paley, John Updike, everyone."¹⁵

About Grass' influence on him, Rushdie himself said that he is a great admirer of Gunter Grass, and about his novel *The Tin Drum* on his writing, Rushdie writes - "This is what Grass's great novel said to me in its drumbeats: Go for broke. Always try and do too much. Dispense with safety nets. Take a deep breath before you begin talking. Aim for the stars. Keep grinning. Be bloody minded. Argue with the world. And never forget that writing is as close as we get to keeping a hold on the thousand and one things childhood, certainties, cities, doubts, dreams, instants, phrases, parents, loves-that go on slipping, like sand, through our fingers."¹⁶

In an interview, when Rushdie was asked about the comparison of his work to Sterne, Joyce, Marquez, Naipaul, Kundera, Grass, then he said- "I won't deny that it's flattering. It's very pleasant to be mentioned in the same company as those people... And there are other writers in that tradition that weren't mentioned as direct influences on the book but whom I admire very much, like Gogol and Kafka and Calvino."¹⁷

Rushdie's First Novel

Rushdie's first novel was *Grimus*, for which he devoted five years of his life. This was just a gamble for him because this is a novel of a different theme. According to Salman Rushdie, it was very dangerous to write a novel like this. Rushdie adopts the theme of the novel from a religious/spiritual source. He told in his interview that he adopted the theme of this novel from Sufi poetry, and used them in the context of a Western fantasy novel. It was a poem by a 12th century Persian Sufi called *Attar*, Farid-ul-din Attar, who wrote a poem which is a kind of Persian equivalent to *Pilgrim's Progress*. It was a poem about birds. They were in search of a bird God. But, in the novel of Rushdie, a bird, Flapping, is in search of his sister. Rushdie himself accepted that he was interested in science fiction.

Rushdie's Second Novel

About the influence of his second novel, Rushdie said that his hero is not influenced by the protagonists of *Candide* or *The Tin Drum* – “But Saleem is not innocent as *Candide*. *Candide* is a kind of blank slate on whom the world writes. Saleem is also compared to little Oskar in *The Tin Drum*. And I think he falls somewhere between *Candide* and Oskar.”¹⁸

Influence of Gabriel Garcia Marquez

After these writers, Rushdie also accepts that he is too much influenced by Gabriel Garcia Marquez - “I admire all his writings very much. I think, though, there isn't a very close relationship other than they are both books which have a political content. What I think is that the way of writing – which you find all over the world. Garcia Marquez is not the only one - is still relatively rare in the novel, and what tends to happen is that all the people who write like that get put in the same basket.”¹⁹

Influence of Shakespeare

Rushdie was also too much influenced by very famous dramatist Shakespeare.

In all his novels, Rushdie talks about Shakespeare's plays or the characters of his plays. In his third novel *Shame*, Rushdie talks about the famous tragedy of Shakespeare - *Julius Ceasar*. As *Shame* is a novel with tragic end, so, it may be the reason that Rushdie recalls the tragic and famous play written by the great dramatist of English literature. In the same way, in his next novel *The Satanic Verses*, he recalls Shakespeare. This time he recalls the disguise of his heroines – “Or the true story of the white actress playing a black woman in Shakespeare.”²⁰

Salman Rushdie also recalls the famous Indian writer Rabindra Nath Tagore with Shakespeare – “His *Gitanjali*, *Eclogues* or the play *Othello* that he explained was really Attallah or Attaullah expect the writer couldn't spell, what sort of writer was that, anyway?”²¹ He, in these lines accepts, that Tagore and Shakespeare were great writers and he further compares the heroine of *The Satanic Verses*, Pamela Chamcha to Shylock – “Pamela, of course, made incessant efforts to betray her class and race, and so, predictably, professed herself horrified, bracketing *Othello* with Shylock and beating the racist Shakespeare over the head with the brace of them.”²² After that, Rushdie compares his characters to the characters of the plays of Shakespeare – “My Chamcha may be no ancient of Venice, my Allie no smothered Desdemona, Farishta no match for the Moor, but they will, at least, be costumed in such explanations as my understanding will allow.”²³ Through these lines, Rushdie confesses the greatness of Shakespeare's characters over his characters. Although Rushdie associates his characters with Shakespeare's he also accepts the greatness of that old dramatist over himself.

In the sixth novel of Rushdie, *The Moor's Last Sigh*, the influence of Shakespeare can be seen easily. *Othello* was a moor and in the same way the hero of the novel *The Moor's Last Sigh*, is also called Moor. So, it is the reason that Rushdie calls his hero as the fellow of *Othello*. In the

same novel he again recalls the great dramatist; he talks about the great comedy *The Merchant of Venice* – “Portia, a rich girl, supposedly intelligent, who acquiesces in her late father’s will- that she must marry any other man who solves the riddle of the three caskets, gold, silver, lead- is presented to us by Shakespeare as the very archetype of justice.”²⁴

Next novel of Rushdie *The Ground Beneath Her Feet* is also influenced by Shakespeare. This is a love story of Ormus Cama and Vina Apsara. In the novel, a father, John Poe, tells his daughter about the benefit of the milk of goat in comparison with the milk of cow – “Nissy Poe grew up without knowing the taste of cow milk. John Poe told her that goat milk was easier to digest, and even encouraged her to wash her face in it as a beauty treatment, as Queen Cleopatra used to do.”²⁵ Queen Cleopatra from Shakespeare’s plays *Julius Caesar* and *Antony and Cleopatra*. Further, Rushdie recalls the famous play of Shakespeare, *Twelfth Night*. He writes – “Twelfth Night at Middle Temple on Twelfth Night, Middle Temple being the place where Twelfth Night had first been staged on an earlier Twelfth Night.”²⁶

In the novel, Rushdie declares Shakespeare’s *Hamlet* as the best play – “Just as *Hamlet* is the best play...”²⁷ It is the habit of Rushdie that he compares his characters to Shakespeare’s or uses the names and the names of the plays of Shakespeare as a simile in his novels. He compares his character Yul Singh with Macbeth – “Like the laughter dying on Macbeth’s lips at the appearance of what Yul Singh once memorably called Banquo’s ghost.”²⁸

Next novel written by Rushdie is *Fury*. In this novel also the influence of Shakespeare’s work can be seen. In the novel he writes about the love of different kinds amongst the characters of different plays of Shakespeare – “Why did Hamlet, loving his dead father, interminably delay his revenge while, loved by Ophelia, he destroyed her instead? Why did Lear, loving Cordelia best of his daughters, fails to hear the love in her opening-scene honesty and so fall prey to her sister’s unlovingness; and why was Macbeth, a man’s man by the erotic but loveless Lady M. towards an evil throne of blood?”²⁹ Further in the novel, Rushdie compares his hero’s mentality with Othello. Malik, like Othello, wants to kill his wife, as in the play of *Othello*. Othello killed his wife Desdemona.

The next novel of Salman Rushdie is *Shalimar The Clown*. This is a story of love and revenge of a husband. *Hamlet* is also a story of revenge. So, both the works, *Shalimar The Clown* and *Hamlet* have similar themes. Therefore, we come to the conclusion that Rushdie’s work is influenced by Gunter Grass, G. V. Desani and Shakespeare as well.

Although Rushdie’s mother tongue is Urdu but he adopts English for his literary writings and for his works. Now Rushdie is a bright star of English literature. He himself writes about his language – “But my own mother- tongue, Urdu, the camp- argot of the country’s earlier Muslim conquerors, became naturalized sub-continental language long ago; and by now that has happened to English, too. English has become an Indian language. Its colonial origins mean that, like Urdu and unlike all other Indian languages, it has no regional base; but in all other ways, it has emphatically come to stay.”³¹

Influence of Other Writers

Rushdie also accepts that there are some writers who contributed to the growth of standard of English in India. According to Rushdie, due to those writers – “The map of the world, in the standard Mercator projection, is not kind of India, making it look substantially smaller than, say, Greenland. On the map of world literature, too, India has been undersized for too long. This anthology celebrates the writers who are ensuring that, fifty years after India’s independence, which age of absurdity is coming to an end.”³²

Rushdie’s English

Although Rushdie himself accepts that Urdu is his mother-tongue, his works in English are so perfect in terms of language use and his power of story-telling that it is hard to guess that English is not his own mother-tongue. O.P. Bhatnagar writes, “The magnificent use which the writers like Chinua Achebe, Ngugi, Wole Soyinka, V.S. Naipaul, Nirad Chaudhari, Raja Rao, G.V.Desani and Salman Rushdie have made of English has not only outwitted the mother language but has renovated it to experiences it might not have undergone in its mother country.”³³

Rushdie’s themes may not be new, but his ability to present his creative writing in English is superb. Rushdie presents English in some novel ways in his novels - a distinct spoken language or dialect which has been branded Indian English – “Rushdie included this brand of Indian English or ‘Chutneyfied English’ as he calls it in his novel *Midnight’s Children* and started a trend which his contemporaries have enthusiastically perpetrated.”³⁴ He has claimed that in his use of Chutneyfied English in his novels he has been greatly influenced by Desani. Moreover, “Lovely Lassi, Funtabulous Falooda, and more of that bhel-purified English from an ex-copy writer was a necessary medium for paraphrasing a Chutneyfied history.”³⁵

So, we can say that Rushdie’s themes as well as his language are influenced by other writers. It is true that he has a good command of his themes and language as well. In spite of all the influences that he received and exploited, Rushdie has made a niche for himself in the literary world as an original writer with his own peculiarities. In this regard we can quote Compton A. Rickett – “The supreme question after all is, not where does the top-root of genius draw its nourishment, but what is the eliminating expression of that nourishment? What blossom is forth-coming? Genius has an alchemy of its own that can transmute the base metals; it may steal on occasion, into pure gold.”³⁶ It is completely true in the case of Salman Rushdie and his writings.

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Role of Science Education Projects for the Qualitative Improvement of Science Teachers at the Secondary Level in Pakistan

**Ghazala Shaheen, Ph.D., Sajid Rehman, Ph.D., Aijaz Ahmed Gujjar,
Naemullah Bajwa, Ph.D. and Muhamamd Ramzan, Ph.D.**

Abstract

This study was aimed at describing the role of science education projects for the qualitative improvement of science teachers at the secondary level in Pakistan. All the heads of institutions and science teachers of secondary schools in Pakistan constituted the population of the study. Hundred heads of institutions and 100 science teachers from one hundred institutions were selected as a sample of the study from all over the Pakistan. Two questionnaires (one each for heads of institutions and other for science teachers) were developed and validated through pilot testing and administered to the sample for collection of data. Researcher personally visited respondents and thus 100% data were collected. Collected data were tabulated and analyzed by using chi square.

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Introduction

Teacher plays an important role for the delivery of education. The quality of education is deteriorating in Pakistan. Two science education projects have been launched to improve the science education in Pakistan. The major objective of the present study was to investigate the role of science education projects for the qualitative improvement of science teachers at secondary level in Pakistan.

Since 1947, two Science Education Projects have been launched. In its “Action Plan for Educational Development for the Period 1983-1988”, the Government proposed to upgrade science education by developing an institutional base; improving the quality and relevance of science education by revising science curricula; and providing in-service training to science teachers, and science laboratories to 3,000 middle schools and 500 high schools and science equipment to selected schools in the country. The project was designed to assist the Government in implementing the Action Plan by undertaking a part of the plan (Asian Development Bank, 1995).

In specific objectives, two objectives are closely related to the quality of science teachers. These are

- To develop manpower in science education through.
 - a) Higher studies leading to MS/Ph.D. in science education.
 - b) Short visits by attachment or study of program in neighboring countries similar to the project;
 - c) In-service training of 9885 middle and 7415 high schools science teachers.

"To improve the quality of science teacher training by strengthening 105 teacher training institutions/ college/ IERs in the provinces and increase the supply of trained professional science educators to sustain improvement efforts on long term basis of Pakistan, 1986). The most noteworthy ... achievement of the Project was the establishment of an effective system for the in-service training of science teachers under the direction of IPSET (Govt. of Pakistan, 2005a).

The government is aware of the fact that an increased and adequate availability of qualified Scientific and Technological manpower is important to the social and economic development of the country. The government, therefore, intends to strengthen Science Education and increase its quality and relevance at all levels. The staff development

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program of SEP-II is geared to assist the government to improve Science Education at secondary level by contributing to the development of skilled man power at higher levels by producing students with a better knowledge of basic sciences.

About 3 million science students of Standards V-X are being benefited due to the fact that 32,000 science and math teachers, Principals/head masters of elementary and secondary level have been provided in-service training on various aspects of science, math and computer education.

The beneficial effects of nature and the natural sciences on the development of thinking, speech, attention, memory and imagination are clearly and comprehensively reflected in the general teaching theory and practice of science. A great deal depends on the teacher's skill in presenting scenes from nature during his lessons, using living specimen and talking about them in an interesting way (UNESCO, 1987).

The skills and techniques of imparting useful scientific knowledge are also evolving and the classroom lecture and the textbook as the sole sources of knowledge will be supplemented, and perhaps, replaced by newer educational techniques grounded by learning research (Meyer, 1983).

Successful classroom instruction depends upon the technique of teaching; through it, the learning activity of the pupils is guided. It is teaching technique that provides this guidance for the pupils, therefore, the instructional period should be a learning period for the pupils. The general principles of learning should have specific application in every actual teaching situation.

Since the outcomes of teaching and learning are both in pupil achievement, the technique of teaching as well as that of learning depends upon the learning outcomes being sought by the pupil at any time. This gives the teacher his opportunity to determine the method of teaching that should be used (Chand, 1990).

Technology media and materials useful in the instructional process are manifold. These range from simple varieties of helping teachers to developing and presenting their lessons more effectively in traditional classrooms to sophisticated machines and mechanisms, completely changing the classroom teaching structure and situation.

The teacher of today has at his command an array of aids, some ready made and some fabricated by the teacher. Using these teaching aids, the teacher can plan learning situations and be sure of realizing his objectives. The teacher can make use of specific audio—visual aids to suit his purpose. The aids being concrete will be able to secure the attention of pupils, motivate, enable the pupils form accurate concepts and ensure permanent retention of the knowledge gained. A teacher using appropriate aid can make clear a difficult concept even to a below average pupil very easily (Sampath, 1990).

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The idea of teaching science by enquiry with an emphasis on problem solving, which means to find out how students process and interpret an information. Problem solving includes an attitude or predisposition toward inquiry as well as actual processes by which individuals attempt to gain knowledge. Usually when teachers discuss problem solving on the part of pupils, they anticipate pupils will become involved with the thinking operations of analysis, synthesis and evaluation (Edline, 1989).

The scientific method is universally held to be the logical system underlying scientific progress. It enables us to identify a problem within the field of natural sciences, formulate a working hypothesis as a tentative explanation leading to possible solution, carry out experiments, which enable us to support or eliminate the working hypothesis; enlarge the conclusions from individual cases to general ones; and establish new theories on the basis of the conclusions (Harre, 1970).

Bashir Pervez, Project Advisor (World Bank, Resident Mission in Pakistan), stated that the basic issue is that teacher education in Pakistan is facing an identity crisis, essentially because teaching skills have erroneously been accepted to be synonymous with teacher training skills. Every teacher trainer is a teacher of a sort, but every teacher is not and cannot automatically be a teacher trainer. In addition, while teacher training is a professional discipline it is not recognized as such.

The subsidiary issues are as follows:

- Content knowledge weakness
- Pedagogical competence gap
- In-service training deficiencies
- Lack of ongoing classroom support

Shami and Hussain (2005, p.20) found that during field visits it was observed that quality of education is deteriorating due to non availability of required training to teachers. They suggest that if we want to improve quality of education then teacher training should be designed according to the practical requirements of the teachers.

Procedure of the Study

Heads of institutions and science teachers of secondary schools constituted the population of the study. One hundred heads of institutions and one hundred science teachers were randomly selected as sample of the study from all over Pakistan. Two questionnaires were used at five points and two points rating scale in order to collect the views of heads of institutions and science teachers. These questionnaires were validated through pilot testing and administered to the sample for collection of data. Researcher personally

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visited respondents and thus 100% data were collected. Collected data were tabulated and analyzed by using chi square.

Results

In this section, firstly the combined responses of heads of institutions and science teachers were analyzed. Secondly, separate responses of heads of institutions were analyzed and lastly, separate responses of science teachers were interpreted.

Responses of Heads of Institutions and Science Teachers

Table 1. Scholarship is needed for science teachers.

	SA	A	UD	DA	SDA	Total	χ^2
Heads of institution	62	26	0	8	4	100	5.60
Science teachers	57	31	4	6	2	100	

Non-Significant df=4 χ^2 at 0.05 level = 9.49

Table 1 indicates that the obtained χ^2 value (5.60) showed non-significant difference at 0.05 level. Thus, both the respondents heads of institution and science teachers agreed that scholarship was needed for science teachers.

Table 2. Quality of science teaching is up-to-the-mark.

	SA	A	UD	DA	SDA	Total	χ^2
Heads of institution	4	70	8	16	2	100	22.17
Science teachers	6	37	18	35	4	100	

* Significant df=4 χ^2 at 0.05 level = 9.49

Table 2 indicates that the obtained χ^2 value (22.17) showed significant difference in the opinions of heads of institutions and science teachers about the quality of science teaching at 0.05 level. Heads of institutions perceived that quality of science teaching was up-to-the-mark while science teachers gave less weight age in favor of the statement.

Table 3: Science teachers for the subject of physics are available.

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	Yes	No	Total	χ^2
Heads of institutions	80	20	100	5.98*
Science teachers	92	8	100	

* Significant df=1 χ^2 at 0.05 level = 3.841

Table 3 indicates that the obtained χ^2 value (5.98) showed significant difference in the opinions of heads of institutions and science teachers about the availability of science teachers (physics) at 0.05 level. This shows that science teachers for the subject of physics were available in schools.

Table 4: Science teachers for the subject of chemistry are available.

	Yes	No	Total	χ^2
Heads of institutions	82	18	100	10.01*
Science teachers	96	4	100	

* Significant df=1 χ^2 at 0.05 level = 3.841

Table 4 indicates that the obtained χ^2 value (10.01) showed significant difference in the opinions of heads of institutions and science teachers about the availability of science teachers (chemistry) at 0.05 level. This shows that science teachers for the subject of chemistry were available in schools.

Table 5: Science teachers for the subject of biology are available.

	Yes	No	Total	χ^2
Heads of institutions	86	14	100	9.78*
Science teachers	98	2	100	

* Significant df=1 χ^2 at 0.05 level = 3.841

Table 5 indicates that the obtained χ^2 value (9.78) showed significant difference in the opinions of heads of institutions and science teachers about the availability of science teachers (biology) at 0.05 level. This shows that science teachers for the subject of biology were available in schools.

Table 6: Science teachers for the subject of mathematics are available.

	Yes	No	Total	χ^2
Heads of institutions	80	20	100	0.13
Science teachers	82	18	100	

Non-Significant df=1 χ^2 at 0.05 level = 3.841

Table 6 indicates that the obtained χ^2 value (0.13) showed non-significant difference in the opinions of heads of institutions and science teachers about the availability of science teachers (mathematics) at 0.05 level. Thus, both the respondents intended that science teachers for the subject of mathematics were available in schools.

Table 7: Science teachers for the subject of computer science are available.

	Yes	No	Total	χ^2
Heads of institutions	54	46	100	0.02
Science teachers	53	47	100	

Non-significant df=1 χ^2 at 0.05 level = 3.841

Table 7 indicates that the obtained χ^2 value (0.02) showed non-significant difference in the opinions of heads of institutions and science teachers about the availability of science teachers (computer science) at 0.05 level. Thus, intension of both the respondents showed that half of the schools have had science teachers for the subject of computer science.

Heads of the institution

Table 8. Responses of heads of institutions about the role of Science Education Project-II for improvement of science teaching

Statement	SA	A	UD	DA	SDA	Total	χ^2
1. Science teachers are professionally qualified through Science Education Project-II	28	66	0	4	2	100	158.0
2. Science teachers are academically qualified through Science Education Project-II	38	54	2	4	2	100	119.2

3. An integrated management structure for the training of science teacher, development and monitoring of science, mathematics and computer education has been established through Science Education Project-II	0	60	20	20	0	100	24.0
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* Significant df=4 χ^2 at 0.05 level = 9.49

Statement 1 (Table 8) reveals that the obtained value of χ^2 was found to be significant at 0.05 level. Hence the statement “Science teachers are professionally qualified through Science Education Project-II” is accepted.

Statement 2 (Table 8) indicates that the calculated value of χ^2 was found to be significant at 0.05 level. Hence the statement “Science teachers are academically qualified through Science Education Project-II” is accepted.

Statement 3 (Table 8) depicts the obtained value of χ^2 was found to be significant at 0.05 level. Hence the statement “An integrated management structure for the training of science teacher, development and monitoring of science, mathematics and computer education has been established through Science Education Project-II” is accepted.

Science Teachers

Table 9. Opinion of science teachers about teaching methods and teachers training

Statement	SA	A	UD	DA	SDA	Total	χ^2
1. Modern teaching methods are used to teach the science subjects	12	45	12	27	4	100	52.90
2. Audio / visual aids are used in the school to teach the science subjects	9	37	14	31	9	100	34.40
3. In-service teacher training in science subjects is arranged in Regional Training Centers under SEP-II.	5	52	12	27	4	100	80.90
4. Refresher courses for teaching science are conducted regularly in Regional Training Centers under Science Education Project-II.	14	52	8	21	5	100	71.50

* Significant df=4 χ^2 at 0.05 level = 9.49

Statement 1 (table 9) that the obtained value of χ^2 was found to be significant at 0.05 level. Hence the statement “Modern teaching methods are used to teach the science subjects” is accepted.

Statement 2 (table 9) indicates that the obtained value of χ^2 was found to be significant at 0.05 level. Hence the statement “Audio/visual aids are used in the school to teach the science subjects” is accepted.

Statement 3 (table 9) indicates that the obtained value of χ^2 was found to be significant at 0.05 level. Hence the statement “Teacher training in science subjects is arranged according to modern needs” is accepted.

Statement 4 (table 9) indicates that the obtained value of χ^2 was found to be significant at 0.05 level. Hence the statement “Refresher courses for teaching science are conducted regularly” is accepted.

Discussion

Regarding up-gradation of science education’s relevance and quality, majority of experts viewed that quality of education was not up to the mark. While majority of heads of institutions, science teachers and students opined that quality of science education was up to mark. This idea was disapproved by (ADB 1996) which reported that SEP I had not yet achieve its primary objective of improving of quality and relevance of science education. Research in science education is helpful to increase the quality and relevance. Both experts and heads of the institutions viewed that education department took interest in conducting research in science education.

Most of the heads of institutions viewed that science teachers were professionally as well as academically qualified. Heads of institutions also opined that teacher training in science subject was arranged according to modern needs. This idea is also supported by Government of Pakistan (2005), that principals/headmasters of elementary and secondary level were provided in-service training on various aspects of science, mathematics and computer education. Majority of heads of institutions expressed that there was acute shortage of science teachers in the schools. The experts expressed that motivation was lacking in teachers.

According to Government of Pakistan (2005) to motivate and overcome the shortage of female science and mathematics teachers, particularly in rural schools, the project provided 264 scholarships for F.Sc pass female students to complete three years B.S.Ed. degree. These scholarships were awarded on merit to the female students belonging to rural areas. Later on, in view of limited number of available seats of B.S.Ed. course, ADB consented to a proposal to allow one year B.Ed course as well. Third option was also agreed with, to award scholarship for two years BSc course followed by one year B.Ed course.

Conclusions

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In the light of analysis of data and findings of the study, following conclusions were drawn;

1. Majority of heads of the institutions, teachers and students opined that science teachers for the subject of Physics, Chemistry, Biology and Mathematics were available. Most of the heads of the institutions viewed that science teachers were professionally as well as academically qualified.
2. Majority of heads of the institutions and teachers viewed that science teachers for the subject of computer science were not available. The reason for such shortage might be due to absence of computer courses in teacher education programs.
3. Majority of heads of institutions and science teachers expressed their views that quality of science education was up to mark.
4. Majority of students viewed that Audio/Visual aids were not used to teach the science subjects.
5. Majority of teachers viewed that in-service teacher training as well as refresher courses in science subjects were arranged in Regional Training Centers under SEP-II. Both teachers and students expressed that activity-oriented and other modern methods were used to teach the science subjects.
6. Majority of heads of the institutions were found dissatisfied with regular release of funds for science education. The heads of institutions pointed out that funds provided for the implementation of science education project were insufficient. Majority of the experts, heads of institutions and science teachers viewed that local government did not provide funds for science education projects in Pakistan.

Recommendations

In the light of the study results, the following major recommendations were made:

1. The study results revealed that computer teachers were not available. It is recommended that computer science teacher's posts be sanctioned for each secondary school. Computer courses may also be introduced in teacher education programs so that computer teachers be made available for appointment in schools.
2. It was found that science teachers were not using A/V aids and activity-oriented methods of teaching in the classes. It is recommended that A/V aids be used during teaching of science subjects. Proper monitoring of the training be given to use A/V aids like overhead projectors, slide projectors, biology slides and charts, computer aided instructions (software), science/mathematics kit as well as modern methods of teaching be ensured. It is suggested that science teachers be provided in-service training in the development of low cost A/V aids and be motivated to use of available equipments and aids. Activity oriented teaching be encouraged. Practicals be given due importance. Science teachers should use science teaching kit for

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demonstration before the students and likewise students be used science teaching kit to perform the activity assigned by the teacher. There is need of peer coaching and supervision of the teachers. Teacher training needs to be assessed weekly or monthly. With the help of peer coaching teachers in the same school can observe each other and help each other to employ active teaching and learning strategies.

3. The study findings revealed that motivation was lacking in teachers. It is suggested that communication, interaction and coordination among heads, science teachers and project personnel be encouraged. Also, incentives in the form of extra increment, certificate of recognition or bonus salary be given to science teachers in order to promote motivation among them. Donor agencies be approached for the arrangement of extra funds.
4. The study revealed that funds provided for science education were insufficient and these were not properly utilized and regularly released. It is therefore, recommended that availability of sufficient funds be ensured. Loans from foreign agencies be taken for completing the science education projects in the country. The funds be released regularly and utilized properly. The results of the present study revealed that the local government did not provide funds for science education projects in Pakistan and the funds provided by other agencies were not available in time. There should be involvement of local government to provide funds for science education projects in Pakistan. The government should ensure availability of funds well in time.

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Perception of Phoneme Contrast in Children with Hearing Impairment in Telugu

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1.0. Introduction

Speech perception is the process of transforming a continuously changing acoustic signal into discrete linguistic units (Rvachew & Grawburg 2006).

Phoneme is the smallest linguistic unit of a language. Phoneme within a particular language helps in differentiating one word from another. Phoneme is merely a linguistic unit, which has no perceptual reality in speech perception. Phoneme perception is a form of auditory perception in which the listener and speaker distinguish among the sound contrasts in a language.

Auditory discrimination includes the ability to contrast sounds in environmental as well as the sounds and their pattern in language. Auditory discrimination is an ability to discriminate between the sounds at the articulatory, acoustics and other cognitive levels. Nicolosi, Harryman & Kreschech (1978) defined discrimination as the process of distinguishing among the speech sounds or words by differentiating them as same or different, while Wood (1971) defined auditory discrimination as the ability to discriminate between sounds of different frequency,

intensity and pressure patterns; the ability to distinguish one speech from another (on the basis of these acoustic differences).

Development of Perception

Nittrouer & Burton (2005) showed that developmental course in speech perception occurs as a result of the child's experience with spoken language which produces a gradual accumulation of knowledge about the acoustic-phonetic cues that best represent the phonological units that are important in the ambient language system. The development of language-specific speech perception begins in infancy and continues into late childhood (Hazan & Barrett 2000). Phonemic perception plays crucial role in language processing and numerous behavioural studies have demonstrated similar capacities in infants and adults. Dehaene-Lambertz (1997) studied an event related potential by using phonemic discrimination tasks and compared them to results from the adults. The striking similarities observed both in behaviour and in evoked response potentials between the initial and mature stages suggest continuity in processing and neural structures.

Development of perception beyond the period of early childhood involves recognition of words. Word recognition is a complex process, involving the integration of both the sensory input, or acoustic-phonetic signal, and contextual information. The contextual information involves both pragmatic and general knowledge-based inferences regarding the gist of the incoming message and specific structural effects relating to the phonotactic, syntactic, and semantic restrictions characteristic to a language (Tyler & Frauenfelder 1987). On the whole, school-age children process continuous speech in an adult-like way, making use of context to aid in the interpretation of the acoustic signal. In several respects, children are different from adults; they appear to need more acoustic information before they commit themselves to a decision as to word identity, perhaps because so many words continue to be unfamiliar, at least up to the teens (Cole & Perfetti 1980; Walley & Metsala 1990).

Learning the Phonological System

Analysis of the developing speech of normal children suggests that learning the phonological system of the language is a rule governed process. Children tend to follow the same general sequence of development despite the fact that changes for acquisition vary greatly. Swoboda, Morse & Leavitt (1976) discovered that 2-months old not only discriminated /i/ and /e/ but they also discriminated vowel sounds that fell within the same vowel category but differed with respect to formant frequencies, suggesting that infants, like adults, also perceive vowels in a continuous manner (cited in Houston 2006). Trehub (1976) in Houston (2006) found that English-learning 1- to 4-montholds discriminated the vowel contrast /pa/ versus /ba/ and the consonantal contrast /ra/ versus /ʒa/, which is not linguistically distinctive in English. Unlike infants, English speaking adults often confused the /ra/ versus /ʒa/ contrast, suggesting that linguistic experience produces a loss of sensitivity to non-native contrasts.

Werker & Fennell (2003) conducted a study on 14 month-old infants using switch task. Following habituation to two familiar minimal pair object-label combinations (ball and doll) infants of 14 months looked longer to violation in the object label pairing (label “ball” paired with object “doll”) than to an appropriate pairing. These results using well known words are consistent with the pattern of data recently obtained by Swingley & Aslin (2002) in which it was found that infants of 14 months look longer to the correct object when accompanying well known word is spoken correctly rather than mispronounced. Katrin Stolten (2006) studied on effects of age of onset of L2 acquisition on categorical perception of the voicing contrast in Swedish word initial stops. Only a small minority of the late L2 learners perceived the voicing contrast in a way comparable to native-speaker categorization. The perceptual abilities of children older than twelve months has indicated that speech sound discrimination abilities continues to develop during preschool years and girls tend to perform better on discrimination tests as compared to boys (Barton 1976 & Edward 1974).

1.1. Studies Related to Phonemic Contrast Perception in Hearing Impaired Children

The relative effects of cochlear damage on the perception of various speech features are well established. It has been shown, in subjects with sensorineural hearing loss, supra-segmental features are perceived better than segmental features, vowels better than consonants, vowel height better than vowel place (front, back), word initial consonants better than word-final consonants, and consonant voicing and continuance better than consonant place (Erber 1972; Hack & Erber 1982; Martony et al. 1972; Pickett. et al. 1972; Risberg 1976; Walden & Montgomery 1975). It follows that an individual child may well be able to use hearing for access to certain speech features while requiring non-auditory means of access to others.

In preliminary observations of auditory vowel recognition by hearing-impaired children, Erber (1979) also found that severely hearing-impaired children tend to make two main types of confusions when identifying vowels acoustically. Some children confuse vowels having similar first formants and different second formants, that is, /i/ ↔ /u/. Others confuse vowels having similar first and second formants, or /i/ ↔ /I/.

These observations are similar to those reported by Pickett, Martin, Johnson, Smith, Daniel, Willis & Otis (1972). Profoundly hearing-impaired children seem to perceive vowels mainly on the basis of relative intensity and duration (in Hack & Erber 1982).

The speech encoding ability of eight persons with sensorineural hearing loss and three persons with normal hearing was studied in identification and discrimination paradigms. In the identification task a feature analysis of transmitted information for VC syllables was used to study encoding ability. Transmitted information was reduced (from normal children with compared hearing loss), indicating a loss of ability to encode consonants.

In the discrimination task, coding ability was studied by measuring reaction times for "same" and "different" decisions. The reaction time for individuals with impaired hearing was found to be significantly different from those subjects with normal hearing. The trend was faster for "same"

than "different" reaction time among the normal subjects and faster for "different" than "same" reaction time among the hearing-impaired persons. The results are interpreted as indicating that the two groups of subjects used different processing modes in discriminating between pairs of phonemes (Reed 1975).

Erber (1972) examined the consonants /b, d, g, k, m, n, p, t/ were presented to normal-hearing, severely hearing-impaired, and profoundly deaf children through auditory, visual, and combined auditory-visual modalities and through lip-reading alone. The following groups of subjects were tested five children with normal hearing, five children with severe hearing impairments and five children with profound hearing loss taken from special school, all three groups were able to discriminate between the places of articulation (bilabial, alveolar, velar) but not within each place category. When they received acoustic information only, normal-hearing children recognized the consonants nearly perfectly, and severely hearing-impaired children distinguished accurately between voiceless plosives, voiced plosives, and nasal consonants. However, the scores of the profoundly deaf group were low, and they perceived even voicing and nasality cues unreliably. Although both the normal-hearing and the severely hearing-impaired groups achieved nearly perfect recognition scores through simultaneous auditory-visual reception, the performance of the profoundly deaf children was only slightly better than that which they demonstrated through lip-reading alone.

Jones & Studebaker (1974) studied performance of 23 hearing-impaired children on a closed-response, auditory speech discrimination test and on an open response, auditory speech discrimination test was compared to their performance on auditory tests of sensitivity, teacher evaluated categories, and other related subject data.

The three subtests that make up the OUCRT are (1) an initial-consonant subtest, (2) a final-consonant subtest, and (3) a medial-vowel subtest. The names of the subtests refer to the position of the phoneme which varies in the items of a closed response set. A comparison of the results of closed-response, auditory speech discrimination test and the open-response, auditory speech discrimination test indicates that the closed-response set test paradigm appears more productive for use with severely hearing-impaired subjects whose level of performance is low (but not 0%) on the open-response, auditory speech discrimination test. The closed-response test scores for this group are highly positively correlated to data dependent upon hearing function, whereas the open-response scores are not.

Analyses of the closed response set test results indicate that a closed-response set test paradigm can successfully demonstrate auditory speech discrimination error patterns on a subject group basis. The performance of these subjects on all three subtests of the OUCRT is positively correlated to the teacher evaluated "auditory speech understanding" results. Also, the two consonant subtest results are positively correlated with "overall understanding". These results suggest that the closed-response set test is a fair predictor of auditory speech understanding ability and overall understanding ability of severely hearing impaired subjects.

Hack & Erber (1982) investigated the vowels /i I e ε æ a u Λ ɜ n /. They were presented through auditory, visual, and combined auditory-visual modalities to hearing impaired children having well, intermediate, and poor auditory word recognition skills. The subjects were 18 hearing-impaired children whose speech perception abilities ranged widely. Their average hearing-threshold levels also covered a wide range (83-123 dB), participants were taken from special school setup. The stimuli included in the study were the 10 vowels presented in the bilabial context, /b/- (vowel) -/b/. The test tape of 55 items was shown three times.

When they received acoustic information only, children with good word-recognition skills confused neighbouring vowels (i.e., those having similar formant frequencies). Children with intermediate word-recognition skills demonstrated this same difficulty and confused front and back vowels. Children with poor word-recognition skills identified vowels mainly on the basis of temporal and intensity cues.

Through lip-reading alone, all three groups distinguished spread from rounded vowels but could not reliably identify vowels within the categories. The first two groups exhibited only moderate difficulty in identifying vowels audio visually. The third group, although showing a small amount of improvement over lip-reading alone, still experienced difficulty in identifying vowels through combined auditory and visual modes.

Boothroyd (1984) studied to find out how much of the acoustical information in amplified speech is accessible to children with varying degrees of sensorineural hearing loss. One hundred twenty students from the middle and upper schools of the special school for the Deaf were taken with different degree of hearing loss.

There were 61 boys and 59 girls aged 11-18 years, with a median age of 15 years. The perception of speech pattern contrasts was measured using a four-alternative, forced choice procedure. Four contrasts were evaluated: number of syllables per phrase, vowel nucleus, voicing and continuance of consonants, and place of articulation of consonants. The consonant contrasts were presented in both word-initial and word final positions. There were four trials in each of the four subtests, and the phonetic context of the test contrast was changed from trial to trial in order to reduce the likelihood that students would learn to respond to secondary acoustic cues. Four test forms were prepared, each response alternative serving as a stimulus on one test form context-varying, forced-choice tests of speech perception were presented, without feedback on performance, to orally trained subjects with better ear, three-frequency average hearing losses in the range 55-123 dB HL.

As expected, average performance fell with increasing hearing loss. The values of hearing loss at which scores fell to 50% (after correction for chance) were 75 dB HL for consonant place; 85 dB HL for initial consonant voicing; 90 dB HL for initial consonant continuance; 100 dB HL for vowel place (front-back); 105 dB HL for talker sex; 115 dB HL for syllabic pattern; and in excess of 115 dB HL for vowel height. Performance on the speech contrast tests was significantly correlated with the intelligibility of the subjects' own speech and with the open-set

recognition of phonemes in monosyllabic words, even when pure-tone threshold was held constant.

Seewald, Ross, Giolas & Yonovitz (1985) evaluated the relationships between each of seven predictor variables the following seven variables were considered as possible predictors of the Primary Modality for Speech Perception (PMSP) a) Average Hearing Threshold Level b) Auditory Word Identification Performance c) Visual Word Identification Performance d) Auditory-Visual Word Identification Performance e) Age at which the use of amplification was initiated f) Age at which special education programming was initiated g) the primary mode of communication used in the classroom.

The four standard 25-item lists of the Word Intelligibility by Picture Identification (WIPI) test developed by Ross & Lerman (1971) were employed in the speech reception conditions. The 84 subjects were 15 normal-hearing and 69 hearing-impaired children (38 boys/46 girls) aged 7:5-14:8 (years: months). The 69 hearing-impaired children were selected from several self-contained and mainstream (regular school) educational settings. Of these, 32 were enrolled in educational programs in which total communication was employed, and the remaining 37 hearing-impaired children were selected from programs in which oral-aural communication was used exclusively. Six of the seven predictor variables were significantly correlated with the performance scores obtained within the auditory-visual conflict condition. Only pure-tone average hearing level and auditory word identification performance, however, made unique contributions toward predicting the degree to which audition or vision was used in the perception of the word stimuli.

They concluded that the relative use of audition or vision was almost completely related to their auditory capabilities as represented by the children's unaided threshold sensitivity and aided speech reception performance.

The perception of phonetic features is largely innate. Pre-lingual children are able to perceive all the phonetic contrasts of the world's languages, even those which do not exist in their linguistic environment (Vihman 1996 cited in Medina & Serniclaes (2005). Eimas (1974) empirically demonstrated this in a classic study, in which 1-month and 4-months olds exhibited superior discrimination of phoneme contrast which was from two different perceptual categories with the same categories.

Crandell, Siebein, Martin, Gold, Hassell, Lee, Abbott, Herr & Lehde (1998) examined the speech-perception abilities of children with normal hearing and children with hearing impairment in various classroom environments. Speech perception was assessed at different teacher-student distances via nonsense syllables, monosyllabic words, and sentences.

The acoustical environments varied as a function of reverberation time, early reverberation time, early to late energy ratios, loudness (or relative strength), speech transmission index, background noise levels, and signals to noise ratios. Normal-hearing populations included children, aged 5-15 years, who were progressing normally in school; learning-disabled children; children with

central auditory processing deficits; articulatory- and or language-disordered children; children with developmental delays and or attention deficits; and children for whom English is a second language. Hearing-impaired populations consisted of children with minimal-to-severe degrees of bilateral and unilateral, sensorineural or conductive hearing loss. The speech perception abilities of an adult control group were also obtained.

The results from this investigation indicated the following: (1) each of the paediatric populations obtained poorer speech-perception scores than the adult control group; (2) children with sensorineural hearing loss obtained the poorest perception scores across the paediatric populations tested; (3) speech perception in typical classroom environments did not reach adult-like performance until the age of approximately 15 years; and (4) decreased teacher position significantly improved speech-perception scores in all acoustical environments.

Pittman & Stelmachowicz (2000) examined the perceptual-weighting strategies and performance audibility functions of 11 moderately hearing-impaired (Hearing Impairment) children, 11 age matched normal-hearing children, 11 moderately hearing impairment adults, and 11 normal hearing adults.

The purpose was to (a) determine the perceptual-weighting strategies of hearing impairment children relative to the other groups and (b) determine the audibility required by each group to achieve a criterion level of performance. Stimuli were 4 nonsense syllables (/us/, /uʃ/, /uf/, and /uθ/). Stimuli were 4 nonsense syllables (/us/, /uʃ/, /uf/, and /uθ/). The vowel, transition, and fricative segments of each nonsense syllable were identified along the temporal domain, and each segment was amplified randomly within each syllable during presentation.

Results showed that for /us/ and /uʃ/, all four groups heavily weighted the fricative segments during perception, whereas the vowel and transition segments received little or no weight. For /uf/, relatively low weights were given to each segment by all four groups. For /uθ/, the normal hearing children and adults weighted the transition segment more so than the vowel and fricative segments, whereas the hearing impairment children and adults weighted all three segments equally low. Performance-audibility functions of the fricative segments of /us/ and /uθ/ were constructed for each group.

In general, maximum performance for each group was reached at lower audibility levels for /s/ than for /ʃ/ and steeper functions were observed for the hearing impairment groups relative to the normal hearing groups. Results showed both hearing sensitivity and age effects. The hearing impairment listeners required lower levels of audibility than the normal hearing listeners to achieve similar levels of performance. Likewise, the adult listeners required lower levels of audibility than the children, although this difference was more substantial for the normal hearing listeners than for the hearing impairment listeners.

James, Rajput, Brown, Sriramanna, Brinton & Goswami (2005) conducted a short-term longitudinal study to investigate possible benefits of cochlear implant (CI) use on the development of phonological awareness in deaf children. Nineteen CI users, eleven profoundly

deaf and ten severely deaf children served as subjects. A battery of tests was designed to investigate syllable, rhyme, and phoneme awareness. Syllable awareness in the CI users was equivalent to that of the severely deaf group, and rhyme and phoneme awareness was similar to that of the profoundly deaf children using hearing aids. CI use affords some benefit to the development of phonological awareness.

Linda, Spencer & Tomblin (2009) investigated the phonological processing skills of 29 children with pre-lingual profound hearing loss with 4 years of cochlear implant experience. Results were group matched with regard to word-reading ability and mother's educational level with the performance of 29 hearing children.

Results revealed that it is possible to obtain a valid measure of phonological processing (PP) skills in children using CIs. They could complete rhyming tasks and were able to complete sound-based tasks using standard test materials provided by a commercial test distributor. The CI children completed tasks measuring PP, but there were performance differences between the CI users and the hearing children. The process of learning phonological awareness (PA) for the children with CIs was characterized by a longer, more protracted learning phase than their counterparts with hearing.

Tests of phonological memory skills indicated that when the tasks were controlled for presentation method and response modality, there were no differences between the performance of children with CIs and their counterparts with hearing. Tests of rapid naming revealed that there were no differences between rapid letter and number naming between the two groups.

1.2. Need for the Study

Review of literature shows that the performances of contrastive system are likely to be different in hearing impaired children as compared to normal children. This difference in hearing impaired children may also vary depending on the rehabilitation prosthesis used by the children. There is scattered research on hearing impaired children using different prosthesis i.e. cochlear implants and hearing aids. The past researches have been confirmed to children with hearing impairment in general. Some of the studies have been confirmed to children using hearing aids (HA), very few studies with respect to children using cochlear implants (CI) and almost no studies in comparing the phonemic contrast perception ability between hearing impaired children using cochlear implants and hearing aids with reference to Telugu language. Research findings related to specific Indian language in children using CI and HA are needed to build up the much needed data base for pedagogical and clinical purposes.

1.3. Aim of the Study

The current study aimed at investigating and comparing the perception of phoneme contrast among children with hearing impairment using cochlear implants, children with hearing impairment using hearing aids and children with normal hearing in Telugu language.

1.4. Objectives of the Study

- To compare vowel and consonant contrast abilities between children with hearing impairment using cochlear implants and children with normal hearing in auditory-only condition.
- To compare vowel and consonant contrast abilities between children with hearing impairment using cochlear implants and children with normal hearing in audio-visual condition.
- To compare vowel and consonant contrast abilities between children with hearing impairment using hearing aids and children with normal hearing in auditory-only condition.
- To compare vowel and consonant contrast abilities between children with hearing impairment using hearing aids and children with normal hearing in audio-visual condition.
- To compare vowel and consonant contrast abilities between children with hearing impairment using cochlear implants and children with hearing impairment using hearing aids in auditory-only condition.
- To compare vowel and consonant contrast abilities between children with hearing impairment using cochlear implants and children with hearing impairment using hearing aids in audio-visual condition.

2.0. Methodology

2.1. Subjects

A total of 45 children (25 females and 20 males) with an age range of 8-12 years (mean age of 10 years) participated in the study. The subjects were divided into three groups consisting of 15 children in each group. Group I (NH): Consists of children with normal hearing, Group II (CI) consists of children with hearing impairment using cochlear implants and Group III (HA) consists of children with hearing impairment using hearing aids.

2.2. Stimuli Used

The items from the Telugu subtests of a tool for assessing input phonological processing in Telugu developed by Vasanta and Dodd (2007) were used as stimuli for the current study. The test consists of a total of 100 phonemic contrasts divided into four parts, such as 1) 20 vowel contrasts in Telugu 2) 30 consonantal contrasts in Telugu 3) 20 vowel contrasts in English and 4) 30 consonantal contrasts in English.

2.3. Procedure

Computer software was developed for the purpose of test administration. Auditory stimuli were constructed by recording each of the test item words as spoken by young female Telugu speaker. Recordings were performed using a unidirectional microphone in a sound treated room. Image

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files of each of the test items created by typing the words in Microsoft power point were used as visuals. The software was developed using visual basic.net 2003.

The children were seated comfortably and tested individually by the experimenter in a sound treated room with minimum distraction. Each test item pair was administered in ABX paradigm. Mode of presentation included 1) auditory-alone (A-alone) and 2) audio + visual (AV) presentations simultaneously; similar mode of presentation is used for both hearing aid users and cochlear implant users. Images of the written form of items A and B in each test pair appeared on the screen followed by the auditory presentations of the two items in order of appearance at 60dB SPL via loud speakers in 0° azimuth. Children were required to look at a pair of A and B items on the computer screen and had to decide whether the X item was either A or B. Most children indicated their preference by pointing to A or B on the screen after hearing the third 'X item' when tested through audiovisual mode. During auditory-alone presentation mode the children were asked to respond verbally after hearing the third 'X item'.

Examples of presentation of each item pair are shown below.

Contrast	Item A	Item B	X	Answer
/e-a/	pe:lu	pa:lu	pe:lu	1
/m-n/	mi:ru	ni:ru	ni:ru	2

The inter stimulus interval between the presentation of each of the items in the auditory-alone mode was 2 seconds. The inter stimulus interval between each pair of test item was 5 seconds. Stimuli once presented were not repeated. The presentation of words in each test item pair as displayed on the computer screen through the software.

2.4. Scoring

Each correct response was credited as 1 point and the wrong or incorrect response was scored as 0. Maximum possible score was 50 for Telugu subtest from the available Telugu –English subtests (a total of 100). All children in the Telugu speaking group were tested on only the phonemic contrasts in Telugu.

2.5. Statistical Analysis of data

The obtained data was analysed and compared by computing the mean percentage scores and standard deviations for each of the group. Inter group comparisons were done with appropriate statistical tools. One-Way Analysis of Variance was performed to compare the performance between groups in different conditions. In order to find out the significant difference between groups among data was further subjected to Least Significant difference (LSD).

3.0. Results

The present study aimed to compare the vowel and consonantal contrast perceptual abilities among children with normal hearing and children with hearing impairment using cochlear

implants and hearing aids in Telugu. The perceptual ability of above mentioned children was assessed in auditory-alone and audiovisual conditions.

3.1. Comparison of Vowel Contrast Perception between Auditory-alone and Audio-visual conditions

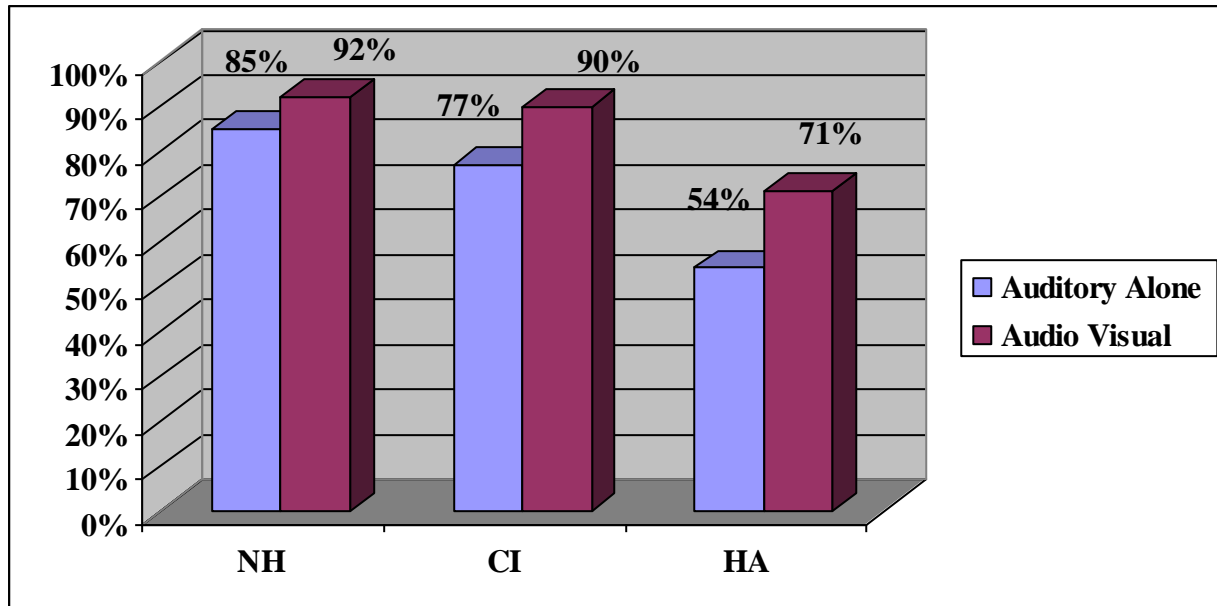


Figure 1 Mean percentage for Vowel Contrast in Auditory-alone and Audio-visual condition for three groups

Figure 1 shows comparison of mean percentage scores for perception of vowel contrast in auditory alone and audiovisual condition obtained by children with normal hearing (NH), children with hearing impairment using cochlear implant (CI) and children with hearing impairment using hearing aids (HA). The mean percentage scores were 85%, 77% and 54% in auditory alone and 92%, 90% and 71% in audiovisual condition for children with normal hearing (NH), children with cochlear implant (CI) and children with hearing aids (HA) respectively. Children with normal hearing (NH group) obtained higher mean scores than children with hearing impairment (CI and HA group) in both conditions. Among hearing impaired group children with CI obtained higher mean scores than children with HA. Children in the hearing impaired group (both CI and HA) obtained higher scores in audiovisual condition than in auditory alone condition.

When the data was further subjected to statistical analysis to find out significant difference between groups, it revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between NH group VS CI group, CI group VS HA group and NH group VS HA group in auditory-alone condition. In Audio-visual condition there was a statistically significant difference between CI and HA groups for vowel contrast perception. However, there was no statistically significant difference between NH group and CI group in audio-visual condition. There was a statistically significant difference in mean % scores in hearing impaired group (both CI and HA groups) between

auditory-alone and audio-visual condition. However, there was no statistically significant difference for NH group between auditory alone and audiovisual conditions.

3.2. Comparison of Consonant Contrast Perception between Auditory-alone and Audio-Visual Conditions

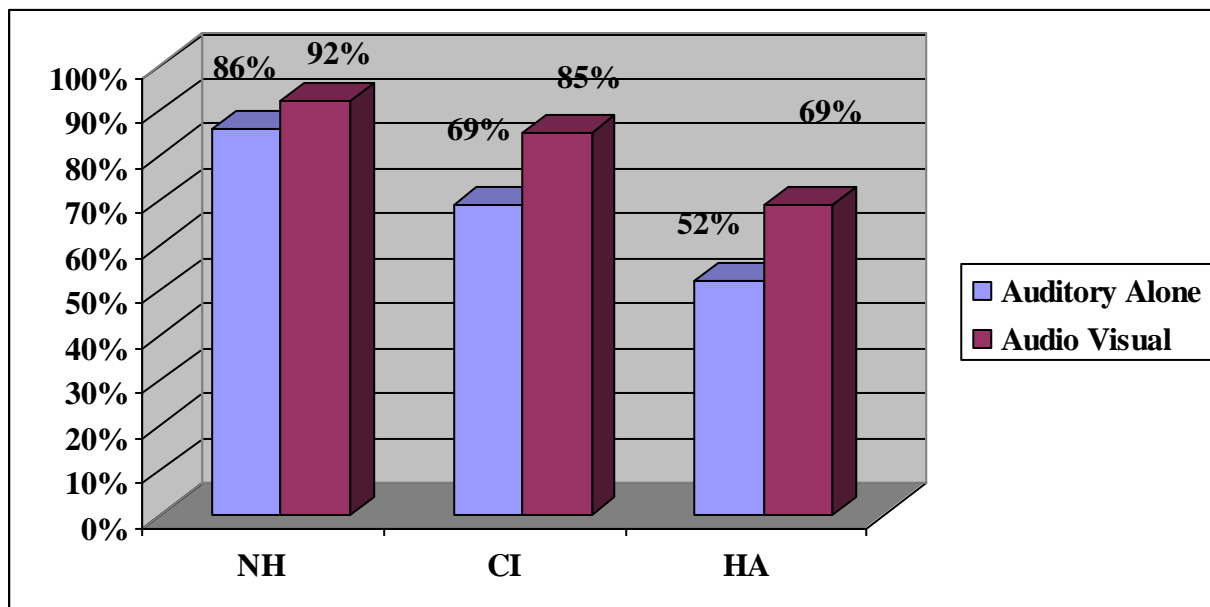


Figure 2 Mean percentages for Consonant Contrast in Auditory-alone and Audio-visual condition for three groups

Figure 2 shows comparison of mean percentage scores for perception of consonant contrast in auditory alone and audiovisual condition obtained by children with normal hearing (NH), children with hearing impairment using cochlear implant (CI) and children with hearing impairment using hearing aids (HA). The mean percentage scores were 86%, 69% and 52% in auditory alone and 92%, 85% and 69% in audiovisual condition for children with normal hearing (NH), children with cochlear implant (CI) and children with hearing aids (HA) respectively. Children with normal hearing (NH group) obtained higher mean scores than children with hearing impairment (CI and HA group) in both conditions for consonant contrast perception. Among hearing impaired group children with CI obtained higher mean scores than children with HA. Children in the hearing impaired group (both CI and HA) obtained higher scores in audiovisual condition than in auditory alone condition.

When the data was further subjected to statistical analysis to find out significant difference between groups, it revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between NH group VS CI group, CI group VS HA group and NH group VS HA group in auditory-alone condition. In Audio-visual condition there was a statistically significant difference between CI and HA groups for consonant contrast perception. However, there was no statistically significant difference between NH group and CI group in audio-visual condition. There was a statistically

significant difference in mean % scores in hearing impaired group (both CI and HA groups) between auditory-alone and audio-visual condition. However, there was no statistically significant difference for NH group between auditory alone and audiovisual conditions.

4.0. Discussion

The present study aimed to compare the vowel and consonantal contrast perceptual ability among NH, CI and HA groups in Telugu under auditory-alone and audiovisual conditions. The results revealed that NH group performed better than hearing impaired group (both CI and HA) in both vowel and consonant perception abilities and was found to be statistically significant. This was observed in both auditory-alone and auditory-visual conditions.

Although, NH group performed better in audio-visual condition than in auditory-alone condition, there was no statistically significant difference between two conditions. The NH group obtained similar results for both vowel and consonant contrast perception. These findings are in accordance with the findings of Reed (1975), Erber (1972), Seewald, Ross, Giolas & Yonovitz (1985), Crandell, Siebein, Martin, Gold, Hassell, Lee, Abbott, Herr & Lehde (1998), Pittman & Stelmachowicz (2000).

Among hearing impaired children CI group performed better than HA group in both vowel and consonant contrast perception abilities. This was observed in both auditory-alone and auditory-visual conditions. The children with hearing impairment (both CI and HA groups) performed better in audio-visual than auditory-alone condition. These findings are in accordance with the findings of James, Rajput, Brown, Sriramanna & Goswami 2005).

It was also observed that CI group using cochlear implants performed almost similar to normal children in vowel contrast under audio-visual mode. The superior performance by CI group as compared HA group could be attributed to the reason that children using cochlear implant simultaneously perceive the voicing feature and are less dependent on the visual cues when compared to children with hearing impairment using hearing aids (Geers 2003).

However, the hearing impaired group (both CI and HA) obtained better scores for vowel contrast perception than consonant contrast. Vowels are produced without obstruction in the airflow. Perception of vowels is because they are voiced and relatively high in intensity. Vocal tract is relatively open for them producing prominent resonance for vowels. Vowels are more accessible to auditory analysis by virtue of their longer duration and may hold longer duration in the auditory memory. Consonants are produced with the obstruction in the airflow. They vary by the place of articulation, manner of articulation and voicing. Consonant being less accessible to auditory analysis due to their brevity and relatively low intensity and held briefly in auditory memory (Stevens 2006).

Piossant et al (2006) concluded that following the implantation, hearing impaired children rely on some extent on auditory feedback from the implant to control durational aspects. The NH group obtained similar results for both vowel and consonant contrast perception.

5.0. Summary and Conclusion

The present study aimed to compare the vowel and consonantal contrast perceptual abilities among children with normal hearing and children with hearing impairment using cochlear implants and hearing aids in Telugu. The perceptual ability of above mentioned children was assessed in auditory-alone and audiovisual conditions. On average children with normal hearing performed better than children with hearing impairment. All the children performed better for vowel contrast discrimination than for consonant contrast. Among the children with hearing impairment, children using cochlear implants perform better than children with hearing aids. Children using cochlear implants performed almost similar to normal children in vowel contrast under audio-visual mode. Children with normal hearing performed almost similar in both audio-visual and auditory-only conditions, whereas children with hearing impairment performed better in audio-visual than auditory-alone condition.

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Motivation: Extrinsic and Intrinsic

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Rosalia H. Bonjour, Ph.D.

Abstract

Intrinsic and extrinsic types of motivation have been widely studied and the difference between them will throw light on both developmental and educational practices. In this paper, we revisit the classic definitions of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation remains an important construction, reflecting the natural human tendency to learn and assimilate. However, extrinsic motivation is argued to vary considerably in its relative independence and thus can either reflect external control or true self regulation. Both these motivations are related to basic human needs for independence, proficiency and relatedness, and these we discuss in our paper after having experimented in the class room through some activities.

Introduction

Motivating students in the class room is an integral part of teaching and must spill over to outside the precincts as well. Teaching of English needs to be made more appealing and attractive to the learners. Today, students need to be constantly motivated to perform better. With changing times and too much of media influence, the teacher in the classroom must evolve into a motivator, facilitator and guide, inside and outside the class.

Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are both adaptable, but these change, however, in response to specific situations and life occurrences.

Intrinsic motivation can be described as internal desires to perform a particular task. People do certain activities because these activities give them pleasure, develop a particular skill, or these are morally the right thing to do.

Extrinsic motivation can be described as factors external to the individual and unrelated to the task they are performing.

Performance in Class

Intrinsically motivated students do much better in classroom activities, because they are willing and eager to learn new things. Their learning experience is more meaningful and they go deeper into the subject to fully understand it. On the other hand extrinsically motivated students may have to be 'bribed' to perform the same tasks.

In 1999, Deci Koestner and Ryan (1985) found that intrinsic motivation is negatively affected when real extrinsic motivation is attached to the behaviour of an individual. This undermining of intrinsic motivation is postulated to be the result of a perceived decrease in independence and proficiency by the individual receiving the extrinsic reward.

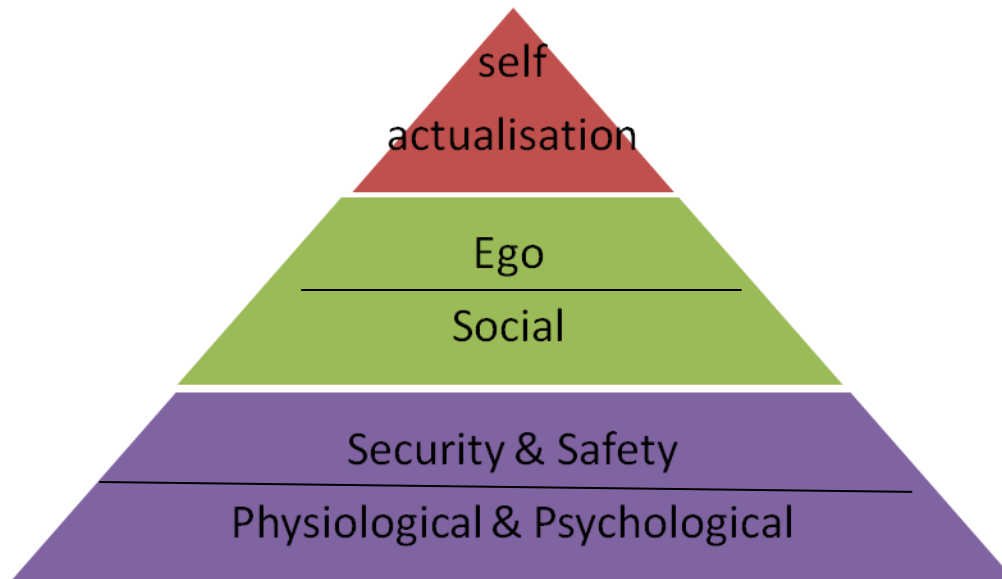
Self Determination Theory

The Self determination theory states that humans have three inherent needs: ***independence, proficiency and relatedness*** (Ryan, Kuhi, & Deci 1997).

In the year 2002, in his book *Human Motivation*, Franken stated that intrinsic motivation can be changed by adding an extrinsic motivating component. Deci (Deci, E.L. 1971) states that intrinsic motivation can also be enhanced by increasing an individual's perception of independence and proficiency. He showed that research supported the idea that the impact of extrinsic motivation on intrinsic motivation was influenced by the controlling nature of extrinsic rewards.

How can we motivate students intrinsically?

A theorist by the name of Abraham Maslow (Maslow, A.1943, A theory of human Motivation, Psychological Review, 50,370-396, retrieved June 2001) concluded that before we can be intrinsically motivated, some more basic human needs must be first satisfied. According to Maslow there are five basic levels of human needs.



1. **Physiological and Psychological needs.** We are motivated to satisfy needs that ensure our physical survival. Needs in this group include food, water, air, shelter, clothing and sex. Most people satisfy their physiological needs, which in turn satisfy their psychological requirements allowing them to concentrate on higher level needs. For some, though, physiological needs are dominant and are the biggest needs in their lives.
2. **Safety needs.** Once physiological needs are met, we can concentrate on bringing safety and security to our lives. Safety and security needs include, order, stability, routine, familiarity, control over one's life and environment, certainty and health.
3. **Social needs** or love and belonging. These needs include love, affection, a sense of belonging and acceptance. People look for these needs in relationships with other people and are motivated for these needs by the love from their families.
4. **Esteem or Ego needs.** All people have a need for stable, firmly based, usually high evaluation of themselves for self-respect or self-esteem and for the esteem of others. These needs are:
 - ◆ First, the desire for strength, achievement, adequacy, mastery of competence, confidence, independence and freedom.
 - ◆ Second, the desire for reputation or prestige (defining it as respect from other people), status, fame, glory, dominance, importance, recognition, dignity or appreciation.
5. **Need for self-actualization.** This level is concentrated on an individual being able to reach their full potential as a human being. Once someone has satisfied the first four levels of needs then they can concentrate on functioning to their highest potential. But even if all these needs are satisfied, we may often still expect that a new discontent and restlessness will soon develop, unless the individual is doing what they are suited for. Musicians must play

music, artists must paint if they are to be at peace with themselves. What humans can be, they must be. They must be true to their own nature.

Self-actualization is a **growth need**. This doesn't just address what we are lacking in our lives, but it gives us room to grow and develop as an individual. This need is always intrinsically motivated, because we do it out of pure enjoyment and desire to grow.

Maslow (1954 "Motivation and Personality") does explain that self-actualization is rarely achieved, even as adults. But we as teachers must make sure our students have satisfied their deficiency needs in order to move on to their need for growth. Intrinsic motivation will not occur until they are well fed, safe in their environment, and can love and respect the teachers and their classmates. From there on motivation will be like a pleasant breeze.

Effectiveness of Extrinsic Motivation

Is **extrinsic motivation** effective? Some wonder. Here are a few points on the matter that we should consider:

- **Extrinsic motivation** does **induce an individual to perform a certain task** even if there is no interest in it. But it doesn't mean that the person does not get pleasure from working or completing the task. It's just that the external reward lengthens the duration of the anticipated reward even if interest is long gone.
- **It paves the way for the individual to set goals.** By setting their eyes on the prize, the individual will consort to playing by the rules and even develop a huge amount of persistence towards getting that reward.
- **Extrinsic motivators can release stress.** The lack of extrinsic motivation cannot distract a person from the pressure that he gets from his job.
- **Extrinsic motivation is not sustainable.** Eliminate the reward and you eliminate the action. Withdraw the punishment or reward, sayonara motivation! It gives diminishing returns. Motivation slowly vanishes when the punishment or reward stay at equivalent levels. More motivation means bigger rewards.

Some Activities We Do in Class

✓ *Creative Thinking-Advertisement*

This is a group activity in which a letter of the alphabet is assigned to each group. The group will use that letter and will create an advertisement/slogan that can teach an educational concept, or design a poster.

For example, Thanks to Coke for Reminding Us That Education Is The Real Thing!

✓ *Ship-Wreck*

This is an activity where it is assumed that a ship is going to wreck and there are only three life jackets: one for the captain and other two go to the personality (students must select their own personality). The captain will question each personality: Why the life jacket should be given to him/her? The personality has to give humorous/clever reason to make the captain agree. This activity will help the students in both speaking with clarity and listening with understanding.

The main difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is the goals of the students.

With intrinsic motivation, the student studies subject material for the sake of learning. These students find studying enjoyable. They recognize that learning new ideas is a reward in itself.

Extrinsically motivated students study for the sake of outside influences such as getting teacher and peer praise, acquiring a good grade or some other type of reinforcement that a teacher or peer might offer.

Another difference that is worth mentioning is that research shows that intrinsically motivated students learn more than extrinsically motivated students. This could be due to the fact that intrinsically motivated students are also extrinsically motivated. But, on the other hand, extrinsically motivated students are seldom found to be intrinsically motivated.

Difficulties

Motivating students to become intrinsically motivated is no easy task for teachers. Some students enjoy learning, but others are a real challenge. We try to teach our students to the point where the material comes alive within them; make their minds grow in curiosity of the subject so continual learning can take place. This can be done by means of relating material to what interests the students. We energise our teaching to make it appeal to the students, whether it be in the tone of voice, body language, appearance, or all of the above. We close the lessons leaving students with a question to ponder on dealing with the subject material that was taught. That way in their spare time, their minds will continue to ponder on the lesson and question at hand.

Balancing Intrinsic-Extrinsic Motivations

Intrinsic-extrinsic motivations can be considered as a continuum. At one end we find some people motivated by tangible, extrinsic benefits, such as salary and the trappings of position. Others may be motivated by factors at the opposite end of the spectrum. These people tend to forego the tangible rewards of monetary benefits, in favour of self-satisfaction.

However, to gain the most from the basics of intrinsic extrinsic motivation, it is perhaps best to remember that people can easily move along any continuum. Rather than considering these motivational factors as opposites, try to remember that most people are motivated by a

combination of the two. And that such motivation is also influenced by a number of other complex, social, and economic factors, such as age, family status, and so on.

To Conclude

- Teachers should spend more time **explaining** why they teach what they do, and why the topic or approach is important, interesting and worthwhile. In the process, some of the teacher's enthusiasm will be transmitted to the students, who will become interested. Similarly, teachers should also explain what is expected on assignments or activities, this will help students to perform well.
- Students who do not yet have powerful intrinsic motivation to learn can be helped by extrinsic motivators in the form of rewards. Remember that adults and children alike continue or repeat behaviour that is rewarded. **Rewards** for good work produce good feelings.
- Students respond with interest and motivation to teachers who appear to be **loving** and **caring**. Teachers can help produce these feelings by sharing their experiences with the students. Such personalizing of the student/teacher relationship helps students see teachers as approachable human beings and not as aloof authority figures. Students will attend to an adult who appears to be a "real person," who had problems as a youth (or more recently) and survived them.
- One of the major keys to motivation is the **active involvement of students** in their own learning. Lecturing is a relatively poor method of teaching. It is better to get students involved in activities, group problem solving exercises, helping to decide what to do and the best way to do it, helping the teacher, working with each other and so on. Brighter students will also see themselves as necessary, integral, and contributing parts of the learning process through participation like this.
- By **beginning lessons with the examples, evidence, stories**, and so forth and by arriving at conclusions later, you can maintain interest and increase motivation, as well as teach the skills of analysis and synthesis.
- Students' basic needs have been identified as survival, love, power, fun, and freedom. Attending to the need for power could be as simple as allowing students to choose from among two or three things to do. Many students have a need to have fun in active ways - in other words, they need to be noisy and excited. Rather than always avoiding or suppressing these needs, we must **design an educational activity that fulfills them.**

- It has been recognized that memory is often connected to **visual images**. Similarly, we can provide better learning by attaching images to the ideas we want to convey. Use drawings, diagrams, pictures, charts, graphs, bulleted lists etc.
- Strong and lasting memory is connected with the emotional state and experience of the learner. If you can **make learning fun, exciting**, happy or loving, students will learn more readily and the learning will last much longer.

The two kinds of motivation are an inherent and integral part of life and cannot be ignored. It should be integrated in the teaching process to enhance teaching.

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Speech and Language Characteristics of Monozygotic Twins – A Case Study

Rhea Mariam Korah, M.Sc. Student, Prasad, J. M.Sc. Student &
N. Sreedevi, Ph.D.

Abstract

There are several reports of twins having a risk of language deviancy which may be because of one twin modelling the immature or disordered speech pattern of their co-twin, which results in the incorrect use of speech sounds and grammar by both the twins. This gives the impression of a secret language between the twins which is called as 'Idioglossia'.

Although the concept of *Idioglossia* is a popular belief, the language of twins have rarely been described in detail or analyzed satisfactorily by the researchers especially in the Indian context.

The present case report aims to describe the speech and language characteristics of a pair of monozygotic male twins of 5.6 years with Kannada as their mother tongue. The paper discusses the concept of *Idioglossia*; whether it is a myth or a fact? The paper also discusses the speech language characteristics and the speech and language therapy reports of the two twins.

The study finds that though the phonological errors in the twins are similar, they are not identical.

Key words: monozygotic twins, phonological errors, *idioglossia*

Interest in Speech and Language of Twins

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Rhea Mariam Korah, M.Sc. Student, Prasad, J. M.Sc. Student & N. Sreedevi, Ph.D.

Speech and Language Characteristics of Monozygotic Twins – A Case Study

Speech and language of twins have attracted the interest of innumerable researchers. According to reports, twin children have higher rates of language delay when compared to single-born children. There is a greater risk in twins than singletons that language development may at some stage deviate from the norms expected in singletons (Mittler, 1970). Sometimes the difference may be a direct result of twin ship but indicate neither a delay nor a disorder.

Speech and Language Characteristics of Twins

Twins have been reported to have delays in speech onset, and or slow and atypical development compared to that of singletons for semantics, syntax and phonology. Twin language children combine their own personal vocabulary with normal use of language.

The language consists of onomatopoeic expressions and some invented words. These words may be hardly recognizable and the language may turn out to be completely unintelligible to speakers of the model languages. They lack morphology, and the word order is based on pragmatic principles such as the use of content words which convey the meaning of what they want to express. It is also reported that they exhibit short mean length of utterances (McEvoy and Dodd, 1992).

Hay, Prior, Collett and Williams (1987) studied speech and language development in preschool twins. Language, articulation and reading problems were well documented in the young twins. The twin boys were found to be behind their age matched singletons and the twin girls, on expressive language, verbal comprehension and symbolic play.

Day (1932) and Davis (1937) reported measures of language complexity (such as sentence length, number of different grammatical categories in a sentence) to be two years behind in twins compared to singletons by the age of five. Lytton (1980) and Conway, Lytton, and Pysh (1980) like in the earlier studies reported that twins use shorter sentences, they have less speech overall, less speech directed towards the mother, and a slight difference in vocabulary.

Some Features

Studies indicate that multiple birth children are prone to phonological disorder and consequently their speech is often unintelligible. McEvoy and Dodd (1992) reported higher incidence of atypical phonological errors in twin children in their study.

The children typically use a smaller number of different speech sounds than are used in the adult language. The structure of words may be simplified and there are systematic substitutions of one sound for another. Twins tend to talk faster and may abbreviate their words or leave out consonants as they produce words, perhaps in a competitive attempt to talk over their co-twin and grab their parents' attention first.

Keenan and Klein's (1975) finding suggests that multiple birth children begin to interact vocally with their sibling earlier than singletons. This acquisition of imitative patterns of interactive vocal play pre verbally may affect their later acquisition of word phonology. They may continue to imitate each other's phonological forms for words and consequently

mentally represent their twin's pronunciations of particular words. This might hinder the acquisition of knowledge about the phonological rules that govern their native language and lead to some multiple birth children showing atypical patterns of speech errors.

Language Systems may be Similar but not Identical

Evidence from twins with unintelligible speech suggests that language systems may be similar but not identical. Luchsinger (1953, 1961) reported that the similarity of articulation is greater for monozygotic twins compared to dizygotic twins.

Articulatory performance of monozygotic twins were analysed by Locke and Mather (1989) which revealed that individual monozygotic twins achieved a mean score of 55% correct on the Templin Darley Test and the dizygotic twins achieved a mean score of 71%. Also most of the errors made by the monozygotic twins involved the same items on the Templin Darley test while less errors made by the dizygotic twins involved the same phonological targets.

The profile showed similar errors for both groups. Fricatives were more frequently misarticulated than liquids, approximants and affricates, and consonant clusters were generally more difficult than single consonants. Also, some of the Speech Language Pathologists have reported that twins having a delay may have other associated problems of reading and writing which can be diagnosed as 'Specific Language Impairment' or 'Learning disability' in due course.

Causes of Speech Language Delay or Deviancy in Twins

Both biological and environmental variables contribute to language delays in twins. Lytton (1980) in his study comparing twins and singletons on language measures reported that environmental variables such as maternal speech to child accounted for more of the variance in the language measures than several biological variables that separated the two groups (including birth weight, Apgar score, and time of gestation). Akermann and Thomassen (1991) compared a group of twins and singletons and found that low birth weight accounted for differences on standardized language and locomotor tests. Several authors have now found that young twins receive less directed speech from their caretaker and participate in fewer situations where their attention is jointly engaged with the caretaker. Both these situations are thought to be necessary for language learning which is lacking for most twins.

Concept of Idioglossia

The language of twins has rarely been described satisfactorily earlier. The degree of unintelligibility is often so extreme that clinicians earlier found it difficult to determine what words were intended by the children. This leads to the development of the concept of Idioglossia.

Idioglossia refers to twin language which describes the way two or more close siblings use words and/or gestures that are largely unrecognizable or even completely unintelligible to others. It is also known as Cryptophasia or Autonomous language and is also commonly referred to as twin talk or twin speech. It is a peculiar phenomenon of a language developed by monozygotic twins that only the two children can understand. It is described as a

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telepathic communication between twins.

Hay et al., (1987) concluded that secret language characterised most of the twin boys in their study. Dodd and McEvoy (1994) reported that twins were better able to understand their siblings' mispronunciations than were other children of the same age. They showed that twin children could recognise single words of their co-twins better than singleton controls. Bakker (1987) suggested that the phenomenon in twins is very different from true secret languages, where the intention of the inventors is to obscure meaning from others. These are usually created by peers and are rule-governed transformations of standard language forms.

Baker rightly points out that the intention to obscure meaning cannot be attributed to twins who use their only form of language with all others and may show frustration when not understood. Bakker favours the term autonomous language than secret language. He said that autonomous languages exist in about 40% of all twins.

Sharing an Idiolect?

The idea that twins share an idiolect, has gained wide spread acceptance among parents of multiple birth children. Twin language is actually one twin modelling the immature or disordered speech pattern of their co-twin, which results in the incorrect use of speech sounds and grammar by both the twins, which then give the perception of a secret language. They do not employ the adult models as much as singletons, and the motivation to learn the adult system is reduced by the ease of communication between the twins as they have common experiences which will necessitate very little communication through spoken language (Hormann,1971). A sociability questionnaire completed by the teacher revealed that all children advanced on sociability, but twins remained just as far behind with poor sociability relating to poor articulation even after joining preschool. Twins are self sufficient and have a constant communication partner because of which they do not feel the need of communicating with others.

Need for Speech and Language Report of Twins

Despite the popular belief in the secret language of twins, the language has rarely been described in detail or analyzed satisfactorily by the researchers. There has been several western studies involving comparison of speech and language characteristics of twins and singletons, but studies in the Indian context are scarce. Moreover the incidence of multiple birth children is increasing due to various reasons. Two fifths of the IVF babies are twins, as many embryos are returned to the womb. Hence it becomes essential for the speech language pathologists to study the speech language characteristics of twin children and to examine whether the phenomenon of *Idioglossia* is a myth or a fact.

Objectives of the Case Report

- To describe the speech and language characteristics of a pair of monozygotic twins and thereby attain a better understanding of the nature of speech and language disorder in these twins.
- To discuss the concept of *Idioglossia*; whether it is a myth or a fact?

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Speech and Language Characteristics of Monozygotic Twins – A Case Study

The following are details of a pair of monozygotic twins who reported with the complaint of unintelligible speech.

Client Details

Demographic data: The clients (A & B) considered in the study included two 5.6 year old twin boys studying in U.K.G with Kannada as their mother tongue.

Brief history: The clients reported with the complaint of unclear speech. They exhibited speech sound production errors of various sounds like /tʃ/, /r/, /t/, /d/ etc. Substitutions and omissions of sounds were reported. Parents complained of difficulty in understanding the twins' speech while the twins could understand each other's speech and communicate easily with each other. They had a history of delayed speech and motor milestones. Mental abilities and hearing sensitivity were reported to be normal for both the clients. The problem was noticed since early childhood.

Developmental milestones: The clients showed a delay in the acquisition of speech and motor milestones. The respective milestones for both the clients are as follows:

Speech milestones:

Babbling 6-7 months; First word- 1 year 6 months; First sentence-3 years

Motor milestones:

Neck control - 7 months; Sitting- 9 months; Standing- 1 year 6 months; Walking- 2 years.

Family history: No significant history of speech and language disorders was reported in the family.

Consanguinity: Positive as per the report of parents. The parents are first degree relatives.

Sibling history: The twins are the only off springs of the parents.

Medical history: History of jaundice at the age of 4 years for client B whereas no significant medical history for client A.

Earlier investigations: There are no earlier investigations done for the clients.

Recommendations: The recommendations after the clinical interview included Speech Language evaluation, Psychological evaluation, Counseling and Follow up.

Speech Evaluation

Phonology Based on the administration of The Kannada Articulation Test (Babu, Ratna, & Bettagiri, 1972) the articulatory errors obtained in the order of severity of occurrence for both the clients is presented in Table 1 and Figure 1 depicts the percentage of various phonological errors in the two clients.

Client A	Client B
1. Unvoiced/ Voiced & Distortion : /r/	1. Fronting errors & Cluster reduction
2. Cluster reduction	2. Unvoiced/ Voiced
3. Fronting errors	3. Distortion: /r/

Table 1: Order of the severity of occurrence of phonological processes in the pre-test.

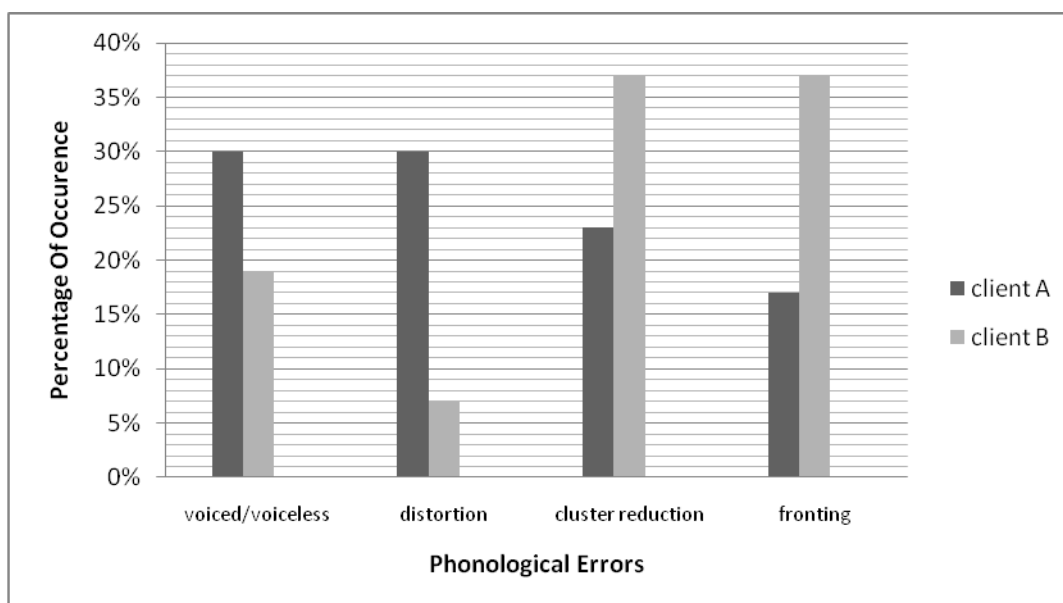


Figure 1: Percentage of occurrences of different phonological processes in client A & B.

Speech intelligibility Speech Intelligibility was estimated for both the clients using the transcription of an unfamiliar judge for the meaningful spoken words of the twins. A measure of the percentage of intelligible words was estimated. The speech intelligibility was approximately 35% in both clients. The scores improved after therapy to different extents in the clients.

Oro motor examination Normal structure and function of the oral structures for both the clients were established.

Language Evaluation

The language proficiency of the clients was assessed using the Kannada Language Test (UNICEF project, 1990). The results obtained for the clients are given in Table 2.

	Client A	Client B
Total receptive score	4-5 years	3-4 years
Total expressive score	3-4 years	<3-4 years
Total language score	3-4 years	<3-4 years

Table 2: Scores obtained in Kannada Language Test (KLT).

A language delay can be observed in the results. Client A was found to be marginally better than client B in the language skills. This correlates with the mother's report that client A is relatively more intelligible than client B. Both the clients exhibited shorter mean length of utterances of around 2-4 word sentences. They obtained poorer scores in sections of case markers, plurals, sentence types, participle constructions etc.

Also the clients in the present study are reported to have spelling errors in writing and recitation of rhymes and story narrations are unintelligible. Client A reads short sentences with assistance while client B does not. Both the clients have poor auditory memory and sequencing skills as well.

Provisional Diagnosis

The Provisional diagnosis postulated based on the results of the speech and language evaluation was **Phonological disorder** (for both clients).

This diagnosis was coined for the clients because of the inconsistency the clients exhibited in the various speech sound errors and also because of the evident presence of various phonological processes in their speech on detailed analysis. Motoric production was achieved for some of the sounds but the correct and consistent use of these sounds in words was not observed. For example, the clients used /k/ for /g/ as well as used /t/ for /k/ in words.

Other Evaluations

Psychological evaluation: A social age (SA) and developmental age (DA) of 5 years was calculated through the administration of Vineland's Social Maturity Scale (VSMS) and Developmental Screening Test (DST) in the Psychological Evaluation. The impression made was Average intelligence for both the clients.

ENT evaluation: Impacted wax was revealed in both the ears for both clients which were cleared on a second visit after the administration of ear drops.

Audiological evaluation: The evaluation covered Puretone audiometry, Immittance audiometry, Speech and Noise test (SPIN) and administration of Screening checklist for auditory processing disorders (SCAP)

Provisional Diagnosis

Evaluation brought up the provisional diagnosis as follows:

Client A: Bilateral normal hearing sensitivity in both the ears

Client B: Bilateral normal hearing sensitivity in both the ears (with reduced hearing sensitivity at high frequencies in the right ear).

Both the clients achieved adequate scores in Speech and Noise test but did not pass the Screening checklist for auditory processing disorders. The clients were recommended for further CAPD evaluation which will be accomplished at a later stage.

The clients were recommended for periodic ENT and Audiological follow-up once in 3 months. The clients were further recommended for Speech and language therapy and regular Follow-up.

Speech Language Therapy

After all the initial detailed evaluations, the clients attended Speech Language Therapy. The initial therapy included group therapy for the clients which was later replaced by individual therapy sessions because improvement was not seen in the clients in group therapy sessions. Also, since the order of severity of articulatory errors and phonological processes in the children were different, individual therapy was found to be more beneficial. The clients were less attentive when they were together. The therapy mainly focused on speech and language aspects. The same goals were selected for both the clients.

Speech: The therapy goals for the clients included auditory discrimination and correct production of speech sounds. The techniques used in the therapy sessions were Phonetic Placement, Imitation and Picture Naming. The clients were made to discriminate between various speech sounds through the auditory mode. The phonetic placement technique was used by instructing the clients where to place the articulators to produce target speech sounds. Verbal description was supplemented with visual and tactile cues. Tongue depressor, feedback through mirror and drawings were used to show the position of articulators. Also, imitation of the sounds in isolation, syllables, words, phrases and sentences were carried out. Picture cards were used for eliciting responses.

Language: Plurals and case markers were taken as the therapy goals as these concepts were poor in these clients when compared with age matched peers. Modelling and Prompting techniques were used. Appropriate picture cards and objects were used for the same.

Re-evaluation: The post therapy evaluation was carried out after six, forty five minute therapy sessions spanned over a period of two weeks and the progress can be noted as the following.

Client A	Client B
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Correct use of unvoiced & voiced sounds. • Speech intelligibility: 43% 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No significant improvement. • Fronting errors had reduced marginally. • Speech intelligibility:39%

Table 3: Post-therapy results for the clients

The speech intelligibility scores of both the clients before and after therapy are depicted in Figure 2.

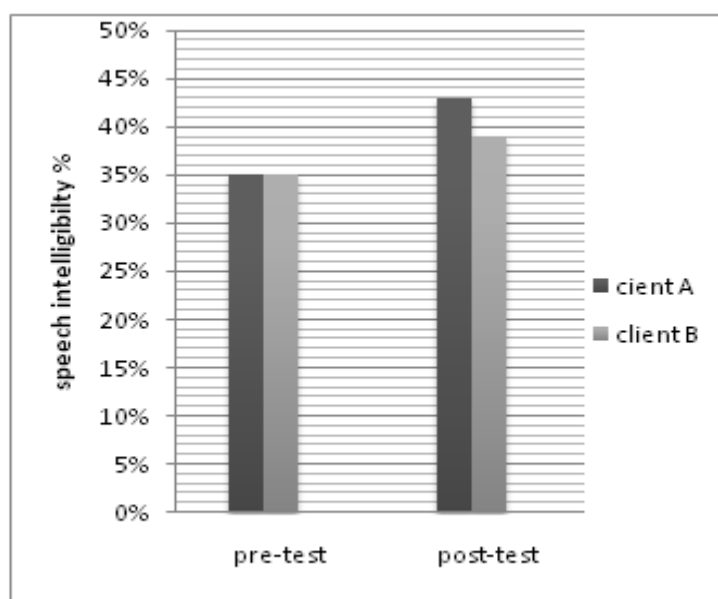


Figure 2: The pre-test post-test speech intelligibility in client A & B.

Discussion

The present study has discussed the various speech and language characteristics of monozygotic twin children. The results of the study corroborate the results of some of the western studies (McEvoy and Dodd, 1992, & Hay et al., 1987). The clients in the present study had language delay and had atypical phonological processes as reported in the earlier studies. They had shorter mean length of utterances and poor syntax.

The analysis of the children's speech samples revealed the presence of various phonological processes which reduced the speech intelligibility resulting in poor understanding of their speech by parents and others. Their speech reflected the use of new words which were understood only by each other which gave the impression of a secret language as reported in other studies (Hay et al., 1987).

Detailed articulatory assessment showed that the poor understanding of their speech was due to the various phonological errors present in their speech, developed due to an incorrect

model which each formed for the other. The most intensive period of speech and language development for children is during the first three years of life, a period when the brain is developing and maturing.

These skills appear to develop best in a world that is rich with sounds, sights, and consistent exposure to the speech and language of others. The twins communicated less with adults as they already had a communication partner. Therefore they lacked a good model and feedback resulting in deviant speech and language.

This is in concordance with the study by Keenan and Klein (1975). Also, the twins in the present study lacked early exposure to other children and adults for play because they did not have children of the similar age group in the neighbourhood. In a study by the Wisconsin Twin Project which is under way, researchers found that toddler use of expressive language was mostly influenced by the environment.

It can also be noted from our study that although the same type of phonological errors occurred in both the clients, the order of their severity was different. Evidence from twins with unintelligible speech suggests that language systems may be similar but not identical as per studies (Sandbank, 1999). In the present twins, the atypical phonological processes that occurred most commonly included voicing errors, distortion, cluster reduction and fronting errors.

The language test revealed that client B was slightly more delayed than client A. Even in identical twins, there can be differences in language and phonology. As per the reports of the mother, client B is weaker and is more susceptible to illness compared to client A. Also, Client A seems to be a spokesperson for client B and corrects him often. The general causes of speech and language delay in twins may be prematurity, low birth weight, poor speech stimulation or, one twin dominating the other twin.

Also the clients in the present study have problem with reading, spellings, writing, recitations, narrations and, auditory memory and sequencing skills suggesting chances of a Learning Disability in the long run. Therefore all twins and multiple birth children should be closely monitored for the susceptibility of Learning disability. The present study is only a preliminary study on the speech and language aspects of twin children. Further studies on the speech and language of multiple birth children as triplets, is warranted. The incidence of multiple birth children is ever rising. Since 1980, the birth rate of twins has increased by 53% (Wikipedia). This, in turn, will increase the occurrence of speech language disorders in twins and other multiple birth children.

It is also of importance to note that individual therapy is preferred to group therapy in such children. Individual therapy sessions can be tailored to the particular twin or child according to the errors or difficulties he/she has. The frequency of occurrence of the error in his/her speech and the impact of the error production on the speech intelligibility can be considered for selecting the target goals.

Additional advantages of individual therapy include less distraction, better cooperation with therapist and progress according to the individual child's pace of learning. In the present study, group therapy was given for a few sessions initially for the purpose of convenience till

the clients built a rapport with the therapist. This was immediately followed by individual therapy sessions attributing to the poor progress and reciprocal imitation of speech by the two twins during the group therapy.

Since there are scanty studies on speech and language aspects in twins in the Indian context, it is important to gather more information on this. We need to know more about the aspects of speech language disorders in twin children.

Parents should be conscious of the speech language development in twins as their likelihood to develop speech language disorders are more. They need to carefully observe the speech language development and note any subtle deviancies in the milestones. Proper stimulation and a good model need to be provided for these children at home. The parents should spend more time with the children providing a greater amount and better quality of speech patterns for imitation, especially during formative years. Speech Language Pathologists should create awareness regarding the problems rising in the speech and language of twins and the role of parents in ensuring sufficient speech stimulation.

Conclusion

The present study has focussed on the speech and language characteristics of monozygotic twins and the hypothetical existence of the concept of *Idioglossia*. Twins have been reported to exhibit deficiencies in one or more aspects of speech and language including semantics, syntax and phonology. Occasionally twins use unique speech patterns and words that are understood by the twins themselves. These unusual and unique patterns are produced due to the presence of various phonological processes in their speech which portrays the wrong impression of the existence of *Idioglossia* or secret language. Twins and multiple birth children require appropriate speech production models to learn the correct speech patterns. The speech language delay or disorders in twins need to be addressed at an early stage before it affects the later developments in the speech of such children.

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Language Shift among the Tribal Languages of India A Case Study in Bihar

Richa, Ph.D.

Introduction

The issues of language shift, maintenance and death have been consistently agitating the minds of linguists, sociologists, geneticists and anthropologists for the last fifty years. Linguists, along with other scientists, believe that languages are necessary for human evolution. Daniel Nettle and Suzanne Romaine (2000) consider languages as part of total ecosystem and term the diversity as 'biolinguistic diversity'.

Languages are repositories of history, languages express identity, languages contribute to the sum of human knowledge and of course, languages are interesting in themselves (David Crystal, 2000). The linguistic diversity is really a benchmark of cultural diversity. If we lose language, we lose knowledge of that language and culture.

In reality, "every language is a living museum, a monument to every culture it has been vehicle to" (Daniel Nettle & Suzanne Romaine, 2000:14). Dorian (1999) regards the loss

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of an ethnic language far less easily recoverable than other identity markers and its cultural content is never fully recoverable.

Equilibrium State of the Languages of the World

The languages of the world have been in linguistic equilibrium for years but in the last five hundred years, waves of biological and economic importance have changed the scenario to a great extent.

Moreover, the pressure has been felt most by the languages having less status in the society, either socio-economic or political. In the 20th century, a few communities have unprecedented power which costs others loss of their culture as well as loss of their language.

Along the margins of the metropolitan economies, we see the process of sucking in of the peripheral economy and its language as well as the process of pushing off. The peripheral (minority) communities have no choice; they change or lose, they change and lose. According to Daniel Nettle, language shift occurs when there is a decrease in choice brought about by the exercise of undemocratic power.

Some Languages are More at Risk

The languages at greatest risk are the minority languages. Though language shift is a universal phenomenon, we have to take several factors into account as we deal with minority languages. Rubenstein (1957:283) believes that language shifts are normally gradual and not abrupt. A high degree of shift may occur in the areas of high cultural mobility and social instability. Sometimes, there can be cultural continuity despite language shift (Dauenhauer, 1998).

Language Shift

Language shift can result out of coercion or choice. Here, the socio-economic and political factors play a major role. Shift never occurs because of an increase in choices but in a decrease of available choices. Language shift is faster in urban areas than in rural as the insularity and rigidity of rural life reduce the acceptability of change (Fishman, 1976:315). Fasold (1984) has considered societal bilingualism as a prerequisite for language shift. It is the outcome of the dynamics of language contact. The contact-induced changes can lead to linguistic homogeneity on one hand and language attrition on the other.

So, language shift, a universal phenomenon, may occur either voluntarily or it can be forced. It can be either natural or non-natural. Natural shift is a process of historical change; non-natural shift takes place as different linguistic groups interact with each other.

The Goal of This Paper

In the present paper, we shall see the language shift among tribal languages of India [A case study: Bihar (undivided)] and how does it point to language retention and potential language loss.

Tribal Languages

Concept –

There is no linguistic definition of tribal languages in India. Linguists have to take tribal languages as languages spoken by the tribals as listed in the Article 342 in the Constitution of India. So, we can say that the concept of tribe is an administrative, judicial and political one.

Jawaharlal Nehru, during the inaugural address at the Tribal Affairs Conference held on Dec.4, 1959 in New Delhi, stated:

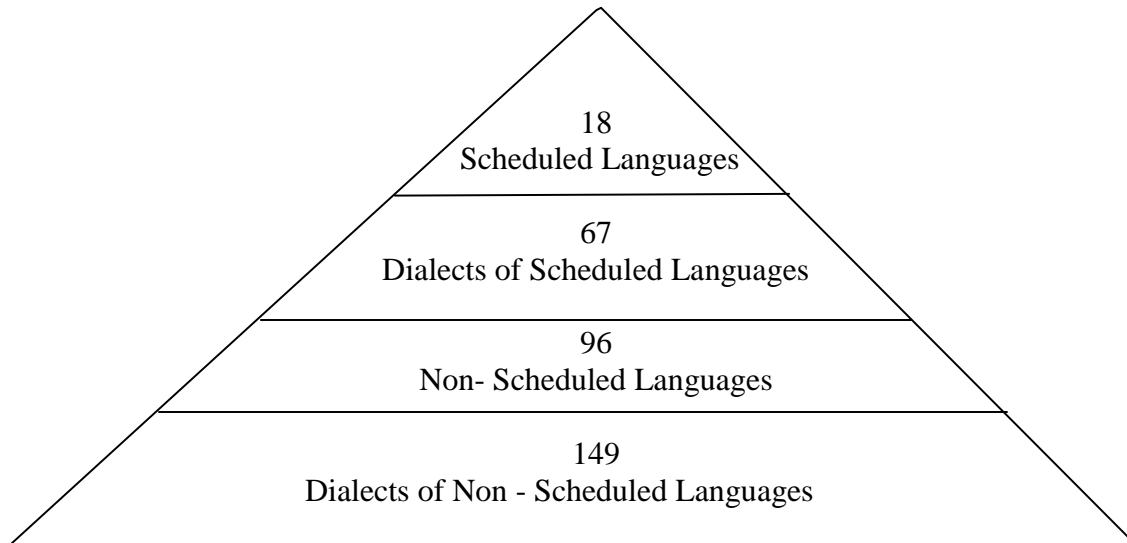
But I am sure that to think of the tribals and non-tribals as people qualitatively different is wrong. Take the description in our Constitution of the Scheduled Castes. As you know, it is rather arbitrary. Government, after consideration, decides whether a caste is a Scheduled caste or not. It is not possible to draw a hard and fast line. That is why, we aim ultimately at removal of all these appellations, descriptions and names which ideologically and physically separate the people as the Depressed Classes, the Harijans, the Scheduled Castes, the Scheduled Tribes and so on.

Distribution –

Tribes in India do not form a neat homogenous socio-cultural category. The Scheduled Tribes (as per Article 342 of the Constitution of India) constitute 623 varied communities but not even half of them speak any tribal mother tongue.

The Constitution of India recognizes only eighteen languages under VIII Schedule, Articles 343-351, out of the total 114 (18 scheduled and 96 non-scheduled) reported in the census.

The important thing to be noted here is that the languages not listed in the VIII Schedule are no less populous. Some of the non-scheduled languages are spoken by more than a million people as researchers have found out. Linguist Anvita Abbi has given a hierarchical status of Indian languages and dialects.



Out of 96 non-scheduled languages, 92 are tribal.

We can see that the tribal languages constitute almost 96% of the total non-scheduled languages and around 81% of the total languages of India listed in the census.

Geographical distribution -

We can divide the tribal languages' areas into four major parts:

- (i) Northeast of India – Most of the area is constituted of tribals. Language maintenance is the highest (between 88% to 100%). Most of the languages are not mutually intelligible. This area represents three major language families, Tibeto-Burman, Indo-Aryan and Austro-Asiatic.
- (ii) Central India and other areas – The central India is represented by Madhya Pradesh and Orissa. The tribal languages of the Dravidian family and that

of the Munda family are spoken here. The other region has Indo-Aryan and Dravidian languages spoken here.

- (iii) Andaman and Nicobar Islands – There we can find Little Andamanese group speaking Onge, Jarawa and Sentinelese and the Great Andamanese group speaking ten different tribal languages. Languages of the Nicobar Islands are called Nicobarese and belong to the Austro-Asiatic family of the non-Munda branch.
- (iv) Jharkhand – The area is inhabited by the tribals of Munda language family and of the Dravidian family along with the scheduled language speakers. The area of the tribal populations actually spreads wider than the Jharkhand which came into existence politically in the year 2001. It spreads across four adjacent states, i.e., Bihar, Bengal, Orissa and Madhya Pradesh. Ram Dayal Munda, the noted Jharkhand movement propagator and linguist, points out:
- (v) “Culturally this is the only area in the entire country where three major cultural streams - Aryan, Dravidian and Austro-Asian, represented through various languages- have converged to create a cultural synthesis of its own kind.”(1989)

Post-Independence Contexts and Language Shift

The tribals or the *adivasis* have lived on this soil for thousands of years. Though they have been interacting with the non-tribals on the periphery of their homelands, the process of interaction has acquired a new dimension in India after Independence with the introduction of adult franchise and several community development programs.

Industrialization and modernization (including exploitation of mineral resources) are other reasons for language shift among the tribal populations. The degree of shift depends on the degree of exposure to external influences. For example, tribes of Northeast India have 88%-100% language maintenance due to limited interaction with outsiders. Central Indian Tribes and tribes of Jharkhand show greater degree of exposure to outsiders. The tribes of western and southern India have extreme external pressure. According to an estimate by Raza & Ahmed (1990) a little less than half of India's tribal populations have already lost their linguistic identity adopting regional languages.

The Dynamics of Language Contact in Jharkhand

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The dominant languages are the Scheduled Languages of the Indo-Aryan family and the dominated ones are those of the Munda and the Dravidian families. It has resulted in bi-/multilingual society, as a result of which minority communities are on higher level on the 'scale of bilingual proficiency' than the majority communities are.

Though the official figure gives average bilingual intensity around 47%, the urban Jharkhand area has nearly 85% bilingual intensity. The figure being much higher than the national figure of bilingualism which was 97% in 1961 (after 1961 no data was collected for bilingualism) (Abbi, 1997: 134).

Various mother tongues are in an intense language contact situation. Though none of the tribal languages of this area has reached a situation where it is in extreme danger of losing grounds, linguists have warned of the danger signs for language attrition in the loss basic vocabulary as well as change in the word order.

Aim of the Study

The aim of the study is to look at the possible language shifts occurring among the tribal people and the causes of the shift. The present paper looks at the four major tribes of Jharkhand [the census taken up for consideration here is of 1981-1991 when Bihar (undivided) existed]. The confusion should not arise when 'Bihar' and 'Jharkhand' are mentioned as it has been made clear.

Methodology

Four of the largest tribes were identified in Bihar (undivided): the Ho, the Oraon, the Munda and the Santhals. The total population of each tribe by selected mother tongue is taken for consideration as the sample. The languages taken for consideration are: Bengali, English, Hindi, Ho, Oraon, Munda, Mundari, Oriya, and Santhali.

The data were used from the 1981 census. Thereafter, the actual population change on a total, rural and urban basis was worked out as

$$\frac{\text{Total number of tribal speakers of mother tongue}}{\text{Total number of people in that tribe}} \times 100$$

To see the disaggregated level of change, a rural to rural and urban to urban change was worked out as a percentage. This was done as

$$\frac{\text{Total number of rural mother tongue speakers of language}}{\text{Total number of rural tribal population in that tribe}} \times 100$$

To look at the change in percentage, the 1981 figures were subtracted from 1991 figures.

Language Shift in the Ho Tribe

Traditionally the Ho tribe occupies some areas near the Ranchi district of South Bihar (undivided). This language is a part of the Munda languages.

In 1981, the total Ho population in Bihar was 536,523 out of which the total rural population was 500,147 and the total urban population amounted 36,376. In 1991, 631,541 people state Ho their tribe. The rural population stating this was 584,376 and the urban population was 47165.

The change in the total population is positive as we can observe an increase of 95,018 people in the Ho tribe. As far as the mother tongue is concerned, there has been a negative decline in the rural Bengali mother tongue speaking Ho and a positive change in the urban Bengali mother tongue speaking Ho.

There has been a positive change of English mother tongue speakers though the rural value has declined. In the case of Hindi, there has been a huge positive increase in people recording it their mother tongue both in the rural as well as in the urban areas. Similarly, in the case of Ho language there is an increase in people recording it as their mother tongue both in rural and urban areas. But, in the case of Oraon language, there is a decline.

There has also been an increase in the case of two associated languages of Munda and Mundari in all the levels - totals, rural and urban.

In the case of Oriya mother tongue speakers, there is a decline in the total and rural population but an increase in the urban population.

As in Munda and Mundari, there has been an overall increase in the Santhal speaking people of the Ho tribe.

Percentage Change in Total, Rural and Urban Mother Tongue of the Ho Population

In Bengali, there has been an overall slight positive change. Associated with it is the general decline in rural and urban spread of the language.

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The English mother tongue also has a very slight positive change of 0.00097% as total change. However, both the rural and urban figures indicate a negative change.

Hindi sees a positive change of 1.74% in total change and 0.85% in rural change and 1.13% as urban change. Therefore, we see more urban change here.

As seen in the actual population figures, the number of speakers of Oraon as mother tongue has declined in an all round figure.

The percentage of Munda speakers has registered more than 0.5% increase in the case of total and rural population but has declined in the case of urban population.

Similarly, Mundari speaking Ho people have registered increases in total and rural areas but have declined in the urban areas.

For Oriya speakers, there is an overall increase but the rural and urban figures have a slight decrease and increase respectively.

Santhali has gained in the total and rural segments but has lost in the urban segments. The percentage change is highly illustrative since it becomes visible where the change is actually happening.

Rural to Rural and Urban to Urban Change in the Mother Tongue Spoken by the Ho People

On a more disaggregated level, we see that Bengali as a mother tongue has declined in the rural sector but has increased in the urban areas. The same is the case with English as mother tongue.

Hindi has gained overall with a positive change in the urban areas.

Ho as mother tongue seems to have declined in both rural and urban sectors. Similar is the case with Oraon.

Munda and Mundari have registered positive change. Oriya spoken by the Ho people has declined in the rural areas but has declined in the urban segments.

Santhali has gained in both rural and urban areas.

Analysis

As we have observed above, we find as an overall picture that speakers of Hindi have increased among all sections. Therefore, there has been a shift in the mother tongue scenario of the Ho towards Hindi as more people are registering Hindi as their mother tongue.

Another significant shift, though small, has been seen in the case of the Santhali, Munda and Mundari languages.

For other languages, there has been a general decline, including Ho, where, though the actual number has increased, the percentage of the Ho speaking Ho has declined.

Yet, the urban areas have consistently shown positive (though minute) change in the case of Bengali and Oriya which are also dominant regional languages.

The total change certainly points to the following two directions:

1. Toward a non-tribal dominant language.

This may be caused by economic reasons to gain more and more opportunities and may also reveal a kind of social mobility. The people want to gain legitimacy for themselves by declaring themselves as mother tongue speakers of Hindi, it being the language of the majority in Bihar.

2. Toward a larger tribal language group (e.g. Munda, Mundari and Santhali)

The reason for this move can be political. During that specific period the struggle for a separate Jharkhand state was going on. The larger tribal groups are the majority in South Bihar (undivided). They were not given a separate state in 1956 due to their inability to prove their linguistic dominance over the region. So, it looked like that the tribals would not want to lose the chance again. The shift here is surely for social and political gain.

One important point to be made is that there emerges a shift towards an Indo-Aryan language. Within the tribal languages, the shift is towards the dominant group of the family. Oraon has seen a negative change all around (Oraon is a Dravidian language). So, even amongst the tribals, the subconscious move towards their own group is manifested. To the Ho people, even the Oraon is on another level; its hegemony over the space is not as powerful as that of the Munda and the Santhal.

Language Shift in the Oraon Tribe

The Oraon tribe inhabits the areas contiguous to Orissa. Mostly, they are in Singhbhum and Gumla districts of Bihar.

The total population of the Oraon tribe has increased by 166,642, since it was 104,8065 in 1981 and became 12,14,707 in 1991.

Here, Bengali mother tongue speakers have increased in total and rural segments but declined in the urban segment.

Some small difference can be seen in the case of English, with a positive increase in total, rural and urban sector.

Similarly, Hindi has gained in the registration of mother tongue in all the segments (though in the rural sector the increase has been more than that of the increase in the urban sector).

Ho gains in the total, lost out in the rural sector and high gain in the urban sector.

The total number of people declaring Oraon as their mother tongue has declined drastically over all the segments.

The Munda mother tongue speakers of the Oraon tribe exhibit a positive change and they have gained in all the sectors.

Surprisingly for Mundari, there is an all round negative change.

The Oriya language has gained overall but it shows a negative change in the rural sector and a positive change in the urban sector.

Santhali mother tongue speakers exhibit a positive change all round.

Percentage Change in the Rural, Urban and Total Mother Tongue Speakers of Oraon

On the percentage basis, Bengali as mother tongue amongst the Oraon tribe shows a decline in the total tally and the rural tally also but a positive change in the urban tally.

English shows an overall gain though it is too slight to be considered change in the percentage.

Hindi gains with major positive changes in all the sectors but more gain can be seen in the rural area.

Ho exhibits an overall slight positive total change, slight rural negative change and a little more urban positive change.

Oraon exhibits major negative change all over.

Munda shows positive change, though meager, in all the sectors.

Mundari shows negative changes in all the sectors but more so in the rural than in the urban.

Oriya can be seen gaining slightly in the overall tally but shows negative change in the rural sector and positive in the urban segment.

Rural to Rural and Urban to Urban Change in the Mother Tongue Speakers of Oraon Tribe:

In this micro-level of disaggregation, Bengali shows negative change in both the segments.

English exhibits a slight 0.008% positive change in both the segments.

Hindi shows major positive change but almost double in the urban segment than that of the rural.

Ho shows divergent trends, negative in the rural sector and positive in the urban sector.

Oraon exhibits large negative changes in the rural sector and medium negative changes in the urban sector.

Munda shows positive change in both the sectors.

Mundari exhibits negative change in both the sectors but it is more in the urban than in the rural sector.

Oriya shows a negative change in the rural sector and a positive change in the urban sector.

Santhali exhibits steady positive gain in both the sectors.

Inference

There is a definite language shift towards Hindi in the Oraon tribe as more Oraon tribals are giving Hindi as their mother tongue. Once again this points to the fact that the state lies in a Hindi speaking region.

English has also exhibited a slight but definite positive change in all the sectors consistently. The rudiment of a shift to English is there but only the next census figures can say if it really is changing. The process has just begun.

Munda shows consistent positive changes in all sectors as does Santhali.

Distinctly, more of the Oraon tribe is speaking less of the Oraon language. This shows a steady decline. This is very important since it implies that the importance of the Oraon language is declining for the Oraon tribe itself.

Analysis of the Change Registered

The dominant legitimate position of Hindi is upheld. There is, thus, a definite language shift towards it. The state language has begun the process of assimilation of the non-scheduled minority languages effectively. The major cause for this is to gain legitimacy for one's mother tongue so that one is at par with the most dominant language in the society. This can be said to be a form of desire to make up in the social ladder - social vertical mobility.

This is also for economic reasons. If they know Hindi, they will have better employment opportunities. On the other hand, there are less chances of being cheated easily if you speak the same language as the people holding dominant position.

Moreover, the medium of instruction in educational institutes in most cases is Hindi or English. The beginning of a shift towards English has already been made.

The importance of Oriya and Bengali in the dominant positions in urban places still lingers on. Thus, even though they have declined in the total and rural sectors, the urban sector still gives a positive trend.

There is also a definite shift towards Munda and Santhali languages. This clearly is revealed amongst the tribal groups. These two are the dominant groups and there is the desire to be counted as one of the majority people and to avail the benefits arising from such a situation. There may also be political motivation, since they were not shifting towards Mundari. All the leaders of the tribal protest movements come from these two groups. Here the Oraons perceive themselves weaker so they are abandoning their original language and shifting towards the dominant tribal groups. This is where the ethnic or racial differences play their part. In fact, they are not even shifting towards a language in their minds but towards a social and political pressure. So, they are willing to submerge their own identity in the larger linguistic identity.

Language Shift in the Munda Tribe

The Munda tribe first migrated to Chotanagpur under the patriarch Birsa Munda according to their legend. In fact, the name Chotanagpur itself is from one of their patriarchs' name Chutia Hadam. Thus it is claimed that their continuity can be constructed. They are numerically the second largest tribal group in the state.

Actual Population Change

The actual change in population between 1981 and 1991 is positive, amounting to 75,321. Keeping in mind that the Mundas have two languages - Munda and Mundari, the changes have to be evaluated.

Bengali speakers have decreased overall. People registering English as their mother tongue have gained very slightly and a negative change in the rural segment along with a positive change in the urban segment.

Hindi as usual shows a significant positive change in all the three sectors.

Ho also shows positive changes in all the sectors.

Oraon shows a negative change all over.

Munda as mother tongue exhibits significant positive gain in all the three sectors.

Conversely, Mundari shows a sign of almost decaying since it shows major negative changes in all the sectors.

Oriya also shows negative changes all over.

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Santhali shows significant and steady positive change all round.

Percentage Change in the Total, Rural and Urban Mother Tongue Speakers of the Munda Tribe

Bengali exhibits a steady decline in its usage as mother tongue, though the percentage change for the urban sector is quite low as compared to the rural segment.

English shows up a major decline amongst the Munda tribe.

Hindi has a positive total gain but when the break ups are seen, the rural sector provides a slight negative change. The urban sector here shows a slight positive change.

Ho exhibits an overall positive change.

Oraon exhibits an overall negative change while Munda shows large positive gains in the total segment (the rural segment also shows an overwhelming positive change), but the urban segment exhibits very slight positive change.

Mundari shows an overall large negative change but urban figures show a negligible change.

Oriya shows steady negative change all over.

Santhali also shows a steady positive percentage change.

Rural to Rural and Urban to Urban Percentage Change in the Mother Tongue Speakers in the Munda Tribe

Here, Bengali shows negative percentage changes.

English exhibits negative changes for rural sector and positive changes for the urban.

Hindi shows positive changes for both but the urban segment shows a massive gain of 7.03%

Ho shows positive slight percentage change.

Oraon shows negative changes for both rural and urban sectors.

Munda shows positive change in the rural segment and negative changes in the urban segment.

Mundari shows negative changes for both the sectors.

Oriya also shows negative changes for both the sectors but the magnitude is much less.

Santhali shows a steady positive change in both the sectors.

The Inference

Only two languages, Hindi and Santhali, exhibit a steady positive change in all the segments.

Munda shows massive gains but in the urban to urban sector, it shows a decline.

Mundari has a distinct fall in values.

Ho shows steady positive changes.

The language shift, therefore, can be said to be in the direction of Hindi for the scheduled languages. Both Bengali and Oriya have lost their importance for the Munda tribe. Even English displays a negative change in the rural sector. There is also a shift towards Santhali and Munda is holding its own.

Analysis of the Change

As before, there is a definite change or shift of language towards Hindi. Also, this is even more pronounced since the other tongue of the Munda tribe is Mundari which shows a drastic fall. It simply shows the dominant position of Hindi in the state and how dialects or sublanguages are dying out. This is mainly because people perceive these as the third tier of languages whereas Munda grows strong. But the urban segment has shown signs of negative change here also.

Only Santhali has gained or exhibited signs of steady positive percentage change. It, therefore, doesn't necessarily mean a shift towards Santhali but that it is holding its position. In definitional terms, yes, there is a shift.

The other scheduled languages, Bengali and Oriya have lost their dominance.

The Jharkhand political cause is behind the movement towards Santhali and Ho. If more people speak a tribal language, more support for the cause of a separate Jharkhand state will be there.

Increase in the use of Hindi is motivated for reasons of assimilation into the mainstream Bihari society. People show a preference for language shift towards Hindi.

The economic reasons, as always, are there. So, English has not declined in importance for the urban Munda. This may also be a result of *Hinduisation* of tribes whereby the Christian tribals are converted back into the Hindu fold. But this seems to be a very far-fetched reason. Access to education is another facet of the language shift towards Hindi and Santhali. Santhali has a written script. Therefore, if the demands for the inclusion of tribal languages into the VIII schedule are met, then Santhali will probably be one of the first ones to do so. So, the people who list Santhali as their mother tongue will gain.

Lastly, as it is becoming visible, there is a dominance of Hindi and the slow transition of the tribal people towards it. This, in some literature, has been termed as 'cultural genocide' in a slow and sustained manner.

Language Shift in the Santhal Tribe

The Santhal tribe is the largest tribal group in Bihar. As their legend says they settled in the present areas of Santhal Paraganas in Bihar after prolonged wandering. Their language identity is quite strong since they have a written script.

Actual Population Change amongst the Santhal Tribe

The population in 1981 was 2,060,729 and in 1991 it became 3,378,760, the increase being 1,318,031.

In the case of Bengali mother tongue speaking Santhals, there has been an overall decrease, but the urban sector has gained.

English as mother tongue shows overall increase in all the sectors.

Hindi as mother tongue shows large overall increases.

Ho also exhibits overall increases in all its sectors.

Oraon shows negative change in case of total and rural segments and positive in the case of urban sector.

Munda shows overall increase in all its segments though the magnitude is low.

Mundari also shows positive change in all its segments.

Oriya also shows positive change overall.

Santhali exhibits massive gains all round.

Percentage Change in the Mother Tongue Speakers amongst the Santhal Tribe

Bengali exhibits an all over negative percent change.

English does show positive percent change but it is minimal.

Hindi exhibits a positive percentage change in total and rural but negative change percent in total and but negative change in percent in the urban sector.

Ho shows an all over positive change in percent.

Oraon shows an all over negative change in percent.

Munda exhibits an overall positive change in percent.

Mundari, similarly, shows an overall positive change.

Oriya displays a negative change in its total and rural segments and a positive change in percent in urban sector.

Santhali displays a negative change percent in its total and urban sectors and a positive change in percent in the rural sector.

Rural to Rural and Urban to Urban Change in the Mother Tongue being Spoken by the Santhal Tribe

Here, Bengali shows a negative change in percent in both the sectors.

English exhibits a positive, though a very slight change in percent, and a negative urban change.

Hindi shows a positive change in the rural segment and negative change in the urban segment.

Similarly, Ho shows a positive and a negative change in the rural and urban segment.

Oraon exhibits negative change in both the sectors.

Munda shows positive change in the rural sector and negative change in the urban sector. Mundari follows suit, as does Oriya.

The Inference

There is no apparent shift occurring in the Santhal tribe. If there is any shift, it is towards Hindi. As before, Bengali and Oriya have lost their dominant positions.

Analysis of the Change

This society isn't exhibiting any major directions of change. In that case, it can be called a 'stable zone'. The changes are very small and the people are in constant contact with other cultures.

If there is any shift, it is in the rural areas towards Hindi and in the urban areas, it is away from both Hindi and Santhali. This tribe is now sort of undecided as to what to do on the language frontier. The urban Santhalis are undecided. This is also the tribe which has perhaps the most interstate spread- West Bengal, Bihar, Orissa and Madhya Pradesh.

Noticeably, it is the urban section that is showing the negative change. The trend is towards English. Another fact is that most people of this tribe retain either their original Saora religion or are Hindus. Therefore, they have no obvious compulsion to engage in language shift. They are secure in their identity.

Conclusion

This study of selected mother tongues spoken by four major tribes in Bihar (undivided) to find out whether there is any language shift or not, shows the stability of tribes themselves. This is so because they are secure in themselves.

M. Ishtiaq (1999:146) states that the language shift among the tribes in India is mostly towards the regional languages. Besides, they have also adopted the languages of other

tribal groups. We, too, have observed this in the present study. His study of the typology of language shift and maintenance among the selected tribes of India revealed that the areas of very high degree of language shift are associated with a low grade of maintenance of all these tribal groups.

The high degree of language shift may indicate the degree of cultural assimilation into the majority linguistic groups as one way of preserving cultural identity is to maintain their traditional languages. The mix of language consciousness and ethnicity has led to tribal unrest. As Imtiaz Hasnain (1997) points out, the signs of growth or decline in the use of mother tongue not only indicate vacillation but marks nexus between language and identity. There does exist an underlying relationship between language and identity.

Another factor that determines the sociolinguistic status of these tribal languages is the process of urbanization and industrialization. There is an inverse correlation between levels of industrialization or urbanization, and the maintenance of tribal language as mother tongues (Abbi, 1997:135). By speaking Hindi, they feel superior to other fellow tribals who cannot speak it. As we observed, a low percentage of urban tribals is monolingual in their traditional languages.

Ethno linguistic minority status induces a negative attitude towards language loyalty. A gradual adoption of a non-tribal language as mother tongue presents a classic case of language shift. Theoretically, these symptoms are considered diagnostic of potential language death (Abbi, 1997:135).

The speakers of these tribal languages tend towards adopting one or more non-tribal regional languages when they find their mother tongues not much of functional use. However, as M. Ishtiaq (1999:149) points out, changing linguistic identity in a multilingual society like India sometimes do not represent a real index of shift in language. Rather, it is a change in people's perception that compels them to declare their mother tongue differently in different periods. Language has often been a victim of politics and is used as an effective tool for achieving political goals.

In India, we see language and politics interacting with each other to push economic, social and other issues into the background and transcend the caste and religious boundaries (O'Barr and O'Barr, 1976).

The census data (the basis of this study is census reports) also cannot be taken as absolute and conclusive for the purpose of the analysis and especially for policy programmes. The data from census must be verified through extensive fieldwork before reaching any

concrete conclusion. The study has to be conducted for each tribe on its own as we have several socio-economic and regional variations within the tribal group itself.

Though the languages studied here are not in danger, we need not think that the situation should be left as it is. Article 350A of the Constitution of India has provided the right to education in the mother tongue at the primary stage for linguistic minority groups but, in reality, the majority privileged groups always want to impose the dominant language/s, and this results in detribalization except the Santhals to give up their tribal traits. (Sridhar, 1996)

As Ekka (1979) remarks, the political status and functional value of the majority language in the states have exerted enormous socio-psychological pressure on the tribal communities to be proficient in the majority language to gain occupational mobility and educational advancement.

As Verma (2003:16) points out, we also have to admit that ‘the institutional hierarchisation’ and discrimination, the economic disadvantages and the satellite and cable cultural neo-colonization via English at home is beginning to weaken Pandit’s (1972) characterization of the Indian sociolinguistic scene as one where multilingualism was the norm, monolingualism an exception.

The choice of a language other than the mother tongue for initial and academic literacy is also likely to have a long term disempowering and disabling influence on the minority mother tongues. According to Pattanayak (1981), languages other than the Scheduled languages have been certainly disabled and as the demand for ‘universal literacy’ goes up, most of the spoken languages face extinction. As we all know, language and communities are inseparable and, in the past, we have seen language death and community death as victims of colonial and neo-colonial policies.

Therefore, it is the role and responsibility of the linguist in the Indian context to work for the tribal languages and to preserve this cultural heritage. Tribal people should be taken into the mainstream but their culture and language should not be destroyed because of this. They are part of the national heritage and they should not be allowed to submit to the pressure of assimilation within the dominant culture, under the compulsions of joining the mainstream so that they are left with no choice - they change or lose.

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Interrogative Structures and Their Responses as Speech Initiators and Fluency Booster for Second Language Learners

K. Sathya Sai, Ph.D. & G. Baskaran, Ph.D.

Abstract

It is observed that one of the major problems of learners of English as a Second Language is framing appropriate questions to seek information and giving responses in appropriate structures with appropriate tense. It is also found that when learners do not have this skill they feel reluctant to start conversation. This also affects their fluency in speech.

This paper is an experiment to find out how the knowledge and skills of framing questions will help the second language learners to overcome their initial difficulty in speaking the language. We also propose to investigate how learning to respond in appropriate structure that reflects the question would enhance idea generating capacity and fluency in speech of the second language learners of English.

The experiment started with drill on simpler question structures and the use of the same structure with slight alteration for responses. For example, verbal questions were tried first for different tenses as well as for active and passive sentences. Then students were gradually introduced to information-seeking questions from simple to complex structures. An intensive drill on words rearrangement for responses is essential to eliminate the inhibition in exchange of information. Adding discourse markers may also help enhance the fluency. In all these, however, student

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inquisitiveness is essential for speech initiation and prolonging the conversation with appropriate responses.

Application of the Study

This experiment in language learning process is based on the hypothesis that necessity to communicate or get information in the second language speaking environment presupposes that one must have the knowledge and skill to use interrogative structures properly to kick start the communication process and to sustain exchange of information.

As English has its own way of arranging words for framing questions and rearranging word for responses, a drill in the pattern is imperative to start and sustain the communication by means of exchange of ideas.

This precept has been tested in the study conducted at an engineering college in Tamilnadu, where learning English was primarily intended for achieving adequate communication skills in the second language in order to meet the professional requirements.

Subjects and Their Background

The subjects for the study were carefully selected conducting a diagnostic test which covered an assessment of spoken and listening skills, besides writing and reading skills. Here the prominence was given for spoken and listening skills, starting from short exchange to longer conversations.

The subjects had already passed their 12th Grade/Standard exams. They had studied English as a Part II language for twelve years. Their Part I and Part III subjects were -- learned using their first language. Their class room situation and experience, as far as English is concerned, had guided and led them towards memorization of materials and acquisition of some knowledge about English grammar and usage and modern ideas including some knowledge about the culture represented in English writings. In short, English was not taught as skills but as a knowledge-based study. The acquisition happened in the past became a temporary storage. Improper learning and blind memorizing made their past efforts futile. Lack of knowledge and practice resulted in lack of confidence to handle the language in the present.

It was found from the diagnostic test that the subjects were ignorant of various forms of verbs, subject-verb agreement, appropriate syntactic rules and patterns for interrogatives. They were less articulate, and non-responsive to questions directed to them in English. For verbal questions, their answers were either 'yes' or 'no'. No details were given. For information seeking questions, there were restricted utterances with improper syntax or no response as:

T: Have you read all the questions in this question paper?

L: Yes/No.

T: Do you understand all the questions?

L: Yes/No.

T: What part do you find difficult in the question paper? Can you explain it?

L: No response. Speaking task... (No further utterances.)

Our Experiment

In our experiment, input to the subjects was given in the form of structure of questions that apply to conversation. For detailed responses, Ekroth (2004) suggests, "Ask open questions that require more than a Yes or No. These are the "Wh" and "H" questions beginning with What, Why, Where, and How. This technique works better than "closed questions" that limit the response, such as "Did you like the movie?" Instead, "What did you like about the movie?" draws out a more interesting and detailed response".

In our experiment, for the purpose of drill, the drill activity started with "Closed question." Students were asked to provide the responses by reflecting on the tense and structure of the question and also by changing persons.

Examples:

Teacher: Do you want to improve your communication skills?

Student: Yes, I am *want* to improve my communication skills? (Always 'am' is used with I)

Input:

T: You want to improve your English. – is a statement.

While framing a question, the verb should be divided as:

Want= Do+ Want. Wants= Does + want. Wanted = did + want.

Now by bringing the auxiliary before subject, the statement will become a question. Thus the sentence becomes: Do you want to improve your English?

By training the subjects (students) in different tenses and pronouns they can overcome their inhibition to speak. They have learnt and practiced the use of personal pronoun with possessive pronoun in their articulations as it is found in the instances given below. For example: 'I' with 'me', 'he' with 'his,' etc.

T: Does your friend help you improve your communication skills?

L: Yes, my friend will help. (Wrong tense, correct the student with right answer.)

T: Yes, my friend helps me improve my communication skills.

Same sentence with different tenses:

T: Did your friend help you improve your communication skills?

L: No, don't help. (Wrong and short response.)

Explaining why it is wrong, and teaching how correct response should be.

S: Yes, my friend helped me improve my communication skills.

Or

No, my friend didn't help me improve my communication skills.

Here the learners were taught how the negatives are formed with the addition of 'not' in contracted form with the auxiliary verb. Thus, by starting the lesson with micro level question structure acquisition, the learners were trained to make utterances fluently and without mistakes. This task is completely oral and the objective is to train learners to cope with the demand from day-to-day situation.

Experiment Level-I Conversation Drills

Question tag (sentence of confirmation) was given as input.

A. Skills inculcated: Even though question tags are, in an actual sense, sentences of confirmation, this practice helps the learners to become familiar with the basic structures and make suitable changes in the structure according to the changes in persons and tenses.

- i. He comes by car, doesn't he?
- ii. Manoj waited for his friend, didn't he?
- iii. There wasn't enough food left? Was there?
- iv. You have done the lesson, haven't you?
- v. You will be able to do that, Won't you?

B. Sample application in Short conversation

L1 Not many students in this class do exercise in the morning, do they?

L2 No, they don't, but they should understand that health care is very important in

this mechanical life.

L1 According to our recent survey, most of us have one or the other problems, haven't we?

L2 Yes, we all do, and it is a sad thing.

Verb level structural modification is possible by the drill in Tag questions. Subject verb agreement as well as negative formation of verb and their usage become familiar to the learners. They could utter single idea sentence followed by tag after this practice.

Experiment Level-II Conversation Drills

Verbal questions were given as input.

- a. Do you watch television very often?
- b. Did you visit a museum last night?
- c. Has this wall been painted recently?
- d. Will your friend meet you at the airport?
- e. Could you see the tower from the plane?

Templates of verbal questions with different tenses in both transitive verbs (active and passive voices) intransitive verbs were given to the subjects. The activity started with the articulation of sentences in the template. With assistance, the learners imitated the structure with slight modification using different verbs and different tenses. Continuous drill on sentences generation enabled the learner to become familiar with the structure and acquired the skill to fluently articulate the ideas in second language.

In this level, the learners were not confined to questions alone. It was slightly turned out to be a conversation with exchange of ideas. Moreover, the learners' involvement in the process of conversation was also increased. They tried gradually to come out of the frame work of the structure of the assignment. Here the teacher became a facilitator by restricting his role of teaching. The learners gradually shifted from the linguistic layer of exchanges to purpose-oriented exchanges or business-oriented talk. To acquire specific and purposeful information, the learners were taken to the next level of the experiment.

Experiment Level-III Conversation drills

Information seeking questions for purpose-oriented exchanges:

- a. Where should I park my car?

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- b. How can she possibly do it?
- c. What did you complain about?
- d. Why has he decided to stay with you after his recent visit?
- e. Which issue, do you think, will be the cause for the downfall of this government?

Use of appropriate information seeking interrogative pronouns in the beginning of questions as in the above practice enables the learners feel at ease in asking question fluently. Learners were given drill in framing questions for a set of topics as a sample given below;

Topic: The Taj Mahal

What is the Taj Mahal?

Where is Taj Mahal situated?

Who built the Taj Mahal?

When was it built?

Similar kind of exercises serves as speech initiator and fluency booster in spoken situation. The learners should not restrict themselves to question structure alone. He can extend to other patterns of sentences.

Learning a Second Language Through the Use of Question Structure

Learning a second language through the use of the question structure is not at all a novel process. We all gradually mastered our vocabulary, meaning and syntactic aspects of our first language as small children using this very same technique. There seems to be an innate propensity in all of us to raise questions, seek answers and information, and integrate these as part of our knowledge and language use. Our experiments listed above actually tried to replicate this first language acquisition in second language performance. Through repeated performance, second language competence is bound to be strengthened.

Note that these questions were not treated as interview structures, like questions from one side and the answers from the other. The purpose of this question structure was not to argue but to ask, gain information and sustain the conversation. The learners initially had the difficulty in arranging words correctly for the questions. Practice helped them to overcome the difficulty. Thus, the passive and uninvolved learner can be pushed to initiate and play a major role in conversation by compelling them through the use of the question structure. This method can be used where the learners have adequate exposure and competency in the second language but they

experience or reveal difficulty or lack of practice in speaking.

Questions internalize the conversation process and help overcome the inhibition and create a compulsion to participate in the conversation. Finlayson (2001) explains, “Questions are an act of here and now. They force you to be a part of the conversation, to make an immediate exchange of ideas, while sharpening your mind to focus on what is wanted”.

Second language learners’ major difficulty is in getting involved in the conversation. When such learners, at least during practice, put themselves in the position to seek information by initiating conversation with questions, they can overcome the psychological barrier to speak. Our experiment showed that the practicing the question structure as part of the conversation helped students to improve their speaking fluency even as it improved their grammar.

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Interrogative Structures and Their Responses as Speech Initiators and Fluency Booster for Second Language Learners

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English as a Second Language Learning
Strategies and Teachability

Muhammad Saeed Akhtar, Ph.D.

Muhammad Shaban Rafi, M.Phil.

Abstract

This study explores English as Second Language Teaching and Learning strategies at the secondary level of education. The study hypothesizes that there is no correlation between English as Second Language teaching and learning strategies.

A sample of 100 ESL learners of grade IX and X was drawn to administer Strategy Inventory Language Learning. A sample of 40 teachers, teaching English as Second Language was also chosen to seek their responses on SILL. Mean Average was calculated to draw comparison between teachability and learnability.

The study reveals that the balance is off-centered between language teaching and learning strategies. The study suggests that the teachers should develop language strategies cohesion and positive supportive learning environment to improve the learners' fluency and competence.

Keywords: ESL, Learnability and Teachability

Introduction

Many different methods and approaches for teaching English as Second Language (ESL) came in and became out of fashion. For example, Grammar and Translation Method (GTM), Audio Lingual Method (ALM), Communicative Approach (CA), etc., have used to teaching ESL over the years.

However, researchers such as (Richards, 1990; Kumaravadivelu, 1994, Larsen-Freeman, 2001, Brown, 2002 and Bell, 2003) proclaimed the death of methods. According to Krashen and Terrell, the major problem with these methods was that they were built not around actual theory of language acquisition, but theories of something else; for example, the structure of language (Richards and Rodgers, 2000). Thus, the concept of post-methodology became an important theme.

Eclectic approach to language teaching (a method that has been practiced for centuries) became an outcome of the post-methodology period. Ignoring the learning strategies, teachers began to blend the methods and approaches to improve their ESL teaching. However, the entire language teaching process remained teacher-centered.

A paradigm shift from teacher-centered to teaching-centered made the proponents of eclectic approach to review language teaching methods and approaches. As a result of this, learning strategies gained importance in the language teaching process. As noted by Griffiths (2007), Language Learning Strategies (LLS), although still fuzzily defined and controversially classified, are increasingly attracting the interest of contemporary language educators because of their potential to enhance learning. Rubin (1975) provides a broad definition of learning strategies as the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire language competence.

This study presumes that there is a gap between language teaching and learning strategies, which inhibits ESL learning process. In order to explore learning styles, the study draws on Oxford's taxonomy of learning strategies: *memory strategies* (how students remember language), *cognitive strategies* (how students think about their learning), *compensation strategies* (which enable students to make up for their limited knowledge), *metacognitive strategies* (relating to how students manage their own learning), *affective strategies* (relating to students' feelings) and *social strategies* (learning by interaction with others).

Theoretical Assumptions

It is observed that some students are more successful than others on the assumption that some of their success may be as a result of more effective Language Learning Strategies (LLS). It is assumed that the strategies employed by the more successful learners may be learnt by those who are less successful, and that the teacher can facilitate the language learning process by promoting awareness of these strategies, and encouraging their use. The position that language learners are the individuals who take charge of their own learning and achieve autonomy by the use of learning strategies has been researched and promoted by educators such as Oxford (1990), O'Malley (1990), Bialystok (1991), Cohen (1998), Wenden (1991), and Green and Oxford (1995).

Learnability and Teachability

As Oxford (1990) emphasizes, language learning strategies are especially important for language learners because they are tools for active, self-directed movement, which is essential for developing communicative competence. Besides developing the communicative competence of the learners, teachers who train them to use LLS (Language Learning Strategies) can help them to become better language learners. Helping learners to understand LLS and training them to streamline them can be considered characteristics of a good language teacher (Lessard, 1997).

Garden and Miller (1996) supports the fact that if a teacher tends to be learner-centered, then he may use a specific number of tasks appropriate for his students in order to provide them with opportunities to use and develop LLS, and to encourage them for more independent language learning both in class and out of class activities. As Graham (1997) declares, LLS training needs to be integrated into students' regular classes because they help to appreciate their relevance for language learning tasks. The students need to constantly monitor and evaluate the strategies they develop and use; and they need to be aware of the nature, function and importance of such strategies. Griffiths (2007) makes the point that contemporary language educators and researchers are increasingly keen to harness the potential which LLS seem to have for enhancing an individual's ability to learn language.

Underlying Assumption

Individual language processing faculty differentiates mixed ability learners. This study assumes that language learning strategies facilitate acquisition process, if the teachers and the learners have common language teaching and learning strategies. Differentiation among these strategies causes a gap between teachability and learnability, which is the prime focus of this study.

Methodology

Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) was adapted for collection of data. The SILL consisted of 50 items which were distributed over six categories: Memory, Cognitive, Compensation, Metacognitive, Affective and Social strategies. Learners were asked to respond to each of the strategy description based on the 2 options: yes or no. Oxford (1990) commented that the SILL was the most often used strategy scale around the world, and the only language learning strategy instrument that had been extensively field-tested for reliability and validated in multiple ways.

A sample of 100 participants was taken from six public (schools that are run by the government agencies) and private schools (schools run by non-official organizations but within the superintendence of government school authority) of secondary level located in Lahore, Pakistan for the administration of SILL. The questionnaire was administered among 50 each from public and private sector school learners between 15-17 years of age. A sample of 40 ESL

teachers was also taken to compute their responses on SILL. Mean Average was calculated to draw comparison between learnability and teachability.

Learners' Background

The learners were teacher-dependent in the public schools. The teachers asked students to orally translate the reading material in English into their home language such as Urdu. The learners were taught grammar deductively. That is; they were given the grammar rules to memorize and to apply them in isolation. Eventually they were observed memorizing native language equivalents for foreign language. In the private schools, the teachers were facilitators of their students' learning. And one of their major responsibilities was to create a situation to promote communication. They were found more tolerant to the learners' errors in ESL learning as compared to their counterparts in the public schools. They used students' errors as an index of learning the language.

Data Analysis

Table 1 reveals the difference between teachability and learnability in public schools. A slight difference (1%) was found on the usage of memory strategies; however; a mark difference (13%) was measured between the teachers and the learners on the usage of cognitive

Comparison between Language Teaching and Learning Strategies in Public Schools		
	Teachers	Learners
Memory	53%	52%
Cognitive	40%	53%
Compensation	54%	77%
Metacognitive	73%	68%
Affective	31%	65%
Social	54%	51%

Table 1

strategies. Similarly, a significant difference (23%) was computed on the usage of compensational strategies; whereas a small difference (5%) was measured between the teachers and the learners on the usage of metacognitive strategies. A noteworthy difference (34%) was found on the usage of affective strategies. Nevertheless, a minor difference (3%) was calculated between the teachers and the learners on the usage of social strategies.

Table 2 shows the difference between language teaching and learning strategies in private schools. There was a slight difference (3%, 2%, 4% and 6%) between the teachers and the learners on the usage of memory, metacognitive, social and cognitive strategies. However, there was no difference in the usage of compensation strategies among the teachers and the learners. There was a significant difference (14%) between the teachers and the learners in the usage of affective strategies.

Comparison between Language Teaching and Learning Strategies in Private Schools		
	Teachers	Learners
Memory	85%	82%
Cognitive	87%	81%
Compensation	85%	85%
Metacognitive	98%	96%
Affective	60%	74%
Social	85%	89%

Table 2

Discussion

In the public schools, the teachers demonstrated lack of compensation and affective strategies; whereas the learners emphasized on these strategies more than their teachers in the process of ESL acquisition. The proportion between the teachers and the learners on the use of other LLS had a marginal deviation. In the private schools, the teachers use less affective strategies as compared to their learners, whereas a slight deviation was found between the teachers and the learners on the use of other LLS.

How can teachers make use of learning strategies? Firstly, the teachers ought to harmonize their teaching strategies with learning strategies. Secondly, the learners may be encouraged to develop autonomy inside and outside the classroom. Partly this can be achieved through 'learner training': equipping them with the means to guide themselves by exploring strategies to them.

The idea of learner training leads to autonomous, self-directed learning, in which the students take on responsibility for their own learning. They choose their goals; they control teaching methods and material; they assess how well they are doing themselves.

This independence of the learner from the teacher has been recognized by the tradition of strategies research, which tries to discover the choices that students are making and to recognize them in language teaching.

Conclusion

The study examined Language Teaching and Learning Strategies at the secondary level of education. A significant deviation was found over affective and compensation strategies between practices followed in government-run public schools and private schools. However, a marginal difference was found over memory, cognitive, metacognitive and social strategies between teachability and learnability. Language Teaching and Learning Strategies need to be reconsidered in order to bridge the gap between learnability and teachability. The teachers should attempt to strengthen language learning strategies and offer positive, supportive responses to learners' needs and interests. Classrooms that combine these elements offer affective learning experiences to language learners.

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Identifying an Unknown Language *Bahai* in and around Kanpur Area

Md. Sohel Rana, Ph.D.



Photo taken from andnmm.com

1. Mother Tongue Name

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UNKNOWN (Given name BAHAI but no one claimed that it is spoken in Kanpur under municipal corporation and outside it. They called it Hindi or a variety of Hindi.

2. Location of the Mother Tongue

The data has been collected from the area of Kanpur (MC+OG), named Goaltoli. Kanpur is one of the most populous cities in North India and is the most populous city within the state of Uttar Pradesh. Area-wise Kanpur is the 5th largest city of India. Kanpur is located on the banks of the river Ganga. The city coordinates are 26.4670 degree North and 80.3500 degree East, placing it 83km from Lucknow, the capital of Uttar Pradesh. Kanpur along with Allahabad and Fatehpur are part of the Lower Doab, which, in antiquity, was known as the Vats country. It is surrounded by two main rivers Ganga in the north-east and the Pandu River (Yamuna) in the south. The district surrounding Kanpur is Hamirpur in the south and Unnao in the north-east.

3. Informant's Name

The field data has been collected from the two informants, Rajeev Kormokar (35yrs) who is the teacher of a high school and Adil khan (25yrs) is a student of B.A.

4. Total Population of Kanpur (Mc+Og):

The city government was upgraded from Municipal Corporation in the year 1960. As per the census report of 2001, total population is 25.67 lacs and the total area is 230sqkm with 110 wards.

5. The People and Their Social Life

The speakers of this language are settled in this area for about four generations. The women speakers are mostly employed as domestic help, and men are involved in small business. Many work in small or big industries, because this city has many industries.

6. The Language Use in the Household and outside the Home

The household language of the speakers is their mother tongue which they are using even now in their 4th generation. In the domains outside home, i.e., in the bazaar, in-group meetings, within the locality and in the place of work, they use their mother tongue. But, of course, in formal communication, or when they talk with the educated in social domains, Hindi is used. Also they try to use some English words due to the globalization of that language.

7. Multilingual Situation of the Speech Region

The literate people of the community and the people who frequently come out of the connection with job and business have attained proficiency to interact in standard Hindi,

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besides their mother tongue. They have nativized many English words like office, tempo, market etc.

8. Linguistic Sketch

Phonetic Inventory Consonants

	bilabial	Labio-dental	dental	alveolar	Retroflex	palatal	velar	glottal
plosive	p b ph bh		t d th dh		T D Th Dh	ts dz tsh dzh	k g kh gh	
Nasal	m			n			ŋ	
Trill				r	R, Rh			
Flap								
Fricative		v		s				h
Approximate						j		
Lateral approximate				l				

Vowels

Front Vowel

i high front short vowel
i: high front long vowel
e mid front vowel

Central Vowel

ə low mid central vowel

Back Vowel

u high back short vowel
u: high back long vowel
o mid back vowel
O: low-mid back low
a: low back vowel(long)

Vowel distribution

Vowels	Initial	Medial	Final
--------	---------	--------	-------

i	itstshə	tiSre	sərdi
i:		dzəmi:n	Sətstsi:
e	ek	əndherə	bhətize
Ə	əndherə	həwa	ba:drə
u		dulhən	a:lu
u:	u:lti	dhu:a	Bapu:
o		botə	do
O:			mərO:
a:	a:g	bəadrə	Ma:

Consonant clusters

dr	as in bədra
nd	as in əndhera
tr	as in putri
ng	as in Taŋ
rd	as in sardi

Gemination:

ll	as in billi
khkh	as in məkkhi:
dd	as in həDdi:
tt	as in pətti:
ss	as in rəSSi:

Vowel Sequence

ai	as in bha:i
ua	as in dhua: □
a:i	as in tsha:i
eə	as in Səureə

Morphology

Noun Gloss

Singular

Plural

Rat
Mango

tsuu:hã
a:m

tsu:hě
a:m

Cat billi billiã

For making plural they generally use the marker like- iã, or Ø

e.g. billi as in billiã (-ã ending)
 lərki as in lərkiã (-ã ending)
 a:m as in a:m (-Ø ending)

Gloss	msculine	feminine	Gloss
Man	ədmı	aurət	women
Husband	pəti	bibi	wife
Boy	lərkə	lərki	girl
Nephew	bhəti:dze	bhətidzi:	niece

Gender of the nominal is determined either by –ə, in masculine or- i, in famine or by exclusively by separate words.

e.g. larkə as in larki
 mamə as in mami

Pronouns are of the three types.

Pronoun

Personal pronoun

	Singular		plural	
1 st P	mE'ɪ'		həm	'we'
2 nd P	tu:/tu:m'you'	a:p		'you'
3 rd P	wo e/she'		woH	'they'

Demonstratives

This	iE	hat	dzo
Here	hiã	here	u:hã
These	u:nke		

Interrogatives

Why ki:

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What	ki:ə
Who	kou:n
How	kəi:se

Auxiliaries

	Present	past	future
1 st P	hou	the	
2 nd P	kə	thou	ge
3 rd P	se	bə	ge

e.g.

1. I: kuttə hou
2. u: kə ghər bəhu:t sundər hou
3. pa:t peR Se jhoRe thou
4. U: apn bləu:dz khud Se Sile the
5. u:dhər kə kouno bə hol mə
6. u: u:ke dekhTə hou
7. tu: mehnət kəro, to dzit dzəo ge

Word Order S O V

E.g. həm khetvə par ka:l jab

S O V

Tense

Present Tense

1. u: kou:n hou?
2. bətsə rouət hou.

Past Tense

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1. rəm nə sitvə ko məro thou.

2. hu:m məndir gəya thou.

Future Tense

1. u:ke əne k bəd hu:m jəb.

2. hu:m khetvə pər kəl jəb.

Types of Sentences

Simple

1. Speak slowly.
hole bol

2. This is a dog.
u: kuttə hou.

Complex

1. Let them all come to the hall.
u:səbən ko kəmərə mE an: dou.

2. I have been living with her for the past 20 years.
hu:m u: k səth bi:s bərəs Se hou.

Compound

1. u:hə bərsət ho thE roudv:a phislət hou u:ke bət bhi kər pəhər pər tsore thE



Image collected from kmc.up.nic.in.

Conclusion

Similarity with –

Gloss	Lg. of Kanpur	Hindi
Sister	bəhen	bəhen
Leg	ta:ŋg	ta:ŋg
Hungry	bhu:kha	bhu:kha
When	kəb	kəb
Ice	bərəf	bərəf

Finally, on the basis of the structural and lexical similarities of the language of Kanpur municipal corporation area and its Out Growth, we can see that this language may be classifiable under Hindi or the variety of Hindi, that is, Braj. So, this mother tongue of Kanpur (MC+OG) seems to be classifiable as a variety of Hindi.

NO.	WORD LISTS	MEANING	STRUCTURE
1.	Air	həwa	CvVV
2.	Ashes	tsha:i	CcVv

3.	Cloud	Ba:drə	Cvevc
4.	Cold	Sərđi	Cvecv
5.	Darkness	əndherə	Vcccvcv
6.	Earth	dzəmi:n	Cvevc
7.	Eclipse	Səureə mondəl	cvvcv cvccvc
8.	Fire	a:g	Vc
9.	Fog	dhū:a	Ccvv
10.	Forest	bən	Vcc
11.	Hill	pərbət	Cvevc
12.	Ice	bərəf	Cvevc
13.	Moon	tsənd	Cvcc
14.	Mountain	pərbət	Cvevc
15.	Rain	bərsat	Cvevc
16.	River	nədi	Cvcv
17.	Road	rə:D	Cvc
18.	Sand	ma:Ti	Cvcv
19.	Wind	bətaS	Cvevc
20.	Wood	botə	Cvcv
21.	Baby	tsota bətstsə	Cvcv
22.	Boy	pu:t	Cvc
23.	Bride	dulhən	Cvevc
24.	Bride groom	dulhə	Cvecv
25.	Brother(eld)	bhəija	Cvvcv
26.	Brother(Yong)	bhai	Ccvv
27.	Child	Batstsə:	Cvecccv
28.	Daughter	putri:	Cvecv
29.	Father	bapu:	Cvcv
30.	Friend	ja:r	Cvc
31.	Girl	ma:l	Cvc
32.	Husband	mənsəba	Cvevcv
33.	Male	lo:g	Cvc
34.	Man	a:đmi	Vccv
35.	Marriage	Sa:đi	Cvcv
36.	Maternal Uncle	mama	Cvcv
37.	Maternal uncle's daughter	bəhən	Cvevc
38.	Mother	ma:	Cv
39.	Nephew	bhəti:dze	Cvevcv
40.	Niece	bhətidzi:	Cvevcv
41.	Old man	bu:Rha	Cvccv
42.	Sister	bəhən	Cvevc
43.	Sister-in -law	sa:li	Cvcv
44.	Son	beta	Cvcv

45.	Widow	vidhva	Cvcecv
46.	Wife	meherija	Cvevevcv
47.	Woman	əurət	Vvevc
48.	Ant	tsi:Ti:	Cvevevcv
49.	Bird	tsiRija:	Cvevevcv
50.	Cat	billi	Cvecv
51.	Claw	pəndzə	Cveccv
52.	Cock	murga	Cvecv
55.	Cow	gae	Cvv
56.	Dog	kukur	Cvevc
57.	Egg	ənDa	Vccv
58.	Feather	pərkʰ	Cvecc
59.	Fish	mətshli:	Cvecccv
60.	Fly	məkkʰi:	Cveccv
61.	Fox	lɔŋRi:	Cvecv
62.	Goat	Bəkri	Cvecv
63.	Grease	gri:S	Cevc
64.	like	pəsənd	Cvevcc
65.	Horn	Siŋ	Cvc
66.	Back	Pi:Th	Cvcc
67.	Belly	peT	Cvc
68.	Blood	khu:n	Cevc
69.	Body	Səri:r	Cvevc
70.	Bone	həDDi:	Cvecv
71.	Breast	Sina	Cvev
72.	Chest	tsati	Cvvevcv
73.	Ear	ka:n	Cvc
74.	Eye	ənkʰ	Vccc
75.	Face	mukhoTə	Cvevevcv
76.	Fever	Bukha:r	Cvevcv
77.	Finger	əŋguli	Vccvevcv
78.	Flesh	goSt	Cvcc
79.	Foot	Ta:ŋg	Cvcc
80.	Hair	ba:l	Cvc
81.	Hand	ha:th	Cvcc
82.	Head	Sər	Cvc
83.	Heart	dil	Cvc
84.	Leg	ta:ŋg	Cvcc
85.	Lip	hōT	Cvc
86.	Liver	dzəkrit	Cvevevcv
87.	Lung	phephRa	Cvecccv
88.	Mouth	mu:h	Cvc

89.	Neck	gəla	Cvev
90.	Nose	na:k	Cvc
91.	Spine		
92.	Tongue	dzuban	Cevecv
93.	Tooth	dā:t	Cvc
94.	Waist	kəlai	Cvevv
95.	Fruit	phəl	Cevc
96.	Liquor	la:r	Cvc
97.	Milk	du:dh	Cvcc
98.	Salt	nu:n	Cvc
99.	Smoke	Dhua dhəkkəR	cev cvevcv
100.	Uncooked rice	adh pəka tsawl	vcc cvev cevvc
101.	Bad	Burə	Cvev
102.	Door	kimara	Cvevcv
103.	House	ghər	Cevc
104.	Roof	tsət	Cevc
105.	Rope	rəSSi:	Cvecv
106.	Wall	dijal	Cvevc
107.	Well	kua	Cvv
108.	I	mE	Cv
109.	Window	khiRki	Cvecv
110.	Flower	phu:l	Cevc
111.	Fruit	phəl	Cevc
112.	Garden	bagitsa	Cvevcv
113.	Grass	gha:S	Cevc
114.	Guava	əmru:d	Vcevc
115.	Jackfruit	kəThəl	Cvevcv
116.	Leaf	pətti	Cvecv
117.	Lily	ek phu:l	vc cevc
118.	Mango	a:m	Vc
119.	Paddy	dhə:n	Cevc
120.	Plough	həl	Cvc
121.	Potato	a:lu	Vcv
123.	Root	dzəR	Cevc
124.	Sweet	miThəi	Cvecvv
125.	Tree	peR	Cvc
126.	Vegetable	Səbdzi:	Cveccv
127.	Wheel	pəhiJa	Cvevcv
128.	Bitter	kəRwa	Cvevv
129.	Black	kala	Cvev
130.	Blind	əndhə	Vcecv
131.	Blue	ni:la	Cvev

132.	Bright	tsəmki:la	Cvccvccv
133.	Brown	bhu:re	Cvccv
134.	Coldness	Sərđi	Cvccv
135.	Green	həra	Cvccv
136.	Hat	tə:p	Cvc
137.	Light	udzala	Vcvcvccv
138.	Red	la:l	Cvc
139.	Sour	khəTTa	Cvccvccv
140.	Sweet	miTha	Cvccv
141.	Bed	biStər	Cvccvccv
142.	Big	borə	Cvccv
143.	Dirty	gəndda	Cvccvccv
144.	Dry	Sukha	Cvccv
145.	White	Saphed	Cvccvccv
146.	Yellow	pi:la	Cvccv
147.	Hungry	bhu:kha	Cvccvccv
148.	Love	prem	Cvccv
149.	Pain	dərd	Cvcc
150.	True	Sətstsi:	Cvccvccv
151.	Wish	itstsha	Vcvcvccv
152.	Ink	ka:li	Cvccv
153.	School	iSkul	Cvccvccv
154.	Student	tshatro	Cvccvccv
155.	Teacher	ədhjapək	Vcvcvccv
156.	Bullet	Goli	Cvccv
157.	First	Prəthəm	Cvccvccv
158.	Second	duSre	Cvccv
159.	Third	tiSre	Cvccv
160.	One	ek	Vc
161.	Two	do	Cv
162.	Three	ti:n	Cvc
163.	Four	tə:r	Cvccv
164.	Five	pə:ts	Cvcc
165.	Ten	dəs	cCvc
166.	Sixteen	sola	Cvccv
167.	Twenty	bi:S	Cvc
168.	Forty	tsaliS	Cvccvccv
169.	Do	kərnə	Cccv
170.	Pull	khi:tsna	Cvccvccv
171.	Rub	pədzər	Cvccvccv
172.	Sell	betsna	Cvccvccv
173.	Wash	dholai	Cvccvccv

174.	Work	ka:m	Cc
175.	Sing	ga:na	Cvcv
178.	Bring	lana	Cvcv
179.	Climb	tsəRnə	Ccvccv
180.	Come	a:na	Cvc
181.	Give	dena	Cvcv
182.	Go	dzana	Ccvccv
183.	Jump	ku:dna	Cvcv
184.	Vomit	ulTi:	Vccv
185.	Say	kəhna	Cvcv
186.	Write	li:khan	Cvccvc
187.	Touch	tshu:na	Cccvcv
188.	Bathe	hənana	Cvcvccv
189.	All	Səbhi	Cvcv
190.	By	doara	Cvccv
191.	Down	nitse	Cvcv
192.	For	Se	Cv
193.	From	Se	Cv
194.	Few	tho:Rə	Cvcv
195.	Full	phu:ltəs	Ccvccvc
196.	Good	nek	Cvc
197.	Hand	hath	Cvcc
198.	Honest	imandar	Vvccvc
199.	Long	ləmbu:	Cvccv
200.	Many	bohut	Cvcvc
201.	Narrow	tshoTa	Cccvcv
202.	New	nəja	Cvcv
203.	Old	purana	Cvcvccv
204.	Raw	katstsa	Cvccccc
205.	Rotten	katstsa	Cvccccc
206.	East	purəb	Cvcvc
207.	End	khətəm	Cvcvcc
208.	Far	du:r	Cvc
209.	Left	u:ltə	Vccv
210.	Middle	bi:ts	Cvcc
211.	Near	pə:S	Cvc
212.	Out	bahər	Cvcvc
213.	Right	dahina	Cvcvccv
214.	South	dəktshin	Cvccccc
215.	Again	dobara	Cvcvccv
216.	Always	lagət	Cvcvc
217.	Before	a:ge	Vcv

218.	Daily	rodzana	Cvccv
219.	Day	c	Cvc
220.	Evening	sa:m	Cvc
221.	Fast	tedzi	Cvccv
222.	Afterwards	a:ge	Vcv
223.	Behind	pi:se	Cvccv
224.	Between	bi:tsme	Cvcccv
225.	He, she,	wo	Vv
226.	To her, to him	unke lie	vccv cvv
227.	Here	hiã	Cvv
228.	His/her	uske	Vccv
229.	How	ki:	Cv
230.	To me	Hu:mko	Cvccv
231.	My	hAAM	Cvvc
232.	Our	humərə	Cvccv
234.	Not	nə	Cv
235.	So/thus	Isli:E	Vccvv
236.	That	jo	Cv
237.	To them	unkE liE	vccv cvv
238.	Then	təb	Cvc
239.	Those	u:nkə	Vccv
240.	There	u:hə	Vcv
241.	They	woH	Vvc
242.	Their	unkE	Vccv
243.	These	le	Vv
244.	To us	humərə	Cvccv
245.	We	həm	Cvc
246.	What	ki:ə	Cvv
247.	When	kəb	Cvc
248.	Where	kəhə	Cvccv
249.	Who	kou:n	Cvvc
250.	Why	ku:	Cv

1. This is a dog.
I: kuttə hou

2. These are cats.
I: səb billi hou.

3. That is a monkey.

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u: səb bəndər hou.

4. Those are donkeys/bullocks.

u: səb gədhə houə

5. Here are two rats.

du: tsuhə i:hə bə

6. There are four parrots.

u: tsər totə hou

7. The dog barks at the cat.

u: kuttə bhəkə thou billi pə

8. The dog barks.

kuttə bhəkə thou

9. I am in my house.

hu:m əpN gəhr mE hou

10. I beat the cow.

hu:m gəiko məro thou.

11. The birds are on the tree.

u: tsiri:ə pəR pər hou

12. The rat went into the hole.

tsuhə bilma ghos

13. My son is inside the house.

həmər pu:tR ghər mE hou

14. My hand is broken.
həmər həθ tut gou
15. His houses are beautiful.
u: kə ghər bohə:t sundər hou
16. I cut the wood with a saw.
hu:m peR ko kulhəR Se kəte thou
17. He cut the fruit with a knife.
u: phəl ko tsəku Se kəto thou
18. He goes to the school daily.
u: prətidin sku:l dzə thou
19. He comes to the garden.
u: bənmə rodz əo thou
20. Mango falls from the tree.
a:m peR Se giRə thou
21. Leaves fall from the tree.
pa:t peR Se jhoRe thou
22. I go to the market with him.
h:m u: ke səθ melə mE dzə thou
23. I have been living with her for the past 20 years.
hu:m u: ke səθ bis bərəs Se rəhə thou
24. Cow gives milk for its calves.
gəi apN bəchre khətir dudh de thE
25. We are working for the government.

hu:m sərəkər ke liE kəm kərə the

26 He sleeps under the tree.

u: peR ke nitse So thE

26. The birds sit upon the branch.

u: tsi:Riə ləkRi pe bəthe the

27. He jumps over the net/fence.

u: dzo hai bəundri pe Se kude the

28. I washed the clothes myself.

hu:m apN kəprə khu:d Se dho the

29. We plucked the flowers ourselves.

hu:m khud Se phuLən ko tore the

30. You cut the tree yourself.

tu: apN həth Se peR ko kətə

31. He completed his work himself.

u: apN kəm apn khud Se kore thE

32. She stitched her blouse herself.

U: apn bləu:dz khud Se Sile the

33. The cow fell down from the hill itself.

u: gəi apN khud se hi pəhər pe Se gir gae

34. Which book do you like to read?

Kou:n si kitəbiə tu pore thou?

35. Whose horse is that?

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u: kiskə ghorə thəu

36. Someone came to your house.
kuch logon tohər ghər pər æ hou

37. Anyone is there, inside the hall?
u:dhər kə kouno bə hol mə

38. A few girls attended the meeting.
u:hə kuch lərkiən miTiŋ:ən atend kore hou

39. A little rice is available at home.
thorə Sa tsəuvəl ghor mE bə

40. Raman is a good boy.
rəmən bə borə ətstsə lərkə hou

41. The flower is red.
u: phul ləl hou

43. He hits the bird.
u: tsiriə ko məro hou

44. He comes daily to get the food.
u: prətidin khənə lebe ətə hou

45. He sees her.
u: u:ke dekhTə hou

46. Cow is grazing on the hill.
gəi pəhəR pe tsəro tho

47. Dog is barking.
Kuttə bhoko tho

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48. Baby is crying.
bætsts roə tho
49. I went to the temple.
Hu:m mändir me dzə the
50. He caught the robber.
u: tsu:ruə ko pəkəR liə
51. She killed the snake.
u: səpouvə ko mər dələ
52. He was going to the temple.
u: mändir dzə tho
53. She was eating a guava when I saw her.
u: əmru:d khə rəhi thi jəb hu:m okə dekhə
54. Mouse was running here and there.
tsuhiə udhər dɔRe tho
55. I will go to the field tomorrow.
hu:m khetvə pər kəl dzəb
56. If you work hard you will
tu: mehnət kəro, to dzit dzəo ge
57. This mango will fall down.
u: a:m girin dzəegə
58. He has gone to the market.
u: melmə gio tho

59. My son has come.
həmər betə əo hou
60. I had eaten an apple yesterday by this time.
hu:m kəl ivəkt sev khə rəhə thə
61. I had taken one pen from the shelf.
hu:m u: mətsn pər ek pen nikələ hey
62. She had beaten the sheep for its indiscipline.
usne ek bheR ko bohu:t buri: tərəkə se mərə hou uske bure bəbhər ke lie
63. Mangoes are eaten by Ramu.
rəmu ke doərə a:m khə gəyə
64. Sita was beaten by Rama
rəm ne sitə ko mərə
65. My foot slipped and I fell down.
həmər eRiə phisəl dzəne thə pər hu:m gir pəRə
66. I had to go to the market but I did not go.
hu:m meləme dzənə dzə pər hu:m nəhi dzə pəyā
67. I shall go after she comes here.
hu:m təb dzəb, dzəb: ədzægi
68. When I was going to my village I met my friend who was carrying a basket full of mangoes
69. He went to the market to purchase vegetables where he met his old friends.
70. Sit down/stand up.
bəth dzə/ khəRə hou
71. Speak slowly.
hole bol
72. Who is he?
kou:n hou i:
73. Why are you going?

kyon tum dzəoge

74. How shall I speak?

hu:m kəisən bole

75. If he is in difficulties, you will telephone to me.

u: əgər dikkət mE ho to tu: həme phon ghuma

76. I may come tomorrow.

mE kəl əu: kə

77. Let them all come to hall

səbko u: kəmrə mE dzəne dou

78. Women have to go to the spring to fetch water.

u: səbən ləRkiən ko pəni ləne ke sprinj dou

79. He liked to catches the snake but it ran away.

u: ke Səp pəkər nə boRə ətstsə ləge hE

80. Running on the field, he gained good health.

khetvə mE douRne mE səhət əttsi hote hE

81. By telling lie, he lost his good.

Jhut bolne hetu apNi səmən kho de tho

82. Reading in the early morning is good to retain in memory.

Subhə pərne mE ətstsə memori hote hE

83. Swimming is good for health.

torki bohuti əttsi hE səhet k liE

84. I am making her sing a song.

hu:mko gəne k liE ləE hE

85. She is making him to dance.

u ke nətser khətir bulə gəyə

86. I can climb up on the tree.

hu:m pəR pE tsəR dzə tho

87. He should come for a day.

u: ko ihə pər ekdin ki khətir ənə əts he tho

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88. I never left my native place so far.
hu:m kəbhi əpN dzəgə nəhi tsoRe the
89. Nothing is there in the pot to drink.
uhə kuch nə ho pine ke khətir
90. It is raining and the road is slippery in spite of this, the car is climbing up on the hill.
bəris ho rəhi hey roD bhi slipi ho gae ər kər pəhər pər tsər gəe ho
91. No, she is not my sister.
nəhi u: həməər bəhen nehi
92. Neither I neither liked him nor refused.
nəhi hu:m u: ko pəsənd kərte hE nəhi hu:m choR dete hE
93. He is a good poet as well as a singer.
u: ətstsə kəbi ər səth hi səth siŋər bhi hey
94. The tree is on that side/this side of the road.
peR i:ə to u:dhər i:ə to Edhr
- 95 I don't have to work.
hu:m kə koi kəm nəhi hE
96. Every one left the office in the evening.
Səbhi apn kədzosthol səmko chor diE tho
97. No one is there in the garden.
Bgitsə per koi nehi hE
98. We stand to walk in the morning and reached the place in the evening.
hu:m Subhə tsəl nə suuru kəre the ər Səm ko pouchə n the
99. She is not only hard worker but also a good manager.
U: sirf
100. Let us finish our work today.
stəle hu:m apnə kəm ədzi khətəm kəre

Colophon

This study was done under the Mother Tongue Survey of India, conducted the Government of India, Ministry of Home Affairs, in November 2008. The project was done under the supervision of Dr. A. R. Fatihi and Dr. Kokoli Mukherjee.

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Character Analysis of Andrews in Graham Greene's *The Man Within*

Sresha Yadav, Ph.D. Scholar and Smita Jha, Ph.D.

Abstract

Why does an individual find himself in a strange predicament and commit crime? Why do the uniqueness and singularity prompt an individual to behave in a different way?

For a very long time, Criminologists have been trying to assess and analyze the character of an individual, and have offered some sort of explanations on the basis of different theories pertaining to crime and guilt.

The present paper seeks to identify and analyze the character of Francis Andrews in Graham Greene's *The Man Within*, in the light of psychoanalytical trait theories and strain theories of criminology, while answering some specific questions about Andrews' childhood, his relationship with his parents and his betrayal of his fellow shipmen in this novel.

The major theme of the novel revolves round the betrayal and Andrews' disturbing relationship with his father, and how this ultimately moulds up his personality as a double-dealing hero, depicted by the author on account of his actions and inactions.

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Sresha Yadav, Ph.D. Scholar and Smita Jha, Ph.D.

Character Analysis of Andrews in Graham Greene's *The Man Within*

Introduction

“Crime is a category which is the result of a process involving different individuals, different institutions, and different settings”.(Howitt;2002,37)An individual can't escape the environment in which he lives, the settings, the complex social processes, and from different individuals like him who are also part of the same environment. He can't afford to live alone; he is part of the system. His behaviour and his actions are the result of the social interactions.

As C.R. Bartol's (2002) book entitled *Criminal Behavior – A Psychosocial Approach* delineates the theme of human reaction to the present situation is a subject matter of his own interpretations and perceptions, which are strongly affected by his experiences and thought processes. In this present extract these key words 'experience' and 'thought' will help us to understand the perceptions, interpretations, and decision making capability in the prevailing situations of Francis Andrews' life in Greene's *The Man Within*.

Exploring Man's Divided Selves

Greene's first published novel *The Man Within* (1929) explores the theme of man's divided selves. Greene portrays the character of Francis Andrews as 'the Judas figure' who had betrayed his fellow shipmen and Captain Carlyon. The story of the novel revolves round Andrews who is a victim of unhappy childhood and has always been chased by haunting memories of his brutish and cruel father. He remembers his father as, "a damned old hypocritical bully" (Greene; 2001, 13). He calls his father "a bully who killed his wife and ruined his son" (Greene; 2001, 16). During his conversation with Elizabeth, who sheltered him while he is escaping from his fellow smugglers and Carlyon, after writing secretly to the custom officer about the arrival of the cargo ship, he declares:

My father was a smuggler. ... A common bullying smuggler, but damnably clever. He saved money on it and sent me to school .What was the use of having me taught Greek, if I was to spend my life like this?.....I will tell you why he sent me to school,....it was so that he could brag about it. He was proud of his success. He was never caught and they never had any evidence against him. His crew worshipped him.(Greene;2001,71).

Andrews believes that his father sent him to school to learn Greek, which seems to be irrelevant and of no use to him in his present condition. "He blames his father and lack of integrated education for what he is". (Rai; 1983, 13).He confesses to Elizabeth that his fear and cowardly attitude are not his own fault, they are the result of the inherited parental qualities which had put into him the seeds of a double-dealing person: "It's not a man's fault whether he's brave or cowardly. It's all the way he's born. My father and mother made me. I didn't make myself". (Greene; 2001, 52)

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Revealing the Hidden Past

Graham Greene reveals Andrews' hidden past through his memories of unhappy childhood in flashbacks. Andrews' father was a drunkard, who used to beat up his mother and when one day he was at his school, his mother died. Andrews believes that his mother died because she could not bear the intolerable pain of her broken heart as well her husband's continued torture. He thinks that, ".....he broke her heart, if there's such a thing as a broken heart. He broke her body anyway". (Greene; 2001, 72).

Andrew's father used to ill-treat him, as he used to think that it would make Andrews strong and courageous. But on the contrary, as a result of this ill-treatment, which bore great pain and suffering in Andrews' life, shape up his character as a cowardly, fearful human being whose mind is always in a state of turmoil. Andrews inherited qualities from both his parents - a brutish, hypocritical father and a lovable, romantic mother. After his father's death, he persuaded Carlyon to come down to his school and make arrangements for him, as, his father had left his boat and every penny he had saved to Carlyon.

Andrews was allowed to sail with the other members of the smuggler gang because, 'his fearless and brutish father, now deceased, had once been their hero figure'. (Brenann; 2006, 134-136). His fellow shipmen always remind him of his father and they evaluate his deeds and actions in terms of his father's clandestine action. After his father's death he hopes to remain in peace, but the shadow of fear doesn't leave him and haunts him on board. The other members of the gang worship his deceased father as their role model and they are of the belief that he has also inherited the fearless attitude of his father. But they soon realize that Andrews is utterly unlike his father.

Character Orientation of Greene's Novels

It is true that, Greene's novels are character-oriented, as he says in his book titled *In Search of a Character: Two African Journals*. His protagonists occupy the centre-stage in his novels.

The protagonist of the present novel is a projection of Greene's own childhood experiences. "Greene in the dual role as author, one who persistently projects literary experience into his own view of life, and who subsequently projects both his experience and its 'literary' interpretation into his created fiction". (Hoskins; 1999, xvii)

Motives, Intentions and Inheritance of Criminality

For a very long time, criminologists have been trying to explain the motives and intentions behind any anti-social human behaviour. They have tried to trace down several

instigating factors, which sometimes act as an initiation point, or as a catalyst underlying to commit any sort of criminal behaviour.

Walmseley et al. (1992) have found that, "Crime runs in family, to a degree". (Howitt; 2002, 76) He further emphasizes two factors: first, inheritance of criminality, and secondly, adverse family circumstances.

These two factors do play an important role in every human individual's life, in a sense, that it is the interplay between the surrounding, adverse family conditions and inherited factors which ultimately put the seed for any antisocial human behaviour. Andrews' unhappy childhood, haunting memories of his wicked and brutish father, and his act of betrayal could be explained in the light of some of the criminological theories.

Glueck and Glueck (1962), have identified certain important criminogenic factors like "punitive child rearing practice and attitude, lack of love or rejection, laxness (poor monitoring) and family disruption (marital conflict)" (Howitt 2002:77) which affects the mental and physical health of a child in his early rearing years.

Child-rearing Practices and Acquired Personal Characteristics

In this regard, we may point out the fact that, Andrews' hatred towards his father and his gang members is the result of those child rearing practices and the environmental criminogenic factors which he had undergone during his childhood days. After a survey on the group of delinquents and their criminal behaviour, it was found that, "... the seed of aggression in them (delinquents) were best predicted by the father's rejection of the boy". (Ruchkin and others; 1998, 275-182)

Psychiatrist Sigmund Freud (1856-1939) believed that all human beings carry the remnants or the residues of their most significant emotional attachments to their childhood experiences, which, in turn, affect their future relationships and social interactions with others. He proposes the psychodynamic theory, in which he emphasizes the major influences of early childhood in addition to social factors which play a catalytic role in shaping up of their personality. His theory is based on one of the most significant facts that those individuals who have unhappy childhood experiences may suffer from personality disturbances in their adulthood.

Inferiority Complex and Low Self-esteem

Andrews' hidden inferiority complex, low self-esteem and lack of confidence finally reinforce him to prove his superiority over others and thus he writes a letter to the revenue officers. When he is testifying in the court against those smugglers of the contraband cargo ship, he admits: "betraying them thus openly I stand above them." (Greene: 2001,135).

Andrew's state of victimization and sufferance is the prime factor in motivating him for demonstrating his deep-rooted drive for superiority. As Alfred Adler (1870-1937), the founder of individual psychology, points out, the people who have feelings of inferiority will compensate with a drive for superiority. He coins the term 'inferiority complex' and argues that it is the natural tendency of human beings to strive for superiority, to do better than others. He asserts that the most important factor is 'stress' on a person because of social interactions and social contributions which over time develops into the 'inferiority complex'. Thus, in this novel the main protagonist Francis Andrews is a victim of 'inferiority complex'.

The Role of Jealousy

Andrews' confession in the court, when Sir Edward Parking interrogates him, reveals that it is the forcefulness of sheer jealousy which impels him to betray his comrades. Every time he is despised by them, he feels lonely and hurt as a result of which his lack of confidence and inferiority complex overshadows his self esteem. He says:

It was because I had a father whom I hated and he was always being put before me as a model. It made me mad. And I'm a coward. You all know that'.'I was afraid of being hurt and I hated the sea and the noise and the danger. And unless I did something it would have gone on for always and anyways. All I wanted to show those men that I was someone to be considered, that I had the power to smash all their plans.(Greene;2001,140)

Consequences of Strain

The condition which we infer from Andrews' present state of mind is referred to as – 'Strain' which will certainly reinforce any individual to participate in or gets motivated for any antisocial act.

According to strain theorists, any sort of deprivation faced by people eventually develops the sense of discontent and distrust towards the societal norms and this leads to violence and crime. Individual strain theorists suggest that individual's life experiences cause some people to suffer pain and misery, feelings that are then translated into antisocial behaviour. They believe that those "who consider themselves as 'losers' begin to fear and envy others". (Siegel 2007, 190-191) Individuals who feel economically, socially, psychologically humiliated may perceive that they have the right to do the same things to others. They have a tendency to harm others in some or the other way so as to get satisfaction either physically or mentally and thus consider that they are supreme and have the power to control the fate of other individuals.

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Sresha Yadav, Ph.D. Scholar and Smita Jha, Ph.D.

Character Analysis of Andrews in Graham Greene's *The Man Within*

To Conclude

Thus, the facts which have been highlighted in this present paper, occasionally supported by psychoanalytic trait theories and strain theories of criminology, help us to understand a more comprehensive and analytical approach of the character of Greene's protagonist, Francis Andrews.

This present study of Greene's *The Man Within* leads us to conclude that individual's life experiences are the significant factor to determine his course of action in the present contemporary situation in which he lives in. Experiences condition his present thought process which, in turn, moulds up his overall personality. "The significance of Greene's own life experiences is often reflected in most of his novels. ... the unhappy memories of Greene's own childhood which has had a great influence on all of his novels do also accounts for his novels' seedy background, obsessed characters, and extreme situations portrayed in them". (Chandramohan; 2005)

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Shangshak Tangkhul and Pushing Tangkhul Numerals - A Comparative Presentation

Th. Lakhpriya Devi, Ph.D. Candidate

Introduction

The two languages, Shangshak Tangkhul and Pushing Tangkhul, are found in the Ukhrul Central Sub-Division of Manipur. According to G.A. Grierson (1904), these two languages are included in the Naga group of the Tibeto-Burman language family.

Shangshak Tangkhul and Pushing Tangkhul are spoken in two different villages which are 35 km apart. Shangshak village is 20 km away from the Ukhrul headquarter while the distance of Pushing is 40 km. Shangshak has a population of 2,866 with 457 household and Pushing 748 with 123 household (Census of India 2001). As the languages of the 198 Tangkhul villages differ, inter-village communication in Ukhrul is carried out through the standard Tangkhul language (recognized by the Manipur Government). The use of the Tangkhul language is so common that the people unconsciously use it at times. With the people of other districts they communicate with one another through Manipuri. Being devoid of their own scripts, they use the Roman alphabet.

Numeral

Numerals in Shangshak Tangkhul and Pushing Tangkhul can be classified as follows:

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Shangshak Tangkhul and Pushing Tangkhul Numerals - A Comparative Presentation

1. Cardinal
2. Ordinal
3. Multiplicative
4. Aggregative
5. Approximate
6. Fractional
7. Indefinite
8. Distributive
9. Restrictive

1.1 Cardinal numeral

In Shangshak Tangkhul and Pushing Tangkhul, the cardinal numerals can be studied under the following headings.

- A) Basic cardinal and
- B) Compound cardinal

A) Basic cardinal

The basic cardinal numerals in Shangshak Tangkhul and Pushing Tangkhul are exemplified below:

Shangshak	Pushing	Gloss
əvkə	əkə	“one”
k ^h ənnə	k ^h ənnə	“two”
kət ^h uŋ	kət ^h uŋ	“three”
mədzə	mətə	“four”
p ^h əŋe	p ^h əne	“five”
t ^h əru	t ^h əru	“six”
snə	snə	“seven”
cəsa	cise	“eight”
zəkə	cikə	“nine”
t ^h ərekə	t ^h ərekə	“ten”
ʃekə	ʃekə	“hundred”
t ^h eiŋkə	t ^h əŋkə	“thousand”

B) Compound cardinal

The compound cardinal numerals can be grouped as:

1. Additive compound

2. Multiplicative plus additive compound and
3. Multiplicative compound

While forming the compound numerals the suffix **-kə** in the numerals from ten to ninety is replaced by **-nə** in Shangshak Tangkhul and by **-o** in Pushing Tangkhul.

B.1 Additive compound

The numerals from eleven to thirty eight constitute the additive compound. The basic numerals from one to nine are added to the three decade numerals – **t^hərekə** “ten” **məkukə** “twenty” and **t^huŋrekə** “thirty” in the form of two digits as illustrated below:

Shangshak	Pushing	Gloss
t ^h ərenə-əvkə	t ^h əreo-əkə	10 + 1 “eleven”
t ^h ərenə-snə	t ^h əreo-snə	10 + 7 “seventeen”
məkunə-mədzə	məkuo-mətə	20 + 4 “twenty four”
məkunə-cəsa	məkuo-cise	20 + 8 “twenty eight”
t ^h uŋrenə-p ^h əŋe	t ^h uŋreo-p ^h əne	30 + 5 “thirty five”
t ^h uŋrenə-zəkə	t ^h uŋreo-ciko	30 + 9 “thirty nine”

B.2 Multiplicative plus additive compound

The compound cardinal numerals from forty one to ninety nine are multiplicative plus additive compound. They are formed by the multiplication of the decade numeral (ten) by the numeral from four to nine and finally by the addition of the desired numeral (one to nine). Here the prefix **t^həre-** “ten” changes to **daum-** “forty” in Shangshak Tangkhul and to **dau-** “forty” in Pushing Tangkhul. Examples are:

Shangshak	Pushing	Gloss
daum-mədzənə	dau-mətəoəkə	10 x 4 + 1 = 41 “forty one”
daum-p ^h əŋenə t ^h əru	dau-p ^h əneo t ^h əru	10 x 5 + 6 = 56 “fifty six”
daum-t ^h ərunə əvkə	dau-t ^h əruoəkə	10 x 6 + 1 = 61 “sixty one”
daum-t ^h ərunə kət ^h uŋ	dau-t ^h əruokət ^h uŋ	10 x 6 + 3 = 63 “sixty three”
daum-snənəmədzə	dau-snəomətə	10 x 7 + 4 = 74 “seventy four”
daum-cəsanəkət ^h uŋ	dau-ciseokət ^h uŋ	10 x 8 + 3 = 83 “eighty three”
daum-zəkonəzəkə	dau-cikoociko	10 x 9 + 9 = 99 “ninety nine”

The numerals from the following that is , 101 - 109, 201 - 209, 301 - 309, 401 - 409, 501 - 509 etc. are formed in accordance with the following formulae:

- a) Century x basic numeral + əpe/lo + numeral
- b) Mega x basic numeral + əpe/lo + numeral

Century and mega numerals are formed by using **əpe** in Shangshak Tangkhul and **lo** in Pushing Tangkhul through addition. In century numerals, the root **ʃe** “hundred” is multiplied by the basic numeral from one to nine and the desired numeral is added. When **ʃe** “hundred” occurs with **əvkə/əkə** “one”, **əv/ə** gets deleted. This is indicated in the following table.

Century x basic numeral + əpe/lo + numeral

Shangshak	Pushing	Gloss
ʃe-kə əpe əvkə	ʃe-kə lo əkə	“one hundred and one”
ʃe-k ^h ənnə əpe zəkə	ʃe-k ^h ənnə lo ciko	“two hundred and nine”
ʃe-kət ^h uŋ əpe əvkə	ʃe-kət ^h uŋ lo əkə	“three hundred and one”
ʃe-p ^h əŋe əpe mədzə	ʃe-p ^h əne lo mətə	“five hundred and four”

In the mega numerals, the root **t^heiŋ/t^həŋ** “thousand” is multiplied by the basic numeral and the desired numeral is added. When **t^heiŋ/t^həŋ** occurs with **əvkə/əkə**, **əv/ə** gets deleted and the **-kə** in Pushing Tangkhul changes to **-gə**. This is shown below:

Mega x basic numeral + əpe/lo + numeral

Shangshak	Pushing	Gloss
t ^h eiŋ-kə əpe əvkə	t ^h əŋ-gə lo əkə	“one thousand and one”
t ^h eiŋ-k ^h ənnə əpe mədzə	t ^h əŋ-k ^h ənnə lo mətə	“two thousand and four”
t ^h eiŋ-kət ^h uŋ əpe p ^h əŋe	t ^h əŋ-kət ^h uŋ lo p ^h əne	“three thousand and five”
t ^h eiŋ-t ^h əru əpe cəsa	t ^h əŋ-t ^h əru lo cise	“six thousand and eight”

B.3 Higher multiplicative compound

Multiples of hundred and thousand form the higher multiplicative compound. The multiples of hundred starting from 200 to 900 are formed by deleting **-kə** from the word **ʃekə** “hundred” and adding cardinal numerals in both Shangshak Tangkhul and Pushing Tangkhul. Likewise, multiples of “thousand” are formed by deleting **-kə/-gə** from the word **t^heiŋkə/t^həŋgə**.

The following table illustrates this:

Shangshak	Pushing	Gloss
ʃe-k ^h ənnə	ʃe-k ^h ənnə	“two hundred”
ʃe-kət ^h uŋ	ʃe-kət ^h uŋ	“three hundred”
ʃe-mədzə	ʃe-mətə	“four hundred”
ʃe-p ^h əŋe	ʃe-p ^h əne	“five hundred”
ʃe-cəsa	ʃe-cise	“eight hundred”
t ^h eiŋ-snə	t ^h əŋ-snə	“seven thousand”
t ^h eiŋ-cəsa	t ^h əŋ-cise	“eight thousand”
t ^h eiŋ-zəko	t ^h əŋ-ciko	“nine thousand”
t ^h eiŋ- t ^h ərekə	t ^h əŋ-t ^h ərekə	“ten thousand”

The cardinal numerals can occur only after the noun as shown below:

	Shangshak	Pushing	Gloss
a)	oza p ^h əŋe teacher five	oza p ^h əne teacher five	“five teachers”
a1	*p ^h əŋe oza	*p ^h əne oza	
b)	lari zəko	lerei ciko	“nine books”
b1	book nine *zəko lari	book nine *ciko lerei	

The sentences (a1) and (b1) are ungrammatical.

2. Ordinal numeral

The ordinal number “first” is denoted by k^hərər in Shangshak Tangkhul and ʃok^hərər cəŋ in Pushing Tangkhul. Second to ninth is expressed by the prefixation of kə- to the cardinal numbers. From tenth onwards the ordinal number is the same as the cardinal number. The following table illustrates this:

Shangshak	Pushing	Gloss
k ^h ərər	ʃok ^h ərər cəŋ	“first”

kə-k ^h ənnə	kə-k ^h ənnə	“second”
kə-kət ^h uŋ	kə-kət ^h uŋ	“third”
kə-cəsa	kə-cise	“eight”
kə-zəkə	kə-ciko	“ninth”
t ^h ərekə	t ^h ərekə	“tenth”
məkukə	məkukə	“twentieth”

The ordinal can occur before or after the noun as shown below:

Shangshak	Pushing	Gloss
a) k ^h ərər ləsijəu first child ləsijəu k ^h ərər child first	ʃok ^h ərər cəŋ neusere first child neusere ʃok ^h ərər cəŋ child first	“the first child”
b) kə-t ^h əru seiŋ sixth house seiŋ kə-t ^h əru house sixth	kə-t ^h əru ʃəŋ sixth house ʃəŋ kə-t ^h əru house sixth	“the sixth house”

3. Multiplicative numeral

The numerals here are derived from the cardinal number by the suffixation of -sə in Shangshak Tangkhul and -və in Pushing Tangkhul.

Instances are:

Shangshak	Pushing	Gloss
əvkə-sə	əkə-və	“once”
k ^h ənnə-sə	k ^h ənnə-və	“twice”
kət ^h uŋ-sə	kət ^h uŋ-və	“thrice”

4. Aggregative numeral

In both the languages, aggregative numerals are formed by suffixing *-nə* to the cardinal numeral as in the following:

Shangshak	Pushing	Gloss
k ^h ənnə-nə	k ^h ənnə-nə	“all the two”
kət ^h uŋ-nə	kət ^h uŋ-nə	“all the three”
p ^h əŋe-nə	p ^h əŋe-nə	“all the five”
cəsa-nə	cise-nə	“all the eight”

5. Approximative numeral

For approximative numerals *--səkə* and *-cukə* are suffixed to the cardinal numeral for Shangshak Tangkhul and Pushing Tangkhul respectively as indicated below:

Shangshak	Pushing	Gloss
əvkə-səkə	kə-cukə	“about one”
k ^h ənnə-səkə	k ^h ənnə-cukə	“about two”
kət ^h uŋ-səkə	kət ^h uŋ-cukə	“about three”
mədzə-səkə	mətə-cukə	“about four”

6. Fractional numeral

kəsulə/re “segment” is inserted between the two cardinal numbers while forming the fractional numeral, the smaller number being the numerator and the larger one the denominator.

Illustration is given below:

Shangshak	Pushing	Gloss
Monomorphic	Monomorphic	
əkijəu	əciəkə	“piece”
təŋk ^h i	təŋk ^h ai	“half”
Dimorphic	Dimorphic	
kət ^h uŋ kəsulə əvkə	kət ^h uŋ re əkə	“one - third”
p ^h əŋe kəsulə mədzə	p ^h əŋe re mətə	“four - fifth”

7. Indefinite quantity and measure word

The following are used in the languages:

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Shangshak	Pushing	Gloss
əka	kədokə	“some”
səpekə	k ^h okət ^h ekə	“anyone”
dəurekə	kəcujkə	“many”
kətujkə	kətuajjikə	“group”
biaŋməsuŋkə	huanjkə	“handful”
kətikəfui	məcujp ^h o	“heap”
ədaŋ	ədaŋ	“bundle”

Some examples are:

Shangshak	Pushing
a) səpekə mi-lo anyone give - C.M. “Give to anyone.”	k ^h okət ^h ekə mə-lo anyone give - C.M.
b) dəurekə lari many book “many books”	əcujkələrei many book
c) lari kətikəfui book heap “a heap of books”	lərei məcujp ^h o book heap

8. Distributive numeral

—**riŋi** and **-ŋisəŋ** are suffixed to the cardinal numeral of Shangshak Tangkhul and Pushing Tangkhul respectively as in the following:

Shangshak	Pushing	Gloss
əvə-riŋi	əkə-ŋisəŋ	“one each”
k ^h ənnə-riŋi	k ^h ənnə-ŋisəŋ	“two each”
kət ^h uj-riŋi	kət ^h uj-ŋisəŋ	“three each”
mədzə-riŋi	mətə-ŋisəŋ	“four each”

9. Restrictive numeral

The restrictive numeral is formed by suffixing **-mə** to the cardinal numeral in Shangshak Tangkhul and **-rəsi** in Pushing Tangkhul. For instance:

Shangshak	Pushing	Gloss
əvə-mə	əkə-rəsi	“only one”
k ^h ənnə-mə	k ^h ənnə-rəsi	“only two”
kət ^h uŋ-mə	kət ^h uŋ-rəsi	“only three”
mədzə-mə	mətə-rəsi	“only four”

Conclusion

Shangshak Tangkhul and Pushing Tangkhul are languages which have close affinity as seen from the above comparison of their numerals.

Abbreviation

C.M. command marker.

Symbol

* Ungrammatical

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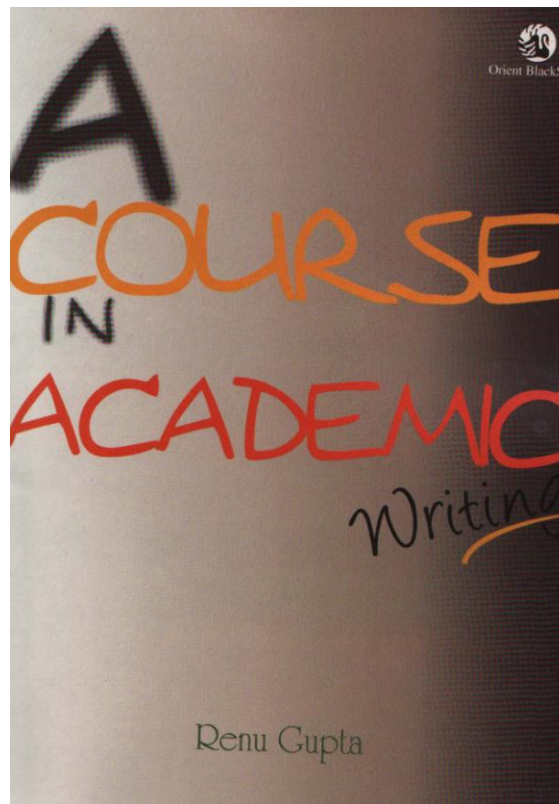
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A Review of *A Course in Academic Writing* by Professor Renu Gupta

R. G. Baskaran, Ph.D.

M. S. Thirumalai, Ph.D.



A Very Useful Book

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G. Baskaran, Ph.D. and M. S. Thirumalai, Ph.D.

A Review of *A Course in Academic Writing* by Professor Renu Gupta

A Course in Academic Writing by Professor Renu Gupta (Orient Blackswan, New Delhi 110 002, 2010) is a boon to both students and teachers who are engaged in doing research. Our content and research methodology are part of our specific disciplines we specialize in. However, presenting our research with clarity to the reading public and academics is, indeed, a distinct skill that needs to be cultivated as a general skill.

Courses in academic writing or research writing are based on universal principles of presentation of research findings using appropriate language and idiom. Even the best researchers find it difficult to communicate their research in a manner that is easy to understand even as the reports retain their original methodology, intent and conclusions.

Professor Renu Gupta's articles are always well written for professional journals and her contribution to the field of teaching English to speakers of other languages has been superb and relevant to teachers, researchers and students in South Asia and in the developing world. In this book also, we get the benefit of her insights and experience.

Contents of This Manual

The book consists of 10 chapters with an introduction. The chapters of this book are as follows:

1. The Big Picture
 2. Approaches to Writing
 3. The Process of Writing
 4. Writing Paragraphs
 5. Types of Organization
 6. Text Genres
 7. Reports
 8. Research Paper
 9. Presenting Your Ideas
 10. Editing for Style or Beyond Grammar
- References

The Big Picture

The first chapter (The Big Picture) presents a good survey of what would be dealt with in the book. The big picture presented to us deals with two types of texts: in one text the main point of the text appears at the end and in the other it appears in the very beginning. These are not simply stylistic differences. Each of these has its own function, and we need to learn to use the most appropriate approach based on the content and goal before us.

Approaches to Writing

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A Review of *A Course in Academic Writing* by Professor Renu Gupta

The second chapter (Approaches to Writing) deals with approaches to writing. In essence, the author asserts that “an essay that resembles a stream of consciousness is no longer acceptable; you are expected to give thought and care to your essay and produce a polished product that is reader-friendly” (p. 18). Several techniques or strategies are suggested and described with clarity and examples. For example, chaining, hierarchical organization, throwing in all our thoughts, and so on. The author (creates and) presents an excellent example of an organized essay in this chapter.

From chapter 2, the book presents several insightful exercises for teachers, students and researchers. We highly commend that teachers also do these exercises before they enter class and teach any of the topics in academic writing or research writing. Let us not assume that because we have our Masters, double Masters, or even triple and quadruple Masters in various subjects, we have attained great skill in academic writing. Writing is a growing skill and it grows with adequate exercise almost on a daily basis. (“Whoever has ears, let them hear!”)

The Process of Writing

The third chapter (The Process of Writing) deals with gathering material for research, evaluating sources (a badly needed skill in our students in South Asia), copying information and its effects leading to plagiarism, steps in the writing process, outlining, taking notes, using quotes, paraphrasing, etc.

Ill-effects of Plagiarism

When you check a dictionary for the meaning of the word *plagiarism*, you will, indeed, be surprised that its original meaning is *kidnapping!*

Plagiarism is innocently indulged in by many because of their inability to paraphrase and summarize using appropriate language in their own words. There is also a cultural tradition that glorifies quotations from well known sources as demonstrating the scholarship of the writer of the article, and so on. There are also several literary and didactic traditions within South Asia that have encouraged use of the very same words of the great poets and scholars in the past as proof of scholarship and paying obeisance to such sages, et al. However, currently there are several researchers who knowingly indulge in plagiarism hoping that their mastery in copying would not be easily detected. Plagiarism is now more a moral and ethical issue, and an issue relating to intellectual property rights.

Professor Renu Gupta clearly tells all us about the ill-effects of plagiarism. Teachers, students and researchers would do well to heed her sound advice.

Writing Paragraphs

The fourth chapter (Writing Paragraphs) contains many useful suggestions and exercises. All paragraphs in our writing should be well connected. To the extent possible, all our paragraphs

may be short and focused on one major point each. Coherence is another major virtue. Professor Renu Gupta suggests the following:

1. One paragraph should contain only one idea.
2. The sentences should be arranged in some order.
3. There should be a topic sentence.
4. The supporting details should follow the topic sentence.
5. Irrelevant information should be deleted.
6. A concluding sentence can be added. (p. 40)

Each of these points is well stated with examples. Several steps in writing are presented. Good organization of this chapter is easily noticed. In fact, in our assessment all the chapters are well organized and offer in themselves as good and valid examples.

Types of Organization

The fifth chapter (Types of Organization) deals with aspects of ways to organize information. In essence, the following points are dealt with.

1. Problem/Solution
2. Examples
3. Enumeration
4. Sequence
5. Comparison and contrast
6. Cause and effect
7. Spatial order (p. 50)

This is an interesting, useful and elaborate chapter. This deals with, among other things, selection and presentation of visuals and preparation and presentation of graphs, etc. Visuals should become an integral part of our academic writing. Addition of visuals will enable us to present the concepts and issues under discussion in a simpler and easier manner that is easy to follow. However, it is the relevance that should guide us in the selection, preparation and presentation of visuals.

Text Genres

The chapter on text genres (Chapter 6) looks at the forms of texts and the role of language. The following are the focused points here:

1. Differences within a genre, based on audience and purpose
2. How information is presented
3. The language of reports and research articles
4. Formal versus informal language

Although this one is perhaps the shortest chapter in the book, teachers, students and researchers should read it several times and take the contents and suggestions seriously. If your language is not appropriate and if your form of communication is not relevant or appropriate, it is more likely that your writing will not attract many readers. Confusion will prevail. What we seek is simplicity and clarity, and some linguistic style features should help us here.

Reports

Chapter 7 is on Reports. After defining reports, Dr. Gupta presents types of reports and several samples of reports. This chapter needs better attention on the part of the students and researchers, because report writing is not just for academic classroom but we all will be called upon to write reports, short and long. Indian diplomats have been renowned all over the world for their skill in writing communiqués and various forms of reports. While each discipline may offer and demand specific features for their reports, there are several general features. These should become part of our training.

The Research Paper

Chapter 8 deals with the processes and constraints of writing a research paper. Research paper is the main medium through which advanced students and research scholars announce to the world their findings, concepts, arguments, etc. Unfortunately, this is the weakest link in their training, education and practice. Perhaps, most of us go directly into writing research papers without proper understanding of the structural composition of what constitutes a research paper.

One of the suggestions that Professor Renu Gupta makes is that the academic writer use a published article to understand the structural components. If researchers carefully and patiently review several articles in leading journals of their field they should easily arrive at some understanding. However, understanding and practice are two distinct items. They need to check with their seniors while they are in doubt. Humility and a willingness to learn from others are two important virtues here.

We need to learn at this stage what a style sheet means. There are several formatting devices or processes such as MLA, APA, IJDL or Indian Linguistics, to cite a few. Each structural element of a research paper must be mastered. This book *A Course in Academic Writing* is a great guide here.

Most papers written by scholars in the beginning of their career fail in their “references” section. First of all we must recognize that references are an integral part of our paper. More often than not, this section will reveal our seriousness of purpose.

Presenting Your Ideas

Presenting your ideas is the title of chapter 9, a precious chapter written with great insight and clarity. In this chapter the following major points are dealt with:

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G. Baskaran, Ph.D. and M. S. Thirumalai, Ph.D.

A Review of *A Course in Academic Writing* by Professor Renu Gupta

1. Purpose of a presentation
2. Components of a presentation: The Speech, Question and Answer Session, Handouts, etc.

We notice some confusion in binding appropriate pages at the printer's level. Chapter 8 pages are presented again under chapter 9. Hopefully this error is already rectified before more copies reach the market.

Editing for Style or Beyond Grammar

Chapter 10 deals with style. We always tend to write circumlocutory in our essays. There is a lot of unconnected and unrelated content and sentences. Style simply means that we write as we compose our ideas in a straightforward manner. Aspects of plain English must be adopted and taught in our classroom. Old-fashioned words and compound and complex sentences must be eliminated. This is not easy, but we can certainly achieve this. This should begin with our speaking plain English. Forget about all those long terms!

Buy This Book and Use It Daily

Buy This Book and Use It Daily is our suggestion to our teacher and researcher colleagues. Professor Renu Gupta has done a great service by writing this book with elegant and yet simple and plain English.

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Web-Based Training in Gaining Proficiency in English Language

A. Selvalakshmi, M. A., M.Phil., B.Ed., Ph.D.

Abstract

The paper discusses how websites such as www.nicenet.org can be used to create a classroom, which encourages students to learn in collaboration and use computers in an effective manner. The paper presents an acronymic representation of the word “English.” The paper concludes by giving suggestions based on the students’ views.

Electronic Learning

Electronic learning is a general term used to refer to computer-enhanced learning. It is commonly associated with the field of advanced learning technology (ALT) which deals with both the technologies and associated methodologies in learning using networked and multimedia technology.

English has been taught with many approaches methods and techniques for long. And by 2006, nearly 3.5million students participated in on-line learning at institutions of higher education in the United States. So, many institutions may become more involved with on-line presentations since technology plays a significant role in teaching English.

What Does English Mean Now? An Acronymic Interpretation!

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This view can be made clear by an acronymic representation of the word “English”. It should be observed that “E” stands for **EMPOWERMENT**, empowerment of the teacher and the learner. “N” represents **NOVELTY**, novelty in new experiences, ideas, outlook and ethos. “G” is for **GLOBILISATION**, for in technology English plays its role as an international language, meeting all ends. For a large number of people “L” in English denotes **LEARNING** and **LIVELIHOOD**. The vast store – house of knowledge and information is easily accessible on the **INTERNET** which is denoted by the letter “I”. “S” stands for the dominant language of **SCIENCE and SUCCESS**. Last but not the least, those who know English has a prestige, which is a unique **HONOUR** for the teachers, students and users of English.

Thus, English is empowerment, novelty, globalization, learning and livelihood, internet, science and success and honour, the sum of which is power = technology. English can be taught and learnt through technology, by using a website for creating a classroom.

Web-based Training

E-learning for teaching and learning language is web-based training (WBT). It is a type of training that is similar to computer-based training (CBT). However, it is delivered over the internet using a web browser. Web-based training frequently includes interactive methods, such as bulletin boards, chat rooms, instant messaging, videoconferencing and discussion threads. WBT is usually a self-paced learning medium, though some system allows for online testing and evaluation at specific times.

Nicenet

Using www.nicenet.org you can create a classroom, which encourage students to learn by sharing their ideas with others and also involving themselves in collaborative learning. ‘Nicenet’ is more convenient for use in our schools and colleges. It is the name of a non-profit organization of Internet professionals, which provides services to teachers and others involved in education. The organizers state,

The ICA [the Internet Classroom Assistant] was first conceived as a web-based classroom environment that could be used by post-secondary teachers with their students. The system was designed not as a replacement for the classroom, but rather as a supplement allowing greater communication and sharing of information among students and between teachers and their students. However, Nicenet does not restrict the use of the ICA for any purpose and our users have frequently found creative and unimagined uses for the ICA. (www.nicenet.org)

Therefore, the teacher has to first create a classroom and the students have to log into it by using the password and username obtained from him/her. They need to post their

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message under “New Message”. They can view what others have posted as messages and comments. They can also give their views on the main issue discussed. Further they can discuss at any time that suits them. They may take their own time to think and add on points in a more presentable way. This flexibility will really motivate the students to participate in discussions.

In general the features of the classroom set up include the following:

- **Conferencing:** Create your own private, threaded conferencing on topics you make for the class or opt to allow students to create their own topics.
- **Scheduling:** Put the class schedule on-line. With a seven day advance view on your class homepage, students will have a heads-up display of upcoming assignments and class events.
- **Document sharing:** Students and professors have the ability to publish their documents on the site using simple web-based forms. No knowledge of HTML is needed. Automatically integrated with scheduling, students are one click away from turning in their assignments on-line, giving their peers feedback on published papers and receiving professors comments.
- **Personal Messaging:** Similar to traditional email but fully integrated with document sharing and conferencing, personal messaging is a great way communicate with and between individuals in your class, comment privately on conferencing postings or give private feedback on published papers.
- **Link Sharing:** Share links to pertinent Internet resources sorted by topics that you create. (quoted from www.nicenet.org)

To Overcome Passive Learning Habits

In English classes in most schools and colleges in India, many students are passive listeners and are very reluctant to express their opinion. Learning takes place only when the teacher and the learner are active participants. Sometimes the teacher also finds it difficult to get their opinion for want of time if their class is very large. So, web-based type of classroom with the help of *Net* will motivate the students to participate in discussions without any inhibitions. The teacher can have a recollection or discussion class after a lesson is done. The teacher can also have a personal contact with his/her students even in a large class.

Increase in Proficiency

E-learning increases the proficiency of the students by leading them towards self-directed and autonomous learning, for the basic aim of education at higher level is to make the learners independent.

Outcome of the Web-based Learning/Teaching in My Teaching

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- Students were exposed to new tools of learning.
- Most of them enjoyed the idea of sharing their knowledge with their teachers and peers.
- It was a collaborative learning.
- It was very lively and informative.
- They gained confidence in using new expressions and vocabulary.

Analysis of the Result

A total of 18 students who attended the web-based training were interviewed. It was a semi-structured interview. During the interview-discussion regarding the effectiveness of the web-based class it was found out that 60% felt that web-based training was effective, it catered to their needs. It worked as an addition to computer-aided learning. 20% felt, however, that it was not as effective as it appeared to be. They experienced several practical difficulties, such as not being able to type in a fast manner, lack of computer knowledge and not used to combine work and learning. 7% felt that it was not worth the time spent in the lab, for they did not know how to operate a computer. Thus they had not even heard about the possibility of learning through web. 7% who excelled in the field of technology started to use other websites like Google and Yahoo for searching extra notes for their prescribed texts. 6% felt that they are not learning anything, except using a computer.

Suggestions

A few suggestions may be listed here based on the analysis given above.

The teacher can give a topic for a project and ask students to work in groups or pairs and to discuss and post their reports in the Nicenet. The teacher can motivate the students with computer knowledge to do a certificate course in computer use so as to enable them to use computer-assisted learning. Students could be given a time-frame for submitting their work. After motivating them to create an e-mail id, the teacher can post his/her comments to each group member to his/her e-mail address. Both face to face learning and on- learning should be combined.

References

<http://www.nicenet.org/>

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